

Appendix: algebra and calculus basics

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1 Logarithms

Logarithms are the solutions to equations like $y = e^x$ or $y = 10^x$. *Natural* logs, \ln or \log_e , are logarithms base e ($e = 2.718\dots$); *common* logs, \log_{10} , are typically logarithms base 10. When you see just \log it's usually in a context where the difference doesn't matter (although in \mathbb{R} \log_{10} is $\mathbf{log10}$ and \log_e is \mathbf{log}).

1. $\log(1) = 0$. If $x > 1$ then $\log(x) > 0$, and vice versa. $\log(0) = -\infty$ (more or less); logarithms are undefined for $x < 0$.
2. Logarithms convert products to sums: $\log(ab) = \log(a) + \log(b)$.

3. Logarithms convert powers to multiplication: $\log(a^n) = n \log(a)$.
4. You can't do anything with $\log(a + b)$.
5. Converting bases: $\log_x(a) = \log_y(a) / \log_y(x)$. In particular, $\log_{10}(a) = \log_e(a) / \log_e(10) \approx \log_e(a) / 2.3$ and $\log_e(a) = \log_{10}(a) / \log_{10}(e) \approx \log_{10}(a) / 0.434$. This means that converting between log bases just means multiplying or dividing by a constant. You can prove this relationship as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \log_{10}(x) \\
 10^y &= x \\
 \log_e(10^y) &= \log_e(x) \\
 y \log_e(10) &= \log_e(x) \\
 y &= \log_e(x) / \log_e(10)
 \end{aligned}$$

(compare the first and last lines).

6. The derivative of the logarithm, $d(\log x)/dx$, equals $1/x$. This is always positive for $x > 0$ (which are the only values for which the logarithm means anything anyway).
7. The fact that $d(\log x)/dx > 0$ means the function is *monotonic* (always either increasing or decreasing), which means that if $x > y$ then $\log(x) > \log(y)$ and if $x < y$ then $\log(x) < \log(y)$. This in turn means that if you find the maximum likelihood parameter, you've also found the maximum log-likelihood parameter, and *vice versa*.

2 Differential calculus

1. Notation: differentiation of a function $f(x)$ with respect to x can be written, depending on the context, as $\frac{df}{dx}$; f' ; \dot{f} ; or f_x . I will stick to the first two notations, but you may encounter the others elsewhere.
2. Definition of the derivative:

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{(x + \Delta x) - x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}. \quad (1)$$

In words, the derivative is the slope of the line tangent to a curve at a point, or the "instantaneous" slope of a curve. The second derivative, d^2f/dx^2 , is the rate of change of the slope, or the curvature.

3. The derivative of a constant (which is a flat line if you think about it as being a curve) is zero (zero slope).
4. The derivative of a line, $y = ax$, is the slope of the line, a .
5. Derivatives of polynomials: $\frac{d(x^n)}{dx} = nx^{n-1}$.

6. Derivatives of sums: $\frac{d(f+g)}{dx} = \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{dg}{dx}$ (and $d(\sum_i y_i)/dx = \sum_i (dy_i/dx)$).
7. Derivatives times constants: $\frac{d(cf)}{dx} = c \frac{df}{dx}$, if c is a constant ($\frac{dc}{dx} = 0$).
8. Derivative of the exponential: $\frac{d(\exp(ax))}{dx} = a \exp(ax)$, if a is a constant. (If not, use the chain rule.)
9. Derivative of logarithms: $\frac{d(\log(x))}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$.
10. Chain rule: $\frac{d(f(g(x)))}{dx} = \frac{df}{dg} \cdot \frac{dg}{dx}$ (thinking about this as “multiplying fractions” is a good mnemonic but don’t use that in general!) *Example:*

$$\frac{d(\exp(x^2))}{dx} = \frac{d(\exp(x^2))}{d(x^2)} \cdot \frac{dx^2}{dx} = \exp(x^2) \cdot 2x. \quad (2)$$

Another example: people sometimes express the proportional change in x , $(dx/dt)/x$, as $d(\log(x))/dt$. Can you see why?

11. *Critical points* (maxima, minima, and saddle points) of a curve f have $df/dx = 0$. The sign of the second derivative determines the type of a critical point (positive = minimum, negative = maximum, zero = saddle).

3 Partial differentiation

1. Partial differentiation acts just like regular differentiation except that you hold all but one variable constant, and you use a curly d ∂ instead of a regular d. So, for example, $\partial(xy)/\partial(x) = y$. Geometrically, this is taking the slope of a surface in one particular direction. (Second partial derivatives are curvatures in a particular direction.)
2. You can do partial differentiation multiple times with respect to different variables: order doesn’t matter, so $\frac{\partial^2(f)}{\partial(x)\partial(y)} = \frac{\partial^2(f)}{\partial(y)\partial(x)}$.

4 Integral calculus

For the material in this book, I’m not asking you to remember very much calculus, but it would be useful to remember that

1. the (definite) integral of $f(x)$ from a to b , $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, represents the area under the curve between a and b ; the integral is a limit of the sum $\sum_{x_i=a}^b f(x_i)\Delta x$ as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$.
2. You can take a constant out of an integral (or put one in): $\int a f(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$.
3. Integrals are additive: $\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$.

5 Factorials and the gamma function

A *factorial*, written as (say) $k!$, means $k \times k - 1 \times \dots \times 1$. For example, $2! = 2$, $3! = 6$, and $6! = 720$ (in R a factorial is `factorial()` — you can't use the shorthand `!` notation, especially since `!=` means “not equal to”). Factorials come up in probability calculations all the time, e.g. as the number of permutations with k elements. The *gamma function*, usually written as Γ (`gamma()` in R) is a generalization of factorials. For integers, $\Gamma(x) = (x - 1)!$. Factorials are only defined for integers, but for positive, non-integer x (e.g. 2.7), $\Gamma(x)$ is still defined and it is still true that $\Gamma(x + 1) = x \cdot \Gamma(x)$.

Factorials and gamma functions get very large, and you often have to compute ratios of factorials or gamma functions (as in the binomial coefficient, $k!/(N!(N - k)!)$). Numerically, it is more efficient and accurate to compute the logarithms of the factorials first, add and subtract them, and then exponentiate the result: $\exp(\log k! - \log N! - \log(N - k)!)$. R provides the log-factorial (`lfactorial()`) and log-gamma (`lgamma()`) functions for this purpose.

About the only reason that the gamma function ever comes up in ecology is that it is the *normalizing constant* (see ch. 4) for the gamma *distribution*, which is usually denoted as Gamma (not Γ): $\text{Gamma}(x, a, s) = \frac{1/(s^a \Gamma(a))}{x^a} a - 1 e^{-x/s}$.

6 Probability

1. Probability distributions always add or integrate to 1 over all possible values.
2. Probabilities of independent events are multiplied: $p(A \text{ and } B) = p(A)p(B)$.
3. The *binomial coefficient*,

$$\binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}, \quad (3)$$

is the number of different ways of choosing k objects out of a set of N , without regard to order. $!$ denotes a factorial: $n! = n \times n-1 \times \dots \times 2 \times 1$. (Proof: think about picking k objects out of N , without replacement but keeping track of order. The number of different ways to pick the first object is N . The number of different ways to pick the second object is $N-1$, the third $N-2$, and so forth, so the total number of choices is $N \times N-1 \times \dots \times N-k+1 = N!/(N-k)!$. The number of possible orders for this set (permutations) is $k!$ by the same argument (k choices for the first element, $k-1$ for the next \dots). Since we don't care about the order, we divide the number of ordered ways ($N!/(N-k)!$) by the number of possible orders ($k!$) to get the binomial coefficient.)

7 The delta method: formula and derivation

The formula for the delta method of approximating variances is:

$$\text{Var}(f(x, y)) \approx \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)^2 \text{Var}(x) + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)^2 \text{Var}(y) + 2\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right) \text{Cov}(x, y) \quad (4)$$

Lyons [?] gives a very readable alternative description of the delta method; Oehlert [?] gives a short technical description of the formal assumptions necessary for the delta method to apply.

This formula is exact in a bunch of simple cases:

- Multiplying by a constant: $\text{Var}(ax) = a^2\text{Var}(x)$
- Sum or difference of independent variables: $\text{Var}(x \pm y) = \text{Var}(x) + \text{Var}(y)$
- Product or ratio of independent variables: $\text{Var}(x \cdot y) = y^2\text{Var}(x) + x^2\text{Var}(y) + x^2y^2 \left(\frac{\text{Var}(x)}{x^2} + \frac{\text{Var}(y)}{y^2}\right)$: this also implies that $(\text{CV}(x \cdot y))^2 = (\text{CV}(x))^2 + (\text{CV}(y))^2$
- I believe (check!!) that the formula is exact if $P(x, y)$ is bivariate normal (and the function is not too weird??)

You can also extend the formula to more than two variables if you like.

Derivation: use the (multivariable) Taylor expansion of $f(x, y)$ including *linear terms only*:

$$f(x, y) \approx f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x - \bar{x}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(y - \bar{y})$$

where the derivatives are evaluated at (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) .

Substitute this in to the formula for the variance of $f(x, y)$:

$$\text{Var}(f(x, y)) = \int P(x, y)(f(x, y) - f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}))^2 dx dy \quad (5)$$

$$= \int P(x, y) \left(f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x - \bar{x}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(y - \bar{y}) - f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \right)^2 dx dy \quad (6)$$

$$= \int P(x, y) \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x - \bar{x}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(y - \bar{y}) \right)^2 dx dy \quad (7)$$

$$= \int P(x, y) \left(\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 (x - \bar{x})^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 (y - \bar{y})^2 + 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} (x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y}) \right) dx dy \quad (8)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int P(x, y) \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 (x - \bar{x})^2 dx dy \\ &\quad + \int P(x, y) \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 (y - \bar{y})^2 dx dy \\ &\quad + \int P(x, y) 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} (x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y}) dx dy \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 \int P(x, y)(x - \bar{x})^2 dx dy \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 \int P(x, y)(y - \bar{y})^2 dx dy \\ &\quad + 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \int P(x, y)(x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y}) dx dy \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 \text{Var}(x) + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 \text{Var}(y) + 2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \text{Cov}(x, y) \quad (11)$$