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# 1 Comparing the strategies and outputs of designers 2 using Algorithm of Inventive Problem Solving, 3 Axiomatic Design, or Environment-Based Design

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9 **Abstract** This paper presents the results of a study designed to compare the processes followed by practitioners of  
10 three design methods: the algorithm of inventive problem solving, axiomatic design, and environment-based design.  
11 Prior literature has postulated the complementary nature of these design methods, and in some cases, has provided  
12 case studies of their mutual application on a design problem. However, prior studies have not focused on the de-  
13 tailed activities used in each method to examine the similarities and differences in the outputs of the activities. In  
14 this study, a series of three one-day and three three-day design exercises were conducted simultaneously by three  
15 international research groups, each focusing on one method. The objectives of this study were to examine the early  
16 stages of the design process that dealing with macro activities: problem analysis, problem synthesis, and design  
17 evaluation and decision making. Several micro design activities were conducted within these, depending on the  
18 design method: clarification of requirements, gathering information on existing technologies, initial conceptualiza-  
19 tion of an assembly of technologies, the identification of system contradictions/coupling, and the solution of contra-  
20 dictions. The objectives of this comparative study were to establish, from observations of practitioners—rather than  
21 from a theoretical point of view—the differences and complementarities between the design methods. The problems  
22 presented to designers covered a range of design tasks that spanned multiple disciplines, multiple levels of open-  
23 endedness/specificity of the task, and various levels of inventiveness required. The comparison showed the comple-  
24 mentary nature of the design methods, highlighted their respective strengths, and suggested the outlines of an inte-  
25 grated method based on the main benefit of each.

26 **Keywords:** *Algorithm of Inventive Problem Solving (ARIZ), Theory of Inventive Problem Solving (TRIZ), Axiomatic*  
27 *Design (AD), Environment-Based Design (EBD).*

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## 28 1 Introduction

29 Prior research has proposed a wide variety of design theories and methods, and there are many schools  
30 and traditions of design research: Altshuller's theory of inventive problem solving (TRIZ) (Altshuller,  
31 1984), domain theory (Andreasen, 1991), environment-based design (Zeng, 2004; Zeng, 2011; Zeng &  
32 Cheng, 1991; Zeng & Gu, 1999a, 1999b, 2001; Zeng & Jing, 1996), function-behavior-structure modeling  
33 (Gero, 1990; Gero & Fujii, 2000), function-behavior-state modeling (Umeda *et al.*, 1996; Umeda *et al.*,  
34 1990; Umeda & Tomiyama, 1997), the theory of technical systems (Hubka & Eder, 1988; Hubka & Eder,  
35 1992), axiomatic design (Suh, 1990), functional basis of design (Hirtz *et al.*, 2002; Stone & Wood, 2000),  
36 decision-based design (Hazelrigg, 1996, 1999; Lewis *et al.*, 2006), and many others. These theories and  
37 methods can be compared and contrasted with one another and possibly integrated together (Sheu, 2010;  
38 Tate & Nordlund, 1995).

39 The goal of design research is "the study of how designers work and think, the establishment of ap-  
40 propriate structures for the design process, the development and application of new design methods, tech-  
41 niques and procedures, and reflection on the nature and extent of design knowledge and its application to  
42 design problems" (Cross, 1984) quoted in (Cross, 1993). To fully cover the field of design, the knowledge  
43 areas that must be included in a *paradigm* for design research are the design process, the design object  
44 (the product of the design process), designers, specific field knowledge (e.g., of technologies and envi-  
45 ronments.), and resources (e.g., time and money) (Tate & Nordlund, 2001).

46 According to Blessing and Chakabarti, design research should integrate the "two main strands of re-  
47 search: the development of *understanding* and the development of *support*." Pursuit of the practical aims  
48 of design has resulted in "an exceedingly large number of different means of support" including "strate-  
49 gies, methodologies, procedures, methods, techniques, software tools, guidelines, information sources,  
50 etc." Moreover, research that has focused on understanding design has happened "rather independently"  
51 of research focused on improving design through development of these means of support: Increased un-  
52 derstanding of design has rarely been used in informing the development of support. This has given rise  
53 to three issues: lack of overview of existing research, lack of use of results in practice, and lack of scien-  
54 tific rigor (Blessing & Chakrabarti, 2009). In particular, some methods have been proposed as *general* or  
55 *universal* methods for the whole process of design (Lindemann & Birkhofer, 1998). Theoretically they fit  
56 the whole design and development process, but how can they be applied practically? Have the methods  
57 developed homogenously for each step of the design process?

58 A rigorous assessment of different design methods needs to be made for each of the different activities  
59 of the design process in order to be able to compare their benefits (Tate & Krishnamoorthy, 2010). As  
60 Frey and Dym have said, "If the engineering profession does choose to extend an objective concept of  
61 validation to design methods and tools, it will need a supporting set of practices and standards for the  
62 provision of evidence." (Frey & Dym, 2006) This paper will focus on the application of three design  
63 methods during the initial stages of the design process.

64 This paper examines the early stages of the design process and covers multiple activities at two levels  
65 of granularity (Blessing, 1994; Evbuomwan *et al.*, 1996; Sim & Duffy, 2003). "A stage has been defined  
66 as a sub-division of the design process that relates to the state of the product under development. An ac-  
67 tivity has been defined as a sub-division of the design process related to the individual problem solving  
68 process." (Blessing, 1994). Design activities in this paper at the *macro* level are problem analysis, prob-  
69 lem synthesis, and design evaluation and decision making. The design activities at the *micro* level include  
70 clarification of requirements, gathering information on existing technologies, initial conceptualization of  
71 an assembly of technologies, the identification of system contradictions/coupling, and the solution of  
72 contradictions. The details at the micro level depend on the particular method used.

73 This paper presents the results of an exploratory study designed to compare the processes followed by  
74 practitioners and the main outputs of three current design methods<sup>1</sup>: the algorithm of inventive problem  
75 solving (ARIZ)—a part of the theory of inventive problem solving, axiomatic design (AD), and environ-  
76 ment-based design (EBD). Prior literature has hypothesized in various ways (based on theoretical consid-  
77 erations or individual case studies) that ARIZ, AD, and EBD have different main outputs and that these  
78 outputs could be complementary rather than contradictory. (See for example (Dufloy & Dewulf, 2011;  
79 Kremer *et al.*, 2012; Mann, 1999; Nordlund, 1994; Nordlund, 1996; Ogot, 2011; Shirwaiker & Okudan,  
80 2008; Tate & Nordlund, 1995).

81 A series of six design exercises were conducted by graduate students through the cooperation of three  
82 international research groups. The exercises were designed to focus on the processes followed by each  
83 designer and how the design method each designer used influenced the processes and their outputs. The  
84 goal was to examine the early stages of the design process dealing with design activities including clarify-  
85 ing requirements, gathering information on existing technologies, initial conceptualization into an assem-  
86 bly of technologies, the identification of system contradictions/coupling, and the solution of contradic-  
87 tions. The problems presented a range of design tasks that spanned multiple disciplines, levels of open-  
88 endedness/specificity of the task, and required inventiveness.

89 In this paper, the three design methods—ARIZ, axiomatic design, and environment-based design—are  
90 briefly introduced in section 2. Section 3 presents an overview of the study, selection of design problems,  
91 designers' backgrounds, and procedure for administering the exercises. The analysis of collected data  
92 from the exercises is given in section 4 with discussion. Section 5 presents conclusions and sketches a  
93 proposal for an integrated method based on the elicited complementary aspects of the three used methods.

## 94 2 Brief introduction to the three design methods

### 95 2.1 Algorithm of Inventive Problems Solving (ARIZ 85A and 85C)

96 ARIZ is the Russian acronym for algorithm of inventive problem solving, which is a family of meth-  
97 ods belonging to the corpus (Altshuller & Vertkin, 1988; Litvin *et al.*) that comprises the theory of in-  
98 ventive problem solving developed by Altshuller between 1956 and 1985 (Altshuller, 1984). TRIZ meth-  
99 ods follow from grounding hypotheses and evidence about technical system evolution: any system  
100 evolves according to its environment and general features (laws); system evolutions can be described in  
101 terms of overcoming contradictions. Three types of contradictions are termed *administrative*, *technical*,  
102 and *physical contradictions* respectively, and generic frames to overcome technical and physical contra-  
103 dictions are provided (such as ideality tactics and separation principles (Fey & Rivin, 2005)). A problem  
104 that requires overcoming a technical or physical contradiction is called an *inventive problem*. Thus, the  
105 methods of TRIZ allow designers to perform the conceptual design stage of the design process by stating  
106 the design problem as an inventive problem.

107 ARIZ comprises a set of methods, techniques, and knowledge bases of TRIZ; however, there are mul-  
108 tiple versions, each of which can be very different (Altshuller, 1986). Thus, in order to distinguish the  
109 versions, the year of the version is given followed by a letter that indicates multiple versions within a  
110 year. In this study, depending on the design problem, either ARIZ 85A and/or 85C (Altshuller, 1985,

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<sup>1</sup> Strictly speaking, it might be preferable to continually distinguish between methods (such as ARIZ, use of design matrices, and EBD) from theories (such as TRIZ, axiomatic design, and the axiomatic theory of design modeling) but for brevity, we will just use the term “design methods” for the three approaches considered here. “Methodology” is considered to concern the study of methods. See (Tate, 1999; Tate & Nordlund, 2001) for the distinction between theories and methods in design research.

111 1989) was used as the methodological framework for addressing the design problems at the conceptual  
112 stage.

113 ARIZ 85A was used to deal with analysis of the initial situation, to transition from a spread (between  
114 actors) and partial understanding of the problem to a shared and global vision to what has to be achieved.  
115 The main steps consist of determining the final goals of a solution, investigating “bypass” approaches,  
116 choosing which problem formulation to solve, determining required quantitative characteristics, increas-  
117 ing the required quantitative characteristics, defining the requirements of the specific conditions in which  
118 the invention will function, examining direct application of the inventive standards, using patents to de-  
119 fine the problem more precisely, and using size-time-cost operators (Altshuller, 1985).

120 The ARIZ 85C sequence was used as a framework due to time restrictions and the specific conditions  
121 of the present study, and not all of the steps between part 1 and part 4 were performed. For instance in  
122 some cases, the possible use of inventive standards at each problem reformulation was skipped in order to  
123 go directly to a better (deeper) description of the problem thus allowing the emergence of a more in-  
124 ventive (less standard) solution concept. The reader can refer to (Altshuller, 1984; Becattini *et al.*, 2012;  
125 Cascini, 2009; Cascini & Russo, 2007; Cascini *et al.*, 2007; Cascini & Zini, 2008; Fey & Rivin, 2005; Li  
126 *et al.*, 2012; Zanni-Merk *et al.*, 2011) for complementary information about concepts and tools used in  
127 these methods. A paper in this issue presents a survey of TRIZ postulates, models and tools that can be  
128 used for anticipatory design of future technical systems (Cascini, 2012).

## 129 2.2 Axiomatic Design

130 *Design* is the process of developing or selecting the means to fulfill certain needs subject to con-  
131 straints. “Design may be characterized “as the epitome of the goal of engineering [that] facilitates the  
132 creation of new products, processes, software, systems, and organizations through which engineering  
133 contributes to society by satisfying its needs and aspirations” (Suh, 1990). Axiomatic design is a design  
134 theory developed by Suh that is intended to provide a basis for making good decisions in design. “In order  
135 to obtain better performance, both engineering and management structures require fundamental, correct  
136 principles and [methods] to guide decision making in design; otherwise, the ad hoc nature of design can-  
137 not be improved” (Suh, 1990). The main concepts of axiomatic design are 1) the existence of design do-  
138 mains through which designers map during design processes, and 2) using a zigzagging approach to de-  
139 velop 3) design hierarchies in the functional, physical, (and process) domains. As the design process un-  
140 folds, designers map between what they want to do and how they propose to do it, while operating in the  
141 presence of constraints (Cs). The choice of good design solutions is governed by two design axioms: 4)  
142 the independence axiom requires independence between functional requirements (FRs) be maintained in  
143 selecting design parameters (DPs), and 5) the information axiom selects design parameters based on max-  
144 imizing the probability of success of achieving the functional requirements (equivalent to minimizing the  
145 information content). Notable extensions to the theory, though not considered in this study, include strat-  
146 egies for managing large-scale, time-varying functions (Suh, 1995) through reducing complexity using  
147 functional periodicity (Suh, 2005). The reader is referred to the paper in this issue for recent applications  
148 of axiomatic design to large, complex systems (Suh, 2012).

149 The AD methods used in the study consisted of the basic concepts of axiomatic design: mapping; hier-  
150 archies; zigzagging; and independence in problem formulation, concept generation, and analysis for the  
151 six design scenarios.

## 152 2.3 Environment-Based Design

153 Intuitively, design is a human activity that aims to change an existing environment to a desired one  
154 through introducing a new artifact into the existing environment. In this process, design requirements and

155 design solutions evolve simultaneously (Zeng & Cheng, 1991; Zeng & Jing, 1996). The Environment-  
 156 Based Design methodology, which was logically derived to address the recursive nature of design (Zeng  
 157 & Cheng, 1991; Zeng & Jing, 1996) following the axiomatic theory of design modeling (Zeng, 2002),  
 158 provides step-by-step procedures to guide a designer throughout this process of environment change. The  
 159 underlying principles behind EBD are that design comes from the environment, serves for the environ-  
 160 ment, and goes back to the environment.

161 Environment-Based Design includes three main steps: environment analysis, conflict identification,  
 162 and solution generation. Designers perform these three steps progressively and simultaneously to generate  
 163 and refine the design specifications and design solutions. Semantic analysis algorithms and tools are ap-  
 164 plied throughout the entire EBD process (Wang & Zeng, 2009; Zeng, 2008). Another paper in this issue  
 165 uses EBD to derive a theoretic model of design creativity, which is used to interpret design phenomena  
 166 related to use of sketching (Nguyen & Zeng, 2012).

167 In the study reported in this paper, however, the designer focused mainly on the environment analysis  
 168 part due to the limited training in the method.

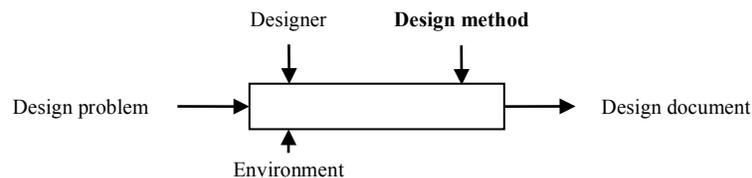
### 169 3 Experimental procedure

#### 170 3.1 Scope of design study and variables considered

171 The objective of this study is to identify the impact of the three design methods on design activities  
 172 conducted. The critical variables in this study are the design problems, designers, design methods, and  
 173 design documents. The operating variables can be classified as *method variables* that depend on the spec-  
 174 ific idea generation method; *design problem variables* that depend on the nature of the design problem to  
 175 be solved; *human factors*, including the various characteristics of designers that also influence the idea  
 176 generation process; and *environment variables* that define the situation or design environment in which  
 177 the group is working (Shah et al., 2000).

178 In this exploratory study, not all the influencing variables were considered. The independent variables  
 179 considered were the method variables influencing the three groups of the study and the design problems  
 180 to be solved. The dependent variables in this case were the outputs of the macro design activities: design  
 181 problem formulation, design synthesis, and design evaluation and decision making.

182 The study thus only focused on the method variables, i.e. on the way each set of practitioners tackled,  
 183 solved, and evaluated the different design problems according to one specific method. The design docu-  
 184 ments generated by a designer are dependent on the interactions between the designer, design method,  
 185 and design problem as shown in Figure 1, yet the design documents recorded the final design solutions  
 186 and the outputs of the intermediate activities that led to the final solutions. Design method (bold) vari-  
 187 ables were controlled, and human factors/designer and environment variables were not controlled in the  
 188 study.



189

190

Fig. 1 Critical factors in the study.

191 Empirical studies have shown that the process followed and the quality of design solutions contained  
 192 in a design document strongly depends on the designer's experience, knowledge, and skills (Cross, 2006).  
 193 It would be difficult to allocate the weight of the design method and the background of the designer in  
 194 assessing the quality of final design solutions. If this were the goal of the study, a large pool of designers

would have to be carefully recruited to solve a large number of different design problems to objectively assess how a design method impacts the quality of design solutions. In order to analyze at a macro point of view which steps of the standard design process are realized and how the methods influence the practitioner throughout the design process, the analysis of the detailed cognitive processes (micro steps) inherent to the different methods is not necessary.

It must be noted that a factorial analysis was not followed in choosing the number of subjects and design problems, nor was any control group added to the design processes. Hence, the study reported in this paper cannot be called an *experiment* in a strict sense. It is rather property a type of case study (Yin, 1994); however, to be consistent with current terminology in the design research community, the term *experiment* or *study* is used to describe the work. This issue will be discussed in a future paper.

### 3.2 Creation of design problems

Three research groups with expertise in the algorithm of inventive problem solving, axiomatic design, and environment-based design, respectively, worked together to conduct the study. Two types of design problems were used. The first type consisted of a one-sentence design problem, such as “design a file naming standard for university students,” for which the output was required to be provided by the designer within one day. The second type of design problem provided more information to the designer and required the designer to complete it within three days. The Appendix provides examples of this type of problem. The six problems covered building engineering, industrial engineering, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, bio-medical engineering, and information management. In total, three one-day design problems and three three-day design problems were proposed, one of each type by each research group.

**Table 1 Summary of all six design problems**

Problem#	Time limit	Summary of design problem description
1	1 day	Design a data file naming standard for university students.
2	1 day	Design a brace to prevent back injury for workers who lift heavy objects.
3	1 day	Design spray nozzle for a perfume bottle.
4	3 days	Design a system for video recording surgical procedures.
5	3 days	Design an intelligent robot that can interact with people vocally with emotions.
6	3 days	Design a ventilation system for a thin flooring system.

One designer from each group was invited to solve all six design problems. The invited designer was not aware of the hypotheses of the research. A CV was produced by each designer following a standard template that covered the designer’s knowledge, skills, and design-related experience.

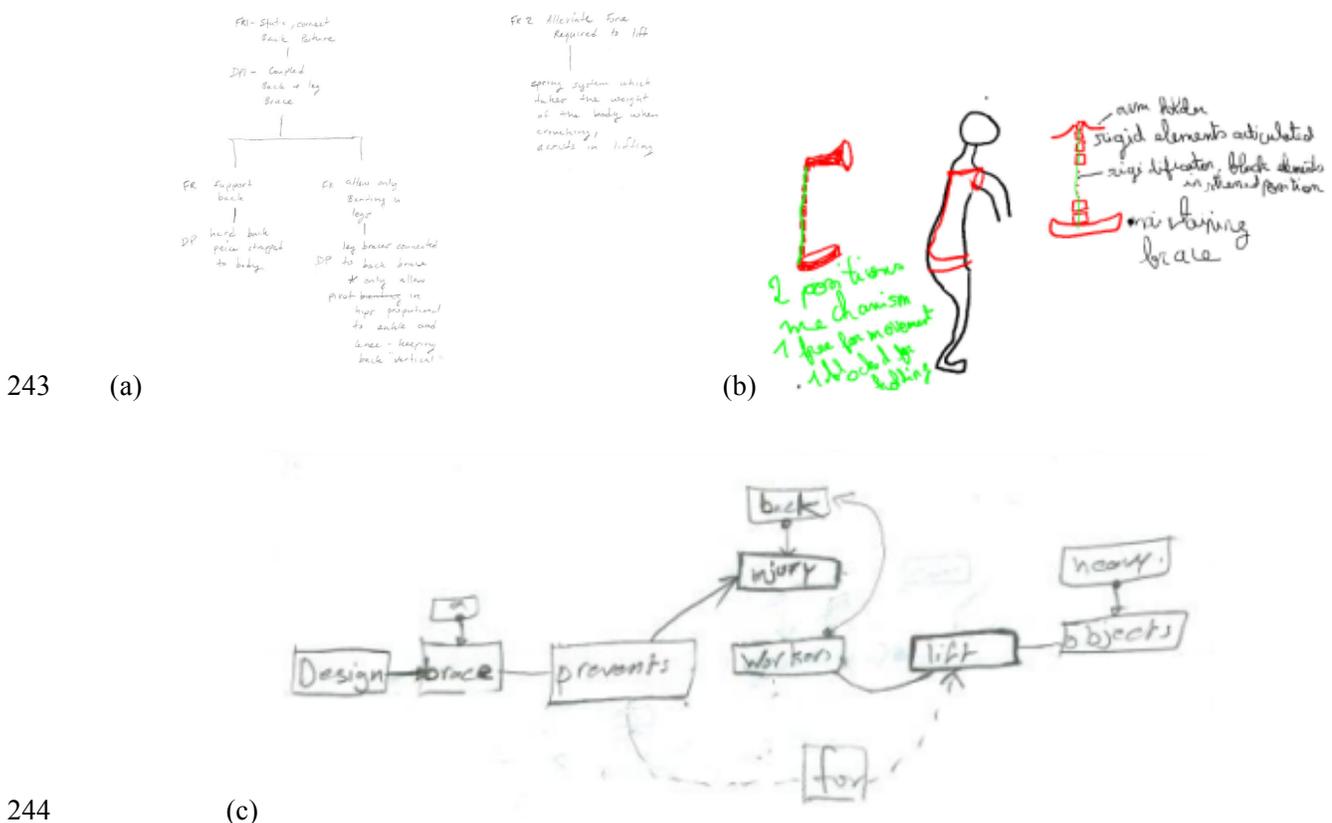
The entire study lasted approximately three weeks. In a typical scenario, on Monday of each week, each designer was given a one-sentence design problem. Following a break on Tuesday, the designer was given on Wednesday a 3-day problem to complete. The designer would work on his/her design while keeping a log book to record his/her actions during the design process. Before starting each design, the designer was asked to record the procedures that he/she was planning to follow; subsequently the designer would summarize the design results using a design document template that included the final design requirements, design solutions, and description of how the solutions satisfy the requirements. The designers were free to seek help and search for information from outside resources as long as the actions were documented.

230 Once the entire study was completed, the three groups exchanged the exercise materials/data that had  
 231 been generated. Discussions were made to finalize the research hypotheses for further data processing and  
 232 analysis.

233 **4 Results and Discussion**

234 **4.1 Data collection**

235 In the study, the ARIZ group assigned three designers to solve the six problems respectively due to  
 236 other professional obligations during the three weeks dedicated to the study. Two of them were experi-  
 237 enced in TRIZ. The third one was a TRIZ beginner. The AD group did not use a detailed log book to rec-  
 238 ord the intermediate design processes. However, the analysis given later in this paper was able to show  
 239 the main outputs of the AD methods. Figure 2 shows some examples of the collected exercise data from  
 240 the three research groups for the 1-day back brace design problem. Each group generated data following  
 241 their design method. The data was then analyzed in three ways: descriptive analysis of the results, com-  
 242 parative analysis, and sequence analysis.



244 (c)  
 245 **Fig. 2 Examples of experimental data for the back-brace design problem: (a) AD (b) ARIZ (c) EBD**

246 **4.2 Data processing and analysis: comparison of the three design methods**

247 In this section, several widely accepted assumptions about design will serve as a basis for data pro-  
 248 cessing and analysis. The authors make several observations relevant to the improvement of design meth-

249 odology or for design theory building. While suggestive, the data set produced during this study is insuf-  
250 ficient to validate these assumptions.

251 Nevertheless, the study does provide observations sufficient for proposing an integrated method that  
252 incorporates the main benefits of each design methods that were observed. To validate this proposal a  
253 new set of experiments would need to be designed. For this new set of experiments, the integrated method  
254 used would be the same for the three different groups, so the influencing variables could be taken into  
255 account and the biases evaluated.

#### 256 **4.2.1 Design activities supported by the methods**

257 The effectiveness of a design method depends, among other factors, on the existence of step-by-step  
258 guidelines for each type of design activity within the scope of the method. Following a common under-  
259 standing of design activities in the design research community, the analysis and discussion of the results  
260 are divided into the macro activities of problem analysis, design synthesis, and design evaluation and  
261 decision making. (In other literature, these activities are referred to as a cycle of analysis–synthesis–  
262 evaluation (Evbuomwan, *et al.*, 1996).) The analysis of the three methods is shown in Table 2.

263 Limitations and Bias: It was not possible to assess the effectiveness at a very fine granularity of each  
264 part/tool/sub-method for supporting each design activity in the three methods. Due to differences in the  
265 skills and knowledge background of designers, the limited time of the exercises resulted in some of the  
266 parts/tools/sub-methods not being performed.

267 Nevertheless, for each method, the various steps/guidelines/concepts were applied at the level of the  
268 major design activities, as shown in Table 2.

269 As presented in table 2, three main steps could be recognized and are present in each design method:

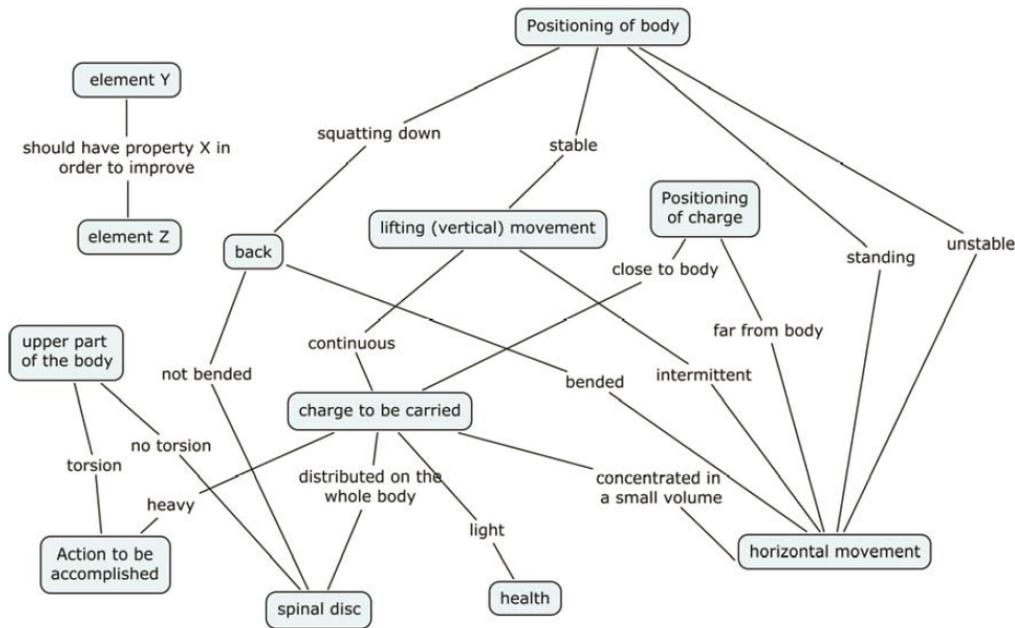
- 270 • In the problem analysis activity, designers start with a first perception of the situation (possi-  
271 bly starting with the “voice of the customer” (Clausing, 1994) and produce a clearly stated  
272 conflict for which resolution is a priority or a clear list of requirements that have not been sat-  
273 isfied by prior solutions.
  - 274 • Design synthesis starts with a clearly formulated problem and produces a proposal for an  
275 overall solution concept. The synthesis activity has been described as “a mapping of depend-  
276 encies between function, behaviour and form” that includes “putting together of parts or ele-  
277 ments to produce new effects and to demonstrate that these effects create an overall or-  
278 der...that satisfies design requirements...in a given environment.” (Sim & Duffy, 2003)
  - 279 • Design evaluation activities “seek to analyse and evaluate the feasibility of potential design  
280 solutions and, by discarding infeasible solutions, reduce the design solution space” (Sim &  
281 Duffy, 2003) through decision making.
- 282

**Table 2 Comparison of the three design methods in terms of design activities**

AD	EBD	ARIZ
<b>Problem analysis: A1-understand the current situation; A2-identify and elicit requirements; A3-identify conflicts.</b>		
A1	Ask repeated "why" questions to elicit solution-neutral needs. Collect customer needs and prioritize. Identify must-be, attractive, and one-dimensional CNs. [Ultimately go back to check whether the design solution satisfies the CNs.]	Elicit administrative contradiction
A2	Separate CNs into functional requirements, constraints, and design parameters. Identify system-level constraints and top-level FRs. Define tolerances on FRs and limits on Cs. Use "solution-neutral language" for FRs. Check whether the set of FRs is "collectively exhaustive and mutually exclusive."	Clarification of requirements, constraints Quantitative definition of a ratio to be improved
A3	Apply design matrix to check for coupling. [Note that DPs have to be synthesized first.] During decomposition check/verify that subsequent levels do not introduce new coupling.	Reformulation of technical contradiction at different system levels
<b>Design synthesis: A4-decompose problem; A5-generate design solutions; A6-assemble solutions.</b>		
A4	Based on higher-level DPs, decompose FRs into sub-FRs. [Note that DPs have to be synthesized first.] Decompose Cs in parallel.	Identify operational zone, operational time and resources present in problem situation
A5	Identify design parameters that satisfy the FRs at current level of the design hierarchy. DPs could comprise an existing solution to be analyzed or could result from the generation of a new solution.	Reformulate contradiction according to various resources in order to state the ideal final result to be achieved; apply inventive standards to generate evolutions of current situation
A6	Integrate DPs. [Note that DPs could be physically integrated into the same part(s) as long as they remain individual elements (e.g., dimensions and material properties) for satisfying each FR.]	Use mini-men modeling to decompose the tasks in the problem zone; Assemble gathered partial solution features to obtain a physical embodiment of mini-men problem solving strategies
<b>Design evaluation and decision making: A7-evaluate solutions</b>		
A7	1) Apply independence axiom at each level of the design hierarchy as DPs are chosen during the decomposition process. 2) Check that lower-level decisions do not introduce unanticipated coupling at previous, higher levels. 3) Check the solution against the constraints. 4) Apply independence axiom, if data exists.	Evaluate if the physical contradiction has been solved ideally and if a controlling resource is present in the system



303 The designer using ARIZ, started with an initial situation analysis to reduce the number of health  
 304 problems for lifting heavy objects, increase the ease to perform the action (including notions related to  
 305 comfort, and specific working environment), and reduce the time to perform the action. ARIZ parts 1 to  
 306 3.5 were performed, and a concept proposed, shown in Figure 2(b). Figure 4 shows the interacting ele-  
 307 ments and properties for the back-brace design problem. The problem formulation progressed from rejec-  
 308 ting a “bypass approach” that would eliminate the need for carrying heavy objects, based on the problem  
 309 statement, to choosing to solve the mini-problem: “a single person should carry the heavy object without  
 310 any device for helping the action.” In ARIZ parts 1 and 2, several candidate contradictions were pro-  
 311 posed, the operational zone and time were defined, and substance-field resources were identified. ARIZ  
 312 part 3 was used to define the ideal final result (IFR) and physical contradiction. The final step performed  
 313 was 3.5 in which the ideal final result was given as “The back should become rigid, and straighten up at  
 314 the moment the user and the heavy object [become] connected in order to give the back an appropriate  
 315 position and impose appropriate movement to it.” From this IFR the designer was able to propose a con-  
 316 cept.



317  
 318 **Fig. 4 Diagram produced using ARIZ showing elements and properties for the back-brace design problem,**

319 The designer following AD defined a set of two top-level functional requirements and design parame-  
 320 ters, which were then decomposed into two more sub-FRs. These are shown in a hierarchy in figure 2(a).  
 321 The relationships between the FRs and DPs were analyzed using a design matrix (and found to be decou-  
 322 pled), and the physical solution was given with a sketch. Table 4 lists the FRs and constraint that define  
 323 the problem as well as the DPs chosen to satisfy the FRs.

324

**Table 3 FRs and DPs for the back-brace design problem**

	<b>Functional Requirements</b>	<b>Design Parameters</b>
<b>1</b>	Maintain correct lifting posture	[Physically] coupled back and leg brace system
<b>1.1</b>	Support Back	Hard back support strapped/attached to torso preventing any harmful back movement (bend/twist/compression/elongation of spine)
<b>1.2</b>	Keep back in correct position relative to legs	Leg braces connected from back brace to hip rotational point, to knee rotational point, to ankle rotational point, where the pivoting at the hips is only allowed proportional to the pivoting of the knees and ankle as a function height, keeping the back vertical.
<b>2</b>	Reduce required lifting force	A spring or resistance system connecting the back/hips to the feet which is at the point of very small or zero deflection when the user of the brace system is standing up straight and which absorbs and stores the weight of the user when crouching down to pick up an object, assisting the user with that stored force when lifting the object.
<b>Constraint:</b> Prevent cumulative trauma to the spine and related structures		

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326 Considering the problem analysis activity as generally performed by the designers following each de-  
327 sign method during the study, the following observations can be made.

328 Analysis of the design materials produced in this study shows that EBD disclosed typical functional  
329 requirements that enabled the design to be accepted by consumers and that prevented large difficulties  
330 during other phases of the product life cycle. What was likely in the current environment to be perceived  
331 as a critical problem, if not solved, was collected in a systematic manner by completing the ROM dia-  
332 gram. In this approach, the set of requirements was detailed until the designer could identify who was  
333 able to design or manufacture each element of the system by use of the existing knowledge from the field  
334 (for most parts of the problems in the study). This was only an intention because several conflicts that the  
335 manufacturer may not be able to solve with his/her knowledge still remained at the end of the allotted  
336 time, probably due to the lack of domain knowledge on the designer's part.

337 The requirements disclosed during the ARIZ implementation concerned problems to be solved in the  
338 future by the next generation of product, which has to satisfy the specific objectives of the designer,  
339 which could be in contradiction with the TRIZ laws of evolution. This led to particular attention towards  
340 current unsatisfactory (but often latent) relationships with the environment. In the design materials, the  
341 requirements concerned both the problems of current devices and the problems that designers tried to  
342 solve with current devices but were not solved perfectly. That is why new concepts of solutions needed to  
343 be built. However, there is no guideline in classical ARIZ to collect those requirements in a systematic  
344 manner. A single application of ARIZ was often not enough to detail fully the solution, and new prob-  
345 lems would require additional applications of ARIZ to find a final detailed concept.

346 AD purposely identified few requirements and constraints—the approach is synthetic in nature. Func-  
347 tional requirements in axiomatic design are defined as the minimum set of independent requirements that  
348 completely characterize the design objectives (Suh, 1990). Only the main objectives and main constraints  
349 on the whole system, which are the reasons for existence of the system, were considered at each level.  
350 The decomposition ended when the elementary components to be manufactured independently were dis-  
351 closed. The functional requirements were selected according to current customer needs.

### 352 **Discussion of usefulness of each method**

353 Limitations and Bias: The design context was not given in the problem statements. The authors have  
354 made the assumption that, in absence of context (e.g., the specific environments for developing or using  
355 the designs, because the designers are not in a real problematic situation), the designers created a context  
356 that is typical for the application of each method. Due to the allocated time, all possible requirements that

357 may have resulted from analysis were not elicited. New problems arising from the final concepts generat-  
358 ed were not formalized nor solved by any of the three methods, but this may also be due to the time re-  
359 striction.

360 The observations concerning the types of requirements disclosed are consistent with reported use of  
361 the methods in case studies of real world applications. AD is effective for the design of large projects,  
362 when the design teams have to be organized hierarchically and the design requirements are clearly identi-  
363 fied. It eases the decision making at each level of the hierarchy. EBD is effective for open-ended prob-  
364 lems that need continual reformulation along with solution generation. It gives a direction for searching  
365 for the required knowledge and solutions; however, it does not provide means generating inventive solu-  
366 tions. Hypothetically, both AD and EBD are domain-independent and can be applied to different areas  
367 such as product design, software engineering, quality management systems, algorithm design, and so on.  
368 ARIZ can be used for problem solving in existing systems or redesign of systems to generate new (but not  
369 detailed) conceptual solutions. If detailed solutions are required, then ARIZ can also be used again to  
370 solve problems for the sub-parts. ARIZ addresses initial situations that can be stated with one or a few  
371 conflicting pairs of opposing technical contradictions. This comparison stresses the following contradic-  
372 tion in design: in order to adapt the designed object to any kind of environment and context, a design  
373 method must be generic and be able to formulate any kind of requirements; however, in order to enhance  
374 the quality of the design solution concepts for a particular context, a design method must be specific.

375 The observations showed that the EBD method was the most exhaustive for the analysis of the consid-  
376 ered system and was the most helpful for the clarification of the problems related to the satisfaction of  
377 requirements. ARIZ-85C was not designed for problem clarification, and it generally starts with a previ-  
378 ously defined contradiction. Thus, the TRIZ experts, during the exercises stated a first contradiction with  
379 the help of ARIZ-85A, but the questions of the method, even if they were exhaustive were also too gener-  
380 ic to well guide designers in the identification of prior problem to be solved. AD, then, was defined to  
381 help to formalize functional requirements, but in practice, the observations in the solved design materials  
382 showed that in the set of requirements, information about the context are missing; it remained implicit for  
383 the designer.

#### 384 4.2.3 The role and importance of conflicts in design methods—define the concept

##### 385 Description of outputs for each design method

386 *Contradictions* are a bridging element between design analysis and design synthesis because they ap-  
387 pear in the various forms (administrative, technical, and physical) when the design synthesis knowledge is  
388 not available in the designer's mind. In AD coupling is identified based on strong interactions between  
389 two or more design parameters and two or more functional requirements. Coupling is evaluated using a  
390 design matrix: A design matrix that, at least, cannot be reordered as a triangular matrix is coupled and  
391 thus does not satisfy the Independence Axiom.

392 Table 4 shows the results of the data analysis for the three methods as shown in the design materials.  
393 In the AD exercises, it appeared that designer sought to avoid conflicts by formulating requirements—if  
394 allowed by design problem statement—in such a manner that no conflict appears. This is consistent with  
395 Suh's philosophy in defining the First Axiom (Independence Axiom): *Maintain* the independence of func-  
396 tional requirements, but it shows a clear difference in starting point in the design activities. Conflicts  
397 eventually appeared at the end of the process when the designer was dealing with details and the selection  
398 of requirements at the higher levels could not be modified. In EBD, conflicts in the form of administrative  
399 contradictions appeared from the beginning; then, technical contradictions or even physical contradiction  
400 appear later in the process. In the design materials produced during the study, optimizations were often  
401 proposed, but, because no quantitative evaluations were performed, the designers could not attest that  
402 requirements would be so satisfied. In the ARIZ exercises, a conflict is the starting point of the process,  
403 and technical contradictions were searched for in the first stages of the method. A conflict is then contin-  
404 uously reformulated through various structures until a solution become straightforward at the end of the  
405 process.

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**Table 4 Conflict generation, management and resolution in the exercise data**

	Selection of additional conflicting requirements?			Type of conflicts elicited in the first design stage?			Type of conflicts elicited in the last design stages?			Optimization or generation of any solution?		
	AD	EBD	ARIZ	AD	EBD	ARIZ	AD	EBD	ARIZ	AD	EBD	ARIZ
Camera	No (1)	Yes	-	No	AC	-	No	AC TC	-	No	Yes	-
Nozzle	No	No (2)	Yes	No	AC	TC	No	AC	PC (3)	No	No	Yes (4)
Ventilation	No (1)	No (1)	(2)	No	AC	TC	(1)	(1)	PC (3)	Yes	Yes	No
Robot	No	No (2)	Yes (5)	No	AC	No (5)	No	PC TC	TC (5)	No	No	No
File	No	Yes	Yes	No	AC	TC	No	AC	(2)	No	No	(2)
Brace	No	Yes	Yes	No	AC	TC	No	TC	PC (3)	Yes	Yes	No

(1) - the sole requirements that generate conflict or conflict themselves were given in design problem

(2) - the designer did not manage to go to that point

(3) - the conflict is a reformulation of starting conflict

(4) - because several conflicts mentioned at the beginning are not selected for solving process so not solved

(5) - for this exercise, the process started with knowledge acquisition not supported by methodology and then a technical contradiction not related to the first part of design has been chosen

AC: administrative contradiction; TC: technical contradiction; PC: physical contradiction.

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### Discussion of usefulness of each method

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Limitations and Bias: Conflict evaluation was difficult because the designers had no time to search for new conflicts generated by their proposed solutions. The AD design exercises may have faced conflicting requirement and solved some of them, but it seems that this process depended on the designer's capacities as there were not reported elements about this process in the documents. The EBD designer did not appear to have mastery of the skills in reformulating conflicts although this step should have been performed according to the EBD method. Finally, it was difficult to know whether certain requirements generate conflict(s) or not because the designer did not know whether the requirements could be achieved with standard knowledge from the field.

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According to the design materials produced during the exercises, it appeared that for easing decision making or rapidly finding solutions using an assemblage of existing elements of a body of technology, avoiding conflict (if possible) was an appropriate strategy. Existing knowledge was applied, and the risk of failure of project appeared reduced to decision makers. But, in order to search for new concepts, technologies, or paradigms at a given system level, overcoming conflicts appeared to be mandatory.

Thus, in EBD and AD the generation of new concepts seems to be dependent of the designers' capacities (similar to traditional views of inspiration and conceptualization) because the process shifted immediately from problem identification to proposed solutions without any description of the steps used in generating an idea or where it come from (Johnson, 2010). In ARIZ, this idea generation is more detailed in the documents, but it was quite predictable, as TRIZ has specifically been initiated to provide methods for this step.

#### 429 4.2.4 The evaluation of concepts

430 As was previously described, one of the main biases concerning solution evaluation was that no real  
431 context was defined for each problem for the designers. So each designer built his/her own context, and  
432 thus it was not possible to compare the different proposed solutions for a given problem from the point of  
433 view of context. Thus it was not possible to evaluate the usefulness of the proposed concepts (Paulus &  
434 Nijstad, 2003).

#### 435 Discussion of usefulness of each method

436 What appears from observations of the design materials was that the way of evaluation for EBD and  
437 ARIZ was clearly linked to the way the problems were formulated. In EBD the evaluation was the point-  
438 ing out of how the proposed concept solutions satisfied the set of design requirements, and sometimes  
439 new conflicts linked with the new proposed solutions were also defined. But it also happened (due to lack  
440 of time, lack of knowledge, or lack of tools) that no concept solution was proposed out of the conflicts  
441 identified, and so the evaluation was not tackled at all. In ARIZ the evaluation was directly linked to the  
442 identified contradiction, but here also, due to lack of time, it was performed in many cases.

443 In AD, the step of evaluation was systematically performed by the definition of a design matrix in  
444 which the independence axiom was applied to the design parameters with regard to the different function-  
445 al requirements. So AD was the only approach that systematized and proposed a way to perform the eval-  
446 uation step.

#### 447 4.3 Discussion

448 According to the design research methodology (DRM) typology given by Blessing and Chakrabarti,  
449 this work may be classified as an example of “Descriptive Study II: Evaluating Design Support” (Bless-  
450 ing & Chakrabarti, 2009). The goals of this type of study are determining whether proposed design “sup-  
451 ports” have the intended effect on the tasks for which they are intended, identifying whether the supports  
452 contribute to success, identifying improvements for the support, and evaluating underlying assumptions  
453 behind use of the supports. The main difference between the current work and the DRM approach is that  
454 the three methods were compared against each other, rather than comparing one support against a baseline  
455 (control) design process identified through prescriptive design study.

456 The specific methodologies adopted for understanding the design process followed during the exercis-  
457 es as well as the methods for analyzing the documentation produced are typical. In some design research,  
458 the outputs of the design process are studied without considering the sequence of activities that have pro-  
459 duced them. In other cases, detailed descriptions of design processes are constructed based on recordings  
460 of design activities (Cross, 2006; Cross *et al.*, 1996). The present work is similar to other research in  
461 which activities and results are analyzed retrospectively based on contemporaneous documentation pro-  
462 duced by the designers--such as studying students' design notebooks (Walthall *et al.*, 2009; Yang, 2009).

#### 463 Summary of observed benefits for each design method

464 EBD was the most formalized method for the initial steps of the design process, where the problem  
465 analysis had to be performed and where it was necessary to have a clear description of the studied system  
466 and of the conflicts linked with the satisfaction of the objective of the study.

467 The ARIZ method had clear benefits in guiding the transformation from an identified conflict towards  
468 the generation of a concept that resolved the conflict. It stressed the concept of ideality where inventive  
469 solutions had to be found inside the operational zone, during the operational time and maximizing the use  
470 of already available resources.

471 Then, AD proposed a clearly formalized way to evaluate the proposed solution concept. By systema-  
472 tizing the notion of independence and by confronting design parameters and functional requirements, AD  
473 enabled the designer to validate the fit between the defined specs and a proposed solution concept.

#### 474 Comparison of observed benefits with previous studies

475 Three previous studies will be discussed here as representative of various papers that have proposed  
476 complementary aspects of AD and TRIZ (though none have combined them with EBD).

477 Previous authors have drawn an analogy between contradictions in TRIZ and coupling in AD (Mann,  
478 1999; Nordlund, 1996; Yang & Zhang, 2000a, 2000b, 2000c). While this seems like a plausible hypothe-  
479 sis, the data produced in the exercises showed either different contradictions/coupling identified between  
480 the TRIZ and AD groups, or none identified for one of the groups.

481 Prior authors have made contradictory statements about the connection between ideality in TRIZ and  
482 independence in AD. For example, the statement that as higher level systems incorporate more functions,  
483 then one-to-one mapping of FRs to DPs may not apply (Mann, 1999) versus correlating ideality tactics  
484 with Corollary 2 in AD (Yang & Zhang, 2000a, 2000b). The present study sheds no light on this disa-  
485 greement.

486 Yang and Zhang state that there is no analog to Corollary 4 in AD, use of standardization (Yang &  
487 Zhang, 2000a, 2000b). The data from the exercises showed that the AD group sought combinations of  
488 standard elements while the TRIZ group sought instead for inventive elements.

489 Prior authors have noted the relative importance of design hierarchies in AD in comparison with TRIZ  
490 (Mann, 1999; Yang & Zhang, 2000a, 2000b). In the exercised performed by the AD group, the process  
491 followed was in in a hierarchical top-down manner. For the TRIZ group, considerations of system level  
492 were seen in some exercises (e.g. for brace, ventilation and file naming system.), but not others.

493 Yang and Zhang state that AD lacks the “vast knowledge base” found in TRIZ to support the applica-  
494 tion of its theory (e.g., 40 Principles, 76 Standard Solutions, and Effects Database). This means that the  
495 “creative process of conceptualization...is not very clear” (Yang & Zhang, 2000a). In the ARIZ group,  
496 appropriate problem formulation led directly to creative concept synthesis without any use of TRIZ  
497 knowledge bases for the spray nozzle, brace, and ventilation system design problems. Likewise for the  
498 EBD group, the problem formulation led directly to concept synthesis. For the AD group, synthesis was  
499 performed, but it was not clear in some cases whether any conflicts were solved during the design pro-  
500 cess.

501 Mann states that AD does not help to identify all functional requirements of a design (Mann, 1999).  
502 The fuzzy nature of the design exercises used does not provide an objective basis for evaluating whether  
503 all functional requirements were identified by the designers; however, the requirements that were used by  
504 each group were quite different from each other.

505 Shirwaiker and Okudan provide a review of some case studies in which TRIZ or axiomatic design  
506 were used and propose an approach for “applying these two techniques concurrently” (Shirwaiker &  
507 Okudan, 2008). The approach uses AD for analysis and decomposition of a main problem into more basic  
508 problems, and it uses TRIZ to separate “coupled” FRs and generate innovative solutions. The proposed  
509 flowchart provides a series of decision points during the design process in which functional requirements  
510 and design parameters are defined per AD methods and coupling—either between FRs or within a design  
511 matrix—are resolved using TRIZ tools. In particular, the authors focus on use of the 40 Inventive Princi-  
512 ples and the 76 Standard Solutions for synthesizing solutions. The novelty of their approach is in incorpo-  
513 rating TRIZ into the “mapping and zigzagging process” of AD, rather than after identifying a coupled  
514 design matrix. The present study did not provide data to support Shirwaiker and Okudan’s proposed pro-  
515 cess because for the AD group FRs were not considered to be coupled, and for the TRIZ group, applica-  
516 tion of ARIZ was the focus and led to directly to concept synthesis, rather than application of TRIZ  
517 knowledge bases.

## 518 **5 Concluding Remarks**

519 This paper presented the results of an exploratory study that was designed to study the main outputs  
520 produced by designers practicing three design methods—the algorithm of inventive problem solving,  
521 axiomatic design, and environment-based design—during the early stages of the design process. Prior

522 literature has postulated the complementary nature of these design methods and sometimes presented case  
523 studies using more than one method.

524 However, prior studies have not focused on the detailed activities used in each method for the purpose  
525 of examining the similarities and differences in the outputs of the activities. The objectives of this com-  
526 parative study were to establish, from observations of practitioners—rather than from a theoretical point  
527 of view—the differences and complementarities between the design methods.

528 The problems to the designers presented a range of design tasks that spanned multiple disciplines, lev-  
529 els of open-endedness/specificity of the task, and required inventiveness. Three one-day and three three-  
530 day exercises were conducted in parallel by three research groups, each group using a different method.  
531 The disciplines represented by the design problems ranged from building engineering, industrial engineer-  
532 ing, mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, bio-medical engineering, to information management.  
533 The design documentation produced consisted of a priori strategies for conducting each design exercise  
534 identified by each designer, the conceptual design solution that resulted from the exercise, notes on the  
535 process followed, and justification that the solution satisfied the design objectives.

536 The results indicate that it is possible to observe differences in the outputs in accordance with the dif-  
537 ferent steps of the design process, for each method. Notable differences included how designers following  
538 the three methods dealt with the initial problem formulation, the timing of identification and refinement  
539 of contradictions/coupling, and the level of detail sought in conceptual solutions. The results are promis-  
540 ing in guiding and creating new ways to build design methods. Now further refinement and expansion of  
541 an integrated method will have to be performed and will lead to a new experiment having different de-  
542 signers but each of them using the same integrated method.

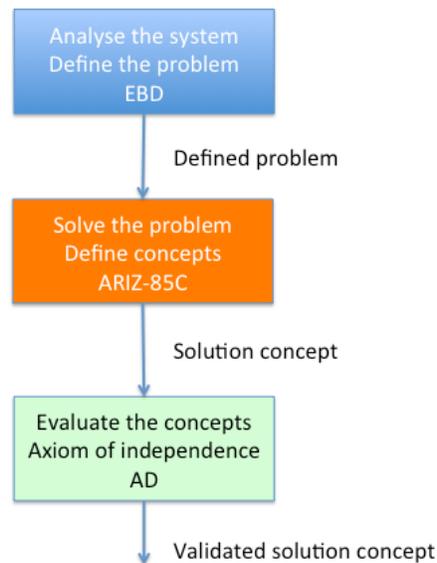
#### 543 **Future work**

544 Future work will be done to generate a larger pool of data and improve the statistical significance of  
545 the experimental work. Additional studies can also be carried out to investigate the importance of the  
546 other variables described in section 3.1 that were not considered here.

547 Additional work will include additional design experiments, the introduction of control groups—and  
548 baselines for novice designers—formalization of the integration of the three design methods, and addi-  
549 tional modeling of design activities to better capture, detail, and represent the iterative, yet progressive  
550 nature of design processes.

#### 551 **Proposed integrated method**

552 One direction for future work is the investigation of an integrated method as illustrated in figure 4,  
553 which shows how an optimized approach could be proposed to make cross-fertilization between the three  
554 studied design methods.



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**Fig. 5 Proposed integrated method.**

557 A new set of experiments based on the use of an integrated method could be defined to see if the effi-  
 558 ciency and/or effectiveness of the proposed method is increased in comparison to the separate design  
 559 methods or a baseline design process. Efficiency, if found, will be recognized by the fact that the different  
 560 design teams will perform all three steps quite homogeneously, which was clearly not the case here.

561 Several problems will have to be solved to make a proposed integrated method applicable, and mainly  
 562 the questions are linked with the integration: How can a contradiction be recognized out of the conflict  
 563 identification in the way it is performed by EBD? How can a design matrix be built out of a concept solu-  
 564 tion defined by the application of ARIZ resolution principles?

565 Finally, the three groups are currently heterogeneous as each group is specialized in one method, cor-  
 566 responding to one of the three steps of a proposed integrated method. Thus, it will be necessary to transfer  
 567 to each group the knowledge related to the two other steps, to build more homogeneous groups, or an  
 568 alternative approach could be to make mixed groups of designers with one specialist of each method in  
 569 each group.

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725

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752 **Prof. Roland de Guio** is professor at the National Institute of Applied Science (INSA) of Strasbourg,  
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758 **Mr. Aditya Gaikwad** is currently a graduate student in the Mechanical Engineering Department at  
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760 of Engineering, Aurangabad, India. For his Master's Thesis he is working on soil suction in compressed  
761 earth blocks. He has also previously worked on the conceptual design of a plunger pump by applying  
762 axiomatic design and evaluation of engineering properties of Greenstar Blox (papercrete).

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## 768 **Appendix: Three-day design problems**

### 769 **Three-day problem 1: Design a system for video recording surgical procedures**

770 You have been hired to improve a system for video recording surgical procedures. The desire is to  
771 capture the use of various surgical instruments during operations with an aim to identify shortcomings of  
772 current tools and to develop new surgical devices. The current video system uses a camera mounted to a  
773 moveable light fixture and records images to a networked computer, but the quality of the images is too  
774 low and may not capture the relevant area. The proposed system should be unobtrusive and be able to  
775 record the images with a minimum of user input during the operation; i.e., the doctors and nurses should  
776 not have to stop what they are doing to position the camera.

777

778 **Three-day problem 2: Design an intelligent robot which can interact with people vocally with**  
779 **emotions**

780 Current robots are not able to interact with people vocally with emotions properly, according to peo-  
781 ple's emotions. You are required to design an intelligent robot to do so.

782 The robot should be able to

- 783 - identify a person's emotion through his/her voice and face expression;
- 784 - response with emotion through speech (simple sentences) coordinately;
- 785 - sense the environment and track the right person who is being talked with;
- 786 - learn new knowledge from the interaction if there is.

787

788 **Three-day problem 3: Design a ventilation system for a thin flooring system**

789 In order to benefit from thermal inertia provided by the hollow-core slab (additional comfort and ener-  
790 gy savings) and to reduce the thickness of flooring systems (so as to reduce cost of the building), it is  
791 proposed to suppress the plenum.

792 Several unsatisfying solutions to deal with the ventilation system are proposed:

- 793 - circulation of air in the adjacent walls
- 794 - circulation of air in hollows of hollow-core slab

795 This is unsatisfying because a high air flow is required if we want the air to enter the room at a com-  
796 fortable temperature. Otherwise, uncomfortable temperature, too hot or too cold (depending on the need  
797 of heating or cooling) may enter the room in order to keep the homogenised temperature of the room at  
798 the required value.