

# **IE through randomization: introduction and strategies**

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# Challenges in attributing impact

- Impact evaluation is important for resource allocation & policy-making
- But attributing impact can be challenging
  - For example, observation of drop in HIV incidence may be unrelated to a prevention program; could have occurred for a number of other reasons
- How a program is implemented has implications for what we can learn
  - Randomized design is arguably the best way to learn
- Goal here is to present various options

# Outline

- Issues that arise in non-randomized evaluation
  - Challenge of finding counterfactual scenario; selection bias
- How can we use randomization to evaluate health programs?
  - Five strategies to consider
- Challenges and issues

# **NON-RANDOMIZED EVALUATION: KEY ISSUES**

# Overarching objective of impact evaluation (IE)

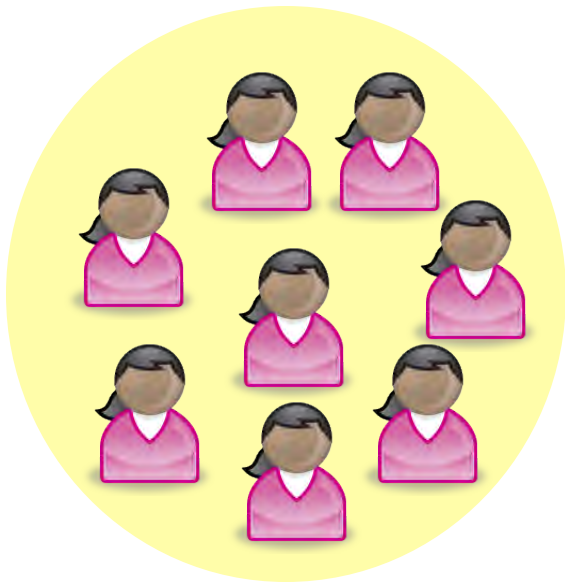
- To identify **causal effect** of intervention(s)
- **Counterfactual**: Need to find out what would have happened without intervention(s)
  - Cannot observe the same person or community with and without the program at the same point of time
- Simple comparisons of intervention and non-intervention groups can be problematic

# Selection bias

- Selection bias can be a major issue in evaluations
  - BCC started at specific times/places for certain reasons
  - Participants may self-select into HIV testing
- Reason for self-selection may be correlated with outcome
  - Possible to statistically “control” for observed factors
  - But harder to control for unobserved factors
- Estimated impact of intervention may be biased

# What we can observe...

## Population



HIV-negative women aged 14-25 years

Matched for:

- socio-economic status
- education level
- ethnicity
- self-reported number of sex partners
- marital status
- other health status

# What we may not observe...

## Population



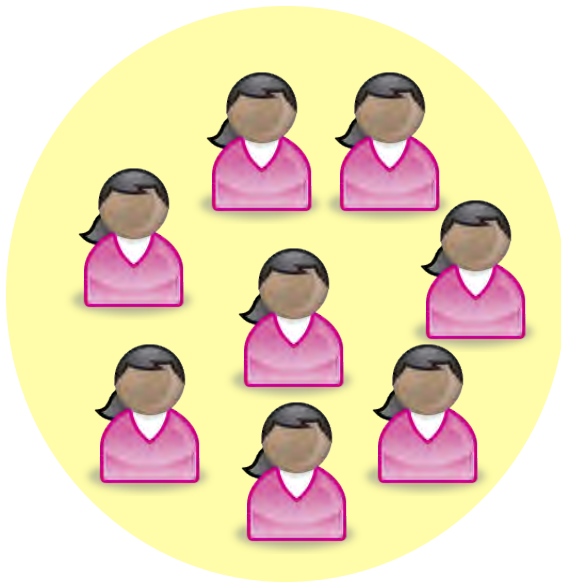
Characteristics such as:

- Risk-related attitudes
- Decision-making power in household
- Other programs/interventions available to them

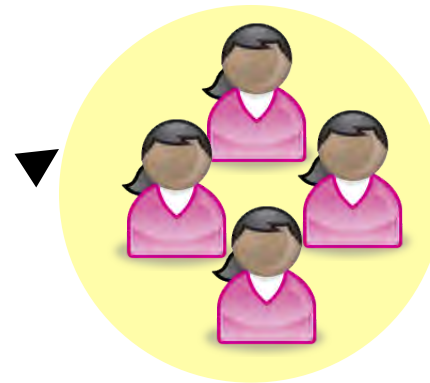


# We can compare women with similar observables

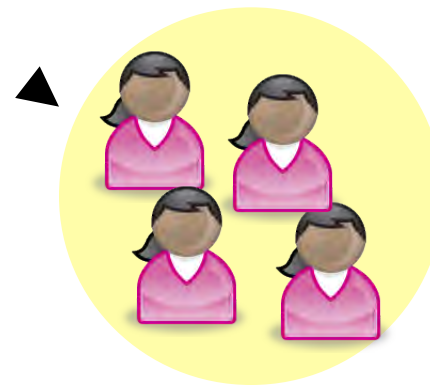
## Population



## Evaluation



Received  
intervention



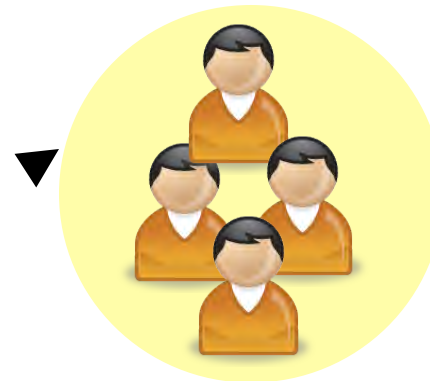
No  
intervention

# But unobservables may vary between the two groups

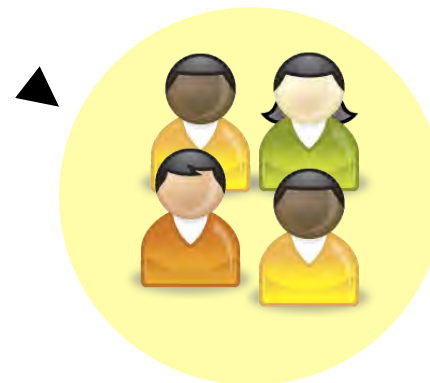
Population



Evaluation



Received  
intervention



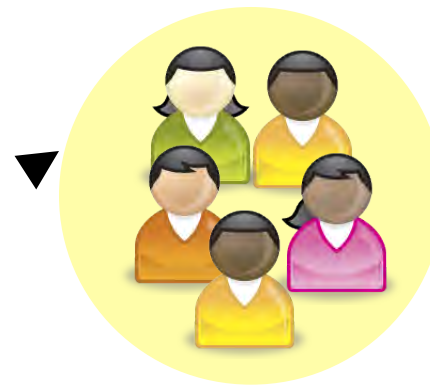
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intervention

# With randomization, we can ensure that both groups are similar

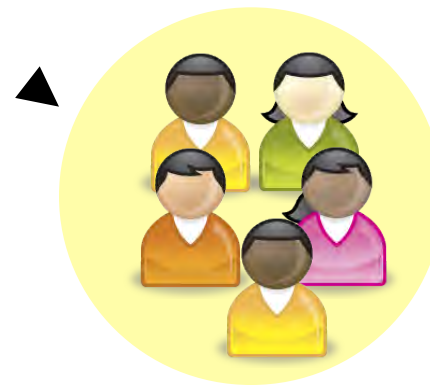
## Population



## Evaluation



Received  
intervention



No  
intervention

# Using randomization to develop proper counterfactual

- When done properly, randomization can provide comparison group that serves as valid counterfactual

# Randomized evaluation designs

**What unit and method of randomization is best?**

- **Simple randomization – individual or cluster-level**
- **Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in**
- **Selective promotion/encouragement**
- **Dose-response**
- **Multiple treatments**

# **1. SIMPLE RANDOMIZATION (LOTTERIES)**

# Simple randomization/lottery

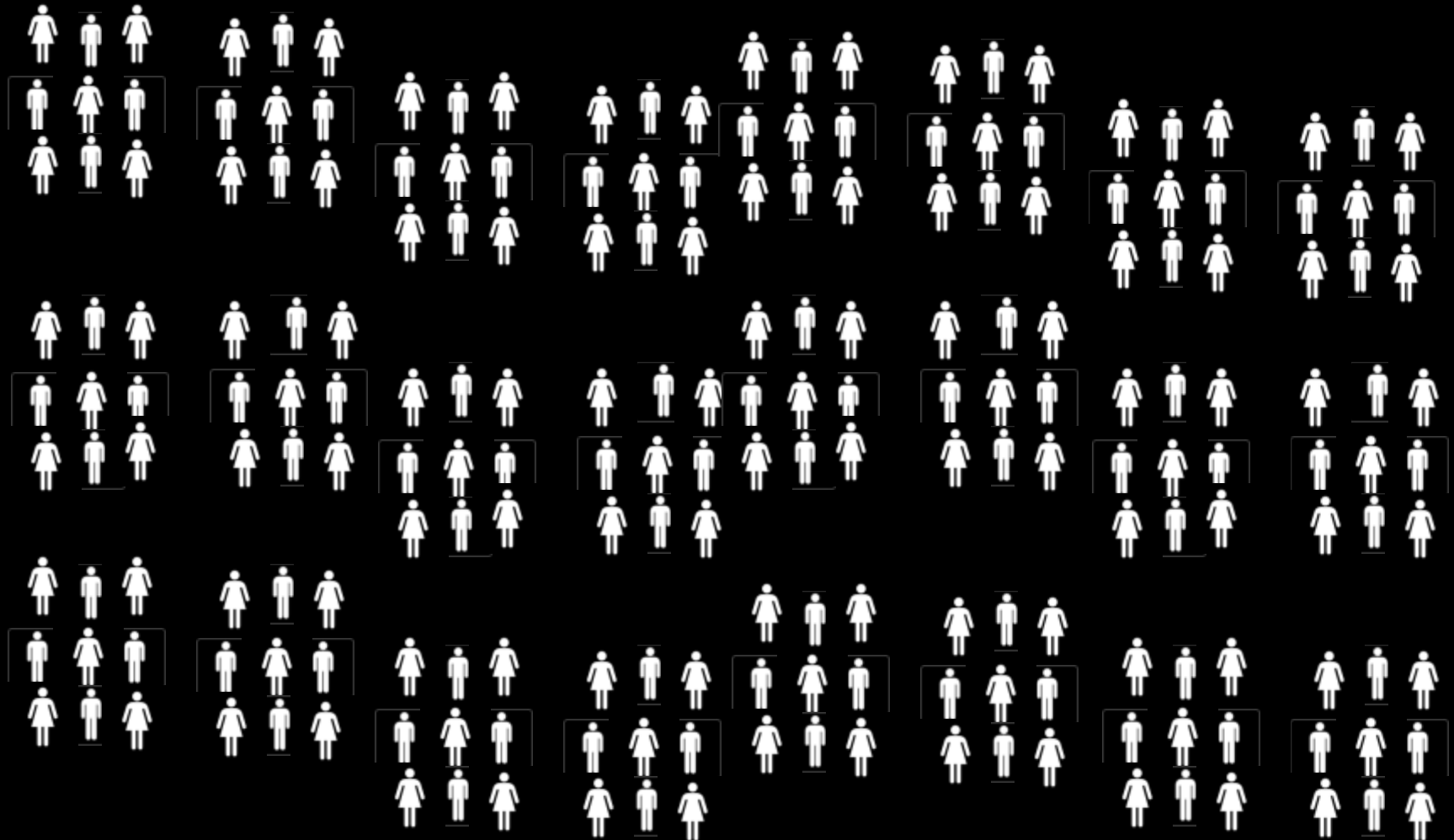
- Arguably, this is the most well known type of randomization design
- Individual-level randomization common in clinical trials to determine efficacy of new medication
- Advantages
  - Lotteries are simple, common and transparent
  - Randomly chosen from applicant pool or eligible list
  - Participants know the “winners” and “losers”
  - Simple lottery is useful when there is no a priori reason to discriminate
  - Often perceived as fair

# Unit of randomization: options

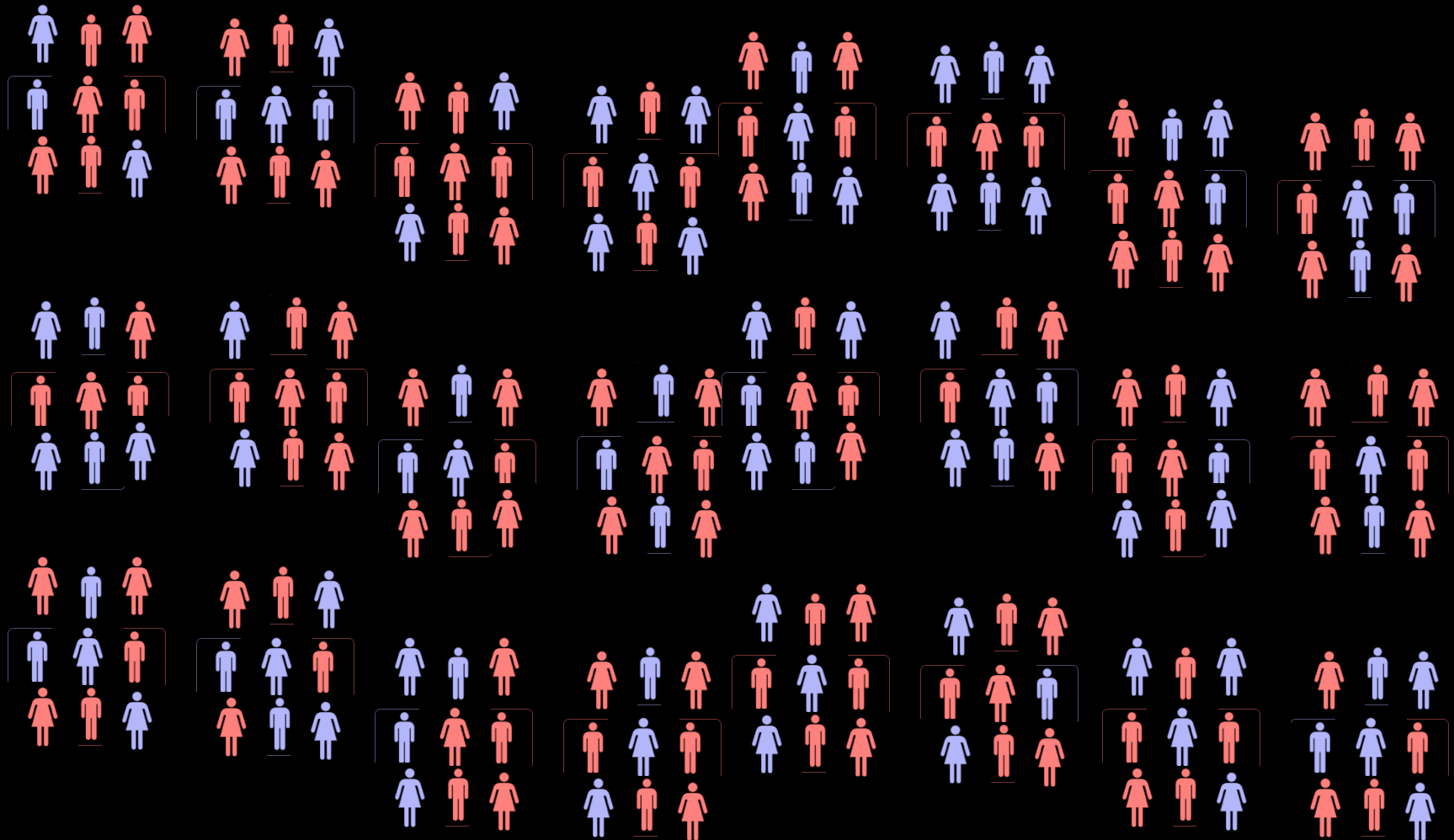
- One needs to decide the level at which randomization will take place
  - Randomizing at individual level
  - Randomizing at group level (“Cluster Randomized Trial”)
- Which level to randomize?
  - What unit does the program target for treatment?
  - What is the unit of analysis?



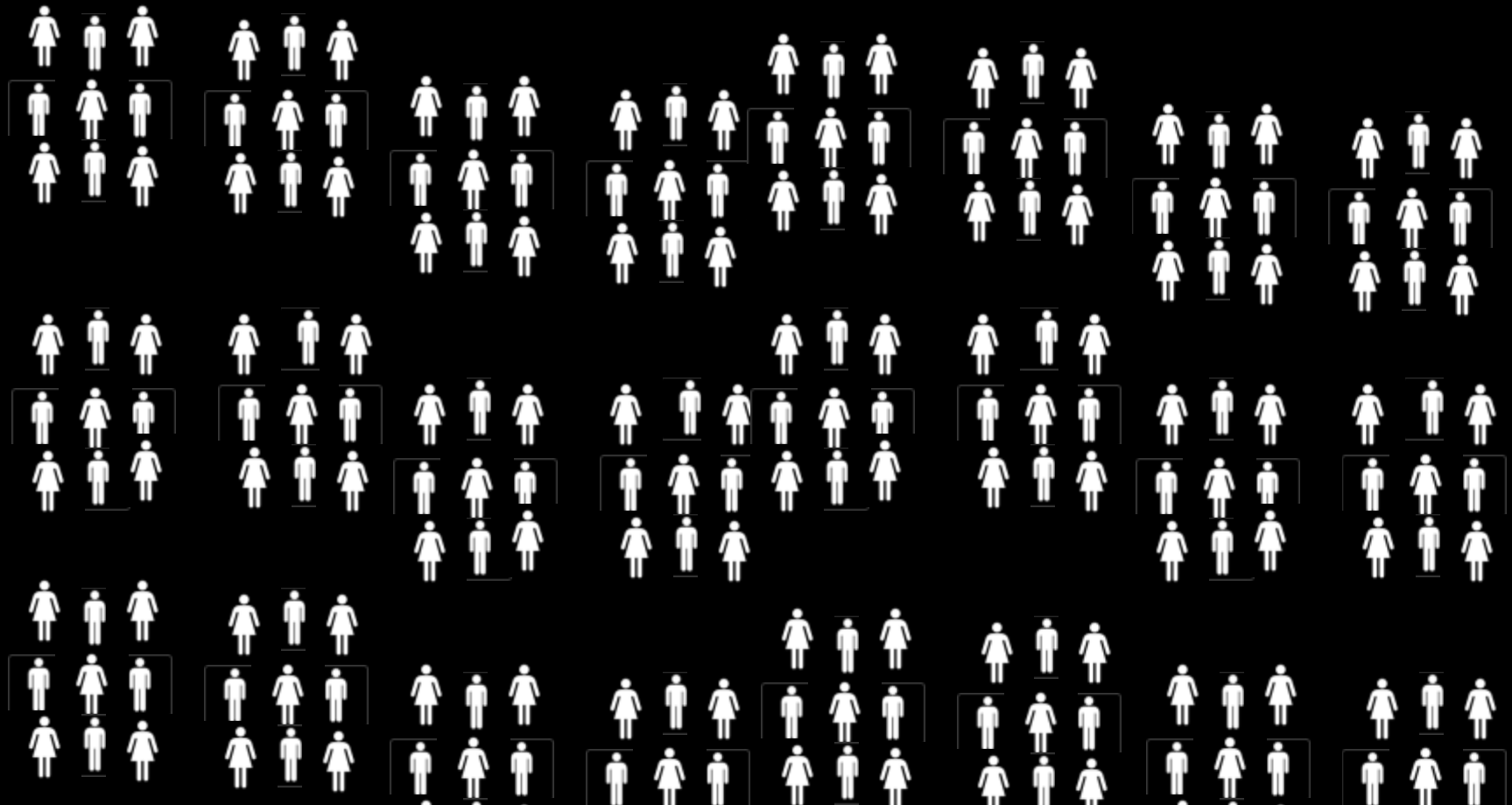
# Unit of Randomization: Individual?



# Unit of Randomization: Individual?

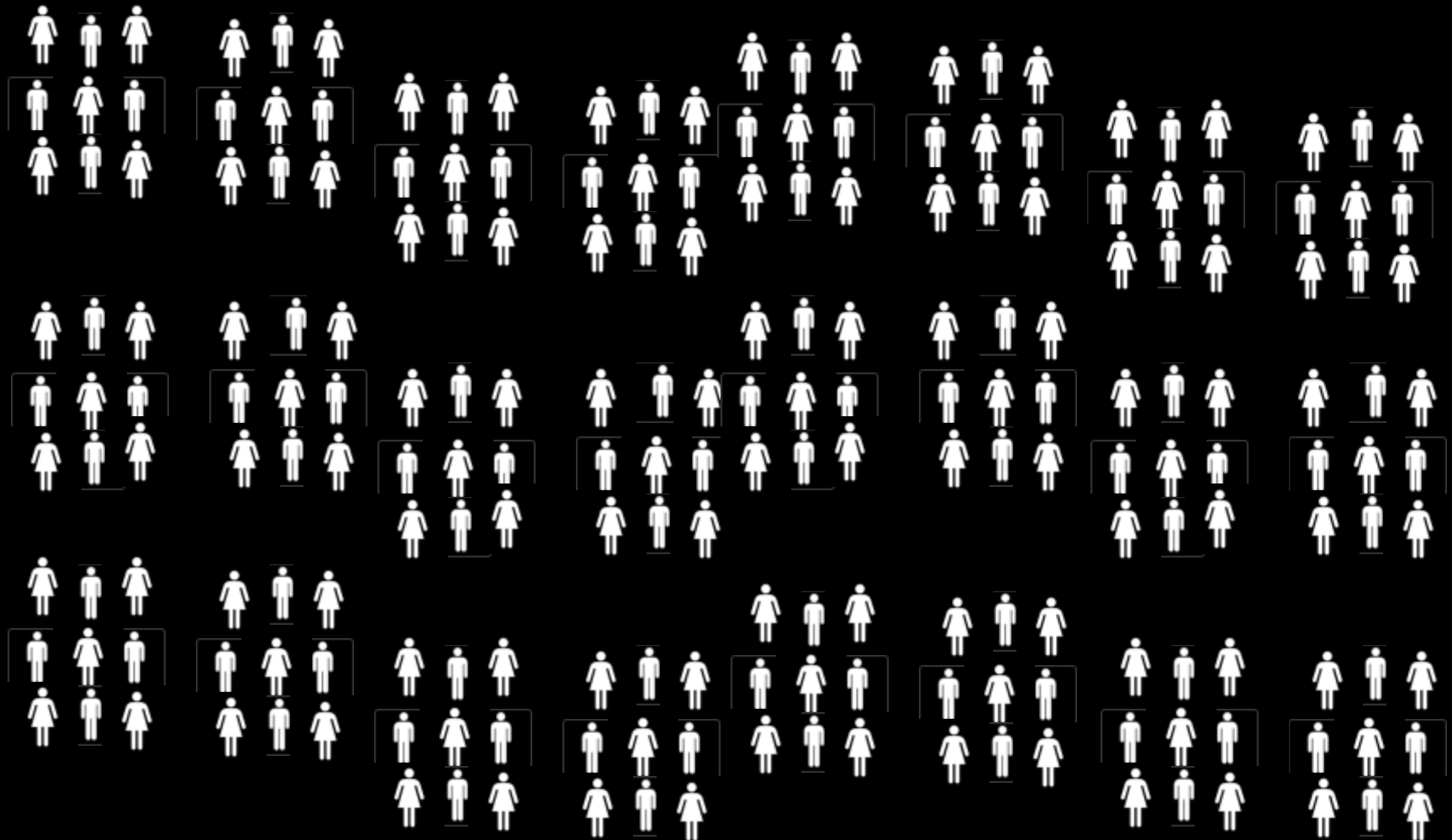


# Unit of Randomization: Clusters?

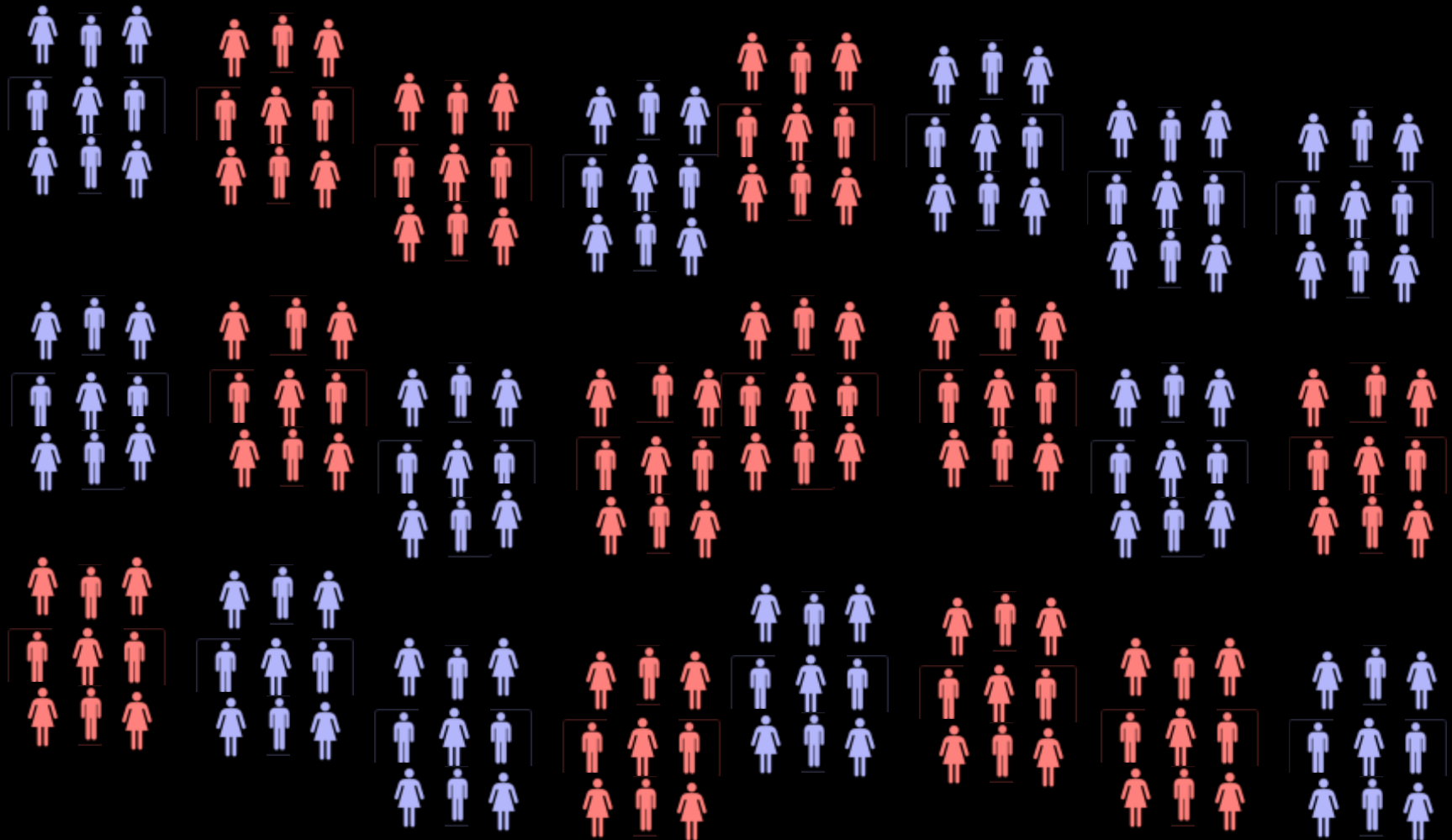


“Groups of individuals”: Cluster Randomized Trial

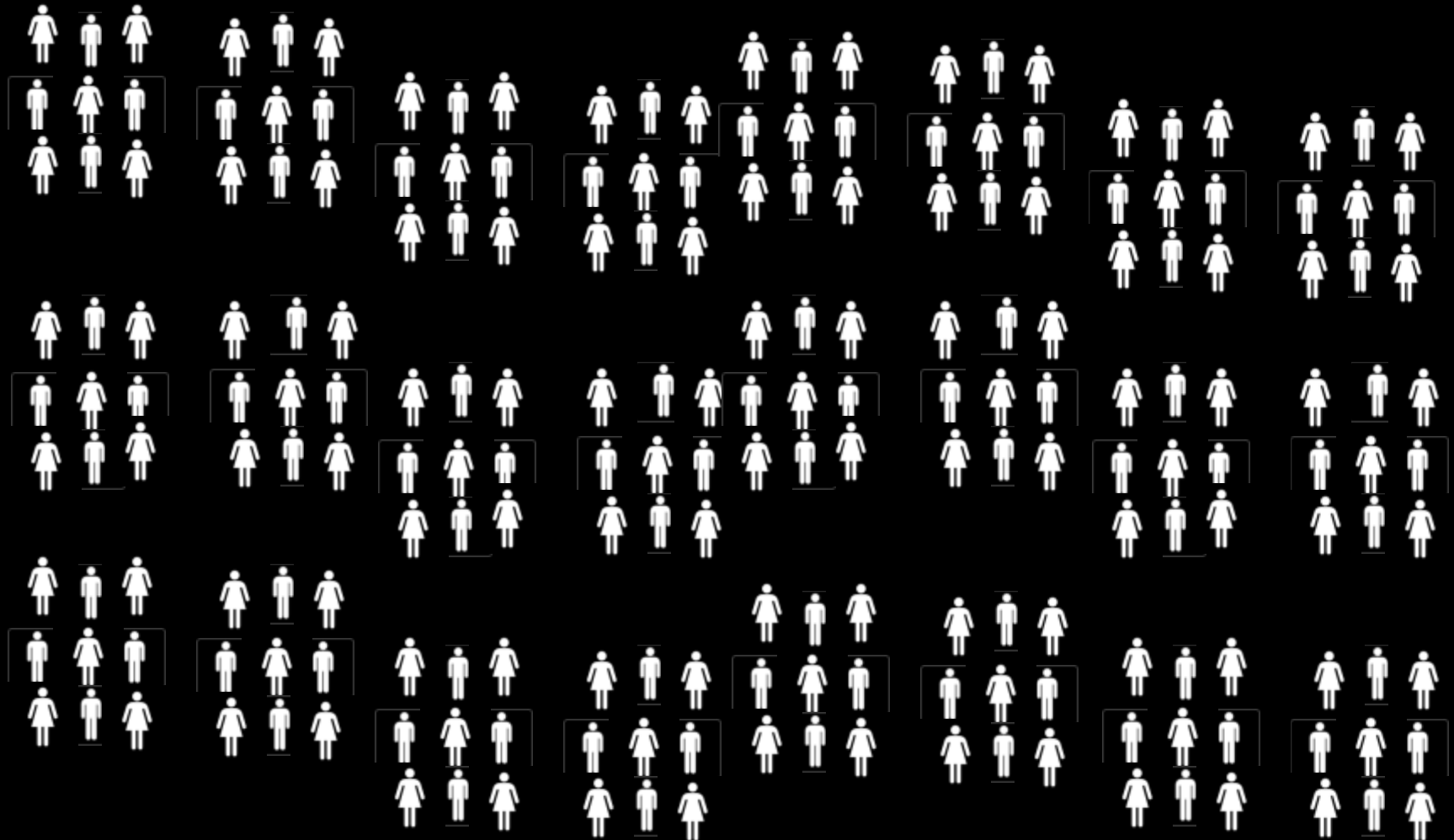
# Unit of Randomization: Facility?



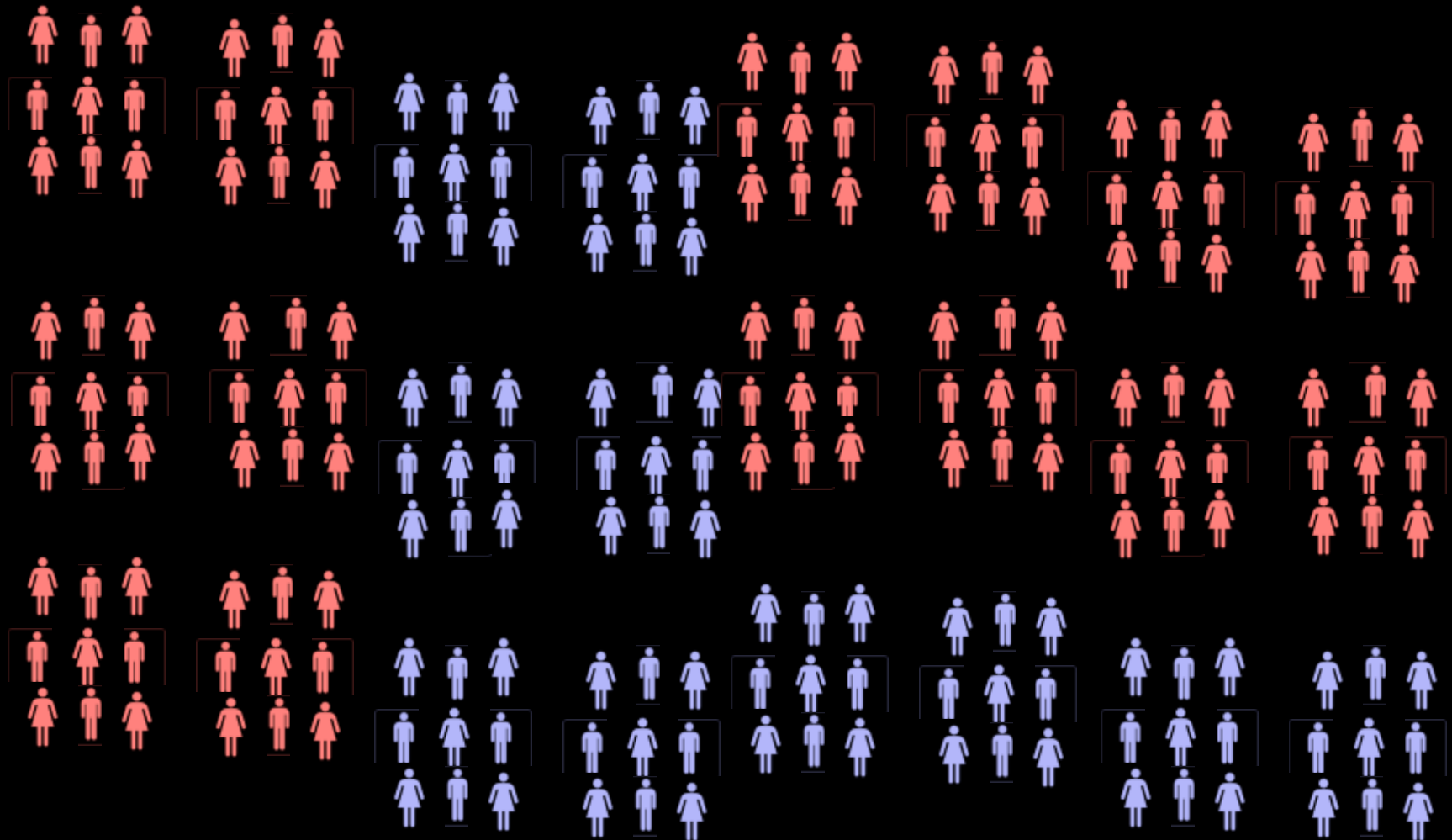
# Unit of Randomization: Facility?



# Unit of Randomization: District?



# Unit of Randomization: District?



# How to choose level of randomization

- Nature of the treatment/intervention
  - How is the intervention administered?
  - What is the catchment area of each “unit of intervention”
  - How wide is the potential impact?
- Power requirements
- Generally, best to randomize at the level at which the treatment is administered



# When to choose individual/cluster randomization

- Most programs have limited resources
- More eligible recipients than resources will allow services for
- Learning rationale can also strengthen case for method that uses lotteries
  - Especially true if trying to decide whether to scale-up intervention

# Cluster randomization

- Unit of randomization and unit of outcome measurement may differ
  - Evaluation study may measure outcomes for a sample of individuals within the group
- Effective sample size is number of clusters, not (just) number of individuals measured

## **2. STEPPED WEDGE DESIGN**

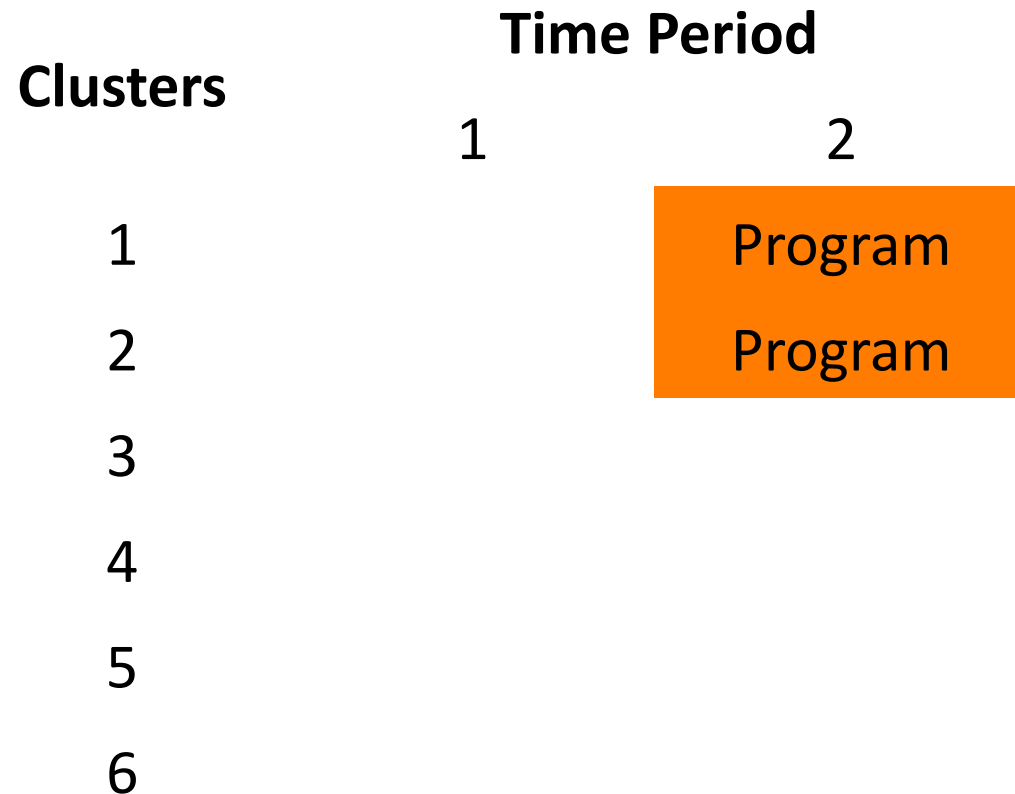
# Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in

- What if a decision has been made to not withhold intervention from anyone?
- Often, a scale-up decision has been made but financial/logistical constraints limit ability to introduce program everywhere
- Randomized evaluation may still be possible
- Order of program roll-out is determined randomly
- Eventually, all communities receive program

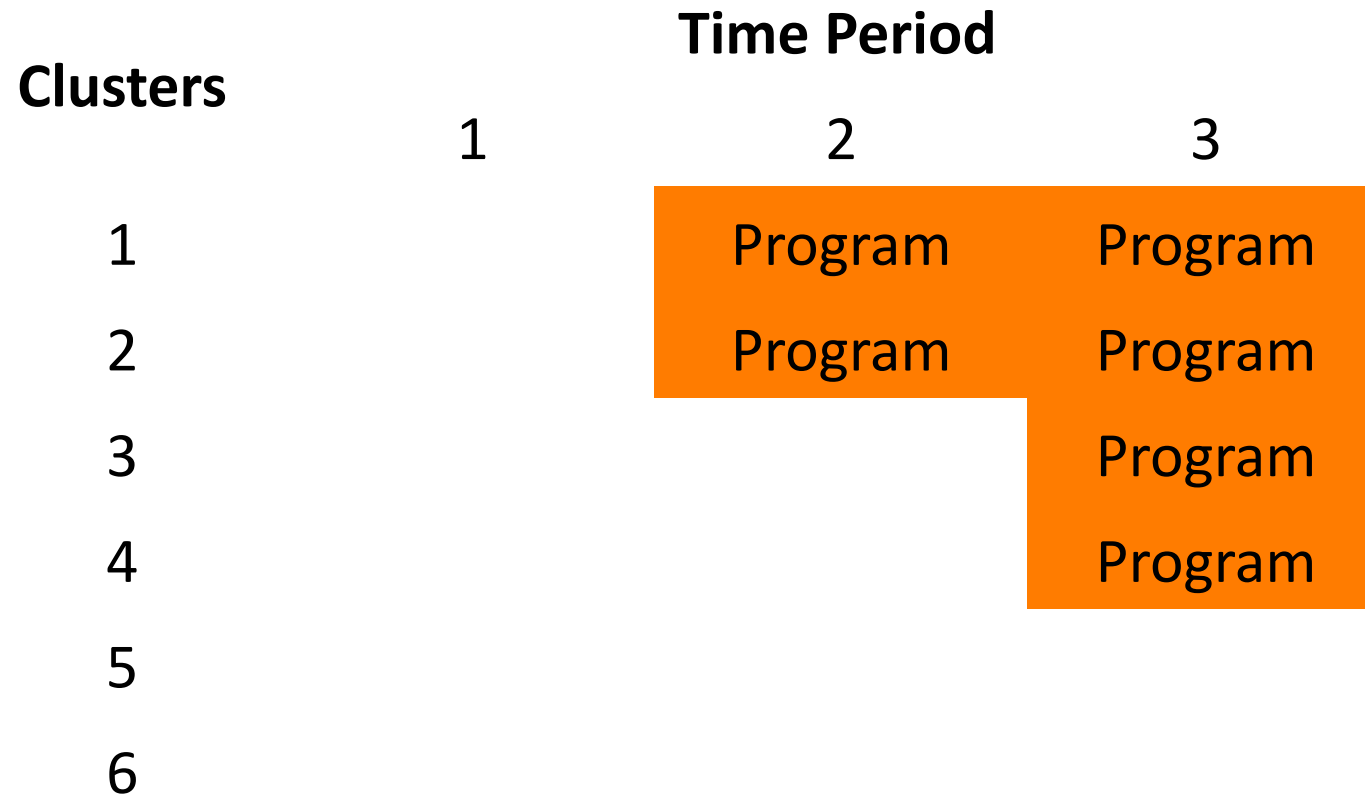
# Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in

Clusters	Time Period
	1
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	

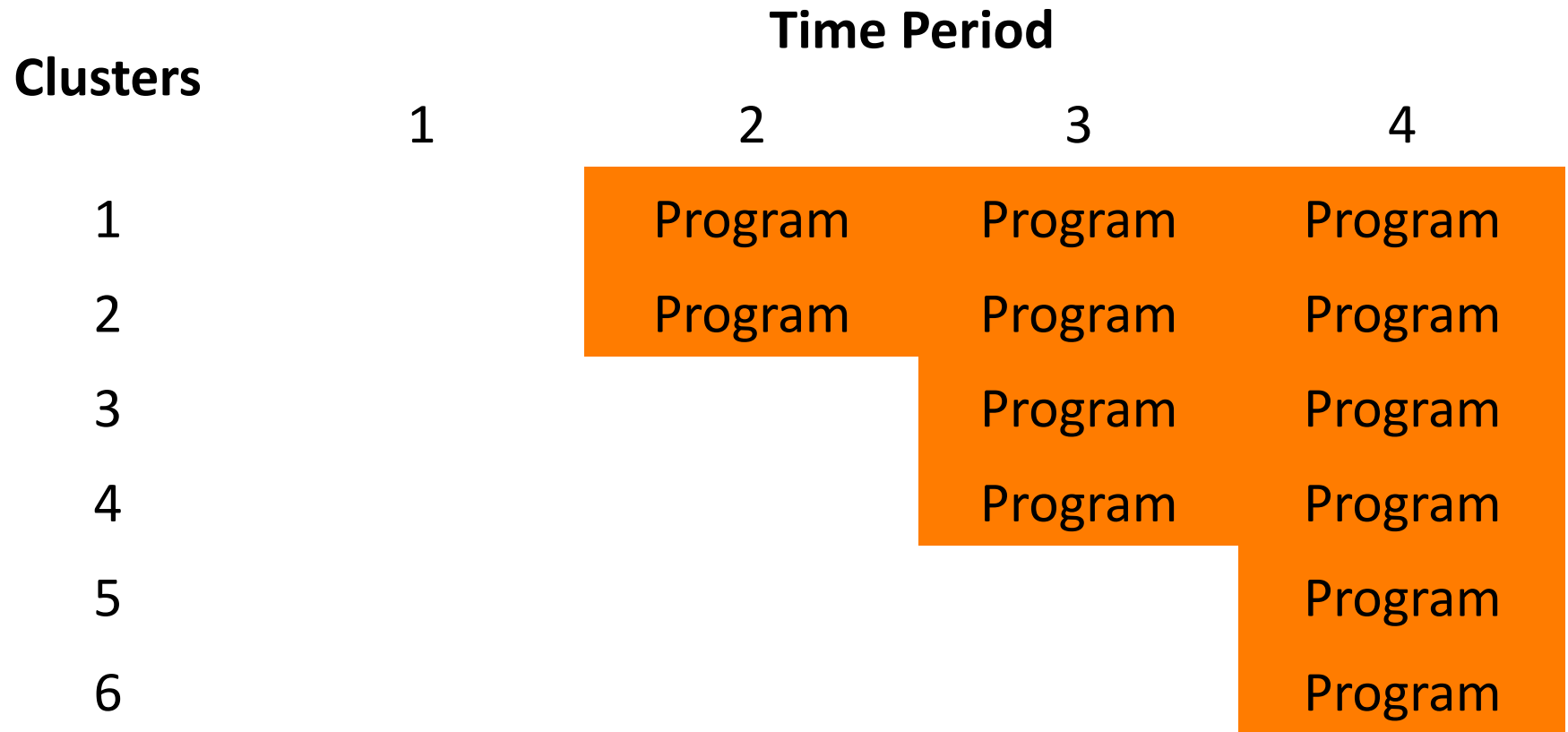
# Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in



# Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in



# Stepped wedge/randomized phase-in





# Phase-in design

## Round 1

Treatment: 1/3

Control: 2/3

## Round 2

Treatment: 2/3

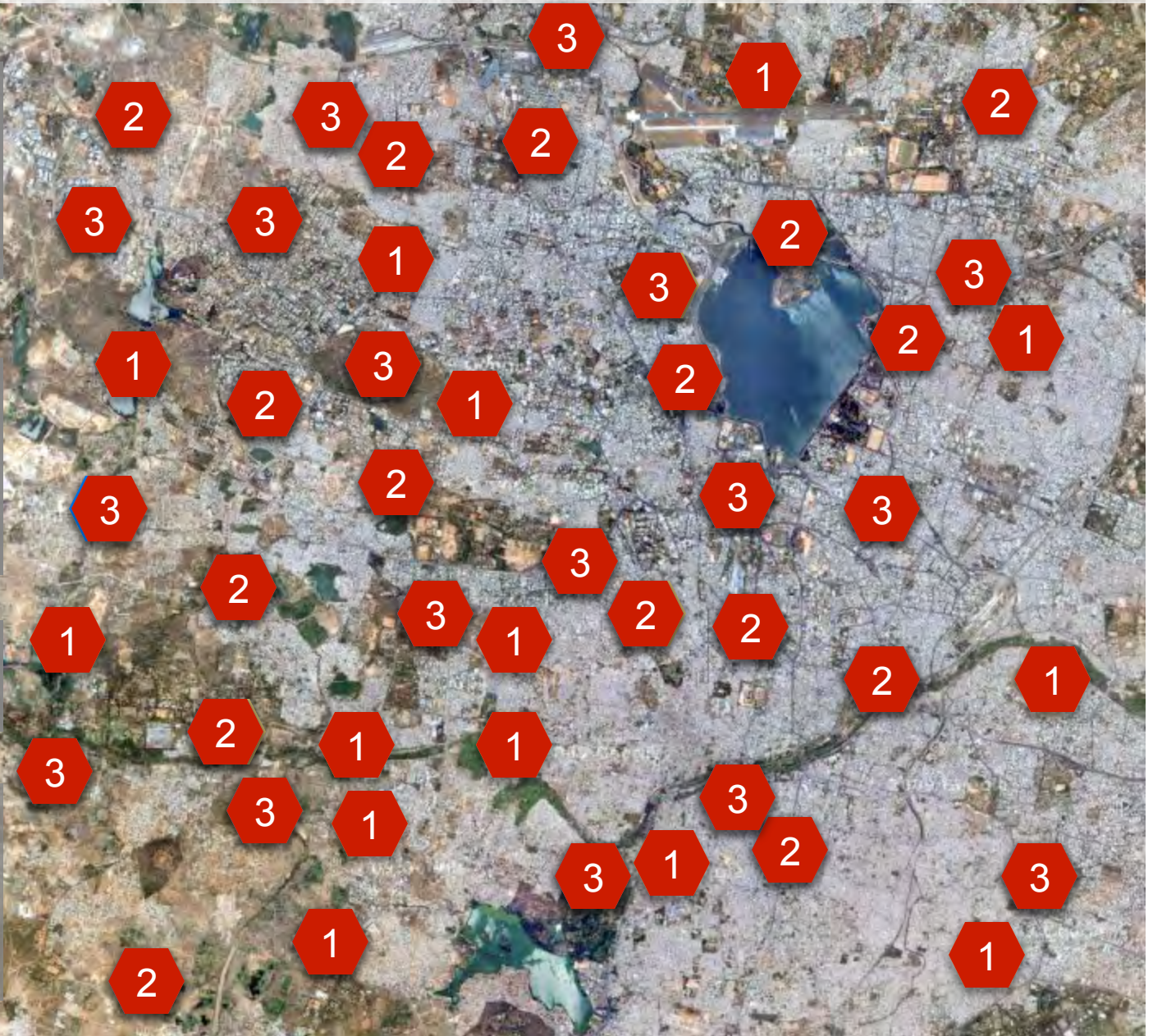
Control: 1/3

Randomized  
evaluation ends

## Round 3

**Treatment:** 3/3

**Control:** 0



# Phase-in: takes advantage of expansion

- Everyone gets program eventually
- Natural approach when expanding program faces resource constraints
- What determines which slums, areas, villages, etc. will be covered in which year?

## Concerns

- Can complicate estimating long-run effects
- Do expectations of the future change actions today?

# Requirements and limitations

- Measure outcome on each unit at each time step
- Program must be rolled out in an area within the time step
- Key limitation: program/component must be effective within time step for impact to be detected

## **3. SELECTIVE PROMOTION**

# Encouragement design: What to do when you can't randomize access

- Sometimes it's practically or ethically impossible to randomize program access or even roll it out in a phased-in manner
- But most programs have less than 100% take-up, and this presents an opportunity to do a randomized evaluation
- Randomize encouragement to receive treatment
  - Information
  - Encouragement (small gift or prize)
  - Transport assistance

# Selective promotion

- In this design, an intervention is made available everywhere and to everyone
- BUT, some communities/individuals (selected randomly) receive more information/incentives to uptake intervention
  - That is, intervention is “promoted” to some
- Promotion will result in a “treatment” group that gets more of intervention than “control” group

# Encouragement design



Encourage



Do not encourage



participated



did not participate



Complying



Not complying

compare

encouraged to not encouraged

These must be correlated

do not compare

participants to non-participants

adjust for non-compliance in analysis phase

# Randomly promoting program

## Necessary conditions

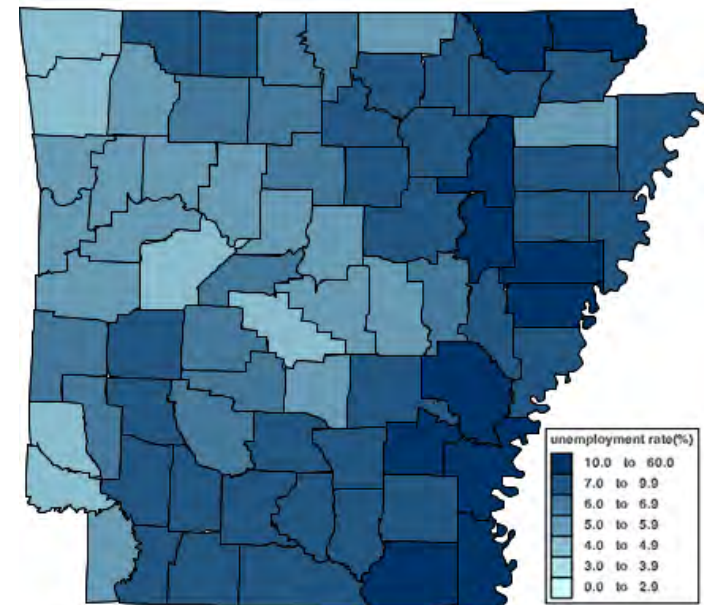
- Promoted and not-promoted groups are comparable
  - Whether or not you promote is not correlated with population characteristics
  - Guaranteed by randomization
- Promoted group has higher enrollment in the program
- Promotion of program does not affect outcomes directly



# **4. DOSE-RESPONSE**

# Dose-response evaluations

- Suitable when a program is already in place
- Examine differences in exposures (doses) or intensity across program areas
- Compare impact of program across varying levels of program intensity
- But this works best if dose is determined randomly



*Hypothetical map*

# Dose–response evaluations

- This strategy can be helpful for identifying independent contribution of components
- Varying CD4 criteria in treatment for prevention
  - CD4<200 in some areas, test and treat in others
- Varying supply of MC
  - All fixed clinics in a region offer MC, but their capacity is limited and there are queues
  - Some areas are visited by mobile clinics that help rapidly increase MC coverage in those areas

# Varying levels of treatment

- Some schools are assigned full treatment
  - All kids get pills
- Some schools are assigned partial treatment
  - 50% are designated to get pills
- Testing subsidies and prices

# **5. MULTIPLE TREATMENTS**

# Multiple treatments

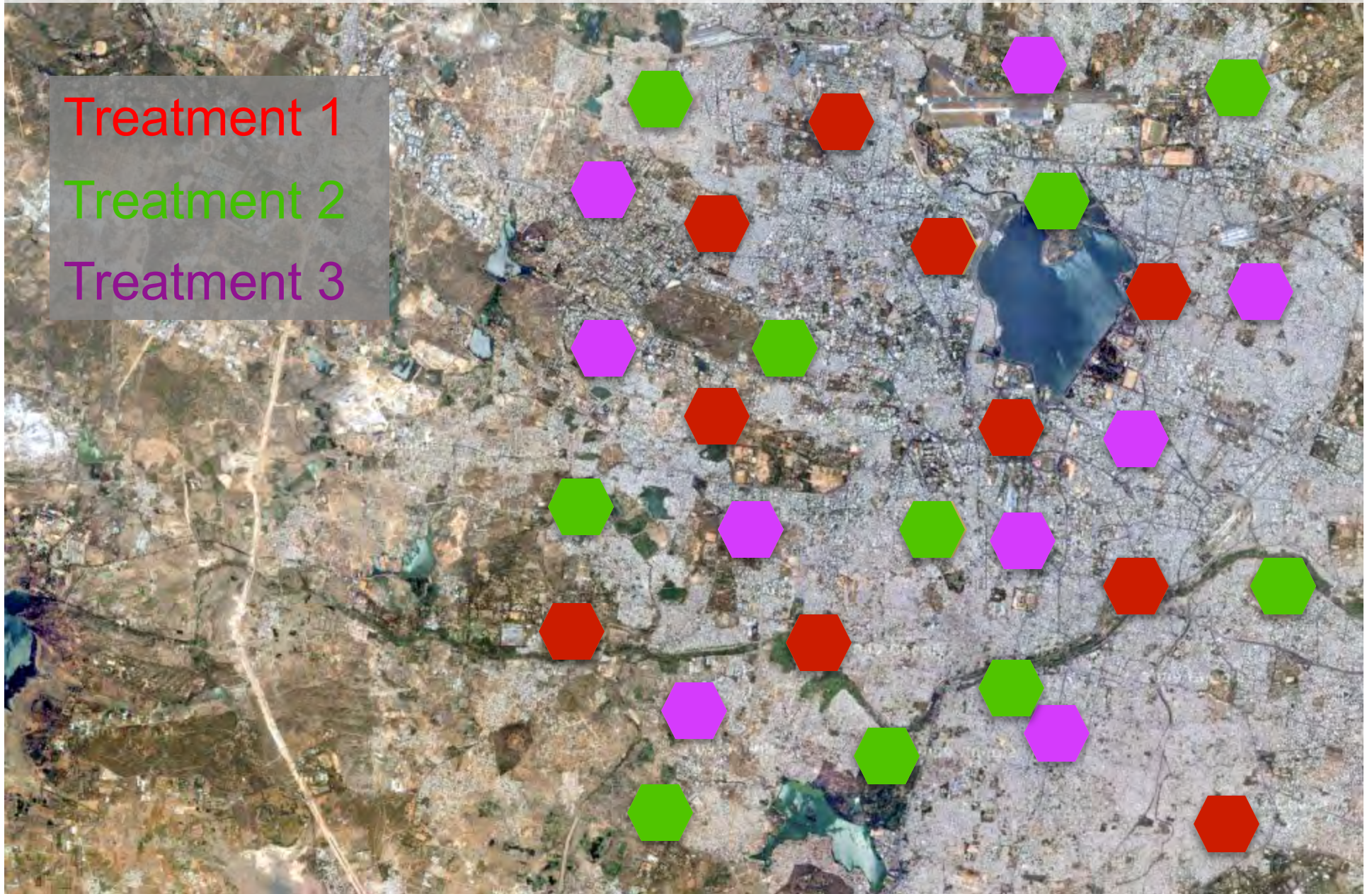
- Sometimes core question is deciding among different possible interventions
- You can randomize these programs
- Does this teach us about the benefit of any one intervention?
- Do you have a control group?

# Multiple treatments

Treatment 1

Treatment 2

Treatment 3



# Cross-cutting treatments

- Test different components of treatment in different combinations
- Test whether components serve as substitutes or complements
- What is most cost-effective combination?
- Advantage: win-win for operations, can help answer questions, beyond simple “impact”



# **CAVEATS AND WAY FORWARD**

# Advantages of randomization

- Minimizes selection bias
  - Balances known and unknown confounders
- Simpler analyses and transparent results
- Decision makers understand (and believe) results
- Flexibility in design allows for multiple ways to estimate impact
- Impact of multiple interventions can be estimated

# Some caveats of such designs

- Non-compliance
  - Not all treatment units will receive the treatment
  - Some control units may receive treatment
- Attrition: We may not be able to observe what happens to all units
- Hawthorne effect: just observing units makes them behave differently
- John Henry effect: the “controls” work harder to compensate

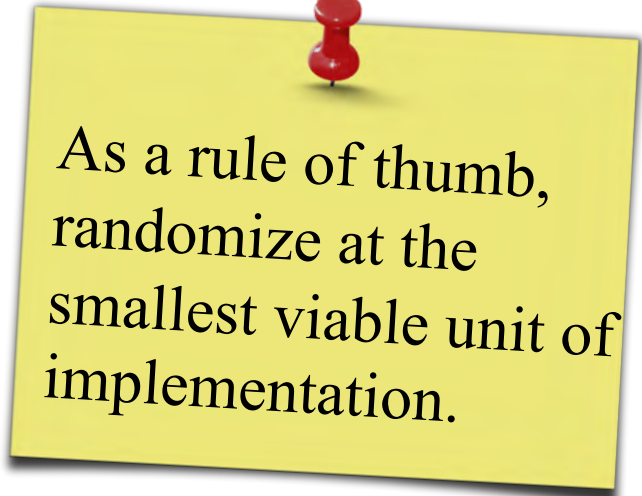
# Choosing the most relevant design

- Context is important
- Design must take power considerations into account
- Generalizability of results is important
  - Internal validity: is result valid for “everyone” in **study population**?
  - External validity: is result valid at **entire population** level?

# Unit of randomization

- Choose according to type of program

- Individual/Household
- School/Health Clinic/catchment area
- Block/Village/Community
- Ward/District/Region



As a rule of thumb, randomize at the smallest viable unit of implementation.

- Keep in mind

- Need “sufficiently large” number of units to detect minimum desired impact: **Power**
- Spillovers/contamination
- Operational and survey costs

# Methods of randomization - recap

Design	Most useful when...	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Basic Lottery</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Program oversubscribed</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Familiar</li><li>•Easy to understand</li><li>•Easy to implement</li><li>•Can be implemented in public</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Control group may not cooperate</li><li>•Differential attrition</li></ul>

# Methods of randomization - recap

Design	Most useful when...	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Phase-In</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Expanding over time</li><li>•Everyone must receive treatment eventually</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Easy to understand</li><li>•Constraint is easy to explain</li><li>•Control group complies because they expect to benefit later</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Anticipation of treatment may impact short-run behavior</li><li>•Difficult to measure long-term impact</li></ul>

# Methods of randomization - recap

Design	Most useful when...	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Encouragement</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Program has to be open to all comers</li><li>•When take-up is low, but can be easily improved with an incentive</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Can randomize at individual level even when the program is not administered at that level</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Measures impact of those who respond to the incentive</li><li>•Need large enough inducement to improve take-up</li><li>•Encouragement itself may have direct effect</li></ul>