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APPROXIMATE PREDICTION INTERVALS FOR A FUTURE OBSERVATION FROM THE INVERSE GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION\*

Ъy W. J./Padgett

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## ABSTRACT

The problem of predicting, on the basis of an observed sample from an inverse Gaussian distribution, the mean of a future random sample (or a single future observation) from the same distribution is considered. Approximate prediction intervals are proposed, and their accuracy is investigated via extensive Monte Carlo simulations. The results are useful for predicting the next first passage time for a Brownian motion with positive drift or the failure time of an item having inverse Gaussian life distribution.

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Key Words: Prediction; First passage time distribution; Life testing; Reliability; Monte Carlo simulations.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The inverse Gaussian distribution arises as the first passage time distribution of a Brownian motion process with drift (Cox and Miller, 1965). Tweedie (1957a, 1957b) discussed the statistical properties of this distribution and noted the similarities between the sampling distribution theory of the maximum likelihood estimators of the inverse Gaussian parameters and those of the mean and variance of the normal distribution. Recently, Chhikara and Folks (1977) proposed the inverse Gaussian distribution as a lifetime model in reliability studies which has several advantages over the lognormal model when there is a high occurrence of early failures. Further distribution theory for the inverse Gaussian was given by Chhikara and Folks (1974, 1975), and its use in tests for positive drift in Brownian motion was discussed by Seshadri and Shuster (1974) and Chhikara and Folks (1976), among others.

The form of the probability density function of the two-parameter inverse Gaussian distribution generally used is

$$f(x;\mu,\lambda) = [\lambda/(2\pi x^3)]^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp[-\lambda(x-\mu)^2/(2\pi\mu^2)], x>0, (\lambda,\mu>0). \quad (1.1)$$

Other parametric forms are summarized by Johnson and Kotz(1970). In (1.1),  $\mu$  is the mean and  $\lambda$  is a shape parameter. The variance is  $\mu^3/\lambda$ , so that  $\mu$  is not a location parameter in the usual sense.

For the inverse Gaussian lifetime model, Padgett (1979) obtained approximate confidence bounds for the reliability function, and Padgett and Wei (1979) added a threshold parameter or "guarantee time" and studied the estimation problem for the resulting three-parameter model.

In this paper a prediction interval is proposed for the mean of m independent future observations from (1.1),  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$ , on the basis of a past

random sample of size  $n, X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , from the same distribution. That is, it is desired to obtain functions of  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ ,  $L(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  and  $U(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ , so that for a specified value  $\gamma$ ,

$$\mathcal{P}[\mathcal{L}(X_1,\ldots,X_n) \leq \overline{Y}_n \leq \mathcal{V}(X_1,\ldots,X_n)] = 1-\gamma, \qquad (1.2)$$

where  $\bar{Y}_{m} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i}/m$ . If m=1, (1.2) provides a prediction interval for a single future observation Y. Note that the correct interpretation of the probability statement (1.2) is that if repeated past samples are taken and used to predict the mean of the future samples by the intervals from  $L(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n})$  to  $U(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n})$ , then  $\bar{Y}_{m}$  will be contained in the intervals for a proportion 1- $\gamma$  of such pairs of samples. The intervals defined by (1.2) will be useful in predicting the next first passage time of a Brownian motion with positive drift or the future failure time of an item having inverse Gaussian life distribution based on a past sample, for example.

Prediction intervals for the normal and exponential distributions have been studied extensively. For example, among others, Hewett (1968) and Lawless (1970, 1972) considered prediction intervals for the exponential distribution, and Chew (1968), Hahn (1969, 1970), Hall and Prairie (1973), and Mann and Fertig (1977) studied prediction intervals for normal distributions.

It is very difficult, if not impossible, to obtain exact prediction intervals of the form (1.2) for the inverse Gaussian distribution (1.1) when both parameters are unknown. In Section 2, approximate prediction intervals for  $\overline{Y}_m$  are proposed based on estimates of  $\mu$ . The performance of the intervals in terms of coverage probabilities is investigated via extensive Monte Carlo simulations, and the results are reported in Section 3. The proposed approximate prediction intervals seem to perform very well. An example is given in Section 4.

### 2. THE PROPOSED PREDICTION INTERVALS

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be a random sample of size n from the inverse Gaussian distribution (1.1) and let  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$  be a future random sample of size m from the same distribution, independent of the first sample. The maximum likelihood estimators of  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$  are given by  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i / n$  and  $\hat{\lambda}^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n (1/X_i - 1/\bar{X}_n)/n$ , respectively (Tweedie, 1957a, 1957b). Also, Tweedie (1957a) showed that  $\bar{X}_n$  and  $\hat{\lambda}$  are stochastically independent,  $\bar{X}_n$  has inverse Gaussian distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $n\lambda$ , and  $n\lambda/\hat{\lambda}$  has chi-square distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom. Also,  $\bar{Y}_m$  has inverse Gaussian distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $m\lambda$ , and by a result of Shuster (1968),  $m\lambda(\bar{Y}_m-\mu)^2/\mu^2\bar{Y}_m$  has chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom and is independent of  $n\lambda/\hat{\lambda}$ . Thus, the random variable  $(n-1)m\hat{\lambda}(\bar{Y}_m-\mu)^2/(n\mu^2\bar{Y}_m)$  has F distribution with (1,n-1) degrees of freedom.

Let  $F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)$  denote the value such that an F random variable with (1,n-1) degrees of freedom satisfies  $P[F \leq F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)] = 1-\gamma$ . Then from above

$$P\left[\frac{\left(\bar{Y}_{m}-\mu\right)^{2}}{\mu^{2}\bar{Y}_{m}} \leq \frac{\hbar F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)}{n(n-1)\hat{\lambda}}\right] = 1-\gamma.$$
(2.1)

If the parameter  $\mu$  is known, then (2.1) can be solved for an exact  $(1-\gamma)$ prediction interval for  $\overline{\overline{Y}}_{m}$ . However, if  $\mu$  is unknown, then an exact prediction interval cannot be obtained from (2.1). An approximate 1- $\gamma$  prediction interval may be obtained as follows. Since we have the random sample  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  at hand, suppose that  $\mu^2$  in the denominator in (2.1) is approximated by  $\overline{X}_n^2$ , so that

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\frac{\left(\bar{Y}-\mu\right)^{2}}{\bar{Y}_{B}} \leq \frac{n\bar{X}_{n}^{2} \mathbb{F}_{\gamma}(1,n-1)}{\mathbb{E}(n-1)\hat{\lambda}} \right] \approx 1-\gamma.$$
(2.2)

Also, since  $\mu$  can be estimated by the future sample mean, the unknown value

of  $\mu$  in (2.2) can be approximated by  $\frac{n\tilde{X} + m\tilde{Y}}{n+m}$ . Then

$$\frac{\left(\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{m}}-\boldsymbol{\mu}\right)^{2}}{\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathbf{m}}} \approx \left(\frac{\mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{n}+\mathbf{m}}\right)^{2} \left(\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{m}}+\frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}}^{2}}{\bar{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathbf{m}}}-2\bar{\mathbf{X}}\right).$$

Hence, (2.2) becomes

$$\mathbb{P}[\bar{Y}_{m} + \frac{\bar{X}_{n}^{2}}{\bar{Y}_{m}} \leq \frac{(n+m)^{2}\bar{X}_{n}^{2}}{nm(n-1)\hat{\lambda}} + 2\bar{X}_{n}] \approx 1-\gamma.$$
(2.3)

The inequality in (2.3) can be solved for  $\overline{\overline{Y}}$  by finding the roots of the quadratic equation

$$\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{m}}^2 - \mathbf{c}(\underline{\mathbf{X}})\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{m}} + \bar{\mathbf{X}}^2 = \mathbf{0}.$$
(2.4)

where  $c(\underline{X}) = \frac{(n+m)^2 \overline{\chi}_n^2 F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)}{nm(n-1)\hat{\lambda}} + 2\overline{\chi}_n$ . It is easy to show that both roots of (2.4) are always real and positive and that the quantity  $\overline{\overline{Y}}_m + \frac{\overline{\chi}_n^2}{\overline{\gamma}}$ 

satisfies the inequality in (2.3) when  $\bar{Y}_m$  is between these two roots. Denote the smaller root of (2.4) by  $L_1(\underline{X})$  and the larger root by  $U_1(\underline{X})$  where  $\underline{X} = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ . Then the interval  $(L_1(\underline{X}), U_1(\underline{X}))$  provides an approximate (1- $\gamma$ ) prediction interval for  $\bar{Y}_m$ . The closeness of the approximation will be investigated in Section 3 by Monte Carlo simulations. For large n, since  $\bar{X}_n$  is very near  $\mu$  with probability one by the strong law of large numbers, the prediction probability will be close to the nominal value (1- $\gamma$ ).

A second approximate prediction interval for  $\bar{Y}_m$  may be obtained by using the first few terms of the Taylor series expansion of  $g(\mu) = (\bar{Y}_m - \mu)^2 / (\mu^2 \bar{Y}_m)$ about  $\bar{X}_n$ . In the Monte Carlo study reported in Section 3, the approximation

using only one or two terms in the series was not very good. However, the approximation using three terms performs fairly well when the variance  $\mu^3/\lambda$  of the inverse Gaussian distribution is small and n is relatively large. The three terms are

$$\frac{(\bar{Y}_{m}-\mu)^{2}}{\mu^{2}\bar{Y}_{m}} \approx \frac{(\bar{Y}_{m}-\bar{X}_{n})^{2}}{\bar{X}_{n}^{2}\bar{Y}_{m}} + 2(\frac{1}{\bar{X}_{n}^{2}} - \frac{\bar{Y}_{m}}{\bar{X}_{n}^{3}})(\mu-\bar{X}_{n}) + (\frac{3\bar{Y}_{m}}{\bar{X}_{n}^{4}} - \frac{2}{\bar{X}_{n}^{3}})(\mu-\bar{X}_{n})^{2}$$
$$= \bar{X}_{n}^{-2} \left[(6-8\mu/\bar{X}_{n} + 3\mu^{2}/\bar{X}_{n}^{2})\bar{Y}_{m} + \bar{X}_{n}^{2}/\bar{Y}_{m}\right] - 6\bar{X}_{n} + 6\mu - 2\mu^{2}/\bar{X}_{n}^{3}\right]. \qquad (2.5)$$

From (2.1) and (2.5),

$$P[(6-8\mu/\bar{x}_{n} + 3\mu^{2}/\bar{x}_{n}^{2})\bar{y}_{m} + \bar{x}_{n}^{2}/\bar{y}_{m}]$$

$$\leq \frac{nF_{\gamma}(1,n-1)\bar{x}_{n}^{2}}{m(n-1)\bar{\lambda}} + 6\bar{x}_{n} - 6\mu + 2\mu^{2}/\bar{x}_{n}]$$

$$\approx 1-\chi$$
(2.6)

The probability (2.6) still depends upon  $\mu$ , and as before, an approximation must be used. A lower confidence bound on  $\mu$  was stated in Padgett (1979). Using  $\bar{X}_n$  for  $\mu$  on the left side of the inequality in (2.6) and the lower confidence bound  $[1/\bar{X}_n + (F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)/((n-1)\bar{X}_n\hat{\lambda}))]^{-1}$  on the right-hand side gives a rough approximation

$$\mathbb{P}[\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{B}} + \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}}_{\mathbf{n}}^{2}}{\bar{\mathbf{Y}}_{\mathbf{m}}} \le c_{2}(\underline{\mathbf{X}})] \approx 1-\gamma, \qquad (2.7)$$

where

$$c_{2}(\underline{X}) = \frac{nF_{\gamma}(1,n-1)\overline{X}_{n}^{2}}{m(n-1)\widehat{\lambda}} + 2\overline{X}Q(\underline{X}),$$

with

$$Q(\underline{X}) = 3[\overline{X}_{n}F_{\gamma}(1,n-1)]^{\frac{1}{2}}/[((n-1)\hat{\lambda})^{\frac{1}{2}} + (\overline{X}_{n}F_{\gamma}(1,n-1))^{\frac{1}{2}}] + (n-1)\hat{\lambda}/[((n-1)\hat{\lambda})^{\frac{1}{2}} + (\overline{X}_{n}F_{\gamma}(1,n-1))^{\frac{1}{2}}]^{2}.$$

As before, (2.7) has a unique solution of the form  $P[L_{2}(\underline{X}) \leq \overline{Y}_{m} \leq U_{2}(\underline{X})] \approx 1-\gamma, \text{ where } L_{2}(\underline{X}) \text{ and } U_{2}(\underline{X}) \text{ are the real positive roots}$ of the equation  $\overline{Y}_{m}^{2} - c_{2}(X)\overline{Y}_{m} + \overline{X}_{n}^{2} = 0.$ 

Other approximations for prediction intervals for  $\overline{Y}_m$  are possible, but the two given here seem to behave better than any of the many others tried in the Monte Carlo study. The Monte Carlo simulation study is described and some of the results are reported in the next section.

## 3. MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS

Before describing the Monte Carlo simulation results, a brief description of the procedure for generating a random number from the inverse Gaussian distribution is given. Let X denote a random variable with inverse Gaussian distribution (1.1). Then as before  $Y = \lambda (X-\mu)^2/(X\mu^2)$  has chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom. Hence, a value y of Y is generated, and the solution for x in terms of y from above is

$$x = [\mu(2\lambda + y\mu) + \mu(y\mu(y\mu + 4\lambda))^{\frac{1}{2}}]/2\lambda.$$
 (3.1)

It is obvious that both solutions given by (3.1) are positive and that the plus sign gives  $x>\mu$  and the minus sign gives  $x<\mu$ , with  $x=\mu$  only if y=0.

Therefore, a value u of a uniform random variable U on (0,1) is generated. Let  $x_1$  denote the solution from (3.1) given by

$$x_1 = [\mu(2\lambda + y\mu) + \mu(y\mu(y\mu + 4\lambda))^2]/2\lambda$$

and let

$$\mathbf{x}_{2} = \left[ \boldsymbol{\mu}(2\lambda + \boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{\mu}) - \boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{\mu}(\boldsymbol{y}\boldsymbol{\mu} + 4\lambda))^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]/2\lambda,$$

Let  $p(y) = \frac{\mu}{x_1 + \mu}$ . Then choose the value of the inverse Gaussian random variable X to be  $x_1$  if  $u \le p(y)$  and  $x_2$  otherwise, since the pdf of X is given by the mixture  $f_1(x)p(y) + f_2(x)[1-p(y)]$  for a given y, where  $f_1(x_1)$  denotes the pdf of  $X_1$  and  $f_2(x_2)$  is the pdf of  $X_2$ . Repeating this procedure for n independent values of Y and U yields a (pseudo) random sample of size n from (1.1).

In order to investigate the behavior of the approximate prediction intervals proposed in Section 2, extensive Monte Carlo simulations were performed. For various fixed values of  $\gamma$ , n, m,  $\mu$ , and  $\lambda$ , estimates of the coverage probabilities and mean widths of the prediction intervals for  $\tilde{Y}_m$ discussed in Section 2 were computed based on 1000 pairs of samples  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ and  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$ . The results were essentially the same when 2000 pairs of samples were used, so most of the simulations were performed with 1000 samples in order to reduce computing time. For each fixed set of values  $\gamma$ , n, m,  $\lambda$ , and  $\mu$ , 1000 pairs of samples  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  and  $y_1, \ldots, y_m$  were generated from the inverse Gaussian distribution (1.1). For each such pair, the approximate  $(1-\gamma)$  prediction interval, say  $L_1(\underline{x})$  to  $U_1(\underline{x})$ , was computed and checked to see whether or not  $\overline{y}_m$  was contained in the computed interval. The width of the interval was also computed and stored. Then the proportion of the 1000

such pairs of samples which gave prediction intervals containing the corresponding  $\overline{y}_{m}$  was used as the estimate of the actual coverage probability. Also the average interval width was computed for the 1000 pairs of samples.

Tables 1-3 give some of the Monte Carlo results for  $1-\gamma = 0.99$ , 0.95, and 0.90 and various sample sizes n and m and values of  $\mu$  and  $\lambda$ . The symbol  $I_1$  refers to the prediction interval  $(L_1(\underline{X}), U_1(\underline{X}))$  in Section 2 and  $I_2$ refers to  $(L_2(\underline{X}), U_2(\underline{X}))$ . Based on the simulation results,  $I_1$  has a better overall performance as an approximate  $(1-\gamma)$  prediction interval for  $\overline{Y}_m$  than any other approximation which was tried. The prediction interval  $I_2$  is somewhat conservative when the variance of the underlying inverse Gaussian distribution,  $\sigma^2 = \mu^3/\lambda$ , is small and does not give a good approximation when the variance is large and n is small, for example  $\mu=3$ ,  $\lambda=\lambda$ , and n=5. As expected, the approximation becomes closer and the average interval width decreases as n increases. Also, as the variance  $\sigma^2 = \mu^3/\lambda$  decreases, the prediction improves and the prediction intervals tend to be conservative. Both  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  perform better for m=1 than for other values of m.

# 4. EXAMPLE

Chhikara and Folks (1977) showed that the maintenance data reported by Von Alven (1964) on active repair times (hours) for an airborne communications transceiver fit an inverse Gaussian distribution. The n=46 observed repair times were:

.2,.3,.5,.5,.5,.5,.6,.6,.7,.7,.7,.8,.8,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.1, 1.3,1.5,1.5,1.5,1.5,2.0,2.0,2.2,2.5,2.7,3.0,3.0,3.3,3.3,

4.0,4.0,4.5,4.7,5.0,5.4,5.4,7.0,7.5,8.8,9.0,10.3,22.0,24.5.

The respective maximum likelihood estimates of  $\mu$  and  $\lambda^{-1}$  were  $\overline{X}_{46}$  = 3.61 and

				I	•	1	<b>^</b>
μ	λ	n	<b>m</b>	Ave.Width	<sup>1</sup> Co v. Prob.	Ave.Width	Cov.Prob.
		5	1	208.308	0.983	148.0918	0.980
1	0.25	5	5	118,512	0.995	33.834	0.967
		5	10	135.319	0.990	19.600	0.940
1	0.25	30	1	38.365	0.989	37.566	0.989
T	0.25	30	15	6.640	0.996	5.313	0.995
		5	1	3430.014	0.977	2393.380	0.967
3	0.25	5	5	1629.692	0.967	420.363	0.920
		5	10	2285.851	0.962	268.782	0.891
2	0.25	30	1	368,060	0.990	351.081	0.990
د	0.25	30	15	61.311	0.981	36.551	0.968
		15	1	12.354	0.993	12.304	0.994
1	1	15	10	4.114	0.994	3.641	0.994
		15	20	3.976	0.999	3.063	1.000
-		5	1	9.157	0.988	8.266	0.995
T	4	5	5	5.886	0.997	3.993	1.000
•	,	15	1	4.084	0.994	4.520	0.998
1	4	15	10	1.671	0.998	2.114	1.000
		30	1	3.531	0.991	3.933	0.996
T	4	30	15	1.120	0.998	1.690	1.000
	-	15	1	332.821	0.990	303.860	0.988
5	1	15	20	94.316	0.992	34.503	0.970
_		5	1	220.023	0.989	166.451	0.987
5	4	5	5	138.620	0.996	52.584	0.990
-		30	1	62.778	0.992	64.342	0.994
5	4	30	15	14.571	0.994	15.493	1.000

Table 1. Simulation Results for  $1-\gamma = 0.99$ 

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μ	λ	n	<u>ta</u>	Ave.Width	Cov.Prob.	Ave.Width	Cov.Prob.
1	0.25	5 5	1 5	73.393 39.481	0.942 0.952	53.844 13.439	0.933 0.921
1	0.25	30 30	1 15	21.850 4.421	0.962 0.974	21.815 4.053	0.963 0.976
3	0.25	5 5	1 5	1441.764 503.665	0.948 0.925	1012.451 137.920	0.935 0.858
3	0.25	30	1	226.021	0.957	217.445	0.956
1	1	15 15	1 10	7.161 2.653	0.956 0.983	7.466 2.787	0.966 0.989
1	1	50 50	1 40	5.964 1.194	0.960 0.990	6.359 1.724	0.966 1.000
1	4	5 5	1 5	4.420 2.888	0.959 0.974	4.564 2.704	0.981 0.997
1	4	30 30	1 15	2.387 0.810	0.944 0.983	2.757 1.388	0.964 1.000
5	1	15 15	1 10	198.000 48.958	0.973 0.965	184.395 31.178	0.966 0.953
5	1	30 30	1 15	138.490 24.509	0.948 0.969	136.992 21.461	0.950 0.967
5	4	5 5	1 5	100.5 <b>99</b> 56.788	0.956 0.973	81.492 28.971	0.959 0.974
5	4	30 30	1 15	37.529 9.941	0.942 0.980	39.581 12.077	0.955 0.997

Table 2. Simulation Results for  $1-\gamma = 0.95$ 

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μ	λ	n	<b>m</b>	Ave.Width	<sup>1</sup> Cov.Prob.	Ave.Width	<sup>2</sup> Cov.Prob.
		5	1	46,122	0.897	34.753	0 888
1	0.25	5	5	26.807	0.931	10.095	0.894
		5	10	30.468	0.921	7.079	0.868
		5	1	739.880	0,895	523,699	0.875
3	0.25	5	5	353.523	0.880	99.665	0.815
		5	10	494.554	0.885	67.965	0.789
•		15	1	2,027	0.893	2.461	0.949
T	4	15	10	0.948	0.966	1.518	0.999
		15	1	31.853	0,887	33, 583	0.905
2	4	15	10	12.130	0.950	13.221	0.975

Table 3. Simulation Results for  $1-\gamma = 0.90$ 

 $\hat{\lambda}^{-1} = 0.587$  (or  $\hat{\lambda} = 1.70$ ). For this data and m=1, a 95% prediction interval for the next repair time is obtained from  $(L_1(\underline{X}), U_1(\underline{X}))$  in Section 2 as (0.3185, 40.8393). Similarly,  $(L_2(\underline{X}), U_2(\underline{X}))$  yields a 95% prediction interval of (0.3074, 42.3139), slightly wider than  $(L_1(\underline{X}), U_1(\underline{X}))$ . For m=10, a 95% prediction interval for the mean of the next ten repair times is found from  $(L_1(\underline{X}), U_1(\underline{X}))$  to be (1.2009, 10.8311) and  $(L_2(\underline{X}), U_2(\underline{X}))$  yields (1.0575,12.2997).

## 5. CONCLUSION

Prediction intervals for the mean  $\bar{Y}_{m}$  of m future observations (or a single future observation) based on a current independent random sample of size n from the same inverse Gaussian distribution (1.1) have been investigated. When the mean  $\mu$  of the inverse Gaussian distribution is known, exact  $(1-\gamma)$  prediction intervals are easily obtained. If  $\mu$  is unknown, some approximate  $(1-\gamma)$  prediction intervals for  $\bar{Y}_{m}$  have been proposed. Based on the results of Monte Carlo simulations, the approximate prediction interval  $I_{1}$  given by  $(L_{1}(\underline{X}), U_{1}(\underline{X}))$  in Section 2 is relatively simple to compute and performs best overall of those considered in the study.

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