Continuous Improvement Toolkit

Hypothesis



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 Understanding Correlation **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

- Statistic is the science of describing, interpreting and analyzing data.
- **Statistics Types:**
 - Graphical Statistics:

Makes the numbers visible.

• Inferential Statistics:



Makes inferences about populations from sample data.

Analytical Statistics:

Uses math to model and predict variation.

Descriptive Statistics:

Describes characteristics of the data (central tendency, spread).

 A statistical hypothesis is a claim about a population parameter.



- It is a test that would find statistical answers to questions about our processes, products or services.
- □ Hypothesis testing can tell us:
 - □ How certain / confident we can be in our decision.
 - □ Our risk of being wrong.
- □ There is always a chance of being wrong.
- □ We have now the way of measuring this risk.

It Should Be Based On:

Our knowledge of the process:

□ Such as how a process has performed in the past.

The customers expectations:

Such as how the customer would expect the performance of the product.



The Hypothesis Will Help Answer Questions Such As:

- □ Is there is a difference between the process waiting line across different regions?
- Is there is a difference between the customer satisfaction levels for different products.
- Is there is a difference between the expensive software packages that the company will invest in?
- □ Is there is a difference between the suppliers of a specific material?



Hypothesis Flow:



□ In inferential statistics, we have two hypotheses:

- □ The null hypotheses.
- **The alternative hypotheses.**
- The null hypotheses is a hypotheses
 that usually states that a population parameter equals a specified
 value or a parameter from another population.



- □ The Alternative Hypotheses is the opposite of null hypothesis.
- Sometimes the Alternative Hypothesis is greater than or less than some value.
- A hypothesis test does not tell how big that difference is, but only that it is there.
- Remember, we are not proving the Alternative Hypothesis, we are just seeking enough evidence to disprove the Null Hypothesis.



- We can make two possible conclusions after analyzing our data:
 - □ **Reject the null hypothesis** and claim statistical significance.
 - Fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that we do not have enough evidence to claim that the alternative hypothesis is true.
- We are making our decision using sample data rather than the entire population, therefore, we can never accept the null hypothesis because we can never be absolutely certain whether it is true.



Example:

- □ A researcher want to evaluate the effectiveness of their product by comparing it against the industry standard elasticity of 3.10.
- □ Their Null Hypothesis is that the mean elasticity is equal to 3.10.
- The Alternative Hypothesis is opposite, that the mean elasticity is not equal to 3.10.
- We might say the alternative hypothesis to be greater than $3.10 \ (\mu > 3.10)$.



Example:

- A plant has just receive a shipment of 6,000 timing belts.
- Before sending these belts into production, a quality technician wants to examine them to see whether they meet the required specification (*The width of the belts of one inch*).
- □ What is the null and the alternative hypotheses?

The Null Hypothesis \rightarrow The width of the belts equals one inch. **The Alternative Hypothesis** \rightarrow The width does not equal one inch.

- When we conduct a hypothesis test, our results include a test statistic and a p-value.
- The p-value is used to determine if we should reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis.
- A practical definition: p-value is your confidence in the Null Hypothesis.
- □ When it's low, 'reject the null'.
- As the p-value comes down, the confidence in rejecting the Null Hypothesis goes up.



- The green shaded region represents the probability of rejecting a null hypotheses that is true.
- **\Box** This probability is called **alpha** (α).
- \Box We should always select **alpha** (α) before performing the test.
- Alpha (α) is the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis that is true.
- It's the level that the p-value must drop below if you are to 'reject the null' and decide there is a difference.





- To make a decision about the null hypothesis, we compare the p-value to alpha (α).
- **P-value** is the area to the right of the test statistic.
- **\Box** If **p-value** is less that or equal **alpha** (α):
 - □ Reject the null hypothesis.
 - The results are statistically significant.



Example:

Suppose alpha (α) is 0.05 and the p-value is 0.091?
 Would we reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis?

 \Box We would fail to reject H₀ as **p-value** > **alpha** (α).



How Do You Decide the Required Confidence?

- □ Consider the rusks of making the wrong decision.
- □ This will often depend on the environment you are working in.
- □ This will also depend on the decision you are trying to make.
- Working in a safety critical environment such as a hospital or a chemical factory would require a higher confidence in your decision.



□ What are the consequences of a wrong decision?



Decision	Defendant isDefendant isInnocentGuilty					
Acquit	Correct decision Type II error					
Convict	Type I error	Correct decision				
Decision	H ₀ is True	H_0 is False				
Fail to Reject H ₀	Correct decision	Type II error (β)				
Reject H ₀	Type I error (α)	Correct decision				

- □ A type I error (α) is the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis that is true.
- **A type II error** (β) is failing to reject a false null hypothesis.
- □ We can increase the chances of making the right decision by increasing the **power** of the hypothesis test.
- Power is the likelihood that we will find a significant effect when one exists.

Power =
$$1 - \beta$$

□ The factors that will affect the **power** of the test are:

- □ Sample size.
- □ Population differences.
- □ Variability.
- □ Alpha level.



Statistical vs. Practical Significance:

- A production line manager attempts to reduce production time by modifying the process.
- □ He compares the production time of the old process with the production time of the new process.
- □ If the difference between the two times is five seconds, is it worth the cost of implementing the process change?
- □ Just because our results are statistically significant doesn't mean that they are practically significant.
- Always consider the practical significance of the results and your knowledge of the process before reaching a conclusion.



Hypothesis Testing Techniques:

- □ 1-sample t-test.
- □ 2 Variances test.
- □ 2-sample t-test.
- □ Paired t-test.
- □ 1 Proportion test.
- □ 2 Proportion test.
- □ Chi-Square test.



1-Sample t-test:

- □ Used to determine whether the population mean is equal to a hypothesized value.
- Data are numeric, random and from a normally distributed population.
- Example: Determine if a call center is meeting its average resolution time goal.



- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect a random sample data from the population.
- 3- Conduct the t-test and interpret the results.

2-Sample t-test:

- □ Used to determine whether two population means are equal.
- It require two independent random samples of numeric data from normally distributed populations.
- Example: Compare the durability of a new supplier's relay switches to the durability of the old supplier.



- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect random data sample from the 2 populations.
- 3- Conduct the 2-sample t-test and interpret the results.

2 Variances Test:

- Determine if 2 population have equal variances.
- □ Requires tow independent, random samples of numeric data.
- □ We use **F-test** for normally distributed population, if not, we use **Levene's test**.
- □ **Example:** Determine if the variability in delivery times for 2 companies is the same.



- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect random data samples from the 2 population.
- 3- Conduct the 2 variances test and interpret the results.

Paired t-test:

- □ Used to compare the means of 2 dependent population.
- Data should be paired, numeric, come from random samples and are from a normally distributed population.
- □ **Example:** The power output of the same engines before and after being treated with a fuel additive.

Approach:

- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect random samples of data from the two dependent populations.
- 3- Conduct the test & interpret the results.



1 Proportion Test:

- Used to determine whether a population proportion is equal to a hypothesis value.
- The 1 proportion test requires that we have binary data which can only take one of two values, such as "Pass" or "Fail", "Male" or "Female", or "Yes" or "No".
- □ Example: Determine if a company is losing market share in specific demographic.

- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect a random data sample from the population.
- 3- Conduct the 1 proportion test & interpret the results.

2 Proportion Test:

- Used to determine whether the proportion of one population is equal to the proportion of another one.
- □ The 2 proportion test also requires that we have binary data which can only take one of two values, such as "Pass" or "Fail ".
- □ We assume the data are random, binary and independent, and the proportion of interest is constant.
- **Example:** Compare the defect rates of 2 machines.

- 1- Establish the Null and Alternative Hypothesis.
- 2- Collect random sample from each population.
- 3- Conduct the 2 proportion test & interpret the results.

Chi-square Test:

- □ Used to determine whether the levels of one categorical variable are related to the levels of another.
- □ Each trial must have the same number of possible outcomes.
- Two test statistics: The Pearson chi-square and the likelihood ratio chi-square.
- Example: Compare the defect rates for production of four different products at three different locations.

- 1- Establish the null and alternative hypothesis.
- 2- Collect random sample from the population.
- 3- Conduct the Chi-square test & interpret the results.

Example:

- A Gas Filler company wants to evaluate whether gas tanks are being filled properly.
- As gas liquid expands once heated, the tanks must be filled to only 80% capacity to allow room for possible liquid expansion in hot days.
- \Box When the tank is 80% full, it holds 20 pounds of gas.
- □ We want to test the null hypothesis that the mean weight of gas tanks is 20 pounds.
- □ What Hypotheses test to be used?



Example:

- □ We will used the 1-Sample t-test.
- □ The null hypothesis: Mean weight = 20 pounds.
- □ The alternative hypothesis: Mean weight <> 20 pounds.
- □ We will collect a random data.

Weight 24.1 18.9 15.6 16.9 20.6

□ We'll interpret the results, suppose that **alpha** (α) = 0.05

	One-Sam	One-Sample T: Weight							
	Test of m	Test of mu = 20 vs not = 20							
•	Variable	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean	95% CI	Т	Р	
	Weight	25	18.0560	3.5294	0.7059	(16.5991, 19.5129)	-2.75	0.011	
12 14 16 18 20 22 24 Weight									

We should reject the null hypothesis. There is sufficient statistical evidence to claim the population mean is not equal to 20 pounds.

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