

Howard S. Gitlow
Richard J. Melnyck
David M. Levine

A GUIDE TO

**SIX SIGMA AND
PROCESS
IMPROVEMENT**

**FOR PRACTITIONERS
AND STUDENTS**

Second Edition

**Foundations, DMAIC, Tools,
Cases, and Certification**

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This book is dedicated to:

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Contents

Section I Building a Foundation of Process Improvement Fundamentals

Chapter 1	You Don't Have to Suffer from the Sunday Night Blues!	1
	What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	1
	Sarah's Story	2
	Nine Principles of Process Improvement to Get the Most Out of This Book	3
	Structure of the Book	14
	Let's Go!	16
	References	16
Chapter 2	Process and Quality Fundamentals	17
	What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	17
	Process Fundamentals	18
	What Is a Process?	18
	Where Do Processes Exist?	18
	Why Does Understanding Processes Matter?	19
	What Is a Feedback Loop and How Does It Fit into the Idea of a Process?	19
	Some Process Examples to Bring It All Together!	19
	Variation Fundamentals	24
	What Is Variation in a Process?	24
	Why Does Variation Matter?	25
	What Are the Two Types of Variation?	25
	How to Demonstrate the Two Types of Variation	27
	Red Bead Experiment	30
	Quality Fundamentals	31
	Goal Post View of Quality	31
	Continuous Improvement Definition of Quality—Taguchi Loss Function	32
	More Quality Examples	33
	Takeaways from This Chapter	33
	References	34

Chapter 3 Defining and Documenting a Process35

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?35

A Story to Illustrate the Importance of Defining and Documenting a Process35

Fundamentals of Defining a Process36

 Who Owns the Process? Who Is Responsible for the Improvement
 of the Process?36

 What Are the Boundaries of the Process?37

 What Are the Process’s Objectives? What Measurements Are Being
 Taken on the Process with Respect to Its Objectives?38

Fundamentals of Documenting a Process39

 How Do We Document the Flow of a Process?39

 Why and When Do We Use a Flowchart to Document a Process?39

 What Are the Different Types of Flowcharts and When Do We Use Each? . . .40

 What Method Do We Use to Create Flowcharts?43

Fundamentals of Analyzing a Process44

 How Do We Analyze Flowcharts?44

 Things to Remember When Creating and Analyzing Flowcharts45

Takeaways from This Chapter46

References46

Section II Creating Your Toolbox for Process Improvement

Chapter 4 Understanding Data: Tools and Methods47

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?47

What Is Data?47

 Types of Numeric Data47

Graphing Attribute Data50

 Bar Chart50

 Pareto Diagrams51

 Line Graphs52

Graphing Measurement Data54

 Histogram54

 Dot Plot55

 Run Chart56

Measures of Central Tendency for Measurement Data59

 Mean59

 Median60

 Mode60

Measures of Central Tendency for Attribute Data	61
Proportion	61
Measures of Variation	62
Range	62
Sample Variance and Standard Deviation.	63
Understanding the Range, Variance, and Standard Deviation	64
Measures of Shape.	66
Skewness	66
More on Interpreting the Standard Deviation	68
How-To Guide for Understanding Data: Minitab 17 User Guide	70
Using Minitab Worksheets	70
Opening and Saving Worksheets and Other Components	71
Obtaining a Bar Chart	74
Obtaining a Pareto Diagram	76
Obtaining a Line Graph (Time Series Plot).	78
Obtaining a Histogram	79
Obtaining a Dot Plot.	82
Obtaining a Run Chart.	84
Obtaining Descriptive Statistics	85
Takeaways from This Chapter.	87
References	88
Additional Readings	88
Chapter 5 Understanding Variation: Tools and Methods	89
What Are the Objectives of This Chapter?	89
What Is Variation?	89
Common Cause Variation.	89
Special Cause Variation	90
Using Control Charts to Understand Variation	90
Attribute Control Charts	90
Variables Control Charts	91
Understanding Control Charts	91
Rules for Determining Out of Control Points.	93
Control Charts for Attribute Data.	98
P Charts	98
C Charts	104
U Charts	106

Control Charts for Measurement Data	108
Individuals and Moving Range (I-MR) Charts	109
X Bar and R Charts	112
X Bar and S Charts	115
Which Control Chart Should I Use?	119
Control Chart Case Study	119
Measurement Systems Analysis	126
Measurement System Analysis Checklist	126
Gage R&R Study	127
How-To Guide for Understanding Variation: Minitab User Guide (Minitab Version 17, 2013)	131
Using Minitab to Obtain Zone Limits	131
Using Minitab for the P Chart	131
Using Minitab for the C Chart	134
Using Minitab for the U Chart	134
Using Minitab for the Individual Value and Moving Range Charts	136
Using Minitab for the X Bar and R Charts	137
Using Minitab for the X Bar and S Charts	139
Takeaways from This Chapter	142
References	143
Additional Readings	143

Chapter 6 Non-Quantitative Techniques: Tools and Methods 145

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	145
High Level Overview and Examples of Non-Quantitative Tools and Methods	145
Flowcharting	146
Voice of the Customer (VoC)	146
Supplier-Input-Process-Output-Customer (SIPOC) Analysis	149
Operational Definitions	151
Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)	153
Check Sheets	153
Brainstorming	155
Affinity Diagrams	156
Cause and Effect (Fishbone) Diagrams	157
Pareto Diagrams	159
Gantt Charts	159
Change Concepts	160
Communication Plans	163

How-To Guide for Using Non-Quantitative Tools and Methods	165
How to Do Flowcharting	165
How to Do a Voice of the Customer (VoC) Analysis	166
How to Do a SIPOC Analysis	172
How to Create Operational Definitions	173
How to Do a Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA)	174
How to Do Check Sheets	177
Brainstorming	179
How to Do Affinity Diagrams	181
How to Do Cause and Effect Diagrams (C&E Diagrams)	182
How to Do Pareto Diagrams	182
How to Do Gantt Charts	185
How to Use Change Concepts	185
How to Do Communication Plans	198
Takeaways from This Chapter	200
References	201
Additional Readings	201
Chapter 7 Overview of Process Improvement Methodologies	203
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	203
SDSA Cycle	203
SDSA Example	204
PDSA Cycle	206
PDSA Example	207
Kaizen/Rapid Improvement Events	209
Kaizen/Rapid Improvement Events Example	210
DMAIC Model: Overview	212
Define Phase	213
Measure Phase	213
Analyze Phase	214
Improve Phase	216
Control Phase	216
DMAIC Model Example	216
DMADV Model: Overview	218
Define Phase	218
Measure Phase	218
Analyze Phase	218
Design Phase	219

Verify/Validate Phase	219
DMADV Model Example	219
Lean Thinking: Overview	221
The 5S Methods	221
Total Productive Maintenance (TPM)	223
Quick Changeover (Single Minute Exchange of Dies—SMED)	224
Poka-Yoke	225
Value Streams	226
Takeaways from This Chapter	227
References	228

Chapter 8 Project Identification and Prioritization:	
Building a Project Pipeline	231
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	231
Project Identification	231
Internal Proactive	232
Internal Reactive	234
External Proactive	235
External Reactive	236
Using a Dashboard for Finding Projects	238
Structure of a Managerial Dashboard	238
Example of a Managerial Dashboard	239
Managing with a Dashboard	240
Project Screening and Scoping	240
Questions to Ask to Ensure Project Is Viable	241
Estimating Project Benefits	242
Project Methodology Selection—Which Methodology Should I Use?	243
Estimating Time to Complete Project	245
Creating a High Level Project Charter	246
Problem Statement	247
Prioritizing and Selecting Projects	247
Prioritizing Projects Using a Project Prioritization Matrix	248
Final Project Selection	250
Executing and Tracking Projects	250
Allocating Resources to Execute the Projects	250
Monthly Steering Committee (Presidential) Reviews	251
Takeaways from This Chapter	251
References	252

Section III Putting It All Together—Six Sigma Projects

Chapter 9 Overview of Six Sigma Management	253
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	253
Non-Technical Definition of Six Sigma Management	253
Technical Definition of Six Sigma	253
Where Did Six Sigma Come From?	253
Benefits of Six Sigma Management	254
Key Ingredient for Success with Six Sigma Management	255
Six Sigma Roles and Responsibilities	255
Senior Executive	255
Executive Steering Committee	256
Project Champion	256
Process Owner	257
Master Black Belt	257
Black Belt	258
Green Belt	259
Green Belt Versus Black Belt Projects	260
Six Sigma Management Terminology	260
Next Steps: Understanding the DMAIC Model	264
Takeaways from This Chapter	264
References	265
Additional Readings	265
Appendix 9.1 Technical Definition of Six Sigma Management	266
Chapter 10 DMAIC Model: “D” Is for Define	273
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	273
Purpose of the Define Phase	273
The Steps of the Define Phase	274
Activate the Six Sigma Team	274
Project Charter	276
SIPOC Analysis	283
Voice of the Customer Analysis	286
Definition of CTQ(s)	288
Create an Initial Draft of the Project Objective	289
Tollgate Review: Go-No Go Decision Point	290
Keys to Success and Pitfalls to Avoid in the Define Phase	291

Case Study of the Define Phase: Reducing Patient No Shows in an Outpatient Psychiatric Clinic—Define Phase	292
Activate the Six Sigma Team	292
Project Charter	293
SIPOC Analysis	299
Voice of the Customer Analysis	299
Definition of CTQ(s)	308
Initial Draft Project Objective	308
Tollgate Review: Go-No Go Decision Point	308
Takeaways from This Chapter	309
References	310
Additional Readings	310

Chapter 11 DMAIC Model: “M” Is for Measure 311

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	311
Purpose of the Measure Phase	311
The Steps of the Measure Phase	312
Operational Definitions of the CTQ(s)	312
Data Collection Plan for CTQ(s)	312
Validate Measurement System for CTQ(s)	313
Collect and Analyze Baseline Data for the CTQ(s)	317
Estimate Process Capability for CTQ(s)	321
Keys to Success and Pitfalls to Avoid	324
Case Study: Reducing Patient No Shows in an Outpatient Psychiatric Clinic—Measure Phase	324
Operational Definition of the CTQ(s) and Data Collection Plan for the CTQ(s)	325
Validate Measurement System for CTQ(s)	326
Collect and Analyze Baseline Data	328
Tollgate Review: Go-No Go Decision Point	330
Takeaways from This Chapter	330
References	331
Additional Readings	331

Chapter 12 DMAIC Model: “A” Is for Analyze 333

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	333
Purpose of the Analyze Phase	333
The Steps of the Analyze Phase	334
Detailed Flowchart of Current State Process	334
Identification of Potential Xs for CTQ(s)	335

Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA) to Reduce the Number of Xs . . .	338
Operational Definitions for the Xs	338
Data Collection Plan for Xs	339
Validate Measurement System for X(s)	340
Test of Theories to Determine Critical Xs	340
Develop Hypotheses/Takeaways about the Relationships between the Critical Xs and CTQ(s)	342
Go-No Go Decision Point	342
Keys to Success and Pitfalls to Avoid	343
Case Study: Reducing Patient No Shows in an Outpatient Psychiatric Clinic— Analyze Phase	344
Detailed Flowchart of Current State Process	344
Identification of Xs for CTQ(s)	344
Failure Modes and Effects Analysis (FMEA) to Reduce the Number of Xs . .	346
Operational Definitions of the Xs	346
Data Collection Plan for Xs	348
Validate Measurement System for Xs	348
Test of Theories to Determine Critical Xs	348
Develop Hypotheses/Takeaways about the Relationships between the Critical Xs and CTQ(s)	354
Tollgate Review—Go-No Go Decision Point	354
Takeaways from This Chapter	355
References	356
Additional Readings	356
Chapter 13 DMAIC Model: “I” Is for Improve	357
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	357
Purpose of the Improve Phase	357
The Steps of the Improve Phase	358
Generate Alternative Methods for Performing Each Step in the Process . . .	358
Select the Best Alternative Method (Change Concepts) for All of the CTQs . .	360
Create a Flowchart for the Future State Process	361
Identify and Mitigate the Risk Elements for New Process	362
Run a Pilot Test of the New Process	362
Collect and Analyze the Pilot Test Data	362
Go-No Go Decision Point	364
Keys to Success and Pitfalls to Avoid	365

Case Study: Reducing Patient No Shows in an Outpatient Psychiatric Clinic— Improve Phase	366
Generate Alternative Methods for Performing Each Step in the Process	366
Select the Best Alternative Method (Change Concept) for All the CTQs	367
Create a Flowchart of the New Improved Process	368
Identify and Mitigate the Risk Elements for the New Process	369
Run a Pilot Test of the New Process.	369
Collect and Analyze the Pilot Test Data	372
Tollgate Review—Go-No Go Decision Point	373
Takeaways from This Chapter	373
References	374
Additional Readings	374
Chapter 14 DMAIC Model: “C” Is for Control	375
What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	375
Purpose of the Control Phase	375
The Steps of the Control Phase	376
Reduce the Effects of Collateral Damage to Related Processes	376
Standardize Improvements (International Standards Organization [ISO])	379
Develop a Control Plan for the Process Owner	380
Identify and Document the Benefits and Costs of the Project	383
Input the Project into the Six Sigma Database	383
Diffuse the Improvements throughout the Organization	383
Conduct a Tollgate Review of the Project	384
Keys to Success and Pitfalls to Avoid	385
Case Study: Reducing Patient No Shows in an Outpatient Psychiatric Clinic— Control Phase	386
Reduce the Effects of Collateral Damage to Related Processes	386
Standardize Improvements (International Standards Organization [ISO])	386
Develop a Control Plan for the Process Owner	387
Financial Impact	387
Input the Project into the Six Sigma Database	390
Diffuse the Improvements throughout the Organization	390
Champion, Process Owner, and Black Belt Review the Project	390
Takeaways from This Chapter	391
References	392
Additional Readings	392

Chapter 15	Maintaining Improvements in Processes, Products-Services, Policies, and Management Style.	393
	What Is the Objective of This Chapter?	393
	Improving Processes, Products-Services, and Processes: Revisited.	393
	Case Study 1: Failure in the Act Phase of the PDSA Cycle in Manufacturing.	393
	Case Study 2: Failure in the Act Phase of the PDSA Cycle in Accounts Receivable	394
	A Method for Promoting Improvement and Maintainability.	396
	Dashboards	396
	Presidential Review of Maintainability Indicators.	397
	The Funnel Experiment and Successful Management Style	398
	Rule 1 Revisited.	398
	Rule 4 Revisited.	398
	Succession Planning for the Maintainability of Management Style.	399
	Succession Planning by Incumbent Model	399
	Succession Planning by Creating Talent Pools Model.	400
	Succession Planning Using the Top-Down/Bottom-Up Model	400
	Process Oriented Top-Down/Bottom-Up Succession Planning Model	401
	Egotism of Top Management as a Threat to the Maintainability of Management Style.	403
	Six Indicators of Egotism That Threaten the Maintainability of Management Style	403
	Summary	404
	The Board of Directors Fails to Understand the Need for Maintainability in the Organization’s Culture and Management Style	404
	Definition of Culture/Management Style	404
	Components of Board Culture	405
	Shared Mission and Shared Values/Beliefs	405
	Allocation of Work.	405
	Reducing Variability	406
	Engagement.	406
	Trust.	406
	Takeaways from This Chapter.	406
	References	407

Section IV The Culture Required for Six Sigma Management

Chapter 16	W. Edwards Deming’s Theory of Management: A Model for Cultural Transformation of an Organization	409
	Background on W. Edwards Deming	409
	Deming’s System of Profound Knowledge	409
	Purpose of Deming’s Theory of Management	410
	Paradigms of Deming’s Theory of Management	410
	Components of Deming’s Theory of Management	411
	Deming’s 14 Points for Management	413
	Deming’s 14 Points and the Reduction of Variation	430
	Transformation or Paradigm Shift	433
	The Prevailing Paradigm of Leadership	433
	The New Paradigm of Leadership	434
	Transformation	434
	Quality in Service, Government, and Education	434
	Quotes from Deming	434
	Summary	435
	References and Additional Readings	436
	Index	439

Section V Six Sigma Certification

Chapter 17 Six Sigma Champion Certification **Online**

Chapter 18 Six Sigma Green Belt Certification **Online**

ACCESS TO DATA FILES AND CHAPTERS 17 AND 18

Go to www.ftpress.com/sixsigma and click the Downloads tab to access Minitab practice data files and Chapters 17 and 18.

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You Don't Have to Suffer from the Sunday Night Blues!

What Is the Objective of This Chapter?

We all know someone who dreads Sunday night because he or she isn't looking forward to going to work the next day. In fact, many of us know that person very well because that person is us!

Many employees are highly respected and well paid, and you may believe that they are happy with their jobs, but do not be fooled by their smiles. Many of them dislike their jobs. Many people are "burned out" at work. So, if you are an employee just trying to do your job and you think your job is boring, draining, and depressing, just think—you may have to do it for the rest of your work life! How's that for something to look forward to?

Well, we are here to tell you that you don't have to suffer from the Sunday night blues!

Before we tell you what you can do to make that happen we need to first tell you a little bit about intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation comes from the sheer joy or pleasure of performing an act, in this case such as improving a process or making your job better. It releases human energy that can be focused into improvement and innovation of a system. As amazing as it may seem, work does not have to be a drain on your energy. If you can release the intrinsic motivation that lies within all of us it can actually fill you with energy so you can enjoy what you do and look forward to doing it, day after day and year after year. Many artists, athletes, musicians, and professors enjoy their work over the course of their lives. You can enjoy your work also, or at least you can enjoy it much more than you currently do. It just requires a redefinition of work and a management team that promotes the redefined view of work to release the intrinsic motivation within each of us.

In today's world, many of us are asked to self-manage to a great extent, meaning we are given the autonomy and opportunity to direct our work to accomplish important organizational objectives. However, many of us do not take advantage of that opportunity. Why? The reason is that we do not have the tools to release that intrinsic motivation to make our jobs, our organizations, and most importantly our lives better. Now we do!

This book not only explains how it is possible for you to make both your work life and your personal life better using process improvement and Six Sigma, but it gives you the tools and methods to make it happen.

Sarah's Story

Most people go into work every day and are confronted with a long list of crises that require immediate attention. Consider the story of Sarah who is an administrative assistant in a department in a large, urban, private university. Please note that Sarah has not read this book—yet. So she comes to work every day only to be greeted by a long to-do list of mini crises that are boring and repetitive. Sound familiar?

The mini crises include answering the same old questions from faculty and students, week after week after week:

- What room is my class in?
- Does the computer in room 312 work?
- What are my professor's office hours?
- Are the copies I need for class (and requested only 5 minutes ago) ready? Blah, blah, blah.

These crises prevent Sarah from doing her “real” work, which keeps piling up. It is frustrating and depressing. If you ask Sarah what her job is, she will say: “I do whatever has to be done to get through the day without a major disaster.”

No one is telling Sarah she cannot improve her processes so that she doesn't have to answer the same questions over and over again. In fact, her bosses would rather her not focus on answering the same old questions and instead prefer her to work on projects that actually add value. The problem is not that she doesn't want to improve her processes; the problem is that she doesn't know how.

Then one day somehow the stars align and Sarah finds a copy of our book on her desk, so she reads it. She starts to apply some of the principles of the book to her job and to her life, and guess what? Things begin to change for the better.

For example, instead of having people call her to see what room their class is in she employs something that she learns in the book called *change concepts*, which are approaches to change that have been found to be useful in developing solutions that lead to improvements in processes. In this case, she uses a change concept related to automation and sends out a daily autogenerated email to all students and staff to let them know what room their classes are located in. Utilizing the change concept eliminates the annoying calls she used to receive to see what room classes are in.

Can you identify with Sarah? Do you want to learn tools and methods that will help you transform your job, your organization, and your life? The upcoming chapters take you on that journey, the journey of process improvement.

Before we go through the structure of the book, it is important for you to understand some key fundamental principles. These are principles that you need to understand as a prerequisite to reading this book and are principles you need to keep referring back to if you want to

transform your job (to the extent management allows you to do it), your organization (if it is under your control), and your life through process improvement.

A young violinist in New York City asks a stranger on the street how to get to Carnegie Hall; the stranger's reply is, "Practice, practice, practice." The same thing applies to process improvement. The only way you get better at it is through practice, practice, practice, and it starts with the nine principles outlined in this chapter.

Nine Principles of Process Improvement to Get the Most Out of This Book

Process improvement and Six Sigma embrace many principles, the most important of which in our opinion are discussed in this section. When understood, these principles may cause a transformation in how you view life in general and work in particular (Gitlow, 2001; Gitlow, 2009).

The principles are as follows:

- **Principle 1**—Life is a process (a process orientation).
- **Principle 2**—All processes exhibit variation.
- **Principle 3**—Two causes of variation exist in all processes.
- **Principle 4**—Life in stable and unstable processes is different.
- **Principle 5**—Continuous improvement is always economical, absent capital investment.
- **Principle 6**—Many processes exhibit waste.
- **Principle 7**—Effective communication requires operational definitions.
- **Principle 8**—Expansion of knowledge requires theory.
- **Principle 9**—Planning requires stability. Plans are built on assumptions.

These principles are outlined in the following sections and appear numerous times throughout the book. Illustrated from the point of view of everyday life, it is your challenge to apply them to yourself, your job, and your organization.

Principle 1: Life is a process. A process is a collection of interacting components that transform inputs into outputs toward a common aim called a mission statement. Processes exist in all facets of life in general, and organizations in particular, and an understanding of them is crucial.

The transformation accomplished by a process is illustrated in Figure 1.1. It involves the addition or creation of time, place, or form value. An output of a process has *time value* if it is available when needed by a user. For example, you have food when you are hungry, or equipment and tools available when you need them. An output has *place value* if it is available where needed by a user. For example, gas is in your tank (not in an oil field), or wood

chips are in a paper mill. An output has *form value* if it is available in the form needed by a user. For example, bread is sliced so it can fit in a toaster, or paper has three holes so it can be placed in a binder.

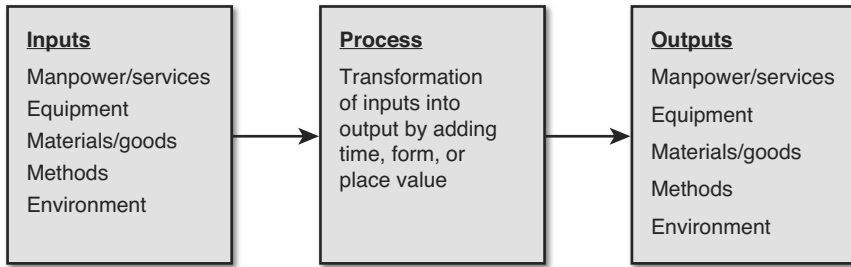


Figure 1.1 Basic process

An example of a personal process is Ralph’s “relationship with women he dates” process. Ralph is 55 years old. He is healthy, financially stable, humorous, good looking (at least he thinks so!), and pleasant. At age 45 he was not happy because he had never had a long-term relationship with a woman. He wanted to be married and have children. Ralph realized that he had been looking for a wife for 20 years, with a predictable pattern of four to six month relationships—that is, two relationships per year on average; see Figure 1.2. That meant he had about 40 relationships over the 20 years.

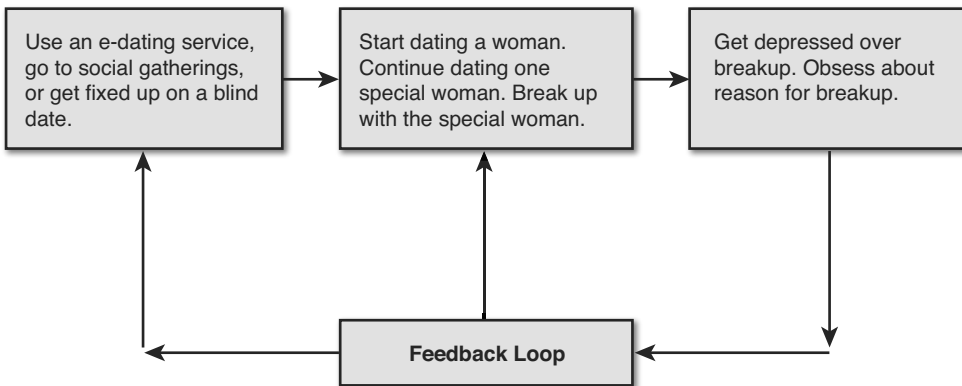


Figure 1.2 Ralph’s relationship with women process

Ralph continued living the process shown in Figure 1.2 for more than 20 years. It depressed and frustrated him, but he did not know what to do about it. Read on to the next principles to find out more about Ralph’s situation.

Principle 2: All processes exhibit variation. Variation exists between people, outputs, services, products, and processes. It is natural and should be expected, but it must be reduced. The type of variation being discussed here is the unit-to-unit variation in the outputs of a process (products or services) that cause problems down the production or service line and for customers. It is *not* diversity, for example, racial, ethnic, or religious, to name a few sources of diversity. Diversity makes an organization stronger due to the multiple points of view it brings to the decision making process.

Let's go back to our discussion of unit-to-unit variation in the outputs of a process. The critical question to be addressed is: "What can be learned from the unit-to-unit variation in the outputs of a process (products or services) to reduce it?" Less variability in outputs creates a situation in which it is easier to plan, forecast, and budget resources. This makes everyone's life easier.

Let's get back to Ralph's love life or lack thereof. Ralph remembered the reasons for about 30 of his 40 breakups with women. He made a list with the reason for each one. Then he drew a line graph of the number of breakups by year; see Figure 1.3.

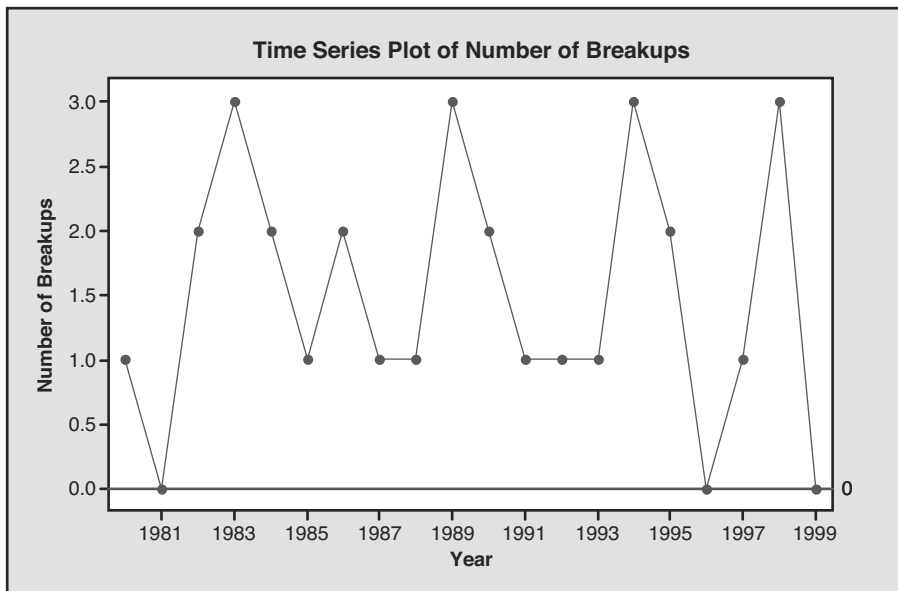


Figure 1.3 Number of breakups by year

As you can see, the actual number of breakups varies from year to year. Ralph's ideal number of breakups per year is zero; this assumes he is happy and in a long-term relationship with a woman whom he has children with. The difference between the actual number of breakups and the ideal number of breakups is unwanted variation. Process improvement and Six Sigma management help you understand the causes of unwanted waste and variation,

thereby giving you the insight you need to bring the actual output of a process and the ideal output of a process closer to each other.

Another example: Your weight varies from day to day. Your *ideal* daily weight would be some medically determined optimum level; see the black dots on Figure 1.4. Your *actual* daily weights may be something entirely different. You may have an unacceptably high average weight with great fluctuation around the average; see the fluctuating squares on Figure 1.4. Unwanted variation is the difference between your ideal weight and your actual weights. Process improvement and Six Sigma management help you understand the causes of this variation, thereby giving you the insight you need to bring your actual weight closer to your ideal weight.

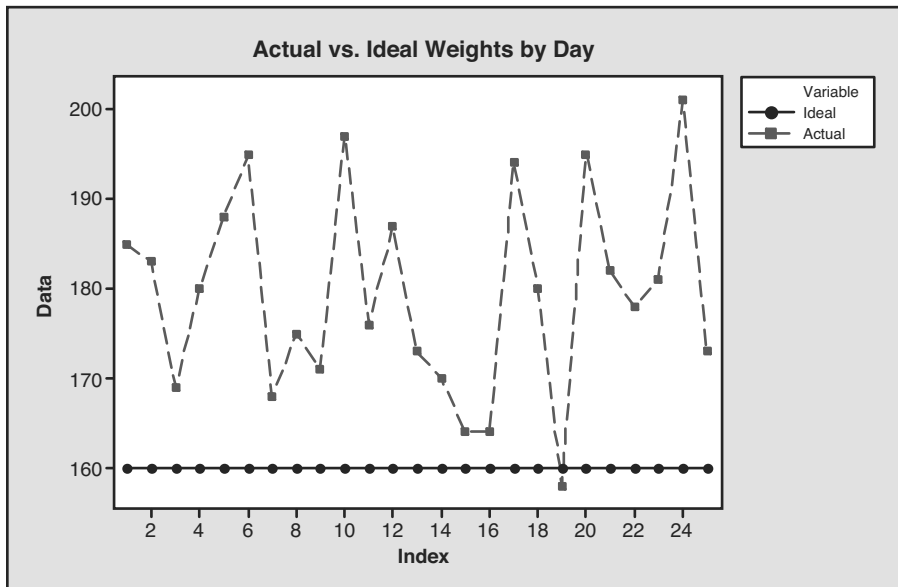


Figure 1.4 Actual versus ideal weights by day

Principle 3: Two causes of variation exist in all processes; they are special causes and common causes of variation. Special causes of variation are due to assignable causes external to the process. Common causes of variation are due to the process itself—that is, variation caused by the structure of the process. Examples of common causes of variation could be stress, values and beliefs, or the level of communication between the members of a family. Usually, most of the variation in a process is due to common causes. A process that exhibits special and common causes of variation is unstable; its output is not predictable in the future. A process that exhibits only common causes of variation is stable (although possibly unacceptable); its output is predictable in the near future.

Let's visit Ralph again. Ralph learned about common and special causes of variation and began to use some basic statistical thinking and tools to determine whether his pattern of

breakups with women was a predictable system of common causes of variation. Ralph constructed a control chart (see Figure 1.5) of the number of breakups with women by year. After thinking about himself from a statistical point of view using a control chart, he realized his relationships with women were not unique events (special causes); rather, they were a common cause process (his relationship with women process).

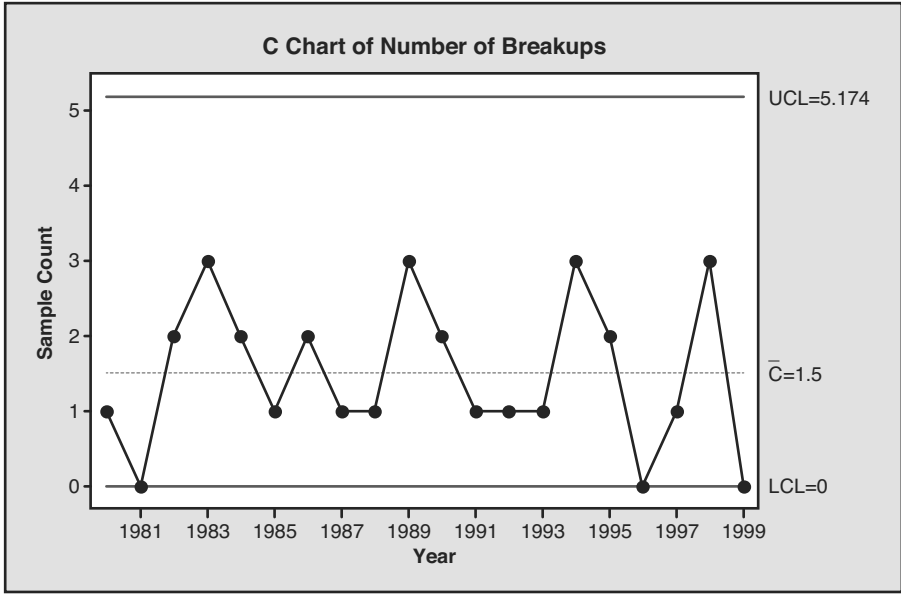


Figure 1.5 Number of breakups with women by year

Control charts are statistical tools used to distinguish special from common causes of variation. All control charts have a common structure. As Figure 1.5 shows, they have a center line, representing the process average, and upper and lower control limits that provide information on the process variation. Control charts are usually constructed by drawing samples from a process and taking measurements of a process characteristic, usually over time. Each set of measurements is called a *subgroup*, for example, a day or month. In general, the center line of a control chart is taken to be the estimated mean of the process; the upper control limit (UCL) is a statistical signal that indicates any point(s) above it are likely due to special causes of variation, and the lower control limit (LCL) is a statistical signal that indicates any point(s) below it are likely due to special causes of variation. Additional signals of special causes of variation are not discussed in this chapter, but are discussed later in the book.

Back to Ralph's love life; Figure 1.5 shows that the number of breakups by year are all between the $UCL = 5.174$ and the $LCL = 0.0$. So, Ralph's breakup process with women only exhibits common causes of variation; it is a stable and predictable process, at least into the near future. This tells Ralph that he should analyze all 30 data points for all 20 years as being part

of his “relationship with women” process; he should not view any year or any relationship as special.

Ralph was surprised to see that the reasons he listed for the 30 breakups collapsed down to five basic categories, with one category containing 24 (80%) of the relationships. The categories (including repetitions) are grouped into the frequency distribution shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Frequency Distribution of Reasons for Breakups with Women for 20 Years

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Failure to commit	24	80.00
Physical	03	10.00
Sexual	01	3.33
Common interests	01	3.33
Other relationships	01	3.33
Total	30	100.00

Ralph realized that there were not 30 unique reasons (special causes) that moved him to break up with women. He saw that there were only five basic reasons (common causes of variation in his process) that contributed to his breaking up with women, and that “failure to commit” is by far the most repetitive common cause category.

Principle 4: Life in stable and unstable processes is different. This is a *big* principle. If a process is stable, understanding this principle allows you to realize that most of the crises that bombard you on a daily basis are nothing more than the random noise (common causes of variation) in your life. Reacting to a crisis like it is a special cause of variation (when it is in fact a common cause of variation) will double or explode the variability of the process that generated it. All common causes of variation (formerly viewed as crises) should be categorized to identify *80-20 rule* categories, which can be eliminated from the process. Eliminating an *80-20 rule* category eliminates all, or most, future repetition of the common causes (repetitive crises) of variation generated by the problematic component of the process.

Let’s return to the example of Ralph. Ralph realized that the 30 women were not individually to blame (special causes) for the unsuccessful relationships, but rather, he was to blame because he had not tended to his emotional well-being (common causes in his stable emotional process); refer to Figure 1.5. Ralph realized he was the process owner of his emotional process. Armed with this insight, he entered therapy and worked on resolving the biggest common cause category (*80-20 rule* category) for his breaking up with women, failure to commit.

The root cause issue for this category was that Ralph was not getting his needs met by the women. This translated into the realization that his expectations were too high because he had a needy personality. In therapy he resolved the issues in his life that caused him to be needy and thereby made a fundamental change to himself (common causes in his emotional

process). He is now a happily married man with two lovely children. Ralph studied and resolved the common causes of variation between his ideal and real self, and moved himself to his ideal; see the right side of Figure 1.6. He did this by recognizing that he was the process owner of his emotional process and that his emotional process was stable, and required a common cause type fix, not a special cause type fix. Ralph is the manager of his life; only he can change how he interacts with the women he forms relationships with.

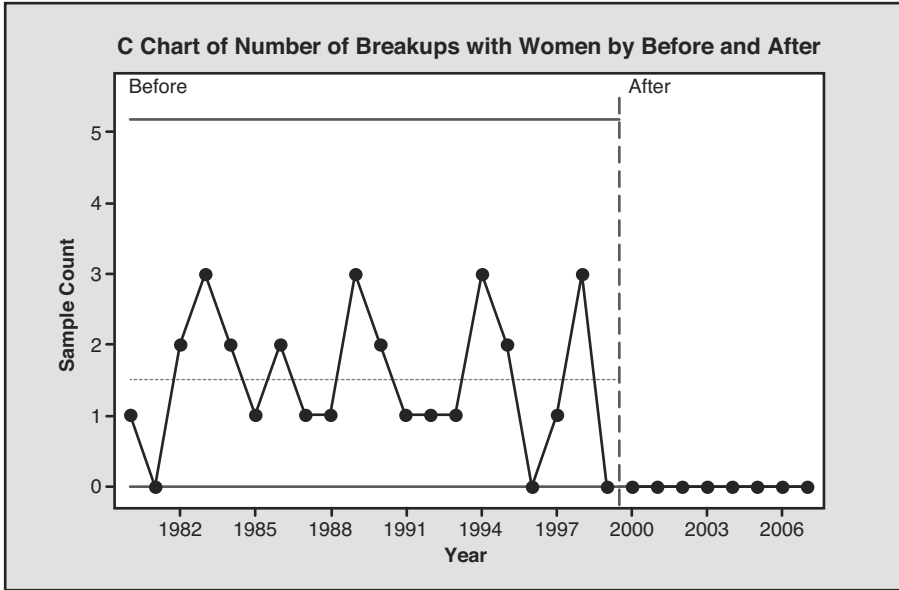


Figure 1.6 Number of breakups with women before and after therapy

Principle 5: Continuous improvement is always economical, absent capital investment. Continuous improvement is possible through the rigorous and relentless reduction of common causes of variation and waste around a desired level of performance in a stable process. It is always economical to reduce variation around a desired level of performance, *without capital investment*, even when a process is stable and operating within specification limits. For example, elementary school policy states that students are to be dropped off at 7:30 a.m. If a child arrives before 7:25 a.m., the teacher is not present and it is dangerous because it is an unsupervised environment. If a child arrives between 7:25 a.m. and 7:35 a.m., the child is on time. If a child arrives after 7:35 a.m., the entire class is disrupted. Consequently, parents think that if their child arrives anytime between 7:25 a.m. and 7:35 a.m. it is acceptable (within specification limits). However, principle 5 promotes the belief that for every minute a child is earlier or later than 7:30 a.m., even between 7:25 am and 7:35 am, a loss is incurred by the class. The further from 7:30 a.m. a child arrives to school, the greater the loss. Please note that the loss may not be symmetric around 7:30 a.m. Under this view, it is each parent’s job to continuously reduce the variation in the child’s arrival time to school. This minimizes

the total loss to all stakeholders of the child’s classroom experience (the child, classmates, teacher, and so on). Table 1.2 shows the loss incurred by the class of children in respect to accidents from early arrivals of children and the disruptions by late arrivals of children for a one year period.

Table 1.2 Loss from Minutes Early or Late

Arrival Times (a.m.)	# Minutes Early or Late	Loss to the Classroom
7:26	4	2 accidents
7:27	3	2 accidents
7:28	2	1 accident
7:29	1	1 accident
7:30	0	0 accidents
7:31	1	1 minor disruption
7:32	2	1 minor disruption
7:33	3	1 medium disruption
7:34	4	1 major disruption
Total		6 accidents 2 minor disruptions 1 medium disruption 1 major disruption

If parents can reduce the variation in their arrival time processes from the distribution in Table 1.2 to the distribution in Table 1.3, they can reduce the loss from early or late arrival to school. Reduction in the arrival time process requires a fundamental change to parents’ arrival time behavior, for example, laying out their child’s clothes the night before to eliminate time. As you can see, Table 1.2 shows 6 accidents, 2 minor disruptions, 1 medium disruption, and 1 major disruption, while Table 1.3 shows 4 accidents, 2 minor disruptions, and 1 medium disruption. This clearly demonstrates the benefit of continuous reduction of variation, even if all units conform to specifications.

Table 1.3 Improved Loss from Minutes Early or Late

Arrival Times (a.m.)	# Minutes Early or Late	Loss to the Classroom
7:26	4	0 accidents
7:27	3	2 accidents
7:28	2	1 accident
7:29	1	1 accident

Arrival Times (a.m.)	# Minutes Early or Late	Loss to the Classroom
7:30	0	0 accidents
7:31	1	1 minor disruption
7:32	2	1 minor disruption
7:33	3	1 medium disruption
7:34	4	0 disruptions
Total		4 accidents 2 minor disruptions 1 medium disruption

Principle 6: Many processes exhibit waste. Processes contain both value added activities and non-value added activities. Non-value added activities in a process include any wasteful step that

- Customers are not willing to pay for
- Does not change the product or service
- Contains errors, defects, or omissions
- Requires preparation or setup
- Involves control or inspection
- Involves overproduction, special processing, and inventory
- Involves waiting and delays

Value added activities include steps that customers are willing to pay for because they positively change the product or service in the view of the customer. Process improvement and Six Sigma management promote reducing waste through the elimination of non-value added activities (streamlining operations), eliminating work in process and inventory, and increasing productive flexibility and speed of employees and equipment.

Recall Ralph and his love life dilemma. If you consider Ralph’s failure to commit as part of his relationship with women process, you can clearly see that it is a non-value added activity. This non-value added activity involves some wasteful elements. First, the women Ralph dates do not want to spend their valuable time dating a man who cannot commit to a long-term relationship. Second, the women ultimately feel tricked or lied to because Ralph failed to discuss his commitment issues early in the relationship. Third, the women resent the emotional baggage (unwanted inventory) that Ralph brings to the prospective relationship. Clearly, Ralph needed to eliminate these forms of waste from his love life.

Principle 7: Effective communication requires operational definitions. An operational definition promotes effective communication between people by putting communicable meaning into a word or term. Problems can arise from the lack of an operational definition

such as endless bickering and ill will. A definition is operational if all relevant users of the definition agree on the definition. It is useful to illustrate the confusion that can be caused by the absence of operational definitions. The label on a shirt reads “75% cotton.” What does this mean? Three quarters cotton on average over this shirt, or three quarters cotton over a month’s production? What is three quarters cotton? Three quarters by weight? Three quarters at what humidity? Three quarters by what method of chemical analysis? How many analyses? Does 75% cotton mean that there must be some cotton in any random cross-section the size of a silver dollar? If so, how many cuts should be tested? How do you select them? What criterion must the average satisfy? And how much variation between cuts is permissible? Obviously, the meaning of 75% cotton must be stated in operational terms; otherwise confusion results.

An operational definition consists of

- A criterion to be applied to an object or a group
- A test of the object or group in respect to the criterion
- A decision as to whether the object or group did or did not meet the criterion

The three components of an operational definition are best understood through an example.

Susan lends Mary her coat for a vacation. Susan requests that it be returned clean. Mary returns it dirty. Is there a problem? Yes! What is it? Susan and Mary failed to operationally define clean. They have different definitions of clean. Failing to operationally define terms can lead to problems. A possible operational definition of clean is that Mary will get the coat dry-cleaned before returning it to Susan. This is an acceptable definition if both parties agree. This operational definition is shown here:

Criteria: The coat is dry-cleaned and returned to Susan.

Test: Susan determines if the coat was dry-cleaned.

Decision: If the coat was dry-cleaned, Susan accepts the coat. If the coat was not dry-cleaned, Susan does not accept the coat.

From past experience, Susan knows that coats get stained on vacation and that dry cleaning may not be able to remove a stain. Consequently, the preceding operational definition is not acceptable to Susan. Mary thinks dry cleaning is sufficient to clean a coat and feels the preceding operational definition is acceptable. Since Susan and Mary cannot agree on the meaning of clean, Susan should not lend Mary the coat.

An operational definition of clean that is acceptable to Susan follows:

Criteria: The coat is returned. The dry-cleaned coat is clean to Susan’s satisfaction or Mary must replace the coat, no questions asked.

Test: Susan examines the dry-cleaned coat.

Decision: Susan states the coat is clean and accepts the coat. Or, Susan states the coat is not clean and Mary must replace the coat, no questions asked.

Mary doesn't find this definition of clean acceptable. The moral is: Don't do business with people without operationally defining critical quality characteristics.

Operational definitions are not trivial. Statistical methods become useless tools in the absence of operational definitions because data does not mean the same thing to all its users.

Principle 8: Expansion of knowledge requires theory. Knowledge is expanded through revision and extension of theory based on systematic comparisons of predictions with observations. If predictions and observations agree, the theory gains credibility. If predictions and observations disagree, the variations (special and/or common) between the two are studied, and the theory is modified or abandoned. Expansion of knowledge (learning) continues forever.

Let's visit Ralph again. He had a theory that each breakup had its own and unique special cause. He thought deeply about each breakup and made changes to his behavior based on his conclusions. Over time, Ralph saw no improvement in his relationships with women; that is, the difference between the actual number of breakups by year was not getting any closer to zero; that is a long-term relationship. Coincidentally, he studied process improvement and Six Sigma management and learned that there are two types of variation in a process, special and common causes. He used a control chart to study the number of breakups with women by year; refer to the left side of Figure 1.6. Ralph developed a new theory for his relationship with women process based on his process improvement and Six Sigma studies. The new theory recognized that all Ralph's breakups were due to common causes of variation. He categorized them, went into therapy to deal with the biggest common cause problem, and subsequently, the actual number of breakups with women by year equaled the ideal number of breakups with women by year; refer to the right side of Figure 1.6. Ralph tested his new theory by comparing actual and ideal numbers, and found his new theory to be helpful in improving his relationship with women process.

Principle 9: Planning requires stability. Plans are built on assumptions. Assumptions are predictions concerning the future conditions, behavior, and performance of people, procedures, equipment, or materials of the processes required by the plan. The predictions have a higher likelihood of being realized if the processes are stable with low degrees of variation. If you can stabilize and reduce the variation in the processes involved with the plan, you can affect the assumptions required for the plan. Hence, you can increase the likelihood of a successful plan.

Example: Jan was turning 40 years old. Her husband wanted to make her birthday special. He recalled that when Jan was a little girl she dreamed of being a princess. So, he looked for a castle that resembled the castle in her childhood dreams. After much searching, he found a castle in the middle of France that met all the required specifications. It had a moat, parapets, and six bedrooms; perfect. Next, he invited Jan's closest friends, three couples and two single friends, filling all six bedrooms. After much discussion with the people involved, he settled on a particular three day period in July and signed a contract with the count and countess who owned the castle. Finally, he had a plan and he was happy.

As the date for the party drew near, he realized that his plan was based on two assumptions. The first assumption was that the castle would be available. This was not a problem because

he had a contract. The second assumption was that all the guests would be able to go to the party. Essentially, each guest's life is a process. The question is: Is each "guest's life process" stable with a low enough degree of variation to be able to predict attendance at the party. This turned out to be a substantial problem. Due to various situations, several of the guests were not able to attend the party. One couple began to have severe marital problems. One member of another couple lost his job. Jan's husband should have realized that the likelihood of his second assumption being realized was problematic and subject to chance; that is, he would be lucky if all the guests were okay at the time of the party. He found out too late that the second assumption was not met at the time of the party. If he had he realized this, he could have saved money and heartache by renting rooms that could be cancelled in a small castle-type hotel. As a postscript, the party was a great success!

Structure of the Book

We structured the book strategically into five main sections, each building upon each other and each expanding your knowledge so that eventually you can complete a process improvement project on your own.

We use the analogy of building a house in how we structured this book.

Section I—Building a Foundation of Process Improvement Fundamentals

- **Chapter 1**—You Don't Have to Suffer from the Sunday Night Blues!
- **Chapter 2**—Process and Quality Fundamentals
- **Chapter 3**—Defining and Documenting a Process

One of the first steps to building a house is to lay down a foundation. The first section creates your foundation in process improvement by taking you through the process and quality fundamentals you need as you build up your knowledge base. It goes into further detail on many of our nine principles for process improvement, principles critical to your understanding of this material.

Section II—Creating Your Toolbox for Process Improvement

- **Chapter 4**—Understanding Data: Tools and Methods
- **Chapter 5**—Understanding Variation: Tools and Methods
- **Chapter 6**—Non-Quantitative Techniques: Tools and Methods
- **Chapter 7**—Overview of Process Improvement Methodologies
- **Chapter 8**—Project Identification and Prioritization: Building a Project Pipeline

You cannot build a house without tools and without understanding how and when to use them, right? The second section creates your toolbox for process improvement by not only teaching you the tools and methods you need to improve your processes but teaching you when and how to use them.

Section III—Putting It All Together—Six Sigma Projects

- **Chapter 9**—Overview of Six Sigma Management
- **Chapter 10**—DMAIC Model: “D” Is for Define
- **Chapter 11**—DMAIC Model: “M” Is for Measure
- **Chapter 12**—DMAIC Model: “A” Is for Analyze
- **Chapter 13**—DMAIC Model: “I” Is for Improve
- **Chapter 14**—DMAIC Model: “C” Is for Control
- **Chapter 15**—Maintaining Improvements in Processes, Products-Services, Policies, and Management Style

When you build a house you need a framework or guide to follow to make sure you build the house correctly; it’s called a blueprint! Once that beautiful house is built you need to maintain it so it stays beautiful, right?

The third section is analogous to the blueprint of a house, and it is where we put everything you have learned together to complete a project. We use a specific set of steps—kind of like a blueprint—to keep us focused and make sure we do the project correctly. Those steps are called the Six Sigma management style. Like the maintenance of a new house, once we improve the process, the last thing we want is for the process to backslide to its former problematic state. We show you how to maintain and sustain those improvements.

Section IV—The Culture Required for Six Sigma Management

- **Chapter 16**—W. Edwards Deming’s Theory of Management: A Model for Cultural Transformation of an Organization

The fourth section of this book discusses an appropriate culture for a successful Six Sigma management style. We can use the house building analogy because a house has to be built on a piece of property that can support all its engineering, social, psychological, and so on needs and wants. Without a proper piece of property, the house could fall into a sinkhole.

Section V—Six Sigma Certification

- **Chapter 17**—Six Sigma Champion Certification (online-only chapter)
- **Chapter 18**—Six Sigma Green Belt Certification (online-only chapter)

The fifth section discusses how you can become Six Sigma certified at the Champion and Green Belt levels of certification. Certification is like getting your house a final inspection and receiving a Certificate of Occupancy so you can move in. (This section can be found online at www.ftpress.com/sixsigma.)

We hope you enjoy this book. Feel free to contact the authors concerning any mistakes you have found, or any ideas for improvement. Thank you for reading our book. We hope you find it an invaluable asset on your journey toward a Six Sigma management culture.

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Let's Go!

We are excited to begin this journey with you—the journey of process improvement that we hope transforms your job and more importantly your life! While this is a technical book, we want to make it fun and interesting so that you will remember more of what we are teaching you. We tried to add humor and stories to make the journey a fun one. So what are we waiting for? Let's go!

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A

accounts receivable, 394-396

activating Six Sigma team

case study, 292-293

overview, 274-276

Act phase

PDSA cycle, 207

SDSA cycle, 204

actual versus ideal, 6

adopting new philosophy, 413

affinity diagrams

creating, 181-182

defined, 156

example, 156

purpose of, 156

affordances, 197

aim, 18

Allied Signal, 253

allocating

resources, 250-251

work, 405-406

alternative methods

generating

case study, 366-367

explained, 358-359

selecting

case study, 367-368

explained, 360-361

American National Standards Institute (ANSI)

standard flowchart symbols, 43-44

Analyze phase (DMADV cycle), 218-219

Analyze phase (DMAIC model)

case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic, 344-355

current state flowchart, creating, 334, 344-345

data collection plan for Xs, 339-340, 348

FMEA (failure modes and effects analysis), 338

go-no go decision point, 342-343

hypotheses about relationship between critical Xs and CTQs, 342, 354

identification of Xs for CTQs, 335-338, 344-346

measurement system for Xs, validating, 340, 348

operational definitions for Xs, 338, 346-347

overview, 214-215

pitfalls to avoid, 343-344

purpose of, 333-334

test of theories to determine critical Xs, 340-342, 348-353

tips for success, 343-344

tollgate reviews, 354-355

ANSI (American National Standards Institute)

standard flowchart symbols, 43-44

anxiety, 423

appreciation of a system, 411

arbitrary goals, posters, and slogans, eliminating, 424

Arena, 359

assumptions in planning, 13-14

attribute check sheets, 177-178

attribute classification data

explained, 47-48

measures of central tendency, 61-62

attribute control charts, 90

attribute count data

explained, 48-49

graphing

bar charts, 50-51

line graphs, 52-54

Pareto diagrams, 51-52

attribute data, 47
c charts, 104-106
p charts, 98-104
u charts, 106-108

automation, 189

autonomous maintenance, 223

average, 266

B

background check process, 19-20

backsliding, preventing, 393

board of directors culture, 404-406
allocation of work, 405-406
components of, 405
engagement, 406
reducing variability, 406
shared values/beliefs, 405
trust, 406

dashboards, 396-397

egotism, 403-404

failure in Act phase of PDSA cycle
in accounts receivable, 394-396
in manufacturing, 393-394

Funnel Experiment, 398-399

presidential review of maintainability indicators, 397

succession planning

creating talent pools model, 400
explained, 399
incumbent model, 399-400
process oriented top-down/bottom-up model, 401-403
top-down/bottom-up model, 400-401

balanced scorecards, 232

Bar Chart: Data Options dialog box (Minitab), 74-75

bar charts

explained, 50-51
obtaining in Minitab, 74-76

Bar Charts dialog box (Minitab), 74-76

barriers, removing

barrier between departments, 423-424
barriers to pride of workmanship, 426-429

baseline data analysis for CTQs

case study, 328-329
explained, 317-321

benchmarking, 359, 367, 418

benefits of project

Define phase (DMAIC model), 281-282
documenting
case study, 387
explained, 383

best alternative method, selecting, 367-368

Black Belts, 258-260

board of directors, 404-406

Bossidy, Larry, 253

bottlenecks, 189

boundaries (process), 37-38

brainstorming, 358-359, 366

conducting brainstorming sessions, 179-181
defined, 155
example, 155-156
purpose of, 155

business case

case study, 293-294
explained, 276-277

C

Calculator dialog box (Minitab), 78, 84

cause and effect (C&E) diagrams

creating, 182
defined, 157
examples, 157-159
purpose of, 157

causes of variation, 6-8

C Chart dialog box (Minitab), 134

c charts, 104-106

creating in Minitab, 134
example, 105-106
explained, 104
when to use, 105

ceasing dependence on mass inspection, 413-414

C&E diagrams. *See* cause and effect (C&E) diagrams

Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS), 237

central tendency, measures of

- mean, 59
- median, 60
- mode, 60-61
- proportion, 61-62

Champions, 256-257

change concepts, 2, 419

- changing work environment, 191-192
- defined, 160
- designing systems to avoid mistakes, 196-197
- eliminating waste, 187-188
- enhancing producer/customer relationship, 193-194
- example, 162-163
- focusing on product/service, 197-198
- generating
 - case study*, 366-367
 - explained*, 358-359
- improving work flow, 188-190
- managing time, 194-195
- managing variation, 195-196
- optimizing inventory, 190-191
- overview, 185-187
- purpose of, 162
- selecting, 360-361, 367-368
- 70 change concepts, 359

changing

- set points, 188
- targets, 188
- work environment, 191-192

charter. *See* project charter

charts

- affinity diagrams
 - creating*, 181-182
 - defined*, 156
 - example*, 156
 - purpose of*, 156
- bar charts
 - explained*, 50-51
 - obtaining in Minitab*, 74-76
- cause and effect (C&E) diagrams
 - creating*, 182
 - defined*, 157
 - examples*, 157-159
 - purpose of*, 157

control charts, 7

- attribute control charts*, 90
- case study (defective surgical screws)*, 119-125
- c charts*, 104-106, 134
- choosing*, 119
- control limits*, 93
- explained*, 90
- I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range) charts*, 109-112, 136-137
- p charts*, 98-104, 131-133
- rules for determining out of control points*, 93-98
- three-sigma limits*, 93
- type one errors*, 92
- type two errors*, 92
- u charts*, 106-108, 134-136
- variables control charts*, 91
- X Bar and R charts*, 112-115, 137-139
- X Bar and S charts*, 115-119, 139-142

dot plots

- explained*, 55-56
- obtaining in Minitab*, 82-83

flowcharts

- advantages of*, 39-40
- analyzing*, 44-45
- ANSI standard flowchart symbols*, 43-44
- creating*, 165-166
- current state flowchart*, 334, 344-345
- defined*, 146
- deployment flowcharts*, 42-43, 148, 334
- future state flowchart*, 361, 368-369
- process flowcharts*, 40-41, 147, 334
- purpose of*, 146
- simple generic flowchart*, 39
- symbols and functions*, 165

Gage run charts, 313-317, 327

Gantt charts, 279-280

- case study*, 296-297
- creating*, 185
- defined*, 159
- example*, 161
- purpose of*, 160

histograms

- explained*, 54-55
- obtaining in Minitab*, 79-82

- line graphs
 - explained, 52-54*
 - obtaining in Minitab, 78-79*
- Pareto diagrams
 - creating, 182-185*
 - definition of, 159*
 - example, 159*
 - explained, 51-52*
 - obtaining in Minitab, 76-77*
 - purpose of, 159*
- run charts
 - explained, 56-58*
 - obtaining in Minitab, 84-85*
- checklist, measurement system analysis check-**
list, 126-127
- check sheets**
 - attribute check sheets, 177-178
 - defect location check sheets, 179
 - defined, 153
 - example, 153-155
 - measurement check sheets, 178
 - purpose of, 153
- classification data, 47**
- classifications, 188**
- clean workplace, 417**
- CMS (Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services), 237**
- collateral damage to related processes,**
reducing
 - case study, 386
 - explained, 376-378*
- collecting baseline data for CTQs**
 - case study, 328-329
 - explained, 317-321*
- common cause feedback loops, 23-24**
- common variation, 6-8, 89**
 - explained, 25-26*
 - Funnel Experiment, 27-29
 - Red Bead Experiment, 30-31
- communication**
 - communication plans
 - case study, 299, 300*
 - creating, 198-200*
 - defined, 163*
 - example, 164*
 - explained, 282-283*
 - explained, 282-283*
 - obtaining in Minitab, 78-79*
 - purpose of, 163*
 - operational definitions, 11-13
- competition, 411**
- complaints**
 - customer feedback, 237
 - employee feedback, 234-235
- compliance, regulatory, 237-238**
- constancy of purpose, 413**
- constraints, 197**
- contingency plans, 195**
- continuous data, 49-50**
- continuous improvement, 9-11, 414**
- continuous improvement definition of quality,**
32-33
- control charts, 7**
 - attribute control charts, 90
 - case study (defective surgical screws),
119-125
- c charts, 104-106
 - creating in Minitab, 134*
 - example, 105-106*
 - explained, 104*
 - when to use, 105*
- choosing, 119
- control limits, 93
- explained, 90*
- I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range)
charts, 109-112
 - creating in Minitab, 136-137*
 - example, 109-112*
 - explained, 109*
- p charts, 98-104
 - creating in Minitab, 131-133*
 - explained, 98*
 - p chart with equal subgroup size, 99-102*
 - p chart with unequal subgroup size,*
102-104
 - when to use, 98-99*
- rules for determining out of control points,
93-98
- three-sigma limits, 93
- type one errors, 92
- type two errors, 92
- u charts, 106-108
 - creating in Minitab, 134-136*
 - example, 107-108*

explained, 106
when to use, 107
variables control charts, 91
X Bar and R charts, 112-115
example, 113-115
explained, 112
obtaining from Minitab, 137-139
X Bar and S charts, 115-119
example, 115-119
explained, 115
obtaining from Minitab, 139-142
control limits, 93
Control phase (DMAIC model)
case study: reducing patient no shows in
outpatient psychiatric clinic, 386-391
collateral damage to related processes,
reducing, 376-378
control plans, developing, 380-381
costs/benefits, documenting, 383
diffusion of improvements, 383-384
overview, 216
pitfalls to avoid, 385
projects, inputting into Six Sigma data-
base, 383
purpose of, 375-376
standardization, 379-380
tips for success, 385
tollgate reviews, 384-385
control plans, developing
case study, 387-389
explained, 380-381
cooperation, 411
coordinators, 193
costs
benefits and, 281-282
cost avoidance, 242, 281
cost reduction, 242, 281
costs/benefits, documenting
case study, 387
explained, 383
intangible costs, 242, 281
reduction, 242
tangible costs, 242, 281
count data, 47
Critical-to-Quality characteristics. See CTQs
(Critical-to-Quality characteristics)

cross-training, 192
CTQs (Critical-to-Quality characteristics),
145, 260
baseline data analysis
case study, 328-329
explained, 317-321
data collection plan, 312-313, 325-326
defined, 145, 260, 333
definition of, 288-289, 308
measurement system, validating, 313-317
operational definitions, 312
operation definitions, 325-326
process capability estimation, 321-323
culture
board of directors, 404-406
defined, 404-405
current state flowchart, creating
case study, 344-345
explained, 334
customer feedback, 237
customers
customer focus groups, 236
customer segments, 285
customer surveys, 236
identifying, 285
producer/customer relationship, enhancing,
193-194
Voice of the Customer analysis. *See* VoC
(Voice of the Customer) analysis

D

dashboards, 232 238-240, 396-397
data
attribute classification data
explained, 47-48
measures of central tendency, 61-62
attribute count data
explained, 48-49
graphing, 50-54
attribute data, 47
central tendency, measures of
mean, 59
median, 60
mode, 60-61
proportion, 61-62

- defined, 47
- measurement data, 49-50
 - graphing*, 54-58
 - measures of central tendency*, 59-61
- shape, measures of, 66-68
- skewness
 - defined*, 66
 - negative or left skewness*, 67-68
 - positive or right skewness*, 66-67
 - symmetrical distribution*, 66
- variables, 47
- variation, measures of
 - range*, 62-63
 - standard deviation*, 63-66, 68-69
 - variance*, 63-66
- database, inputting projects into**, 383
- data collection plan**
 - for CTQs, 312-313, 325-326
 - VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis, 167, 287
 - for Xs, 339-340, 348
- data interpretation, VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis**, 167, 288
- data redundancy**, 187
- decision matrix**, 361, 367
- decision symbol**, 43
- defects**, 289, 322
 - defined*, 261, 289
 - defect location check sheets, 179
 - defect opportunities, 261, 289, 322
 - defective surgical screws case study, 119-125
 - detection, 414
 - DPMO (defects per million opportunities), 262
 - DPOs (defects per opportunity), 261
 - DPUs (defects per unit), 261
 - latent defects, 253
 - prevention, 414
- Define phase (DMADV cycle)**, 218
- Define phase (DMAIC model)**
 - case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic, 292-309
 - definition of CTQs, 288-289, 308
 - go-no go decision point, 290-291, 308-309
 - initial draft of project objective, 289-290, 308
 - overview, 213
 - pitfalls to avoid, 291-292
 - project charter, 276-283, 293-299
 - purpose of, 273-274
 - SIPOC analysis, 283-286, 299
 - Six Sigma team, activating, 274-276, 292-293
 - tips for success, 291-292
 - tollgate review, 290-291, 308-309
 - VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis, 286-288, 299-308
- defining processes**
 - boundaries, 37-38
 - flowcharts, 40-41
 - importance of, 35-36
 - objectives, 38
 - ownership, 36
- Deming cycle**, 417-419
- Deming, W. Edwards**, 27, 30. *See also* System of Profound Knowledge
 - biographical information, 409
 - quotations, 434-435
- dependence on mass inspection, ceasing**, 413-414
- deployment flowcharts**, 42-43, 148, 334
- descriptive statistics, obtaining in Minitab**, 85-87
- desensitization**, 196
- Design for Six Sigma for Green Belts and Champions: Foundations, DMADV, Tools and Methods, Cases and Certification* (Gitlow et al.), 359
- designing systems to avoid mistakes**, 196-197
- Design of Experiments (DoE)**, 359
- Design phase (DMADV cycle)**, 219
- determining out of control points**, 93-98
- developing**
 - control plans
 - case study*, 387-389
 - explained*, 380-381
 - hypotheses, 342
- diagrams. *See also* charts**
 - affinity diagrams
 - creating*, 181-182
 - defined*, 156
 - example*, 156
 - purpose of*, 156

- cause and effect (C&E) diagrams
 - creating*, 182
 - defined*, 157
 - examples*, 157-159
 - purpose of*, 157
- Pareto diagrams, 51-52
 - adding to Minitab worksheets*, 76-77
 - creating*, 182-185
 - definition of*, 159
 - example*, 159
 - purpose of*, 159
- differentiation**, 196
- diffusing improvements throughout organization**
 - case study, 390
 - explained, 383-384
- Display Descriptive Statistics dialog box (Minitab)**, 86
- diversity**, 5
- DMADV model**
 - example, 219-221
 - explained, 218
- DMAIC model**
 - Analyze phase
 - case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic*, 344-355
 - current state flowchart, creating*, 334, 344-345
 - data collection plan for Xs*, 339-340, 348
 - FMEA (failure modes and effects analysis)*, 338
 - go-no go decision point*, 342-343
 - hypotheses about relationship between critical Xs and CTQs*, 342, 354
 - identification of Xs for CTQs*, 335-338, 344-346
 - measurement system for Xs, validating*, 340, 348
 - operational definitions for Xs*, 346-347, 338
 - overview*, 214-215
 - pitfalls to avoid*, 343-344
 - purpose of*, 333-334
 - test of theories to determine critical Xs*, 340-342, 348-353
 - tips for success*, 343-344
 - tollgate reviews*, 354-355
 - Control phase
 - case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic*, 386-391
 - collateral damage to related processes, reducing*, 376-378
 - control plans, developing*, 380-381
 - costs/benefits, documenting*, 383
 - diffusion of improvements*, 383-384
 - overview*, 216
 - pitfalls to avoid*, 385
 - projects, inputting into Six Sigma database*, 383
 - purpose of*, 375-376
 - standardization*, 379-380
 - tips for success*, 385
 - tollgate reviews*, 384-385
 - Define phase
 - case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic*, 292-309
 - definition of CTQs*, 288-289, 308
 - go-no go decision point*, 290-291, 308-309
 - initial draft of project objective*, 289-290, 308
 - overview*, 213
 - pitfalls to avoid*, 291-292
 - project charter*, 276-283, 293-299
 - purpose of*, 273-274
 - SIPOC analysis*, 283-286, 299
 - Six Sigma team, activating*, 274-276, 292-293
 - tips for success*, 291-292
 - tollgate review*, 290-291, 308-309
 - VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis*, 286-288, 299-308
 - example, 216-217
 - Improve phase
 - alternative methods, generating*, 358-359
 - best alternative method, selecting*, 360-361
 - case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic*, 366-373
 - future state flowchart, creating*, 361
 - go-no go decision point*, 364-365
 - overview*, 216
 - pilot testing*, 362-364
 - pitfalls to avoid*, 365-366
 - purpose of*, 357-358
 - risk mitigation*, 362

tips for success, 365-366

tollgate reviews, 365

Measure phase

baseline data analysis for CTQs, 317-321, 328-329

data collection plan for CTQs, 312-313, 325-326

go-no go decision point, 323-324, 330

operational definitions for CTQs, 312, 325-326

overview, 213-214

pitfalls to avoid, 324

process capability estimation for CTQs, 321-323

purpose of, 311-312

tips for success, 324

tollgate reviews, 323-324, 330

validation of measurement system for CTQs, 326-327

Measure phase (DMAIC model)

validation of measurement system for CTQs, 313-317

overview, 212-213

documenting

costs/benefits

case study, 387

explained, 383

processes

flowcharts, 39-44

importance of, 35-36

DoE (Design of Experiments), 359

Do phase

PDSA cycle, 207

SDSA cycle, 203

dot plots

explained, 55-56

obtaining in Minitab, 82-83

Dotplots dialog box (Minitab), 82

DPMO (defects per million opportunities), 262

DPOs (defects per opportunity), 261

DPU (defects per unit), 261

driving out fear, 423

E

education

encouraging, 430

quality in, 434

egotism, 403-404

80-20 rule, 8

eliminating

arbitrary goals, posters, and slogans, 424

management by objective, 425-426

waste, 187-188

work standards (quotas), 424-425

employee feedback, 234-235

employee focus groups, 233

employee forums, 233-234

employee surveys, 234

empowerment, 420-421

ending practice of awarding business on basis of price, 414-415

engagement, board of directors, 406

enhancing producer/customer relationship, 193-194

errors, 92

estimating

process capability for CTQs, 321-323

project benefits, 242

time to complete project, 245-246

executing projects, 250-251

executive steering committee, 256

expansion of knowledge through theory, 13

expectations, 193

experimental design, 359

external proactive sources, 235-236

external reactive sources, 236-238

extrinsic motivation, 410

F

failure in Act phase of PDSA cycle

in accounts receivable, 394-396

in manufacturing, 393-394

Failure Modes and Effects Analysis. *See* FMEA (Failure Modes and Effects Analysis)

fear, 423

feedback

- customer feedback, 237
- employee feedback, 234-235
- loops
 - common cause feedback loops*, 23-24
 - defined*, 19
 - lack of*, 23

fishbone diagrams. See cause and effect (C&E) diagrams

5S methods, 221-223, 417

flowcharts

- advantages of, 39-40
- analyzing, 44-45
- ANSI standard flowchart symbols, 43-44
- creating, 165-166
- current state flowchart, creating, 334, 344-345
- defined, 146
- deployment flowcharts, 42-43, 148, 334
- future state flowchart, 361, 368-369
- process flowcharts, 40-41, 147, 334
- purpose of, 146
- simple generic flowchart, 39
- symbols and functions, 165

flowline symbol, 43

FMEA (Failure Modes and Effects

Analysis), 283

- case study, 299-301, 346
- conducting, 174-177
- defined, 153
- example of, 175
- explained, 338
- purpose of, 153

focus groups

- customer focus groups, 236
- employee focus groups, 233

focus on product/service, 197-198

focus points, 288

forced ranking of employees, 428-429

form value, 4

forums, employee, 233-234

14 Points (Deming), 413-430

- adopting new philosophy, 413
- breaking down barriers between departments, 423-424

ceasing dependence on mass inspection, 413-414

creating constancy of purpose, 413

driving out fear, 423

eliminating arbitrary goals, posters, and slogans, 424

eliminating management by objective, 425-426

eliminating work standards (quotas), 424-425

encouraging education and self-improvement, 430

ending practice of awarding business on basis of price, 414-415

improving constantly the system of production and service, 415-421

instituting leadership, 422-423

reduction of variation and, 430-433

removing barriers to pride of workmanship, 426-429

taking action to accomplish transformation, 430

training on the job, 421-422

Funnel Experiment, 27-29, 398-399

future state flowchart, 361, 368-369

G

Gage R&R studies, 127-131

Gage run charts, 313-317, 327

Gantt charts, 279-280

- case study, 296-297
- creating, 185
- defined, 159
- example, 161
- purpose of, 160

General Electric, 253

generating alternative methods

- case study, 366-367
- explained, 358-359

goal post view of quality, 31-32

goal statement, 278, 294

go-no go decision point

- Analyze phase, 342-343, 354-355
- Define phase, 290-291, 308-309
- Improve phase, 364-365, 373
- Measure phase, 323-324, 330

government, quality in, 434

graphing

attribute count data

bar charts, 50-51

line graphs, 52-54

Pareto diagrams, 51-52

measurement data

dot plots, 55-56

histograms, 54-55

run charts, 56-58

in Minitab

bar charts, 74-76

dot plots, 82-83

histograms, 79-82

line graphs, 78-79

Pareto diagrams, 76-77

run charts, 84-85

Green Belts, 259-260

H

handoffs, minimizing, 189

hard benefits, 281-282

Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA), 237

health maintenance, 224

high-level project charters, 246-247, 275

HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act), 237

histograms

explained, 54-55

obtaining in Minitab, 79-82

Histogram: Scale dialog box (Minitab), 81

Histograms dialog box (Minitab), 80

history of Six Sigma, 253-254

hypothesis development, 342

I

ideal versus actual, 6

identifying

customers, 285

inputs, 285

outputs, 285

potential Xs, 308

projects

customer feedback, 237

customer focus groups, 236

customer surveys, 236

employee feedback, 234-235

employee focus groups, 233

employee forums, 233-234

employee surveys, 234

managerial dashboards, 238-240

project identification matrix, 231

regulatory compliance issues, 237-238

strategic/tactical plans, 232

VoC (Voice of the Customer) interviews, 235-236

VoE (Voice of the Employee) interviews, 232-233

suppliers, 285

impact/effort matrix, 360

improvements, maintaining, 393

board of directors culture, 404-406

dashboards, 396-397

diffusing throughout organization

case study, 390

explained, 383-384

egotism, 403-404

failure in Act phase of PDSA cycle

in accounts receivable, 394-396

in manufacturing, 393-394

Funnel Experiment, 398-399

presidential review of maintainability indicators, 397

standardization

case study, 386-387

explained, 379-380

succession planning

creating talent pools model, 400

explained, 399

incumbent model, 399-400

process oriented top-down/bottom-up model, 401-403

top-down/bottom-up model, 400-401

Improve phase (DMAIC model)

alternative methods, generating, 358-359

best alternative method, selecting, 360-361

case study: reducing patient no shows in outpatient psychiatric clinic, 366-373

future state flowchart, creating, 361

- go-no go decision point, 364-365
- overview, 216
- pilot testing, 362-364
- pitfalls to avoid, 365-366
- purpose of, 357-358
- risk mitigation, 362
- tips for success, 365-366
- tollgate reviews, 365
- I-MR Chart: Options dialog box (Minitab), 136**
- I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range) charts, 109-112**
 - creating in Minitab, 136-137
 - example, 109-112
 - explained, 109
- incumbent succession planning model, 399-400**
- independent components, system of, 401**
- Individuals and Moving Range (I-MR) charts, 109-112**
 - creating in Minitab, 136-137
 - example, 109-112
 - explained, 109
- initial draft of project objective**
 - case study, 308
 - explained, 289-290
- inputs, 18, 285**
- inputting projects into Six Sigma database, 383**
- inspect all-or-none rule, 414**
- inspection, 194**
- intangible costs, 242, 281**
- intermediaries, 188**
- internal proactive sources**
 - employee focus groups, 233
 - employee forums, 233-234
 - employee surveys, 234
 - explained, 232
 - strategic/tactical plans, 232
 - VoE (Voice of the Employee) interviews, 232-233
- internal reactive sources, 234-235**
- International Standards Organization (ISO), 379-380**
- interrelated components, system of, 401**

- interviews**
 - VoC (Voice of Customer) interviews, 235-236
 - VoE (Voice of the Employee) interviews, 232-233
- intrinsic motivation, 1, 410**
- inventory optimization, 190-191**
- ISO (International Standards Organization), 379-380**

J-K

- JCAHO (Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations), 237**

Kaizen

- example, 210-212
- explained, 209-210

- key performance indicators (KPIs), 232**

knowledge

- expanding through theory, 13
- theory of (Deming), 412

- KPIs (key performance indicators), 232**

- kp rule, 414**

L

- latent defects, 253**

- LCL (lower control limit), 7, 92**

- leadership, 422-423**

- lean thinking, 341**

- 5S methods, 221-223
- overview, 221
- poka-yoke, 224-225
- SMED (Single Minute Exchange of Dies), 224-225
- tools and methods, 359
- TPM (Total Productive Maintenance), 223-224
- value streams, 226-227

- left skewness, 67-68**

- life as a process, 3-4**

- line graphs**

- explained, 52-54
- obtaining in Minitab, 78-79

lower control limit (LCL), 7, 92
lower specification limit (LSL), 31
LSL (lower specification limit), 31

M

maintainability indicators, presidential review of, 397

maintaining improvements. *See* improvements, maintaining

maintenance

autonomous maintenance, 223
health maintenance, 224
planned maintenance, 223-224
Total Productive Maintenance (TPM), 223-224

“management by data,” 410

“management by guts,” 410

management by objectives (MBO), 425-426

management terminology, 260-264

CTQs. *See* CTQs (Critical-to-Quality characteristics)

defective, 261

defects, 261

DPMO (defects per million opportunities), 262

DPOs (defects per opportunity), 261

DPU (defects per unit), 261

process sigma, 262-264

RTY (rolled throughput yield), 262

units, 261

yield, 262

management theory (Deming). *See* System of Profound Knowledge

managerial dashboards, 238-240

managing

time, 194-195

variation, 195-196

manufacturing, failure in Act phase of PDSA cycle, 393-394

market segmentation, 166-167

mass inspection, 413-414

Master Black Belts, 257-258

matrices

decision matrix, 361, 367

impact/effort matrix, 360

project identification matrix, 231

project prioritization matrix, 248-250

MBO (management by objectives), 425-426

mean, 59, 266, 341

measured day work, 424

measurement check sheets, 178

measurement data, 49-50

control charts, 108-109

I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range) charts, 109-112

X Bar and R charts, 112-115

X Bar and S charts, 115-119

graphing

dot plots, 55-56

histograms, 54-55

run charts, 56-58

measures of central tendency

mean, 59

median, 60

mode, 60-61

measurement system analysis checklist, 126-127

measurement systems analysis

for CTQs, 313-317, 326-327

explained, 126

Gage R&R studies, 127-131

measurement system analysis checklist, 126-127

for Xs, 340, 348

Measure phase (DMADV cycle), 218

Measure phase (DMAIC model)

baseline data analysis for CTQs, 317-321, 328-329

data collection plan for CTQs, 312-313, 325-326

go-no go decision point, 323-324, 330

operational definitions for CTQs, 312, 325-326

overview, 213-214

pitfalls to avoid, 324

process capability estimation for CTQs, 321-323

purpose of, 311-312

tips for success, 324
tollgate reviews, 323-324, 330
validation of measurement system for CTQs,
313-317, 326-327

measures. See statistical analysis

median, 60, 341

methodology selection, 243-245

milestones, 279-280, 295

minimizing handoffs, 189

Minitab, 70

- bar charts, 74-76
- control charts, 131
 - c charts*, 134
 - I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range) charts*, 136-137
 - p charts*, 131-133
 - u charts*, 134-136
 - X Bar and R charts*, 137-139
 - X Bar and S charts*, 139-142
 - zone limits, plotting*, 131
- descriptive statistics, 85-87
- dot plots, 82-83
- histograms, 79-82
- line graphs, 78-79
- Pareto diagrams, 76-77
- run charts, 84-85
- worksheets, 70-74

mission statements, 18

mistakes, designing systems to avoid, 196-197

mitigating risk

- case study, 369
- explained, 362

mode, 60-61

monthly steering committee reviews, 251

motivation, 1, 410

Motorola Corporation, 417

multiple processing units, 190

N

negative reactive behaviors, 423

negative skewness, 67-68

new paradigm of leadership, 434

nominal value, 31

non-quantitative tools

- affinity diagrams, 156, 181-182
- brainstorming, 155-156, 179-181
- cause and effect (C&E) diagrams, 157-159, 182
- change concepts
 - changing work environment*, 191-192
 - defined*, 160
 - designing systems to avoid mistakes*, 196-197
 - eliminating waste*, 187-188
 - enhancing producer/customer relationship*, 193-194
 - example*, 162-163
 - focusing on product/service*, 197-198
 - improving work flow*, 188-190
 - managing time*, 194-195
 - managing variation*, 195-196
 - optimizing inventory*, 190-191
 - overview*, 185-187
 - purpose of*, 162
- check sheets, 153-155, 177-178
- communication plans, 163-164, 198-200
- flowcharts, 146-148, 165-166
- FMEA (Failure Modes and Effects Analysis), 153, 174-177
- Gantt charts, 159-161, 185
- operational definitions, 151-153
- overview, 145
- Pareto diagrams, 159, 182-185
- SIPOC analysis, 149-151, 172-173
- VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis
 - case study: reducing patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic*, 168-172
 - data collection*, 167
 - data interpretation*, 167
 - defined*, 146
 - market segmentation*, 166-167
 - planning*, 167
 - purpose of*, 149

non-technical definition of Six Sigma, 253

normal distribution, 68, 266

numeric data

- attribute classification data
 - explained*, 47-48
 - measures of central tendency*, 61-62

- attribute count data
 - explained, 48-49*
 - graphing, 50-54*
- attribute data, 47, 61-62
- central tendency, measures of
 - mean, 59*
 - median, 60*
 - mode, 60-61*
 - proportion, 61-62*
- measurement data, 49-50
 - graphing, 54-58*
 - measures of central tendency, 59-61*
- shape, measures of, 66-68
- skewness
 - defined, 66*
 - negative or left skewness, 67-68*
 - positive or right skewness, 66-67*
 - symmetrical distribution, 66*
- variation, measures of
 - range, 62-63*
 - standard deviation, 63-66, 68-69*
 - variance, 63-66*

O

- objectives of processes, 38
- opening Minitab worksheets, 71-74
- Open Worksheet dialog box (Minitab), 72
- operational definitions, 11-13, 412, 416
 - creating, 173-174
 - defined, 151
 - example, 151-153
 - importance of, 153
 - of CTQs
 - case study, 325-326*
 - explained, 312*
 - purpose of, 151
 - for Xs
 - case study, 346-347*
 - explained, 338*
- optimization, 190-191, 411
- out of control points, determining, 93-98
- outpatient psychiatric clinic case study. *See* patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic (case study)

- outputs, 18, 285
- overjustification, 413
- ownership of processes, 36

P

- paradigm shift, 433-434
- Pareto Chart dialog box (Minitab), 76-77
- Pareto diagrams
 - adding to Minitab worksheets, 76-77
 - creating, 182-185
 - definition of, 159
 - example, 159
 - explained, 51-52
 - purpose of, 159
- passive baseline data, 318
- patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic (case study)
 - Analyze phase
 - current state process flowchart, 344-345*
 - data collection plan for Xs, 348*
 - FMEA (failure modes and effects analysis), 346*
 - go-no go decision point, 354-355*
 - hypotheses about relationship between critical Xs and CTQs, 354*
 - identification of Xs for CTQs, 344-346*
 - measurement system for Xs, validating, 348*
 - operational definitions of Xs, 346-347*
 - test of theories to determine critical Xs, 348-353*
 - tollgate reviews, 354-355*
 - Control phase, 386-391
 - collateral damage to related processes, reducing, 386*
 - control plan, developing, 387-389*
 - diffusion of improvements, 390*
 - financial impact, 387, 390*
 - project, inputting into Six Sigma database, 390*
 - standardized improvements, 386-387*
 - tollgate review, 390-391*
 - Define phase
 - definition of CTQs, 308*
 - go-no go decision point, 308-309*
 - initial draft of project objective, 308*

- project charter*, 293-299
 - SIPOC analysis*, 299
 - Six Sigma team, activating*, 292-293
 - tollgate reviews*, 308-309
 - VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis*, 299-308
- Improve phase, 366-373
 - alternative methods, generating*, 366-367
 - best alternative method, selecting*, 367-368
 - future state flowchart, creating*, 368-369
 - go-no go decision point*, 373
 - pilot testing*, 369-372
 - risk mitigation*, 369
 - tollgate review*, 373
- Measure phase
 - baseline data analysis*, 328-329
 - data collection plan for CTQs*, 325-326
 - go-no go decision point*, 330
 - operational definitions of CTQs*, 325-326
 - tollgate review*, 330
 - validation of measurement system for CTQs*, 326-327
- VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis, 168-172
- pay system, 191
- P Chart dialog box (Minitab), 132
- p charts, 98-104
 - creating in Minitab, 131-133
 - explained, 98
 - p chart with equal subgroup size, 99-102
 - p chart with unequal subgroup size, 102-104
 - when to use, 98-99
- PDSA (Plan-Do-Study-Act) cycle, 417-419
 - example, 207-209
 - explained, 206-207
 - failure in Act phase, 393-396
- performance appraisal systems, 428
- piecework, 424
- pilot tests, 362-364
 - case study, 369-372
 - communication plans, 362
 - data analysis, 362-364
 - employee training, 362
 - pilot test charter, 362-363
- place value, 3
- Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) cycle, 417-419
- planned maintenance, 223-224
- Plan phase (PDSA cycle), 206
- plans
 - assumptions, 13-14
 - communication plan
 - case study*, 299-300
 - explained*, 282-283
 - communication plans
 - creating*, 198-200
 - defined*, 163
 - example*, 164
 - purpose of*, 163
 - contingency plans, 195
 - control plans, 380-381
 - risk abatement plan, 283, 299
 - stability, 13-14
 - strategic/tactical plans, 232
 - succession planning, 399-403
 - VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis, 167, 287
- plotting zone limits, 131
- poka-yoke, 224-225
- positive skewness, 66-67
- potential Xs, identifying, 308, 335-338
- predictions, improving, 195
- presidential review of maintainability indicators, 397
- prevailing paradigm of leadership, 433
- preventing backsliding. *See* backsliding, preventing
- pride of workmanship, 426-429
- prioritizing projects, 247-250
- proactive data, 167
- proactive sources. *See* external proactive sources; internal proactive sources
- problem statements, 247, 277-278, 294
- process capability estimation for CTQs, 321-323
- processes, 17. *See also* quality; variation
 - analyzing, 44-45
 - defined, 18
 - defining, 35-38
 - DMAIC model. *See* DMAIC model
 - documenting
 - ANSI standard flowchart symbols*, 43-44
 - benefits of flowcharts*, 39-40

- deployment flowcharts, 42-43*
 - process flowcharts, 40-41*
 - simple generic flowchart, 39*
 - examples, 19-22
 - feedback loops, 19, 23-24
 - flowcharts, 39-41, 44-45, 147, 334
 - importance of, 19
 - maintaining improvements. *See* improvements, maintaining
 - orientation, 410
 - process flowcharts, 40-41
 - process sigma, 262-264
 - variation. *See* variation
 - where processes exist, 18-19
- process improvement methodologies**
- DMAIC model. *See* DMAIC model
 - Kaizen/Rapid Improvement Events
 - example, 210-212*
 - explained, 209-210*
 - lean thinking
 - 5S methods, 221-223*
 - overview, 221*
 - poka-yoke, 224-225*
 - SMED (Single Minute Exchange of Dies), 224-225*
 - TPM (Total Productive Maintenance), 223-224*
 - value streams, 226-227*
 - non-quantitative tools. *See* non-quantitative tools
 - PDSA cycle
 - example, 207-209*
 - explained, 206-207*
 - principles, 3-14
 - continuous improvement, 9-11*
 - expansion of knowledge through theory, 13*
 - life as a process, 3-4*
 - operational definitions, 11-13*
 - special and common causes of variation, 6-8*
 - stability in planning, 13-14*
 - stable versus unstable processes, 8-9*
 - variation in processes, 5-6*
 - waste in processes, 11*
 - SDSA cycle, 203-204
- processing symbol, 43**
- process oriented top-down/bottom-up succession planning, 401-403**
- Process Owners, 257**
- process sigma, 262-264**
- producer/customer relationship, enhancing, 193-194**
- production, improving, 415-421**
- products**
- focus on, 197-198
 - maintaining improvements. *See* improvements, maintaining
- Profound Knowledge, System of. *See* System of Profound Knowledge**
- Project Champions, 256-257**
- project charter, 276-283**
- benefits and costs, 281-282
 - business case, 276-277
 - case study, 293-299
 - communication plan, 282-283
 - goal statement, 278
 - high level project charter, 275
 - problem statement, 277-278
 - project plan with milestones, 279-280
 - project scope, 278-279
 - risk abatement plan, 283
 - roles and responsibilities, 282
- project objective, initial draft of, 289-290, 308**
- project plan with milestones, 279-280, 295**
- project prioritization matrix, 248-250**
- projects**
- benefits, 242
 - executing, 250-251
 - identifying
 - customer feedback, 237*
 - customer focus groups, 236*
 - customer surveys, 236*
 - employee feedback, 234-235*
 - employee focus groups, 233*
 - employee forums, 233-234*
 - employee surveys, 234*
 - managerial dashboards, 238-240*
 - project identification matrix, 231*
 - regulatory compliance issues, 237-238*
 - strategic/tactical plans, 232*

VoC (*Voice of the Customer*) interviews, 235-236
VoE (*Voice of the Employee*) interviews, 232-233
prioritizing, 247-250
screening and scoping, 278-279, 294-295
 estimation of project benefits, 242
 estimation of time to completion, 245-246
 high-level project charters, 246-247
 overview, 240-241
 problem statements, 247
 project methodology selection, 243-245
 questions to ask, 241
selecting, 250
tracking, 250-251
proportion, 61-62
psychiatric clinic case study. *See* patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic (case study)
psychology, 412-413
pull systems, 190
push systems, 190

Q-R

quality, 31-33, 434
quick changeover, 224-225
quotas, 424-425
quotations from W. Edwards Deming, 434-435
range, 62-63
ranking of employees, 428-429
Rapid Improvement Events, 209-210
reactive data, 167
reactive sources. *See* external reactive sources; internal reactive sources
recycling, 188
Red Bead Experiment, 30-31
reduction of patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic. *See* patient no shows at outpatient psychiatric clinic (case study)
regulatory compliance issues, 237-238
reminders, 196
resources, allocating, 250-251
responsibilities (team), 282, 298

reviews
 monthly steering committee reviews, 251
 presidential review of maintainability indicators, 397
 tollgate reviews
 Analyze phase, 342-344, 354-355
 Control phase, 384-385, 390-391
 Define phase, 290-291, 308-309
 Improve phase, 365, 373
 Measure phase, 323-324, 330
right skewness, 66-67
risk mitigation, 362, 369
risk abatement plan, 283, 299
risk sharing, 192
roles
 Black Belts, 258-259, 260
 executive steering committee, 256
 Green Belts, 259-260, 260
 Master Black Belts, 257-258
 Process Owners, 257
 Project Champions, 256-257
 Senior Executives, 255
RTY (rolled throughput yield), 262
Run Chart dialog box (Minitab), 85
run charts
 explained, 56-58
 obtaining in Minitab, 84-85
S
sampling, 188
Sarbanes Oxley Act (SOX), 237
Save Worksheet As dialog box (Minitab), 73
saving Minitab worksheets, 71-74
scope
 case study, 294-295
 project scope, 278-279
scoping projects
 estimation of project benefits, 242
 estimation of time to completion, 245-246
 high-level project charters, 246-247
 overview, 240-241
 problem statements, 247
 project methodology selection, 243-245
 questions to ask, 241

scorecards, balanced, 232

screening projects

- estimation of project benefits, 242
- estimation of time to completion, 245-246
- high-level project charters, 246-247
- overview, 240-241
- problem statements, 247
- project methodology selection, 243-245
- questions to ask, 241

SDSA (Standardize-Do-Study-Act) cycle, 203-204, 416-417

segmentation

- customer segments, 285
- market segmentation, 166-167

seiketsu, 417

seiri, 417

seiso, 417

seiton, 417

self-discipline, 222, 417

self-improvement, 430

Senior Executives, 255

service

- focus on, 197-198
- improving, 415-421
- quality in, 434
- maintaining improvements. *See* improvements, maintaining

set points, changing, 188

70 change concepts, 359

shape, measures of, 66-68

shared mission, 405

shared risks, 192

shared values/beliefs, 405

shitake, 417

shitsuke, 417

simulation, 359

Single Minute Exchange of Dies (SMED), 224-225

single suppliers, 414-415

SIPOC (Supplier-Input-Process-Output-Customer) analysis, 149

- case study, 299
- creating, 172-173
- defined, 149
- example, 149-151
- explained, 283-286
- purpose of, 149

Six Sigma

- benefits of, 254
- history of, 253-254
- importance of, 272
- management opportunities, 261
- management terminology, 260-264
 - CTQs. *See* CTQs (*Critical-to-Quality characteristics*)
 - defective, 261
 - defects, 261
 - DPMO (*defects per million opportunities*), 262
 - DPOs (*defects per opportunity*), 261
 - DPUs (*defects per unit*), 261
 - process sigma, 262-264
 - RTY (*rolled throughput yield*), 262
 - units, 261
 - yield, 262
- non-technical definition, 253
- roles
 - Black Belts*, 258-260
 - executive steering committee*, 256
 - Green Belts*, 259-260
 - Master Black Belts*, 257-258
 - Process Owners*, 257
 - Project Champions*, 256-257
 - Senior Executives*, 255
- teams, activating
 - case study*, 292-293
 - overview*, 274-276
- technical definition, 253, 266-272
 - normal distribution*, 266
 - relationship between VoP and VoC*, 266-271
- tips for success, 255

skewness, 66-68

slogans, 424

SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant, and Time Bound), 290

SMED (Single Minute Exchange of Dies), 224-225

Smith, Bill, 253

soft benefits, 281-282

sorting, 222, 417

- SOX (Sarbanes Oxley Act), 237
- special variation, 6-8, 90
 - explained, 25-26
 - Funnel Experiment, 27-29
 - Red Bead Experiment, 30-31
- specification limits, 31
- spic and span, 222, 417
- stability in planning, 13-14
- stable processes, 8-9
- standard deviation, 68-69, 266, 341
- standard flowchart symbols, 43-44
- standardization, 195, 222, 417
 - case study, 386-387
 - explained, 379-380
 - improvements
 - case study*, 386-387
 - explained*, 379-380
- Standardize-Do-Study-Act (SDSA) cycle, 203-204, 416-417
- Standardize phase (SDSA cycle), 203
- start/stop symbol, 43
- statistical analysis, 341
 - central tendency
 - mean*, 59
 - median*, 60
 - mode*, 60-61
 - proportion*, 61-62
 - Minitab, 70
 - bar charts*, 74-76
 - descriptive statistics*, 85-87
 - dot plots*, 82-83
 - histograms*, 79-82
 - line graphs*, 78-79
 - Pareto diagrams*, 76-77
 - run charts*, 84-85
 - worksheets*, 70-74
 - shape (skewness), 66-68
 - variation
 - range*, 62-63
 - standard deviation*, 63-69
 - variance*, 63-66
- strategic/tactical plans, 232
- Study phase (PDSA cycle), 207
- Study phase (SDSA cycle), 203
- subgroups, 7
- substitution, 188
- succession planning
 - creating talent pools model, 400
 - explained, 399
 - incumbent model, 399-400
 - process oriented top-down/bottom-up model, 401-403
 - top-down/bottom-up model, 400-401
- suggestions
 - customer feedback, 237
 - employee feedback, 234-235
- Supplier-Input-Process-Output-Customer analysis. *See* SIPOC (Supplier-Input-Process-Output-Customer) analysis
- suppliers
 - identifying, 285
 - single suppliers, 414-415
- surveys
 - customer surveys, 236
 - employee surveys, 234
- symbols (flowchart), 43-44
- symmetrical distribution, 66
- synchronization, 189
- system, appreciation of, 411
- systematization, 222, 417
- system of independent components, 401
- system of interrelated components, 401
- System of Profound Knowledge
 - appreciation of a system, 411
 - 14 Points, 413-430
 - adopting new philosophy*, 413
 - breaking down barriers between departments*, 423-424
 - ceasing dependence on mass inspection*, 413-414
 - creating constancy of purpose*, 413
 - driving out fear*, 423
 - eliminating arbitrary goals, posters, and slogans*, 424
 - eliminating management by objective*, 425-426
 - eliminating work standards (quotas)*, 424-425
 - encouraging education and self-improvement*, 430

- ending practice of awarding business on basis of price, 414-415*
- improving constantly the system of production and service, 415-421*
- instituting leadership, 422-423*
- reduction of variation and, 430-433*
- removing barriers to pride of workmanship, 426-429*
- taking action to accomplish transformation, 430*
- training on the job, 421-422*
- overview, 409-410
- paradigms, 410-411
- psychology, 412-413
- purpose, 410
- quality in service, government, and education, 434
- quotations from W. Edwards Deming, 434-435
- theory of knowledge, 412
- theory of variation, 412
- transformation, 433-434

T

- tactical plans, 232
- Taguchi Loss Function (TLF), 32-33
- talent pool model of succession planning, 400
- tampering, 195
- tangible costs, 242, 281
- targets, changing, 188
- technical definition of Six Sigma, 253, 266-272
 - normal distribution, 266
 - relationship between VoP and VoC, 266-271
- testing
 - pilot tests, 362-364
 - case study, 369-372*
 - communication plans, 362*
 - data analysis, 362-364*
 - employee training, 362*
 - pilot test charter, 362-363*
 - test of theories to determine critical Xs, 340-342, 348-353
- theory of knowledge, 412
- theory of management. *See* System of Pro-found Knowledge

- theory of variation, 412
- three-sigma limits, 93
- time management, 194-195
- time series plot, 78. *See also* line graphs
- Time Series Plot: Simple dialog box (Minitab), 79
- time to complete project, estimating, 245-246
- time value, 3
- TLF (Taguchi Loss Function), 32-33
- tollgate reviews
 - Analyze phase
 - case study, 354-355*
 - explained, 342-343*
 - Control phase
 - case study, 390-391*
 - explained, 384-385*
 - Define phase, 290-291, 308-309
 - Improve phase
 - case study, 373*
 - explained, 365*
 - Measure phase, 323-324, 330
- top-down/bottom-up model of succession planning, 400-401
- TPM (Total Productive Maintenance), 223-224
- tracking projects, 250-251
- training, 192, 224, 421-422
- transformation, 430, 433-434
- type one errors, 92
- type two errors, 92

U

- U Chart dialog box (Minitab), 135
- u charts, 106-108
 - creating in Minitab, 134-136
 - example, 107-108
 - explained, 106
 - when to use, 107
- UCL (upper control limit), 7, 92
- units, 261, 289, 322
- unit-to-unit variation, 5-6
- unstable processes, 8-9
- unwanted variation, 6
- USL (upper specification limit), 31

V

validating

measurement system for CTQs

case study, 326-327

explained, 313-317

measurement system for Xs

case, 348

explained, 340

value engineering, 188

values

form value, 4

nominal value, 31

place value, 3

time value, 3

value streams, 226-227

variability, reducing, 406

variables, 47

variables control charts, 91

variables data, 49-50

variation

common variation, 6-8, 25-26, 89

control charts

attribute control charts, 90

case study (defective surgical screws),
119-125

c charts, 104-106, 134

choosing, 119

control limits, 93

explained, 90

I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range)
charts, 109-112, 136-137

p charts, 98-104, 131-133

rules for determining out of control points,
93-98

three-sigma limits, 93

type one errors, 92

type two errors, 92

u charts, 134-136

variables control charts, 91

X Bar and R charts, 112-115, 137-139

X Bar and S charts, 115-119, 139-142

defined, 5-6, 24-25, 89

Funnel Experiment, 27-29

importance of, 25

measurement systems analysis, 126-131

measures of

range, 62-63

standard deviation, 63-66, 68-69

variance, 63-66

Minitab, 131

c charts, 134

I-MR (Individuals and Moving Range)
charts, 136-137

p charts, 131-133

u charts, 134-136

X Bar and R charts, 137-139

X Bar and S charts, 139-142

zone limits, plotting, 131

Red Bead Experiment, 30-31

reducing, 430-433

special variation, 6-8, 25-26, 90

theory of variation (Deming), 412

variation management, 195-196

Verify/Validate phase (DMADV cycle), 219

VoC (Voice of the Customer) analysis, 286-288

case study, 168-172, 299-308

data collection, 167, 287

data interpretation, 167, 288

defined, 146

interviews, 235-236

market segmentation, 166-167, 287

planning, 167, 287

purpose of, 149

Six Sigma, 266-271

VoE (Voice of the Employee) interviews, 232-233

VoP (Voice of the Process), 266-271

W

wait time, reducing, 195

waste

eliminating, 187-188

in processes, 11

Welch, Jack, 253

work environment, changing, 191-192

work flow, improving, 188-190

worksheets (Minitab)

bar charts, 74-76

descriptive statistics, 85-87

- dot plots, 82-83
- explained, 70-71
- histograms, 79-82
- line graphs, 78-79
- opening, 71-74
- Pareto diagrams, 76-77
- run charts, 84-85
- saving, 71-74

work standards (quotas), 424-425

X

- X Bar and R charts, 112-115, 137-139**
- X Bar and S charts, 115-119, 139-142**
- Xbar-R Chart dialog box (Minitab), 138-140**
- Xbar-S Chart dialog box (Minitab), 141**
- Xs**
 - data collection plan, 339-340
 - defined, 333
 - hypotheses about relationship between critical Xs and CTQs, 354
 - identification of potential Xs, 308, 335-338
 - operational definitions, 346-348
 - test of theories to determine critical Xs, 340-342, 348-353

Y-Z

- yield, 262

- zone limits, plotting, 131
- ZQC (Zero Quality Control), 225**