<u>Statistical Applications</u> <u>Using Minitab</u>

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Los Angeles Section ASQ



The Statistician

The Statistician is a person who poses as an exacting expert on the basis of being able to turn out with prolific fortitude infinite strings of incomprehensible formulae calculated with micrometric precision from vague assumptions which are based upon debatable figures taken from inconclusive experiments carried out with instruments of problematical accuracy by persons of doubtful reliability and questionable mentality.



Key Take-Aways

- Minitab is a Simple and Powerful Tool in Data Analysis and Display
- Always try to Graphically Display your data
 - Easier to understand
 - Draws picture of what is really happening
 - Check for Patterns
 - Is it Normal?
 - Time Series for trends, changes, effects
- Organize and Plan you Data Collection first
- Analyze the results and recheck any assumptions
- Have Fun. Software has made data analysis easier, faster, and funner!



A Warm-up Look

- First record 10-15 data points in the first column.
- Let's name the column
 "Results"
- Go to Stat>Basic Statistics>Graphical Summary

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How Do I Look At The Data ?

- It's PGA, Baby!!
 - <u>Practical</u> (Are there any obvious problems or patterns?) ANOB or ANOG
 - <u>Graphical</u> (Look at the Pictures)

Two different situations, two histograms requiring different approaches

- Analytical (Check out the Statistics)



You should end up with something like this

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And a Graphical Summary



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More About Displaying Data

A histogram is a graphical display of tabulated frequencies, which are shown as bars. It illustrates what portion of cases fall into each of several categories.

Lets look at an example for the following data:

4,9,7,2,11,7,12,6,8,5,3,8,7,6,9,4,9,6,5,10, 8,5,7,3,8,6,10,9,10,7,11,6,8,5,4,7.

The histogram would look like this:



A Quantitative Look At The Data



How about this data: 4,9,7,5,10,7,11,8,8,5,3,8,9,5,9,3,5,9,5,10

6,7,9,4,8,2,10,8,10,6,8,6,8,5,4,11.



How Does The New Data Set Look?



The Mean is the same and the Std Dev is almost identical, but the shape of their distribution is very different. What type of distribution is this?



Distributions







Non-Normal Distributions



A. Normal Distribution



B. Skewed Distribution



C. Exponential Distribution



Checking Many Distributions At The Same Time

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n-	11	✓ Multi-Vari Chart	5.07517		
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Individual Distribution Identification

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	C Subgroups across rows of:	Result
		
		-
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1	Distribution 1: Normal	•
Select	Distribution 2: Exponential	•
	Distribution 3: Weibull	-
	Distribution 4: Gamma	-
		OK
Help		Cano



Here Is What You Get



Holy Crap !

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Transformation



Your Data Analysis Choices

- Normal Distribution (Bell Curve)
- Transform to Normalize the Data
- Utilize Non-parametric Statistics
- Treat as Discrete (Attribute Data)

Transformations

Make a transformation of the original characteristic to a new characteristic that is normally distributed. These transformations are useful for (a) achieving normality of measured results, (b) satisfying the assumption of equal sample variances required in certain tests, and (c) satisfying the assumption of additivity of effects in certain tests.

From Joseph Juran, Quality Control Handbook



Some Things Just Aren't Normal



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Testing For Normality

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A Study - Aerobes





Example of Need for Transformation



What the heck happened here?



Transformation to Log Values

	<u>Aerobes</u>	<u>Log10</u>	<u>Nat Log</u>
1.	200	2.30103	5.298317
2.	440	2.643453	6.086775
3.	220	2.342423	5.393628
4.	1100	3.041393	7.003065
5.	80	1.90309	4.382027
6.	55	1.740363	4.007333
7.	60	1.778151	4.094345
8.	1700	3.230449	7.438384
9.	100	2	4.60517
10.	200	2.30103	5.298317
11.	160	2.20412	5.075174
12.	110	2.041393	4.70048
13.	170	2.230449	5.135798
14.	210	2.322219	5.347108
15.	3600	3.556303	8.188689
16.	90	1.954243	4.49981
17.	85	1.929419	4.442651
18.	35	1.544068	3.555348
19.	430	2.633468	6.063785
20.	180	2.255273	5.192957
21.	5	0.69897	1.609438
22.	15	1.176091	2.70805
23.	1	0	0
24.	30	1.477121	3.401197
25.	10	1	2.302585
26.	10	1	2.302585
27.	20	1.30103	2.995732
28.	15	1.176091	2.70805
29.	20	1.30103	2.995732
30-	15	1.176091	2,70805





Normality Test of a Transformation



Before

After

So how did we know to take the Log value in order to normalize our data?



Minitab Application of Box Cox Transformation

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			13		170	2.23045	5.13580									
			14		210	2.32222	5.34711									
			15		3600	3.55630	8.18869									
			16		90	1.95424	4.49981									
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Box Cox Transformation

A transformation was considered in order to normalize the data and produce a more accurate and predictable distribution pattern. The Box-Cox Plot of the data was generated to assist in the transformation process. The plot was produced for the data as follows:

λ (Power)	Υ ^λ	Common Names					
-2	$\frac{-1}{Y^2}$	Reciprocal (inverse) squared					
-1	<u>1</u> Y	Reciprocal (inverse)					
-0.5	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{Y}}$	Reciprocal square root (inverse)					
• • • •	Ln(Y)	Log					
0.5	√Y	Square root					
1	No transformation						
2	Υ2	Squared					



The Rounded Value for this transformation was calculated at 0.00 thus suggesting a Log (Ln(Y)) Transformation per the Box-Cox Methodology. This again was not atypical since microbial data frequently exhibits itself in an exponential manner. Both a Natural Log and a Log Base 10 transformation were calculated on the original data set using the calculator function in Minitab 15.



Data set – 200, 440, 220, 1100, 80, 55, 60, 1700, 100, 200, 160, 110, 170, 210, <u>3600</u>, 90, 85, 35, 430, 180, 5, 15, 1, 30, 10, 10, 20, 15, 20, 15.





Conclusion

The sample with a reading of 3600 is expected to occur approximately 1 out of every 67 readings on an average and should not be considered extreme based on the distribution of the data. The sample with this count of Aerobes should be identified through a gram stain to determine the nature of its source, but unless abnormal concerns are raised based on the type of microorganism, no additional action should be taken.

And if you can't do a valid transformation

Common Nonparametric Tests

NONPARAMETRIC	FUNCTION	PARAMETRIC
1-Sample Sign*	Test the median for 1 sample Test difference in dependent samples	t test or z test
1-Sample Wilcoxon*	Test the median difference in dependent samples	t test or z test
Mann-Whitney*	Test the median difference in 2 independent samples	t test or z test
Chi-Square/ Spearman's Rank	Test relationships	Correlation / Regression
Kruskal-Wallis/ Mood's Median*	Test the median difference in many independent samples	ANOVA
Siegel-Tukey (not in Minitab)	Test differences in spread of 2 independent samples	F test
Friedman	Test if two factors are significant	2 – way ANOVA
Runs Test	Test for Randomness	No equivalent



Outliers





The "Oh Crap" data point aka the Outlier

- An outlier is an observation point that is distant from other observations.
- An outlier may be due to variability in the measurement or it may indicate experimental error: the latter are sometimes excluded from the data set.
- An outlier may be caused by a defective unit or a problem in the process.
- ISO 16269 defines it as "member of a small subset of observations that appears to be inconsistent with the remainder of a given sample."

- There is no rigid mathematical definition of what constitutes an outlier; determining whether or not an observation is an outlier is ultimately a subjective exercise.
- Every effort must be made to determine what is causing the outlier to exist. Testing, equipment, operator error, materials, etc. all must be reviewed and assessment made.

- ASTM E178-08 "Standard Practice for Dealing with Outlying Observations"
- ISO 16269-4:2010 "Statistical interpretation of data – Part 4: Detection and treatment of outliers"

- Model-based methods which are commonly used for identification assume that the data are from a normal distribution, and identify observations which are deemed "unlikely" based on mean and standard deviation:
 - Chauvenet's criterion
 - Grubbs' test for outliers
 - Peircece's criterion
Other methods flag observations based on measures such as the interquartile range. For example, if Q1 and Q3 are the lowest and upper quartiles respectively, then one could define an outlier to be any observation outside the range:

$$[Q_1 - k(Q_3 - Q_1), Q_3 + k(Q_3 - Q_1)]$$





http://www.physics.csbsju.edu/stats/box2.html



Figure 6. Box plots showing the individual scores and the means.

http://onlinestatbook.com/2/graphing_distributions/boxplots.html



The plot may be drawn either vertically as in the above diagram, or horizontally.

http://www.netmba.com/statistics/plot/box/

The boxplot is interpreted as follows:

- The box itself contains the middle 50% of the data. The upper edge (hinge) of the box indicates the 75th percentile of the data set, and the lower hinge indicates the 25th percentile. The range of the middle two quartiles is known as the inter-quartile range.
- The line in the box indicates the median value of the data.
- If the median line within the box is not equidistant from the hinges, then the data is skewed.
- The ends of the vertical lines or "whiskers" indicate the minimum and maximum data values, unless outliers are present in which case the whiskers extend to a maximum of 1.5 times the inter-quartile range.
- The points outside the ends of the whiskers are outliers or suspected outliers.

Outlier determination can be tricky!

Data set – 200, 440, 220, 1100, 80, 55, 60, 1700, 100, 200, 160, 110, 170, 210, <u>3600</u>, 90, 85, 35, 430, 180, 5, 15, 1, 30, 10, 10, 20, 15, 20, 15.





Conclusion

The sample with a reading of 3600 is expected to occur approximately 1 out of every 67 readings on an average and should not be considered extreme based on the distribution of the data. The sample with this count of Aerobes should be identified through a gram stain to determine the nature of its source, but unless abnormal concerns are raised based on the type of microorganism, no additional action should be taken.

- Outliers must be investigated
- Use the tools found in root cause analysis
 - Interview operators
 - Evaluate the measuring system
 - Try to duplicate the reading
- Don't make assumptions or jump to conclusions
- Do not remove outliers simply because they are outliers

Note that outliers are not necessarily "bad" data-points; indeed they may well be the most important, most information rich, part of the dataset. Under no circumstances should they be automatically removed from the dataset. Outliers may deserve special consideration: they may be the key to the phenomenon under study or the result of human blunders.

Control Charts



The World of Control Charts



Control Charts

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Test to Determine Abnormal Situations (Special Causes)

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K points in a row, all increasing or all decreasing	6
K points in a row, alternating up and down	14
\Box K out of K+1 points > 2 standard deviations from center line (same side)	2
\Box K out of K+1 points > 1 standard deviation from center line (same side)	4
\square K points in a row within 1 standard deviation of center line (either side)	15
\Box K points in a row > 1 standard deviation from center line (either side)	8



Individual and Moving Range Chart Example



Small Shifts – EWMA Chart

EWMA Chart for Contract Cycle Time





Normal Data for Data Set 1







Time Series Plot for Data 1



X Bar & R for Data Set 1



Time Series for Data Set 2





X Bar & R for Data Set 2



Time Series Plot for Data 3

16.00 24.53 14.39 24.95 15.61 23.23 20.99 18.32 20.32 18.63 20.91 18.31 16.46 22.05 16.95 22.98 17.21 21.17 27.43 17.77 28.22 18.21 19.10 25.96 21.02 19.85 21.29 19.74 21.46 20.83



X Bar & R for Data Set 3



Multi-Vari Chart for Data Set 1



Multi-Vari Chart for Data Set 2





Multi-Vari Chart for Data Set 3





Questions

Two questions:

- 1) What have we learned from the data sets and graphs?
- 2) Will the product resulting from these three different data sets be different in terms of quality or the same?



Hypothesis Testing



Types of Hypothesis Tests

The first three tests look at differences in group averages.

The 4th looks for differences in variance.

The last 3
 look at
 differences in
 proportions.

Hypothesis Test	Purpose			
<i>t</i> -test	Compare two group averages			
Paired <i>t</i> -test	Compare two group averages when data is paired			
ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)	Compare two or more group averages			
Test of Homogeneity of Variance	Compare two or more group variances			
Chi-Square test	Compare two or more group proportions			
1-Proportion test	Compare one proportion to a Prescribed boundary			
2-Proportion test	Compare two group proportions			



Hypothesis Testing

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Another Simple Combination

Does fatigue affect mean rupture diameter?

Boxplots of Rupture by Type

(means are indicated by solid circles)



NO. No statistically significant difference in mean rupture diameter pre and post fatigue.....

The Three t's

- t-tests come in 3 main types
 - One sample t-test
 - Compares a sample to a known value
 - Value can be based on history
 - <u>Two sample t-test</u>
 - Compares two samples
 - Paired t-test
 - Usually compares two treatments to the sample samples
 - Example: two people measuring the same parts



Let's Talk About P-values

- There are many ways to state the conclusions reached based on a P-value. Which of these are easier to understand?
 - 1. A P-value is used to judge whether an observed difference between groups is significantly bigger than common-cause (random) variation (yes, if P < .05).
 - 2. If P < .05, reject the H_0 and conclude the H_a .
 - 3. P < .05 means that there is less than a 5% chance that the groups came from the same distribution.
 - 4. A P-value determines whether the observed difference is a statistically significant difference (yes, if P < .05).
 - 5. The P-value equals the probability of obtaining the observed difference given that the "true" difference is zero.
 - 6. If the P-value is low (< .05), the observed difference must be significant since the probability is low that such a difference in samples could be observed, if indeed there was no "true" difference.
 - 7. A P-value is used to judge whether there is enough statistical evidence to reject the null hypothesis (yes, if P < .05).



The one-sample t-test assumes the population is normally distributed. However, it is fairly robust to violations of this assumption, provided the observations are collected randomly and the data are continuous, unimodal, and reasonably symmetric.

Why use a one-sample t-test? A one-sample t-test can help answer questions such as: Is the process on target? Does a key characteristic of a supplier's material have the desired mean value? Is a new material or process taking us in the right direction? Let's discuss this last one. Are there times I want to reject the Null Hypothesis?



One-sample t-test example

Cerealbx.MTW ***							
Ŧ	C1	C2	C3	C4			
	BoxWeigh						
1	370.129						
2	367.710						
3	366.948						
4	364.528						
5	363.429						
6	367.483						
7							
8							
9							
10							
11							
12							
13							
14							
15							

We want to determine if the box weight is at our target of 365 grams.



We need to start with a check of the normality assumption.

What is the hypothesis here?

The Analysis

```
Welcome to Minitab, press F1 for help.
Retrieving project from file: 'D:\MANUFACTURING\BASIC STATISTICS
1.0\CEREALBX.MPJ'
```

Results for: Cerealbx.MTW

Probability Plot of BoxWeigh

Probability Plot of BoxWeigh

One-Sample T: BoxWeigh

Test of mu = 365 vs not = 365

Variable	N	Mean	StDev	SE Mean	95%	CI	Т	P
BoxWeigh	6	366.705	2.403	0.981	(364.183,	369.226)	1.74	0.143



The Paired t-test

The paired t-test uses matched data

Matched data can be for analysis of:

Two Operators Two Materials Two Suppliers Two Machines Two Pieces of Measuring Equipment

It is statistically more stringent than a two-sample t-test

Let's try to understand why.


An Exercise with the t test

	SCRAP.MTW ***													
	÷	C1	C2	C3	C4									
		Cell	New\$Scrap	Std\$Scrap										
Ш	1	1	101.97	114.71										
	2	2	126.17	134.40										
Ш	3	3	133.63	133.68										
Ш	4	4	173.98	185.04										
Ш	5	5	206.26	209.60										
	6	6	161.11	168.23										
	7	7	99.63	109.02										
	8	8	133.82	131.06										
	9	9	154.88	161.46										
	10	10	141.72	146.78										
	11													

Let's do treat this data as paired and also as unpaired to see if there is a difference.





®

And the session windows

2-sample t

```
Difference = mu (New$Scrap) - mu (Std$Scrap)
Estimate for difference: -6.1
95% CI for difference: (-36.3, 24.2)
T-Test of difference = 0 (vs not =): T-Value = -0.42 P-Value = 0.677 DF = 17
```

Paired t

```
Paired T for New$Scrap - Std$Scrap

N Mean StDev SE Mean

New$Scrap 10 143.3 32.4 10.2

Std$Scrap 10 149.4 31.7 10.0

Difference 10 -6.08 4.82 1.52

95% CI for mean difference: (-9.53, -2.63)

T-Test of mean difference = 0 (vs not = 0): T-Value = -3.99 P-Value = 0.003
```

What 2 Key indicators are there regarding the Null Hypothesis?



But Why?

Cell	New \$Scrap	Standard \$Scrap	Paired Differences
1	101.97	114.71	12.74
2	126.17	134.40	8.23
3	133.63	133.68	0.05
4	173.98	185.04	11.06
5	206.26	209.60	3.34
6	161.11	168.23	7.12
7	99.63	109.02	9.39
8	133.82	131.06	-2.76
9	154.88	161.46	6.58
10	141.72	146.78	5.06
average	143.32	149.40	6.08
st.dev.	32.41	31.70	4.82



Executing the test

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1-Sample t (Test and (Confidence Interval)	3
	Samples in columns:	
	BoxWeigh	
	C Summarized data	
	Sample size:	
	Mean:	ł
	Standard deviation:	
	Perform hypothesis test	
	Hypothesized mean: 365	
Select	Graphs Options	-
Help	OK Cancel	



One-portion test

1 Proportion (Test and Confidence Interval)	
C Samples in columns:	We'll use summarized data for this one
Number of events: 18	
Number of trials: 500	
Perform hypothesis test Hypothesized proportion:	
Select Options	Minitab - Untitled
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	Test and CI for One Proportion
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target of 2%?	Exact Sample X N Sample p 95% CI P-Value
-	1 18 500 0.036000 (0.021473, 0.056300) 0.023
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Two-portion test

2 Proportions (Test a	nd Confidence I	(nterval)	×
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	First:	1	100
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Help		OK	Options
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We can compare two samples this way.

1 18 500 0.036000 (0.021473, 0.056300) 0.023

Test and CI for Two Proportions

Sample	Х	N	Sample p
1	1	100	0.010000
2	18	500	0.036000

What statements can we make about these two samples?

```
Difference = p (1) - p (2)
Estimate for difference: -0.026
95% CI for difference: (-0.0514349, -0.000565134)
Test for difference = 0 (vs not = 0): Z = -2.00 P-Value = 0.045
```

Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.225

* NOTE * The normal approximation may be inaccurate for small samples.



Process Capability



Capability Studies

- 1) The true purpose of a capability study is to determine exactly how well a process, product, component can meet a predetermined specification.
- 2) It can be measured in several different ways.
- The values generated can be absolute or relative. We may want to compare or we may want to use it to check against a hard and fast standard.

A Capability Study consists of:

Measuring Devices, Procedures, Definitions, People, Specifications and Processes.



7 Steps to a Good Process Capability Study

- 1. Obtain Process Data
- 2. Prepare Control Charts and Frequency Displays
- 3. Evaluate Process Stability
- 4. Estimate Short-Term and Long-Term Process Variation
- 5. Evaluate how well a Normal Distribution approximates the individual process observations
- 6. Prepare Summary Measures of Process Capability
- 7. Judge adequacy of Process Capability



Where is it in Minitab?

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Process Capability Example



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How About Using Process Capability for Comparative Purposes?





Thank You For Your Time and Attention ! Uncle Larry

