

The Overlap Between TRIZ and Lean

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1 TRIZ

TRIZ (pronounced ‘trees’), the Russian acronym for ‘The Theory of Inventive Problem Solving, is a toolbox of techniques for problem solving. The basis for TRIZ was developed by Genrich Altshuller, a Soviet naval patent clerk, in the 1950s. As Altshuller was sorting through patents, he noticed that there are only so many ways that problems can be solved and that problems in different industries have been solved in similar ways. He sorted through thousands of patents and was able to find that one (or more) of 40 principles could explain each of the inventions he saw in these patents. He also noticed that each of these principles resolved a contradiction that had existed in the technology’s development (i.e. an item has to be strong but light). Altshuller was able to find 38 possible attributes that could cause contradictions. From these insights, he developed a problem solving technique. The TRIZ problem solving methods consist of a number of different tools that can be used together or apart for problem solving and failure analysis.

Generally, the problem solving process in TRIZ is to take a specific problem, define it, generalize it by finding the contradictions and underlying principles, find examples of how others have solved the contradiction or utilized those principles, and finally, apply those general solutions to the particular problem. This process is similar to applying a math formula, such as the quadratic formula, to a specific situation: generalize the problem to use the formula, then take the generalized solution to apply to the particular problem.

1.1 Defining the Problem

Defining the problem is the most important and often the most difficult step, as there are numerous impediments. First, the situation is often obscured by jargon. Words that are commonly used within an industry, but aren’t used elsewhere can suffer from non-uniform definitions and can obscure assumptions about the problem or industry. For example, in the toy industry, the term ‘play-pattern’ is commonly used to describe how a child will play with a toy. This word can vary in meaning depending on the type of toy and the perspective: on an electronic toy it may mean the flow charts behind the electronics, the way the child interacts with it or how it is used when the electronics are not activated. To make sure that assumptions implicate in jargon (such as only a child will use this item) aren’t obscuring the cause of the problem, jargon should be removed and replaced with what is actually intended by the use of the word or phrase.

Second, it can be difficult to find the actual problem that needs to be solved. While jargon can obscure some problems, false problems can obscure others. In some cases the wrong problem is addressed. For example: if the problem is that the cost is too high, is that due to excessive material, assembly method or other causes? High cost is not the cause of the problem, the reason for the high cost is: are the tolerances too tight, and causing expensive processes to be used, or is our factor of safety too large causing exotic materials to be used? The real problem must be found and examined, not the effect that is seen at the higher level.

In defining the problem, a list of all resources available is made. Resources include physical parts, movements, systems and manpower, but the complete list also includes fields, such as gravity and EMF. The

breadth of the resource list defines the possible solution space for the problem, so it is important to include all resources, no matter how minor (excess heat) or common (air).

Additionally, at this stage it is important to identify the underlying contradiction that is causing the problem. For example, does item in question have to be both strong and light at the same time, or does the part have to be present, but its presence is causing a problem? The contradiction for the problem needs to be understood at the beginning in order to completely define the issue at hand.

Finally, a number of techniques that can help to define the problem and understand the context of the solution have been developed. One such technique is referred to as a '9-Box' or '9-Windows'. This technique places the system that is being worked with the context of its sub and super-systems and in the past and possible future embodiments of the system in question. The idea is to zoom out of the present context of the system and understand the broader context. Such a technique can bring resources and possibilities into play that were not recognized before. Included in the back of this packet is an example of a completed '9-Windows' exercise from [1].

An optional step at this point is to define ideal solution for the problem. If all the rules of physics could be ignored, how would the problem be solved? What is standing in the way of achieving that? Could the circumstances be changed? Are there additional resources that are creating the impediment to ideality? The ideal final result can differ based on the point of view from which it is determined: it can be thought of in terms of the consumer, manufacture, supplier, etc. The differences in the ideal can help to determine what areas of the design are of interest to all, or only to particular people. From this, an understanding of the situation that is causing the problem, what approaches can be taken to solve and where common interests lie can be gained.

1.2 Generalizing the Problem

The problem is generalized by selecting a particular TRIZ problem solving tool to use as a first approach. There are a number of tools to choose from based on the particular situation. Below is an incomplete list of possible TRIZ tools for use in generalizing the problem. Included here are the fundamental tools. There are others (substance-field analysis, trends of technical evolution) which are more complicated to use and beyond the scope of this introduction.

1.2.1 Separation Principles

A subset of Altshuller's 40 principles are the separation principles. The separation principles are usually used first, as they can often quickly propose a solution. As the name states, these principles refer to separation of some quality. There are four separation principles: separations of parts and whole, separation in time, separation in space and separation based upon condition. The principles are meant to inspire solutions.

1. *Separation of Parts and Whole*: Can the actions/parts/systems be broken up into smaller parts? Can separate actions/parts/systems be combine into one whole?
2. *Separation in Time*: Can the actions/parts/systems that are causing the conflict be separated in time? Can one action happen before or after the other?
3. *Separation in Space*: Can the conflict be resolved by physically moving the actions/parts/systems? Can removing a separation in space combine actions/parts/systems and remove the conflict (combination of separation of parts and whole and space)?
4. *Separation on Condition*: Can the actions/parts/systems be treated/handled differently based on internal or external conditions?

1.2.2 40 Principles

The 40 Principles are based on the patterns of development and technology bases that Altshuller found from his patent analysis. These can be used less formally for brainstorming inspiration, or found from

utilizing the contradiction table (below) to help inspire solutions. A list and definitions of the 40 Principles, summarized from [1], is attached to this package.

1.2.3 Contradiction Table

The contradiction table is a TRIZ tool that provides possible solutions for the contradiction that exists in the problem being solved. To use the contradiction table, the problem at hand needs to be defined in terms of one or more of the 38 contradictions that are listed in the first column and first row of the table. The desired attribute is found in the first column and the conflicting attribute is found the first row. Each attribute is then traced down or right to the intersection square. In this square are up to 4 numbers that correspond to the 40 principles that Altshuller found from examining patents.

These principles are intended to be used as starting points for inspiration in solving the problem at hand and resolving the afflicting conflict. The solver is by no means limited to using only those principles. The principles listed are given based on the frequency of solutions related to those principles resolving the particular conflict. Computer programs exist that help to inspire by presenting patents that show examples of the principles. A copy of the contradiction table is attached to this package that was included with [1].

1.2.4 Reverse TRIZ

The Reverse TRIZ technique is often used for failure analysis, but can also be used to discover potential problems. This technique asks the problem solver to look at the system that includes the failure and ask the question: If I were going to sabotage this system, how would I do it? The idea of this technique is to find the weak points in the system. For failure analysis, this can expose contradictions of system related to the failure that aren't obvious. With the contradictions defined, the separation or 40 principles can be used to help resolve the failure. In the design realm, Reverse TRIZ can be used to anticipate and discover problems that can occur within systems or products, as the worst-case can quickly be realized and evaluated.

1.2.5 Smart Little People

This TRIZ technique asks the problem solver to think of the site of the problem in terms of smart little people. If there were very tiny people at the site of the problem, what would they do to solve it? Would they hold up small boards to prevent contact? Would they jump up and down? Again, this technique is intended to get the problem solver to think about the situation in a different way. By focusing on the micro situation, a new perspective of on the problem can be gained. This technique can be used with the separation principles or the 40 principles once the conflict has been identified.

1.2.6 Ideal Final Result

Ideality can also be used as a problem solving tool. As explained above, this technique is to think about the perfect result to the problem at hand, disregarding physical and monetary limitations. The ideal final result can then be used back out ideas that have similar features to the perfect result.

1.3 Generating Solutions

The next step in the process, once a problem solving tool has been chosen is to generate possible solutions. In the outline offered at the beginning, this step includes finding the general solution and using the general solution to find a specific solution for the given problem. This is done by applying the tool to the defined problem, finding general solutions then using the general solutions to list specific solutions.

A general solution is a principle that is determined from the contradiction table (as described above), or selected from the separation principles. It could also be the initial ideal final result, or the description of what the smart little people would do. The next step is to make the jump from the general to the specific.

It is at this point that knowledge of many industries and technical areas are helpful. For example, if the tool being used is the contradiction table, the result of the contradiction table is a choice of up to

four of the 40 Principles. Knowledge of other industries can help to discover comparable solutions in other industries. Knowing about the segmentation of tank treads, may lead to the application of a similar solution in a consumer product setting, if the contradiction table had pointed toward the principle of segmentation (there is software that automates this process and can suggest relevant patents to the principles that are being investigated).

For another example, if the tool used was the ideal final result, and it was determined that the system would work perfectly if it weren't for the presence of UV radiation, maybe the solution is that this system be only used in a shaded area or at night.

Though it still takes some creativity to determine the ultimate solution for a problem, the goal of TRIZ is to order how the problem is thought about to help arrive more quickly at the optimal solution. Like any other tool, the more often it is used, the better the user becomes at judging which solution path will be most effective.

2 Overlap Between TRIZ and Lean Ideas

TRIZ and lean thinking have many common points. Overall, they are both ways of improving the operation of a system. TRIZ focuses on individual elements to optimize, where lean takes in the entire system to find potential efficiencies. The similarities are not only on the system level. Many TRIZ elements have a lean counterpart.

Both TRIZ and lean take a substantial amount of time to define the problem. In TRIZ it is very important to understand all of the resources that can be used to solve a problem and to understand where the real problem lies. This can be done by the '9-Window', as described above, or by other methods. In lean, the goal is to understand the entire system and how materials and information move through it. To do this, the primary tool is the current state map. The current state map defines the system in lean terms much like the '9-Window' exercise defines the context for a TRIZ problem. Both are used as starting point for a complete understanding of the system.

Both TRIZ and lean have a desire to move beyond what is currently being understood as the truth. In TRIZ, the problem solver must uncover the assumptions that are made by the use of jargon and current problem definition. In lean, a common term is 'go and see'. This means that it is better when defining the system at hand to go and see how it works, not just assume that the information that has already been gathered is correct.

TRIZ and lean both look toward the future ideal. TRIZ uses the idea of the 'perfect' system to understand what is wrong with the current system and why ideality can't be implemented. Lean uses the future state map to write down a set of goals to aim for in the lean implementation. Through both systems, the goal is to reach a more ideal state than the current, whether it be a particular problem solution or a plant reorganization.

Finally, both TRIZ and lean look to optimize the use of available resources. In lean, the goal is to eliminate waste, as waste means there are inefficiencies and counter-productive actions in the system. In TRIZ often the problem solution utilizes a resource that had previously been seen as a nuisance or as waste. All of these overlapping elements speak to the use of TRIZ ideas in a lean implementation.

3 Using TRIZ in Lean

TRIZ can also be a useful addition to lean. TRIZ, as a problem solving technique, can be used within lean to find methods of accomplishing tasks that may not have otherwise been found. TRIZ lends itself well to finding solutions that utilize currently available resources that may otherwise be seen as waste ('muda' in lean). In addition, TRIZ's ideal final result could help in developing future state maps, by looking at a particular process and its role in the entire system and determining how ideality for both can be balanced. Finally, in creating the current state map, TRIZ's problem defining techniques, such as '9-Windows' and

eliminating jargon could be very helpful, as in any problem situation there are numerous elements in the context and definition that are not adequately explored.

For example, TRIZ's '9-Window' exercise could help give context to a company's position in the market and help others understand just how important it is to work together with the 'super system' of distributors and the 'subsystem' of suppliers. Additionally, this exercise helps describe where the company has been and where it is going. This context could help greatly in developing a current state map as it could quickly give those not entirely familiar with it a snapshot of the company.

4 Conclusion

TRIZ is a set of problem solving tools that have been briefly and incompletely outlined above. The techniques listed, though basic, are very powerful and can quickly lead to inventive solutions to difficult problems. More information about TRIZ can be found in the books and websites listed in the references.

TRIZ and lean are both useful methods for developing optimized products or companies. While TRIZ tends to focus more often on smaller problems, lean is used more for systems level examination. Both, though can be used hand-in-hand for solving problems both in the macro and micro sense.

References

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A TRIZ 40 Principles

1. **Segmentation** Divide a system into separate parts or sections; Make a system easy to put together or take apart; Increase the amount of segmentation
2. **Taking Out** Where a system provides several functions of which one or more is not required (and may be harmful) at certain conditions, design the system so they are or can be taken out.
3. **Local Quality** Where an object or a system is uniform or homogenous, make it non-uniform; Change things around the system from uniform to non-uniform; Enable each part of a system to function in locally optimized conditions; Enable each part of a system or object to carry out different useful functions
4. **Asymmetry** Where an object or system is symmetrical or contains lines of symmetry, introduce asymmetries; Change the shape of an object or system to suit external asymmetries; If an object or system is already asymmetrical, increase the degree of asymmetry
5. **Merging** Physically join or merge identical or related objects, operations or functions; Join or merge objects, operations or functions so that they act together in time
6. **Universality** Make an object or system able to perform multiple functions, eliminating the need for other systems
7. **“Nested Doll”** Put one object inside another; Put several objects or systems inside others; Allow one object or system to pass through an appropriate hole in another
8. **Anti-Weight** Where the weight of an object or system causes problems, combine it with something that provides lift or use aerodynamic, hydrodynamic, buoyancy or other forces to provide lift
9. **Preliminary Anti-Action** Where an action contains both harmful and useful effects, precede the action with opposite or anti-actions to reduce or eliminate the harmful effects; Introduce stresses in an object to oppose known harmful working stresses later on
10. **Preliminary Action** Introduce a useful action into an object or system (fully or partially) before it is needed; Pre-arrange objects or systems such that they can come into action at the most convenient time and place
11. **Beforehand Cushioning** Introduce emergency backups to compensate for the potentially low reliability of an object (belt and suspenders)
12. **Equipotentiality** If an object or system requires or is exposed to tension or compression forces are eliminated or are balanced by the surrounding environment
13. **“The other way around”** Use an opposite action(s) used to solve the problem; make moveable objects fixed, and the fixed objects movable; Turn the object, system or process upside-down
14. **SpheroidalityCurvature** Turn straight edges or flat surfaces into curves; Use rollers, balls, spirals, domes; Switch between linear and rotary motion; Introduce or make use of centrifugal forces
15. **Dynamics** Allow a system or object to change to achieve optimal operation under different conditions; Split an object or system into parts capable of moving relative to each other; If an object or system is rigid or inflexible, make it movable or adaptable; Increase the amount of free motion
16. **Partial or Excessive Actions** If exactly the right amount of an action is hard to achieve, use slightly less or slightly more of the action to reduce or eliminate the problem.

17. **Another Dimension** If an object contains or moves in a straight line, consider use of dimensions or movement outside the line; consider use of dimensions or movement outside the current plane; Use a stacking arrangement of objects instead of a single level arrangement; Re-orient the object or system, lay it on its side; Use another side of a given object or system
18. **Mechanical Vibration** Cause an object to oscillate or vibrate; Increase the vibration frequency (ultrasonic); Make use of an object or systems resonant frequency; Use piezoelectric vibrators; Use combined field oscillations
19. **Periodic Action** Replace continuous actions with periodic or pulsating actions; If an action is already periodic, change the periodic magnitude or frequency to suit external requirements; Use gaps between actions to perform different useful actions
20. **Continuity of Useful Action** Make all parts of an object or system work at full load or optimum efficiency all the time; Eliminate all idle or non-productive actions or work;
21. **Skipping** Conduct an action at a very high speed to eliminate harmful side effects
22. **“Blessing in Disguise”** Transform harmful objects or actions (particularly, the environment or surroundings) so that they deliver a positive effect; Add a 2nd harmful object or action to neutralized or eliminate the effect of an existing harmful object or action; Increase a harmful factor to such a level that it no longer causes harm
23. **Feedback** Introduce feedback to improve a process or action; Make current feedback adaptable to variations in operating requirements or conditions
24. **“Intermediary”** Introduce an intermediary between two objects, systems or actions; Introduce a temporary intermediary which disappears or can be easily removed after it has completed its function
25. **Self-Service** Enable an object or system to perform functions by itself or organize itself; Make use of waste resources energy or substances
26. **Copying** Use simple and inexpensive copies in place of expensive, possibly vulnerable objects or systems; Replace an object or action with an optical copy; Use infrared or ultraviolet wavelengths with optical copies
27. **Cheap Short-living Objects** Replace an expensive object or system with a multitude of inexpensive, short-life objects
28. **Mechanics Substitution / Another Sense** Replace an existing means with a means of making use of another sense (optical, acoustic, taste, touch or smell); Introduce electric, magnetic or electromagnetic fields to interact with an object or system; Change from static to movable, fixed to variable, and/or from unstructured to structured fields; Use fields in conjunction with field-activated objects or systems
29. **Pneumatics and Hydraulics** Use gases and liquids instead of solid parts or systems
30. **Flexible Shells and Thin Films** Incorporate flexible shells and thin films instead of solid structures; Isolate an object or system from a potentially harmful environment using flexible shells and thin films
31. **Porous Materials** Make an object porous or add porous elements; Add something useful into the pores
32. **Color Changes** Change the color of an object or its surroundings; Change the transparency of an object or its surroundings; In order to change the visibility of things, use colored additives or luminescent elements; Change the emissivity properties of an object subject to radiant heating
33. **Homogeneity** Make interaction objects from the same material (or material with similar properties)

34. **Discarding and Recovering** Make elements of an object or system that have fulfilled their functions disappear (dissolving, etc.) or appear to disappear; Restore consumable or degradable parts of an object or system during operation
35. **Parameter Changes** Change an objects physical state; Change concentration or consistency; Change the degree of flexibility; Change the temperature; Change the pressure; Change other parameters
36. **Phase Transitions** Make use of phenomena taking place during phase transitions (volume changes, heat loss, etc.)
37. **Thermal Expansion** Use thermal expansion or contraction of materials to achieve a useful result; Use multiple materials with different thermal expansion rates to achieve different useful effects
38. **Strong Oxidants** Replace atmospheric air with oxygen-enriched air; Use pure oxygen; Use ionizing radiation; Use ionized oxygen; Use ozone
39. **Inert Atmosphere** Replace a normal environment with an inert one; Add neutral parts, or inert elements to an object or system
40. **Composite Material** Change from uniform to composite (multiple) materials where each material is optimized to a particular functional requirement

B TRIZ Contradiction Table

[illegible]

HANDS•ON SYSTEMATIC INNOVATION

C 9-Windows Example

	Past <i>Before 'writing' begins</i>	Present <i>Person writing</i>	Future <i>After writing has finished</i>
Super System	pen display in shop, user preparing to write	user, paper desk, chair, light, environment	storage location, wear effects of environment
System <i>the pen</i>	assemble pack/deliver, store, prepare	pen being used to write	storing effect refilling wear factors, disposal
Subsystem	manufacture of individual components	component parts, ink flowing through nib	re-usability, recycleability of component parts