## THE DELTA-METHOD, MULTINOMIAL DISTRIBUTIONS, AND AN EXAMPLE: STANDARD ERROR OF LOG ODDS RATIOS

The delta-method gives a way that asymptotic normality can be preserved under nonlinear, but differentiable, transformations. The method is well known; one version of it is given in J. Rice, Mathematical Statistics and Data Analysis, 3d. ed., 2007, §4.6, including second derivatives. Here, first a simple form of it using only a first derivative, for functions of one variable, will be given. A multidimensional version is used in Section 3.7 of Mathematical Statistics, 18.466 course notes by R. Dudley, on the MIT OCW website. For multinomial distributions, applications will be given to chi-squared statistics and odds ratios.

Notations with $O$ and $o$ : if $g>0$ then $f=o(g)$ means that $f / g \rightarrow 0$ either as $x \rightarrow+\infty$, $x \rightarrow 0$, or whatever condition is specified, while $f=O(g)$ means that $f / g$ stays bounded, namely $\limsup |f| / g<+\infty$ under a given limit condition. The same notations also apply to sequences indexed by an integer $n \rightarrow \infty$, e.g. $a_{n}=o\left(b_{n}\right)$ is used for $b_{n}>0$ and means $a_{n} / b_{n} \rightarrow 0$.

There are corresponding notions "in probability:" if $U_{n}$ is a sequence of random variables and $a_{n}$ a sequence of constants $>0$ then $U_{n}=O_{p}\left(a_{n}\right)$ means that for every $\varepsilon>0$ there is an $M$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|U_{n}\right| / a_{n}>M\right)<\varepsilon$ for all $n$. $U_{n} \rightarrow 0$ in probability means that for every $\varepsilon>0, \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|U_{n}\right|>\varepsilon\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. $U_{n}=o_{p}\left(a_{n}\right)$ means that $U_{n} / a_{n} \rightarrow 0$ in probability.

Theorem. Let $Y_{n}$ be a sequence of real-valued random variables such that for some $\mu$ and $\sigma, \sqrt{n}\left(Y_{n}-\mu\right)$ converges in distribution as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to $N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$. Let $f$ be a function from $\mathbb{R}$ into $\mathbb{R}$ having a derivative $f^{\prime}(\mu)$ at $\mu$. Then $\sqrt{n}\left[f\left(Y_{n}\right)-f(\mu)\right]$ converges in distribution as $n \rightarrow \infty$ to $N\left(0, f^{\prime}(\mu)^{2} \sigma^{2}\right)$.

Remarks. In statistics, where $\mu$ is an unknown parameter, one will want $f$ to be differentiable at all possible $\mu$ (and preferably, for $f^{\prime}$ to be continuous, although that is not needed in the proof). An example of $Y_{n}$ satisfying the conditions is: let $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}, \ldots$ be i.i.d. random variables with finite mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2}$, and let $Y_{n}$ be the sample mean $Y_{n}=\left(X_{1}+\cdots+X_{n}\right) / n$.
Proof. We have $Y_{n}-\mu=O_{p}(1 / \sqrt{n})$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Also, $f(y)=f(\mu)+f^{\prime}(\mu)(y-\mu)+o(|y-\mu|)$ as $y \rightarrow \mu$ by definition of derivative. Thus

$$
f\left(Y_{n}\right)=f(\mu)+f^{\prime}(\mu)\left(Y_{n}-\mu\right)+o_{p}\left(\left|Y_{n}-\mu\right|\right)
$$

so

$$
\sqrt{n}\left[f\left(Y_{n}\right)-f(\mu)\right]=f^{\prime}(\mu) \sqrt{n}\left(Y_{n}-\mu\right)+\sqrt{n} o_{p}(1 / \sqrt{n}) .
$$

The last term is $o_{p}(1)$, so the conclusion follows.
Multinomial distributions. First let $n=1$. For any set (event) $A$ let $1_{A}$ be its indicator function, so that $1_{A}(x)=1$ if $x$ is in $A$ and 0 otherwise. For a given probability $P$,
the covariance of two indicator functions is clearly given by $\operatorname{Cov}\left(1_{A}, 1_{B}\right)=P(A \cap B)-$ $P(A) P(B)$. In two special cases, for $A=B$ we get $\operatorname{var}\left(1_{A}\right)=P(A)-P(A)^{2}=P(A)[1-$ $P(A)$ ], the known variance of a Bernoulli variable. If $A$ and $B$ are disjoint, i.e. $A \cap B$ is empty, then $\operatorname{Cov}\left(1_{A}, 1_{B}\right)=-P(A) P(B)$.

Suppose on $n=1$ trial there are $k$ distinct possible outcomes $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}$ with probabilities $P\left(A_{i}\right)=p_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$. Define a $k$-dimensional random vector $X=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ such that $x_{j}=1$ if $A_{j}$ occurs and $x_{j}=0$ otherwise, in other words $x_{j}=1_{A_{j}}$. Now suppose $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ are $n$ i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed) $k$-dimensional random vectors each having the same distribution as $X$. Let $S_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}=\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}\right)$. Then, clearly, $n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}$ have a multinomial distribution for $n$ trials with probabilities ( $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}$ ).

When two independent real variables are added, their means and variances add. Similarly, when independent vector-valued variables $\left(U_{1}, \ldots, U_{k}\right)$ and ( $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{k}$ ) are added, their mean vectors are added and so are their covariance matrices, in other words for any $r, s=1, \ldots, k$,

$$
\operatorname{Cov}\left(U_{r}+V_{r}, U_{s}+V_{s}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(U_{r}, U_{s}\right)+\operatorname{Cov}\left(V_{r}, V_{s}\right)
$$

because the covariances of independent variables are 0 . So, if we add $n$ i.i.d. vector random variables, specifically the $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ mentioned previously, the mean vector and covariance matrix of their sum $S_{n}$ are just $n$ times the corresponding quantities for $X_{1}$.

Let's recall a few facts that were used in finding the asymptotic $\chi^{2}(k-1)$ distribution of the $X^{2}$ statistic of a simple multinomial hypothesis $H_{0}:\left(n, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right)$ when $H_{0}$ is true. The known mean vector of the random $\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}\right)$ is then $E\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k}\right)=n\left(p_{1}, \ldots, p_{k}\right)$ and the variance $\operatorname{var}\left(n_{j}\right)=n p_{j}\left(1-p_{j}\right)$ for $j=1, \ldots, k$, which we know since $n_{j}$ is binomial $\left(n, p_{j}\right)$. For $r \neq s$, we get the covariance $\operatorname{Cov}\left(n_{r}, n_{s}\right)=-n p_{r} p_{s}$.

Let $Y_{r}=\left(n_{r}-n p_{r}\right) / \sqrt{n p_{r}}$ for $r=1, \ldots, k$. Then each $Y_{r}$ has mean 0 and variance $1-p_{r}$. For $r \neq s, \operatorname{Cov}\left(Y_{r}, Y_{s}\right)=-\sqrt{p_{r} p_{s}}$. Thus the covariance matrix of $Y=\left(Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{k}\right)$ is given by $C_{r s}=\delta_{r s}-\sqrt{p_{r} p_{s}}$ where $\delta_{r s}=1$ for $r=s$ and 0 otherwise (Kronecker delta).
Confidence intervals for odds ratios. Here we have a multinomial distribution with $k=4$ categories, written in terms of a $2 \times 2$ table, with probabilities $\left(p_{00}, p_{01}, p_{10}, p_{11}\right)$ and observed numbers $\left(n_{00}, n_{01}, n_{10}, n_{11}\right)$. The odds ratio is defined as $\Delta=p_{00} p_{11} /\left(p_{01} p_{10}\right)$ and the usual estimate of it, which is the maximum likelihood estimate under the full multinomial model, is $\hat{\Delta}=n_{00} n_{11} /\left(n_{01} n_{10}\right)$. According to the independence or homogeneity hypothesis $H_{0}: p_{i j} \equiv p_{i \cdot p} \cdot$, we have $\Delta=1$. But supposing $H_{0}$ is rejected, then we'd like to get not only the estimate $\hat{\Delta}$ but a confidence interval for $\Delta$.

To reduce indices, let's replace indices 00 by 1,10 by 2,01 by 3 , and 11 by 4 , so that $\Delta$ becomes $p_{1} p_{4} /\left(p_{2} p_{3}\right)$ and $\hat{\Delta}=n_{1} n_{4} /\left(n_{2} n_{3}\right)$. Let $Z_{i}=\left(n_{i}-n p_{i}\right) / \sqrt{n}$ for $i=1, \ldots, 4$, or $Z_{i}=\sqrt{p_{i}} Y_{i}$ in terms of the $Y_{i}$ previously defined. We have $\operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{r}, Z_{s}\right)=p_{r} \delta_{r s}-p_{r} p_{s}$ for any $r, s=1, \ldots, 4$. As $n$ becomes large, $\left(Z_{1}, \ldots, Z_{4}\right)$ has approximately a normal distribution with mean 0 and the same covariance. We have $n_{i}=n p_{i}+\sqrt{n} Z_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, 4$. Then

$$
\frac{n_{i}}{n}=p_{i}\left(1+\frac{Z_{i}}{p_{i} \sqrt{n}}\right) .
$$

Taking logs of both sides, and using the fact that $\log (1+x) \sim x$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ (with an error of order $x^{2}$, by a Taylor series with remainder) we get that $\log \left(n_{i} / n\right)=\log \left(p_{i}\right)+Z_{i} /\left(p_{i} \sqrt{n}\right)+\varepsilon_{i}$ where each $\varepsilon_{i}=O_{p}(1 / n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

If in the definition of $\hat{\Delta}$ we replace each $n_{i}$ by $n_{i} / n$ then it is unchanged. It follows that

$$
\log (\hat{\Delta})=\log (\Delta)+\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\left(\frac{Z_{1}}{p_{1}}+\frac{Z_{4}}{p_{4}}-\frac{Z_{2}}{p_{2}}-\frac{Z_{3}}{p_{3}}\right)+\varepsilon
$$

with $\varepsilon=O_{p}(1 / n)$. Thus, $\log (\hat{\Delta})$ is asymptotically normal with mean $\log (\Delta)$. For its variance, we have a sum of four terms (plus a constant with 0 variance and terms of smaller order, by the delta-method theorem; note that the derivative of the log function at 1 is 1 , so the $f^{\prime}(\mu)^{2}$ factor equals 1 ). We need to add the variances of these four terms, which gives

$$
\sum_{r=1}^{4} \frac{1-p_{r}}{n p_{r}}=\frac{1}{n}\left(-4+\sum_{r=1}^{4} \frac{1}{p_{r}}\right)
$$

We also have to add covariance terms, each multiplied by 2. For each $r \neq s$ we have $\operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{r}, Z_{s}\right)=-p_{r} p_{s}$ and so $\operatorname{Cov}\left(Z_{r} / p_{r}, Z_{s} / p_{s}\right)=-1$. In the six covariances of the four terms we have two coming from terms of the same sign, $(1,4)$ and $(2,3)$, and the other four from terms of opposite sign. So the covariances contribute $2(2-4)(-1 / n)=+4 / n$ to the total variance, and the asymptotic variance of $\log (\hat{\Delta})$ is

$$
\frac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{r=1}^{4} \frac{1}{p_{r}}\right)
$$

Here $p_{r}$ are the unknown probabilities, and we estimate each term $n p_{r}$ by its MLE which is the observed $n_{r}$. Then taking the square root, we get that $\log (\hat{\Delta})$ is asymptotically normal with mean $\log (\Delta)$ and standard deviation (standard error in this case) estimated by

$$
\sqrt{\sum_{r=1}^{4} \frac{1}{n_{r}}}
$$

Based on the normal distribution, this gives us confidence intervals for $\log (\Delta)$ and then exponentiating, for $\Delta$ itself.

If any $n_{i j}$ is small, for example less than 5 , the normal approximation is questionable and the standard error is large, so the estimate is uncertain. If all four $n_{i j}$ are large, as in the data for hospitalized Medicare patients, then the normal approximation should be quite good.

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