



Integrated Public Service Delivery for Social Protection

International Experiences with Single Window Services (SWS)

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List of abbreviations

BMZ	German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development
CRAS	Referral Centre for Social Assistance (Brazil)
FOSIS	Chilean Solidarity and Social Investment Fund (Chile)
FPS	Social Protection Score Card (Chile)
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH
ICROP	Integrated Community Registration Outreach Programme (South Africa)
ILO	International Labour Organization
MIS	Management Information System
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
PMT	Proxy Means Testing
OSS	One-Stop Shop
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PES	Public Employment Services (Germany)
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SELARAS	National Integrated Services and Referral System for a Prosperous Society (Indonesia)
SEP	Single Entry Point
SKPD	Sectoral Work Unit at the Regional Level (Indonesia)
SRP	Single Referral Point
SWS	Single Window Services
S&O	Seguridades y Oportunidades (Chile)
UDB	Unified Data Base
UPT-PK	Integrated Services Unit for Poverty Reduction (Sragen District/Indonesia)
WFC	Worker Facilitation Centre (Karnataka/India)

1. Background

Integrated public service delivery in the field of social protection is becoming increasingly popular in countries seeking to improve access to and performance of social protection programmes and services. In this context, a range of partner countries of German Development Cooperation have started with reforms over the last few years to move towards more integrated social protection systems.

The one-stop shop or single window model is one mechanism used by developing countries and emerging economies to implement integrated public service delivery for social protection programmes (e.g. cash and in-kind transfers, school stipends, etc.) and services at the local level¹. The mechanism aims to improve government-to-citizen service delivery and contribute to good governance. There is no one definition of the 'single window' in the existing literature; the term is often used interchangeably with terms like one-stop shop or one window.

This paper aims to give an overview of international examples of single window models in the field of social protection from emerging economies and developing countries, compare their main features, and provide an analysis to help guide the design and implementation of single window models. It attempts to construct a typology of selected international examples in terms of the scope of services they offer, from smaller-scale pilots to models focused on the broad reorganisation of national systems, and to compare the categories in terms of their similarities, strengths, features, and their suitability in different contexts. Key considerations for the major design features of single window models are also discussed.

The remainder of the first section of this paper describes the general approach of SWS for social protection and some of its basic features. The second section categorises different SWS models into the scopes of services provided and provides international examples of each. The third section compares the different categories and examples. The fourth section offers conclusions.

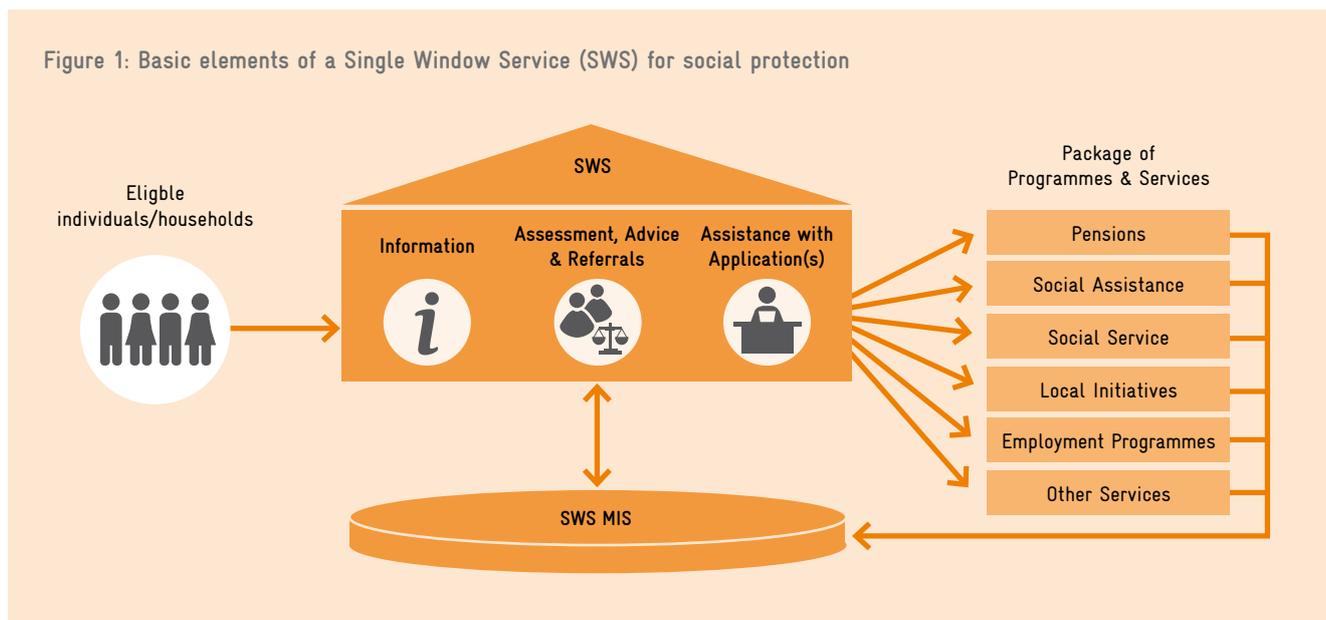
1.1 Rationale for the single window approach

Generally, single windows for social protection are implemented to reduce barriers to enable the poor, vulnerable, and socially excluded groups – particularly those living in rural or remote areas – to access relevant programmes and services. While the SWS approach is often discussed as a means to improve 'service provision', most SWS models focus on improving accessibility to registration for programmes and services, rather than on the direct provision or delivery of services. SWS models do not tend to cover 100% of social protection programmes and services offered; instead they tend to cover those within a certain sector, targeted at a particular group, or falling under the same line ministry.

SWS are also used to strengthen and boost the efficiency of social protection systems through the internal reorganisation of policies and programmes. Social protection has become an increasingly popular means of addressing the multi-dimensional aspects of poverty, mainly due to the widespread successes of social transfer programmes across different countries and contexts. More recently, the global focus has shifted from stand-alone transfer programmes towards integrated social protection systems, which harmonise existing schemes and create a supporting policy framework for institutional and technical coordination, and which reduce costs. SWS interventions are part of this shift towards an integrated or 'systems' approach, which includes streamlining administrative tasks and reducing duplication among programmes and services, particularly regarding the registration systems through which benefits are accessed.

1 Besides social protection, the single window model is also used extensively worldwide particularly to facilitate business registration and trade.

Figure 1: Basic elements of a Single Window Service (SWS) for social protection



Generally, an SWS involves the client or target beneficiary approaching a single location (physical or web-based), or being approached by SWS facilitators, where they benefit from improved access to the benefits for which they are eligible. SWS staff (or web portals) provide general information and answers to common questions, and may also carry out needs assessments and offer information on the available schemes for which the beneficiaries are eligible. More comprehensive models will also facilitate their registration and enrolment². SWS models either refer clients directly to service providers to register for benefits, or assist them with the application process. Some SWS models may be empowered to accept client applications and verify client eligibility on behalf of the service provider, while others simply assist clients in completing applications and gathering supporting documentation (e.g. proof of citizenship). The SWS may then help the client to follow-up on their application, and provide them with feedback on the outcome. Many SWS models engage some form of database or management information system (MIS) to manage client information (see Figure 1).

The main drivers behind the implementation of an SWS vary in different contexts. The particular challenges an SWS seeks to address largely influence its design and form (discussed in greater detail in section 3.1 and summarised in Table 2). It is useful to frame this around demand-side and supply-side barriers.

Challenges commonly faced by poor and vulnerable groups who are eligible for social protection schemes, and which SWS often are designed to address, include:

- Lack of accessible, complete and correct information on available programmes and services;
- Physical proximity to the location where registration for schemes is carried out;
- Steep registration costs, both direct (e.g. fees for application or required documentation) and indirect (e.g. transportation, photocopies of required documents, unpaid leave from formal or informal work);
- Corruption among responsible officials (e.g. rent-seeking or nepotism/favouritism);
- Lack of coordination among programmes targeting similar groups (e.g. no referrals, duplication of direct and indirect costs for applicants);
- Slow-moving bureaucracy due to poor human and institutional capacities, incentive structures or organisational culture;
- Ambiguous administrative regulations (e.g. requirements to access a scheme, application processing times, confirmation of admission to programmes, fees, etc.);
- Weak follow-up and proactive problem solving in application process.

² For most social transfer schemes, 'registration' refers to the application process through which an applicant's eligibility is assessed, while 'enrolment' refers to their formal inclusion as a beneficiary in the scheme, and normally involves the collection of additional details (e.g. payment details).

While many SWS models seek to address demand-side barriers to access (e.g. knowledge of programmes and services among eligible people, physical proximity to points of access to programmes and services, direct costs of applying, indirect and informal costs of applying, etc.), other citizen-focused models of SWS are more driven by supply-side challenges to access³ (e.g. excessively restrictive or burdensome policies regulating eligibility, lack of integration between/fragmentation of programmes targeting similar groups, duplication of administrative structures and costs, etc.).

While an SWS can address some demand-side challenges by addressing challenges of physical proximity to eligible people, it can also address supply-side challenges by reducing administrative complexities, promoting more efficient government-to-citizen service delivery through better coordination and quality of information, boosting transparency and outreach, and reducing corruption. Most SWS models address a mix of both.

The demand and supply-side benefits of SWS are summarised in Table 1 below.

Box 1: Existing supply capacity and increased demand

The introduction of an SWS increases demand for social protection programmes and services by facilitating access. However, the existing supply of services may not be equipped to handle increased demand. While social protection benefits may be legally defined as an entitlement, it is common that the financial and administrative resources allocated for social protection benefits are insufficient to cover all eligible individuals or households.

To ensure that the introduction of an SWS does not overwhelm the existing supply, which may already be stretched, the capacity of the existing supply to absorb new demand should be assessed prior to implementation (if possible, as part of a wider feasibility study). The SWS can also play an important role in highlighting the gap between the current resources allocated and the resources required to cover all those legally entitled to benefits.

Table 1: Demand and supply-side benefits of SWS

Demand-Side Benefits

- Improved awareness of available programmes and services;
- Clearer information on eligibility criteria, application procedures, benefits, etc.;
- Reduced costs both direct (informal fees/bribes, penalties for missing documentation, etc.) and indirect (transportation, loss of wages for time spent completing applications, etc.);
- Reduced waiting times for access to benefits after application⁴;
- Support in asserting legal rights to programmes and services, enforcing maximum processing times for applications, clarifying formal fees, etc.;
- Needs assessment and referrals to complementary programmes & services.

Supply-Side Benefits

- Reduced administrative duplication and costs in outreach and registration of eligible beneficiaries (common tasks such as information sharing/awareness raising, processing of applications and follow-up are carried out once rather than across multiple departments and agencies, where time and resource requirements are likewise multiplied);
- Elimination of redundancies by streamlining activities and organisational structures to make use of existing resources in a more efficient manner;
- Linkages and information sharing between programmes, rather than operating in isolation (especially where similar programmes and services are under the mandate of different agencies or institutions), leading to increased efficiency and reduced workload for existing staff;
- More efficient distribution of tasks and greater organisational impact of government ministries/agencies on poverty reduction.

³ Chile is an example of such a model, where integrated service delivery extends beyond social protection to a much broader spectrum of public services. The single window for general public services, allows clients to access a wide range of services from clearing overdue traffic fines to updating voter registration.

⁴ Reduced waiting time constitutes an important indicator through which the success of many SWS for trade or business registration is measured. Similar information for reducing waiting times for SWS for social protection is not available. This would be an interesting area to explore when evaluating new SWS pilots in social protection.

1.2 SWS operations: Front Office and Back Office

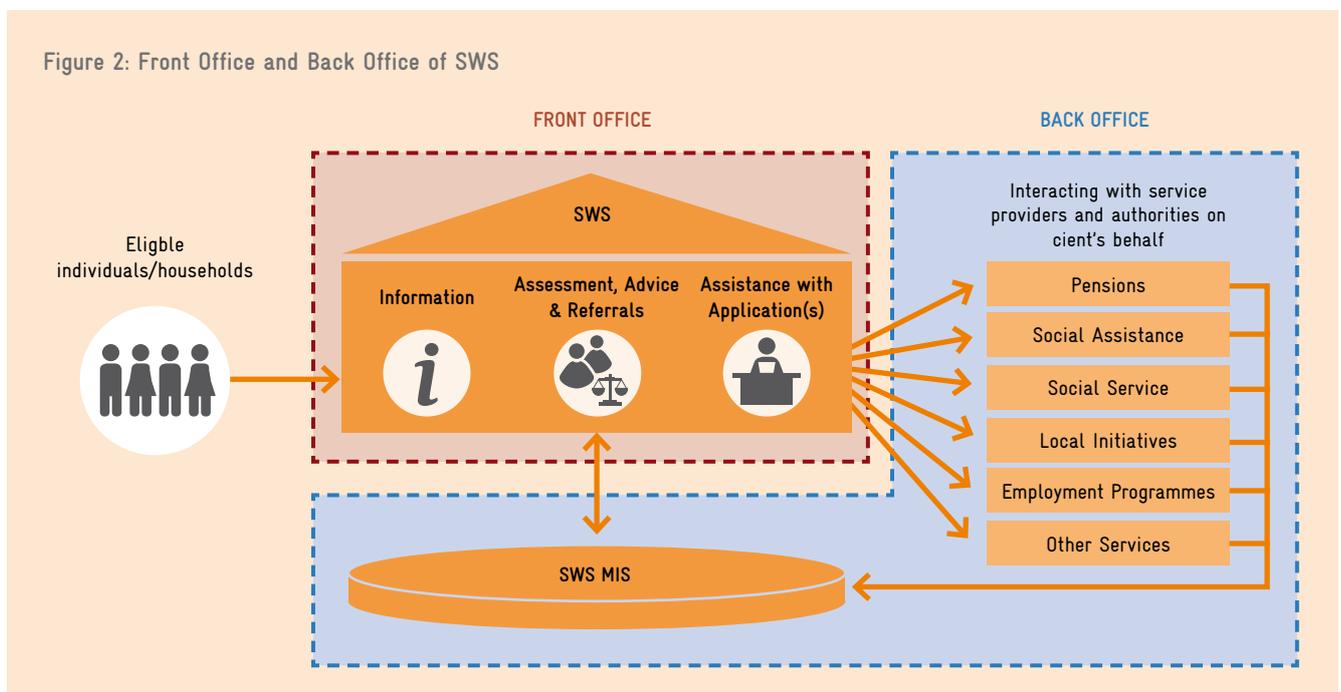
An SWS comprises a front office, which deals directly with clients and provides them with information and support, and a back office, which deals with service providers, local authorities and government agencies. The front office supports client needs and communication (outreach, awareness, information, advice (e.g. legal), assessment, documentation and referral of applications). The back office facilitates coordination with service providers and authorities/government (e.g. forwarding documents, problem-solving, assisting with verification, etc.), identifies and analyses problems and bottlenecks (ideally via systematised information management such as an MIS), and communicates findings and recommendations to decision-makers at higher levels.

The distribution of front office and back office functions is outlined in Figure 2 below.

Some SWS examples file applications on behalf of the client (Single Entry Point, see section 2.2) and provide follow-up support, while others only offer information (Single Referral Point, see section 2.1). Front office staff should be trained to deal with clients in a professional, service-oriented manner, to be sensitive to poor and vulnerable clients, and to actively solve problems on their behalf. The back office function depends largely on the extent to which the SWS is involved in filing applications and conducting follow-ups on behalf of the client. Highly developed SWS systems like those found in Chile and Brazil have back offices that are integrated with the government agencies responsible for verifying eligibility and approving applications, while others like Worker Facilitation Centres (pilot) in Karnataka/India submit applications for various schemes to different government departments on behalf of the client, and help to manage the application process (see country examples in section 2.2).

While the SWS is primarily a tool to better link eligible individuals and households to existing services, it does not deal directly with improving the types of services offered. The introduction of an SWS creates an important opportunity for the back office to systematically collect and analyse information on some of the major access challenges (e.g. lack of bureaucratic responsiveness, unprocessed applications, errors, indefinite processing times, corruption, etc.), and to report this to the appropriate decision-makers so that they may initiate the necessary reforms. This is discussed below in section 3.5.4.

Figure 2: Front Office and Back Office of SWS



1.3 The role of Management Information Systems (MIS) in SWS

Most successful examples of SWS make use of a custom-built management information system (MIS),⁵ which helps manage client information through data collection and case follow-up processes. The MIS is often accessed by the front office while interacting with clients (to create a file which can be referenced by SWS/social workers to provide ongoing support and follow-up), as well as by the back office to identify bottlenecks or problems which they can solve together with other stakeholders (e.g. delays in applications for a particular programme, if many individuals in one group are unable to access benefits due to missing civil registration documents that are difficult to obtain,

etc.). Even basic data collected by the SWS can be useful for ministries, programmes and service providers to identify bottlenecks in the registration process (such as difficulties in accessing particular documents.), carry out analysis, or even identify eligible beneficiaries.

Box 2: Single registries

A growing number of countries use single registries, or single databases, to identify and select beneficiaries for multiple programmes. Single registries vary in terms of objectives and functions, and comparative literature is just emerging⁶. Single registries contain data collected from households that are potentially eligible for social protection benefits; the single registry can then apply eligibility criteria to provide lists of eligible persons, families or households to individual programmes.

Eligibility for social protection programmes must be verified; some single registries do this by cross-referencing with other databases. For example in Brazil, Cadastro Único verifies self-declared income by cross-checking with other databases, like the Taxpayer's Registry (CPF). In Chile, the Integrated Social Information System (SIIS) cross-checks with the civil registry database to verify eligibility⁷.

It is important to note that while some SWS models use single registries, the primary objective of a single registry is not necessarily to function as an SWS; the two terms are not synonymous. While in some examples, like Brazil, Chile and Karnataka, the objective is to offer a comprehensive package of benefits to the poorest households and thereby fulfil an SWS function, in others, like Kenya, it is to stop 'double dipping' or to limit households to receiving only one of the four national cash transfers to ensure that limited social protection resources are distributed more widely.

Furthermore, not all SWS include or necessarily require a single registry. In Tajikistan (see example in section 2.2) the eligibility criteria and application procedures for social protection programmes and services are complex, making it impossible to identify those eligible via a database. Without first overhauling both the eligibility criteria and programme business processes, the role of a single registry would be limited to tracking which households or individuals benefit from which schemes.

⁵ While open source software options may be available for more general functions, the MIS should be custom designed for the SWS's specific business processes, which may vary considerably amongst different models, particularly in terms of eligibility criteria of the schemes covered.

⁶ Further information about single registries and integrated management information systems (MIS) can be found in the publication 'Single registries and integrated MISs: De-mystifying data and information management concepts' commissioned by the Australian Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DfAT) that also outlines specific country case studies (see Barcal/Chirchir 2014).

⁷ Similarly, in Kenya the single registry is directly linked to the Integrated Population Registration System (IPRS) to verify citizenship.

Box 3: Identification/Targeting: Top-Down vs. Bottom-Up

While single registry-based SWS tend to identify those who should be included in the database in a top-down manner (where data is collected from households en masse and selection takes place via the database), other types of SWS use communication and outreach to identify and serve clients in a bottom-up, demand-driven manner, whereby clients approach a local office or are provided with options by facilitators in their own communities.

Generally, single registries are populated with household data using census-style data collection to identify the poorest households for targeting purposes. Enumerators go door-to-door to collect data required to determine whether households 'qualify' as poor, often based on a proxy means test (PMT)⁸.

Models applied in Brazil and Chile, which were founded on single registries (data gathered through a top-down approach consisting of door-to-door data collection on standardised forms across the country) now also include a demand-based element, whereby those not included in the original database can request a post-assessment. Indonesia currently selects beneficiaries for the core national transfer programmes based on a single registry of the poorest 40% while certain districts accept demand-based applications for inclusion in local schemes at local offices (see Box 5).

While regular recertification (i.e. data recollection e.g. every three to five years) is often part of the design of single registries to ensure the data is updated, in reality this is often delayed due to resource constraints. On-demand registration is a cheaper alternative to keep the single registry updated. However, there is little incentive for beneficiaries to report data that will result in the loss of their benefits (e.g. improved economic situation, loss of eligible household members, etc.).

Bottom-up models often involve outreach by facilitators who identify the poor and vulnerable through outreach and provide them with information and support in accessing benefits via the SWS, and/or communication campaigns encouraging potential clients to approach the SWS (as in the Tajikistan SWS Pilot described in section 2.2 and the South African Integrated Community Registration Outreach Programme or ICROP model described in section 2.3).

⁸ PMT refers to a methodology that uses varied information on household or individual characteristics that correlate to welfare levels (e.g. monetary income, assets, housing conditions, health and education status, etc.) and constructs a formal algorithm to proxy household income, welfare or need.

2. SWS models

The SWS for social protection is more of a concept than a specific model; there is much variation among the international examples. An SWS is shaped by a number of factors, including its specific objective (i.e. which specific challenge(s) to access it seeks to overcome), available resources, political will, types of programmes and services covered, decentralised government structures, legal roles with respect to social protection, etc.

For the client (individual or household), the registration process to access the social protection programmes or services covered by the SWS involves the following basic steps: 1) obtaining information or awareness of the scheme(s); 2) undergoing assessment to identify an appropriate package of schemes for which the client is eligible; 3) applying for the scheme(s); 4) following up on the application while it is being processed (verifying eligibility and prioritising cases that can be covered by available programme resources); 5) registering or enrolling as a beneficiary of the scheme(s); and 6) receiving services or benefits by the service provider.

This paper compares the scope of the services provided by the SWS outlined above by comparing different international examples. This is perhaps the most useful starting point in designing new SWS. Based on this parameter, the international examples explored here can be broadly categorised into: 1) Single Referral Point (SRP); 2) Single Entry Point (SEP); and 3) One-Stop Shop (OSS).

Some of the international examples combine more than one of the models (see Box 7) to respond to different programme types.

The **Single Referral Point** provides the client with information on the available schemes, assesses their needs and eligibility, and refers them directly to service providers. The clients are ultimately responsible for registering for benefits on their own. The Single Referral Point tends to be located at the very local level (e.g. community or smallest administrative unit).

The **Single Entry Point** reduces the burden on both the client and service provider by handling the application process for multiple (or single) programmes and by assuming some core functions like eligibility verification. The Single Entry Point tends to be located at the municipal level, although some models also include some form of outreach at a lower local level.

The **One-Stop Shop** involves the co-location of the authorities responsible for verifying eligibility and client registration in a single place, and in some cases the provision of the actual service or benefit⁹. The OSS can be located at the local level in terms of simple co-location of local authorities, or at a much higher level where it is part of comprehensive public service delivery reform involving the restructuring of government agencies and business processes, or special agreements to adjust the normal regulatory framework to boost efficiency and streamline operations beyond the co-location of relevant organisational units.

The basic scope of services provided by the different categories is summarised in Figures 3 and 4 below.

Figure 3: Categories of SWS by scope of services provided

Single referral point (Refers to service providers)	Single entry point (Handles enrolment on behalf of service providers)	One-stop shop (Co-location of service providers)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information provision • Assessment of client • Referral of client to service providers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information provision • Assessment of client • Application support • Verification of eligibility • Application processing support (e.g. submission, problem-solving) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information provision • Assessment of client • Provision of required documentation • Application support • Verification of eligibility • Application processing • Enrolment of client in programmes/services

⁹ The SWS does not deal with providing services, rather with how to overcome the challenges in identifying and registering eligible individuals and households in social protection programmes and services. 'Provision' of the benefit in the case of cash and in-kind transfers or social services normally refers to regularly delivering benefits through the operational mechanisms of the implementing authority. 'Provision' here refers to the provision of vital events/civil registration documents, while 'enrolment' refers to the formal inclusion of an individual or household as a beneficiary of a scheme.

Not all examples fit neatly into any one of these categories; some exhibit characteristics of another category. It is also important to note that while SWS for social protection vary in the breadth of programmes and services covered, there is no example that covers all social protection programmes and services offered.

The following sections provide a more detailed description of each SWS model, as well as some international examples. The examples are meant to illustrate the core differences between the three models. Their various features are comparatively discussed in a subsequent section of this document¹⁰. The international examples are used to illustrate the main features of each of the three types in practice, rather than to present an exhaustive description or analysis of each.

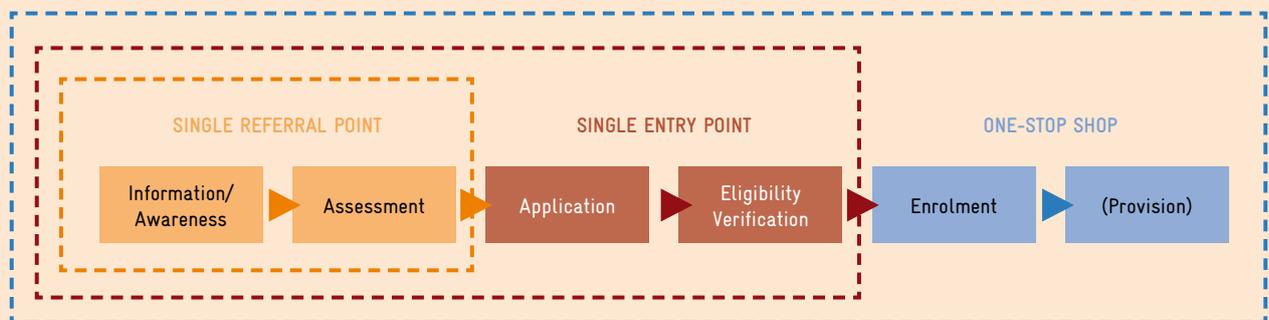
Box 4: Civil registration and national identification documents: A major challenge to accessing social protection

A common feature of many social protection programmes and services around the world is the requirement of civil registration or national identification documents to prove eligibility, based on age, disability status, citizenship, civil status (i.e. single-headed households, widows), residence/address, etc. This presents a major challenge to access for many poor and vulnerable individuals, particularly those living in remote areas. Even in urban and semi-urban areas, the indirect costs (transportation, foregone wages, etc.) of multiple trips to the civil registration office may be prohibitive. Furthermore, the issuing authorities often face a backlog of cases due to lack of resources, or in some cases deliberately to encourage bribes to fast-track or prioritise some cases over others.

SWS models that are linked with the authority responsible for issuing civil registration documents, like the ICROP model in South Africa (see example in section 2.3), significantly lower this barrier to access for clients. Social protection programmes commonly provide alternative access to verification of identity/age/civil status by community leaders, in the form of a signed letter from the chief, village elders or equivalent.

A distinguishing feature of the social protection OSS model is that it provides access to the civil registration or national identification documents required to apply for benefits.

Figure 4: Scope of services of SWS models



¹⁰ This paper does not provide exhaustive technical details on an inventory of the international examples. More detailed descriptions are readily available in the existing literature, particularly *Good Practices on Single Window Services*, by Diane Taieb and Valérie Schmitt (ILO, 2012).

2.1 Single Referral Point (SRP)

The Single Referral Point (SRP) is the simplest of the SWS models. This model boosts client awareness of available programmes and services and provides accurate information regarding requirements (including eligibility criteria) and procedures, or refers service providers with outreach systems to eligible individuals or households. However, the SRP is not integrated into the registration process of any scheme; clients must interact directly with individual government agencies or service providers to move forward with obtaining benefits. SRPs therefore include some type of client assessment to determine the right scheme or package of benefits for them.

As the scope of this model is limited to information provision, its main strengths are its relatively low cost as well as human resource capacity, physical space, and technology requirements. The SRP also has the potential to reduce corruption by providing clear information to clients regarding formal eligibility criteria and fees, especially where the clients' lack of reliable access to this information is a major barrier. Furthermore, it can support service providers who may not have the resources or capacity for effective outreach or beneficiary identification.

Due to their simplicity, a greater number of SRPs can be established relatively easily, quickly and affordably at municipal and local levels compared to the Single Entry Point (SEP) or Social Protection One-Stop Shop (OSS) models, which require more integration of the SWS units into the core policies and business processes of the programmes and services covered, and higher capacity of staff involved.

The main weaknesses of this model are that it does not help clients bear the administrative burden and costs involved in applying for benefits, and the feedback mechanism meant to improve the supply-side tends to be limited.

This type of SWS is most appropriate where the main constraint is the lack of awareness of the benefits available and of the regulations governing their provision. It is also used where institutional and resource constraints on integrating the government agencies or departments responsible for individual schemes are higher. SRPs may consist of offices established within local government or service provider buildings, or community structures without any fixed physical location. Two examples of SRPs are provided below.

Example 1: Community referral mechanisms in southern Africa (Namibia, Mozambique, Tanzania, and Lesotho)

The HIV pandemic in southern Africa has resulted in a high number of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC), which has overwhelmed both formal and informal/traditional social protection mechanisms. The establishment or strengthening of community-based organisations that focus on identifying vulnerable and at-risk OVCs and quickly referring them to available programmes and services has emerged as a model to help the government and other service providers cope.

Lesotho, for example, has low population density, difficult terrain and weak telecommunications, as well as many OVCs due to the high adult prevalence of HIV. Several local community-based organisations nationwide have been strengthened through various programmes and projects geared towards improving OVC resilience via improved coordination and information sharing, and training in linking vulnerable OVCs to available programmes and services. These organisations receive training and support in building networks and linkages with the local police, healthcare workers, psycho-social support, and other NGOs to provide OVCs in their communities with information and referrals to health and social services, either on-demand or as the need arises: for example, after the death of the household head/main provider, or an incidence of violence (Management Sciences for Health 2013).

Similar community-based SRP mechanisms have become more common throughout southern Africa (Namibia, Mozambique and Tanzania) (Roelen et al. 2012). These local-level Child Protection Committees (CPCs) comprise state and non-state actors involved in child welfare that meet regularly to share information, discuss priority cases, and come up with options for providing support through referrals to available programmes and services.

Box 5: Mixed model for national and local programmes in a decentralised context: Integrated Services Unit for Poverty Reduction (UPT-PK), Indonesia

The Ministry of Social Affairs in Indonesia has piloted various SWS models in five districts under an initiative called Pandu Gempita. While there is no standard approach for SWS in Indonesia, the Integrated Services Unit for Poverty Reduction (UPT-PK) pilot in Sragen District stands out as a particularly successful example¹¹.

The Sragen model combines two SWS types: an SRP for national social assistance programmes, with an OSS (see section 2.3) for those provided by local government. This is due to the nature of decentralised social protection in Indonesia where local governments select beneficiaries for locally developed and financed programmes and where such local programmes are relatively numerous and sustainable. However, selection for national social protection programmes is carried out at the national level using a single registry (the unified database or UDB), which cannot be updated or directly accessed at local level. While the SWS aims to improve access to national programmes by identifying exclusion errors and changes in household poverty that could eventually be used to update the UDB, it currently does not do this.

UPT-PK improves access to programmes delivered by the local government (e.g. social security for the elderly and disabled, housing programmes for poor households) by facilitating enrolment at the local (sub-district) level. Its main contribution is to verify household poverty, which is an eligibility criterion for both national and local programmes.

UPT-PK consists of a local unit (at district level) and branches (at sub-district level) of the Satuan Kerja Pemerintah Daerah (SKPD), the sectoral work unit at the regional level responsible for implementing national poverty reduction programmes and regulations.

UPT-PK conducts a poverty assessment of the client and issues the client with one of three cards:

1. **Saraswati Melati:** Household is poor according to the UPT-PK assessment and SKPD database (and therefore UDB), and can access both local and national social assistance programme¹². Cardholders can access some local programmes directly at the SKPD counters co-located at the UPT-PK and some health programmes directly at health centres. These households are already eligible for national social assistance targeted via the UDB.
2. **Saraswati Menur:** Household is poor according to the UPT-PK, but is not in the SKPD database (nor in the national UDB), and can access local but not national social assistance programmes. Cardholders can access local programmes as above, and the national entity responsible for the UDB should be advised to include these households in the next round of UDB data collection.
3. **Saraswati Kenanga:** Household is not poor according to the UPT-PK or SKPD, and can access only some health programmes.

The online link from UPT-PK (located at the sub-district level) to the SKPD database allows clients to be assessed locally, and to view available local and national programmes for which they are eligible. Cardholders are then referred to and must then apply for benefits using their cards at the appropriate SKPD counter (health, education or socio-economic programmes) that is co-located at the UPT-PK office at district level.

¹¹ Since the beginning of 2015, Sragen district is also one of the 10 pilot districts in Indonesia to implement the National Integrated Services and Referral System for a Prosperous Society (Sistem Layanan dan Rujukan Terpadu Untuk Masyarakat Sejahtera – SELARAS), developed jointly by the Indonesian Planning Ministry (BAPPENAS) and the Ministry of Social Affairs. The pilot can be classified as an IRS. SELARAS assists society and local governments in identifying the needs of poor and vulnerable population groups and to connect them to social programs (from central and local governments) that are most suited to their needs. Furthermore, it deals with complaint management and data updating in a dynamic and sustainable manner. Facilitators at local level conducting household visits are the central entry and the outreach mechanism of SELARAS.

¹² If the household is no longer poor, the SKPD database will be updated, while poor households not in the database will be added to it. The UDB is not updated with this data, but it can be used during the next round of UDB data collection to identify missed households.

2.2 Single Entry Point (SEP)

Single Entry Point (SEP) models are characterised by their important role in dealing with applications to multiple schemes on behalf of the client, and verifying their eligibility for multiple schemes. The model supports clients by carrying out needs assessments, identifying a package of social protection programmes and services for which they are eligible, gathering the required data (e.g. for categorically targeted programmes this might include civil registration documents to prove age or civil status, while for poverty-targeted programmes this might include poverty measurement), and using that data to verify eligibility for the entire package of benefits. The client experiences this as a single entry point into multiple programmes and services.

The main strength of this model is that it strikes a more robust balance between integration of the SWS with government agencies and service providers, and physical accessibility for those living in rural and remote areas by being located at the local (often municipal) level. Consequently, unlike the other two models, the SEP model is able to more effectively address a greater number of demand-side and supply-side constraints (see Table 1) than the other models, while empowering local authorities to be more responsive to needs.

The main weaknesses of the SEP model are that it can be costly, and cannot be implemented without sufficient political will to effect coordination and agreement between different agencies/service providers and different levels of government. It also requires individual programmes/service providers to delegate the responsibility of eligibility verification to the SWS staff (see example of the Worker Facilitation Centres in Karnataka below). While this can be solved by signing a memorandum of understanding or a decree from the relevant ministry, some government agencies or ministries may be reluctant to do this (see Box 6). Government regulations may prohibit non-government actors from carrying out this kind of verification. It is worthwhile to investigate this aspect of the SWS during the feasibility study or preliminary design work phase.

Box 6: Incentives to adopt the SWS approach

Like any intervention involving some degree of public sector reform, the SWS may encounter resistance from government officials who are accustomed to slower-moving bureaucracy, an inefficient organisational culture, or those who benefit from corruption. There is no single formula to overcome this challenge. Some strategies might include creating a set of conditions in which officials are sufficiently incentivised to adopt the SWS (such as performance-based rewards for improved processing times), encouraging political will at the higher levels of government by citing the political popularity of similar reforms in Brazil and Chile, or highlighting the cost savings of the model that result from a more efficient distribution of tasks.

Internationally, the SEP model is the most prevalent of the three models: there are various examples that combine a variety of design features. The most well-known cases of SEPs are the mature Latin American examples upon which many countries have based their own models.

The Brazilian and Chilean models of SWS for social protection are unique in that they are the cornerstones of highly evolved social protection systems that developed over the course of several decades supported by ongoing policy reform, political will, and resources. Within each of these models, there are various integrated mechanisms that tie into other sectors beyond social protection as well. Both models make use of single registries, which are used to target multiple programmes, and also provide the poorest clients with case management support from a dedicated social worker for a period of 18 months to two years. Social workers refer eligible clients to other programmes and services not covered by the database-centred SWS.

More recently, the SEP model has gained attention in other parts of the world and is being used by the International Labour Organization (ILO) as a cornerstone for the implementation of the Social Protection Floor (SPF) global initiative, currently under different stages of pilot design and implementation in Cambodia, Indonesia and Thailand¹³. During the last few years, German Development Cooperation through the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH has also been involved in piloting this model in the Indian state of Karnataka, and in Tajikistan.

¹³ Further information about these pilots can be found at the following ILO website: 'Piloting the SWS' (<http://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/ShowProjectWiki.action;jsessionId=c9a1c74bc53e2df1d4eda36d0c35538a146081323371492173ec5fe74d9f2c41.e3aTbhulbNmSe34MchaRabaKbx50?wiki.wikiId=1026&pid=1435>)

Box 7: Integrated Jobcenters in Germany

The German Jobcenter model is an example of an SEP for both social assistance and unemployment support from outside of the low and middle-income country context. It was implemented in the context of a comprehensive set of labour market reforms – the so-called Hartz reforms – carried out from 2003 to 2005. The reforms resulted in a radical overhaul of the organisational structure of the German Public Employment Services (PES) transforming employment offices into customer-oriented SEPs called Jobcenters that provide a service package for unemployed citizens consisting of basic income support as well as services to support reintegration into the labour market. Most Jobcenters are jointly run by the Federal Agency for Labour and the respective local authority (Green 2015).

While the system of provision of benefits involves many different organisational units, the client interacts with a caseworker who navigates the system for them. The client first undergoes a structured assessment by the caseworker, who creates a profile in the IT system of the Federal Agency for Labour, called VerBIS. During the assessment, the client's strengths and weaknesses are identified, and the caseworker sets a realistic employment goal for the client. This involves either entering the workforce or first receiving vocational training. The caseworker helps the client apply for the social assistance benefits for which they are eligible, and to search for jobs, which fit his/her profile. The system also includes an element of psychological assessment in which factors that may be limiting the client's ability to re-integrate into the workforce are identified (e.g. debt, addiction, limited mobility, etc). The caseworker can then use a variety of tools at his/her disposal to create a counselling plan intended to rehabilitate the client (Sztandar-Sztanderska 2014).

Example 1: Cadastro Único and Referral Centre for Social Assistance (CRAS), Brazil

Cadastro Único in Brazil is a single registry through which eligible citizens may access a wide range of social protection programmes and services implemented by various ministries and government agencies. At the national level, a public bank called Caixa Econômico Federal (CEF) operates Cadastro Único, generating payment lists and delivering payments for cash transfers.

While the Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) programme Bolsa Família is the main user of Cadastro Único, it is also used as the SEP for around 30 social programmes across multiple ministries. In more recent years, an increasing number and wider range of socially oriented programmes have begun to use Cadastro Único to identify and register large numbers of new beneficiaries.

Households must register with Cadastro Único to access the range of cash and in-kind transfers. Households must approach their municipality to complete the standardised data collection process. There have been challenges in terms of maintaining the quality of the data, particularly with respect to updates originating from data collected by municipalities. Performance-based incentives in the form of municipal grants have been used to mitigate this risk.

Those in need of social protection services may also approach their local Referral Centre for Social Assistance (CRAS), local units established in poor areas through which social worker accompaniment is operationalised. Social worker accompaniment is primarily for beneficiaries of the poverty-targeted Bolsa Família programme, but anyone can approach CRAS for information, needs assessment, and referrals to suitable programmes.

Example 2: Seguridades y Oportunidades (S&O) and Social Protection Score Card (FPS), Chile

Chile has a highly developed SEP¹⁴ model through which the poorest households are prioritised to receive a comprehensive package of benefits. Households access the SEP by applying to be added to a Social Protection Score Card (Ficha de Protección Social or FPS) system at their local municipality office. The FPS ranks all households registered based on various socio-economic criteria from the poorest to the richest to identify households eligible for different social programmes offered.

FPS registration provides access to the Seguridades y Oportunidades (S&O) system (formerly called Chile Solidario), which includes a cash transfer called Programa Familiar (Family Programme) of decreasing value over 24 months, support from a social worker (also see section 3.5.3), and preferential access to other regular, categorically targeted government social assistance benefits (e.g. benefits for children under 18, the elderly over 65 and persons with disabilities, and a potable water subsidy). The FPS also provides priority access to a range of other social programmes in the

¹⁴ Chile also has an SWS covering a wide range of services for over 25 public institutions, including the provision of government-issued documents and certificates, called Chile Atiende. Chile Atiende is not however, an SWS for Social Protection. Only those on pre-approved lists sent by the municipality can apply for social protection programmes funded by the Ministry of Social Development. Prioritisation for social protection services via the FPS also cannot be accessed through Chile Atiende; households must do this at their municipality and are referred there for such requests. Clients can, however, check on the status of their FPS application through Chile Atiende. (For further information see website of Chile Atiende: <http://www.chileatiende.cl/serviciosdisponibles>)

areas of education, health, justice, housing and employment, including municipal projects funded through the Solidarity and Social Investment Fund (FOSIS) of the Chilean Ministry of Social Development. Social workers help families to identify a suitable package of such 'other' programmes and to register for those benefits.

Furthermore, households are supported in developing personalised plans for their own socio-economic development and gradually weaned off cash and social worker support. The cash transfer component is eventually replaced with regular government social welfare payments.

In 2016, the FPS was replaced by the Registro Social de Hogares (Social Household Registry) which combines household data already collected through the FPS system with data from other existing databases (e.g. the civil registry or the tax registry) to improve decision-making about both programme eligibility and social investments (e.g. extension or reform of certain programmes). The FPS scorecard used was replaced by a system offering more flexibility to individual programmes to select beneficiaries (Ministerio de Desarrollo Social 2015).

The Chilean model has been replicated in Jamaica as the Bridge programme of the Jamaica Social Investment Fund.

Example 3: Worker Facilitation Centres (WFCs), Karnataka/India

On behalf of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), GIZ has supported the Government of Karnataka (GoK) in India to establish Worker Facilitation Centres (WFCs), an SEP model that targets informal sector workers through mobile facilitators who live and operate locally. WFCs identify informal workers in rural areas through established self-help groups and in urban areas by visiting poor areas street-by-street. Facilitators visit each household to provide information and assess the eligibility of household members for the different schemes available.

The assessment is carried out using a six to seven-page form, which collects information on eligibility for programmes. This form is standardised for ease of entry into the custom MIS of the SWS. It is completed by the facilitator together with the households and then entered into the MIS. The MIS is pre-programmed with the eligibility criteria of the different schemes, and is able to return a result on which programmes each household qualifies for. The facilitator then helps the client to complete the application, obtain required documents and complete forms, and submits it to the respective programme (government agency or service provider) on their behalf. The facilitator follows up on

each application to ensure it is processed in a fair and timely manner, and obtains the application outcome from the government agency or service provider directly, or from the client.

The success of the scheme led the GoK to begin a scale-up to establish SWS centres in all districts in Karnataka¹⁵. A total of 900 centres are to be set up in three years from 2014 to 2017. The local government (Gram Panchayat) will take responsibility for facilitation; however, the number of facilitators per WFC, and therefore per client, may need to decrease.

The WFC's pilot was effectively used as a demonstration case to foster the political will required to expand the model and eventually work with individual programmes and services to streamline their beneficiary selection and benefit delivery. The GoK passed legislation, which stipulated timeframes for processing applications that allowed facilitators to demand timely service on behalf of their clients.

Example 4: SWS for Social Protection Pilot, Tajikistan

GIZ (on behalf of BMZ) also supported the Government of Tajikistan in developing a pilot of an SEP for social protection and employment schemes. This model, unlike the other examples above, does not specifically target poor households or other specific groups for its services. Instead it is geared towards helping individuals and households who are eligible for government social protection and employment programmes to navigate a complex regulatory system coupled with a lack of awareness of the programmes, unclear eligibility and application procedures, and physical remoteness of most of the population.

This model focuses on reorganising staff from both the ministry and from the local government (Khukumat), who are responsible for implementing social protection and employment programmes at the local level, into a more efficient model that provides clear information, assesses eligibility, and registers eligible individuals and households as beneficiaries at a single physical location near the Khukumat office. The model also focuses on helping these local actors to navigate the system's regulatory complexities. The SWS manages the application process for some programmes while it only provides information for others. It acts as a Single Referral Point only for programmes and services related to disability, which in Tajikistan entail long and burdensome application processes involving medical assessments and certificates. As at end 2015, two pilot locations were identified and equipped as SWS units.

¹⁵ There will be one WFC per 'block', the administrative level between the district and the Gram Panchayat/ward.

2.3 One-Stop Shop (OSS)

The One-Stop Shop (OSS) model is based on the idea that bringing together the different actors involved in service provision at a single location better serves the client, by making it easier for the client to access service providers, and by streamlining the process of seeking and receiving benefits.

The OSS can be located at municipal or village level in terms of simple co-location of local authorities, or at a much higher level where it is part of comprehensive public service delivery reform including broader organisational restructuring and business process reform.

The OSS model allows individuals and households to access information, undergo assessment, obtain the necessary documents (i.e. birth certificate, death certificate, national identification), and register for programmes and services, and in some cases receive the service in a single place. This model normally involves the restructuring of the existing government agencies and business processes involved in service provision, or special agreements between them to adjust the normal regulatory framework, to boost efficiency and streamline operations, in addition to housing relevant organisational units within the same location.

There are also many examples of OSS focused on serving victims of sexual and domestic violence, including police/legal, medical, and psycho-social support, and which are located directly in hospitals in many countries (e.g. Thailand, Malaysia, India, Bangladesh, and South Africa).

Box 8: Regular OSS and Occasional Public Service Halls

While many SWS models in the field of social protection seek to address barriers to access focused on social exclusion and physical proximity to service providers, citizen-focused OSS – often called Public Service Halls – have been driven more to reduce administrative complexities than reduce barriers to physical proximity. These regular OSS models normally seek to serve all citizens and are not designed to serve only the poor, vulnerable or socially excluded. They are focused on areas with relatively large populations because they are designed to serve the greatest number of citizens, not those most in need of social services. Given the scale and scope, the requirements for this model are the highest of all those discussed.

One example that has attracted much international attention in recent years is the Service Canada model that was developed during a sweeping overhaul of public service delivery in Canada that focused on promoting more efficient government-to-citizen service delivery (Human Resources and Skills Development Canada 2009). Service Canada also includes scheduled outreach (occasional OSS on regularly scheduled dates) and the contracting of local organisations to provide services on its behalf.

The Occasional (Local) Public Service Hall, in comparison, involves officials from different government agencies responsible for social protection programmes and services occasionally gathering at a single location, normally a public building such as a local school or health facility, to extend services to remote or under-served populations. It does not involve any changes to the existing model of service provision; rather its main function is to bring social protection physically closer to its intended beneficiaries.

This model doesn't require much; the main requirement is for local government officials and service providers to be present at the same time, either spontaneously or as directed by local political authorities. In addition, this model requires a method of communication through which local people can be informed of the time and place of the OSS, as well as what it is and the services it offers.

The model's main strength is that it can bring services closer to the beneficiaries. It also may reduce the collection of illegal fees and other corrupt practices (due to greater transparency) as well as the time taken to process certain services (e.g. issuing civil registration documents). The main challenge this model seeks to address is physical proximity. The model's main weakness is that only those services delivered locally can be accessed through local level authorities.

The ICROP model in South Africa described below is particularly interesting because it is a mobile outreach-only OSS that has no fixed location and targets the socially excluded and poor.

Example 1: Integrated Community Registration Outreach Programme (ICROP), South Africa

The South African Integrated Community Registration Outreach Programme (ICROP) model for socially excluded people in rural and semi-urban areas is particularly innovative. It uses a mobile unit to combine improved proximity with reorganised business processes and organisational aspects of more sweeping and complex examples of SWS.

ICROP consists of mobile units, which are dispatched to communities whose remoteness and vulnerability has excluded them from social protection benefits, extending the social safety net to them through on-site registration. ICROP units are fully equipped mobile one-stop service units, or customised vehicles equipped with modern technology, facilities, and the personnel¹⁶ to process applications on-site and issue some civil registration documents (SASSA 2012). The South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) implements the programme. Working closely with the Departments of Health, Education, Home Affairs, Justice and Constitutional Development, and Labour, as well as the South African Police Service, various municipalities, NGOs, traditional leaders and church formations, it helps clients obtain the required documentation, verify their eligibility and enrol as beneficiaries on-site. An inter-ministerial committee facilitates coordination across departments (ILO 2015).

As discussed, a distinguishing feature of the OSS is that it provides access to the civil registration documents required to access programmes and services. ICROP mobile units operate with the staff from the appropriate agencies, and the equipment required for issuing civil registration documents and registering clients as beneficiaries on-site. The teams set up tents at scheduled locations and provide the range of services required to complete registration.

Only disability services cannot be completed in a single visit; while a medical doctor can conduct the examination required to obtain a disability certificate, the actual certificate (required to access disability benefits) is issued at a district-level office (SASSA n. J.).

¹⁶ ICROP mobile units are staffed by teams normally consisting of the following members: driver, first attesting officer (capturing data), second attesting officer (verification and receipt issuance), medical doctor (assessment of disability, which is later verified off-site by the Disability Management Unit), approval officer (quality assurance and on-site approval), IT support technician, and customer care official (enquiries and information management) (SASSA n. J.)

3. Comparison of models

All the different SWS models above have been compared on a basic level to establish their differences, and international examples have been provided to illustrate how the models work in practice, and the trade-offs involved in choosing one model over another. This section provides an in-depth comparative analysis of the different models and suggests lessons and key considerations which may be useful for practitioners interested in developing or strengthening an SWS pilot or programme.

3.1 Objectives of the SWS

As discussed above, the objectives of the SWS, specifically the particular constraints on access to social protection it seeks to address, largely determine which of the three models described is most appropriate. If the main constraint is lack of information and awareness, the Single Referral Point is most appropriate. Where the SWS seeks to address multiple constraints through improved integration of service delivery, a Single Entry Point or One-Stop Shop is more appropriate. Co-location of actors involved in the registration and enrolment process (i.e. the One-Stop Shop) is more appropriate where the intention is not to integrate social protection programmes and services through business process reform, as in Single Entry Points.

Table 2 provides a summary of the contributions of each model outlined above to the potential benefits that can be achieved by SWS approaches outlined in Table 1.

3.2 Staffing the SWS

3.2.1 Local-level staff: Existing government staff or additional contracted staff

As discussed above, the introduction of an SWS can mean either the reshuffling of existing staff involved in service provision into a more efficient model, or introducing new staff or a third party (e.g. NGO) to carry out additional outreach to underserved clients, providing information and referrals, identifying and verifying on behalf of government agencies or other service providers, and even service provision.

The main challenge in hiring additional staff to engage with clients at the local level is financial sustainability. The challenges of engaging existing local level government staff depends on the current number and capacity of staff, their ability to carry out these functions in addition to their existing workload, and the incentives available to them for effectively carrying out SWS functions if they report to a different line ministry other than that which implements the SWS. The latter two challenges are currently being faced in the scale-up of the Karnataka example, where specialised, trained facilitators (who carried out core front

office functions of outreach and surveying potential beneficiaries to identify those eligible, as well as the back office management of submitting applications and problem-solving with service providers), are being replaced by local government authority staff during scale-up. In Tajikistan, the decision was made to use existing staff from the municipality and the Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour¹⁷ for the SWS, as a similar pilot to scale-up failed due to disinterest from the government to continue funding facilitators. The Tajikistan pilot does not however involve household visits by SWS facilitators, and instead requires clients to approach an SWS office established at the municipal office. In volunteer and community-based referral models – like the child-focused examples of southern Africa – incentives can also be an issue where volunteers are unpaid.

3.2.2 Skills and capacity development

The staffing requirements of the different models vary greatly in terms of numbers and staff capacity, and depend on several factors (e.g. number of SWS service points, range of services offered, sophistication of technology used, etc).

While all models require staff to have soft skills like sensitivity in dealing with vulnerable or poor clients, the capacity (e.g. IT, problem solving, etc.) required for Single Referral Points compared to the other models is low because this model does not carry out a back office function. The number of staff per referral point can be minimal. Furthermore, their knowledge of the social protection schemes and eligibility criteria can be supplemented with documentation, communication materials such as pamphlets, and a telephone link to the appropriate government agency for further information.

Single Entry Point and One-Stop Shop models, particularly those which require the use of technology (like an MIS) require a more developed skills set that includes basic IT skills, problem-solving, coordination with partners integrated into the model, troubleshooting, etc. The specific skills required for these types depend greatly on the specific example.

17 In 2013 the Social Protection department was moved to the Ministry of Health, now called Ministry for Health and Social Protection.

3.3 Costs

The costs involved in establishing (investment costs like the design of MIS, purchase of office and IT equipment, etc.) and running (operational costs like staff salaries) an SWS pilot can vary greatly.

Single Referral Points do not have the design costs associated with business process redesign and organisational restructuring, unlike the Single Entry Points and Regular One-Stop Shop that require experts to carry out a functional review, provide a technical design of the pilot and the MIS/database required to manage and track client information, and design the organisational structure required to staff the SWS front and back offices, as well as any coordinating or management office. While there can be much variation within each model in terms of sophistication, Single Referral Point and simple Single Entry Point models are less expensive than others.

As discussed above in section 3.2.1, a major operational budget item for the SWS is staffing at the local level. One cost-saving option is to reshuffle existing staff into a more efficient model, as in the Tajikistan example, where existing staff of two agencies dealing with social protection were reallocated to man the SWS due to lessons learned from more expensive pilots, which engaged paid local facilitators.

Several SWS pilots that have had successful results have not been successfully scaled up due to unsustainable financial costs. While the objective of an SWS pilot is to find a model that functions well, it must also do so within a reasonable and sustainable budget, particularly for staffing requirements by maximising existing resources where possible. Once the model is established and has demonstrated its value, the government may be incentivised to allocate a greater budget to the SWS, particularly where there are clear efficiency gains.

Social worker accompaniment, while desirable in most cases, can be expensive particularly in countries where a university degree or similar qualification is required. This is discussed below in section 3.5.3.

3.4 Degree of integration

Another major point of comparison between the three SWS models is the degree of integration of the agencies managing and operating the SWS. Integration takes place along two axes: 1) Horizontal integration refers to integration across programmes or organisations (government agencies, local authorities, NGOs, and other service providers), such as the local government, civil registrars, and Ministries of Education, Health, Justice, Social Welfare/Security, etc. 2) Vertical integration refers to the integration of actors and activities between the national level (often the lead line ministry/ministries), and the sub-national levels, including the district/province, and municipality or community/village (i.e. local authorities).

The horizontal integration of programmes and services across multiple line ministries/agencies and other autonomous bodies requires coordination, which is often challenging and requires high-level political support, such as that enjoyed in Brazil and Chile. Horizontal integration involves coordination that can be governed in the short term by memoranda of understanding, but which in the long term requires changes to the legal-institutional framework governing non-contributory social assistance or the wider provision of public services, as well as the allocation of sufficient resources to implement these models.

The required degree of horizontal integration is greater for SWS models that cover several programmes and services implemented by different government agencies or that report to different line ministries. In the Single Referral Point model, there is a high degree of horizontal integration where many programmes can be covered. However, there is minimal need for coordination among the actors. The Single Referral Point generally does not require any organisational or business process reforms or changes, and is therefore relatively easy to form through simple agreements between participating agencies.

The WFCs in Karnataka provide an example of how an SWS can effect horizontal integration from the bottom-up by using the pilots at local level as a demonstration case to allow service providers to test the delegation of eligibility verification to SWS staff, and where this is successful, to incentivise service providers to participate in the SWS. While there are currently some challenges in coordination and integration, the interest of the state government in scaling up the model is supported through evidence from the pilot.

Table 2: SWS model comparison: Addressing constraints on access to social protection programmes and services

Demand-side	Single Referral Point (SRP)	Single Entry Point (SEP)	One-Stop Shop (OSS)
Strengthens awareness of schemes, eligibility criteria, application requirements, etc.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Close physical proximity to clients	Yes	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mostly located at municipality or equivalent • May include outreach mechanisms (WFC, Karnataka/India) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often located at municipal level • Can be mobile (e.g. ICROP, South Africa)
Brings application point closer to clients	No	Yes	Yes
Reduces indirect costs of submitting an application (transportation, foregone wages, etc.)	Somewhat <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Costs reduced by provision of correct information, reducing need for repeat trips and potentially illegal fees (see below) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One trip for one application/entry point • Facilitators that serve clients locally (WFC, Karnataka/India) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everything can be done in one trip and at one location, for the majority of social protection services
Improves access to required documentation	No	Somewhat <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clients must still obtain required civil registration documents on their own, but some assistance may be obtained (e.g. from assigned social/case workers) • Linkages to civil registry database means lost documents need not be replaced to apply for benefits (S&O/FPS, Chile) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Potential to provide civil registration documents in same place (ICROP, South Africa) • Linkages to civil registry database means lost documents need not be replaced to enrol for benefits
Simplifies application process/requirements	No	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often entails merging of existing programmes or harmonisation of application requirements (Cadastro Único, Brazil) • SWS deals with this on client's behalf and the process is systematised in terms of both front and back office functions 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Application is processed by the SWS and enrolment is carried out by the SWS • Business process reform or special agreements between government actors involved, which simplify processes for the client (ICROP, South Africa)
Reduces risk of having to pay illegal fees/rent-seeking	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Through awareness of correct fees and rights (helpful to include links to a complaints mechanism, such as national public service oversight) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is eliminated by having the SWS submit the application on behalf of the client (although there is a risk the SWS itself may charge illegal fees) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involvement of multiple agencies in application approval and enrolment is eliminated

Demand-side	Single Referral Point (SRP)	Single Entry Point (SEP)	One-Stop Shop (OSS)
Increased transparency of selection process (this assumes that there is a documented standard process)	Somewhat <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depends on willingness and consistency of agency/service provider in providing feedback on reasons for rejected or unanswered applications 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The SWS staff is more empowered than the individual citizen to ask questions about selection process 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Selection process carried out by SWS staff
Contributes to clear and reasonable processing times	No	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved ability to demand service within legislated timeframes (WFC, Karnataka/India) Often involve agreements between actors that include processing times (SWS pilot, Tajikistan) and SWS follow-up function 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> This is a major objective/reason for implementing the OSS
Supply-side			
Reduces duplication of administrative and outreach costs	Somewhat <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reduces the need for separate outreach campaigns by each programme/service (if any such activity is being carried out by any programmes/services) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Streamline some administrative tasks of different units (e.g. data collection for targeting) (Cadastró Único, Brazil) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> This is a major objective of the model Everything carried out in one place rather than across many levels/departments
Reshuffles distribution of tasks across organisational structure into more efficient model	No	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> More efficient distribution of work load (SWS pilot, Tajikistan) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business process reform to facilitate coordination
Linkages and information sharing between programmes and units	No	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Single application for multiple programmes Linkages with civil registry databases (S&O/FPS, Chile) 	Yes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sharing of client details to facilitate faster processing

In the Single Entry Point and One-Stop Shop models conversely, horizontal integration can imply significant changes to task distribution, the functional organisation of the department and units involved, business processes, and the legal framework.

Vertical integration refers to the integration between different administrative levels from central to local level. Single Referral Points focus on the provision of information and therefore require a relatively low degree of vertical integration. Single Entry Point and One-Stop Shop models tend to require higher degrees of vertical integration because they permit the SWS, normally located at the local level, to carry out core functions – like verifying eligibility – on their behalf. The Brazilian and Chilean models, for example, include an important role for municipalities in collecting targeting data and entering these into the single registry for beneficiary selection; however these changes were underpinned by ongoing legal and policy reform as part of sweeping overhauls of their respective systems¹⁸.

¹⁸ In the Karnataka example, vertical integration was relatively easy during the pilot stage, during which coordination with two districts required only the signing of a special agreement to give clearance to WFC facilitators to submit and manage various applications on behalf of the client. During the design stages of scale-up however, obtaining the same clearance from the state has proven more challenging.

3.5 Key considerations

This section focuses on technical design features and key considerations that are useful to consider when designing an SWS.

3.5.1 Target population

Different SWS models are designed to serve different target groups. The SWS target group determines to some extent its appropriate design. While some models like the Chilean and Brazilian examples target the extreme poor, other models like the Karnataka WFCs and the German Jobcenters categorically target a more specific population like informal workers and the unemployed respectively. The Public Service Hall One-Stop Shop models described in Box 8, are part of wider accountability and citizen-centred policy shifts, which seek to serve all citizens and are not designed to serve only the poor, vulnerable or socially excluded.

Box 9: Business process reengineering

The introduction of an SWS can fundamentally change the way in which service providers interact with each other and with clients/potential beneficiaries. The organisational structure as well as the business processes through which organisations carry out these functions must therefore be altered to reflect these changes. Generally, the greater the scope of services provided by the SWS, the greater the changes to the existing processes and therefore the need for redesign. Introducing an MIS also fundamentally changes the way processes are carried out, and requires business process reengineering. It is important that business process redesign takes place before the MIS is developed; the clear articulation and documentation of the redesigned process and workflows allows for the development of a more customised MIS.

Business process reengineering requires a mapping of the new process flows that will be carried out by the SWS, identifying possible gaps or bottlenecks, and clear delegation of component tasks to all actors. The extent of business process reengineering and organisational restructuring required differs across SWS models; Single Referral Point models almost always require no business process redesign or organisational restructuring as they do not change programme processes. Single Entry Points and One-Stop Shop models, however, fundamentally alter the manner in which clients receive information, apply for benefits, and are registered as beneficiaries, as well as the administrative level where these actions take place.

Extensive, ongoing business process redesign over several decades would have had to take place for the highly integrated Brazilian and Chilean models, alongside a fundamental redistribution of roles and responsibilities of those involved in social protection service provision.

3.5.2 Types of programmes and services covered

The eligibility criteria and application procedures of individual schemes help to determine the appropriateness of one SWS model over another. While it may be desirable to cover all possible social protection programmes and services, it may not be possible due to the nature of the beneficiary identification and registration process. Indeed there are very few, if any, examples of SWS models that can cover all social protection programmes and services.

The types of programmes and services that can be targeted through a Single Entry Point that uses a database like a single registry to verify eligibility and select beneficiaries are those that have clear eligibility criteria based on categorical (e.g. old age pensions, households with many children, single-headed households, etc.) or poverty-based targeting which can be measured by PMT or a similar tool. The programmes targeted through the SWS in Brazil, Chile, and Karnataka are examples of such programmes; once household data is entered into the single registry, the programmes and services for which the household is eligible are easily verified via the MIS. The eligibility criteria can be measured by simple survey-based data collection and verified via MIS.

Programmes and services with more complex application procedures that require assessment by a specialised body or household visits by a programme official are better suited to the type of Single Entry Point or Social Protection One-Stop Shop model which is sufficiently staffed and resourced to track households through the application process involving actors from multiple agencies. The German Jobcenter model, for example, assigns a caseworker to the client to help him or her manage a process that involves actors in several government organisations.

Single Referral Points can also be useful with these types of programmes, by providing clients with clear information on the requirements and processes and helping them meet these requirements, although the clients ultimately apply for the benefits themselves.

In Tajikistan, where assigning caseworkers was not possible, programmes and services were categorised into those that would be managed through the entire process (Single Entry Point), and those with more complex eligibility criteria, application processes and many government agencies involved in verification and service provision which would be served by the SWS only as a Single Referral Point.

Similarly, some SWS for social protection cover other related issues such as housing, health or employment programmes and services. Generally, if the government department responsible for social welfare is located in the ministry also responsible for these sectors (oftentimes health or labour for example), it may make sense for the SWS to cover those programmes as well. Many SWS models also identify locally available programmes offered by the local government, like the Indonesian example, NGOs or even smaller-scale organisations to which the client could be referred.

3.5.3 Social worker accompaniment and case management approaches

As described in some country examples in section 2, several SWS models include social worker support for a fixed period of time. The German Jobcenter model uses this approach; the caseworker assigned to a client carries out an assessment and sets an employment goal for the client, helping them to locate job postings and navigate the system to obtain benefits in the meantime.

One of the most cited models is the Chilean model, in which households develop and implement a plan to overcome poverty with the social worker assigned to their case.

The social worker/case management approach allows for customised solutions that address the specific needs of the client, particularly as these are likely to change over time. Social workers are better equipped to deal more effectively with the complex and dynamic realities faced by the client than SWS officers who are trained to refer clients to services and programmes that suit their needs at a particular point in time.

However, social worker accompaniment can be costly. Social workers can only carry out effective case management if they have a manageable number of clients. In the Chilean model the cost was estimated about ten per cent of the cost of the programme per beneficiary, with each social worker handling about 50 families (Galasso 2006)¹⁹. Many countries have even higher standards on caseloads per social worker. Even in the relatively well-resourced German Jobcenter model, the ratio of clients to caseworkers is considered high, resulting in less tailored case management (Sztandar-Sztanderska 2014). Another prerequisite for this model is the availability of qualified social workers. If the social workers must serve remote areas, the cost increases both in terms of travel and per diem expenses, as well as the need for more social workers to cover the population.

3.5.4 Feedback mechanism for supply improvement

Another interesting and useful design feature of some SWS models is a mechanism that gathers and analyses information generated by the SWS on how to improve service. The SWS back office is well positioned to identify bottlenecks, duplication, inefficiencies or gaps in processes. It is also well positioned to identify mismatches between services offered and actual needs, anticipate new needs, and even contribute to the monitoring or oversight of actual service delivery at local level. The back office must be sufficiently resourced with funds and staff with sufficient capacity to carry out this function. The Chilean model uses social workers to provide feedback to municipalities on gaps in services and programmes to improve planning.

¹⁹ While there is no international standard for a social worker to client ratio, most countries seem to recommend ratios of between 10 to 20 clients per social worker.

4. Conclusions

A growing number of developing countries and emerging economies have implemented or piloted the SWS as a model to boost access to social protection, as well as to introduce greater efficiency by reorganising existing systems. While there is no single SWS and indeed a good degree of variety exists among country examples, some general trends and lessons can be drawn from the international experience.

There is a high demand for documented experiences and lessons learnt from different approaches and for evidence on what does or does not work. To contribute to this discussion, this paper has attempted to distinguish between different models found mainly in developing countries and emerging economies that deal specifically with social protection, and to provide a comparative analysis of international examples, including their strengths and weaknesses.

As the analysis shows, the SWS is more of a concept, which can be broken into three broad models (Single Referral Point, Single Entry Point and One-Stop Shop), rather than a specific intervention type. Even within each model, there is much variation among the different international examples given in this paper.

While there is much information on the more mature, established models in Latin America (many of which are being replicated in other countries), there is a relative lack of information offering a comparative analysis and contrasting the strengths and weaknesses of the different models in different contexts, and in response to different challenges to access. In particular, helpful operational details on implementing or improving SWS pilots and systems are difficult to find in the existing literature. As such, it is important that decision-makers involved in designing, managing and implementing SWS directly share information and exchange lessons learned. German Development Cooperation is engaged in supporting peer-to-peer learning and knowledge exchange between countries to further stimulate this discussion.

Finally, the appropriate form of an SWS depends largely on its objective or aim. While the analysis of international examples and knowledge exchange among different countries can certainly help stakeholders decide how to set up and reform an SWS, there is no 'one size fits all' model. Design and implementation issues at national level must consider specific goals, national and local circumstances, the institutional, human and financial resources available, and the existing legal frameworks. Based on the extensive experience in a range of partner countries and the experience with SWS approaches in Germany itself, German Development Cooperation can provide support for partner countries to design and implement appropriate SWS models through technical and process advice, taking into account the respective country context.

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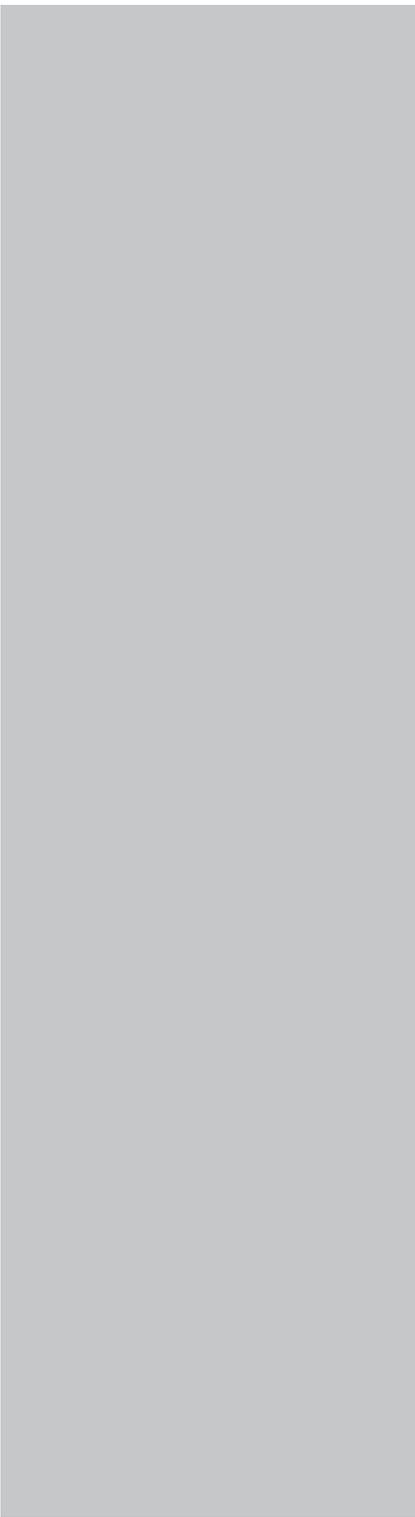
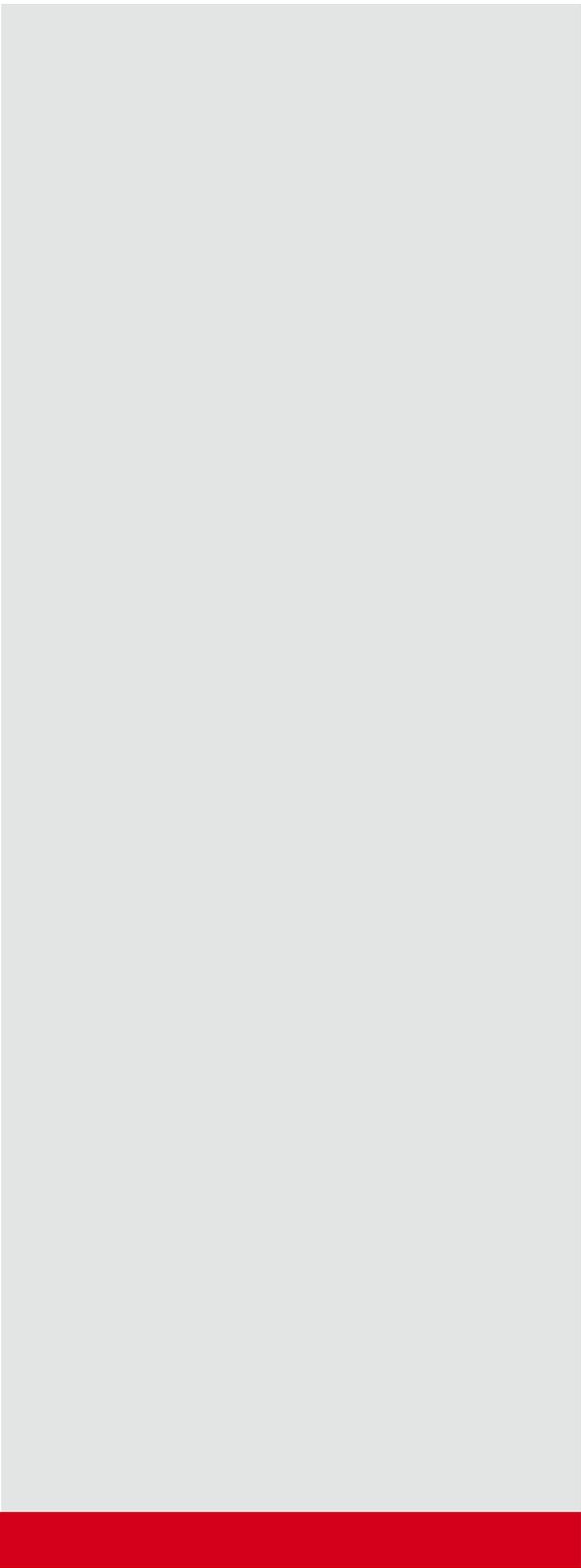
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