

## w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools

w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Quality Tools



- Flow Charts and Process Maps
- Checksheets
- Histograms
- Pareto Charts
- Cause and Effect diagrams
- Scatter Diagrams
- Six Sigma measures
- Cost of Quality

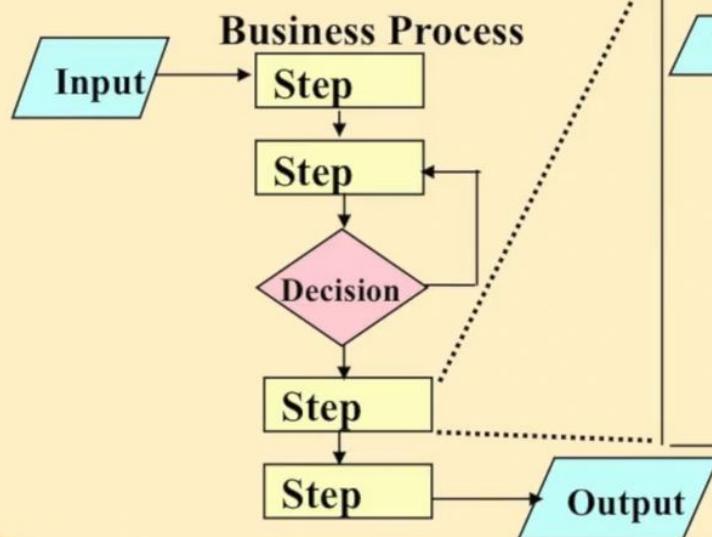
Each of these tools has a specific function in our improvement efforts.



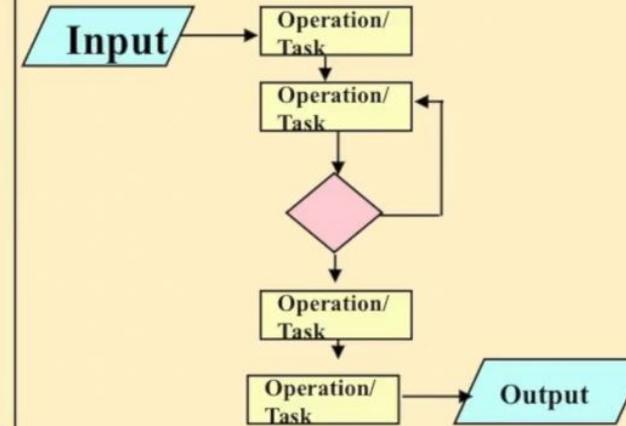
00:00:10 / 00:02:02 45

# Flow Charts and Process Maps

Relationship of Business processes to Work Processes



Work Process



w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Checksheet

Telephone Resolution Time

To determine how many calls exceeded the specified limits.

Response Time	Calls	Total
0 – 1 minutes		14
1.1-2 minutes		9
2.1-3 minutes		6
3.1-4 minutes		3
>4 minutes		2
Grand Total		34
Comments:		

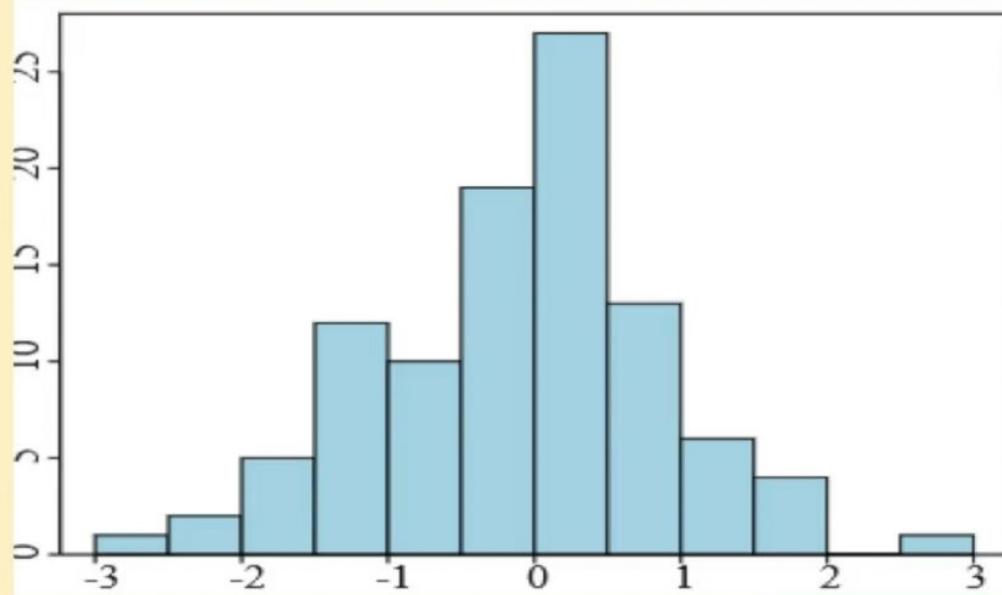
Checksheet are a quick, easy, flexible tool for collecting data.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:33 / 00:02:02 45

# Histograms

Frequency



Histograms are often the first representation of our



w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Pareto Charts



**Pareto of Injuries by Type**

Frequency

Injury Type	Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Hand	300	60%
Foot	100	80%
Eye	50	90%
Back	30	96%
Other	20	100%

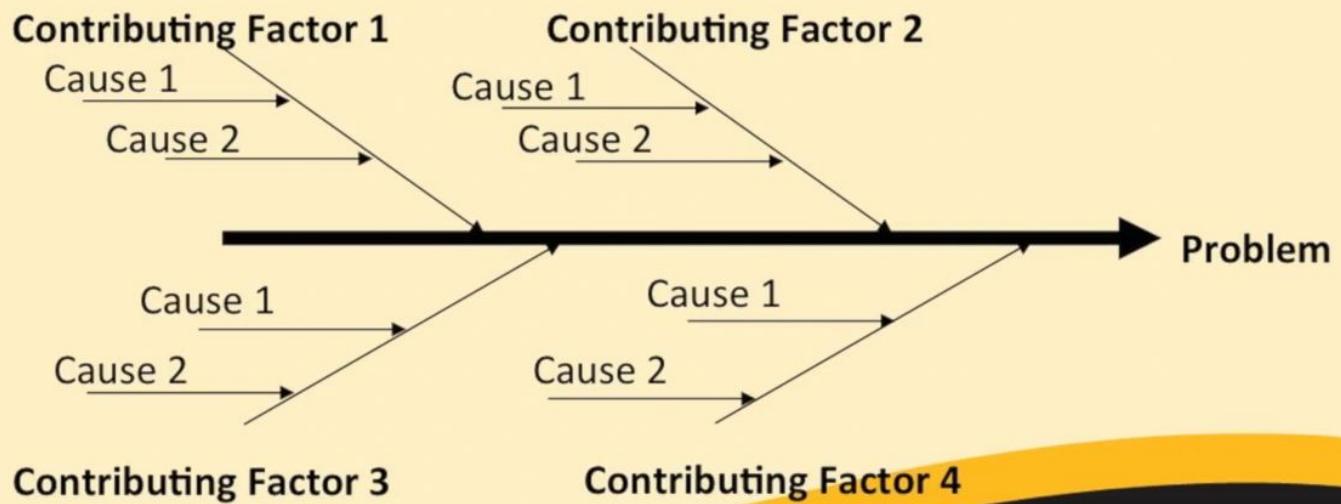
Injury Type

Pareto charts are used to prioritize problems or root causes.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:58 / 00:02:02 45

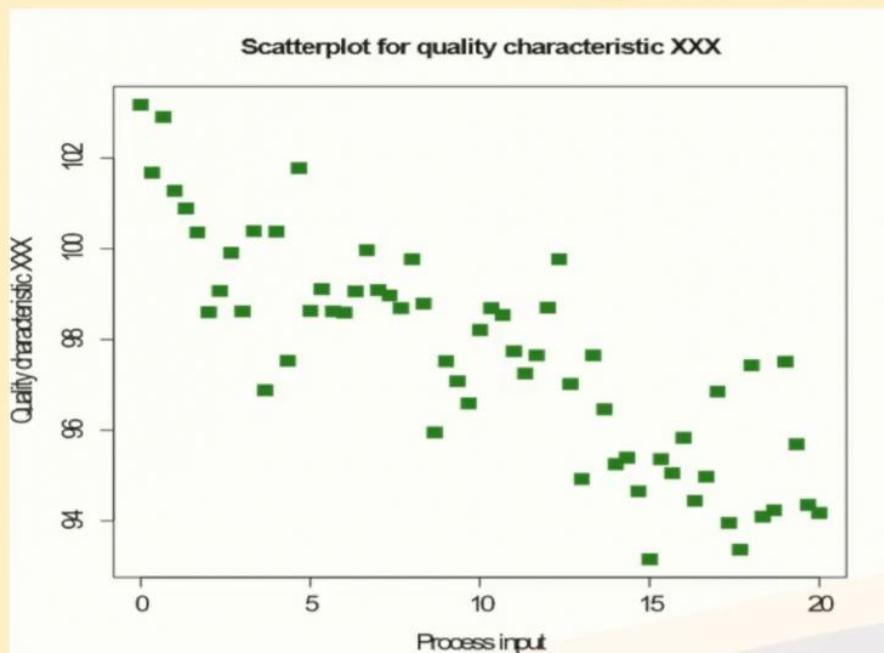
# Cause and Effect Diagrams



Cause and effect diagrams actually have three commonly used names.



# Scatter Diagrams



Scatter diagrams are the first step to understanding  
Used under Creative Commons License Attribution



w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Six Sigma Measures



- Defects per unit
- Defects per million opportunities
- Cycle time
- Rolled throughput yield

We'll learn how to calculate defects per unit, defects per million opportunities,

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:01:43 / 00:02:02 45

w2.1- Introduction to Quality Tools.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

Volume: 35

# Quality Costs



Internal Failure 绩效考核	External Failure
Appraisal	Prevention

Finally, we'll examine the cost of quality, how

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY 10

00:01:52 / 00:02:02 35

## Appraisal Costs (Cost of Good Quality)

Appraisal costs are the expenses incurred to **measure, evaluate, or inspect** products, processes, and services to ensure they **conform to quality standards**. They are proactive costs, designed to detect defects *before* they become a larger problem.

- **Goal:** To determine the degree of conformance to quality requirements.
- **Examples:**
  - **Inspecting** incoming raw materials.
  - **In-process checks** and final product testing.
  - **Audits** of the quality system.
  - Maintaining and **calibrating** measurement and test equipment.
  - Labor costs for **quality assurance (QA)** personnel.

Tool	Primary Purpose	Key Insight
Flow Charts / Process Maps	Understanding processes (often the first step).	Visualize the process to identify areas for improvement.
Checksheets	Quick, easy, and flexible <b>data collection</b> .	Used with several other tools to gather raw data.
Histograms	First visual representation of data.	Reveal the <b>shape, center, and spread</b> of the data at a glance.
Pareto Charts	<b>Prioritize problems or root causes.</b>	Source of the <b>80/20 rule</b> (focus efforts where they have the biggest impact).
Cause and Effect Diagrams	<b>Brainstorm possible root causes</b> of a problem.	Also known by three other common names (e.g., Fishbone or Ishikawa).
Scatter Diagrams	Understanding the <b>relationship between two variables</b> .	Indicate if variables are related, but <b>cannot infer cause-and-effect</b> .

## Key Six Sigma Measures and Concepts

The module also promises to cover important Lean and Six Sigma measures and concepts:

- **Calculations:** How to calculate metrics like **Defects Per Unit (DPU)**, **Defects Per Million Opportunities (DPMO)**, **Cycle Time**, and **Rolled Throughput Yield (RTY)**.
- **Cost of Quality (COQ):** Examining how different events contribute to the overall cost and the far-reaching financial effects of poor quality.

## w2.2- Pareto Charts

w2.2- Pareto Charts.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Pareto Chart

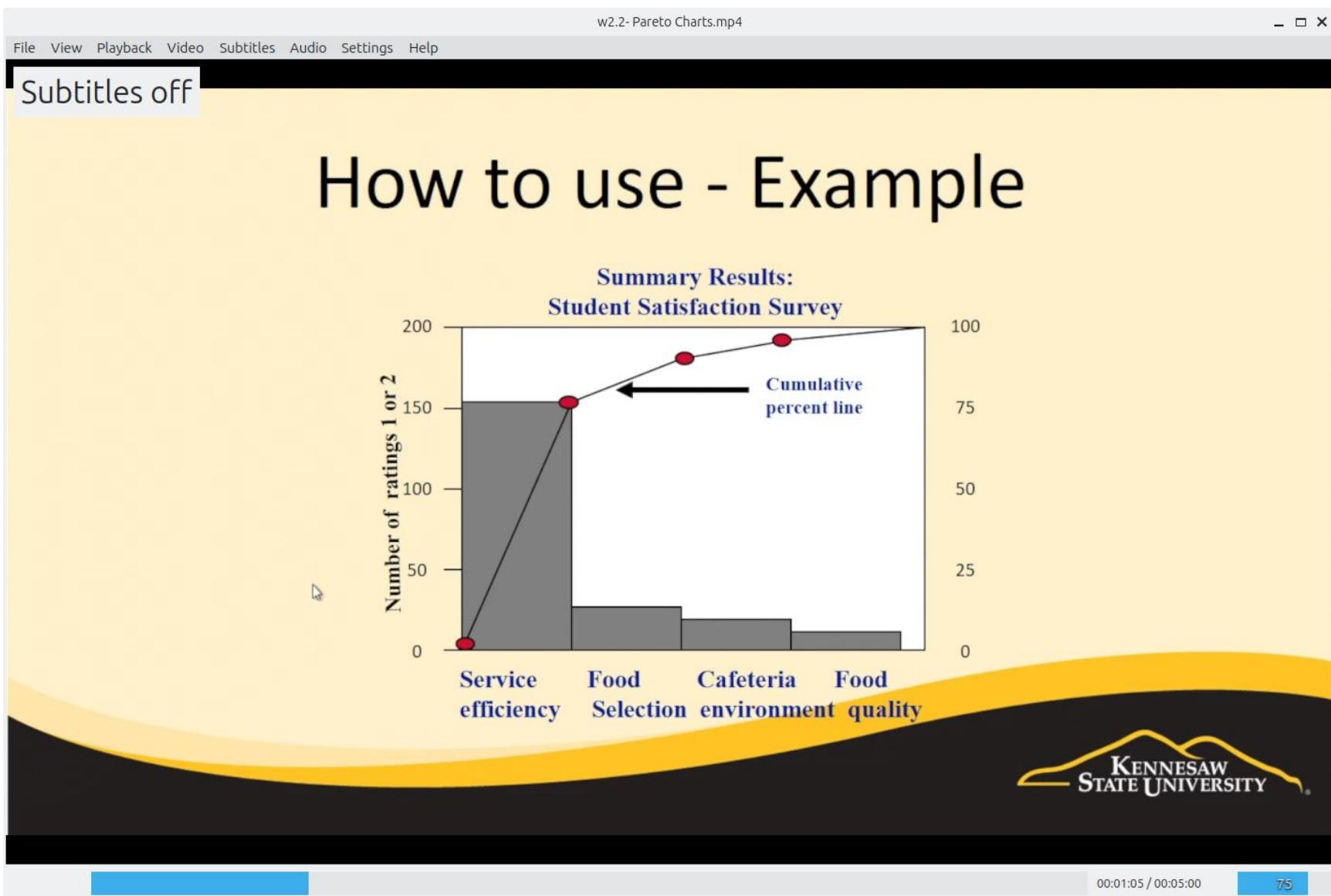
- History
  - Vilfredo Pareto
  - Joseph Juran
    - Separate the vital few from the trivial many

but they can also be used to prioritize problems.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:20 / 00:05:00

75



w2.2- Pareto Charts.mp4

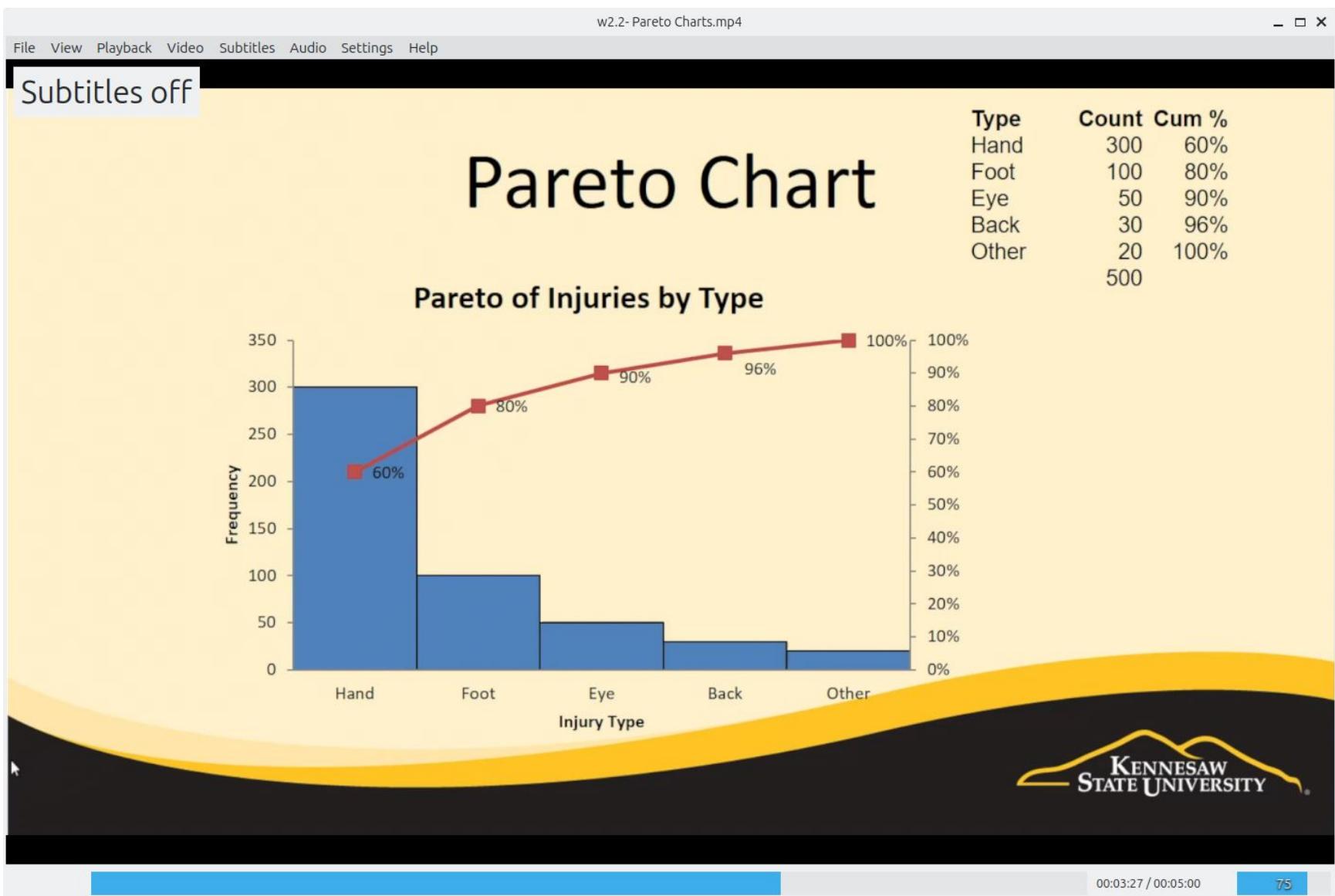
File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to use – Types of Data

- Discrete
- Continuous



00:02:34 / 00:05:00 75

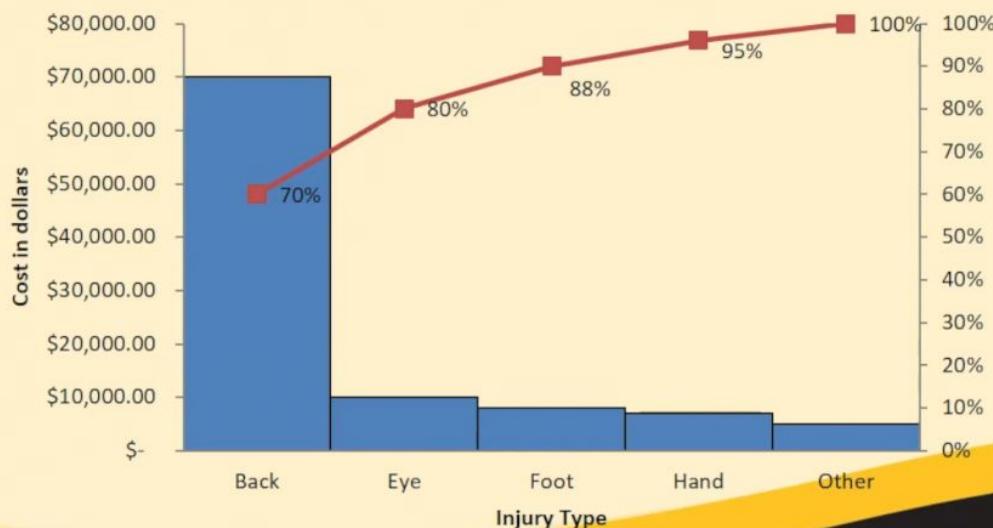


Subtitle scale: 0.6

# Pareto Chart

Type	Cost	Cum%
Back	\$ 70,000	70%
Eye	\$ 10,000	80%
Foot	\$ 8,000	88%
Hand	\$ 7 ,000	95%
Other	\$ 5 ,000	100%

Pareto of Injury Type by Cost



If we collect data  
on the cost of



w2.2- Pareto Charts.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Conclusion

- Prioritization Tool
- Uses discrete data
- Most frequent to least frequent
- Cumulative percent scale



00:04:22 / 00:05:00 75



## Pareto Charts: Prioritizing Efforts

**Pareto Charts** are a powerful tool used in quality improvement to **prioritize problems or root causes** by visually separating the most significant factors from the rest. They help answer the question: "If you can't fix everything, what should you fix first?"

### Origin and the 80/20 Rule

- **Vilfredo Pareto (19th Century):** The chart and concept were developed by the Italian economist who formulated the **80/20 Rule**.
  - **General Idea:** The rule suggests that **20% of the factors account for 80% of the result** (e.g., 20% of customers account for 80% of business).
- **Joseph Juran's Quality Adaptation:** Quality guru Joseph Juran adapted this concept, stating that **80% of the defects come from 20% of the causes**. Juran named this the "**vital few**" (the 20% that matter) versus the "**trivial many**" (the remaining 80%).

## Structure of a Pareto Chart

A Pareto chart is a combination chart that presents data in two ways:

### 1. Bars (Frequency/Count):

- The bars represent the **frequency or count** of each category (e.g., poor ratings, injury types).
- They are always arranged from **most frequent to least frequent**, with the **tallest bar on the left**.
- The corresponding scale for the bar height is on the **left side** of the chart.

### 2. Line (Cumulative Percentage):

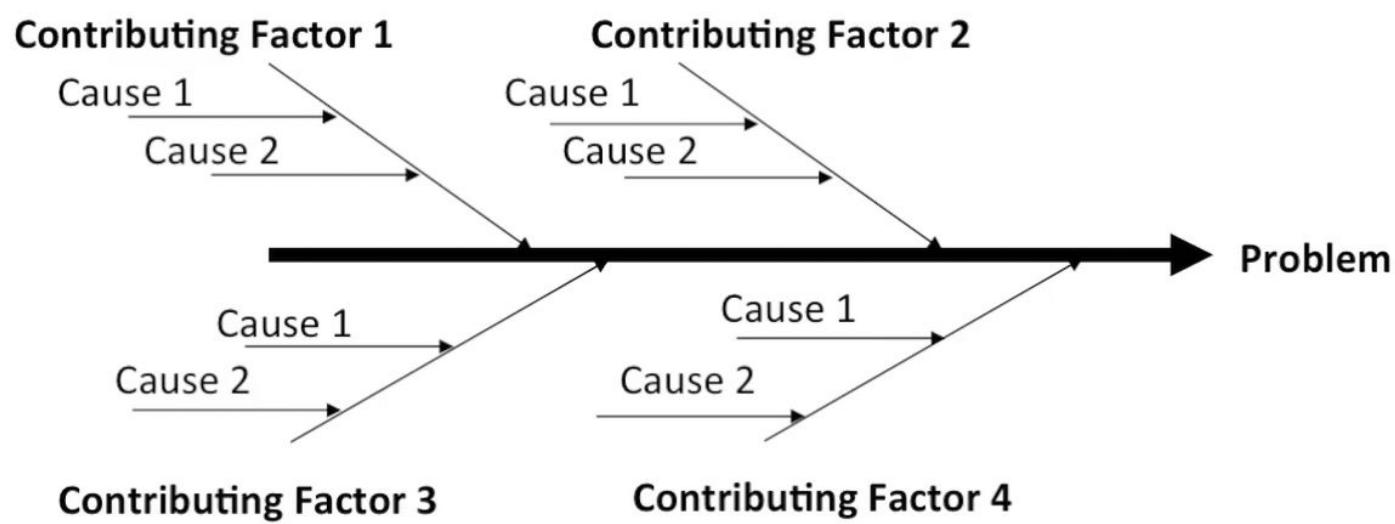
- The line shows the **cumulative percent** of the total, tracked from left to right.
- The corresponding scale for the cumulative percentage is on the **right side of the chart**.

## Data and Focus

- **Data Type:** Pareto diagrams use **discrete data** (counts or frequencies). Continuous data can be converted into discrete groups (like for a histogram) before counting.
- **Interpretation:** By using the 80/20 Rule, **the first two or three bars** usually account for **about 80% of the problem**. Focusing improvement efforts on these few categories yields the **maximum effect**.
- **Critical Consideration:** It is crucial to **think carefully about what is being measured**. For example:
  - Measuring injuries by **type of occurrence** might prioritize hand injuries.
  - Measuring injuries by **cost** might prioritize back injuries (due to lost time). The chart's priority will change depending on the data collected.

## w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams

# Fishbone or Ishikawa Diagram



w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Six M's

```
graph LR; Problem[Problem] --> Measurement[Measurement]; Problem --> Material[Material]; Problem --> Methods[Methods]; Problem --> Management[Management]; Problem --> Machinery[Machinery]; Problem --> Manpower[Manpower]
```

**Measurement**      **Material**      **Methods**

**Management**      **Machinery**      **Manpower**

There are many different suggested categories for fishbone diagrams.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:01:40 / 00:07:31

45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Four P's

The diagram illustrates the 'Four P's' model. It features a horizontal black arrow pointing to the right, labeled 'Problem' at its tip. Four arrows point from the words 'Policies', 'Procedures', 'People', and 'Plant' towards the central 'Problem' arrow.

```
graph LR; Policies --> Problem; Procedures --> Problem; People --> Problem; Plant --> Problem;
```

**Policies**

**Procedures**

**People**

**Plant**

**Problem**

Let's consider a few other examples.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:02:16 / 00:07:31

45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Four S's

```
graph LR; Surroundings --> Problem; Suppliers --> Problem; Systems --> Problem; Skills --> Problem;
```

Surroundings                      Suppliers

Systems                            Skills

Some naming schemes seem to fit different situations better than others.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:28 / 00:07:31

45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to

- Structured Brainstorm
  - Draw Fishbone, with the problem at the head
  - Identify categories
  - Use post-it notes
  - Transfer to more permanent form.



00:04:46 / 00:07:31 45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Customer Service Example

```
graph LR; subgraph L [ ]; direction TB; A[Methods] --- B[Call Assignment]; A --- C[Machine]; end; subgraph R [ ]; direction TB; D[Materials] --- E[Work Environment]; D --- F[Incentive Structure]; end; subgraph M [ ]; direction TB; G[People] --- H[People Skills]; G --- I[Domain Skills]; end; subgraph C [Customer Service]; J[Customer Service]; end; B --- K[Call Workflow]; B --- L[Call Escalation]; C --- L; E --- L; F --- L; H --- L; I --- L; J --- L;
```

The diagram illustrates a cause-and-effect relationship for Customer Service. It is organized into four main categories: Methods, Materials, People, and Customer Service. Methods include Call Assignment and Machine. Materials include Work Environment and Incentive Structure. People include People Skills and Domain Skills. Customer Service is the outcome, influenced by Call Workflow, Call Escalation, Work Environment, Incentive Structure, People Skills, Domain Skills, and the direct influence of the People category.

Here is a customer service example

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:05:36 / 00:07:31

45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Alternative

```
graph LR; Problem[Problem Or Defect] --> Measurement[Measurement]; Problem --> Material[Material]; Problem --> Personnel[Personnel]; Problem --> Environment[Environment]; Problem --> Methods[Methods]; Problem --> Machines[Machines];
```

**Measurement**

- Calibration
- Microscopes
- Inspectors

**Material**

- Alloys
- Lubricants
- Suppliers

**Personnel**

- Shifts
- Training
- Operators

**Environment**

- Humidity
- Temperature

**Methods**

- Angle
- Engager
- Brake

**Machines**

- Blade Wear
- Speed

Adapted from a work by Daniel H. Field, CC BY-SA 3.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=9401181>

This tool can be a lot of work to set up and use.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:06:05 / 00:07:31 45

w2.3- Cause and Effect Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Conclusion

- Identify ideas from small or large groups
- Identifies **Possible** root causes
- Investigate to determine **Probable** root causes

Cause and effect diagrams  
may be an effective tool for

The logo for Kennesaw State University features a stylized yellow mountain range graphic above the text "KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY".

00:07:09 / 00:07:31 45

## Cause and Effect Diagrams (Fishbone / Ishikawa)

The **Cause and Effect Diagram**, created by **Kaoru Ishikawa** in the 1960s, is a structured **brainstorming tool** used to identify and display all **possible root causes** of a problem.

### Names and Purpose

- **Three Common Names:**
  1. **Cause and Effect Diagram** (Ishikawa's original name)
  2. **Ishikawa Diagram** (in his honor)
  3. **Fishbone Diagram** (due to its appearance)
- **Purpose:** To gather ideas from as many people as possible, explore all potential causes, and display them in a structured way. **It generates a large quantity of possible causes, but does not definitively identify the root cause; further investigation is required.**

## Structure and Categories

The diagram looks like the skeleton of a fish:

- **Fish Head:** Contains the **problem statement** (or effect) being analyzed.
- **Major Bones:** Represent the **major factors** or categories that contribute to the problem.

The categories are used to spur different areas of thought.

- **Common Categories:** The 6 'M's (e.g., Manpower, Machines, Materials, Methods, Measurement, Mother Nature/Environment) or 4 'P's (e.g., Policies, Procedures, People, Plant/Facilities).
- **Flexibility:** Users should **not be constrained** by standard schemes and can create their own categories that best fit the department or application (usually four to six major bones).
- **Minor Bones:** Represent the **more elementary causal factors** that fall under each major category.

## Application Examples

The transcript provides examples of common categories for service problems:

- **Policies:** Can cause issues if they are obsolete, poorly understood, or have unintended consequences.
- **Procedures:** Often a source of waste (e.g., long signature lists, redundant forms) that frustrate customers.
- **People:** Represent the greatest opportunity for delight or disappointment. Employees must have the **knowledge, skills, and authority** to provide service.
- **Plant/Facilities:** Can cause problems due to lack of facilities, lack of access, or outdated equipment.

## How to Use the Diagram

1. **Draw the Structure:** Draw the fishbone structure with the **precise problem statement at the head**.
2. **Add Categories:** Draw the major bones and label the categories. Do not "agonize" over the categories; their goal is just to spur different ideas.
3. **Brainstorm:** Use the team to brainstorm ideas. A common method is to use **post-it notes** and stick the ideas next to the appropriate bone. Do not allow debates over which bone an idea fits; either pick one or write the idea twice.
4. **Preserve:** Take a picture to preserve the work.

## Alternative Use for Large Groups

For complex problems or when seeking input from a large number of people, a large diagram (e.g., on a 4x8 foot board) can be placed in a high-traffic area. Anyone can contribute via post-it notes. This requires active management (organizing notes and removing non-serious suggestions) by the team.

## w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping

w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

Subtitle scale: 0.8

# Flow Charts and Process Mapping

```
graph TD; Input[Input] --> Step1[Step]; Step1 --> Step2[Step]; Step2 --> Decision{Decision}; Decision --> Step3[Step]; Step3 --> Output[Output]; Output --> Step2;
```

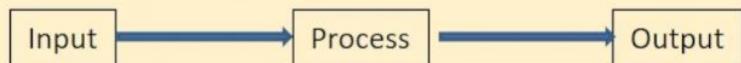
also called a flow chart.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:11 / 00:06:14 20

# What is a process

- An activity that changes or transforms some input(s) to create an output



They can be used to demonstrate actions or procedures.



w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

Subtitles off

# Tools for Mapping Processes

**Process Maps** – a picture of the sequence of steps in a process, represented by symbols  
(used to plan projects, describe processes...)

**Five Types**

- Basic – outlines major steps in a process
- Detailed – used to improve a process
- Top Down – Major steps, nest level of sub steps
- Deployment – detailed process with people
- Opportunity – highlights opportunities for improvement



00:00:44 / 00:06:14 30

w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Purpose

- Process maps are a very powerful tool for understanding processes
- Using process maps, often leads to the elimination of unnecessary work...
- ...And streamlining what remains



00:01:04 / 00:06:14 30

# Purpose

- In many large organizations, NOBODY knows all of a process
- Various people know different pieces
- Only through cross-functional teams and process mapping can we discover what the whole process is



w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to use

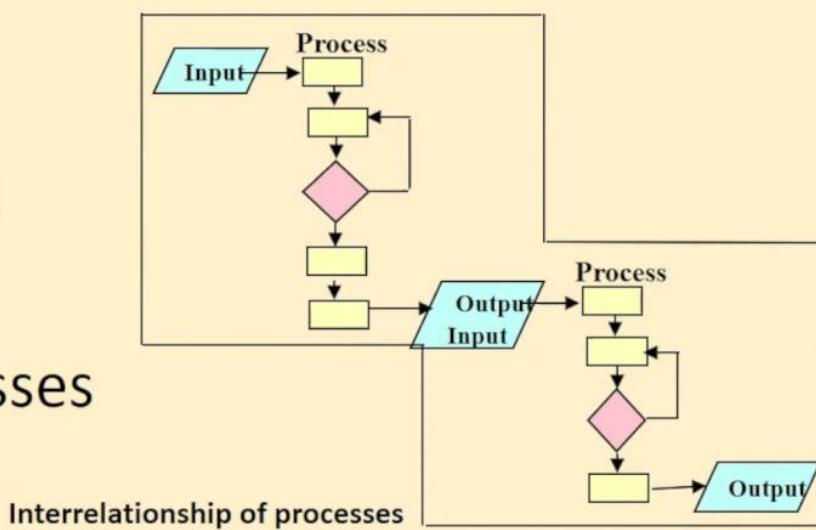
- Map the process as it is actually done
  - Current state map
- Two main levels of processes
  - Business processes
  - Work Processes



00:01:55 / 00:06:14 30

# How to use

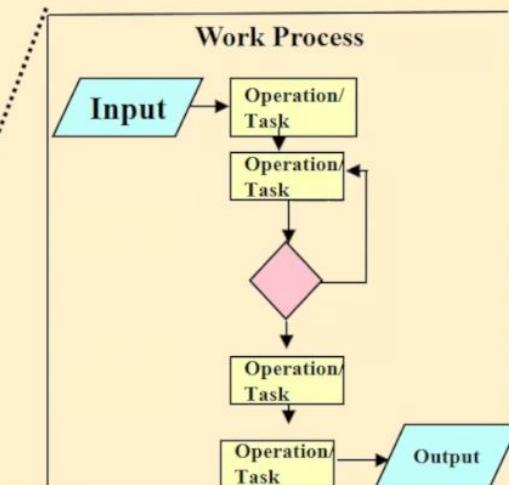
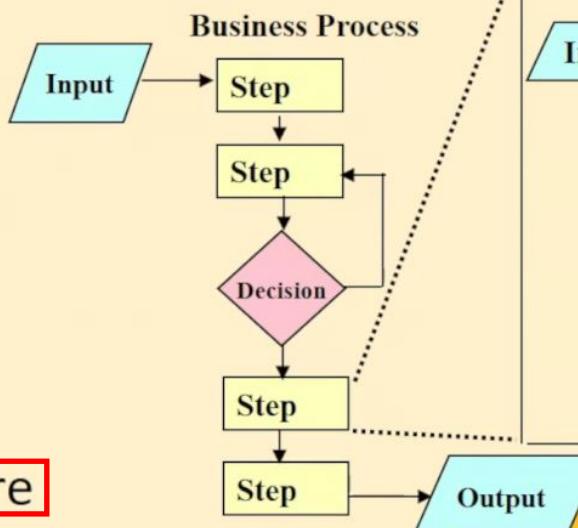
- Business processes
  - High level processes
  - Cross Functional
  - Contain work processes
  - Interrelated



# How to use

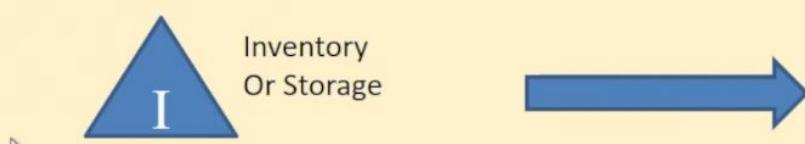
- Work Processes
  - Each Business process contains **multiple work processes**
  - Each step in a business process **may be one or more** work process

Relationship of Business processes to Work Processes



# Symbols

- Many shapes depending on industry



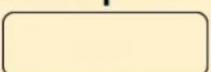
Arrows indicate sequence  
which can be mapped  
separately and



# How to use

- The simplest process maps may only use 3 symbols

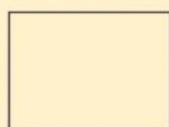
- Start / finish



- Used only at the beginning and end, may represent inputs and outputs

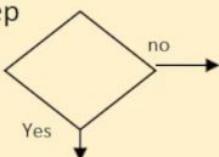
- Process steps

- The actual work being done



- Decision points

- Depending on the answer to yes/no, follow the diagram in different directions, with no often looping back to a previous step



For our purposes, we  
will only use a few.



w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to use Sticky Notes

- Process Step
- Decision point

you might need more decision points.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:42 / 00:06:14 30

w2.4- Flow Charts and Process Mapping.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to use

- Software
  - Microsoft drawing bar has flowchart symbols under insert/shapes
  - Google Docs or Sheets
  - Open Office
  - Visio

transferred into other software.

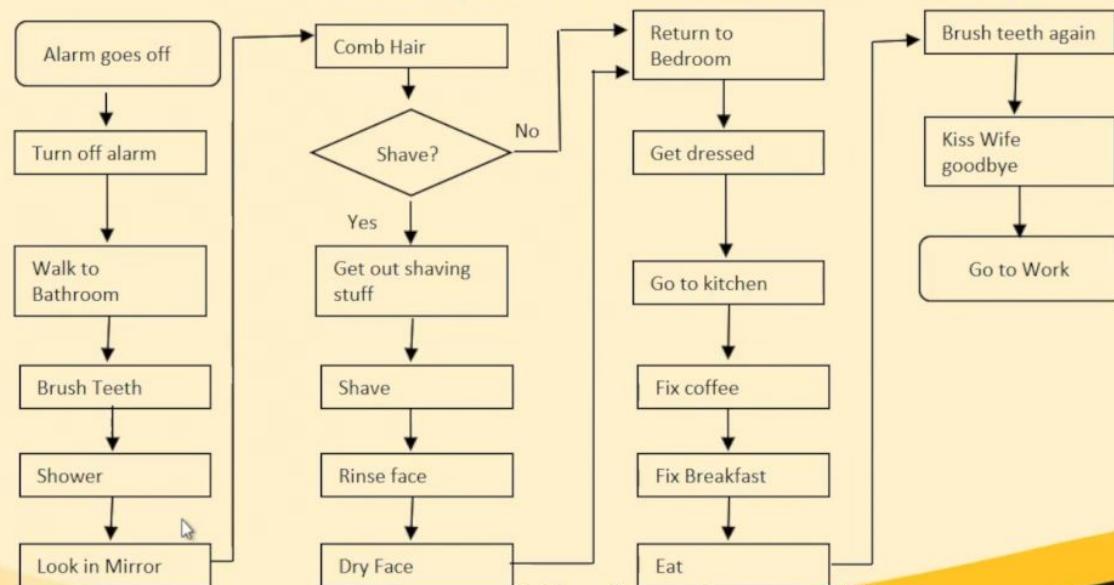
KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:05:11 / 00:06:14

30

# How to use

- Morning Routine – a simple process map



Visio is software  
that is designed



# Conclusion

- Clearly, from this example, the level of detail may vary.
- That is a judgment made by the mapping team.
- Try mapping something you do regularly

a decision point,  
and multiple steps.





## Flow Charts and Process Mapping

Process maps, also called **flow charts**, are fundamental tools in process improvement. They are often the **starting point** for any improvement effort as they provide a visual, schematic representation of actions or procedures.

### What is a Process?

A process is an activity, typically a sequence of steps, that receives an **input** and converts it into an **output**. This applies to manufacturing (raw material into a product), service delivery, or acting on information.

## Purpose and Importance

The primary purpose of mapping a process is to **gain a complete understanding** of the process so it can be improved.

- **Documentation:** Maps are useful for **training, certification**, and eliminating lengthy written procedures.
- **Team-Based Effort:** For high-level processes that cross functional boundaries, often **no single person knows the whole process**. Mapping requires a team that includes the people who **actually use the process daily**.
- **Current State:** It is crucial to map the process **as it is actually performed** (the **current state map**), not the way it was designed or how management *thinks* it is done.

## Levels of Processes

Processes exist at multiple levels:

1. **Business Processes:** **High-level processes** (e.g., accounting, customer service) that often cut across different functional departments. They contain multiple work processes.
2. **Work Processes:** The more detailed steps contained within a business process (e.g., billing within accounting). Mapping these separately provides much more detail.

## Key Symbols (Simplified)

While there are many different shapes, a basic process map can be created using just three core symbols:

Symbol (Shape)	Name	Purpose
<b>Oval / Rounded Rectangle</b>	<b>Start/End</b>	Marks the beginning and end of the process.
<b>Square / Rectangle</b>	<b>Process Step</b>	Represents an action or step in the process.
<b>Diamond</b>	<b>Decision Point</b>	Represents a point where a decision is made, which can only have <b>two possible outcomes</b> (e.g., Yes/No, Pass/Fail).

## Mapping Techniques

- **Group Mapping:** A simple technique is to **use sticky notes.** Steps can be written on standard notes, which can be easily rearranged. A sticky note turned 45 degrees can serve as a decision point.
- **Digital Tools:** Maps can be transferred into software like **Microsoft Word/Excel, Google Docs/Sheets,** or dedicated programs like **Visio** for a permanent and professional version.

The biggest challenge for a mapping team is determining and consistently using the **appropriate level of detail.**

## w2.5- Checksheets

# Checklists

- No single standard form
- Custom designed
- Use for anything that you can count or measure

There is no single checklist form  
that can be used on all applications.



# Recording Checksheet Example

Description	Tally Count	Total	Percent
Written Complaint			
Telephone Complaint			
E-Mail Complaint			
In Person Complaint			

It's based on the method that  
customers use to make a complaint.



# Recording Checksheet Example

Description	Tally Count	Total	Percent
Written Complaint		3	12%
Telephone Complaint		7	28%
E-Mail Complaint	 	14	56%
In Person Complaint		1	4%

This table summarizes how complaints



w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Recording Checksheet Example

Telephone Resolution Time		
To determine how many calls exceeded the specified limits.		
Response Time	Calls	Total
0 – 1 minutes		14
1.1-2 minutes		9
2.1-3 minutes		6
3.1-4 minutes		3
>4 minutes		2
Grand Total		34
Comments:		

00:02:20 / 00:04:47 35



# How to Use Example

## DATA CHECKSHEET

Process being analysed: *Handling returned goods*  
Information about: *goods returned by reason for return*  
Area/location of data collection: *Main warehouse receiving*  
Data collection method: *inspect 'reason' noted on goods documents*  
Name: *John Smith*

Date:	incorrect	warranty	not to spec	total
1/1/90		/	//	7
2/1/90	//		/	7
3/1/90	/	///	//	6

It's always a good idea to include  
important information about the process.



w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Checklist Example



Pilots routinely use checklist to make  
sure that nothing important is forgotten.



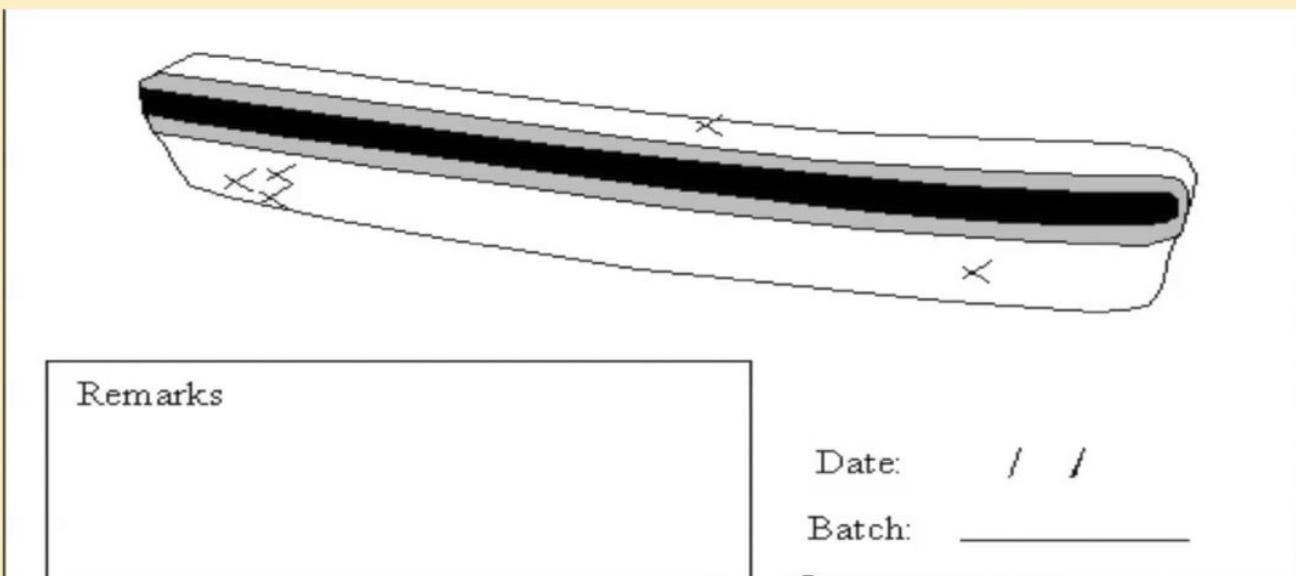
00:03:07 / 00:04:47

35

w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Measles Chart Example



Remarks

Date: / /

Batch: \_\_\_\_\_

A measles chart is a physical representation of something of interest.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:03:25 / 00:04:47

35

# Measles Chart Example

Line	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thur	Fri
Line 1	1 3 3 2	2 3 1	1 1 2	3 3 2	3 3 3 2
Line 2	1	2 1	2	2	1
KEY: 1 = paint defect, 2 = bent part, 3 = other					

It's also possible with the measles chart record more than one type of defect.



w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to Use – Data Collection Plan

- A checksheet should be part of a data collection plan
- The Plan should include
  - What data to collect
  - How to Collect it
  - How to display and interpret it

Before you collect any data,

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:07 / 00:04:47 35

w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to Use – Data Collection Plan

<b>What data ?</b>	<b>How to collect?</b>	<b>How to display?</b>
--------------------	------------------------	------------------------

Just create some columns and list the answers to these questions.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:28 / 00:04:47 35

w2.5- Checksheets.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Checksheets

- Simple
- Quick
- Flexible
- Customized

Checksheets are a simple way to collect data that is not otherwise available.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:34 / 00:04:47 35

## Checksheets: A Simple Data Collection Tool

Checksheets are **simple, quick, flexible, and usually temporary** tools used to collect initial data when starting a process improvement project. They are customizable and can be used to count or measure various events like **defects, complaints, or phone calls**.

### Three Main Types of Checksheets

Type	Purpose	Example
<b>1. Recording Checksheets</b>	Used to record counts or measurement data for analysis.	Tallying the number of customer complaints received via letter, phone, or email.
<b>2. Checklists</b>	A list of written reminders to ensure important steps in a complex or delicate procedure are not forgotten.	A pilot's pre-flight checklist, a hotel housekeeping list, or a medical procedure checklist.
<b>3. Measles Charts</b>	Used to identify the <b>physical location</b> of defects or other issues on an object.	A drawing of a product (e.g., a car bumper) where marks are placed exactly where defects occur to track patterns.

## Key Design and Use Principles

- **Customization:** There is no single universal checksheet form; the design **must be customized** to the specific data being evaluated.
- **Data Separation:** Data can be separated by shift, production line, or other factors to allow for detailed analysis.
- **Process Information:** It is always a good practice to include important contextual information at the top of the sheet, such as the **location, area, shift, and involved personnel**.
- **Data Plan:** Before collecting any data, even with a simple checksheet, a **plan** should be created. The plan should define **which data to collect, how it will be collected, who will collect it, and what will be done with the data**.

For improvement projects where the necessary initial data is not available, a checksheet is an excellent place to start.

## w2.6- Scatter Diagrams

w2.6- Scatter Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to construct

- Not cause and effect
- Software
- Plot by hand



00:00:27 / 00:05:51 35

w2.6- Scatter Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to construct

- Lets start with three pairs of x-y data:
  - X=4, y=2    x=6 y=5    and x=5, y=3.

x	y
4	2
6	5
5	3



00:01:27 / 00:05:51 35

w2.6- Scatter Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# How to construct

- Lets start with three pairs of x-y data:
  - $X=4, y=2$     $x=6 y=5$    and  $x=5, y=3$ .
  - Then plot the pairs on the chart

A scatter plot with the Y-axis ranging from 1 to 10 and the X-axis ranging from 1 to 10. Three data points are plotted: Pair 1 at (4, 2), Pair 2 at (6, 5), and Pair 3 at (5, 3). Dotted lines connect each point to its respective axis values.

a spreadsheet with  
columns labeled x and y.

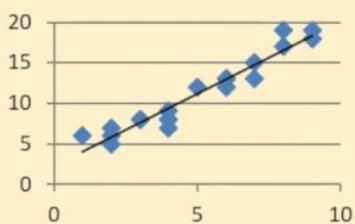
KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:01:40 / 00:05:51

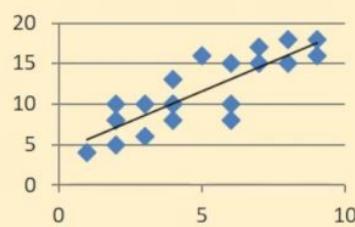
35

# Things to look for:

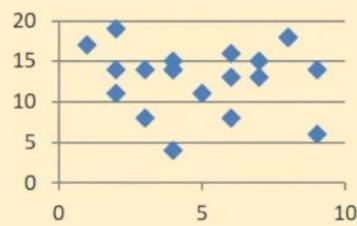
**Strong Positive**



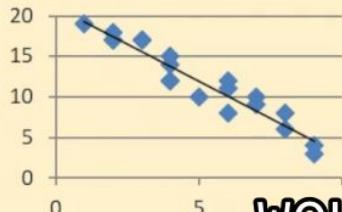
**Weak Positive**



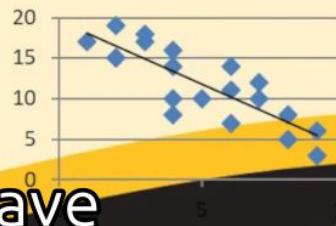
**No Relationship**



**Strong Negative**



**Weak Negative**



would probably have  
at least 30 pairs.



w2.6- Scatter Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

**SAT Versus College GPA**

A scatter plot titled "SAT Versus College GPA". The x-axis is labeled "SAT" and ranges from 300 to 800. The y-axis is labeled "GPA" and ranges from 2.00 to 4.00. There are approximately 12 data points plotted, showing a general upward trend where higher SAT scores correspond to higher GPAs.

SAT	GPA
380	2.70
430	2.40
470	2.70
500	3.20
530	2.60
540	2.80
560	2.60
580	2.30
620	3.50
650	3.00
750	3.80

**Scatter Diagram**  
there may be no  
relationship at all.

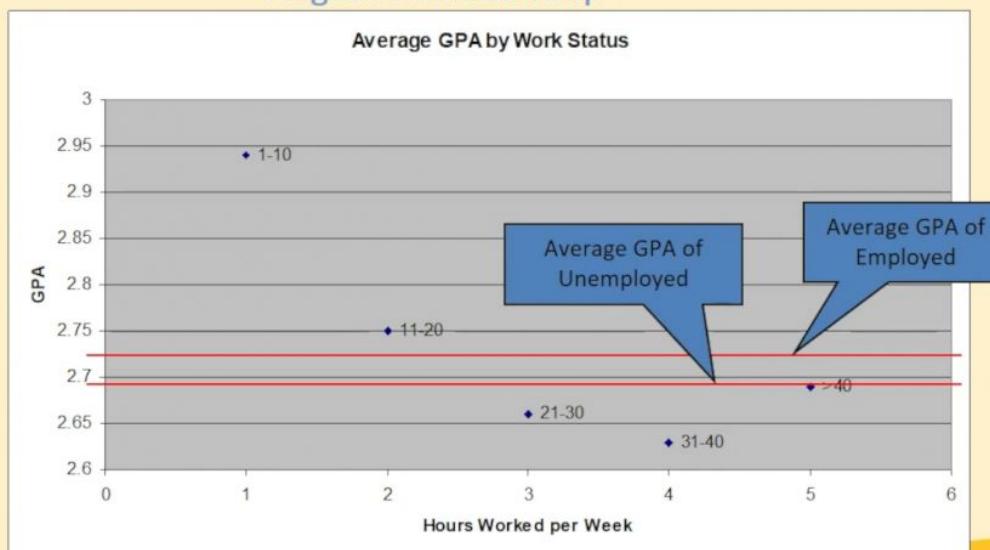
KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:03:31 / 00:05:51

35

# Scatter Diagram

Negative Relationship



LEARNING AND EARNING: WORKING IN COLLEGE

Jonathan M. Orszag, Peter P. Orszag, and Diane M. Whitmore

Commissioned by Upromise, Inc., August 2008

It's positive but  
not too strong.



w2.6- Scatter Diagrams.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Conclusion

- Scatter Diagram is a snapshot
- Not cause and effect
- Further Analysis
  - Correlation -1 to +1
  - Regression -predictive equation

Sometimes relationships can follow a curved line.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:31 / 00:05:51 35

## Scatter Diagrams

Scatter Diagrams (or Scatter Plots) are visual tools used to investigate the **possible relationship (or correlation)** between two variables that relate to the same event. They are a valuable first step in exploring potential root causes.

### Structure and Construction

- **Purpose:** To visually represent relationships that can later be confirmed using correlation and regression analysis.
- **Axes:**
  - **X-axis (Horizontal):** Represents the **independent variable** (the potential cause).
  - **Y-axis (Vertical):** Represents the **dependent variable** (the effect or the variable you are trying to fix).
- **Plotting:** Each event or occurrence is represented by an **x-y pair** (two pieces of data) plotted as a single point on the chart. A useful scatter plot typically requires at least 30 pairs of data.

## Interpreting Relationships

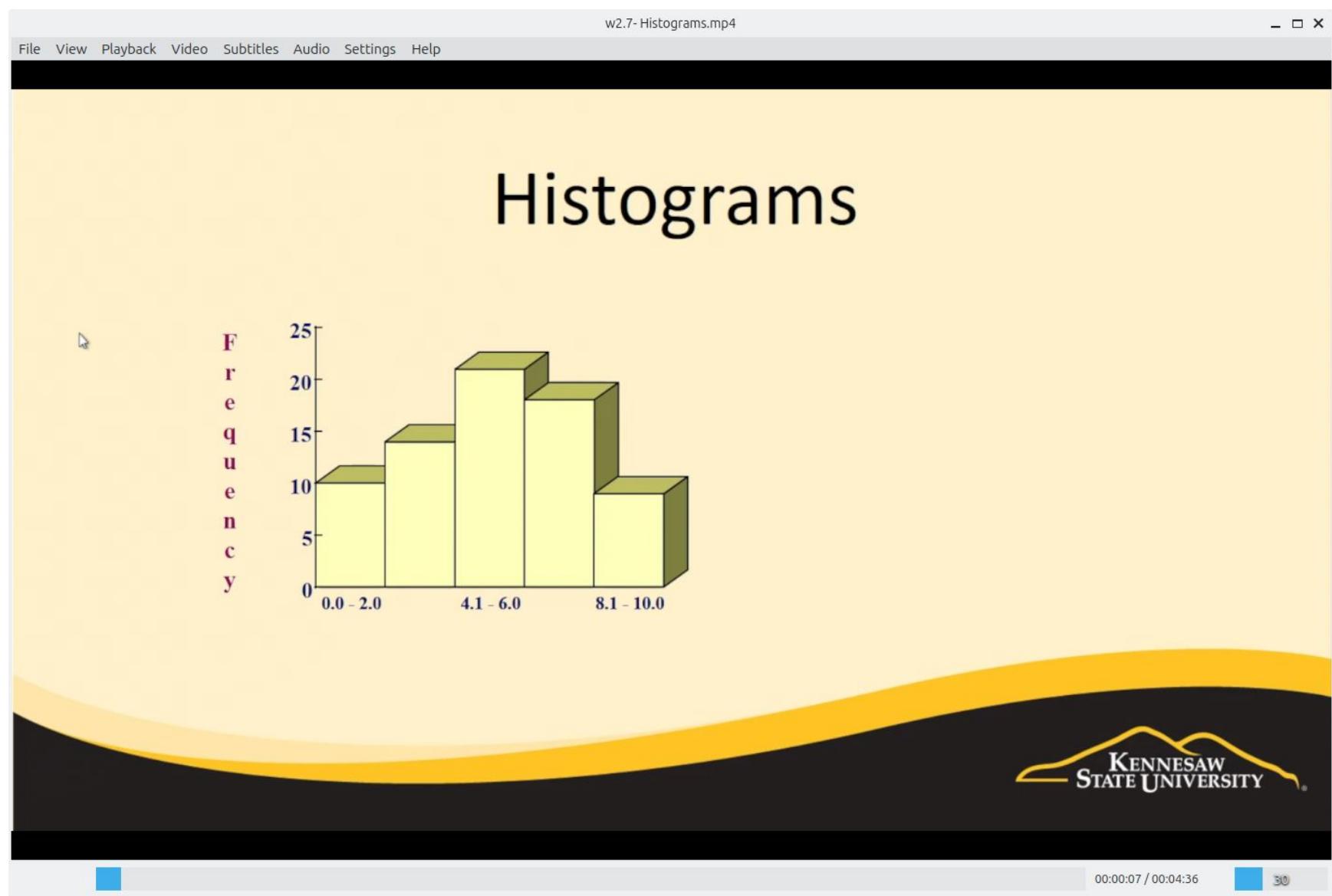
The way the data points cluster indicates the type and strength of the relationship:

Pattern	Correlation Type	Interpretation	Strength
Lower-Left to Upper-Right	Positive	As the <b>X</b> variable increases, the <b>Y</b> variable also increases.	The closer the points cluster around the line of best fit, the <b>stronger</b> the relationship.
Upper-Left to Lower-Right	Negative	As the <b>X</b> variable increases, the <b>Y</b> variable decreases.	The more scattered the points, the <b>weaker</b> the relationship.
No Particular Direction	None (Zero Correlation)	There is no significant relationship between the two variables.	N/A

## Correlation vs. Causation

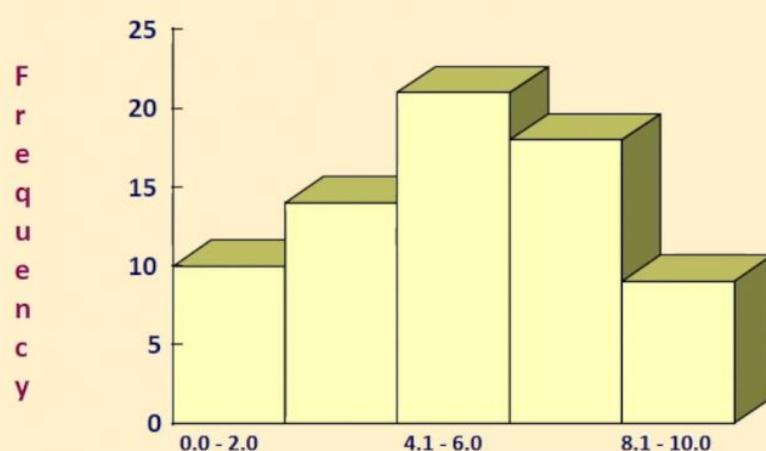
- **Correlation:** Tells you the **direction** and **strength** of a relationship between two variables. The value ranges between **-1** (perfect negative) and **+1** (perfect positive), with **0** meaning no relationship.
- **Causation:** A scatter diagram **does not specifically indicate cause-and-effect**. It shows that two variables move together, but you cannot tell if  $X$  causes  $Y$ ,  $Y$  causes  $X$ , or if a **third factor causes changes in both**. Further statistical analysis (like regression) is needed to infer causation.

## w2.7- Histograms



# Histograms

Customer Call Response Time in Seconds for October

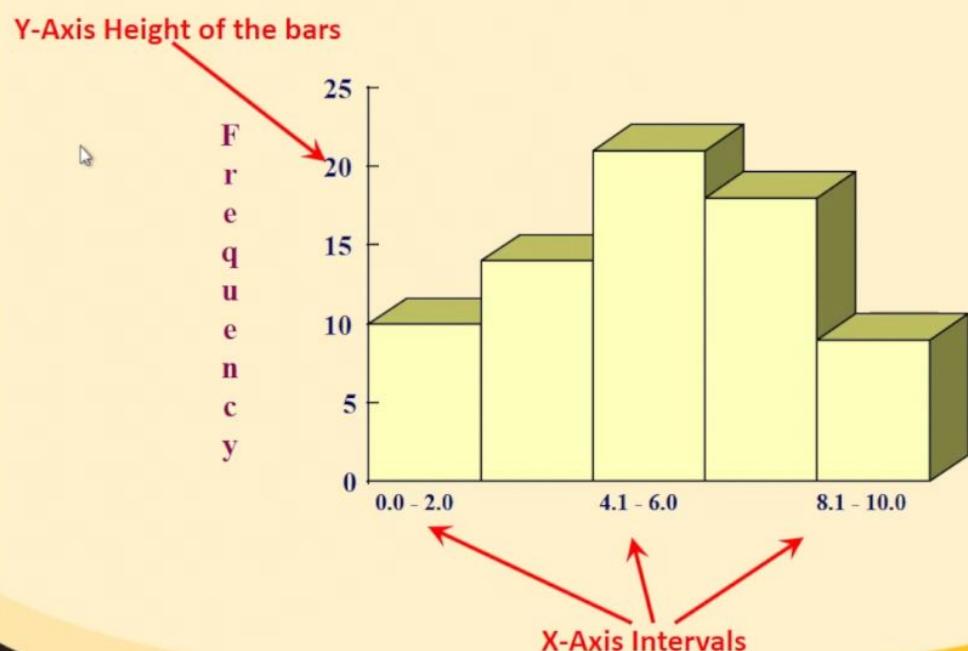


# What is it?

- This requires discrete data, or continuous data converted to be discrete.



# What is it?



# Grouping data

- How many groups?
  - 5 – 20 depending on the data
  - Number of groups =
- How wide
  - Subtract the lowest value from the highest value
  - Divide by the number of groups
  - Round up
  - Equal size



# What is it?

- A histogram is constructed from a frequency table.

Grades									
<60	x	x	x						
60-69	x	x	x						
70-79	x	x	x	x					
80-89	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
90-100	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	



# What is it?

- A histogram is constructed from a frequency table.

Grades	Totals
<60	3
60-69	3
70-79	4
80-89	9
90-100	8
	27

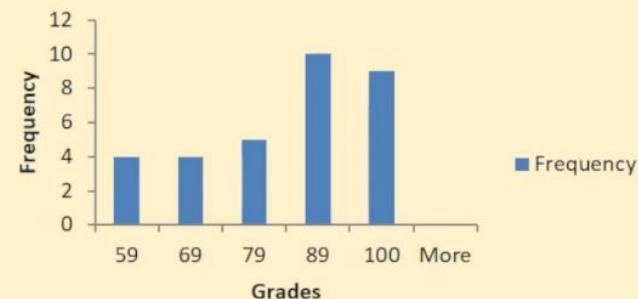


# Histogram

Frequency Table

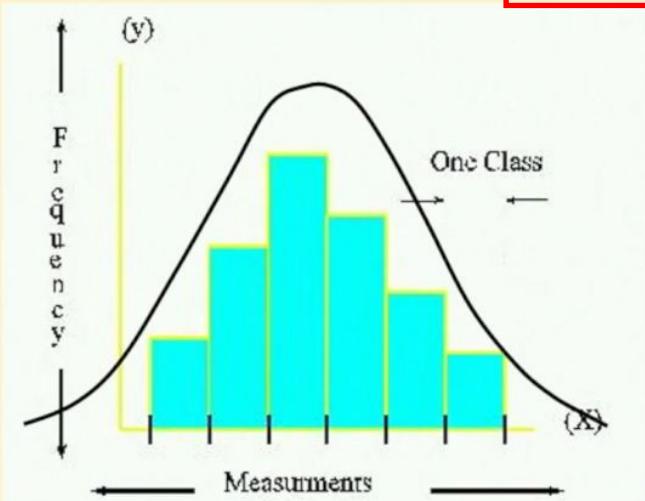
		X			
		X	X		
		X	X		
		X	X		
		X	X		
				X	
			X	X	X
X	X	X	X	X	
X	X	X	X	X	
X	X	X	X	X	
<60	60-69	70-79	80-89	90-100	

Histogram



# Histogram

- Look for data to be “approximately” normal



w2.7- Histograms.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Purpose

- The histogram gives a quick visual representation of the distribution



KENNESAW  
STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:21 / 00:04:36 30



## Histograms: Understanding Data Distribution

A **histogram** is a special type of bar graph that serves as **a graphic representation (a picture of a frequency distribution)**. It is a fundamental tool used to understand the characteristics of your data, such as its shape, center, and spread.

### Structure of a Histogram

- **Vertical Axis (Y-axis):** Represents the **frequency** or count—how many times something happened.
- **Horizontal Axis (X-axis):** Represents the **intervals or groups** of the measured data.
- **Bars:** The **height** of each rectangle located above an interval shows the frequency (or number of scores) that fell into that group.

## Creating a Histogram from Data

To construct a histogram, data must be converted into **discrete groups or intervals** so that frequencies can be counted.

### 1. Handling Data Types

- **Discrete Data (Simple Counts):** If the data consists of simple counts (e.g., number of complaints by type), the categories are already defined for the X-axis.
- **Continuous Data (Measurements):** If the data involves measurements (e.g., exam scores from 0 to 100), it must be grouped into intervals to make it discrete.

## 2. Grouping Continuous Data

When grouping measurement data, you must determine the appropriate number and size of the groups:

- **Number of Groups ( $k$ ):** The number of groups should be approximately equal to the **square root of  $n$** , where  $n$  is the total number of data points.
- **Group Width ( $w$ ):** Calculate the range of the data, then divide it by the number of groups.

$$w = \frac{\text{Largest Value} - \text{Smallest Value}}{k}$$

- If the result is a fraction, **round up**.
- All groups should ideally be the same size and must have **no overlap** (each value must fall into one and only one group).

### 3. Tallying and Plotting

Using the defined groups (often done on a checksheet):

- Create a tally mark for every data point that falls into an interval.
- Sum the tallies to get the total frequency for each group.
- Plot the frequencies as the height of the bars above the corresponding intervals on the X-axis.

## Interpreting a Histogram

A histogram helps you visually answer key questions about your data, which can guide further analysis:

- **Normality (The Bell Curve):** Does the data follow a **normal distribution**? You are looking for a rough fit—is the distribution generally **higher near the middle** and smaller as it moves left or right? (Small samples may not look perfectly normal.)
- **Center:** Where is the **approximate center** of the data? (This relates to measures like the mean or median.)
- **Spread (Range):** What is the spread of the data? This is the difference between the lowest and highest values.
- **Outliers:** Are there any **unusual values** (outliers) that fall far outside the main cluster of data?

The answers to these questions help determine what type of statistical analysis is appropriate for the data.

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Cycle Time

- Definition
  - Process Time
    - Process time is the sum of the processing times for all of the steps in a process

Cycle time is a very important concept

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:13 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Cycle Time

- Definition
  - Process Time
    - Process time is the sum of the processing times for all of the steps in a process
  - Cycle Time
    - Time to complete one cycle of an operation.

Cycle time is typically defined as

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:00:45 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Cycle Time

- Definition
  - Process Time
    - Process time is the sum of the processing times for all of the steps in a process
  - Cycle Time
    - Time to complete **one cycle of an operation**
  - Lead Time
    - Lead time is the time between when a customer places an order, and when that order is delivered.  
**a customer order and the delivery of that order.**



00:02:13 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Cycle Time

- Why is it important?
  - Customer service
  - Waste Elimination
  - WIP Reduction

Often, in our improvement efforts,

 KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:02:24 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Rolled Throughput Yield

Good product

- First Pass Yield (FPY)
  - Component #1.
  - Defects/units
  - $3/50=0.06$  (dpu)
  - Complement =  $1.0-dpu$
  - $1.0-.06=0.94$

Our next measure is called  
rolled throughput yield.



00:03:39 / 00:08:30 45

First Pass Yield (FPY), also known as **Throughput Yield (TPY)**, is a key quality and efficiency metric, typically used in **manufacturing and production**. 

It measures the percentage of units that move through an entire process and meet quality standards **the first time**, without requiring any rework, repair, or being scrapped. Essentially, FPY answers the question: "How many units were made correctly on the first try?" 

 **Formula**

The basic formula for calculating First Pass Yield for a single process step is:

$$\text{FPY} = \frac{\text{Number of Good Units Produced (with no rework)}}{\text{Total Number of Units Entering the Process}}$$

- The numerator, **Good Units Produced (with no rework)**, means the final units that meet all quality specifications immediately after the process. Any units that needed repair or were scrapped are subtracted from the total completed units.  
- The result is often expressed as a percentage. 

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Rolled Throughput Yield

- First Pass Yield (FPY)
  - Component #1:  $3/50=0.06$  (dpu),  $1.0-0.06=0.94$
  - Component #2:  $2/50=0.04$  (dpu),  $1.0-0.04=0.96$
  - Component #3:  $1/50=0.02$  (dpu),  $1.0-0.02=0.98$
  - Component #4:  $2/50=0.04$  (dpu),  $1.0-0.04=0.96$

Now, let's add some more components to our assembly.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:05:20 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Rolled Throughput Yield

- Rolled Throughput Yield
  - To find the probability of two or more independent events occurring at the same time,  
you multiply the individual probabilities.
  - $0.94 * 0.96 * 0.98 * 0.96 = 0.85$

Our assembly could have

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:06:01 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8-Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Rolled Throughput Yield

- Calculate: DPU, FPY, RTY
  - Component #1:
    - 200 units, 6 defects
  - Component #2:
    - 200 units, 1 defect
  - Component #3:
    - 200 units, 3 defects

This time you try it.



KENNESAW  
STATE UNIVERSITY

00:07:04 / 00:08:30 45

w2.8-Six Sigma Measure - pt1.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

Subtitle scale: 0.5

# Rolled Throughput Yield

- Calculate: DPU, FPY, RTY
  - Component #1:
    - $6/200=0.03$  (dpu),  $1-0.03=0.97$  (FPY)
  - Component #2:
    - $1/200=0.005$  (dpu),  $1-0.005=0.995$  (FPY)
  - Component #3:
    - $3/200=0.015$  (dpu),  $1-0.015=0.985$  (FPY)
  - $0.97*0.995*0.985=0.95$  (RTY)

Then we multiplied those probabilities together to



00:08:07 / 00:08:30 45

**Rolled Throughput Yield (RTY)** is a crucial metric in **Lean Six Sigma** that measures the true, overall efficiency and quality of a **multi-step process** or a complete production line.

It represents the **probability** that a unit or product will pass through **all** the sequential steps in a process **without any defects, scrap, or rework** required at any stage.

## RTY Calculation and Formula

RTY is calculated by **multiplying the First Pass Yield (FPY)** or the individual yield of every single step in the process chain. 

$$\text{RTY} = \text{FPY}_1 \times \text{FPY}_2 \times \text{FPY}_3 \times \cdots \times \text{FPY}_n$$

- **RTY:** Rolled Throughput Yield (the overall process yield). 
- **FPY<sub>n</sub>:** First Pass Yield (the percentage of good units produced without rework) for each individual step ( $n$ ). 

## Six Sigma Measures: Cycle Time and Rolled Throughput Yield

This presentation introduces two critical measures used in Lean and Six Sigma: **Cycle Time** (focused on speed) and **Rolled Throughput Yield** (focused on quality across multiple steps).

### 1. Cycle Time vs. Related Measures

The concept of Cycle Time is often confused with Process Time and Lead Time:

- **Process Time (Time of actual work):** The time required to **actually perform** all the steps in a process. It **excludes** waiting, transportation, or delay time.
- **Cycle Time (Time from start to end):** The total time required for an individual unit or product to travel from the **beginning to the end of the entire process**. This **includes all waiting time, delays, and transportation**.
  - It is not unusual for Cycle Time to be **10 to 20 times greater than Process Time**.
  - Cycle Time is heavily influenced by **batch sizes** and **Work In Process (WIP)** inventory.
- **Lead Time:** The time between a **customer order** and the **delivery of that order**. It includes Cycle Time but also any delays *before* the work even begins.

## Value of Reducing Cycle Time

Reducing Cycle Time is a key goal that leads to better customer service. This is achieved by analyzing the current state process map and implementing improvements that remove waste (such as waiting time) and reduce batch sizes.

---

## 2. Rolled Throughput Yield (RTY)

Rolled Throughput Yield (RTY) is a measure of quality that accounts for multiple steps or components in a process.

- **Definition:** RTY is the probability that a process with more than one step or component will produce an entirely error or defect-free unit upon final completion.
- **Concept:** The more steps or components in an assembly, the more opportunities there are for failure, dramatically lowering the final yield.

## Calculation Steps

Calculating RTY requires two preceding steps:

1. **Calculate Defects Per Unit (DPU):**

$$\text{DPU} = \frac{\text{Number of Defects}}{\text{Number of Units}}$$

2. **Calculate First Pass Yield (FPY) for Each Step/Component:**

- FPY is the complement of DPU. It is the probability that a single step or component will be defect-free.

$$\text{FPY} = 1 - \text{DPU}$$

- (Example: If  $\text{DPU} = 0.06$ , then  $\text{FPY} = 1 - 0.06 = 0.94$ , or 94% good quality.)

### 3. Calculate Rolled Throughput Yield (RTY):

- Using the multiplication rule of probability, RTY is the product of the FPY for every step/component in the process.

$$\text{RTY} = \text{FPY}_1 \times \text{FPY}_2 \times \text{FPY}_3 \times \dots \times \text{FPY}_n$$

- (Example: For an assembly with four components with FPYs of 0.94, 0.96, 0.98, and 0.96, the  $\text{RTY} \approx 0.85$ . This means there is only an 85% probability that the final assembly will be defect-free.)

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPU – Mortgage Applications

- Defects Per Unit

the total number of defects  
by the number of units.



00:00:37 / 00:06:52 75

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPU – Mortgage Applications

- Defects Per Unit
  - $12/75=0.16$
  - $.16*100=16\%$

a single mortgage application could have multiple errors.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:01:25 / 00:06:52 75

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPU - Automobiles

- Defects Per Unit
  - $9000/1,000=9$  Defects Per Unit

and this month we produce 1,000 new cars.



00:01:34 / 00:06:52

75

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPMO - Mortgages

- Defects Per Million Opportunities
  - $30 * 75 = 2250$  opportunities.

Let's go back to mortgages for a second.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:02:08 / 00:06:52

75

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPMO - Mortgages

- Defects Per Million Opportunities
  - $30 * 75 = 2,250$  opportunities.
- Formula for DPMO
  - $(\text{Defects}/\text{Opportunities}) * 1,000,000$
  - $(12/2,250) * 1,000,000$
  - $0.005333 * 1,000,000 = 5,333.333 \text{ DPMO}$
- Shortcut
  - $(\text{DPU}/\text{Opportunities per unit}) * 1,000,000$
  - $(0.16/30) * 1,000,000$
  - $0.005333 * 1,000,000 = 5,333.333 \text{ DPMO}$

As you can see, this will give you the same result.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:19 / 00:06:52 75

w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPMO - Automobiles

- Defects Per Million Opportunities
  - 500 opportunities per vehicle
  - 1,000 vehicles
  - $500 * 1,000 = 500,000$

vehicle or 9,000 defects across 1,000 vehicles.

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:37 / 00:06:52 75

# DPMO - Automobiles

- Defects Per Million Opportunities
  - 500 opportunities per vehicle
  - 1,000 vehicles
  - $500 * 1,000 = 500,000$
  - $(\text{Defects}/\text{Opportunities}) * 1,000,000$
  - $9,000/500,000 = 0.018$
  - $0.018 * 1,000,000 = 18,000 \text{ DPMO}$
- Shortcut
  - $(\text{DPU}/\text{Opportunities per unit}) * 1,000,000$
  - $(9/500) * 1,000,000$
  - $0.018 * 1,000,000 = 18,000 \text{ DPMO}$

so we divide 9,000 by 500,000.



w2.8- Six Sigma Measure - pt2.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# DPU/DPMO

- Defects Per Unit
  - Defects/Units
- Defects Per Million Opportunities
  - Opportunities per unit \* units
  - $(\text{Defects}/\text{Opportunities}) * 1,000,000$
  - OR
  - $(\text{DPU}/\text{Opportunities per unit}) * 1,000,000$



00:05:57 / 00:06:52

75

## Six Sigma Measures: DPU and DPMO

This presentation covers two fundamental measures used to quantify quality and defects, moving from a simple average to a standardized measure for comparison.

### 1. Defects Per Unit (DPU)

**Defects Per Unit (DPU)** is a simple ratio that expresses the average number of defects found per item or unit produced.

#### Calculation

$$\text{DPU} = \frac{\text{Total Number of Defects Found}}{\text{Total Number of Units Produced (Sample Size)}}$$

#### Interpretation

- A DPU greater than 1 means, on average, each unit has multiple defects.

- **Example 1 (Mortgage Applications):** 75 applications processed, 12 defects found.

$$\text{DPU} = \frac{12 \text{ defects}}{75 \text{ applications}} = 0.16$$

Interpretation: 0.16 defects per unit, meaning **16%** of the applications had at least one error (though some units may have more).

- **Example 2 (Automobiles):** 1,000 cars produced, 9,000 defects found.

$$\text{DPU} = \frac{9,000 \text{ defects}}{1,000 \text{ cars}} = 9.0$$

Interpretation: **9** defects per unit, on average.

## 2. Defects Per Million Opportunities (DPMO)

**Defects Per Million Opportunities (DPMO)** is a common Six Sigma measure that normalizes the defect rate, allowing comparison across processes of varying complexity.

### Defining Opportunities

An **opportunity** is defined as every possible place a defect or error could occur in a product or service.

- **Total Opportunities** = **Opportunities per Unit** × Total Number of Units

## Calculation (Method 1: Using Total Values)

$$\text{DPMO} = \frac{\text{Total Number of Defects}}{\text{Total Number of Opportunities}} \times 1,000,000$$

- **Example (Mortgage Applications):** 12 defects, 75 applications, 30 fields/opportunities per application.
  - Total Opportunities:  $30 \times 75 = 2,250$
  - $\text{DPMO} = \frac{12}{2,250} \times 1,000,000 = \mathbf{5,333}$
  - Interpretation: There are 5,333 errors for every million opportunities.

### Calculation (Method 2: Using DPU - Shortcut)

$$\text{DPMO} = \frac{\text{DPU}}{\text{Opportunities per Unit}} \times 1,000,000$$

- **Example (Automobiles):** DPU = 9, Opportunities per Vehicle = 500.

- $$\text{DPMO} = \frac{9}{500} \times 1,000,000 = \mathbf{18,000}$$

DPMO provides a standardized perspective for expressing quality, with a Six Sigma level defined as only 3.4 DPMO.

The phrase "**Defects Per Million Opportunities**" (**DPMO**) is a key metric used in **Quality Management** and is fundamental to the **Six Sigma methodology**. 

It provides a standardized way to measure the performance and quality of any process—whether it's manufacturing a product, handling a customer service request, or processing a loan application—by quantifying the rate of errors. 

## What is DPMO?

DPMO is the number of defects (or errors) that are expected to occur for every one million chances (opportunities) for an error to occur.

- **Defect:** An error, flaw, or non-conformance to a standard or customer requirement (e.g., a scratch on a car, a typo in an invoice, a button missing on a shirt).
- **Opportunity:** Any step in a process where a defect *could* potentially occur. A single product or unit often has multiple opportunities for a defect.

The metric is powerful because it allows you to compare the quality performance of completely different processes, even if they have varying levels of complexity. A lower DPMO indicates better process performance and higher quality.

The formula is:

$$\text{DPMO} = \frac{\text{Total Defects}(D)}{\text{Total Units}(U) \times \text{Opportunities per Unit}(O)} \times 1,000,000$$

## Example Calculation

1. **Process:** Manufacturing a simple ballpoint pen. 🔗
2. **Units (U):** 1,000 pens are produced. 🔗
3. **Opportunities per Unit (O):** You define 5 possible points of failure for a pen (e.g., the ink cartridge, the ballpoint tip, the cap fit, the barrel print, the pocket clip). 🔗
  - *Total Opportunities:*  $1,000 \times 5 = 5,000$  🔗
4. **Defects (D):** During inspection, you find 15 defects in total across all 1,000 pens (e.g., 8 bad caps, 5 misprinted barrels, 2 broken clips).

$$\text{DPMO} = \frac{15}{1,000 \times 5} \times 1,000,000 = \frac{15}{5,000} \times 1,000,000 = 0.003 \times 1,000,000 = 3,000$$

The DPMO is **3,000**. This means that if you continued this process, you would expect 3,000 defects for every one million opportunities for a defect to occur. 

## ★ Relation to Six Sigma

The entire Six Sigma quality goal is defined by DPMO. A process operating at a **Six Sigma level** has a DPMO of only **3.4 defects per million opportunities**. This is widely regarded as near-perfect quality. 

## w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality

# Concepts

- History
  - 1951 Juran – Gold in the Mine
  - 1957 – 1961 Masser, Freeman, and Feigenbaum
    - Prevention, appraisal, failure
  - 1961 – 1967 DOD (milspec), ASQ
  - 2009 less than 10% of companies analyze quality costs
    - *Principles of Quality Cost, Douglas C. Wood, Ed. (2013)*



w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Classifications

- Traditionally, Quality costs are divided as shown here:
  - Costs of poor quality
    - Internal failure costs
    - External failure costs
  - Costs of good quality
    - Appraisal costs
    - Prevention Costs



00:01:04 / 00:07:59 95

w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Quality Costs

External Failure	Internal Failure
Appraisal	Prevention



KENNESAW  
STATE UNIVERSITY  
4

00:01:25 / 00:07:59 95

# Quality Costs

## External Failure

- Customer Complaints and Dissatisfaction
- Downtime
- Loss of Market Share
- Customer penalties
- Repair costs
- Scrap
- Warranty Expenses

Source: Juran and Gryna, Quality Planning and Analysis, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, McGraw Hill, 1980, pp. 14-16



w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Quality Costs

**Internal Failure**

- Sorting
- Scrap
- Rework
- Retest
- Design or Engineering Changes
- Yield losses

Source: Juran and Gryna, Quality Planning and Analysis, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, McGraw Hill, 1980, pp. 14-16



KENNESAW  
STATE UNIVERSITY  
6

00:02:36 / 00:07:59

95

w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Quality Costs

- Equipment calibration
- Receiving inspection
- Inspection and test
- Materials consumed

## Appraisal

Source: Juran and Gryna, Quality Planning and Analysis, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, McGraw Hill, 1980, pp. 14-16



00:03:07 / 00:07:59 95

# Quality Costs

- **Supplier Evaluation**
- Training
- Process control
- Equipment maintenance
- Mistake proofing
- Visual management

## Prevention

Source: Juran and Gryna, Quality Planning and Analysis, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, McGraw Hill, 1980, pp. 14-16



w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

## Visible Costs

Warranty  
Sorting  
Reprocess

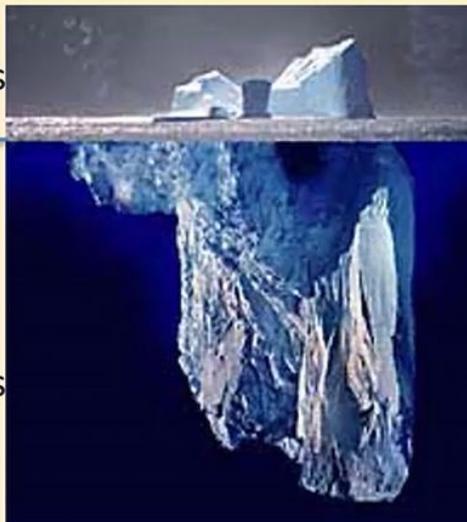
Inspection  
Scrap  
Rework

---

## Hidden Costs

Set-ups  
Risk  
Returns  
Lost Sales

Customer Impact  
Administrative costs  
Inventory  
Expediting



By original image by Uwe Kils, Wiska Bodo (Losslessly cropped Image:Iceberg.jpg) [GFDL (<http://www.gnu.org/copyleft/fdl.html>) or CC-BY-SA-3.0 (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0/>)], via Wikimedia Commons

KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:04:27 / 00:07:59

95

w2.9- Cost of Poor Quality.mp4

File View Playback Video Subtitles Audio Settings Help

# Optimum Cost of Quality

Cost

P&A Cost

Failure cost

Total Cost

Optimal Level

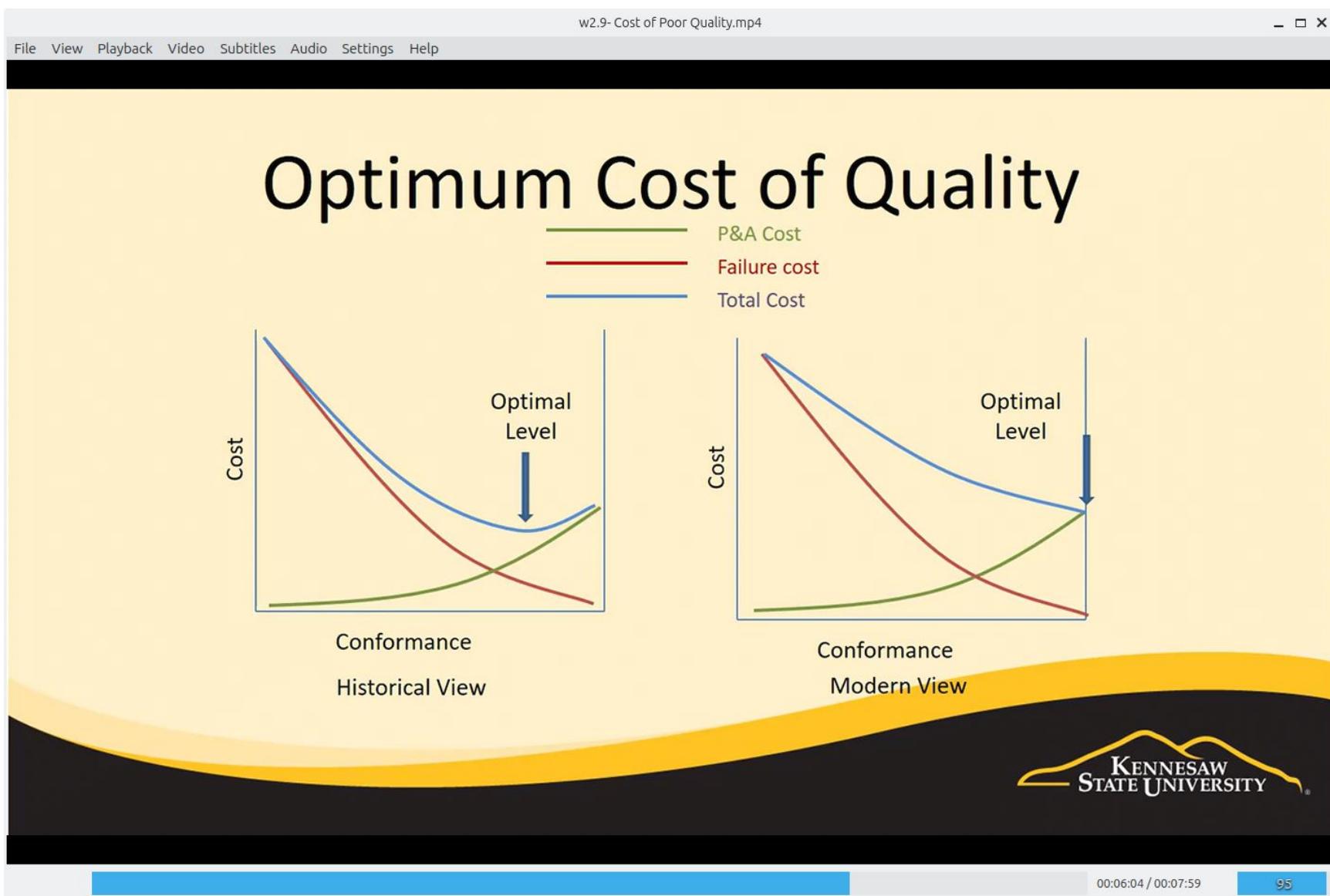
Conformance

Historical View

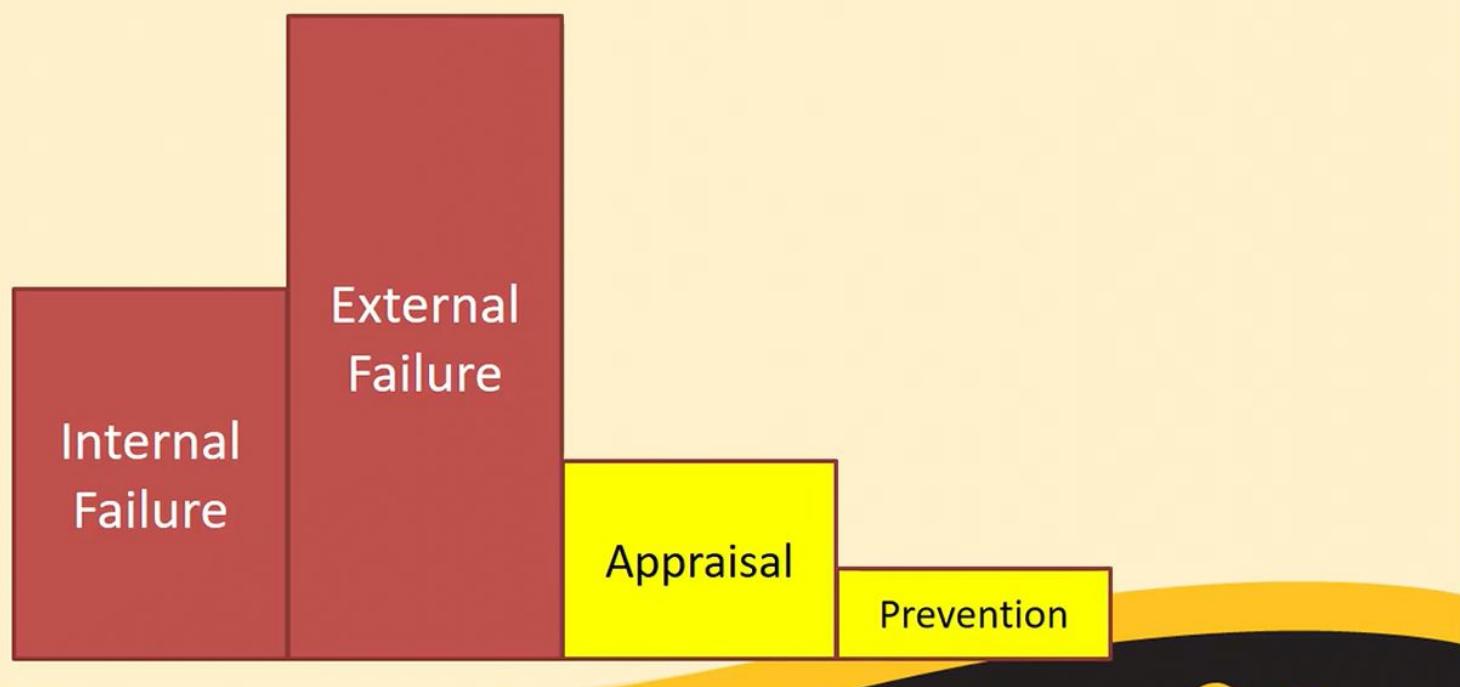
KENNESAW STATE UNIVERSITY

00:05:15 / 00:07:59

95



# Organizations beginning quality systems

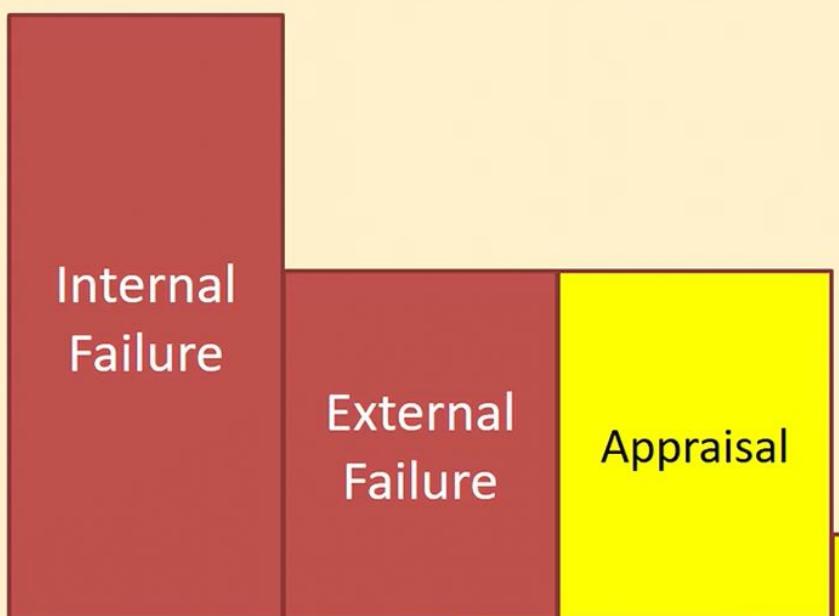


12

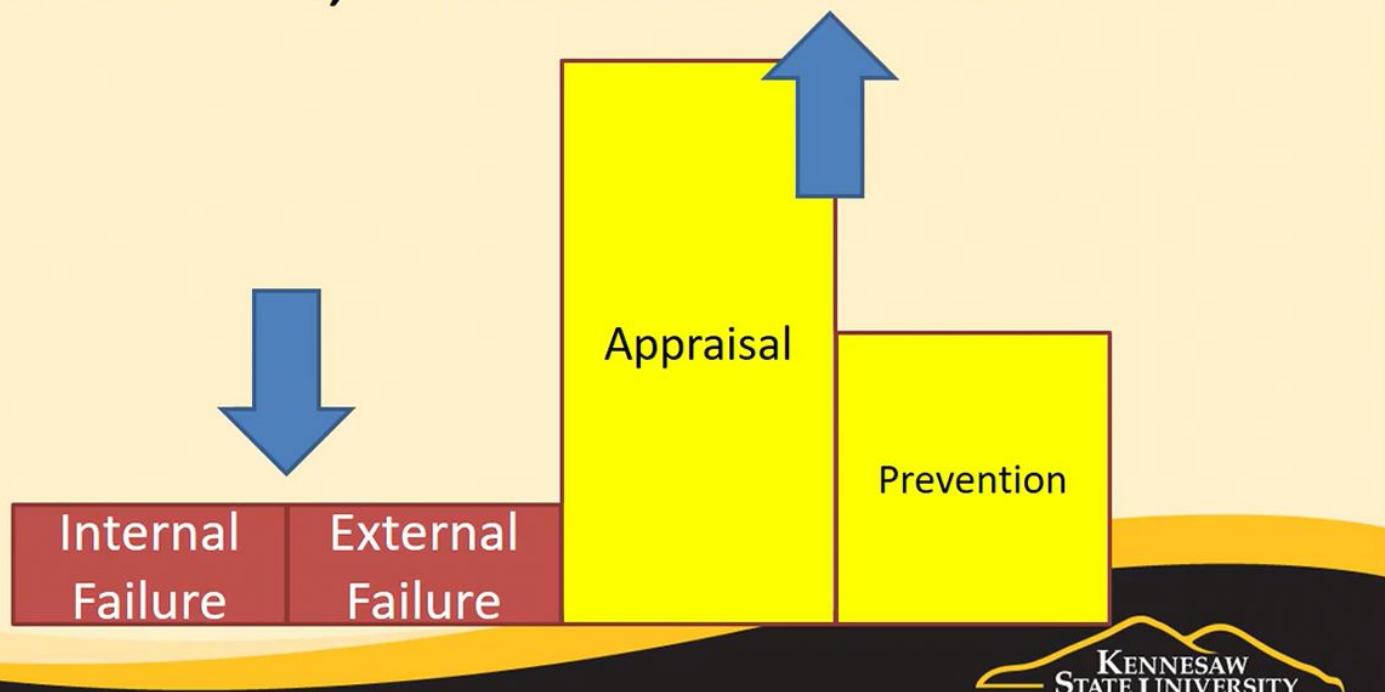
00:06:20 / 00:07:59

95

# As Appraisal increases, external failures decrease



# As Appraisal & Prevention Costs Increase, Failures Decrease



## Cost of Quality (COQ)

The **Cost of Quality (COQ)** concept, dating back to the work of Joseph Juran, defines the difference between the actual cost of a product or service and what the cost would be if there were **no possibility of defects or failure.**

While fewer than 10% of companies tracked these costs as of 2009, measuring COQ is crucial for identifying improvement opportunities.

## 4 Four Classifications of Quality Costs

Quality costs are traditionally grouped into four categories, divided between the **Costs of Poor Quality (Failure Costs)** and the **Costs of Good Quality (Appraisal and Prevention Costs)**.

### I. Costs of Poor Quality (Failure Costs)

Classification	Timing	Description and Examples
<b>External Failure Costs</b>	After the product/service reaches the customer.	<b>The most expensive costs.</b> Includes customer complaints/dissatisfaction, loss of market share, penalties from customers, warranty costs, scrap, repair, and massive costs/reputational damage from product recalls.
<b>Internal Failure Costs</b>	Before the product/service reaches the customer.	Still expensive, but better than external failure. Includes the expense of sorting good from bad, <b>retesting, rework, scrap</b> , changing design or methods, and experiencing <b>lower yield</b> (FPY/RTY).

## II. Costs of Good Quality (Control Costs)

Classification	Timing	Description and Examples
<b>Appraisal Costs</b>	Incurred in efforts to <b>detect errors or defects.</b>	Includes the cost of inspection (personnel, equipment maintenance, and time) for incoming, in-process, and final inspection/tests. Catching a problem early minimizes investment losses.
<b>Prevention Costs</b>	Incurred to <b>prevent errors or defects</b> from occurring in the first place.	Often <b>one-time</b> costs. Includes money spent on capability studies, process control, training, and Lean tools like <b>mistake-proofing</b> (Poka-Yoke) and visual management.



## The Evolution of the Optimal Quality View

The relationship between control costs (prevention/appraisal) and failure costs dictates the total cost of quality, but the view on the "optimal" quality level has changed.

View	Optimal Quality Level	Total Cost Curve	Rationale
Traditional View	Less than 100%	U-shaped	Suggests that failure costs decline as prevention/appraisal costs rise, but at some intersection point, the <b>total cost will begin to rise</b> meaning 100% quality costs too much.
Modern View	100% Good Quality	Continually declining	Suggests that total costs continue to <b>decline until perfect quality is reached</b> , making 100% good quality the optimum goal.

## Quality System Maturity

As an organization matures in its quality journey, the mix of these costs shifts:

1. **Beginning Stage:** High **External Failure Costs** are likely the reason the system was started.
2. **Developing Stage:** The company increases **Appraisal Costs** (inspection). This drives external failures down, but often increases **Internal Failure Costs** (as defects are now caught internally). This is considered an improvement.
3. **Mature Stage:** The company increases spending on **Prevention Costs**. A robust system of prevention and appraisal drives both **Internal and External Failure Costs down**. Eventually, the company may even be able to reduce the scope of inspection, lowering Appraisal Costs.