

Sequence analysis for social scientists

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Outline

- What is sequence analysis?
- Why it can be worth doing, and how it complements existing approaches
- How to do it, and how to think about it
- Practical, hands-on focus, using (inter alia) my SADI add-on for Stata (Halpin, 2014a)

Sequence Analysis

- What is sequence analysis?
 - Large, growing and ramifying research area
 - From Abbott and Hrycak (1990) to the 2015 edition of *Sociological Methodology*
 - See Halpin (2013) for an annotated bibliography
- Focus on lifecourse trajectories as *sequences*, as wholes
- Usually proceed by defining distances between pairs of sequences, classify, etc

Why do Sequence Analysis?

- Why would we want to do it
 - Holistic vs analytic?
 - Exploratory vs hypothesis testing?
 - Descriptive, visualisation
- Complexity of longitudinal processes hard to capture
- How should we think about $d \rightarrow D$?
- Complementary alternative to stochastic techniques which model data generation process

Sequences are messy

- Lifecourse sequences are epiphenomena of more fundamental underlying processes
- The processes are potentially complex: difficult to predict distribution of sequences
- Other techniques (hazard rate models, models of late outcome using history, models of the pattern of transition rates) give a powerful but partial view
- SA clearly allows us visualise complex data; possibly allows us observe features that will otherwise be missed

Potentially complex processes

- The generating processes are complex:
 - individuals bring different characteristics from the beginning
 - history matters, including via duration dependence (individuals accumulate characteristics)
 - time matters:
 - calendar time (e.g. economic cycle), state distribution may change dramatically
 - developmental time (maturation)
 - processes in other lifecourse domains
- Too many parameters to model, hard to visualise distribution of life courses, also the possibility of *emergent* features
 - Clear exploratory advantages
 - possibility of detecting things that might not be detected otherwise

Timing, sequence, quantum

- Different things can be interesting
 - Timing: when things happen
 - Sequence: in what order do things happen
 - Quantum: how much time is spent in different states (Billari et al., 2006)
- Many applications in longitudinal social science: annotated bibliography in Halpin (2013)

Non-holistic approaches

- Numerous non-holistic approaches exist
- Typically they will discard some aspect of the information in the data, and focus powerfully on another
- For instance, focus on
 - cumulated duration in states (how much but not when)
 - transition patterns between states (period-to-period but not overall)
 - time-to-event of leaving spell (spells, perhaps pooled, but lose sight of individual career).

Cumulative duration

- For instance, summarise trajectories in terms of cumulative time in each state
- Typically use as a predictor (e.g., proportion of time unemployed predicting later ill-health)
- Or as an outcome: variables measured earlier (e.g., school performance) predicting proportion of time unemployed.

Transition rate models

- Model rates of period-to-period change: e.g., monthly movement between labour market statuses
- Model origin–destination patterns: e.g., transition between class at entry to labour market, and class at age 35
- Markov models
- Very useful, good overview, can be descriptive or stochastic: tables make categorical data digestible
- Disadvantage: the focus on the $t-1/t$ or t_0/t_T pattern means a loss of individual continuity
- Some potential to model longer Markov chains (Gabadinho, 2014)

Hazard-rate modelling

- Hazard-rate modelling is one of the dominant statistical alternative
- Either in terms of survival tables and curves (essentially descriptive)
- Or full stochastic models of the determinants of the hazard rate (Cox and/or parametric)
- Example: what characteristics speed up (or slow down) exit from unemployment?
- Very nice conceptual model of the temporal process
- Can test hypotheses
- Disadvantage: spell orientation, lack of whole-trajectory overview

Latent class analysis

- Latent class growth curve models
 - Where theory allows a developmental model of a quantitative outcome
 - Account for the structure of repeated measurement of individuals
 - Not so suitable for categorical variables
- Latent class models can be applied to careers
 - However, difficult to properly incorporate the longitudinality
 - Examples: Lovaglio and Mezzanatica (2013); Barban and Billari (2012)

Holistic approaches

- Holistic approaches by definition treat whole trajectories as units
- Classification of sequences is a typical goal
- Usually achieved by defining inter-sequence similarity and cluster analysis
- But other aspects of similarity may be interesting
 - Variation of similarity by grouping variable (cohort, social class)
 - Dyad similarity (couples' time use, mother–daughter fertility etc)
 - Distance to pre-defined ideal types (empirical or theoretical)

Defining similarity

- Defining similarity the key challenge: must be
 - efficient
 - coherent, and
 - sociologically meaningful
- We will consider a number of methods to do this
 - Hamming distance and Optimal Matching distance (today)
 - Dynamic Hamming, time-warping measures and combinatorial subsequence measures (later)

Hamming distance and Optimal Matching

- The simplest way to compare sequences is element-wise
- Given a rule for $d(a, b)$, project it onto $D(A, B)$ as

$$D(A, B) = \sum_i d(A_i, B_i)$$
- Requires sequence of equal length
- Hamming distance: recognises match or similarity at same time
- Simple but important case of mapping $d(a, b) \rightarrow D(A, B)$

Hamming distance example

Input four short sequences

```
input s1 s2 s3 s4 s5
1 2 3 2 3
2 3 2 3 1
4 2 3 2 3
1 1 1 1 1
end

// Define the state differences
matrix scost = (0,1,2,3 \ ///
               1,0,1,2 \ ///
               2,1,0,1 \ ///
               3,2,1,0 )

hamming s1-s5, subs(scost) pwd(ham)
```

Hamming distance example

Input four short sequences

```
input s1 s2 s3 s4 s5
1 2 3 2 3
2 3 2 3 1
4 2 3 2 3
1 1 1 1 1
end

// Define the state differences
matrix scost = (0,1,2,3 \ ///
               1,0,1,2 \ ///
               2,1,0,1 \ ///
               3,2,1,0 )

hamming s1-s5, subs(scost) pwd(ham)
```

Resulting distances

```
. matrix list ham

symmetric ham[4,4]
      c1  c2  c3  c4
r1    0
r2  1.2  0
r3   .6  1.4  0
r4  1.2  1.2  1.8  0
```

Optimal Matching

- Hamming recognises similarity at the same time
- If sequences have similarity that is out of alignment this will not be recognised
- OM defines similarity like Hamming, but with insertion and deletion to allow sequences to align
- I.e., it cuts bits out in order to slide other parts along to match
- Insertion/deletion also enables comparison of sequences of different lengths

OM example

OMA call

```
. oma s1-s5, subs(scost) indel(1.5) ///
  pwd(oma) length(5)
```

OM example

OMA call

```
. oma s1-s5, subs(scost) indel(1.5) ///
  pwd(oma) length(5)
```

Resulting distances

• OM distances

```
symmetric oma[4,4]
      c1  c2  c3  c4
r1    0
r2   .6  0
r3   .6  .6  0
r4  1.2  1.2  1.8  0
```

• Hamming distances

```
symmetric ham[4,4]
      c1  c2  c3  c4
r1    0
r2  1.2  0
r3   .6  1.4  0
r4  1.2  1.2  1.8  0
```

OM vs Hamming

- For most pairs the OM and Hamming distance is the same
- For the pairs (1,2) and (2,3), OM distance is less because "alignment" allows a better match
- 1 vs 2

Seq 1	1	2	3	2	3	-
Seq 2	-	2	3	2	3	1
Cost	i	0	0	0	0	i

- 2 vs 3

Seq 2	-	2	3	2	3	1
Seq 3	4	2	3	2	3	-
Cost	i	0	0	0	0	i

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
		=
		=
		=
		=
		=
		=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
		=
		=
		=
		=
		=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
insert D	CDABCD	+2 = 4
		=
		=
		=
		=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
insert D	CDABCD	+2 = 4
const A = A	CDABCD	+0 = 4
	=	=
	=	=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
insert D	CDABCD	+2 = 4
const A = A	CDABCD	+0 = 4
subs B→A	CDAACD	+1 = 5
	=	=
	=	=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
insert D	CDABCD	+2 = 4
const A = A	CDABCD	+0 = 4
subs B→A	CDAACD	+1 = 5
subs C→B	CDAABD	+1 = 6
	=	=
Sequence 1	CDAAB	=

A more general example

To convert ABCD into CDAAB the following set of operations gives the cheapest path:

Operation	Intermediate state	Cost
Sequence 2	ABCD	= 0
insert C	CABCD	+2 = 2
insert D	CDABCD	+2 = 4
const A = A	CDABCD	+0 = 4
subs B→A	CDAACD	+1 = 5
subs C→B	CDAABD	+1 = 6
delete D	CDAAB-	+2 = 8
Sequence 1	CDAAB	= 8

Programming OM

- OM distance is defined as the cheapest set of "elementary operations" that edit one sequence into another
- Determining the cheapest set of "elementary operations" is potentially complex – a large population of candidates
- However, it can be stated as a recursive problem and programmed very efficiently
- Understanding how it is programmed can help understand the principle of OM

OM: Recursive problem

$$\Delta_{OM}(A^p, B^q) =$$

$$\min \begin{cases} \Delta_{OM}(A^{p-1}, B^q) + \text{indel} \\ \Delta_{OM}(A^{p-1}, B^{q-1}) + \delta(a_p, b_q) \\ \Delta_{OM}(A^p, B^{q-1}) + \text{indel} \end{cases}$$

(Δ represents distance between sequences, and δ differences within the state space)

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{i,j}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2								
		A	B	C	D	0	2	4	6	8
s_1	C	2	1	0	1	2				
	D	3	2	1	0	4				
	A	0	1	2	3	6				
	A	0	1	2	3	8				
	B	1	0	1	2	10				

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{i,j}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$
 $= \min(0 + 2, 2 + 2, 2 + 2) = 2$

		s_2								
		A	B	C	D	0	2	4	6	8
s_1	C	2	1	0	1	2				
	D	3	2	1	0	4				
	A	0	1	2	3	6				
	A	0	1	2	3	8				
	B	1	0	1	2	10				

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2				
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

$= \min(2 + 1, 2 + 2, 4 + 2) = 3$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2				
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3			
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

$= \min(4 + 0, 3 + 2, 6 + 2) = 4$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3			
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4		
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

$= \min(6 + 1, 4 + 2, 8 + 2) = 6$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4		
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4	6	
4					
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4	6	
4	4	4	4	4	
6					
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4	6	
4	4	4	4	4	
6	4	5	6	6	
8					
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4	6	
4	4	4	4	4	
6	4	5	6	6	
8	6	5	7	8	
10					

Implementing the recursive algorithm

Cell value: $\min(c_{i-1,j-1} + \omega_{ij}, c_{i,j-1} + \iota, c_{i-1,j} + \iota)$

		s_2			
		A	B	C	D
s_1	C	2	1	0	1
	D	3	2	1	0
	A	0	1	2	3
	A	0	1	2	3
	B	1	0	1	2

	0	2	4	6	8
2	2	3	4	6	
4	4	4	4	4	
6	4	5	6	6	
8	6	5	7	8	
10	8	6	6	8	

Two example data sets

- We will be primarily using two data sets as examples
 - MVAD: McVicar/Anyadike-Danes data on the school-to-work transition in Northern Ireland (72 months, 6 states)
 - BSSEQ: 6 years of labour market history of women who have a birth at end of year 2 (72 months, 4 states)

Initial step: looking at life course data

- It's harder to get an overview of lifecourse than cross-sectional data
- However, a number of numeric and graphical techniques are available

Numeric summaries

We can summarise lifecourse data in terms of:

- Cumulative duration
- Number of spells
- Patterns of transition rates
 - month by month
 - start by finish
- Durations to event (time to first job, first marriage, first child)

Useful to break down these measures by covariates, and model them

Cumulative duration

```
use mvad
cumuldur state*, cd(cd) nstates(6)
reshape long cd, i(id) j(durtype)
label values durtype state
table male durtype, c(mean cd) format(%5.2f)
table grammar durtype, c(mean cd) format(%5.2f)
```

male	durtype					
	E	F	H	S	T	U
0	29.24	12.73	10.12	7.30	5.55	7.06
1	34.96	10.75	6.81	5.00	9.12	5.36

grammar	durtype					
	E	F	H	S	T	U
0	34.25	12.42	6.07	4.44	8.09	6.74
1	23.02	8.47	18.93	13.62	4.32	3.64

Number of spells

```
. nspells state*, gen(nsp)
. tab nsp grammar, col nofreq
```

nsp	grammar		Total
	0	1	
1	6.17	4.65	5.90
2	20.24	24.81	21.07
3	30.70	33.33	31.18
4	19.21	19.38	19.24
5	12.52	6.98	11.52
6	4.12	6.20	4.49
7	3.95	1.55	3.51
8	1.37	2.33	1.54
9	1.03	0.78	0.98
10	0.34	0.00	0.28
11	0.34	0.00	0.28
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Transition rates

```
use mvad
```

```
reshape long state, i(id) j(t)
```

```
by id: gen last = state[_n-1] if _n>1
```

```
label values last state
```

```
tab last state, row nofreq
```

Transition rates

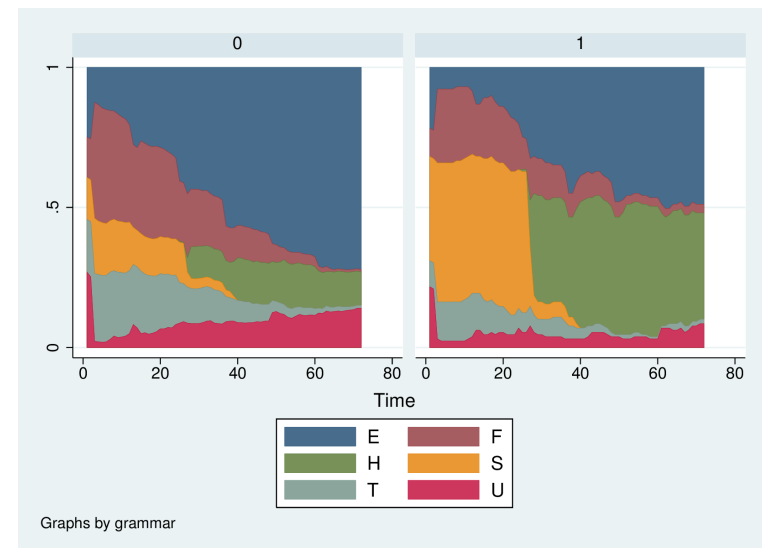
last	state						Total
	E	F	H	S	T	U	
E	22,039 98.16	115 0.51	56 0.25	39 0.17	58 0.26	146 0.65	22,453 100.00
F	227 2.73	7,927 95.25	54 0.65	8 0.10	33 0.40	73 0.88	8,322 100.00
H	60 1.02	1 0.02	5,787 98.72	0 0.00	3 0.05	11 0.19	5,862 100.00
S	59 1.36	50 1.15	74 1.70	4,120 94.82	19 0.44	23 0.53	4,345 100.00
T	197 3.74	21 0.40	0 0.00	4 0.08	4,973 94.47	69 1.31	5,264 100.00
U	182 4.23	120 2.79	9 0.21	39 0.91	64 1.49	3,892 90.39	4,306 100.00
Total	22,764 45.03	8,234 16.29	5,980 11.83	4,210 8.33	5,150 10.19	4,214 8.34	50,552 100.00

Graphs

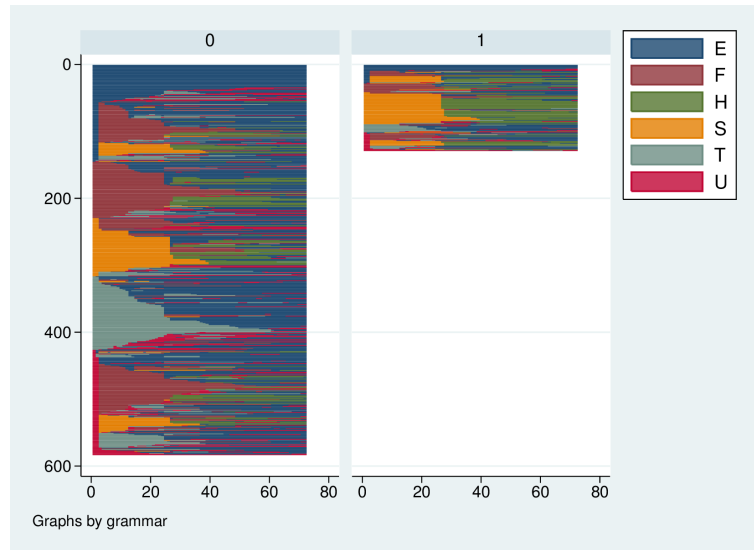
Graphs give us an even better overview. Consider

- Chronograms
- Survival plots
- Index plots
- Transition rate time-series

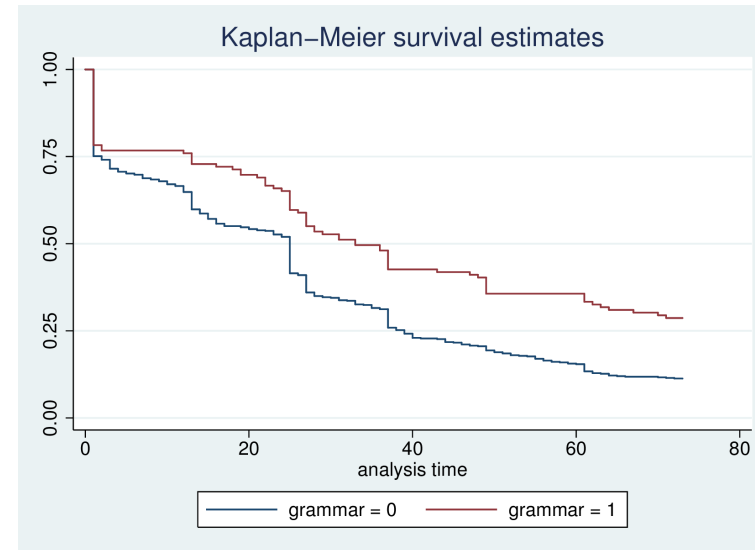
Chronograms



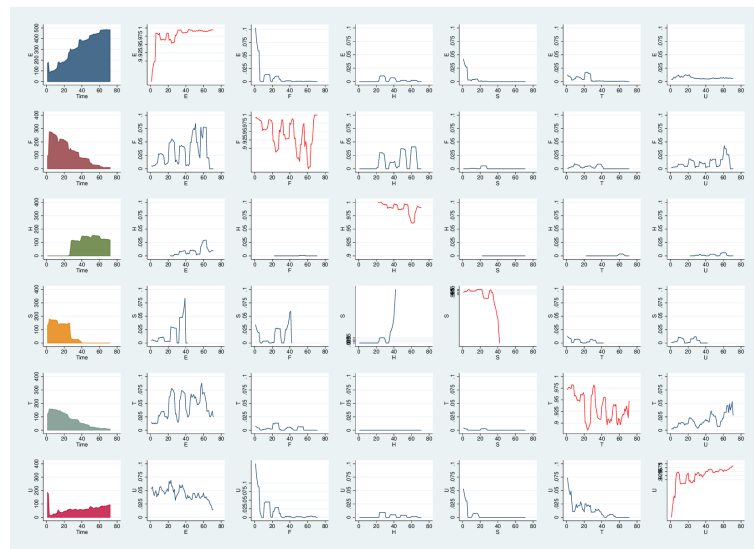
Index plots



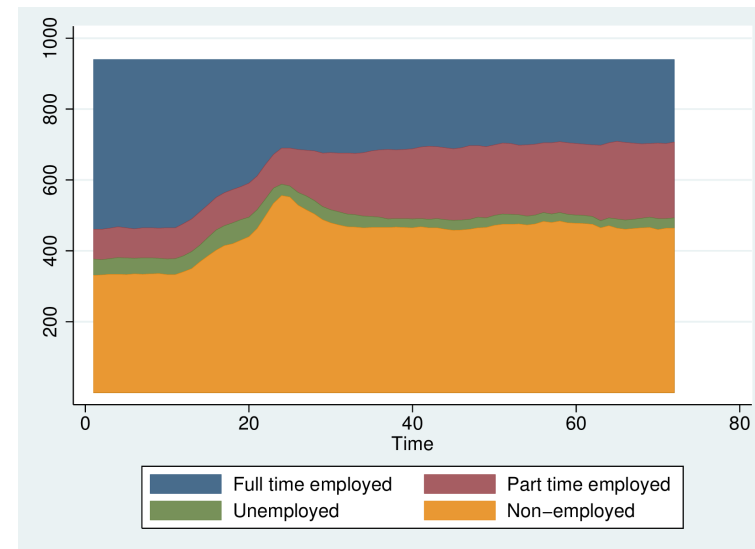
Survival plots: time to first job



Transition rate time-series



Chronogram, mothers' labour market history (BS)



OM on BS data

```

use bsseq
matrix scost = (0,1,2,3 \ ///
               1,0,1,2 \ ///
               2,1,0,1 \ ///
               3,2,1,0 )
oma state*, subs(scost) indel(1.5) pwd(oma) len(72)
matlist oma[1..5,1..5]

```

OM output

```

. oma state*, subs(scost) indel(1.5) pwd(oma) len(72)
Normalising distances with respect to length
(0 observations deleted)
417 unique observations
nrefs:    0

. matlist oma[1..5,1..5]

```

	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5
r1	0				
r2	2.694444	0			
r3	.7777778	1.916667	0		
r4	1.861111	.8333333	1.083333	0	
r5	2.277778	.4583333	1.541667	.8333333	0

Hamming for comparison

```

. hamming state*, subs(scost) pwd(ham)

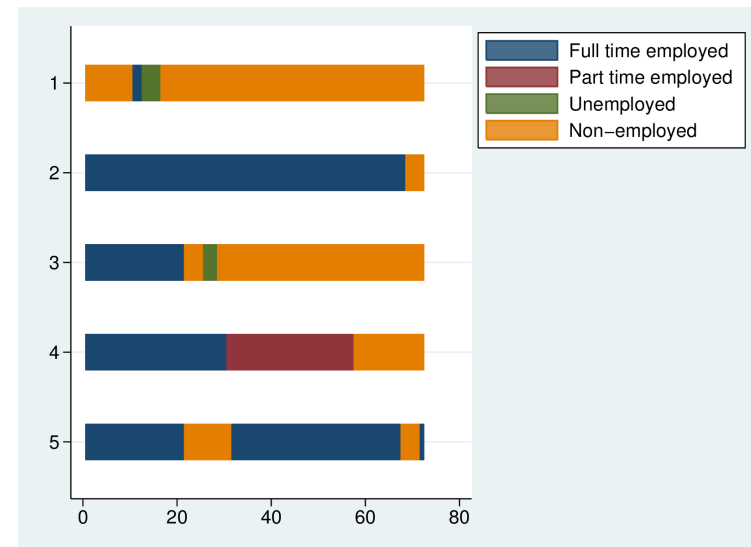
. corrsqm ham oma
VECH correlation between ham and oma: 0.9946

. matlist ham[1..5,1..5]

```

	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5
r1	0				
r2	2.694444	0			
r3	.7777778	1.916667	0		
r4	1.861111	.8333333	1.083333	0	
r5	2.277778	.5	1.583333	1.222222	0

First five sequences



What to do with distances?

- Pairwise distance matrices are an intermediate point
- One useful thing: create a data-driven classification
- Use cluster analysis, typically using Ward's linkage
- Number of clusters is a matter for thought, 8 is convenient for exposition

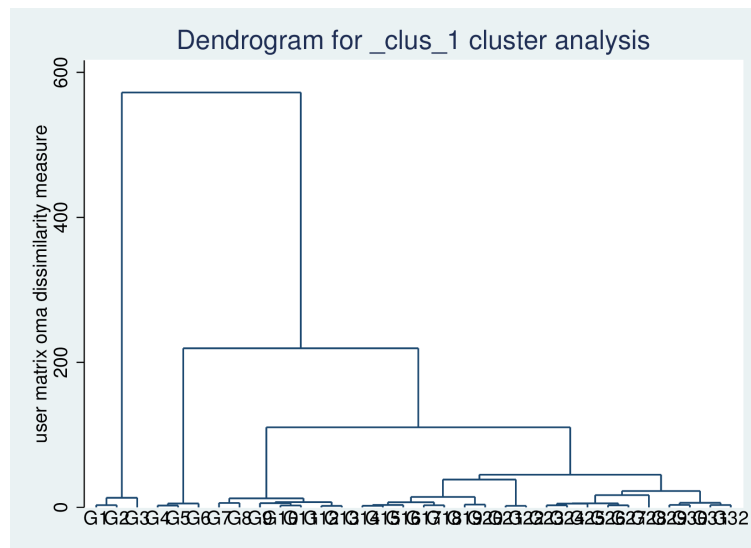
Clustering OM

```

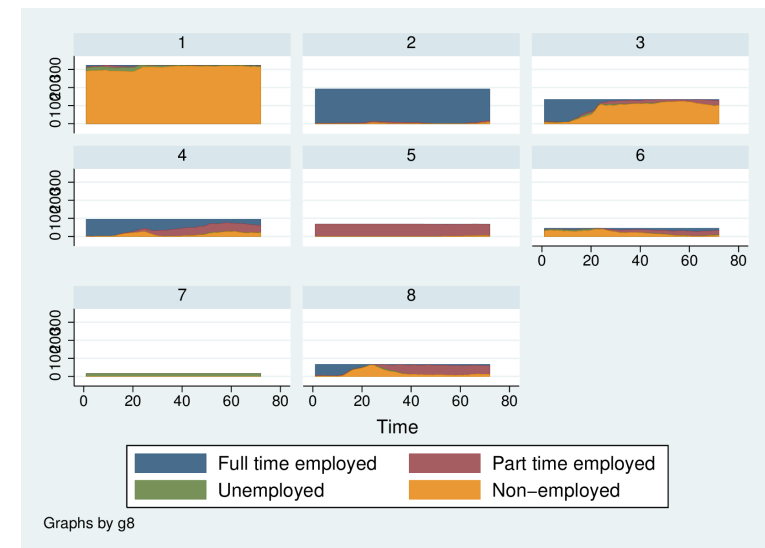
clustermat wards oma, add
cluster generate g8=groups(8)
cluster dendrogram, cutnumber(32)
chronogram state*, by(g8)

```

Dendrogram



Chronogram by cluster

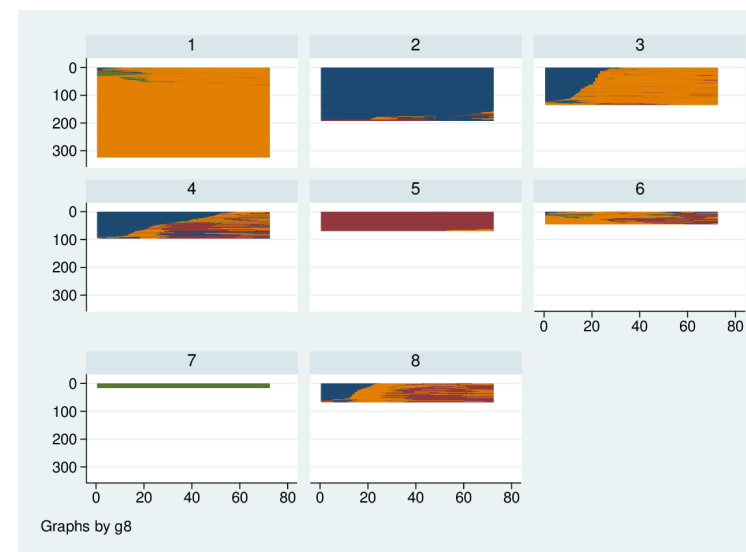


Chronogram, proportional



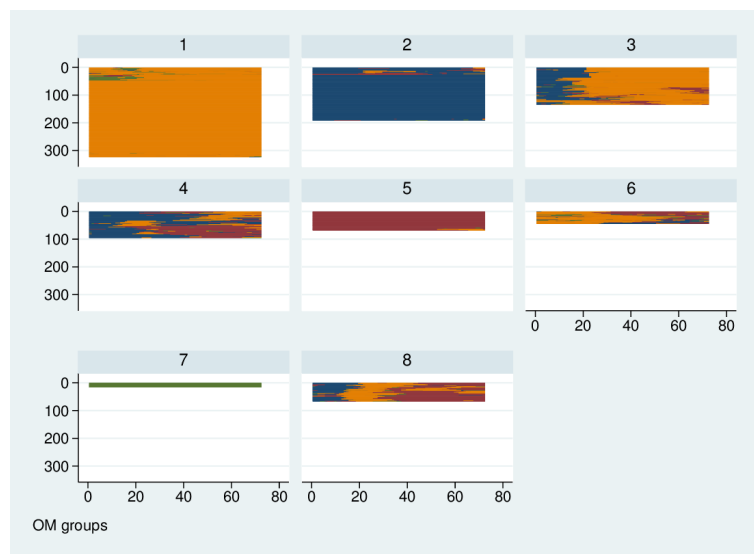
45

Indexplot



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Indexplot in dendrogram order



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Details

```

cluster mat wards oma, add
cluster generate g8 = groups(8)
cluster generate g999 = groups(800), ties(fewer)

```

```

chronogram state*, by(g8)
chronogram state*, by(g8) prop

```

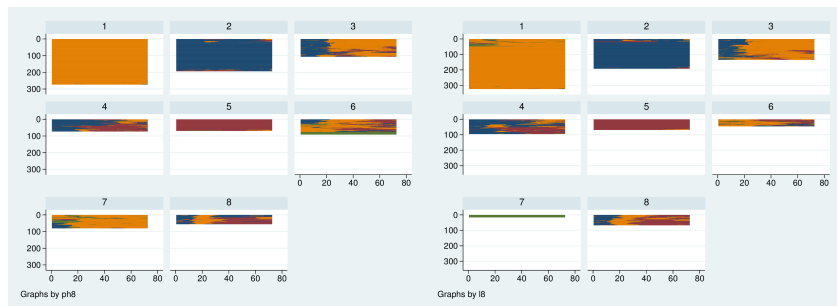
```

reshape long state, i(pid) j(t)
sqset state pid t
sqindexplot, by(g8, legend(off))
sqindexplot, by(g8, legend(off)) order(g999)

```

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Compare Hamming (L) and OM (R) solutions



ARI and permtab

	Hamming							
OM	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	273	0	1	0	0	1	48	0
2	0	192	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	85	0	1	16	32	0
4	0	0	10	69	0	0	0	16
5	0	0	0	0	68	0	0	0
6	0	1	0	0	0	44	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	0
8	0	0	10	4	0	14	0	39

- Kappa-max: 0.7791
- Adjusted Rand Index: 0.7818

Complexity of sequences

- Complexity of sequences is relevant: more complex means less likely to be similar (and perhaps, similarity is more interesting)
- How to measure? Number of spells is part of it
- Also distribution of time
- A single long spell is the simplest sequence
- Many spells in many different states is very complex

Shannon Entropy

- Information theory relates complexity to "entropy"
- More complex objects are harder to describe, cannot be compressed
- Shannon Entropy: $\epsilon = -\sum p_i \log_2 p_i$ where p_i is the proportion of months in state i
- Takes account of diversity of state but ABABAB counts as no more complex than AAABBB
- Perhaps add n-spells information: $\epsilon' = \epsilon \times \frac{m}{l}$ where m is number of spells and l is length

Example: entropy

```
entropy state*, gen(ent) cd(pcd) nstates(4)
nspells state*, gen(nsp)
gen ent2 = ent*nsp/72
table g8, c(mean ent mean ent2 mean nsp) format(%6.3f)
```

g8	mean(ent)	mean(ent2)	mean(nsp)
1	0.150	0.008	1.536
2	0.100	0.004	1.359
3	1.143	0.061	3.560
4	1.053	0.057	3.684
5	0.074	0.003	1.235
6	1.252	0.091	4.844
7	0.000	0.000	1.000
8	1.489	0.097	4.597

Elzinga's turbulence

- In Elzinga (2010) a measure of complexity is proposed that is more appropriate for spell data
- It is based on duration weighted spells, and on subsequence counting
- It combines a measure based on the number of distinct subsequences, with a measure of the variance of their durations
- It is (only) available in TraMineR
- However, in practice the simpler Shannon entropy correlates highly with it

Regular expressions

- If sequences are represented as text, text-processing tools such as "regular expressions" can be used to sort between them
- Refer to lab notes for more details

```
stripe state*, gen(seqst)
list seqst in 1/5,clean
count if regexm(seqst,"^A+$")
count if regexm(seqst,"^AAAAA+.*DDDDDD.*AAAAA.*$")
count if regexm(seqst,"AB.*AB")
```

Multi-dimensional scaling

- The other "obvious" thing to do with pairwise distances is multi-dimensional scaling
- The network of distances implies a coherent space: can we re-construct it?
- Preferably with dimensions much less than number of sequences!
- Standard MDS uses principal component analysis

Example

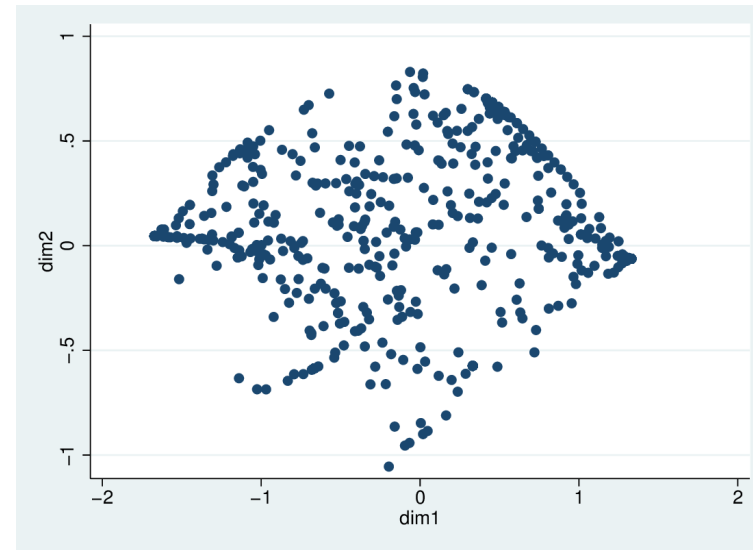
```
. mdsmat oma, dim(3)
(row names of (dis)similarity matrix differ from column names; row names used)
```

Classical metric multidimensional scaling
dissimilarity matrix: oma

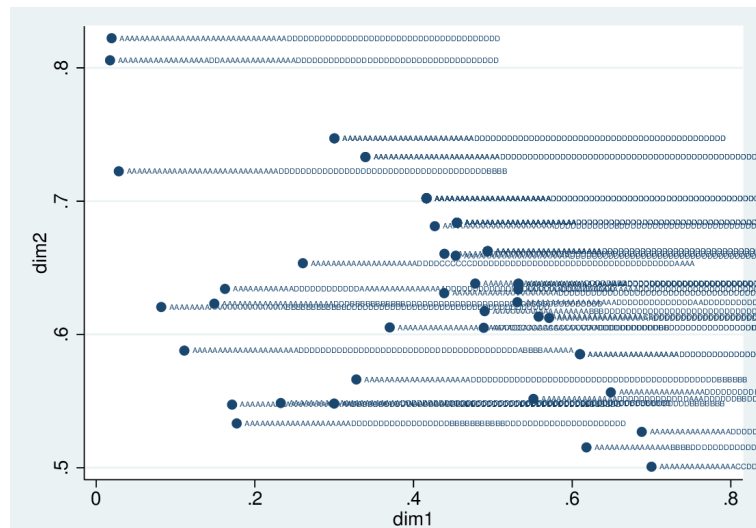
Number of obs = 940
Mardia fit measure 1 = 0.7556
Eigenvalues > 0 = 188
Mardia fit measure 2 = 0.9932
Retained dimensions = 3

Dimension	Eigenvalue	abs(eigenvalue)		(eigenvalue)^2	
		Percent	Cumul.	Percent	Cumul.
1	1205.3971	67.73	67.73	98.57	98.57
2	95.282325	5.35	73.08	0.62	99.19
3	44.082404	2.48	75.56	0.13	99.32
4	28.932307	1.63	77.19	0.06	99.38
5	23.350698	1.31	78.50	0.04	99.41
6	12.040492	0.68	79.17	0.01	99.42
7	10.398137	0.58	79.76	0.01	99.43
8	8.8446418	0.50	80.26	0.01	99.44
9	6.3672493	0.36	80.61	0.00	99.44
10	6.1013343	0.34	80.96	0.00	99.44

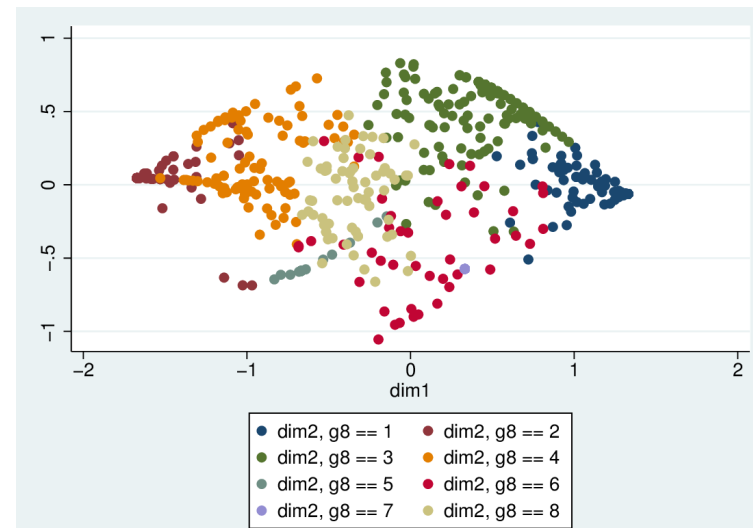
Scatterplot



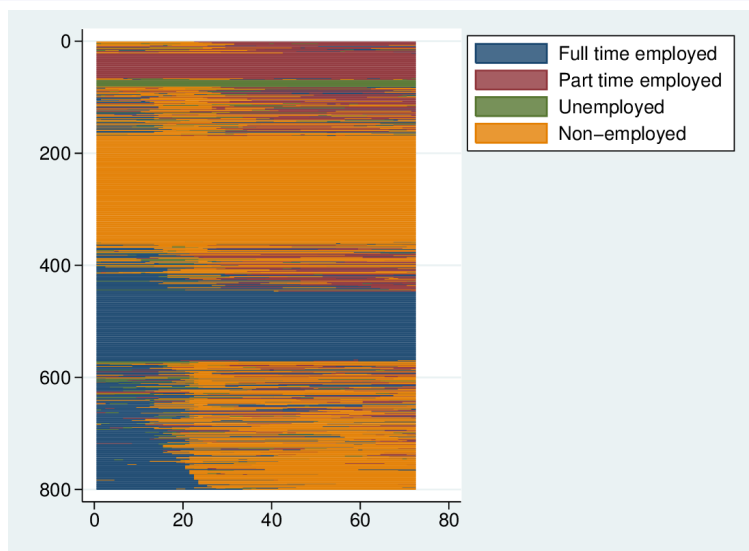
Scatterplot



Scatterplot by cluster solution

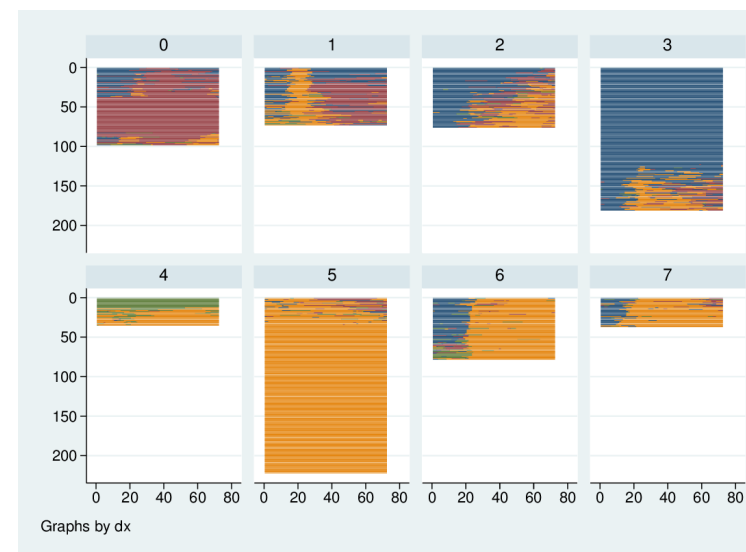


Avoid clustering: Indexplot ordered by 1st MDS dimension



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Partitioning by MDS



Graphs by dx

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Are substitution costs a problem?

- Repeated claims in the literature:
 - that sociologists don't know how to set substitution costs,
 - that we can't match the effectiveness of molecular biology
- Yes, our analytical goals are often much less well defined than those of the biologists
- No, substitution costs are not an intractable problem

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Mapping states to sequences

- The essence of SA is mapping a view of a state space onto a view of a trajectory space: $d(s) \rightarrow D(S)$
- We start with *knowledge* or a *view* of how states relate to each other (what states are like each other, what states are dissimilar)
- With a suitable algorithm we map this perspective onto trajectories through the state space: what trajectories are more or less similar
- The nature of the algorithm determines
 - Whether the mapping makes sense
 - Exactly how the structure of the state space affects the structure of the trajectory space

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OMA coherent?

- Can we expect OMA to provide a coherent $d(s) \rightarrow D(S)$ mapping?
- Elementary operations are intuitively appealing:
 - 1 $D(ABC, ADC) = f(d(B, D))$
 - 2 $D(ABCD, ABD) = f(indel)$
 - 3 minimising concatenation of these two operations to link any pair of trajectories
- If 3 is reasonable, 1 and 2 determine how state space affects trajectory space

Thinking about state spaces and distances

- Costs can be thought of as distances between states
- If state space is \mathbb{R}^n , distance is intuitive
- If state space is categorical, how define distance?
 - State space as efficient summary of clustered distribution in \mathbb{R}^n : distances are between cluster centroids
 - State space can be mapped onto specific set of quantitative dimensions; each state located at the vector of its mean values; Euclidean or other distances between vectors
 - States can be located relative to each other on theoretical grounds

Transitions and substitutions

- Transition rates frequently proposed as basis for substitution costs
- Critics of OMA complain of substitution operations implying impossible transitions (e.g., Wu)
- Even proponents of OMA are sometimes concerned about “impossible” transitions (e.g., Pollock)
- But substitutions are not transitions, {not even a little bit!}
 - substitutions happen across sequences,
 $D(ABC, ADC) = f(d(B, D))$ (similarity of states)
 - transitions happen within sequences (movement between state)

Informative transition rates

- No logical connection between substitutions and transition rates
- but under certain circumstances transition rates can inform us about state distances
- If state space is a partitioning of an unknown \mathbb{R}^n , movement is random (unstructured), and the probability of a move is inversely related to its length, then
 - distance between states will vary inversely with the transition rates
- However, these conditions usually not met

Deceptive transition rates

- Example: using voting intentions as a way of defining inter party distances
- UK: relatively high Con–LibDem two-way flows; ditto Lab–LibDem
- But Con–Lab transitions much lower: implies a potentially incoherent space (non-metric, more below)
 - $d(\text{Con, Lab}) > d(\text{Con, LibDem}) + d(\text{LibDem, Lab})$
- Procedure confuses party state space and voter characteristics
- Voter polarisation/loyalty is trajectory information, not state information
- Another type of problem: irrelevant distinctions can cause similar states to have low transition rates

Take “space” seriously

- Very useful to think in spatial terms
 - 1 State space as efficient summary of clustered distribution in \mathbb{R}^n
 - 2 State space mapped onto specific set of quantitative dimensions
 - 3 State space defined on theoretical grounds
- For 1 and 2, explicitly multidimensional, in case 2 dimensions are explicit
- For 1 and 3, we can attempt to recover the implicit dimensions

Looking at state spaces

- Two very simple state spaces:
 - Single dimension, equally spaced:

0	1	2	3
1	0	1	2
2	1	0	1
3	2	1	0

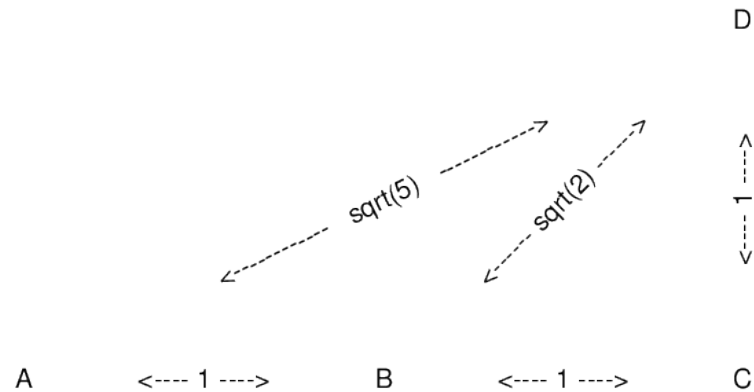
- All states equidistant – $n - 1$ dimensions

0	1	1	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0

More dimensions

- E.g., 2D picture of inter-party distances: location on left–right scale, plus on pro-/anti-EU scale
- Distances are Euclidean or other metric (e.g., L1)
 - Euclidean: $\sqrt{\sum_i (r_i - s_i)^2}$
 - L1 (city block): $\sum_i |r_i - s_i|$
- Generalises easily to many dimensions
- Problem: how to weight different dimensions?
 - Scale by standard deviation? Substantive importance?

2-D example



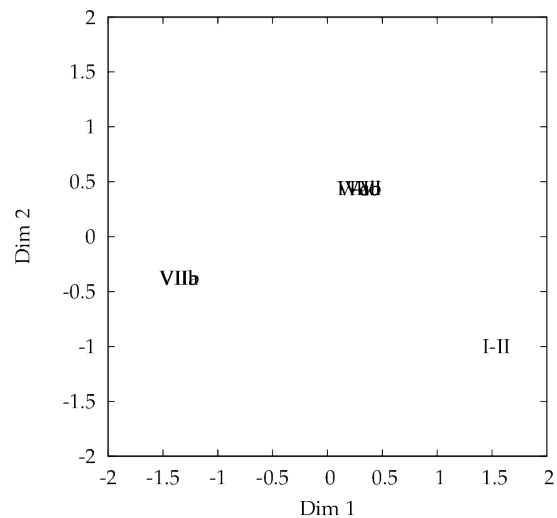
Spatial structure of theoretical spaces

- We can analyse “theoretically-informed” or *ad hoc* state spaces spatially
- Principle components analysis of substitution matrix
- Examples: Halpin and Chan (1998) McVicar and Anyadike-Danes (2002):

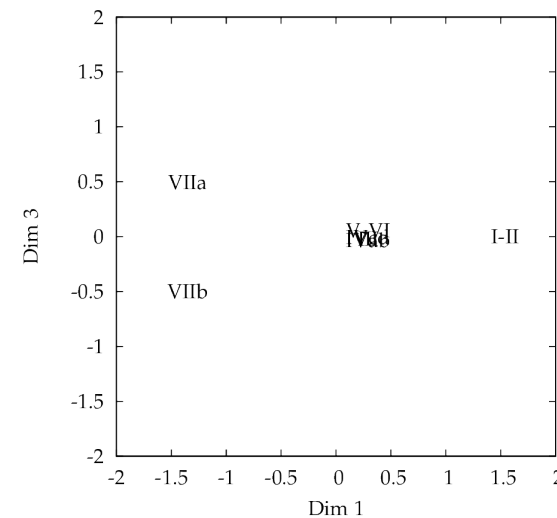
I-II	0	2	2	2	2	3	3
III	2	0	1	1	1	2	2
IVab	2	1	0	1	1	2	2
IVcd	2	1	1	0	1	2	2
V-VI	2	1	1	1	0	2	2
VIIa	3	2	2	2	2	0	1
VIIb	3	2	2	2	2	1	0

E	0	1	1	2	1	3
F	1	0	1	2	1	3
H	1	1	0	2	1	2
S	2	2	2	0	1	1
T	1	1	1	1	0	2
U	3	3	2	1	2	0

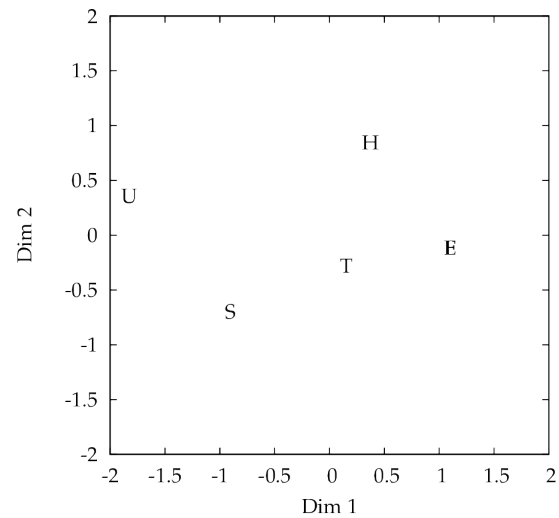
H&C, 1st two PCA dimensions



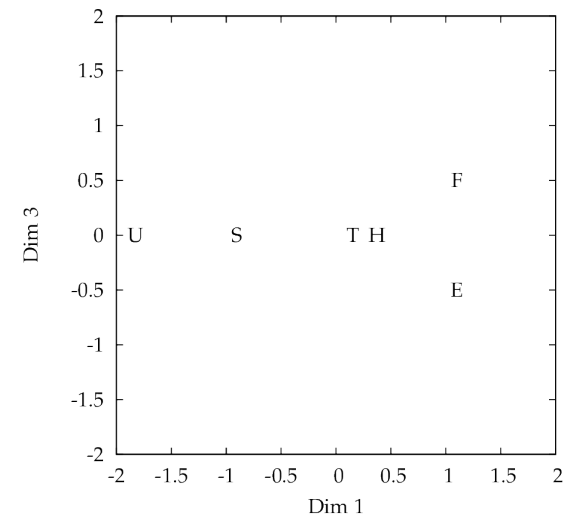
H&C, dimensions 1 & 3



MVAD, 1st two dimensions



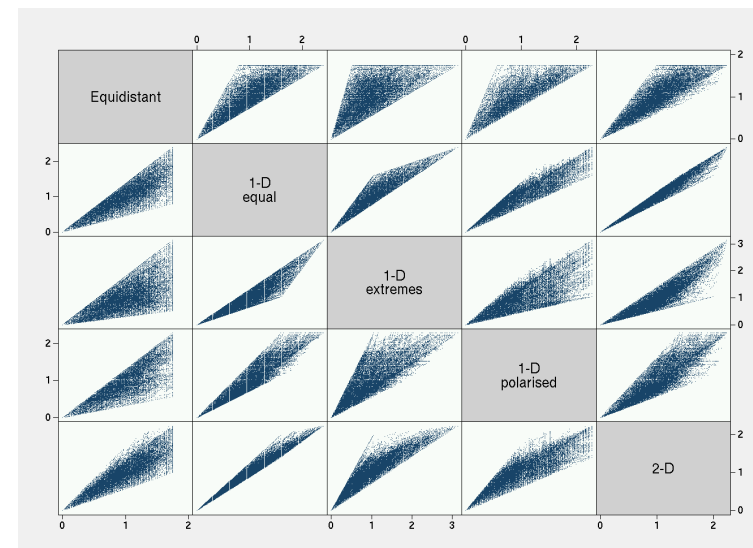
MVAD, dimensions 1 & 3



Structure passes through

- State space structure passes through to trajectory space structure
 - Distances between states clearly affect distances between trajectories containing high proportions of those states
 - If $d("A", "B") \ll d("A", "C")$ then $D("..AAAA..", "..BBB..")$ will tend to be less than $D("..AAAA..", "..CCC..")$
 - Differential distances promote alignment: AADDDAA and AAADDAA are more likely to be aligned to match the DD if $d("A", "D")$ is large
 - If the state distances are non-metric, the trajectory distances may also be non-metric (at least between trajectories consisting of near 100% one state)
 - Unidimensional states spaces will tend to be reflected strongly in 1st principle component of trajectory space

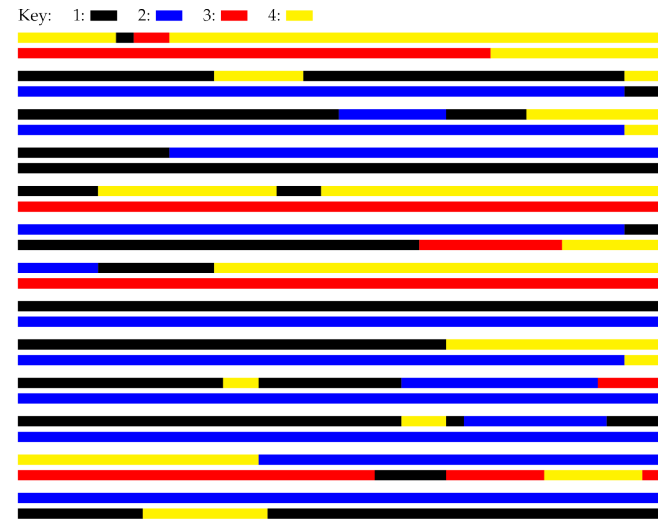
Comparing effects



Correlations

Equidistant	1.00				
1-D equal	0.85	1.00			
1-D extremes	0.66	0.93	1.00		
1-D polarised	0.83	0.94	0.81	1.00	
2-D	0.87	0.98	0.91	0.90	1.00

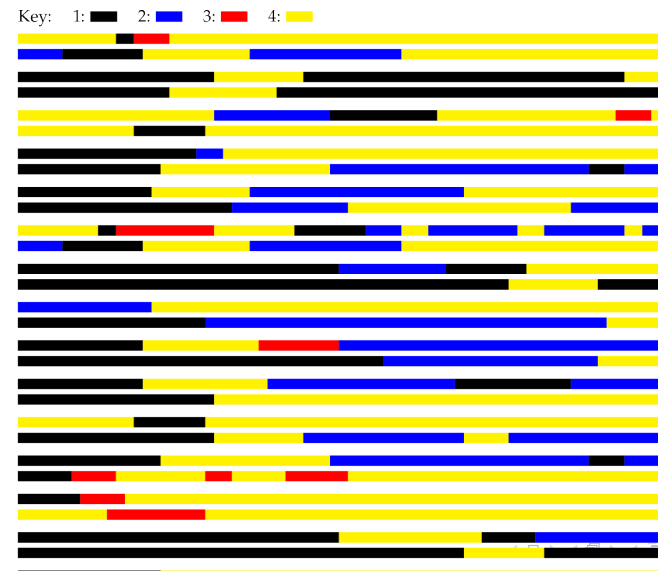
Equidistant relatively greater than 1-D



Equidistant relatively less than 1-D



Equidistant close to 1-D



Designing state spaces

- Be explicit about state spaces and what distances mean
- Think spatially
 - Choose high or low dimensions, but have your reasons
- Simplify state space as far as possible
 - Drop irrelevant distinctions
 - Drop longitudinal information: let the sequence encode the temporal information, make state space cross-sectional

Dropping temporal information

- e.g., Simplify marital status:

	Living alone	Living with partner
Legally married	Separated	Married
Not legally married	Single, never married, cohabitation, divorced	Cohabiting

- The sequence will distinguish adequately between the various "single" states
- Parity sequences: Women's annual fertility history
 - in parity terms: 000112333344444
 - in birth event terms: 000101100010000

Costing OM: a tractable problem

- Substitution costs make a big difference
 - but largely understandable in operation
 - and an asset – more meaningful state space, more meaningful trajectory space
- Think spatially! Use data and geometric models
- Simplify
- Let the sequence do the temporal work

SA and further analysis

- With pairwise distances or a cluster solution we can move on to conventional analysis:
 - Explain the clusters: who goes where?
 - Predict from the clusters: do they have consequences for the future?
- Approaches: tabular, ANOVA, regression, logit
- Using clusters, MDS dimensions or other summaries of the distances

Explaining cluster membership, MVAD data

```
. tab g8 funemp, chi
```

g8	0	1	Total
1	13.28	11.97	13.06
2	22.52	24.79	22.89
3	9.41	5.13	8.71
4	20.84	18.80	20.51
5	8.24	17.09	9.69
6	3.03	10.26	4.21
7	6.89	5.13	6.60
8	15.80	6.84	14.33
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

```
Pearson chi2(7) = 28.5978 Pr = 0.000
```

```
. tab g8 gcse5eq, chi
```

g8	0	1	Total
1	17.26	5.77	13.06
2	29.87	10.77	22.89
3	2.21	20.00	8.71
4	20.80	20.00	20.51
5	13.05	3.85	9.69
6	5.75	1.54	4.21
7	6.64	6.54	6.60
8	4.42	31.54	14.33
Total	452	260	712

```
Pearson chi2(7) = 209.0925 Pr = 0.000
```

Association between covariates and clustering

- Where we have outcome variables, we may want to see how well they are predicted by the cluster solution
- Here one question is whether the cluster solution has additional explanatory power over and above simple summaries such as cumulated duration
- Nested model test (pretend, for the example, that grammar is an outcome)

```
cumuldur state*, cd(cd) nstates(6)
```

```
logit grammar cd1-cd5
```

```
est store base
```

```
logit grammar cd1-cd5 i.g8
```

```
lrtest base
```

Beating cumulated duration

```
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs = 712
```

```
LR chi2(12) = 107.71
```

```
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

```
Pseudo R2 = 0.1598
```

```
Log likelihood = -283.04946
```

grammar	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
cd1	.0404702	.0259219	1.56	0.118	-.0103358 .0912761
cd2	.0064551	.0278439	0.23	0.817	-.0481178 .0610281
cd3	.0527723	.0262769	2.01	0.045	-.0012706 .104274
cd4	.0036833	.0259473	0.14	0.887	-.0471725 .0545391
cd5	.0260562	.0278449	0.94	0.349	-.0285188 .0806312
g8					
2	.803025	.562242	1.43	0.153	-.2989491 1.904999
3	1.263318	.9776174	1.29	0.196	-.6527766 3.179413
4	1.752938	.6169286	2.84	0.004	.5437803 2.962096
5	.9323015	.8809664	1.06	0.290	-.7943608 2.658964
6	2.599953	1.522719	1.71	0.088	-.3845203 5.584427
7	2.348554	.815007	2.88	0.004	.7511697 3.945939
8	3.368678	1.034953	3.25	0.001	1.340208 5.397148
_cons	-5.30223	1.884739	-2.81	0.005	-8.996251 -1.608209

```
Likelihood-ratio test
```

```
(Assumption: base nested in .)
```

```
LR chi2(7) = 21.03
```

```
Prob > chi2 = 0.0037
```

MDS and modelling

- It may make sense to model with the MDS dimensions

```
mdsmat oma, dim(3)
```

```
matrix dim=e(Y)
```

```
svmat dim
```

```
logit grammar cd1-cd5 dim1-dim3
```

```
lrtest base
```

MDS dimensions and model

```

Logistic regression                Number of obs =      712
                                   LR chi2(8)      =     95.84
                                   Prob > chi2     =     0.0000
                                   Pseudo R2       =     0.1422

```

grammar	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
cd1	.0361684	.10541	0.34	0.732	-.1704313 .2427681
cd2	.0529717	.1157715	0.46	0.647	-.1739364 .2798797
cd3	.0727049	.094217	0.77	0.440	-.111957 .2573669
cd4	.0083839	.0486104	0.17	0.863	-.0868908 .1036585
cd5	.0172631	.0781496	0.22	0.825	-.1359074 .1704336
dim1	-.9561052	2.407083	-0.40	0.691	-5.673902 3.761691
dim2	1.942324	.7237847	2.68	0.007	.5237325 3.360916
dim3	1.408145	1.796422	0.78	0.433	-2.112777 4.929068
_cons	-4.346376	6.378463	-0.68	0.496	-16.84793 8.155182

```
. lrtest base
```

```

Likelihood-ratio test                LR chi2(3) =      9.16
(Assumption: base nested in .)       Prob > chi2 =     0.0272

```

MDS correlated?

```

. corr cd* dim*
(obs=712)

```

	cd1	cd2	cd3	cd4	cd5	cd6
cd1	1.0000					
cd2	-0.3075	1.0000				
cd3	-0.6320	0.0022	1.0000			
cd4	-0.4384	-0.2480	0.5044	1.0000		
cd5	-0.0393	-0.2969	-0.3062	-0.2696	1.0000	
cd6	-0.2772	-0.1232	-0.2111	-0.1194	0.0408	1.0000
dim1	0.7224	0.2218	-0.3431	-0.4694	-0.0406	-0.7369
dim2	-0.0326	-0.3829	0.3578	0.7098	-0.0525	-0.4964
dim3	0.5810	-0.6630	-0.6685	-0.1359	0.3294	0.3453

Studer et al's discrepancy

- Studer et al. (2011) propose a method for treating distances matrices analogously to SS in regression and ANOVA
- The average distance to the centre of the whole matrix is the analogue of total sum of squares
- With a grouping variable, the distance to the centre for each groups is the residual sum of squares
- This allows a pseudo- R^2 and a pseudo-F test
- Permutation is used to approximate the sampling distribution of pseudo-F

Discrepancy and MVAD

```

use mvad

matrix md = (0, 1, 1, 2, 1, 3 \ ///
             1, 0, 1, 2, 1, 3 \ ///
             1, 1, 0, 2, 1, 2 \ ///
             2, 2, 2, 0, 1, 1 \ ///
             1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 2 \ ///
             3, 3, 2, 1, 2, 0)

matrix rownames md = E F H S T U
matrix colnames md = E F H S T U

set matsize 1000
oma state*, subs(md) indel(1.5) pwd(oma) length(72)
discrepancy funemp, dist(oma) idvar(id) niter(1000) dcg(d2c)

```

Discrepancy results

```
. discrepancy funemp, dist(oma) idvar(id) niter(100) dcg(d2c)
```

Discrepancy based R2 and F, 100 permutations for p-value

	pseudo R2	pseudo F	p-value
funemp	.007956	5.694094	.17

funemp	N(d2c)	min(d2c)	mean(d2c)	max(d2c)
0	595	.2215114	.463736	1.919831
1	117	.2757618	.5502117	1.518995

Alternatives to OM and Hamming

- OMA is the dominant but not the only approach
- It receives justified and unjustified criticism in terms of its fit to lifecourse data
- One axis of critique relates to costs: Dynamic Hamming sidesteps this
- Another relates to whether token strings are:
 - a good way to represent life-course processes (continuous time, discrete state space, infrequent transitions)
 - and whether operations on token-strings match sociological difference

Alternatives

- Hollister's LOM and my OMv attempt to fix OM by paying attention to the local context of operations (but fail: non-metric)
- TWED "warps time" and has more sensitivity to spell order
- Lesnard's Dynamic Hamming estimates substitution costs from the data and does no alignment
- Elzinga's duration-weighted combinatorial measures pay strict attention to spell order and duration
- See Halpin (2014b) for a discussion
- See Studer and Ritschard (2014) for a comprehensive review of distance measures

An aside: Metric spaces

- To treat a dissimilarity as a distance, it must be compatible with a "metric space"
- Everyday 3D Euclidean space is metric, but we can relax many of the characteristics of Euclidean space and still think in spatial terms, using e.g., cluster analysis and MDS
- Four conditions are required
 - $d(x, x) = 0$; identity
 - $d(x, y) \geq 0$; non-negativity
 - $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$; symmetry
 - $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$; the "triangle inequality"
- LOM and OMv do not satisfy the triangle inequality

Hollister's Localised OM

- Hollister argues that OM's elementary operations need to take into account the context: the adjacent states, at least
- Inserting a B between two Bs is cheaper than between an A and a C
- Operates very like OM, with substitution costs, but a modified approach to indels
- To insert element k between elements i and j the indel cost is:

$$\iota = \alpha \frac{\delta_{i,k} + \delta_{j,k}}{2} + \beta$$

where α and β are chosen by the analyst

LOM non-metric

Hollister's measure violates the triangle inequality for the following trio:

- BBBBAB, CCCACC and BBBACC

For a substitution cost of 1, α 0.5 and β 0.5 (i.e., $\iota = 0.5 \frac{\delta_{i,k} + \delta_{j,k}}{2} + 0.5$), the direct distance between sequences 1 and 2 is 6 units. However, the indirect distance passing through sequence 3 is 5.5 (2.5 plus 3):

Pair	Distance		
	LOM $\delta = 1, \alpha = \beta = 0.5$	OM $\iota = 1.0$ $\iota = 0.75$	
1, 2	6	6	5.5
1, 3	2.5	3	2.5
2, 3	3	3	3

Halpin's duration-adjusted OMv

- My approach had a very similar motivation: operations should be weighted less in big spells, more in short ones
- Scale indel and substitution costs according to the square-root of the spell length
- Also non-metric: sequences with long spells are closer to all other spells, without affecting distances between other spells

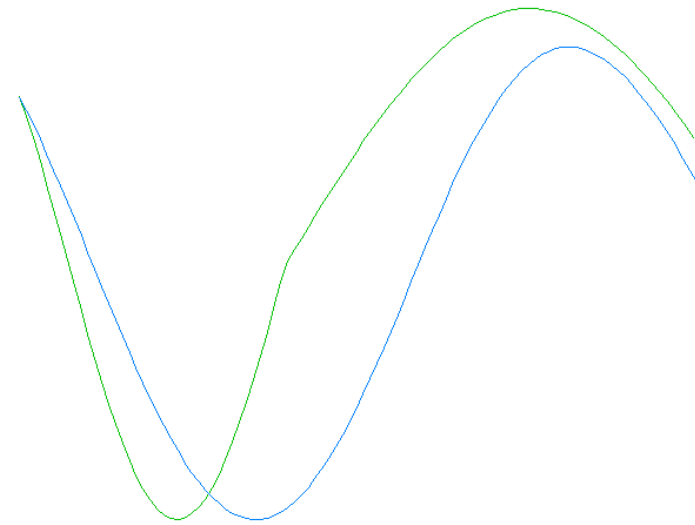
Warping time

- What of time-warping?
- Abbott and Hrycak (1990) use the term to suggest non-linear time scales
- OMv "warps time" by weighting it differently in different spells
- In turn informed by Sankoff and Kruskal (1983), *Time Warps, String Edits and Macromolecules*
- But time-warping refer to a specific set of algorithms

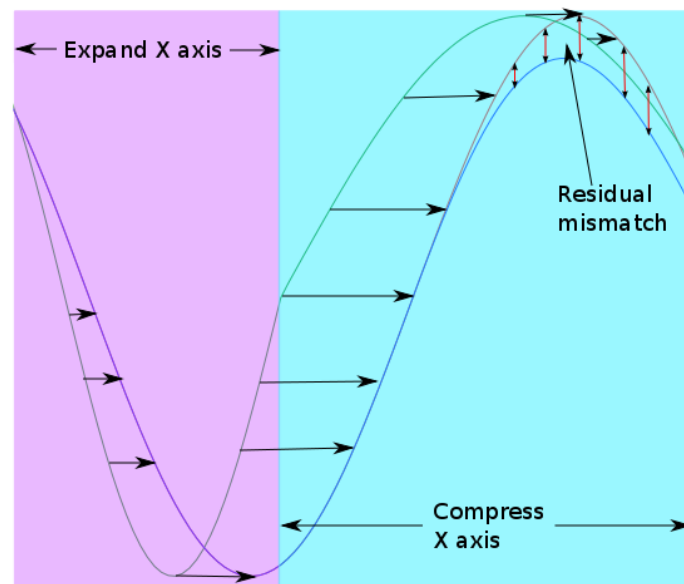
Time warping algorithms

- Formally, time warping is a family of algorithms that do “continuous time-series to time-series correction” while OM *et al* do “string to string correction” (Marteau, 2007)
- Focus on comparing pairs of continuous-time high-dimensional time-series in \mathbb{R}^n
- Operates by locally compressing or expanding the time scale of one trajectory to minimise the distance to the other
- Distance is usually Euclidean in \mathbb{R}^n or other simple distance

TWED: Matching 1D series



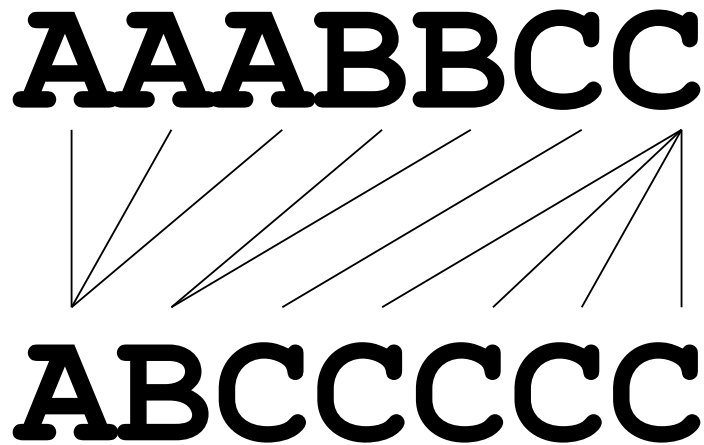
TWED: Compress and expand



TW algorithms

- TW used widely: was used for speech recognition, signature verification, other machine learning tasks
- Typically used to match a high-dimensional time-series to a “dictionary” of standard elements
- Conceptually it is a continuous time approach but implementations must be discrete – sampling or periodic summaries:
 - e.g., sound sampled at 41 kHz
 - rainfall summarised daily
 - employment history reported monthly
- Kruskal and Liberman (1983) show that the continuous time logic can be faithfully implemented with discretised series

Discrete time-warping



TW with stiffness penalty: TWED

- Violation of the triangle inequality is due to TW usually having no cost to expansion or compression, only to the residual point-by-point distance
- Marteau (2007, 2008) proposes a TW algorithm that has a “stiffness” penalty
- Satisfies the triangle inequality
- Can be programmed very similarly to OM (recursive algorithm)
- Stiffness penalty like but not like *indel* cost – squeezing/stretching, not inserting/deleting
- Point-to-point distance just like substitution

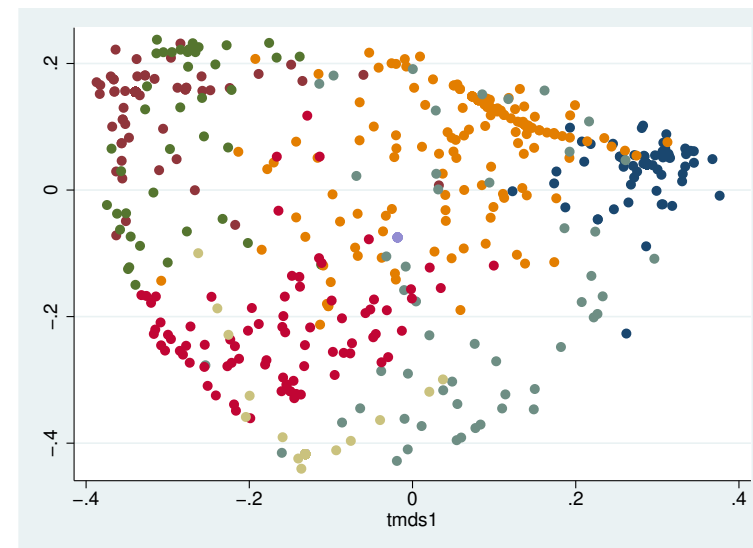
TWED: Recursive algorithm

TW distance, $\delta(A^p, B^q) =$

$$\min \begin{cases} \delta(A^{p-1}, B^q) + d_{LP}(a_p, a_{p-1}) + \gamma d_{LP}(t_{a_p}, t_{a_{p-1}}) + \lambda \\ \delta(A^{p-1}, B^{q-1}) + d_{LP}(a_p, b_q) + \gamma d_{LP}(t_{a_p}, t_{b_q}) \\ \delta(A^p, B^{q-1}) + d_{LP}(b_q, b_{q-1}) + \gamma d_{LP}(t_{b_q}, t_{b_{q-1}}) + \lambda \end{cases}$$

(Marteau, 2007)

MDS/Cluster with TWED



TWED attractive

- TWED has a completely different "narrative" from OM: warping time rather than editing token strings
- Nonetheless, gives results that are not radically different
- More noticeable differences for more complex sequences
- For high values of λ and γ , tends to yield Hamming distance
- For very low values of λ and γ , closer (but still not that close) to X/t
- Distribution in sequence space more like OM than X/t

Dynamic Hamming

- Dynamic Hamming takes a completely different slant: no alignment
- Similarity at the same time only, where similarity is defined by time-dependent transition patterns
 - While changes are common differences matter less
 - While change is rare, differences are more marked
- Naturally appropriate for "clock" time, e.g., daily, weekly, annual patterns
- Less obviously appropriate for "developmental" time, where a common feature is people taking the same route at different speeds
- Lesnard (2006); Lesnard and de Saint Pol (2009); Lesnard (2010), implemented by him (seqcomp), in Traminer and SADI

Combinatorial approaches

- Combinatorial methods are a completely different approach to sequence comparison
- Proposed by Elzinga (2003, 2005)
- Compare sequences in terms of common "subsequences" rather than string-edits

Counting sequences

- The sequence ABC has as subsequences:
 - the null (empty) string
 - A, B and C
 - AB, AC and BC
 - and ABC itself
- A sequence of length l has 2^l subsequences
- If elements are repeated not all subsequences are distinct

Combinatorial measures

- Elzinga has proposed a number of measures that count subsequences
 - Longest common subsequence
 - Number of common subsequences
 - Number of matching subsequences
- A completely different logic, combinatorial rather than string-editing: "the same states in the same order"
- One particularly attractive approach: number of matching spell-subsequences weighted by duration (I refer to it as "X/t")

Code to run all the measures

```

use bsseq

set matsize 1000
matrix sm = (0,1,2,3\1,0,1,2\2,1,0,1\3,2,1,0)
matrix fl = (0,1,1,1\1,0,1,1\1,1,0,1\1,1,1,0)

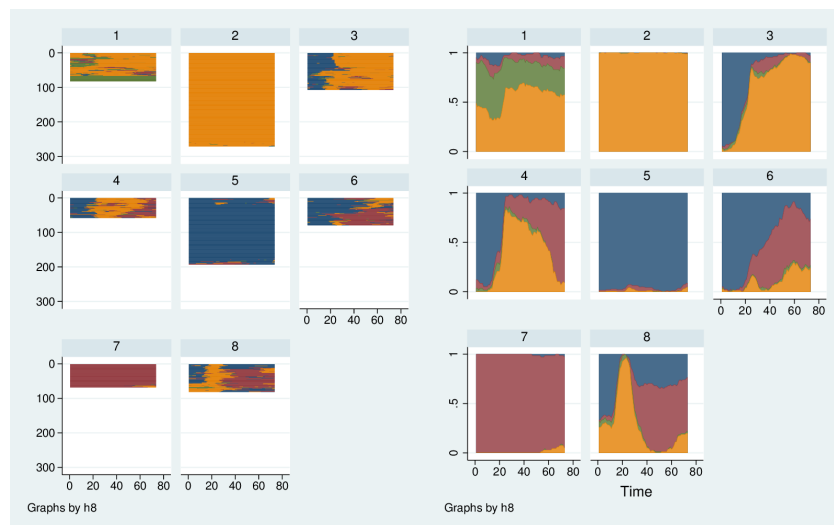
hamming    state1-state72, subs(sm) pwd(ham)
oma        state1-state72, subs(sm) indel(1.5) pwd(om) len(72)
twed       state1-state72, subs(sm) nu(0.5) lambda(0.5) pwd(twd) len(72)

hamming    state1-state72, subs(fl) pwd(haf)
oma        state1-state72, subs(fl) indel(0.5) pwd(of) len(72)
twed       state1-state72, subs(fl) nu(0.5) lambda(0.5) pwd(twf) len(72)
dynhamming state1-state72, pwd(dyn)

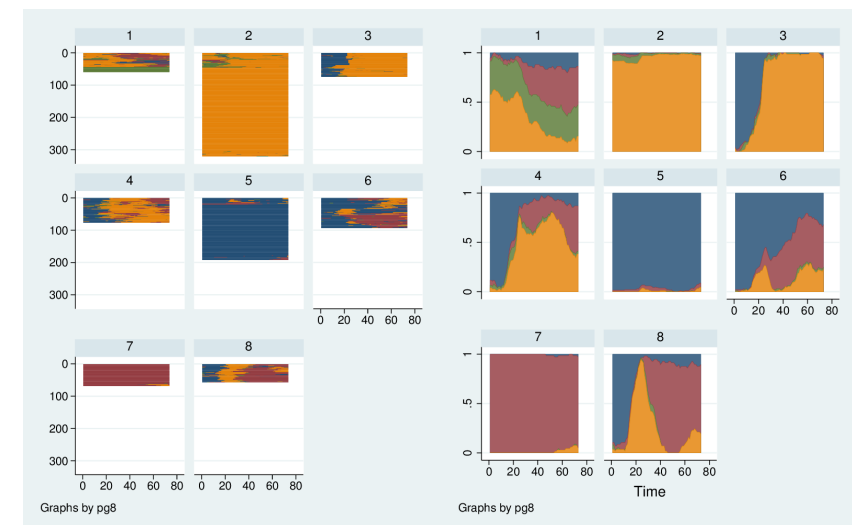
preserve
combinprep, state(state) length(1) nspells(nsp) idvar(pid)
combinadd state1-l'r(maxspells)', pws(xtd) nsp(nsp) nstates('r(nels)') rtype(d)
restore

```

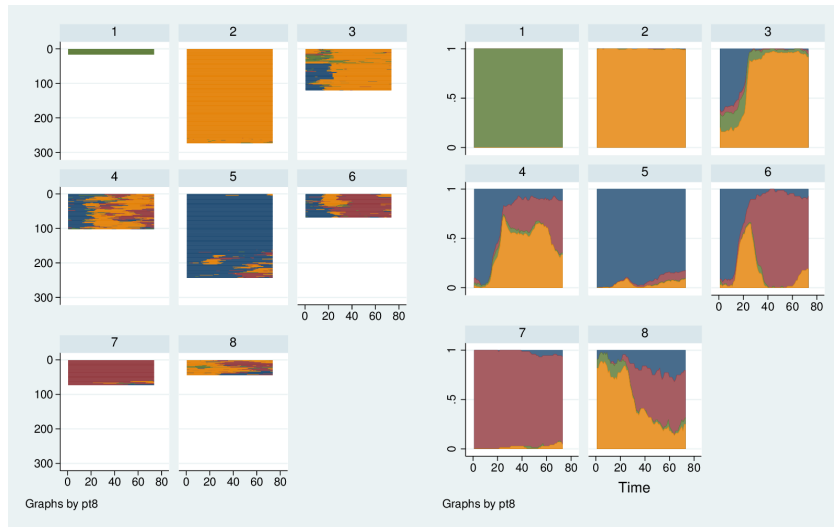
Hamming, linear matrix



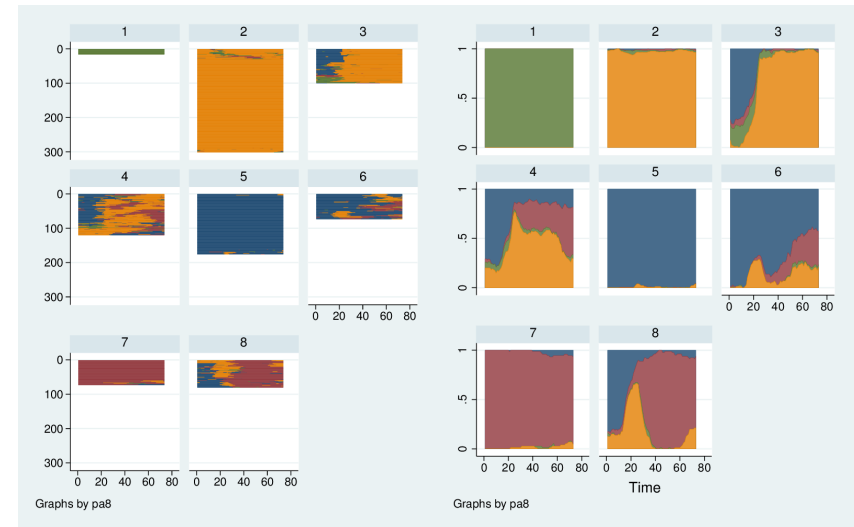
OM, linear matrix



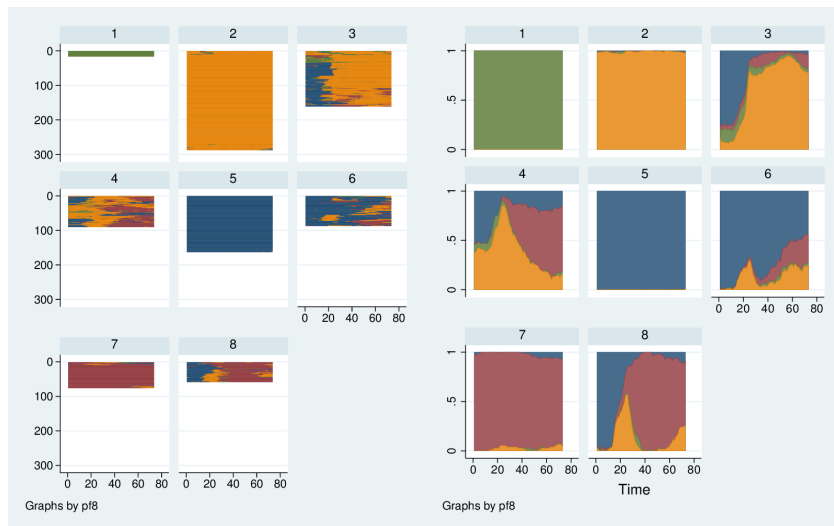
TWED, linear matrix



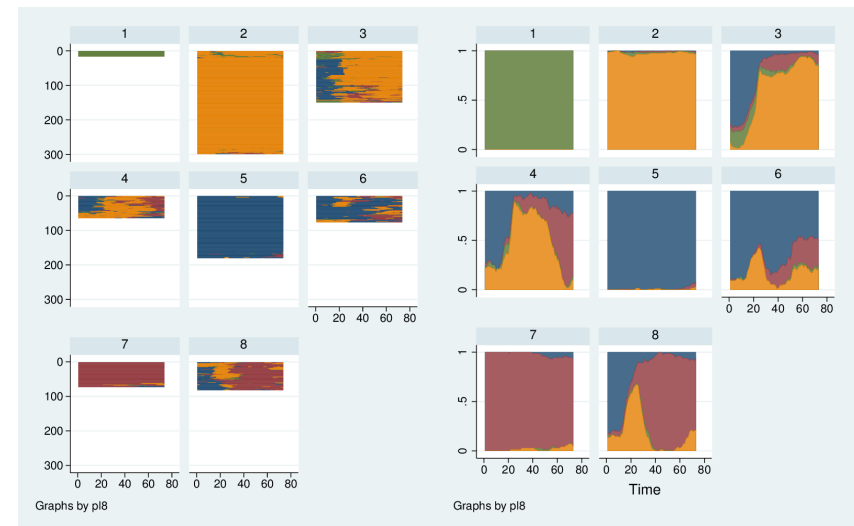
Hamming, flat matrix



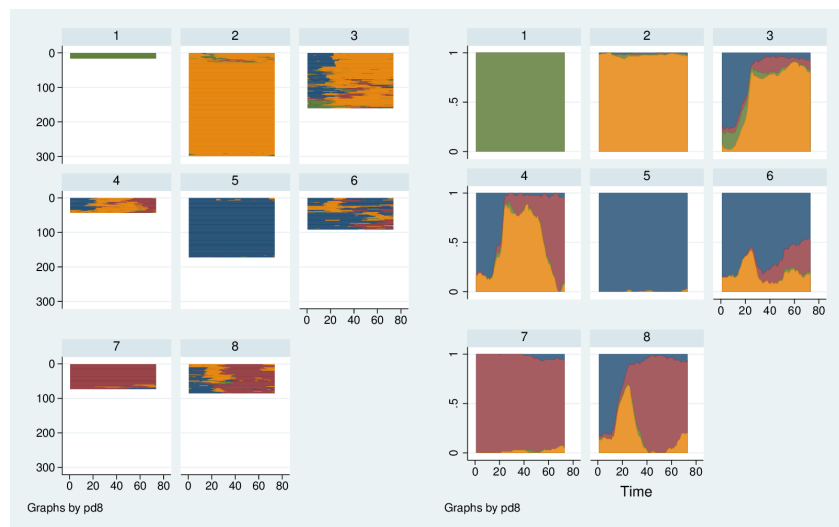
OM, flat matrix



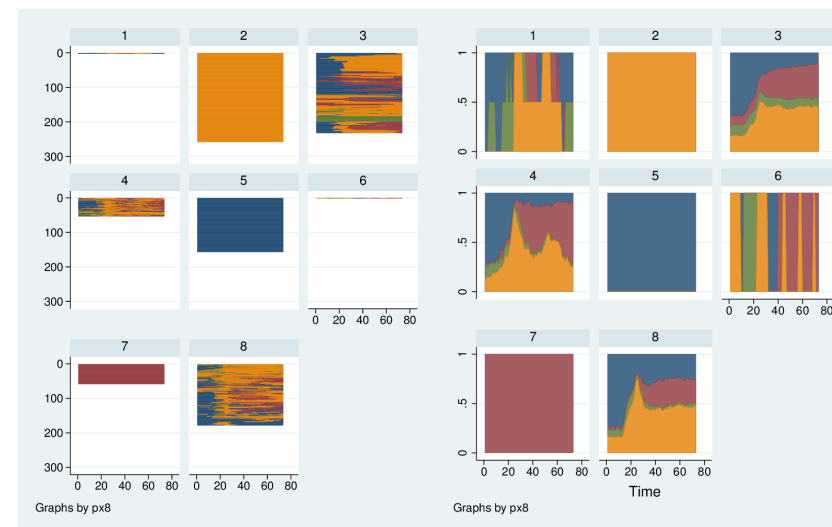
TWED, flat matrix



Dynamic Hamming



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 X/t 

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Multiple domains

- Lifecourse analysis recognises the interrelatedness of domains
- Somewhat hard to handle in many approaches: a potential strength of SA?
- In practice, not very well developed; most research on single domains
- Some work (Dijkstra and Taris (1995), Pollock (2007), Gauthier et al. (2010))

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Combined distance versus combining distances

- How to proceed?
- Conduct parallel analyses and combine results?
- Combine domains into a single variable?
- The former is easy but will be less sensitive to the synchronisation of domains
- The latter involves a large state space and problem in defining distances
- However, better sensitivity to cross-domain features makes it attractive

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Combine by cross-tabulation

- The simplest approach is to create a new state space that is the cross-tabulation of the two (or more) domains
- This yields a large number of states, one for each combination
- How then to determine costs?

Determining costs

- Simplest strategy is to sum across the domains
- In short, $d_{ik,jl}^{AB} = d_{ij}^A + d_{kl}^B$
- There may be justification for imposing other patterns, for instance,
 - imposing a ceiling
 - changing d^A for certain values in domain B
 - weighting the domains differentially
- Note that with two different substitution matrices it can be difficult to weight equally
 - equalise by max substitution cost?
 - equalise by average substitution cost?
 - equalise by average substitution cost weighted by occurrence in the data?

Implementation

- We take a simple case (four parity levels and five employment statuses)
- First step is to create the interaction or crosstabulation of the states

```
// Reshape long to work on all months simultaneously
reshape long parx emp, i(pid) j(month)

// Create a variable that is the interaction of the two
gen cross = emp+(parx-1)*5

// Verify the state interaction variable
tab cross
table parx emp, c(mean cross)

// Back to wide, fix the variable order
reshape wide parx emp cross, i(pid) j(month)
order pid parx* emp* cross*
```

Create the substitution cost matrix

- We have two substitution cost matrices, 4x4 and 5x5:

```
matrix spar = (0,1,2,3\ ///      matrix semp = (0,1,2,3,3\ ///
              1,0,1,2\ ///          1,0,1,2,2\ ///
              2,1,0,1\ ///          2,1,0,1,1\ ///
              3,2,1,0) ///          3,2,1,0,1\ ///
                                   3,2,1,1,0)
```

- Both have a max of 3, otherwise perhaps divide each by its max

Combine into 20x20

```
// Use Mata to combine the two matrices
mata:
spar = st_matrix("spar")
semp = st_matrix("semp")

// each element becomes a 5x5 block
sparx = spar # J(1,5,1) # J(5,1,1)

// replicate the 5x5 matrix 4x4 times
sempx = semp
for (i=2; i<=4; i++) {
    sempx = sempx,semp
}
sempxy = sempx
for (i=2; i<=4; i++) {
    sempxy = sempxy\sempx
}

// The combined matrix is the element-wise sum; return it from Mata to Stata
st_matrix("mcsa", sempxy :+ sparx)
end
```

The combined matrix

```
symmetric mcsa[20,20]
    c1 c2 c3 c4 c5 c6 c7 c8 c9c10c11c12c13c14c15c16c17c18c19c20
r1  0
r2  1  0
r3  2  1  0
r4  3  2  1  0
r5  3  2  1  1  0
r6  1  2  3  4  4  0
r7  2  1  2  3  3  1  0
r8  3  2  1  2  2  2  1  0
r9  4  3  2  1  2  3  2  1  0
r10 4  3  2  2  1  3  2  1  1  0
r11 2  3  4  5  5  1  2  3  4  4  0
r12 3  2  3  4  4  2  1  2  3  3  1  0
r13 4  3  2  3  3  3  2  1  2  2  2  1  0
r14 5  4  3  2  3  4  3  2  1  2  3  2  1  0
r15 5  4  3  3  2  4  3  2  2  1  3  2  1  1  0
r16 3  4  5  6  6  2  3  4  5  5  1  2  3  4  4  0
r17 4  3  4  5  5  3  2  3  4  4  2  1  2  3  3  1  0
r18 5  4  3  4  4  4  3  2  3  3  3  2  1  2  2  2  1  0
r19 6  5  4  3  4  5  4  3  2  3  4  3  2  1  2  3  2  1  0
r20 6  5  4  4  3  5  4  3  3  2  4  3  2  2  1  3  2  1  1  0  0
```

Dyadic SA

- SA typically uses all-pair-wise distances, or distance to special cases
- Dyadic SA is also useful: distance between a specific pair
 - Couple time-diaries
 - Couple labour market histories
 - Mother–daughter fertility histories, etc.

Research questions

- Allows testing hypotheses about dyadic similarity
 - Are couples' time-use patterns or life-course histories aligned
 - Are fertility patterns inherited?
 - Under what conditions are dyadic distances smaller or larger?
 - How do couples arrange joint lifecourses?

Similarity and difference

- Couples may coordinate their lives under very different gender constraints
- Fertility patterns may be similar within the constraints of different cohort patterns of fertility
- The relationship between sequences may not be one of replication
 - some daughters may completely reject their mother's fertility pattern

Literature

- Off-scheduling (Lesnard, 2008) Dyadic in concept but actually creates combined sequences
- Robette et al. (2015): Mother–daughter labour market careers
- Fasang and Raab (2014): Intergenerational fertility; notes that focus on similarity ignores heterogeneity
- Raab et al. (2014): Jun 13 2015 15:18:18 Sibling dyads, fertility

Practical issues

- We can calculate dyadic distances with standard software
- For efficiency it might better to just calculate dyads' distances
- But the cost of calculating all pairs is relatively small, and offers an advantage:
 - Compare dyadic distances with distances to all others

Strategy: Begin with dyad-ordered data

Type	Dyad	1	1	2	2	3	3	4	4
		M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D
M	1	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
D	1	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
M	2	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
D	2	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
M	3	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58
D	3	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68
M	4	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78
D	4	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88

Sort by types

	Dyad	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Type		D	D	D	D	M	M	M	M
D	1	22	24	26	28	21	23	25	27
D	2	42	44	46	48	41	43	45	47
D	3	62	64	66	68	61	63	65	67
D	4	82	84	86	88	81	83	85	87
M	1	12	14	16	18	11	13	15	17
M	2	32	34	36	38	31	33	35	37
M	3	52	54	56	58	51	53	55	57
M	4	72	74	76	78	71	73	75	77

Submatrices

- Two submatrices, with distances from each mother to each daughter (and transpose)
- Distance from mother to her own daughter on diagonal (and transpose)
- Use distance from mother to all daughters to assess whether distance to own daughter is unusual

Submatrices

	Pair	1	2	3	4
Type		M	M	M	M
D	1	21	23	25	27
D	2	41	43	45	47
D	3	61	63	65	67
D	4	81	83	85	87

	Pair	1	2	3	4
Type		D	D	D	D
M	1	12	14	16	18
M	2	32	34	36	38
M	3	52	54	56	58
M	4	72	74	76	78

Extract diagonals and other information

- The main info is on the diagonals: the dyad distances (repeated across the two submatrices since distance is symmetric)
- Other summaries are also interesting
 - mean distance of each daughter to all mothers (and vice versa)
 - variance, standard deviation of this distance
 - z-score of dyad distance relative to all distances
 - rank of dyad distance compared with all distances

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