

# Introduction to Probability

## Part 1

**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objectives:**

Describe the concept of probability

Use the rules of probability to perform  
basic probability calculations

# Probability Definitions

- **Probability** is the chance that an event will or will not occur. The terms are typically expressed in fractions or decimals.
- An **event** is one or more of the possible outcomes of a situation or experiment

# Probability Definitions

- An **experiment** is an activity which produces an event.
- **Sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes from an experiment

# Probability Definitions

- Events are termed **mutually exclusive** when one and only one can take place at the same time.
- **Collectively Exhaustive** refers to lists containing all of the possible events which may result from an experiment.

# Classical Probability

- The probability that an event will occur

where

- $P$  = Probability of an event
- $N$  = Number of outcomes where the event occurs
- $S$  = Total Number of possible outcomes; and where each of the possible outcomes are equally likely

# Rules / Conditions of Probability

Typical conditions of concern:

- The case where one event **or** another will occur
- The situation with two or more events where **both** may occur

# Marginal or Unconditional Probability

$P(A)$  = the probability  $P$  of event  $A$  occurring

Where a single probability is involved, only one event can take place



# Marginal or Unconditional Probability Example

A production lot of 100 parts contains one defective part. What is the  $P$  of selecting one part randomly from the lot, and drawing the defective?

# Marginal or Unconditional Probability Example

$$P(D) = \frac{1}{100} = 0.01 = 1.0\%$$

# Addition Rule for Mutually Exclusive Events

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

# **Addition Rule for Mutually Exclusive Events Example**

- Suppose an investigator has planned to run an experiment, where they wish to select two machines randomly from the ten units on the floor for testing.

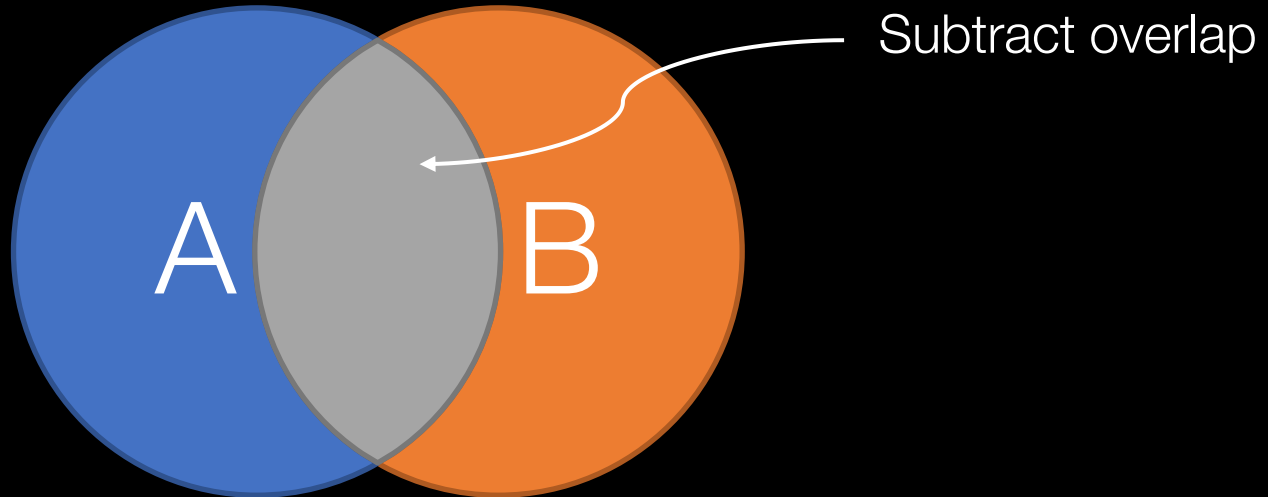
# Addition Rule for Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- If each machine is numbered from 1 to 10, what is the probability that machine 4 or 8 will be selected on a single draw?
- $P(4 \text{ or } 8) = P(4) + P(8)$

$$= \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{2}{10} = 0.2 \text{ or } 20\%$$

# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A+B)$$



# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- Given a mixed lot with the following characteristics:

| Vendor   | # Defective | # Not Defective |
|----------|-------------|-----------------|
| Vendor A | 15          | 85              |
| Vendor B | 10          | 55              |

# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- What is the probability, on a single random draw, of selecting a part from Vendor A or a defective part?



# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- If we were to simply use  $P(A) + P(B)$ , then

# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- Note, however, that there are 15 more parts credited to the total than should be!

| Vendor   | # Defective | # Not Defective |
|----------|-------------|-----------------|
| Vendor A | 15          | 85              |
| Vendor B | 10          | 55              |

# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- $P(A \text{ and } B) =$
- So,  $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A+B)$

# Addition Rule for Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example

- $P(\text{Vendor A or Defective}) =$

# Sources

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- Luftig, J. An Introduction to Statistical Process Control & Capability. Luftig & Associates, Inc. Farmington Hills, MI, 1982
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- Luftig, J. A Quality Improvement Strategy for Critical Product and Process Characteristics. Luftig & Associates, Inc. Farmington Hills, MI, 1991
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# Introduction to Probability

## Part 2

**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objectives:**

Discriminate between marginal, joint and conditional probabilities

Discriminate between independent and dependent events

## **Learning objectives:**

Calculate marginal, joint, and conditional probability under independent and dependent conditions.



# Statistical Independence and Dependence

- Events which are statistically independent are those where the outcome of one event has no effect on the outcome of the second event

# Statistical Independence and Dependence

- Events which effect subsequent events are termed dependent.

# Independent Conditions – Marginal Probability

- $P(A)$  Independent Event (e.g. coin toss)

# Independent Conditions – Joint Probability

- The probability of two or more events occurring together (or in succession) is the product of their marginal probabilities
- $P(AB) = P(A) \times P(B)$ , where

# Independent Conditions – Joint Probability

- $P(AB)$  = probability of events A and B occurring together or in succession; joint probability
- $P(A)$  = marginal probability of (A)
- $P(B)$  = marginal probability of (B)

# Independent Conditions – Joint Probability Example 1

- The probability of a machine operator producing a defective part at any point in time is 0.05. What is the probability that three bad parts will be produced in succession?

# Independent Conditions – Joint Probability Example 1

- $P(ABC) = P(A) \times P(B) \times P(C)$
- $P(3 \text{ Defectives}) = P(\text{Def}) \times P(\text{Def}) \times P(\text{Def})$
- $P(3 \text{ Def}) = 0.05 \times 0.05 \times 0.05$
- $P(3 \text{ Def}) = 0.000125$

# Independent Conditions – Conditional Probability

- $P(B|A)$  = Probability of event B occurring, given that A has occurred.
- $P(B|A) = P(B)$ ...because A and B are independent!



# Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability

- Note that this is equivalent to calculating the probability of the part being defective, given a sample space of B, after A has been drawn.

# Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability Example

- Assuming a randomly selected part is from Vendor A, what is the P that it is also defective?

| Vendor   | # Defective | # Not Defective | Total      |
|----------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| Vendor A | 15          | 85              | 100        |
| Vendor B | 10          | 55              | 65         |
| Total    | 25          | 140             | <b>165</b> |

# **Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability Example**

# Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability Example

| Vendor   | # Defective | # Not Defective | Total      |
|----------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| Vendor A | 15          | 85              | 100        |
| Vendor B | 10          | 55              | 65         |
| Total    | 25          | 140             | <b>165</b> |

- Note: This is the same as observing that given the 15 defectives out of 100 Vendor A parts, then

# Dependent Conditions

Note also that the  $P(\text{Defective and Vendor A})$  constitutes a **joint** probability under statistical dependence. Creating a table of **joint**  $P$  values for the sample space:

| Event                      | P      | Fraction         |
|----------------------------|--------|------------------|
| Vendor A and Defective     | 0.0909 | $\frac{15}{165}$ |
| Vendor A and Not Defective | 0.5151 | $\frac{85}{165}$ |
| Vendor B and Defective     | 0.0606 | $\frac{10}{165}$ |
| Vendor B and Not Defective | 0.3333 | $\frac{55}{165}$ |

# Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability Example

- As a second example, assume that a non-defective part has been drawn. What is the  $P$  that it is from Vendor B?

# Dependent Conditions – Conditional Probability Example

- Note that should a non-defective part have been selected, the  $P$  of it being a part from Vendor B is

# Joint Probabilities Under Statistical Dependence

- The formula for joint probabilities under statistical dependence is a variation of the conditional probability formula



# Joint Probabilities Under Statistical Dependence

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(BA)}{P(A)} \longrightarrow P(BA) = P(B|A) \times P(A)$$

Noting that  $\longrightarrow P(BA) = P(AB)$

And that  $P(BA)$  = P of events B and A happening together or in succession

# Joint Probabilities Under Statistical Dependence Example

- As an example, we can check any of the joint probability calculations from the joint P table; for example,
- $P(A \text{ and Def}) = 0.0909$  or  $15/165$

# Joint Probabilities Under Statistical Dependence Example

$$P(BA) = P(B|A) \times P(A)$$

$$P(BA) = \frac{P(BA)}{P(A)} \times P(A)$$

$$\frac{P(A \text{ and } Def)}{P(Def)} \times P(Def) = \frac{0.0909}{0.1515} \times 0.1515 = 0.0909$$

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# Probability Distributions

## Part1

**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objective:**

Describe the concept of a probability distribution

# Probability Distributions

- Probability distributions are theoretical frequency distributions which are collectively exhaustive.

# Probability Distributions

- For example, suppose we have historical evidence to show that a particular vendor will provide a defective part to us 20 times out of 100. Therefore, the P of receiving a Defective part (D) is:



# Probability Distributions

- Let us determine the probabilities associated with any two parts randomly drawn from a large production lot. Given:

| 1 <sup>st</sup> Part | 2 <sup>nd</sup> Part | # Def. @ 2 parts | P    |
|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|------|
| D (0.20)             | ND (0.80)            | 1                | 0.16 |
| D (0.20)             | D (0.20)             | 2                | 0.04 |
| ND (0.80)            | D (0.20)             | 1                | 0.16 |
| ND (0.80)            | ND (0.80)            | 0                | 0.64 |
|                      |                      | Total            | 1.00 |

# Probability Distributions

- We can now create a probability distribution conforming to our theoretical expectation for two parts so that:

| # of Defectives | Draws             | P(D) |
|-----------------|-------------------|------|
| 0               | (ND, ND)          | 0.64 |
| 1               | (ND, D) + (D, ND) | 0.32 |
| 2               | (D,D)             | 0.04 |

# Probability Distributions

In R / Rstudio

```
> table.dist.binomial(n, p)
```

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# Probability Distributions

## Part 2

**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objectives:**

Discriminate between discrete and continuous probability distributions

Identify the probability distributions most commonly used in decision making

# Types of Probability Distributions

- Discrete – A discrete probability distribution is one where there are a limited number of possible values

# Types of Probability Distributions

- Continuous – A continuous probability distribution has relatively unlimited possibilities for variable values



# Random Variables

A random variable is one which can take on different values as a result of the outcomes of a random experiment.

Random variables, further, can be either discrete or continuous.

# Probability Distribution for Discrete Random Variable

- Assume that an automated process produces between 50 and 60 parts per day. During a two month production period, daily production levels (DP) were noted and the following data were generated:

| Daily Production (DP) | # of Days       | P(DP) |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-------|
| 50                    | 1               | 0.027 |
| 51                    | 2               | 0.054 |
| 52                    | 2               | 0.054 |
| 53                    | 3               | 0.081 |
| 54                    | 5               | 0.135 |
| 55                    | 7               | 0.189 |
| 56                    | 6               | 0.162 |
| 57                    | 4               | 0.108 |
| 58                    | 4               | 0.108 |
| 59                    | 2               | 0.054 |
| 60                    | 1               | 0.027 |
|                       | $\Sigma f = 37$ | 1.000 |

# Probability Distribution for Discrete Random Variable

R / Rstudio

```
> frequency.dist.grouped( )
```

# Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable

- One of the most important factors related to **any** probability distribution is the ability to define the **expected value** of a random variable.

# Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable

- The expected value of a discrete random variable is the weighted average of the expected outcomes.

| Daily Production (DP) | P     | Weighted P Value (DP x P) |
|-----------------------|-------|---------------------------|
| 50                    | 0.027 | 1.351                     |
| 51                    | 0.054 | 2.757                     |
| 52                    | 0.054 | 2.811                     |
| 53                    | 0.081 | 4.297                     |
| 54                    | 0.135 | 7.297                     |
| 55                    | 0.189 | 10.405                    |
| 56                    | 0.162 | 9.081                     |
| 57                    | 0.108 | 6.162                     |
| 58                    | 0.108 | 6.270                     |
| 59                    | 0.054 | 3.189                     |
| 60                    | 0.027 | 1.621                     |
|                       | Sum   | 55.243                    |

# Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable

- Therefore,  $E(DP) = 55.243$



# Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable

R / R Studio

```
> weighted.mean(x,y)
```

OR

```
> mean( )
```

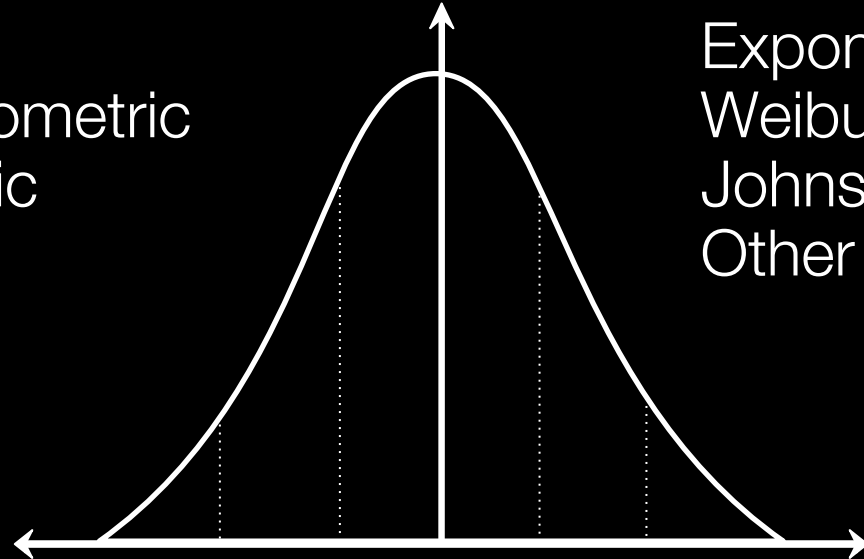
# Some Commonly-Employed Probability Distributions

## Discrete

Binomial  
Poisson  
Hypergeometric  
Geometric

## Continuous

Normal  
Exponential  
Weibull Family  
Johnson Family  
Other Distributions



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# The Binomial Distribution

**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objectives:**

Describe the Binomial probability distribution

Calculate probabilities using the Binomial distribution

# The Binomial Distribution

- The Binomial distribution relates to a discrete random variable (nominal data).
- The basis of this distribution is the Bernoulli process.

# The Bernoulli Process

- Each trial or experiment has **only two** possible outcomes
- The  $P$  of any and all outcomes remains **fixed** over time
- The trials or experiments are statistically **independent**

# The Binomial Formula

$$P(r \text{ in } n \text{ trials}) = \left[ \frac{n!}{r! (n - r)!} \right] [p^r][q^{n-r}]$$

where

p = probability of occurrence

q = 1 - p = probability of failure

r = number of occurrences desired

n = number of trials



# Binomial Example

- A vendor frequently ships 2 bad parts out of 10.
- Suppose the vendor ships our company 50 parts. If we tell them that at least 9 parts out of 10 must be good, and nothing in their manufacturing process has changed, what is the  $P$  that we will receive what we asked for?

# Binomial Example

- $p = 0.80$ ,  $q = 0.20$ ,  $r = 45$ ,  $n = 50$

$$P(45 \text{ in } 50) = \left[ \frac{50!}{45! (50 - 45)!} \right] [0.8^{45}] [0.2^5]$$
$$= 0.02953$$

# Binomial Example

- What if we wanted to know the probability of getting at least 9 out of 10 good parts in the shipment of 50?  $P \geq 45$ ?
- We would sum the following:
- $P(45) + P(46) + P(47) + P(48) + P(49) + P(50)$

# Probability Distributions

In R / Rstudio

```
> table.dist.binomial(n, p)
```

```
> pbinom( )
```

# The Poisson Distribution

- This probability distribution is for discrete random variables which can take integer (whole) values (ordinal data).

# Poisson Data Examples

- The number of parts produced during a 10 minute period
- The number of breakdowns per shift
- The number of failures per 100 cycles

# The Poisson Formula

$$P(X) = \frac{\lambda^X}{X!} e^{-\lambda}$$

where

$P(X)$  = probability exactly  $X$  occurrences

$\lambda$  = Mean number of occurrences per time interval (or unit)

$e = 2.71828$

# Poisson Example

- $\lambda = 25$  parts produced per hour
- $X = 10$  parts produced in one hour

$$P(10) = \frac{25^{10}}{10!} e^{-25}$$

$$= 0.0000365$$



# Probability Distributions

In R / Rstudio

```
> table.dist.poisson( $\lambda$ )
```

```
> ppois( )
```

# Test for Poisson Distribution

In R / Rstudio

```
> poisson.dist.test( )
```

# Sources

- Luftig, J. An Introduction to Statistical Process Control & Capability. Luftig & Associates, Inc. Farmington Hills, MI, 1982

# The Poisson Distribution

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## **Learning objectives:**

Describe the Poisson probability distribution

Calculate probabilities using the Poisson distribution

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# Poisson Data Examples

- The number of parts produced during a 10 minute period
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# Poisson Example

- $\lambda = 25$  parts produced per hour
- $X = 10$  parts produced in one hour

$$P(10) = \frac{25^{10}}{10!} e^{-25}$$

$$= 0.0000365$$

# The Poisson Distribution in R

In R / Rstudio

```
> table.dist.poisson( $\lambda$ )
```

```
> ppois( )
```

# Test for Poisson Distribution

In R / Rstudio

```
> poisson.dist.test( )
```

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# The Normal Distribution

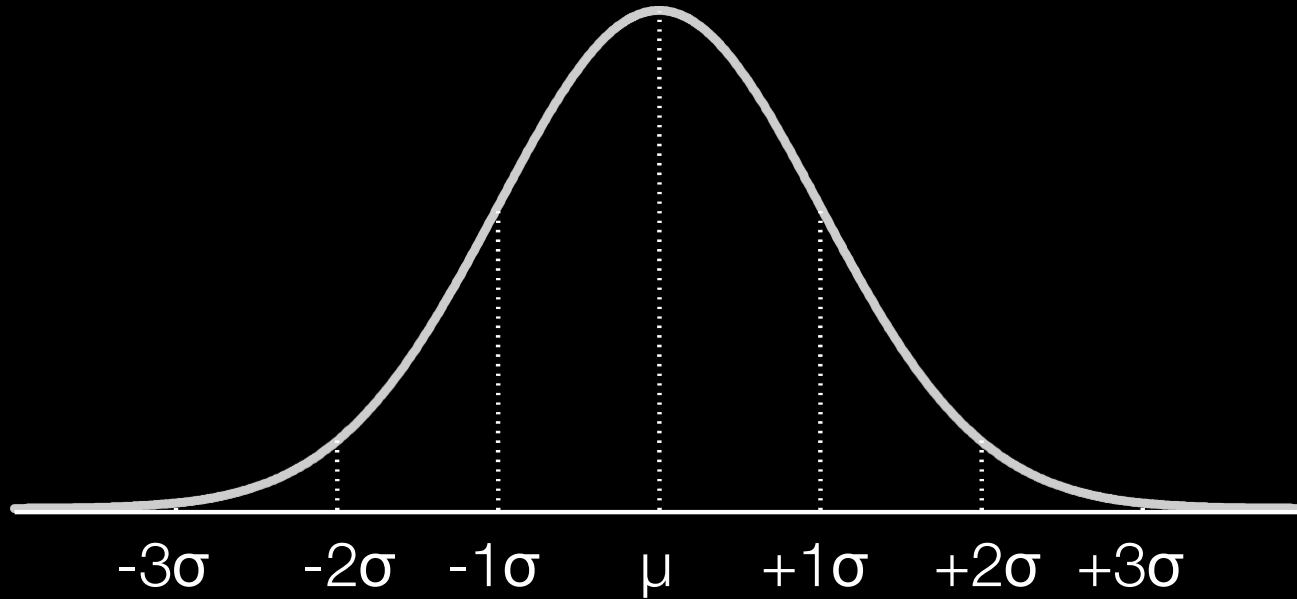
**Data Science for Quality Management:  
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## **Learning objectives:**

Describe the Normal probability distribution

Calculate probabilities using the standard normal distribution

# The Normal Distribution

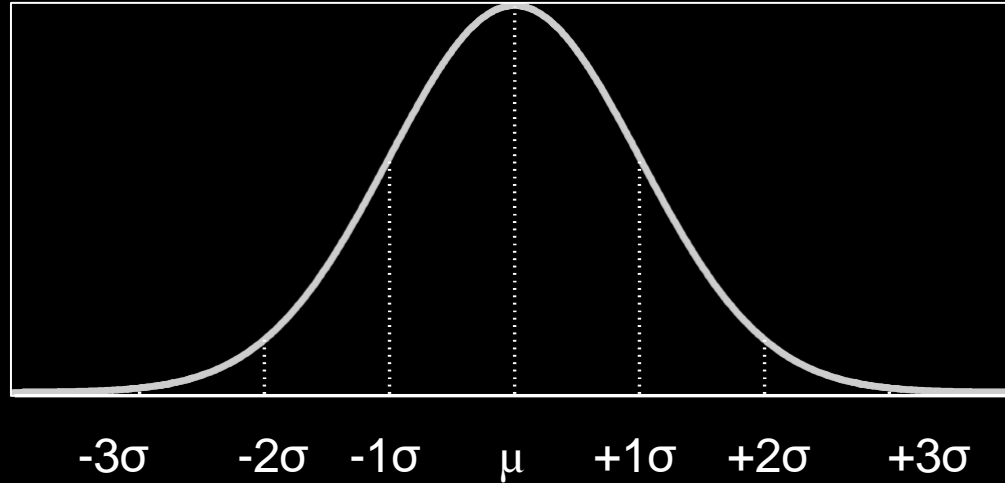


# The Normal Distribution

- A theoretical probability distribution for a continuous random variable
- Sometimes (inappropriately) referred to as the bell-shaped curve or distribution
- One of the most important distributions because of its wide range of practical applications

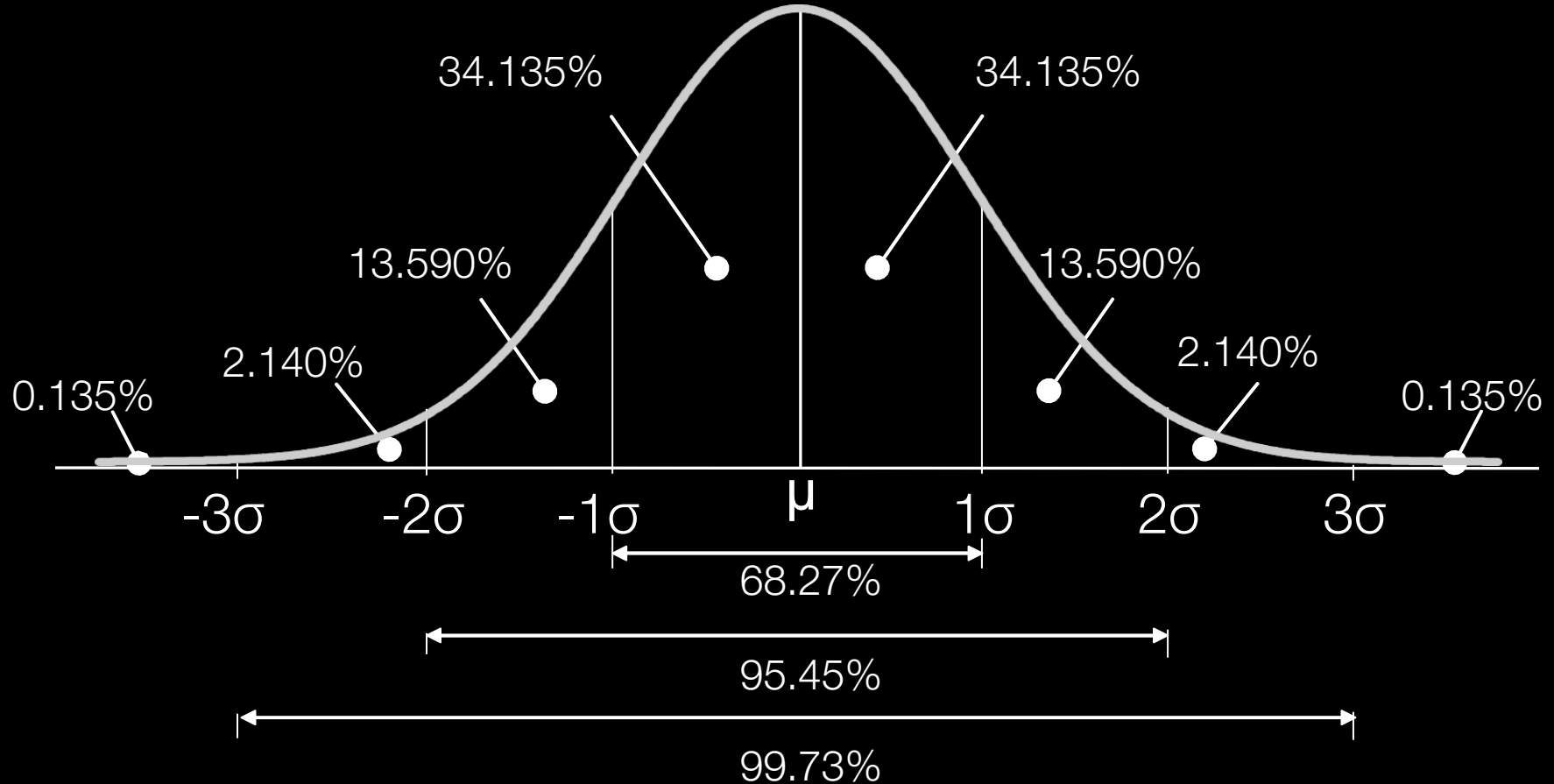


# The Normal Distribution

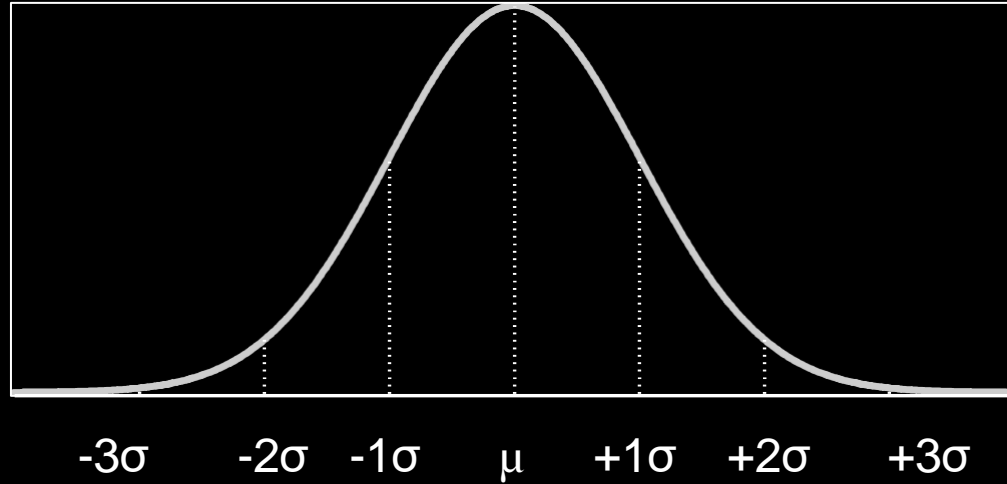


1. Mean = Median = Mode
2. Symmetrical around  $\mu$
3. Tails extend to  $\infty$   
but never touch the horizontal axis
4.  $\gamma_3 = 0.00$
5.  $\gamma_4 = 0.00$
6. Areas under the curve are predictable  
based upon standard deviation values.

# Areas Under the Normal Curve



# The Normal Distribution



$$f(X) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[ -\frac{(X - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

# Area Calculations

- The area corresponding to any score value may be found using a z-score, where

$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

- Z is the number of standard deviation units from X to  $\mu$

# Example

- To date, tooling used on a particular drilling process has lasted an average of 180 hours before requiring replacement, with a standard deviation of 5 hours.

# Example

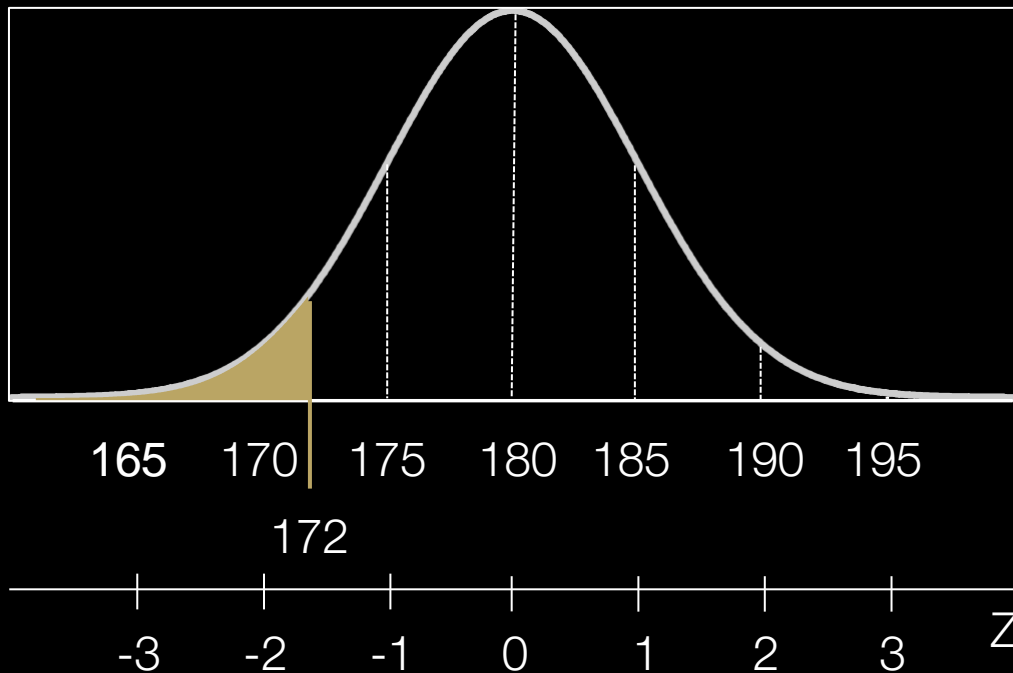
- What is the probability that a tool selected at random from the tool crib will last less than 172 hours before replacement is required?

# Example

$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

$$z = \frac{172 - 180}{5}$$

$$z = -1.60$$



# Normal Distribution in RStudio

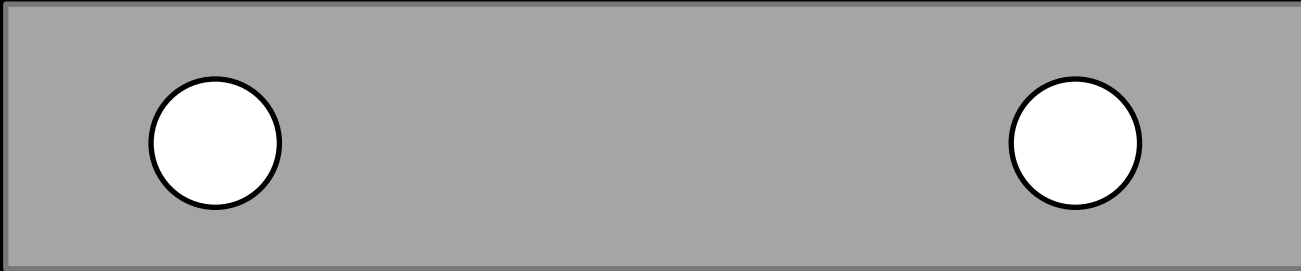
In R / Rstudio

```
> pnorm(q, mean, sd, lower.tail)
```



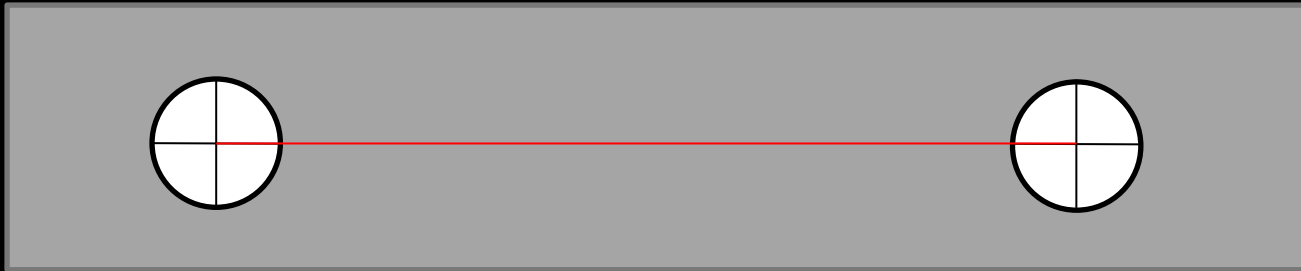
## Example 2

- A stamping operation has been running consistently, punching two holes in sheet metal.



## Example 2

- The center-to-center distance between the two holes has been an average ( $\mu$ ) of 5.20mm, with a standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) of 0.05mm.



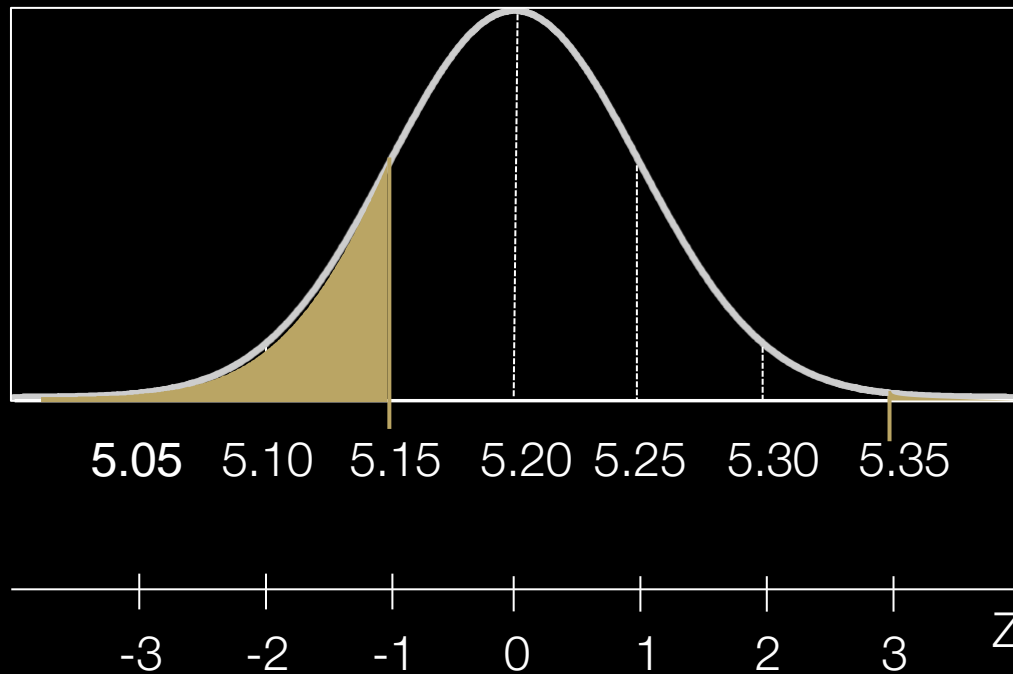
## Example 2

- The process produces center-to-center distances that can be modeled with a normal distribution.

## Example 2

- The specifications for these parts require a maximum, or upper (USL), limit of 5.35mm and a minimum, or lower (LSL), limit of 5.15mm.
- What percentage of the manufactured parts are likely to fall outside of the specifications?

# Example



$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

# Normal Distribution in RStudio

In R / Rstudio

```
> pnorm(q, mean, sd, lower.tail)
```

# Testing for Normality

- When  $n < 25$ , use the Anderson-Darling test for normality (double check with Shapiro-Wilk test).
- When  $n \geq 25$ , use the skewness and kurtosis tests (D'Agostino).

# Testing for Normality in RStudio

In R / Rstudio

```
> anderson.darling.normality.test( )  
  shapiro.wilk.normality.test( ) or  
  summary.continuous( )
```

```
> dagostino.normality.omnibus.test( ) or  
  summary.continuous( )
```



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- Luftig, J. Guidelines for Reporting the Capability of Critical Product Characteristics. Anheuser-Busch Companies, St. Louis, MO. 1994
- Spooner-Jordan, V. Understanding Variation. Luftig & Warren International, Southfield, MI 1996
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# The Exponential Distribution

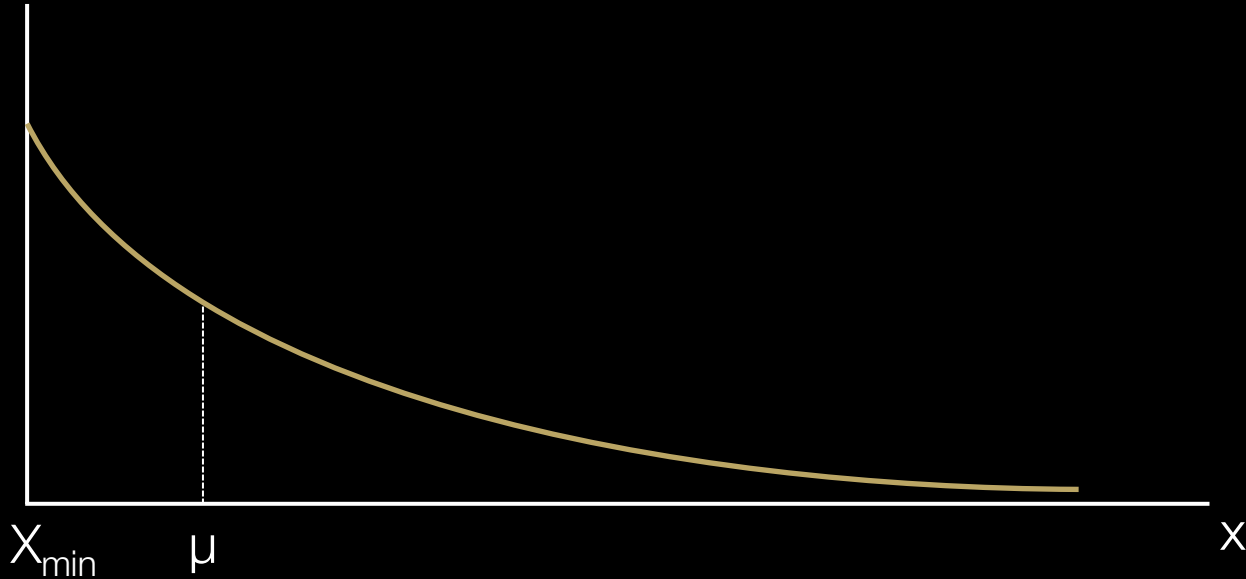
**Data Science for Quality Management:  
Probability and Probability Distributions**  
with **Wendy Martin**

## **Learning objectives:**

Describe the Exponential probability distribution

Calculate probabilities using the Exponential distribution

# The Exponential Distribution



# The Exponential Distribution

- The exponential distribution occurs in a number of situations in the industrial environment.
- Time to failure often follows an exponential distribution.

# The Exponential Distribution

- Measurement from a physical process that has a restraint, such as the location of a hole from a reference edge, where the reference edge is pressed against a fixture, may follow an exponential distribution.

# The Exponential Distribution

- Roundness of shaft, measured by total indicator reading, may also follow this type of distribution.

# The Exponential Distribution

- The exponential distribution is a continuous random variable probability distribution with the form:

$$y = \frac{1}{\mu - x_{min}} e^{\left[ -\frac{x - x_{min}}{\mu - x_{min}} \right]}$$



# The Exponential Distribution

- When  $x_{\min} = 0$ , the equation reduces to:

$$y = \frac{1}{\mu} e^{\left[-\frac{x}{\mu}\right]}$$

# The Exponential Distribution

- The normal distribution contains an area of 50% above and 50% below  $\mu$ .
- With the exponential distribution, 36.8% of the area under the curve is above the average ( $\mu$ ) and 63.2% is below.

# Applications / Observations

- Predictions based on an exponentially distributed process often only require the  $\mu$  (and sometimes  $x_{\min}$ ) of the process.

# Applications / Observations

- For prediction purposes, finding the area under the curve beyond the time period of concern is generally the point of interest.
- These prediction often relate to reliability issues or time between failure analyses.

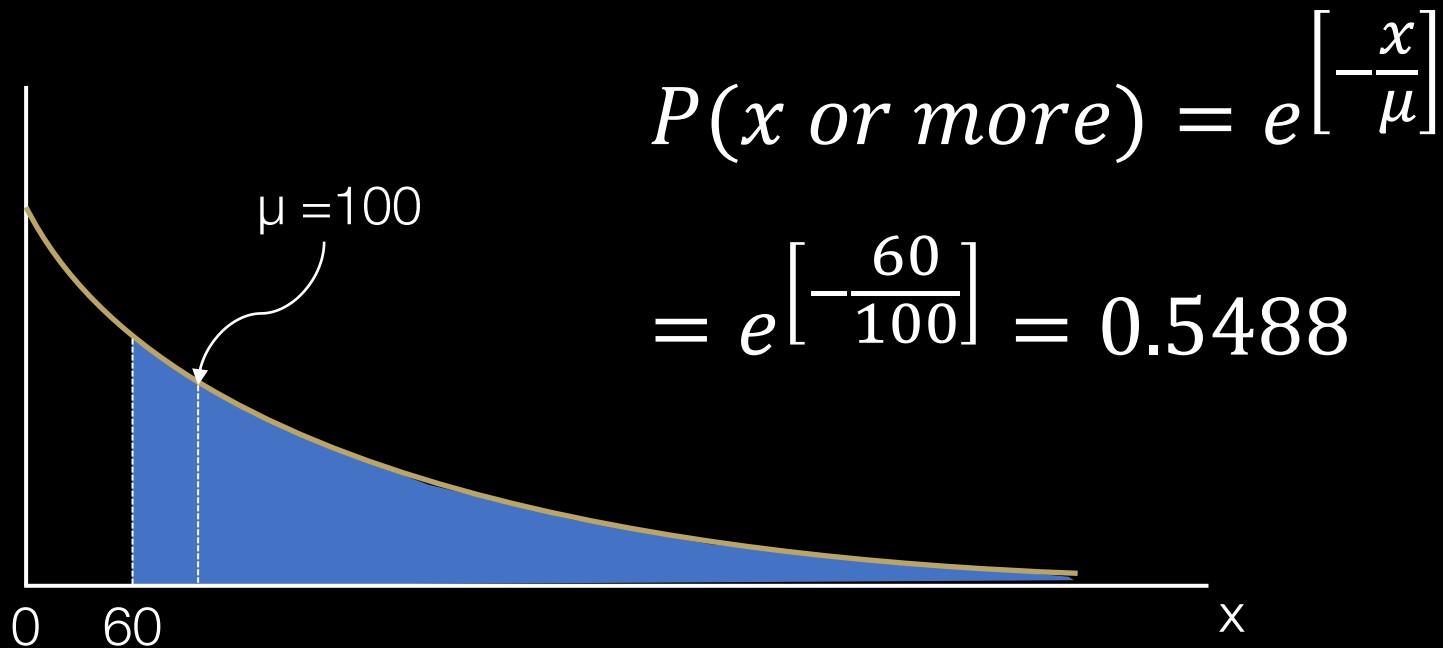
# Example 1

- An in-plant study has shown that an engine control module laboratory tester is capable of operating on an average of 100 hours between breakdowns (MTBF).

# Example 1

- What is the probability that the tester will run for at least 60 successive hours without a breakdown (assuming that the time to failure pattern is distributed exponentially)?

# Example 1



# Exponential Distribution in RStudio

- `pexp(q, rate, lower.tail)`



## Example 2

- The distribution of time for a particular grinding machine is characterized by the exponential distribution.
- The mean time between breakdowns has been established at 50 minutes.

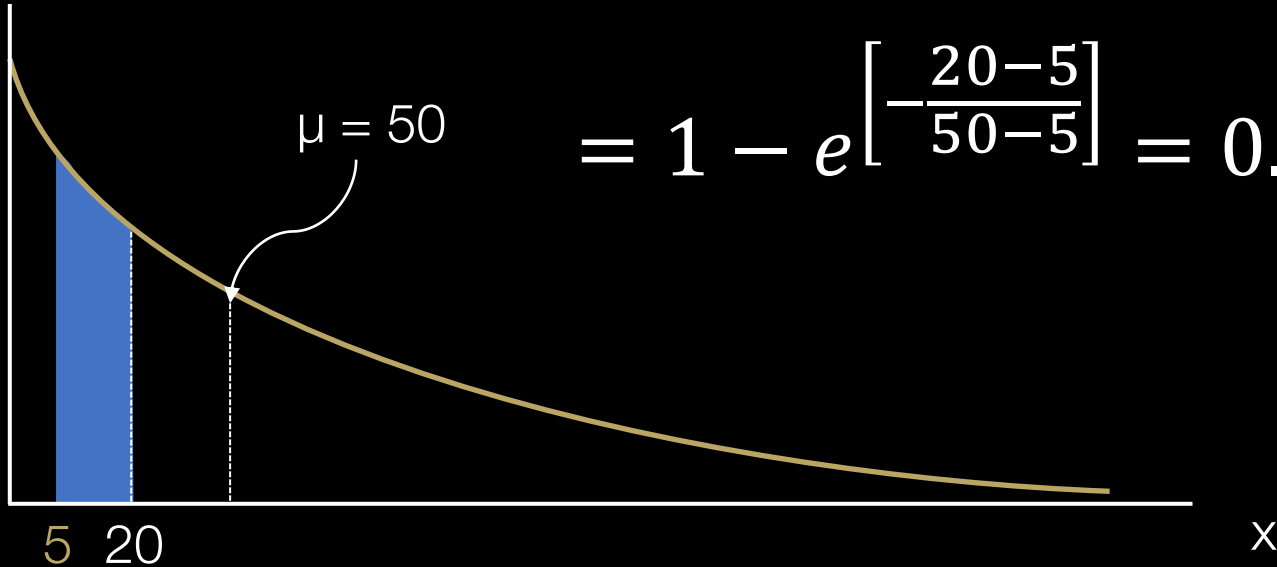
## Example 2

- The origin parameter ( $x_{\min}$ ) is estimated to be 5 minutes.
- What is the probability of this machine running 20 minutes or less before a breakdown?

## Example 2

$$P(x \text{ or less}) = 1 - e^{\left[ -\frac{x - x_{\min}}{\mu - x_{\min}} \right]}$$

$$= 1 - e^{\left[ -\frac{20 - 5}{50 - 5} \right]} = 0.2835$$



# Exponential Distribution in RStudio

- `pexp(q, rate, lower.tail)`

# Testing for Exponentiality

- When  $n \leq 100$ , use the Shapiro-Wilk test
- When  $n > 100$ , use the Epps and Pulley test

# Testing for Exponentiality

In R / Rstudio

```
> shapiro.wilk.exponentiality.test( )
```

```
> shapetest.exp.epps.pulley.1986( )
```

# Sources

- Luftig, J. An Introduction to Statistical Process Control & Capability. Luftig & Associates, Inc. Farmington Hills, MI, 1982