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Prioritization of QFD Customer Requirements Based on the Law of Comparative Judgments

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ABSTRACT Quality function deployment (QFD) is a useful tool to improve the design/development process of products and services. The initial phases of the QFD process—that is, those concerning the collection and analysis of the so-called voice of the customer—are probably the most critical, because any distortion can propagate to the whole process results, making it ineffective or even misleading. The focus of this article is on the phase of prioritization of customer requirements (CRs). There are numerous techniques for this task; however, (1) the simplest often introduce questionable or unrealistic assumptions, whereas (2) the most sophisticated often require too much elaborate and repetitious information from customers, which may lead to inconsistencies. This article introduces a new prioritization technique based on the Thurstone's law of comparative judgment. This technique makes it possible to aggregate the evaluations by multiple respondents and transform them into an interval scale, which depicts the relative importance of CRs. The greatest strength of this technique is combining a refined theoretical model with a simple and user-friendly data collection process. The description is supported by a realistic application example concerning the prioritization of QFD's CRs in the design of an aircraft seat.

KEYWORDS customer requirements, interval scale, law of comparative judgment, prioritization, QFD, relative importance ratings, Thurstone scaling

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Quality function deployment (QFD) is a powerful technique to increase the customer satisfaction of product and services. The implementation of QFD may generate significant improvements in the design/development process, such as fewer and earlier design changes, improved cross-functional communications, improved product/service quality, and reduced development time and cost (Franceschini 2002; Griffin and Hauser 1993; Hauser and Clausing 1988; Tran and Sherif 1995). These improvements are critical success factors to companies in a global marketplace characterized by intense international competition.

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The great diffusion of QFD is demonstrated by the literally thousands of scientific publications illustrating a variety of industrial applications, methodological improvements, new variants, and possible integration with other tools.

Typically, QFD utilizes four sets of matrices—the so-called Houses of Quality (HoQs). The four HoQs respectively translate (1) customer requirements (CRs) into engineering characteristics and, in turn, into (2) parts characteristics, (3) process plans, and (4) production requirements (Franceschini 2002). For detailed information, we refer the reader to the vast literature and extensive reviews (e.g., Chan and Wua 2002; Sharma, Rawani, and Barahate 2008).

The customer input, also defined as voice of the customer (VoC), is the key starting point for the QFD process; if it does not accurately reflect what the customer expects from the product/service of interest, the process may lead to incorrect conclusions (Sireli, Kauffmann, and Ozan 2007). Therefore, the first HoQ, also defined as product planning HoQ, is of fundamental and strategic importance (Gonzalez, Quesada, and Bahill 2003). The product planning HoQ construction process can be summarized into ten phases, as shown in Figure 1.

Among these phases—described in detail in the literature (see, e.g., Chan and Wua 2002; Franceschini 2002; Franceschini and Rossetto 2002)—particularly significant are those related to the VoC collection and analysis. The initial phase (i.e., phase 1, “customer requirements,” in the scheme in Figure 1) concerns the VoC collection—through interviews and

questionnaires—and analysis, in order to determine an exhaustive list of CRs. For this task, it is necessary to select a representative sample of (potential) customers, with reasonable knowledge of the product/service to be designed. It was found empirically that samples consisting of twenty to thirty respondents are sufficient to cover most CRs; in addition, for data collected to be reasonable and applicable, respondents have to gain a full understanding of the task required (Urban and Hauser 1993).

In the second part of this phase, a cross-functional team of experts—composed of members from marketing, design, quality, finance, and production—have to review, reorganize, and insert the CRs into the product planning HoQ.

The next stage, which is the focus of this article, is that of the prioritization of CRs (i.e., phase 2, “relative importance ratings,” in the scheme in Figure 1), presuming that the main CRs related to the product/service to be designed have already been identified in phase 1. The expression “relative importance ratings” indicates that this prioritization is aimed at discriminating a CR based on its importance over the others. On the other hand, phase 4, “final importance ratings” (see Figure 1), denotes a prioritization that also takes into account the comparison of quality performance of the products/services of the company and those of its competitors.

In phase 2, a sample of customers—generally the same involved in phase 1—have to prioritize the QFD’s CRs using several possible approaches. Some of them are point direct scoring method (Griffin and Hauser 1993; Hauser and Clausing 1988), analytic hierarchy process (AHP; Chuang 2001; Li et al. 2009), analytic network process (ANP; Karsak, Sozer, and Alptekin 2002; Lee, Wu, and Tzeng 2008), outranking methods (Figueira, Greco, and Ehrgott 2005; Franceschini and Rossetto 1995), fuzzy variants (Buyukozkan et al. 2004; Chan, Kao, and Wu 1999; Kwong and Bai 2002), and techniques derived from the Kano model (Chaudha et al. 2011; Matzler and Hinterhuber 1998; Sireli, Kauffmann, and Ozan 2007). Without going into these techniques in detail, we remark that they may use different kinds of response data and elaborations from respondents. Even though all of these techniques are supposed to reflect the VoC, sometimes they may lead to misleading results, especially when the data collection approach is too complex and elaborate. Here are some examples:

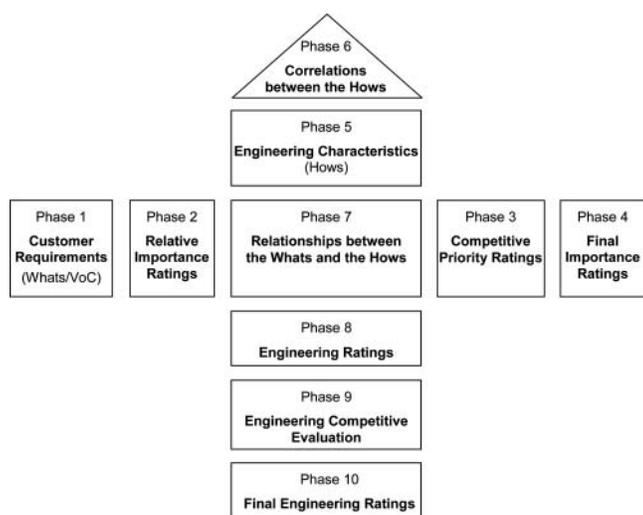


FIGURE 1 Main phases of the product planning HoQ construction process.

- Techniques based on the AHP and ANP method require CR judgments in the form of paired comparison data, defined on a *ratio* scale; for example, CR_1 is twice as important as CR_2 (Chuang 2001; Franceschini 2002; Kwong and Bai 2002; Lee, Wu, and Tzeng 2008, Li et al. 2009). These evaluations are inevitably arbitrary and subjective because respondents may find it difficult to express their judgments on this scale. Techniques that integrate the Kano model in the QFD environment require relatively complex questionnaires (Nahm, Ishikawa, and Inoue 2013) and the definition of arbitrary weights for the (qualitative) Kano categories (i.e., *basic* or *must-be* (B), *one dimensional* (O), *attractive* (A), *indifferent* (I), *reverse* (R), and *questionable* (Q); Tan and Shen 2000).
- Other sophisticated techniques for the CR prioritization, such as that proposed by Nahm, Ishikawa, and Inoue (2013), model the uncertainty in customer requirements, taking into account the uncertainty of customer's judgment. Unfortunately, they generally include complex and structured questionnaires and, sometimes, introduce questionable assumptions in the response data processing.
- In the classical questionnaires for prioritizing QFD's CRs, respondent judgements are defined on a five-level rating response scale (1 = *not at all important*, 2 = *low importance*, 3 = *medium importance*, 4 = *high importance*, and 5 = *very high importance*). This response scale has two inherent limitations:
 1. Because it is an ordinal scale, it only allows comparisons like " CR_1 is more important than CR_2 ." Unfortunately, a typical abuse is "promoting" this scale to an interval or even ratio scale, in order to make incorrect comparisons like "the distance, in terms of importance, between CR_1 and CR_2 is greater than that between CR_3 and CR_4 " or " CR_1 is three times more important than CR_2 " (Burke, Kloeber, and Deckro 2002; Franceschini, Galetto, and Maisano 2007; Stevens 1946).
 2. These scales are used subjectively, because there is no absolute reference shared by all respondents. In general, "indulgent" respondents will tend to assign higher levels of importance, whereas "severe" respondents will tend to assign lower ones. For example, let us consider the ratings about three CRs (i.e., CR_1 , CR_2 , and CR_3) by two fictitious respondents (A and B). These ratings on a five-level scale are respectively A: 3, 2,

1, and B: 5, 4, 2. Although the relative rankings are identical (i.e., $CR_1 > CR_2 > CR_3$), judgments by A (severe respondent) are concentrated in the lowest levels of the scale, whereas those of B (indulgent respondent) are concentrated in the highest. For this reason, it is questionable to aggregate judgments by different respondents through indicators of central tendency, such as the median or the mean value.

The objective of this article is to introduce a simple technique for the CR prioritization, based on the so-called Thurstone's law of comparative judgement, for aggregating the judgments by multiple respondents and transforming them into a numerical interval scale (Thurstone 1927).

An important benefit of this technique is combining a simple and user-friendly data collection process—based on the definition of respondent judgements on a five-level ordinal scale—with a refined theoretical model.

The remainder of this article is structured into three sections. The following section provides some background information, which is helpful to grasp the logic of the novel prioritization technique: (1) basic concepts concerning the Thurstone model and (2) description of a process for deriving response data suitable to this model, keeping data collection as simple and user-friendly as possible. The following section shows a realistic application example concerning the prioritization of the QFD's CRs in the design of an aircraft seat for passengers. The concluding section summarizes the original contributions of the article, focusing on the benefits and limitations of the proposed technique and possible future research.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Basics of Thurstone's Law of Comparative Judgment

In 1927, Thurstone presented his law of comparative judgement (LCJ); that is, a mathematical model to estimate scale values based on binary choices between stimuli. The explanation of this model will refer to the problem of the relative importance prioritization of QFD's CRs on the basis of the VoC.

Thurstone postulated that each stimulus (CR in this case) will possess some attribute (importance level in

this case) in varying but unknown degrees. For each of the CRs and among all subjects, it is assumed that a preference will exist. These two conditions imply the assumption of unidimensionality of the scale representing the importance of CRs (McIver and Carmines 1981). It is also assumed that, for each i th CR, the preference will be distributed normally; that is, $CR_i \sim N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$, where μ_i and σ_i^2 are the unknown mean value and variance of that CR. A person's preference for each CR versus every other CR is thereby obtained. The more persons who select one CR of a pair over the other CR, the greater the importance for that CR and thus the greater its scale weight (Edwards 1957).

Thurstone's LCJ is an indirect form of measurement based on a transformation of individual preferences (input data) into scale values on a psychological continuum. Such indirect approaches are referred to as "scaling" processes. There are many scaling models; the most well known are the Rasch model (Jansen 1984; Rasch 1966) and conjoint analysis (Luce and Tukey 1964). In addition, the LCJ model is based on deriving group scale values from dispersed individual choice data. Therefore, it can be also considered as a statistic choice model.

In Thurstone's terminology, choices are mediated by a *discriminal process*. He defines this as the process by which an individual identifies, distinguishes, or reacts to stimuli. Let us consider the theoretical distributions of the discriminal process for any two CRs, CR_i and CR_j (see Figure 2a). In the LCJ model, the distribution associated with a given CR is characterized by a dispersion (or variance) of that CR, which reflects the subject-to-subject variability. Dispersions may be different

for different CRs. Let μ_i and μ_j correspond to the (unknown) scale values of the two CRs and σ_i^2 and σ_j^2 the (unknown) variances.

The difference ($CR_{ij} = CR_i - CR_j$) will follow a normal distribution with parameters

$$\mu_{ij} = \mu_i - \mu_j \text{ and } \sigma_{ij} = \sqrt{\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_j^2 - 2 \cdot \rho_{ij} \cdot \sigma_i \cdot \sigma_j}, \quad [1]$$

where μ_i and μ_j denote the (unknown) mean values of CR_i and CR_j ; σ_i^2 and σ_j^2 denote the (unknown) variances of CR_i and CR_j ; and ρ_{ij} denotes the (unknown) correlation between the pairs of discriminal processes CR_i and CR_j .

Considering the area subtended by the distribution of CR_{ij} , let us draw a vertical line passing through the point with $CR_{ij} = CR_i - CR_j = 0$ (see Figure 2b). The area to the right of the line depicts the observed proportion of times (p_{ij}) that $CR_{ij} \geq 0$. Of course, the area to the left depicts the complementary proportion ($1 - p_{ij}$).

In the standard method of Thurstone scaling, the paired comparison approach is used to collect response data. Under the protocol, respondents are forced to express a preference for one CR over another (i.e., by asking them to rank order CRs two at a time rather than all at once). All possible $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2}$ pairs are assessed, where n is the number of CRs of interest.

Paired comparison data of each respondent are reported into a "binary" matrix (B). For the purpose of example, Figure 3a shows three matrices (B_1 , B_2 , and B_3) related to three fictitious respondents. The element of the single respondent's matrix is 1 when the CR in

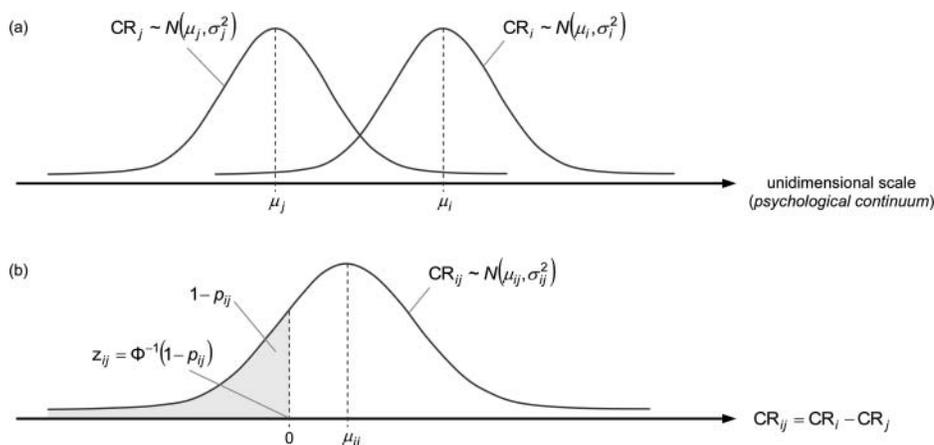


FIGURE 2 (a) Theoretical distributions of the discriminal process for two CRs (i.e., CR_i and CR_j). (b) Link between $CR_{ij} = CR_i - CR_j$, and z_{ij} ; that is, the unit normal deviate corresponding to the probability $1 - p_{ij}$, where $p_{ij} = \Pr(CR_{ij} \geq 0)$.

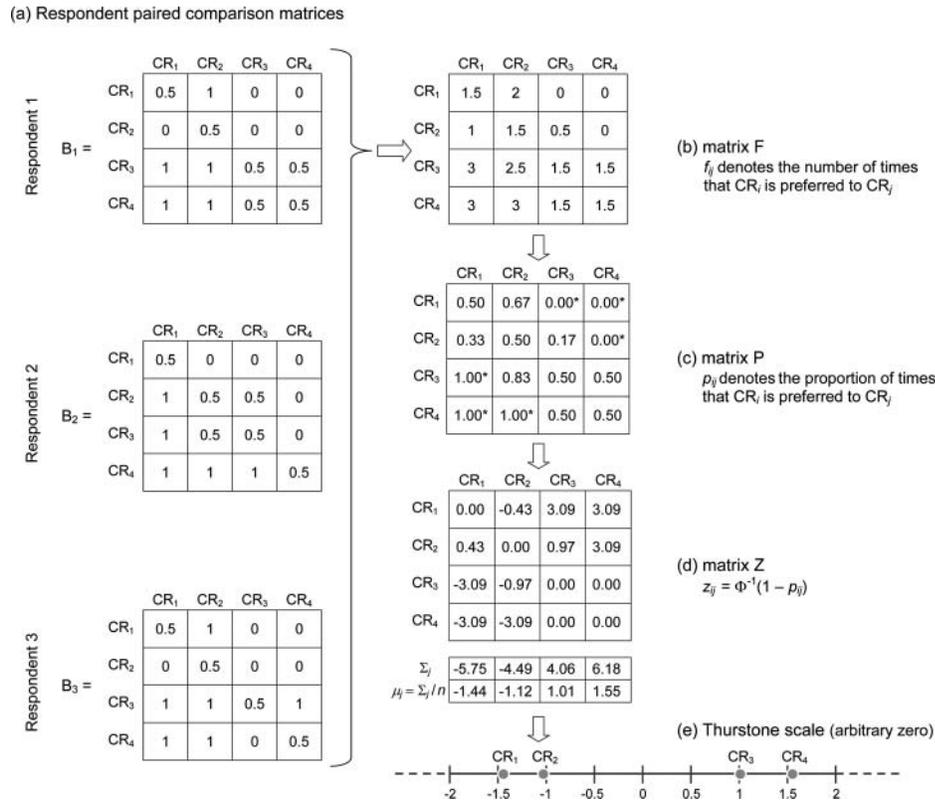


FIGURE 3 Main steps of Thurstone scaling.

the i th row is preferred to that in the j th column. If two CRs have identical level of importance (e.g., CR₃ and CR₄ in matrix B_1), their mutual paired comparisons are conventionally 0.5.

After the total pairs of CRs have been determined for a large number of respondents (N), respondents' matrices can be summed into a single frequency matrix (F), whose general element f_{ij} represents the number of times that CR _{i} was preferred to CR _{j} . Figure 3b reports the matrix F aggregating the judgment matrices B_1 , B_2 , and B_3 . The general element f_{ij} , which appears in the i th row and j th column, denotes the observed number of times that CR _{i} was judged better or worse than CR _{j} .

Matrix P (Figure 3c) is constructed from matrix F ($p_{ij} = \frac{f_{ij}}{N}$). The element p_{ij} is the observed proportion of times that CR _{i} was chosen over CR _{j} . Symmetric cells now sum to unity.

Interpreting p_{ij} in probabilistic terms, it can be stated that $p_{ij} = \Pr(\text{CR}_{ij} \geq 0)$. Since CR _{ij} follows a normal distribution, a standardized variable can be defined:

$$z_{ij} = \frac{\text{CR}_{ij} - \mu_{ij}}{\sigma_{ij}}, \quad [2]$$

where the element z_{ij} is the unit normal deviate. For CR _{ij} = 0, the unit normal deviate is determined by the theoretical proportion $(1 - p_{ij})$; that is, $z_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - p_{ij})$, where Φ is the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution (see Figure 2b). The element z_{ij} will be positive for all values of $(1 - p_{ij})$ over 0.50 and negative for all values of $(1 - p_{ij})$ under 0.50.

In detail, for CR _{ij} = 0, Eq. [2] becomes

$$z_{ij} = \frac{0 - \mu_{ij}}{\sigma_{ij}} = -\frac{\mu_{ij}}{\sigma_{ij}} \rightarrow \mu_{ij} = -z_{ij} \cdot \sigma_{ij}, \quad \text{with } z_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - p_{ij}). \quad [3]$$

Combining the second formula in Eq. [3] with the expression of σ_{ij} in Eq. [1], we obtain.

$$\mu_{ij} = \mu_i - \mu_j = -z_{ij} \cdot \sqrt{\sigma_i^2 + \sigma_j^2 - 2 \cdot \rho_{ij} \cdot \sigma_i \cdot \sigma_j}, \quad [4]$$

Matrix P is used to construct matrix Z (see Figure 3d), the basic transformation matrix. Zeros are entered in the diagonal cells in matrix Z because we can ordinarily assume that here $\mu_i - \mu_i = 0$.

Apart from the aforementioned assumptions, the Thurstone model considered here is based on the following further hypotheses:

- CRs are judged differently by subjects; if all subjects would express the same preference for each outcome, the model would not be viable (proportions of 1.00 and 0.00 in the matrix P cannot be used because the z values corresponding to these proportions are $\pm \infty$). This is the case for the pair-wise comparisons CR₁ and CR₃, CR₁ and CR₄, and CR₂ and CR₄ in the matrix P in Figure 3c: in every comparison the second CR is unanimously preferred to the first. A simplified approach for tackling this problem is associating values of $p_{ij} \leq 0.001$ with $z_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.001) = 3.09$ and values of $p_{ij} \geq 0.999$ with $z_{ij} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.999) = -3.09$ (see the items marked with “*” in the matrix P in Figure 3c). More sophisticated solutions to deal with this issue have been proposed (Edwards 1957; Krus and Kennedy 1977).
- As a further practical assumption, it is assumed that the CRs’ standard deviations are all equal ($\sigma_i = \sigma_j = \dots = \sigma$). Therefore Eq. [4] turns into

$$\mu_{ij} = -z_{ij} \cdot \sqrt{2 \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot (1 - \rho_{ij})}, \quad [5]$$

- It is further assumed that the intercorrelations are all equal to one another ($\rho_{ij} = \rho, \forall i, j$), so that Eq. [5] turns into

$$\mu_{ij} = -z_{ij} \cdot \sqrt{2 \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot (1 - \rho)}, \quad [6]$$

More precisely, Thurstone (1927) stated that in a paired judgment in which the evaluation of one of the stimuli has no influence on the evaluation of the other stimulus, the correlation ρ_{ij} is likely to be very low and possibly even zero. In addition, the assumption that the intercorrelations are all equal to zero is relatively safe when (1) the set of stimuli is rather variegated¹ and (2) the group of respondents is not too small. Since, in the case of the QFD’s CR prioritization, both these conditions are generally satisfied, it does not seem unreasonable to assume that $\rho_{ij} = \rho = 0, \forall i, j$.

¹The adjective “variegated” indicates that the stimuli of interest represent different basic concepts, not the same one, just stated in different ways.

Then, under the assumptions we have made, $\sqrt{2 \cdot \sigma^2 \cdot (1 - \rho)}$ (or $\sqrt{2 \cdot \sigma^2}$ in the case ρ is assumed to be zero) will be a constant and is the common scale factor of the various arithmetic mean pairs of CRs. Without any loss of generality, this common scale factor is set to 1, so that

$$\mu_{ij} = \mu_i - \mu_j = -z_{ij}. \quad [7]$$

Equation [7], with the assumptions involved in its derivation, is commonly referred to as Case V of the LCJ (Thurstone 1927).

Now we can show that Thurstone scale values for each CR can be obtained from the elements of the matrix Z. Actually, if we sum the entries in the j th column of the matrix Z, we obtain

$$\sum_{i=1}^n z_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mu_j - \mu_i) = n \cdot \mu_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i, \quad [8]$$

where $\sum_{i=1}^n z_{ij}$ means that the j th column is held constant and the summation is over the n rows of the table. The first term on the right is the sum of the scale value of the j th CR and the second term is the sum of the scale values of all n CRs on the psychological continuum. Dividing both sides of Eq. [8] by n , we have

$$\bar{z}_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n z_{ij}}{n} = \mu_j - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i}{n} = \mu_j - \mu, \quad [9]$$

where \bar{z}_j is the arithmetic mean of the entries in the j th column of the matrix Z; μ is the arithmetic mean of the (n) μ_i values; and μ_j is the mean value of the j th CR.

Thus, we see that the mean of the z values in the j th column of the matrix Z expresses the mean value of the j th CR in terms of its deviation from the mean of all of the μ_i values (i.e., μ). This procedure can be applied to every column of matrix Z, in order to obtain the scale values of every CR. These values are shown in the second row at the bottom of matrix Z (Figure 3d) and graphically represented in Figure 3e.

As a check upon calculations, we observe that the sum of the scale values in deviation form is equal to zero ($\sum_{j=1}^n \bar{z}_j = \sum_{j=1}^n \mu_j - \sum_{j=1}^n \mu = n\mu - n\mu = 0$). CRs with negative scale values are thus judged to be less favorable than the average of the scale values of all CRs and those with positive scale values are judged to

be more favorable than the average. Because the scale origin—taken as the mean of the scale values of the CRs on the psychological continuum—is arbitrary, we can apply a permissible scale transformation (i.e., monotonically increasing linear function; Stevens 1946) to obtain numerical values that are easier to handle. This will not change the relative position of the scale values on the psychological continuum.

Practical Response Mode

As shown in the previous subsection, in the standard method of Thurstone scaling, the paired comparison approach is used to collect response data. A drawback of this approach is that it can be tedious and complex to manage for n greater than 4 or 5, because it requires so much repetitious information from respondents. An alternative response mode,

which also yields data suitable for Thurstone scaling, is based on two steps:

1. Turning each respondent's judgments, typically expressed on a five-level rating scale (see Figure 4a), into rank order data (see Figure 4b).
2. For each respondent, rank order data can be transformed into paired comparison data and reported into a matrix (see Figure 4c). The element of the single respondent's matrix is 1 when the CR in the i th row is preferred to that in the j th column. If two CRs have identical level of importance, their mutual paired comparisons are conventionally 0.5.

The response mode based on a five-level rating scale—as well as being less tedious and time consuming than the paired comparison approach—forces the respondent to be transitive (e.g., if $CR_1 > CR_2$ and $CR_2 > CR_3$, then $CR_1 > CR_3$). In addition, it is

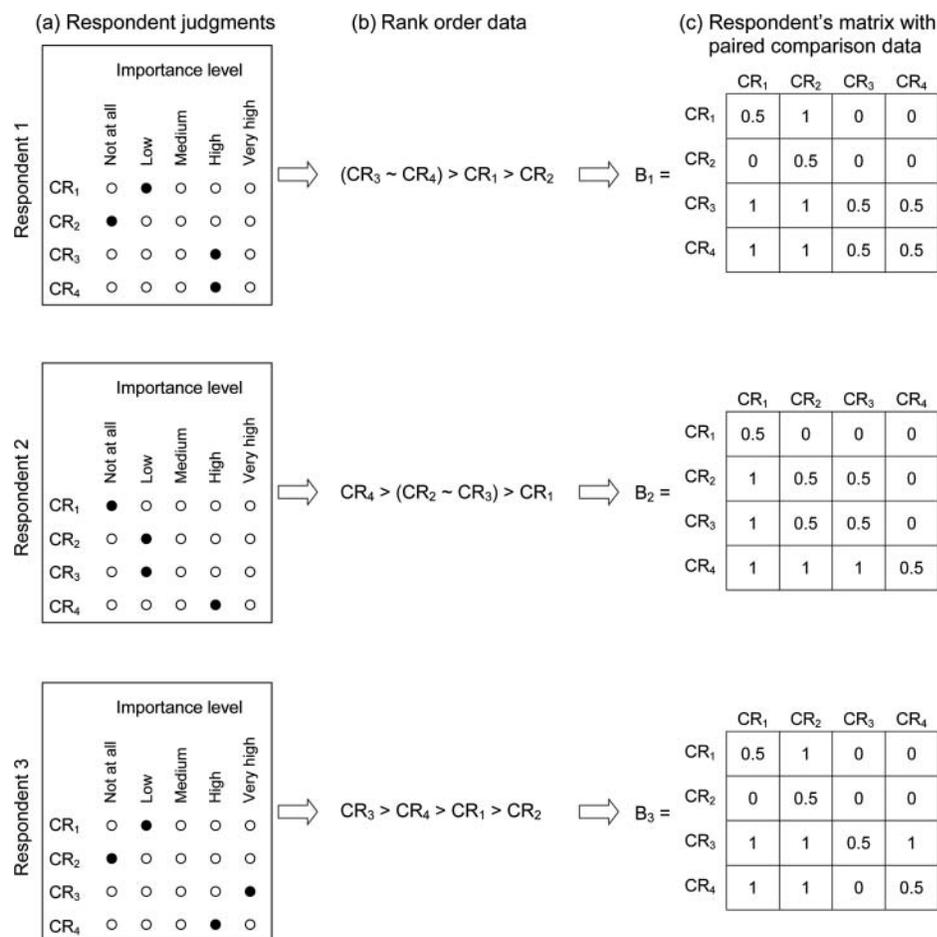


FIGURE 4 Process for deriving paired comparison data based on respondents' judgments, defined on a five-level rating scale. The binary matrices (B_1 , B_2 , and B_3) in (c) are derived from the results of the questionnaires in (a). The same three fictitious respondents introduced in Figure 3 are considered. In (b), symbols " \sim " and " $>$ ", respectively, mean "indifferent to" and "preferred to."

generally familiar to respondents and therefore less subject to misinterpretation.

APPLICATION EXAMPLE

To exemplify the performance of the proposed approach, this section illustrates an example about the CR prioritization for a civilian aircraft seat, from the perspective of passengers.

Through market survey, a sample of thirty respondents—that is, regular air passengers—are selected to identify the CRs by individual interview, focus groups and existing information. Finally, twelve major CRs (reported in Table 1) are identified to represent the major concerns of customers.

Then, a questionnaire for assessing the level of importance of each of the twelve CRs is submitted to each of the respondents. Results, defined on a five-level rating scale, are reported in Table A1 (see Appendix).

For each respondent, judgments are then transformed into rank-order data and, in turn, into paired comparison data, according to the procedure described in the previous subsection. For example, as regards respondent 1, rank-order data are $(CR_5 \sim CR_7) > (CR_1 \sim CR_3 \sim CR_6) > (CR_2 \sim CR_8 \sim CR_9) > CR_{10} > (CR_4 \sim CR_{11} \sim CR_{12})$, which are transformed into the matrix in Figure A1 (see Appendix).

We remark that, consistently with the convention introduced in the previous subsection, the mutual paired comparisons of two CRs with identical importance are both 0.5 (e.g., see CR_1 and CR_8 or CR_1 and CR_{12} in the matrix in Figure A1).

TABLE 1 List of the Major CRs Related to an Aircraft Seat, from the Perspective of Passengers

Abbreviation	Description
CR ₁	Comfortable (does not give you backache)
CR ₂	Enough leg room
CR ₃	Comfortable when you recline
CR ₄	Does not hit person behind when you recline
CR ₅	Comfortable seat belt
CR ₆	Seat belt feels safe
CR ₇	Arm rests not too narrow
CR ₈	Arm rest folds right away
CR ₉	Does not make you sweat
CR ₁₀	Does not soak up a spilled drink
CR ₁₁	Hole in tray for coffee cup
CR ₁₂	Magazines can be easily removed from rack

Next, the paired comparison data matrices relating to the thirty respondents are summed into a single frequency matrix (F), in Figure A2 (see Appendix).

The matrix F is transformed into the matrix P (in Figure A3; see Appendix) and subsequently into the matrix Z (in Figure A4; see appendix).

According to the convention illustrated in the previous section, for $p_{ij} \leq 0.001$ and $p_{ij} \geq 0.999$, z_{ij} values have been set to 3.090 and -3.090 , respectively (see the p_{ij} values marked with “*”, in the matrix P, Figure A3).

Thurstone scale values for each CR are finally calculated through the mean value of the column elements of the matrix Z (see the second row at the bottom of matrix Z, Figure A4). Because the unit and the origin of the resulting interval scale are both arbitrary, we can transform the scale values so that they are included in the interval [1; 5], according to the transformation

$$\frac{\mu'_j - 1}{5 - 1} = \frac{\mu_j - \min(\mu_j)}{\max(\mu_j) - \min(\mu_j)}, \quad [10]$$

where μ_j is the scale value related to the j th CR, resulting from Thurstone scaling and μ'_j is the transformed scale value related to the j th CR in the interval scale [1, 5].

Figure 5 provides a graphical representation of the Thurstone scale values, before and after the transformation in Eq. [10]. This transformation is nothing else than a monotonically increasing linear function of the type

$$\mu'_j = a + b \cdot \mu_j, \quad [11]$$

where

$$a = \frac{\max(\mu_j) - 5 \cdot \min(\mu_j)}{\max(\mu_j) - \min(\mu_j)} \text{ and}$$

$$b = \frac{4}{\max(\mu_j) - \min(\mu_j)} > 0.$$

This transformation eases phases 4 and 8 of the product planning HoQ construction process (see Figure 1), because they are traditionally based on CR importance levels defined on a one to five scale.

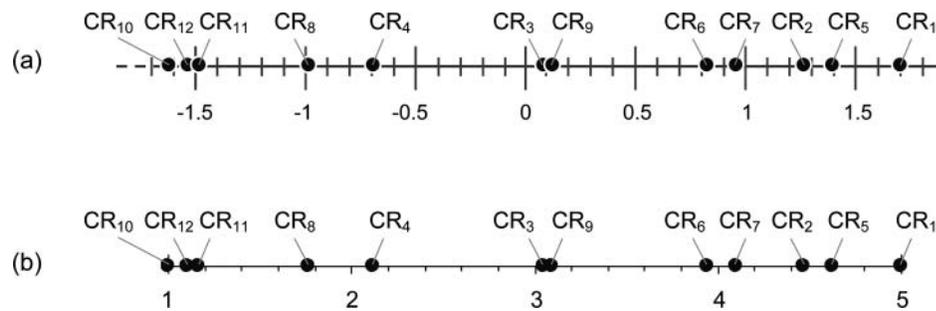


FIGURE 5 Resulting Thurstone scale values (a) before and (b) after the scale transformation in Eq. [10].

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The following three subsections respectively discuss (1) the benefits of the proposed procedure, (2) its limitations, and (3) some ideas for future research.

Benefits

- The proposed procedure allows aggregation of the typical CR judgments—generally expressed on ordinal response scales—into a continuous interval scale, avoiding the typical abuses (e.g., arbitrary promotion of the scale properties) of the classical approaches (Franceschini, Galetto, and Maisano 2007).
- Unlike other methods, such as the AHP, ANP, or Kano model, the proposed procedure does not require complicated elaborations by respondents. Particularly in populations in which educational attainment and numeracy are limited, a simple measurement strategy may have considerable practical advantages over more complex techniques, such as ease of comprehension and greater reliability due to reduced measurement error. However, the fact remains that the Thurstone model can be extended to more complex response modes, such as questionnaires in which CRs are ordered or compared in pairs by each respondent.
- The Thurstone model is relatively robust to incomplete data, like the omission of a portion of judgments by respondents. When the incidence of incomplete data is high, the model presented can be replaced by more refined ones, and it is also possible to check the internal consistency of the results obtained (Edwards 1957; Thurstone 1927). However, if CRs were identified correctly, the number of omitted judgments should not be too large. The opposite could mean that the CRs in use do not reflect the real needs of the customer.

Limitations

- Like any model, that of Thurstone is based on several assumptions, such as (1) the phenomena to be scaled must lie on a latent unidimensional scale, (2) the model is based on the normal distribution of *stimuli*, and (3) dispersion and correlation of the stimuli are assumed to be equal. Some of these assumptions can be relaxed when using more sophisticated but also complex variants of the proposed model (Maydeu-Olivares and Böckenholt 2008).
- The five-level rating scale for CR judgments is simple and intuitive for the respondent but has a relatively limited resolution. In some cases, this can make the analysis uncertain, because it may generate a significant number of “ties” (i.e., CRs with identical levels of importance) when judgments are transformed into paired comparison data. The problem can be solved by using alternative response scales with a larger number of levels or questionnaires in which the CRs are ranked or compared in pairs by each respondent.
- As for most of the statistical models, the larger the sample of respondents, the more reasonable and robust the results will be. Thurstone (1927) recommended that there be at least a few tens of respondents. This seems to be in line with the typical amount of customers involved in the initial phases of QFD process.

Ideas for Future Research

Further research should investigate the relationship between results acquired from different techniques for CR prioritization. Moreover, the use of the Thurstone LCJ could be extended to other prioritization processes within QFD, such as phases 3 and 9 in Figure 1.

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APPENDIX

TABLE A1 Levels of Importance Assigned by 30 Respondents to the CRs, through a Five-Level Rating Scale (1 = *not at all important*, 5 = *very high importance*)

Respondent no.	CR ₁	CR ₂	CR ₃	CR ₄	CR ₅	CR ₆	CR ₇	CR ₈	CR ₉	CR ₁₀	CR ₁₁	CR ₁₂
1	4	3	4	1	5	4	5	3	3	2	1	1
2	4	3	3	2	4	3	5	1	4	1	1	2
3	5	5	4	3	5	5	4	3	4	1	1	1
4	5	5	4	2	5	5	4	1	3	1	1	2
5	5	4	2	1	4	4	5	2	3	2	2	2
6	5	5	4	3	5	3	3	2	3	1	2	1
7	5	3	3	1	5	4	5	3	4	2	1	2
8	4	3	1	3	5	3	2	1	3	1	1	1
9	5	5	4	4	4	5	2	3	3	1	1	1
10	3	5	2	1	5	2	3	1	2	1	1	2
11	5	3	5	3	3	4	3	1	3	1	2	2
12	5	4	3	1	5	3	3	2	3	1	1	2
13	5	4	3	2	5	3	5	1	1	1	2	1
14	4	5	1	1	3	3	3	2	3	1	1	1
15	4	5	4	3	4	4	5	3	4	1	1	2
16	5	4	3	3	5	5	5	3	3	2	3	1
17	4	4	4	2	5	5	5	3	2	2	2	1
18	5	5	4	2	3	3	2	2	4	1	1	1
19	5	4	4	2	3	4	3	2	3	1	1	2
20	4	5	3	3	5	3	5	2	4	2	1	1
21	5	4	4	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1
22	5	5	4	4	5	4	3	2	3	1	2	1
23	5	4	3	2	4	4	5	2	4	2	3	1
24	5	5	3	3	3	5	3	2	2	2	2	1
25	5	4	2	1	4	3	2	2	4	1	1	1
26	4	4	1	2	5	3	4	2	2	1	1	2
27	4	5	2	2	4	3	3	3	3	1	1	1
28	4	4	2	3	5	3	4	2	4	2	3	1
29	5	5	2	1	4	5	3	1	3	2	1	1
30	5	4	4	1	5	3	5	1	3	2	1	1

	CR ₁	CR ₂	CR ₃	CR ₄	CR ₅	CR ₆	CR ₇	CR ₈	CR ₉	CR ₁₀	CR ₁₁	CR ₁₂
B ₁ = CR ₁	0.5	1	0.5	1	0	0.5	0	1	1	1	1	1
CR ₂	0	0.5	0	1	0	0	0	0.5	0.5	1	1	1
CR ₃	0.5	1	0.5	1	0	0.5	0	1	1	1	1	1
CR ₄	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5
CR ₅	1	1	1	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	1	1	1	1
CR ₆	0.5	1	0.5	1	0	0.5	0	1	1	1	1	1
CR ₇	1	1	1	1	0.5	1	0.5	1	1	1	1	1
CR ₈	0	0.5	0	1	0	0	0	0.5	0.5	1	1	1
CR ₉	0	0.5	0	1	0	0	0	0.5	0.5	1	1	1
CR ₁₀	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.5	1	1
CR ₁₁	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5
CR ₁₂	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5

FIGURE A1 Paired comparison data relating to the judgments by respondent 1 in Table A1.

	CR ₁	CR ₂	CR ₃	CR ₄	CR ₅	CR ₆	CR ₇	CR ₈	CR ₉	CR ₁₀	CR ₁₁	CR ₁₂
F = CR ₁	15.0	19.5	28.0	30.0	17.0	25.0	20.5	30.0	28.0	30.0	30.0	30.0
CR ₂	10.5	15.0	25.0	29.0	14.0	20.0	18.5	29.0	25.0	30.0	30.0	30.0
CR ₃	2.0	5.0	15.0	23.5	5.5	9.5	9.5	24.0	15.0	27.0	26.0	27.0
CR ₄	0.0	1.0	6.5	15.0	1.5	2.5	5.0	17.0	8.0	22.0	22.0	21.5
CR ₅	13.0	16.0	24.5	28.5	15.0	20.0	20.0	30.0	25.5	30.0	30.0	30.0
CR ₆	5.0	10.0	20.5	27.5	10.0	15.0	14.5	29.5	20.0	30.0	29.5	29.5
CR ₇	9.5	11.5	20.5	25.0	10.0	15.5	15.0	27.5	21.0	30.0	30.0	30.0
CR ₈	0.0	1.0	6.0	13.0	0.0	0.5	2.5	15.0	5.0	22.0	20.0	21.5
CR ₉	2.0	5.0	15.0	22.0	4.5	10.0	9.0	25.0	15.0	28.0	27.0	28.0
CR ₁₀	0.0	0.0	3.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.0	2.0	15.0	14.0	15.5
CR ₁₁	0.0	0.0	4.0	8.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	10.0	3.0	16.0	15.0	15.0
CR ₁₂	0.0	0.0	3.0	8.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	8.5	2.0	14.5	15.0	15.0

FIGURE A2 Matrix F, obtained from the paired comparison data originated from the respondents' judgments in Table A1.

	CR ₁	CR ₂	CR ₃	CR ₄	CR ₅	CR ₆	CR ₇	CR ₈	CR ₉	CR ₁₀	CR ₁₁	CR ₁₂
CR ₁	0.500	0.650	0.933	1.000*	0.567	0.833	0.683	1.000*	0.933	1.000*	1.000*	1.000*
CR ₂	0.350	0.500	0.833	0.967	0.467	0.667	0.617	0.967	0.833	1.000*	1.000*	1.000*
CR ₃	0.067	0.167	0.500	0.783	0.183	0.317	0.317	0.800	0.500	0.900	0.867	0.900
CR ₄	0.000*	0.033	0.217	0.500	0.050	0.083	0.167	0.567	0.267	0.733	0.733	0.717
CR ₅	0.433	0.533	0.817	0.950	0.500	0.667	0.667	1.000*	0.850	1.000*	1.000*	1.000*
CR ₆	0.167	0.333	0.683	0.917	0.333	0.500	0.483	0.983	0.667	1.000*	0.983	0.983
CR ₇	0.317	0.383	0.683	0.833	0.333	0.517	0.500	0.917	0.700	1.000*	1.000*	1.000*
CR ₈	0.000*	0.033	0.200	0.433	0.000*	0.017	0.083	0.500	0.167	0.733	0.667	0.717
CR ₉	0.067	0.167	0.500	0.733	0.150	0.333	0.300	0.833	0.500	0.933	0.900	0.933
CR ₁₀	0.000*	0.000*	0.100	0.267	0.000*	0.000*	0.000*	0.267	0.067	0.500	0.467	0.517
CR ₁₁	0.000*	0.000*	0.133	0.267	0.000*	0.017	0.000*	0.333	0.100	0.533	0.500	0.500
CR ₁₂	0.000*	0.000*	0.100	0.283	0.000*	0.017	0.000*	0.283	0.067	0.483	0.500	0.500

FIGURE A3 Matrix P, obtained from the matrix F in Figure A2.

	CR ₁	CR ₂	CR ₃	CR ₄	CR ₅	CR ₆	CR ₇	CR ₈	CR ₉	CR ₁₀	CR ₁₁	CR ₁₂
CR ₁	0.000	-0.385	-1.501	-3.090	-0.168	-0.967	-0.477	-3.090	-1.501	-3.090	-3.090	-3.090
CR ₂	0.385	0.000	-0.967	-1.834	0.084	-0.431	-0.297	-1.834	-0.967	-3.090	-3.090	-3.090
CR ₃	1.501	0.967	0.000	-0.784	0.903	0.477	0.477	-0.842	0.000	-1.282	-1.111	-1.282
CR ₄	3.090	1.834	0.784	0.000	1.645	1.383	0.967	-0.168	0.623	-0.623	-0.623	-0.573
CR ₅	0.168	-0.084	-0.903	-1.645	0.000	-0.431	-0.431	-3.090	-1.036	-3.090	-3.090	-3.090
CR ₆	0.967	0.431	-0.477	-1.383	0.431	0.000	0.042	-2.128	-0.431	-3.090	-2.128	-2.128
CR ₇	0.477	0.297	-0.477	-0.967	0.431	-0.042	0.000	-1.383	-0.524	-3.090	-3.090	-3.090
CR ₈	3.090	1.834	0.842	0.168	3.090	2.128	1.383	0.000	0.967	-0.623	-0.431	-0.573
CR ₉	1.501	0.967	0.000	-0.623	1.036	0.431	0.524	-0.967	0.000	-1.501	-1.282	-1.501
CR ₁₀	3.090	3.090	1.282	0.623	3.090	3.090	3.090	0.623	1.501	0.000	0.084	-0.042
CR ₁₁	3.090	3.090	1.111	0.623	3.090	2.128	3.090	0.431	1.282	-0.084	0.000	0.000
CR ₁₂	3.090	3.090	1.282	0.573	3.090	2.128	3.090	0.573	1.501	0.042	0.000	0.000
Σ_j	20.451	15.132	0.974	-8.339	16.722	9.894	11.460	-11.876	1.414	-19.522	-17.851	-18.459
$\mu_j = \Sigma_j / n$	1.704	1.261	0.081	-0.695	1.394	0.825	0.955	-0.990	0.118	-1.627	-1.488	-1.538
μ^i	5.000	4.468	3.051	2.119	4.627	3.944	4.100	1.765	3.095	1.000	1.167	1.106

FIGURE A4 Matrix Z containing the unit normal deviates (z_{ij}) corresponding to the complementary probabilities ($1 - p_{ij}$) to those in matrix P (p_{ij}). Values of $p_{ij} \leq 0.001$ and ≥ 0.999 (marked with "*" in Figure A3) have been conventionally associated with $z_{ij} = 3.090$ and -3.090 , respectively.