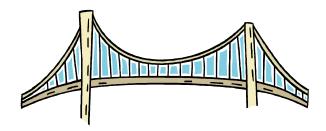
# Continuous Improvement Toolkit

## **Probability Distributions**



Managing **Deciding & Selecting Planning & Project Management\*** Pros and Cons **PDPC** Risk Importance-Urgency Mapping **RACI** Matrix **Stakeholders Analysis Break-even Analysis RAID** Logs FMEA **Cost** -Benefit Analysis PEST PERT/CPM **Activity Diagram** Force Field Analysis Fault Tree Analysis SWOT Voting Project Charter Roadmaps Pugh Matrix Gantt Chart Risk Assessment\* Decision Tree **TPN** Analysis **PDCA Control Planning** Matrix Diagram **Gap** Analysis OFD Traffic Light Assessment Kaizen **Prioritization Matrix** Hoshin Kanri Kano Analysis How-How Diagram **KPIs** Lean Measures Paired Comparison Tree Diagram\*\* Critical-to Tree Standard work **Identifying &** Capability Indices OEE Pareto Analysis Cause & Effect Matrix Simulation TPM Implementing RTY Descriptive Statistics MSA Mistake Proofing Solutions\*\*\* Confidence Intervals **Understanding** Cost of Quality **Cause & Effect Probability Distributions** ANOVA Pull Systems JIT Ergonomics **Design of Experiments** Reliability Analysis Graphical Analysis Hypothesis Testing Work Balancing Automation Regression Bottleneck Analysis Visual Management Scatter Plot Correlation Understanding **Run Charts** Multi-Vari Charts Flow Performance 5 Whys Chi-Square Test 5S **Control Charts** Value Analysis **Relations Mapping**\* Benchmarking Fishbone Diagram SMED Wastes Analysis Sampling TRIZ\*\*\* Process Redesign Brainstorming Focus groups Time Value Map **Interviews** Analogy SCAMPER\*\*\* IDEF0 Photography Nominal Group Technique SIPOC Mind Mapping\* Value Stream Mapping **Check Sheets** Attribute Analysis Flow Process Chart Process Mapping Affinity Diagram **Measles Charts** Surveys Visioning Flowcharting Service Blueprints Lateral Thinking **Data** Critical Incident Technique Collection Creating Ideas\*\* **Designing & Analyzing Processes** Observations

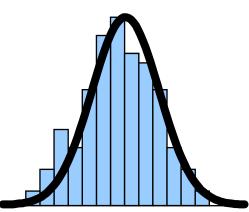
- Probability distributions provide the bridge between descriptive and inferential statistics.
- □ They are mathematical models that we use to model real-life data distribution.
- Once we have found the appropriate model, we can use it for prediction purposes.



- □ Probability runs on a scale of 0 to 1.
- A probability of 0 means 'it will definitely not happen'.
  - **Example:** what is the probability that you will be the king of England?
- A probability of 1 means 'it is certain to happen'.
  - **Example:** what is the probability that the sun will rise tomorrow?

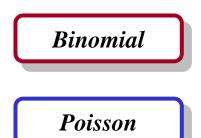


- ❑ When dealing with process improvement, we generally have only samples to work with.
- A sampling distribution is the probability distribution of a given statistic based on a random sample.
- To draw conclusions from sample data, we compare values obtained from our sample with the theoretical values obtained from the probability distribution.
- We need to be sufficiently confident before we take any decision.
- This "Confidence level" is often set at 95% or 99%.



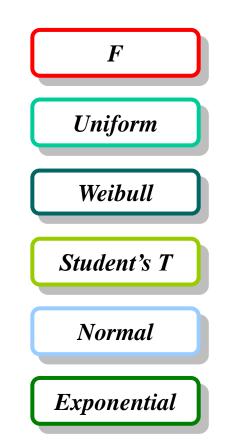
#### **Probability Distributions Types - Discrete Distributions:**

- □ Deals with data that can take specific values.
- □ Count and Attribute data worlds.
- Two common discrete probability distributions: Binomial & Poisson.
- **Examples:** 
  - The number of defective items in a sample.
  - The number of defects found in a single product.



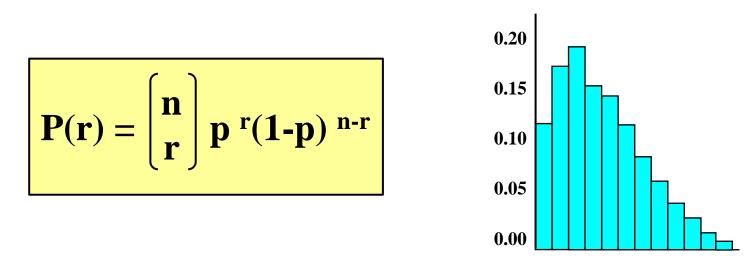
#### **Probability Distributions Types - Continuous Distributions:**

- □ Relate to data which can take any value.
- There are a number of different distribution models and shapes.
- □ The commonest is the Normal distribution.
- The Exponential and Weibull distributions are widely used in the field of reliability engineering.



#### **The Binomial Distribution:**

- Used for data which can only take on of two values: pass/fail, yes/no, etc.
- **Example:** 
  - Taking 15 samples from a large batch which is say 4% defective.

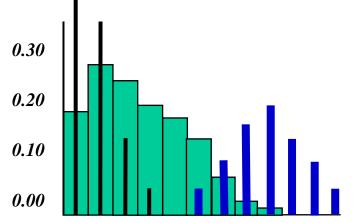


#### **The Poisson Distribution:**

- Used for data where there may be any number of defects in a given item.
- There must be a defined interval or area of opportunity (e.g. per sample).

#### **Examples:**

- The number of incoming calls per hour to a call center.
- The number of failures per month for a specific equipment.
- The number of accident per year in a factory.

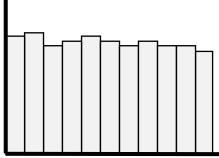


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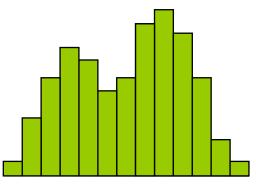
#### **The Uniform Distribution:**

- □ Describes variables that have a constant probability.
- Does not occur often in nature, but it is important as a reference distribution.
- An example of the discrete uniform distribution is throwing a dice.
- □ The possible values are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and each time the dice is thrown the probability of a given score is 1/6.



#### **The Bimodal Distribution:**

- □ Continuous probability distribution with two different modes.
- If observations are taken from different populations, multimodality may result.
- **Example:** 
  - Taking samples from two shifts.
  - The operators may setup the machine up differently.
- A multimodal distribution is a continuous probability distribution with two or more modes.

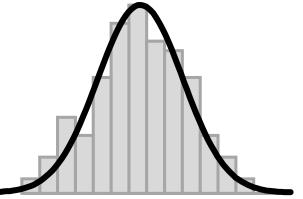


#### **The Normal Distribution:**

- □ A Normal distribution is a commonly occurring distribution.
- Natural phenomena, physical quantities and industrial processes follow approximately the Normal distribution.
- □ Often used in the natural and social sciences.
- If the normal distribution is applicable, it can be used to estimate future process performance.

### **Examples:**

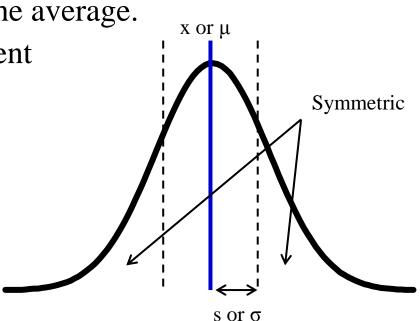
- Product thickness and weight.
- Water purity and temperature.
- Dimensions and test results.



#### **The Normal Distribution:**

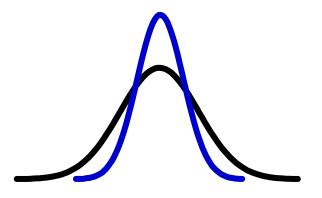
- □ It is symmetrical with most of the results in the middle and fewer toward the extremes.
- □ Fully defined by its mean and standard deviation.
- □ The peak of the curve represents the average.
- The spread of the curve is equivalent to six times the standard deviation of the process.

Symmetrical Bell shaped Centred on the mean



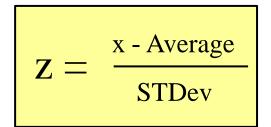
#### **The Normal Distribution:**

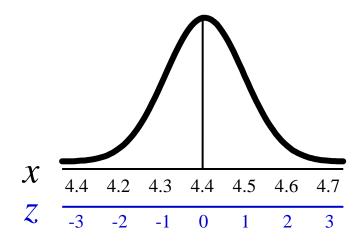
- □ Uses a continuous curve to describe probabilities.
- The normal curve is based on the average and standard deviation of the histogram.
- □ A wider-flatter curve demonstrates more variation in the process.
- □ In theory, the normal distribution never ends but in practice, most results fall within +/- 3 Sigma.



#### **The Standard Normal Distribution:**

- $\Box$  Has a mean = zero, and a standard deviation = 1.
- Any normally distributed data can be converted to standard normal distribution.
- □ For any point 'x', the 'Z-value' is the number of standard deviations of that point from the mean.
- The area between two values gives the proportion of results that will occur between the two points.
- This calculation can give us a sense of the probability to make inferences about a population.



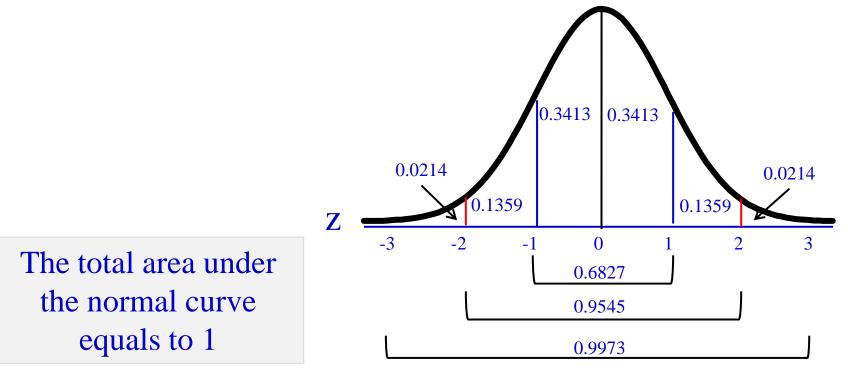


#### The Z-table:

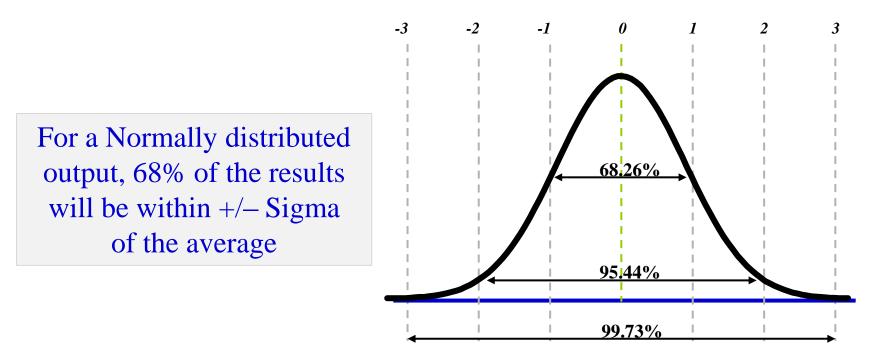
- □ The complex shape of the normal curve has been converted into a mathematical table called the Z-Table.
- □ Used to find the probability that a statistic is observed below, above, or between values on the standard normal distribution.
- □ It is a common practice to convert a normal to a standard normal and then use the standard normal table to find probabilities.
- Using the Z-table, we can determine for example the proportion of outputs greater that the process average.



□ The Z-value measures the sample distance from the population mean, calculated in standard deviations.

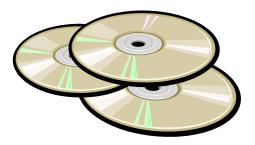


□ If the normal distribution is applicable, it can be used to estimate future process performance.



#### **Example:**

- A test run of 100 CDs has been made and the thickness results has the average of 1.35mm and a standard deviation of 0.06.
- None of the tested CDs were above the upper specification limit of 1.5mm. However the Normal curve on the histogram still extends beyond.

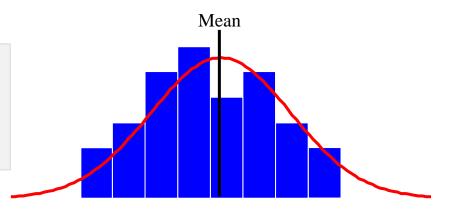


- □ This suggests that over the long-term some CDs will be oversize.
- Given that the Normal distribution can be used, what is the probability that we will have defected CDs in the long term?
- $\Box$  The Z-table predicts the area under the curve to be 0.6%.
- □ This is different and a better prediction than the 0% predicted earlier.

#### Several tools are available to help test data for normality:

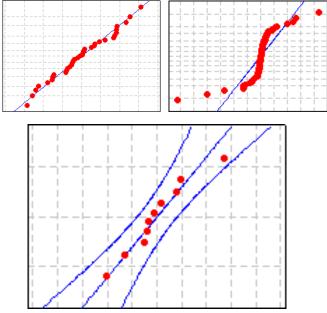
- Histograms.
- Normal probability plots.
- Anderson-Darling normality test.

Histograms are efficient graphical methods for describing the distribution of data.



#### **Probability Plots:**

- Provide a more decisive approach for deciding if a data set fits the normal distribution.
- Constructed in a way that the points will fall in a straight line if they fit the distribution question (e.g. Normal).
- A Normal distribution will form a straight line that falls between the 95% the CI limits.



**Normal Probability Plots** 

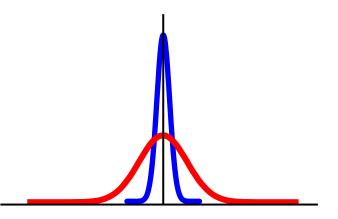
#### **Normal Distribution Other Characteristics:**

#### **Skewness:**

- It is a measure of departure from symmetry.
- Distributions may be skewed to the right (positive skew) or to the left (negative skew).

### Kurtosis:

- It is a measure of the extent to which a distribution is flat-topped or peaked.
- A positive value indicates a more peaked distribution than Normal.



#### **Further Considerations:**

- □ Left skewed distributions may occur where the process has a physical upper limit or only has an upper specification limit.
- Example: the arrival time of job application since most job vacancies have a deadline and most applications arrive just before the deadline.
- Right skewed distributions are typically found when measuring time.
- This is because there is usually natural lower limit to how fact a process can be completed.
- **Examples:** The time for processing a job application.

#### **Further Considerations:**

- □ It is important to understand the Normal distribution so that tools and techniques can be applied in a statistical valid manner.
- Where the Normal distribution is important:
  - In Capability Analysis: to make prediction about the process capability over the long term.
  - In SPC: certain charts require the data to be Normally distributed.
  - In Hypothesis Testing: many tests are based on the assumption that the data is Normally distributed.
  - **In Regression:** if the residual errors are Normally distributed, this indicates the regression model fits the data well.
  - In Confidence Intervals and Design of Experiments.