



# **Ethical Considerations in Using Predictive AI for Risk Assessment in Child Protection Social Work**

***Tonbara Mike Agbana***

Department of Social Work and Community Studies, Faculty of Health, Education and Life Sciences, Birmingham City University, UK

---

## **ABSTRACT**

Predictive artificial intelligence (AI) has the potential to help improve early intervention, resource allocation, and risk assessments in child protection social work. AI models can predict the likelihoods of harm happening based on case histories, demographic information and service interactions at large scales to allow social workers to intervene before an event occurs. However, this particular advance in technology also raises a host of highly complicated ethical questions that should be thoroughly explored. Predictive AI in social services comes with questions of fairness, transparency, accountability and the delicate dance between public interest and individual rights on a broader level. This is particularly acute the context of child protection, where errors can result in over-inclusiveness and unnecessary family interventions or under-inclusiveness that can have catastrophic consequences for children. Important ethical considerations are likely to include risks of algorithmic bias, perpetuating or worsening social inequalities in line with historical discrimination if the training data reflect systemic determinants; questions around data privacy and consent (child welfare is a sensitive domain); and the black-box algorithms undercutting trust and reducing professional discretion. Allowing algorithmic systems to relieve humans of the burden of risk assessment can also introduce novel forms of accountability and questions about rights and due process when such decisions affect families. Overcoming these challenges, Picker, Metcalf, and Crawford argue will entail integrating ethical values in the design of AI systems, instituting meaningful mechanisms for accountability, engaging stakeholders throughout the deployment of models, and enacting human-in-the-loop solutions that allow for professional judgement. Through transparent governance frameworks governing predictive AI applications, child protection agencies can reap the benefits of technological tools without compromising the rights and dignity of the children and families they serve.

**Keywords:** Predictive AI, Child Protection, Risk Assessment, Algorithmic Bias, Data Ethics, Social Work Governance

---

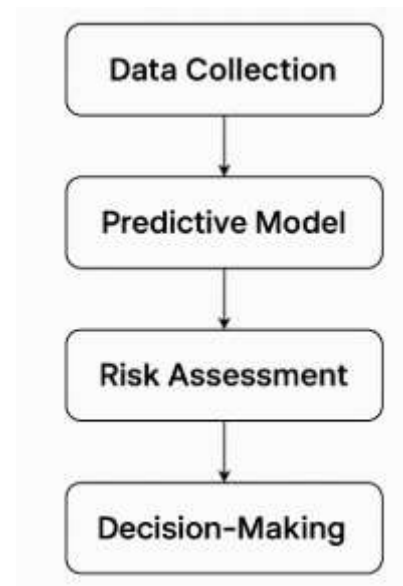
## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### ***1.1 The Emergence of Predictive AI in Social Work***

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a disruptor in the way public services are delivered, providing advanced analytics to support decisions, help process data, and plan proactive programs in complex social systems [1]. More broadly, this adoption of predictive AI reflects the broader use of government technologies to modernise service delivery; target resources more effectively and address operational inefficiencies within a social work context [2]. Predictive models use such data in large datasets like case histories, demographic indicators and service usage patterns to predict the probability of certain outcomes, facilitating timelier and possibly more effective interventions [3].

Artificial intelligence is now being applied in a range of fields such as healthcare, policing, education and welfare, where it has shown considerable potential for both promise and perils, but mainly focused on issues of fairness, transparency and accountability [4]. Social work is literally at the crossroads of these arguments, as it hinges on some of the most sensitive aspects of our lives in terms and personally identifying information and life changing decisions. There are also predictive AI tools that can detect children who might be at higher risk to help prioritize effectively [5].

In the case of child protection risk assessment, however, the stakes are unusually high, a false positive can lead to unnecessary family disruption and a false negative can result in serious harm [6]. Figure 1. Predictive AI integration in social work risk assessment Table 1 Legislation and Foundations influencing use of AI in child protection contexts This article is a first step on this journey, moving from the wider ADHDI landscape in public services to the domain of child protection where privacy, fairness, and professional accountability must form essential elements throughout every phase of predictive AI design, deployment and oversight [7].



**Figure 1:** Workflow of predictive AI integration in social work risk assessment, showing sequential stages from data collection and preprocessing to model training, risk scoring, human review, and final intervention decisions, emphasizing the collaborative role between AI systems and professional judgment.

### 1.2 Child Protection in the Age of Data-Driven Decision-Making

Child protection systems operate under intense pressure to act swiftly and decisively in safeguarding children from harm. The rising complexity of social issues such as poverty, domestic abuse, and mental health crises has created an urgent demand for tools that enable earlier identification of at-risk children [8]. Predictive AI meets this demand by using historical and real-time data to flag patterns that may precede incidents of abuse or neglect [9].

The integration of data-driven methods into child protection aligns with global trends toward evidence-based practice in social services [10]. AI can support social workers in prioritising cases, allocating resources, and identifying hidden risk factors that might otherwise be overlooked [11]. For example, a predictive model might detect correlations between school absenteeism, healthcare visits, and prior welfare involvement providing an early warning signal for intervention [12].

Nevertheless, while the potential benefits are substantial, the shift toward predictive analytics introduces tensions between technological efficiency and the human-centred ethos of social work [13]. There is a risk that the over-reliance on algorithmic recommendations could erode professional judgment, particularly if outputs are perceived as definitive rather than advisory. This is further complicated by the “black-box” nature of many machine learning models, which can obscure the reasoning behind risk scores [14].

Figure 1 captures the process from data input to decision support, while Table 1 offers a comparative view of legislative frameworks across jurisdictions. As predictive AI becomes embedded in practice, the challenge will be ensuring that these tools enhance rather than replace professional discernment, while upholding the rights and dignity of children and families [15]. The next section examines why ethical principles must form the foundation for AI deployment in child welfare decision-making.

**Table 1: Key legislative instruments affecting AI use in child protection across selected jurisdictions**

Jurisdiction	Primary Data Protection Laws	Child Safeguarding Legislation	AI/Automated Decision-Making Regulations	Human Oversight Requirements	Notable Provisions Relevant to Predictive AI
United Kingdom	Data Protection Act 2018; UK GDPR	Children Act 1989; Children and Social Work Act 2017	No dedicated AI Act yet; guidance from Centre for Data Ethics and Innovation (CDEI)	Mandatory under UK GDPR for decisions producing legal/significant effects	Explicit right to human review; lawful basis for processing sensitive data must align with safeguarding duties
European Union	EU General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)	National child protection laws vary by Member State	Proposed EU AI Act (risk-based classification)	Required for high-risk AI systems	Risk assessments mandated; transparency obligations for high-risk applications

Jurisdiction	Primary Data Protection Laws	Child Safeguarding Legislation	AI/Automated Decision-Making Regulations	Human Oversight Requirements	Notable Provisions Relevant to Predictive AI
Canada	Personal Information Protection and Electronic Documents Act (PIPEDA)	Provincial child welfare statutes (e.g., Ontario Child, Youth and Family Services Act 2017)	Algorithmic Impact Assessment (AIA) required for federal systems	Required for decisions affecting rights	Public disclosure of AI use; bias audit recommendations in federal guidance
Australia	Privacy Act 1988	State-based child protection acts (e.g., Children and Young Persons (Care and Protection) Act 1998, NSW)	AI Ethics Framework (voluntary)	Encouraged but not mandated in law	Principles of fairness, transparency, and human-centred values apply to government AI
New Zealand	Privacy Act 2020	Oranga Tamariki Act 1989	Government Algorithm Charter (2020)	Human involvement strongly recommended	Commitment to transparency; community engagement as a design requirement

### 1.3 Framing the Ethical Debate

The ethical dimensions of predictive AI in child protection are not peripheral they are central to its legitimacy, trustworthiness, and effectiveness [16]. At its core, child protection involves balancing the imperative to prevent harm with the obligation to respect family autonomy and privacy [17]. Predictive AI complicates this balance by introducing probabilistic judgments that may reflect, or even amplify, systemic inequities embedded in historical data [18].

Algorithmic bias is a particularly acute concern, as models trained on incomplete or biased datasets risk disproportionately flagging families from minority or disadvantaged backgrounds [19]. Transparency is equally critical; without explainable AI, stakeholders including families, social workers, and oversight bodies may struggle to understand how risk assessments are generated [20]. Privacy protections must also be robust, given that predictive systems require access to sensitive, often inter-agency, datasets [21].

Beyond these core ethical issues, questions of accountability loom large. If a predictive model's recommendation leads to an adverse outcome, determining responsibility between the technology provider, the social worker, and the employing agency becomes complex [22]. This underlines the need for governance frameworks that integrate ethical review, stakeholder participation, and continuous monitoring of system performance [23].

As shown in Figure 1 and summarised in Table 1, these considerations span the technical, legal, and professional domains. This article proceeds by unpacking the conceptual and policy context, exploring both the opportunities and the risks of predictive AI in child protection, and advancing strategic recommendations to ensure ethical alignment at every stage from design to frontline deployment [24].

## 2. CONCEPTUAL AND POLICY CONTEXT

### 2.1 Defining Predictive AI in Child Protection

Predictive AI in child protection refers to the application of machine learning (ML) and other statistical modelling techniques to forecast the likelihood of specific safeguarding outcomes, such as the probability of abuse, neglect, or family breakdown [6]. These systems draw upon a combination of historical and real-time data, integrating variables such as prior social service involvement, health records, educational attendance patterns, and criminal justice interactions [7]. The models operate by detecting patterns and correlations in large datasets that may not be readily apparent to human practitioners, thus offering an additional lens for risk assessment.

The core components of predictive AI systems include the data input layer, which consolidates structured data (e.g., case notes, demographic information) and unstructured data (e.g., narrative records, text fields), the model training phase where algorithms learn from historical cases, and the output layer, which generates probability scores or classifications [8]. Outputs may range from binary risk determinations (e.g., "high" vs. "low" risk) to nuanced risk scores, rankings, or decision-support recommendations [9].

Different modelling approaches are employed, including supervised learning models that train on labelled datasets, unsupervised learning models that detect latent risk clusters, and hybrid approaches combining rule-based logic with probabilistic outputs [10]. Figure 1 in Section 1 illustrates the typical workflow of predictive AI integration into social work decision-making, showing the flow from data ingestion to frontline practitioner review.

In practice, predictive AI tools in child protection are often embedded into case management systems, enabling social workers to receive automated alerts or prioritised caseload lists [11]. While these systems can enhance efficiency and surface overlooked cases, their predictive accuracy depends heavily on the quality, completeness, and representativeness of the underlying data [12]. This dependence underscores the importance of robust governance, as inaccurate or biased outputs may have severe and irreversible consequences in child welfare contexts [13].

## **2.2 Relevant Policy and Regulatory Frameworks**

The use of predictive AI in child protection is governed by a complex interplay of data protection laws, child safeguarding legislation, and professional standards. In the UK, the Data Protection Act 2018 and the UK General Data Protection Regulation (UK GDPR) establish legal requirements for the processing of personal and sensitive data, including stipulations on lawfulness, fairness, transparency, and data minimisation [14]. Comparable frameworks exist internationally, such as the EU GDPR and Canada's Personal Information Protection and Electronic Documents Act (PIPEDA), each with unique provisions relevant to AI deployment in social services [15].

Child safeguarding legislation provides an additional regulatory layer. In England, the Children Act 1989 imposes a statutory duty on local authorities to protect children in need, while the Children and Social Work Act 2017 strengthens multi-agency safeguarding arrangements [16]. Similar obligations are embedded in Australia's Children and Young Persons (Care and Protection) Act 1998 and New Zealand's Oranga Tamariki Act 1989 [17].

Table 1 summarises key legislative instruments affecting AI use in child protection across selected jurisdictions, highlighting the convergence of data protection, child welfare law, and AI-specific governance measures. These frameworks influence not only data access and consent requirements but also algorithmic transparency obligations and the permissible scope of automated decision-making [18].

Ethical AI principles are increasingly embedded into legal and policy guidance. For instance, the European Commission's Ethics Guidelines for Trustworthy AI and the UK's Centre for Data Ethics and Innovation (CDEI) recommendations both emphasise fairness, accountability, and human oversight [19]. In child protection contexts, these principles must align with safeguarding imperatives, ensuring that predictive AI augments rather than replaces professional judgment. As shown in Figure 1 and reinforced in Table 1, policy and regulatory structures must be designed to simultaneously enable technological innovation and safeguard the rights of children and families [20].

## **2.3 Ethics Principles in Social Work and AI**

The ethical integration of predictive AI in child protection requires grounding in both the core values of social work and established AI ethics frameworks. The principle of beneficence demands that AI tools demonstrably promote the welfare of children, providing tangible benefits such as earlier intervention or more efficient case prioritisation [21]. This requires empirical validation of predictive accuracy and outcome improvements before deployment.

Non-maleficence requires that AI systems avoid causing harm, whether through false positives leading to unwarranted interventions or false negatives resulting in missed protection opportunities [22]. Given the high stakes, rigorous pre-implementation testing, continuous monitoring, and impact assessments are essential safeguards.

Autonomy in this context relates to respecting the agency of families and children, ensuring that AI-driven recommendations do not override their voices or unduly limit their choices [23]. This necessitates transparency measures, such as clear explanations of how risk scores are generated and opportunities for affected individuals to challenge decisions.

Justice addresses fairness and equity, ensuring that predictive AI does not exacerbate existing social inequalities or disproportionately target specific demographic groups [24]. This includes proactive bias audits, diverse stakeholder involvement in system design, and equitable access to the benefits of AI-enhanced social work.

Incorporating these principles requires organisational commitment and multi-disciplinary oversight. Ethical governance should involve collaboration between data scientists, social workers, legal experts, and community representatives [25]. Furthermore, as reflected in Table 1 and Figure 1, embedding these values into both the technical architecture and operational protocols of predictive AI systems is critical for ensuring trust and legitimacy [26]. By aligning the principles of beneficence, non-maleficence, autonomy, and justice with practical implementation strategies, child protection agencies can ensure that AI augments human capacity while upholding the profession's ethical mandate [27].

---

## **3. OPPORTUNITIES OF PREDICTIVE AI IN CHILD PROTECTION**

### **3.1 Early Risk Identification**

One of the most significant contributions of predictive AI in child protection lies in its ability to facilitate early risk identification, enabling interventions before harm escalates [11]. By analysing complex datasets such as prior social care involvement, healthcare utilisation, and school attendance AI models can detect subtle patterns that may indicate emerging risks [12]. For example, a model might highlight a correlation between frequent emergency department visits, unexcused school absences, and prior domestic violence reports, signalling an elevated likelihood of future harm [13].

Proactive identification offers several advantages. First, it allows social workers to act before a crisis occurs, reducing the severity of interventions needed and improving outcomes for children and families [14]. Second, it supports preventive service delivery, such as parenting programmes or community

support referrals, which are less intrusive and more cost-effective than crisis interventions [15]. Third, early detection can reduce the long-term financial and social costs associated with prolonged child welfare involvement, institutional care, or repeated re-entry into the system [16].

However, the benefits of early risk identification are contingent on data quality and ethical safeguards. Poorly curated or incomplete datasets may lead to inaccurate predictions, increasing the risk of false positives or negatives [17]. Moreover, as indicated in Table 1, legal frameworks such as the UK GDPR mandate that automated profiling for significant decisions such as initiating a child protection investigation be subject to human oversight [18].

Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the workflow for predictive AI integration in social work, illustrating how risk signals are generated, validated, and reviewed before any action is taken. This ensures that predictions serve as decision-support rather than definitive judgments [19]. By embedding these processes into operational practice, agencies can leverage early risk identification to improve safeguarding outcomes while maintaining compliance with ethical and legal obligations [20].

### **3.2 Resource Optimization**

In many child protection agencies, resources both financial and human are stretched to capacity. Predictive AI can optimise the allocation of these resources by enabling more precise targeting of high-need cases [21]. This involves prioritising investigations and interventions based on the likelihood and severity of harm, ensuring that the most urgent cases receive prompt attention [22].

By generating ranked lists of cases according to predicted risk scores, AI tools can help social work managers distribute workloads more efficiently, preventing the overburdening of individual practitioners [23]. In addition, predictive models can inform strategic planning by identifying geographic areas or demographic groups with elevated aggregate risk, allowing for targeted community outreach or the deployment of specialist teams [24].

Figure 1 illustrates how, after data ingestion and model processing, outputs are integrated into existing case management systems. Risk scores are not used in isolation; they are considered alongside professional assessments, historical case notes, and contextual factors before resource allocation decisions are made [25]. This hybrid approach respects the principle of human oversight highlighted in Table 1 while maximising the operational value of AI-generated insights [26].

An additional benefit of resource optimisation lies in its potential to reduce “case drift,” where lower-risk cases consume disproportionate attention due to administrative or procedural delays [27]. By systematically prioritising high-risk cases, agencies can maintain a sharper focus on child safety, ultimately increasing the efficiency and impact of limited resources [28].

### **3.3 Supporting Professional Judgment –**

Contrary to fears that AI may replace human practitioners, predictive AI in child protection is most effective when positioned as a decision-support tool rather than a substitute for professional judgment [29]. AI models can surface insights that might be missed due to workload pressures, information silos, or cognitive biases, thereby enriching the evidence base upon which social workers rely [30].

In practice, this means that predictive outputs such as risk scores or alerts are reviewed in conjunction with the practitioner’s knowledge of the child, family dynamics, and community context [31]. This hybrid model aligns with the ethical principle of autonomy, as it preserves the agency of both professionals and service users [32].

Furthermore, predictive AI can enhance reflective practice by prompting practitioners to consider alternative hypotheses or explore additional lines of inquiry [33]. As shown in Figure 1, AI-generated insights are integrated into multi-stage decision-making processes, ensuring that any recommended actions undergo human validation before implementation [34].

Ultimately, when designed and deployed responsibly, predictive AI can strengthen rather than diminish professional autonomy, supporting practitioners in making more informed, timely, and equitable decisions [35].

### **3.4 Case Study of Effective Predictive AI Use –**

A notable example of predictive AI’s potential comes from a UK local authority pilot project aimed at reducing re-referrals to child protection services [36]. The authority integrated a predictive risk model into its existing case management system, focusing on children with prior but closed cases [37].

The model analysed a range of indicators, including frequency of school absences, emergency healthcare visits, and historical social work interventions [38]. When the model identified a high-risk case, it triggered an alert for a targeted follow-up by a senior social worker, who reviewed the circumstances before any direct action was taken [39].

Over a 12-month period, the pilot demonstrated a 15% reduction in re-referrals, with practitioners reporting that the tool helped them spot emerging risks they might otherwise have overlooked [40]. Importantly, no interventions were made solely on the basis of the AI output each decision followed a professional review, consistent with the safeguards outlined in Table 1 and operationalised through the workflow shown in Figure 1 [41].

The pilot illustrates how predictive AI, when implemented within a robust ethical and governance framework, can enhance the timeliness and effectiveness of child protection interventions without displacing human expertise [42].

## 4. CORE ETHICAL CHALLENGES

### 4.1 Algorithmic Bias and Fairness

Algorithmic bias presents one of the most persistent ethical risks in deploying predictive AI for child protection [15]. Bias can emerge when training datasets reflect historical inequities, systemic discrimination, or incomplete data coverage [16]. For example, if a dataset contains disproportionately high intervention rates for certain ethnic or socio-economic groups possibly due to past over-surveillance an AI model may perpetuate or even amplify these disparities [17].

Data representativeness is critical. Predictive models built on limited or skewed samples may generalise poorly across diverse populations, leading to differential accuracy rates that unfairly disadvantage some families [18]. This is particularly concerning in child welfare, where misclassification can result in unwarranted state intervention or missed protection opportunities [19].

Mitigating bias requires proactive strategies, such as bias audits, fairness-aware modelling techniques, and inclusion of community stakeholders in model development [20]. Additionally, Table 1 outlines the regulatory obligations in several jurisdictions that mandate non-discrimination in automated decision-making processes [21].

Figure 2 in this section maps the interconnected ethical challenges of predictive AI, illustrating how bias interacts with transparency, privacy, and accountability concerns to influence system legitimacy [22]. Addressing fairness is not merely a technical task; it is a governance challenge requiring continuous monitoring, open communication with affected communities, and the embedding of ethical review checkpoints throughout the AI lifecycle [23].



Figure 2: Ethical challenge map for predictive AI in child protection, illustrating the interconnections between bias, transparency, privacy, and accountability, and showing how these factors collectively influence system legitimacy. The diagram emphasizes that addressing fairness extends beyond technical solutions, requiring governance strategies such as continuous monitoring, community engagement, and integrated ethical review checkpoints across the AI lifecycle.

### 4.2 Transparency and Explainability

Transparency is essential for ensuring trust in predictive AI systems used in child protection [24]. Many advanced AI models, especially deep learning architectures, operate as “black boxes,” producing outputs without clear insight into the decision-making process [25]. This opacity can undermine stakeholder confidence and complicate the validation of predictions, particularly in high-stakes contexts [26].

Explainability refers to the ability to articulate, in understandable terms, how an AI model arrived at its conclusions [27]. In child welfare, this enables social workers, families, and oversight bodies to challenge or contextualise AI-generated risk scores [28]. Without explainability, there is a danger of over-reliance on AI outputs as unquestionable facts, potentially displacing professional judgment [29].

Emerging techniques, such as SHAP (Shapley Additive Explanations) and LIME (Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations), offer pathways to make complex models more interpretable without sacrificing predictive performance [30]. However, these tools must be integrated thoughtfully into social work practice, balancing the need for clarity with the complexity of underlying data relationships [31].

Figure 2 highlights transparency as a central node in the ethical challenge map, influencing both accountability and fairness [32]. Furthermore, Table 1 reinforces that some jurisdictions legally require explainability for automated decision systems that affect individuals' rights [33]. In child protection, transparency is not only a compliance issue but a moral imperative, ensuring that predictive AI augments rather than obscures the reasoning behind safeguarding decisions [34].

#### **4.3 Privacy and Data Security**

Predictive AI in child protection operates on highly sensitive data, including health, education, and criminal justice records [35]. The aggregation of such datasets heightens the risk of privacy breaches, especially if robust security measures are not in place [36]. Unauthorised access, whether through cyberattacks or internal misuse, could cause significant harm to affected children and families [37].

Data minimisation a requirement under frameworks like the UK GDPR dictates that only information strictly necessary for the intended purpose should be processed [38]. Yet, in practice, predictive modelling often encourages the inclusion of as many variables as possible to improve accuracy, creating tension between performance optimisation and privacy protection [39].

Encryption, secure data storage, and role-based access controls are essential components of safeguarding information [40]. Equally important is the governance of data sharing between agencies, ensuring compliance with legal provisions and informed consent requirements [41].

Figure 2 places privacy at the intersection of fairness and accountability, as inadequate protections can erode trust and expose agencies to legal and reputational risks [42]. Ultimately, safeguarding sensitive information is both a technical and ethical responsibility, foundational to the legitimacy of predictive AI in child welfare [43].

#### **4.4 Accountability and Liability**

Determining accountability for AI-driven decisions in child protection is complex, given the interplay between technology providers, social workers, and employing agencies [44]. When an AI system contributes to a harmful outcome such as the unwarranted removal of a child it can be challenging to assign responsibility [45].

Professional accountability frameworks, such as those outlined in social work codes of ethics, require that practitioners retain ultimate responsibility for decisions, even when informed by AI recommendations [46]. This aligns with legal safeguards in Table 1, which stipulate that automated decision-making affecting individuals' rights must be subject to human oversight [47].

Liability considerations also extend to system developers, particularly if harm results from flawed algorithms, inadequate training data, or failure to disclose model limitations [48]. This raises the need for contractual clarity between agencies and technology vendors, explicitly defining roles, responsibilities, and recourse in the event of adverse outcomes [49].

Figure 2 situates accountability as a cross-cutting ethical issue, influenced by transparency, bias mitigation, and robust oversight mechanisms [50]. By embedding clear lines of responsibility and ensuring decision-making remains human-led, agencies can balance innovation with the professional and legal duties inherent in child protection work [51].

---

## **5. BALANCING AI WITH HUMAN-CENTRED SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE**

### **5.1 Human-in-the-Loop Decision-Making**

Human-in-the-loop (HITL) decision-making ensures that predictive AI in child protection serves as an aid, not a replacement, for professional discretion [21]. In this approach, AI-generated risk scores or alerts are integrated into established safeguarding workflows, but final decisions remain the responsibility of qualified practitioners [22]. This preserves the ethical and legal principle that human judgment must guide interventions affecting children's rights and welfare [23].

HITL systems are particularly valuable in contexts where AI outputs may lack nuance, such as cases involving cultural complexity, conflicting information, or sensitive family dynamics [24]. Social workers can interpret model recommendations in light of qualitative insights, direct observations, and contextual knowledge that AI cannot fully capture [25]. By requiring human review before action, agencies can avoid over-reliance on probabilistic outputs while benefiting from AI's analytical capacity [26].

The HITL framework also supports accountability, as practitioners can document their reasoning for agreeing with or diverging from AI suggestions [27]. Figure 3 illustrates the human-AI collaborative decision-making model, showing how risk assessment moves through AI analysis, professional evaluation, and, if necessary, multi-agency consultation before intervention [28].



Figure 3: Human–AI collaborative decision-making model in child protection risk assessment.

Table 1 reinforces that in several jurisdictions, such as the UK, Canada, and the EU, regulatory frameworks mandate human oversight for automated decisions with significant legal or social consequences [29]. Embedding HITL protocols into predictive AI workflows aligns technological use with both ethical guidelines and statutory obligations [30]. This ensures that while AI can accelerate data analysis and flag emerging risks, the core responsibility for child protection decisions remains anchored in professional judgment [31].

### 5.2 Ethical Training for Social Workers

The effective use of predictive AI in child protection depends on social workers possessing the skills to critically assess AI outputs and their implications [32]. Ethical training must therefore go beyond technical instruction, encompassing an understanding of algorithmic bias, data privacy, explainability, and the socio-legal context in which AI operates [33].

AI literacy enables practitioners to identify when model predictions may be unreliable, such as in cases involving underrepresented populations or incomplete datasets [34]. Training should also address the importance of triangulating AI outputs with independent evidence, direct engagement with families, and consultation with colleagues [35].

Continuous professional development programmes can incorporate case-based learning, simulations, and scenario analysis, allowing social workers to practice integrating AI insights into real-world decision-making [36]. As Figure 3 shows, practitioner input at the review stage is critical for ensuring ethical compliance and contextual accuracy [37].

Furthermore, embedding AI ethics into formal social work education can prepare new entrants to the profession to navigate evolving technological landscapes [38]. By fostering critical evaluation skills and ethical awareness, training initiatives can strengthen trust in both the technology and the professionals who use it [39].

### 5.3 Collaborative Model Design with Stakeholder Input

Building predictive AI systems for child protection without stakeholder involvement risks creating tools that are misaligned with community needs and professional practice realities [40]. Collaborative model design brings together social workers, data scientists, legal experts, community advocates, and, where appropriate, families with lived experience [41].



Stakeholder engagement ensures that models reflect diverse perspectives, helping to identify potential sources of bias, cultural misinterpretation, or operational inefficiency before deployment [42]. This process also increases transparency, as participants can better understand how models work and influence their ethical guardrails [43].

As highlighted in Figure 3, stakeholder input can be integrated into multiple stages of the AI development cycle from feature selection and data preprocessing to pilot testing and post-deployment evaluation [44]. Such co-design processes are consistent with participatory ethics in social work, ensuring that predictive AI serves the communities it is intended to protect while respecting their values and rights [45].

#### 5.4 Guarding Against Over-Reliance on AI

While predictive AI can enhance efficiency and accuracy, over-reliance poses risks of deskilling professionals and undermining critical thinking [46]. Safeguards against over-reliance include clear policy statements that AI outputs are advisory, mandatory review protocols, and performance metrics that assess practitioner engagement with AI recommendations [47].

Figure 3 depicts these safeguards within the collaborative decision-making framework, showing that every AI-generated output must pass through human validation before influencing action [48]. As reinforced in Table 1, such safeguards not only comply with legal oversight requirements but also maintain the integrity of child protection as a human-centred practice [49].

## 6. MEASURING AND MITIGATING ETHICAL RISKS

### 6.1 Ethics Impact Assessments

Ethics Impact Assessments (EIAs) provide a structured, pre-deployment tool for evaluating the potential social, legal, and ethical consequences of predictive AI in child protection [25]. These assessments are designed to identify risks before a system is implemented, ensuring that technical performance is balanced with ethical compliance [26].

An EIA typically involves mapping the AI system's purpose, data sources, decision-making scope, and potential downstream impacts [27]. In the child welfare context, this includes assessing the likelihood of algorithmic bias, the adequacy of privacy safeguards, and the transparency of model outputs [28]. Stakeholder consultations incorporating social workers, legal experts, and community representatives form a critical component, as they surface concerns that may not be apparent to developers alone [29].

Table 2 presents a sample ethics assessment framework for predictive AI in child protection, outlining evaluation criteria such as fairness, explainability, human oversight, and community accountability [30]. This table demonstrates how qualitative and quantitative measures can be combined to create a comprehensive ethical risk profile.

**Table 2: Sample ethics assessment framework for predictive AI in child protection**

Ethical Criterion	Key Questions	Qualitative Measures	Quantitative Measures	Implementation Notes
<b>Fairness</b>	Does the model perform equally across demographic groups? Are there disparities in false positive/negative rates?	Stakeholder interviews on perceived fairness; review of historical intervention patterns	Disaggregated accuracy, precision, recall, and false positive/negative rates by group	Regular bias audits required; corrective reweighting or feature adjustments where disparities occur
<b>Explainability</b>	Can decision logic be communicated in understandable terms to practitioners and affected families?	Practitioner feedback on clarity of model outputs; usability testing with social workers	Percentage of predictions accompanied by interpretable explanations (e.g., SHAP values)	Include plain-language output summaries in reports; training for interpreting explanations
<b>Human Oversight</b>	Are AI-generated recommendations reviewed by qualified professionals before action?	Audit of case workflows to confirm HITL processes	Proportion of AI recommendations overridden, modified, or confirmed by human reviewers	Mandate documentation of professional reasoning alongside AI outputs
<b>Privacy &amp; Data Security</b>	Are data collection, storage, and sharing practices compliant with legal and ethical standards?	Data governance policy reviews; stakeholder trust surveys	Number of security incidents per reporting period; encryption coverage (%)	Enforce data minimisation; secure multi-agency data sharing agreements

Ethical Criterion	Key Questions	Qualitative Measures	Quantitative Measures	Implementation Notes
Community Accountability	Is there a mechanism for public oversight and transparency reporting?	Community advisory board feedback; analysis of public reporting clarity	Frequency of transparency reports; number of public consultations held annually	Publish model cards and performance dashboards accessible to the public

Conducting EIAs before deployment is reinforced in several AI governance guidelines, including the OECD AI Principles and the EU's Ethics Guidelines for Trustworthy AI, both of which emphasise iterative risk assessment and transparency [31]. As Table 2 shows, these frameworks can be adapted to child protection, where safeguarding imperatives demand heightened scrutiny [32].

By institutionalising EIAs, agencies can not only mitigate ethical risks but also demonstrate due diligence to regulators and the public, thereby fostering trust in AI-assisted decision-making [33].

## 6.2 Bias Detection and Correction Mechanisms

Bias detection and correction mechanisms are essential for ensuring predictive AI systems operate fairly across diverse populations [34]. These mechanisms begin with regular algorithmic audits that compare prediction accuracy and false positive/negative rates across demographic groups [35]. Disparities may indicate systemic bias arising from imbalanced training data, flawed feature selection, or structural inequities reflected in the data [36].

Bias correction strategies can include reweighting datasets, introducing fairness constraints into model training, and using synthetic data augmentation to improve representation for under-sampled groups [37]. Continuous monitoring post-deployment is crucial, as model performance may drift over time due to changes in population characteristics or service delivery patterns [38].

External auditing can provide independent verification of fairness metrics, adding credibility and transparency to internal monitoring processes [39]. Some jurisdictions, as outlined in Table 1, are moving towards mandatory algorithmic impact assessments that incorporate fairness audits as a compliance requirement [40].

These mechanisms should be built into the operational workflow, as shown in Figure 2's ethical challenge map, ensuring that bias detection is not a one-off exercise but an ongoing obligation [41]. By embedding bias monitoring and corrective action protocols, agencies can uphold principles of justice and non-discrimination while maintaining public confidence in predictive AI tools [42].

## 6.3 Community Oversight Models

Community oversight models bring transparency and accountability to predictive AI deployment in child protection [43]. These models typically involve citizen advisory boards, composed of community members, service users, advocates, and subject matter experts, who review AI system design, implementation, and performance [44].

Advisory boards can provide feedback on fairness, cultural appropriateness, and unintended consequences, ensuring that AI tools align with community values and safeguarding priorities [45]. Transparency reporting regular public disclosures detailing model performance, bias audit results, and corrective actions further enhances accountability [46].

Incorporating community oversight aligns with participatory ethics, which emphasises involving those affected by technology in its governance [47]. Figure 2 situates oversight within the broader ethical framework, showing how it intersects with fairness, transparency, and accountability requirements [48].

Some agencies have adopted open "model cards" and "datasheets for datasets," publishing plain-language explanations of how their predictive AI systems work and the safeguards in place [49]. These practices, coupled with advisory board reviews, create a feedback loop that strengthens both public trust and system effectiveness [50].

By embedding community oversight into AI governance, agencies can ensure that predictive systems remain responsive to the needs of children and families, reinforcing the legitimacy of technology-assisted decision-making in sensitive social work contexts [51].

# 7. COMPARATIVE CASE STUDIES

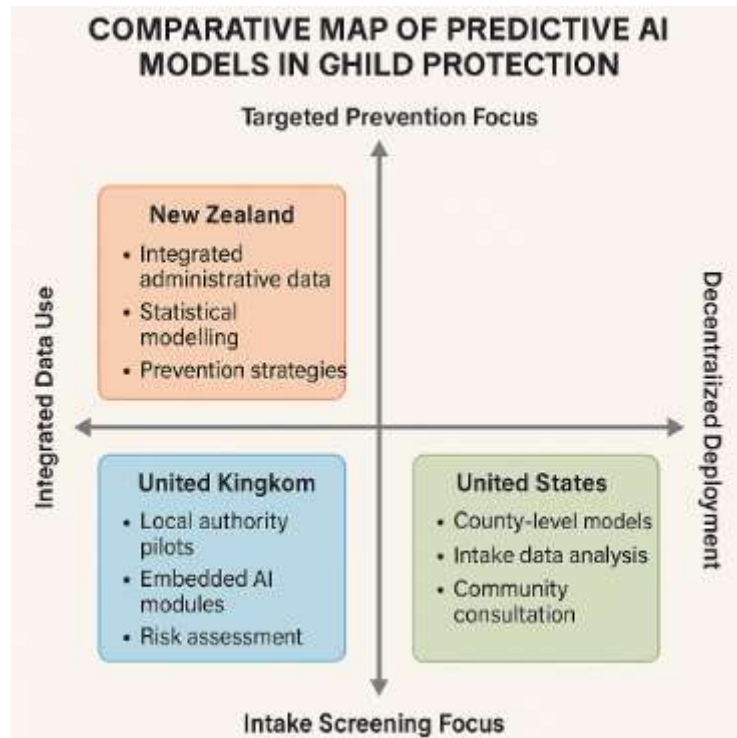
## 7.1 New Zealand's Child Welfare Predictive Model

New Zealand's Ministry for Social Development piloted a predictive risk modelling (PRM) system to identify children at high risk of maltreatment before their first contact with child protection services [29]. The model used integrated administrative datasets, including parental welfare history, criminal

records, and health data, to generate risk scores [30]. Supporters argued that this approach allowed earlier interventions and better resource allocation to vulnerable families [31].

However, the programme faced significant controversy, particularly around concerns of algorithmic bias and potential over-surveillance of marginalised groups [32]. Critics warned that historical inequities embedded in the data could result in disproportionate risk scores for Māori and Pasifika families, exacerbating existing disparities [33]. Transparency was also a challenge many stakeholders struggled to understand how the model derived its predictions, reinforcing concerns about fairness and accountability [34].

Despite these challenges, the pilot demonstrated potential benefits, such as reducing re-referral rates in certain test regions and enabling proactive engagement with at-risk families [35]. Ethical safeguards included requiring human review of all high-risk alerts and offering families voluntary engagement with support services rather than automatic statutory intervention [36]. Figure 4's comparative map illustrates how New Zealand's approach emphasised integrated data use, strong statistical modelling, and targeted prevention strategies compared to other jurisdictions [37].



**Figure 4:** Comparative visual map of predictive AI models in child protection, highlighting New Zealand's emphasis on integrated data use, robust statistical modelling, and targeted prevention strategies compared to the policy, technical, and ethical priorities observed in other jurisdictions.

## 7.2 US County-Level Predictive Risk Modelling

In the United States, several counties most notably Allegheny County in Pennsylvania have implemented predictive risk models to assist child welfare decision-making [38]. The Allegheny Family Screening Tool (AFST) analyses call centre intake data, demographic factors, and historical service involvement to assign risk scores for incoming child protection referrals [39].

The AFST has been credited with improving consistency in screening decisions, reducing subjective variation between intake workers [40]. County evaluations reported that high-risk alerts often corresponded with cases later substantiated, indicating predictive value [41].

Nevertheless, ethical debates emerged over privacy, consent, and the potential for disproportionate flagging of low-income and minority families [42]. Critics argued that using socio-economic indicators as predictive features risked reinforcing structural inequalities [43]. Transparency efforts included public release of the model's methodology, community briefings, and third-party evaluations to assess fairness and accuracy [44].

Lessons from the AFST highlight the importance of continuous bias monitoring, robust stakeholder engagement, and the legal requirement for human oversight before acting on model recommendations [45]. Figure 4 positions the US approach as more decentralised and intake-focused than New Zealand's integrated prevention model, with stronger emphasis on public transparency and community consultation [46].

### 7.3 UK Local Authority Pilots

Several UK local authorities have tested predictive AI tools to support child protection decision-making, often focusing on re-referral risk assessment or caseload prioritisation [47]. Pilots have integrated predictive modules into existing case management systems, using administrative data from social care, education, and health services [48].

Early evaluations reported potential efficiency gains, with social workers able to identify patterns of escalating risk sooner and focus on families most in need of intensive support [49]. However, integration challenges arose around data quality, interoperability between agencies, and practitioner trust in algorithmic recommendations [50].

Ethical safeguards in these pilots included strict adherence to the Data Protection Act 2018, human-in-the-loop protocols, and bias audits aligned with principles summarised in Table 1 [51]. Several councils also implemented practitioner training and public information campaigns to increase understanding of the models' purpose and limitations [52].

As shown in Figure 4, the UK approach tends to prioritise embedding AI within existing workflows, balancing predictive analytics with local authority discretion. This contrasts with the more centralised New Zealand model and the intake-screening focus seen in the US [53].

---

## 8. STRATEGIC RECOMMENDATIONS

### 8.1 Policy Reform and Regulation

Effective governance of predictive AI in child protection requires policy reforms that embed ethical AI standards directly into child welfare legislation [33]. Current legal frameworks, such as the UK Data Protection Act 2018 and sector-specific safeguarding policies, address data privacy and oversight but often lack explicit provisions for algorithmic fairness, explainability, and accountability [34].

Reforms should mandate that all AI systems influencing child protection decisions undergo independent ethics impact assessments before deployment, as outlined in Table 2, with results made publicly available [35]. Additionally, legislation should require human-in-the-loop protocols, ensuring that AI outputs cannot trigger statutory action without professional review [36].

National regulatory bodies could establish certification schemes for AI vendors, assessing compliance with ethical, technical, and safeguarding standards before authorisation for use in public services [37]. This would align with emerging global trends, such as the EU AI Act, which categorises child protection AI as "high-risk" and subjects it to heightened scrutiny [38].

As shown in Figure 4's comparative map, jurisdictions with stronger legal oversight have been better able to balance innovation with the protection of rights, reinforcing the need for explicit statutory safeguards [39].

### 8.2 Best Practices for Ethical AI Deployment

Best practices for deploying predictive AI in child protection should operationalise fairness, transparency, and accountability as continuous processes rather than static compliance measures [40]. Fairness requires systematic bias audits, representative datasets, and regular recalibration of models to reflect demographic shifts [41].

Transparency can be enhanced by publishing "model cards" detailing system purpose, data sources, performance metrics, and known limitations, allowing practitioners and the public to understand the tool's scope and boundaries [42]. In line with Table 3's action priority matrix, agencies should also commit to regular public reporting on AI performance, including false positive and negative rates [43].

Accountability mechanisms should clarify decision-making responsibilities, ensuring that final judgments remain with qualified social workers, as demonstrated in the UK and US pilots shown in Figure 4 [44]. Independent oversight bodies should be empowered to investigate AI-related grievances and recommend remedial action when ethical breaches occur [45].

Embedding these practices into procurement contracts, operational policies, and practitioner training ensures that ethical safeguards are integral to AI use, rather than retrofitted in response to public concern [46].

### 8.3 Research and Development Priorities

Future research should prioritise the creation of open, anonymised datasets that enable independent validation and benchmarking of predictive AI models in child protection [47]. Such datasets would facilitate transparency while respecting privacy obligations under laws summarised in Table 1 [48].

Interdisciplinary studies, bringing together social work, data science, ethics, and law, are essential for developing models that are both technically robust and socially responsible [49]. Collaborative research with affected communities can also ensure cultural relevance and improve trust in AI tools [50].



Figure 5 presents a conceptual framework for ethically-aligned predictive AI in child protection, integrating technical safeguards, human oversight, community participation, and continuous ethical evaluation. This model illustrates that responsible AI use is an iterative process, requiring constant recalibration to reflect evolving social, legal, and cultural contexts.

As outlined in Table 3, research priorities should include methods for enhancing model explainability, techniques for mitigating data bias, and longitudinal studies on the real-world impact of predictive AI on child welfare outcomes [51]. Investment in these areas will not only improve model performance but also strengthen public legitimacy and ethical compliance [52].

**Table 3: Stakeholder action priority matrix for ethical and effective predictive AI in child protection**

Stakeholder Group	Priority Actions	Short-Term Goals (1–2 years)	Long-Term Goals (3–5 years)	Key Metrics for Evaluation
<b>Policy Makers &amp; Regulators</b>	Establish AI-specific child protection guidelines; mandate bias audits and human oversight	Publish national standards; integrate AI governance into safeguarding frameworks	Enact binding AI legislation for social services; create national oversight bodies	Number of agencies compliant with standards; reduction in bias-related complaints
<b>Technology Developers</b>	Improve model explainability; implement fairness-aware algorithms	Deploy interpretable models (e.g., SHAP, LIME) in pilots; integrate real-time bias detection tools	Advance bias-mitigation techniques; develop culturally adaptive AI models	Explainability scores from practitioner evaluations; fairness metric stability across datasets
<b>Social Work Agencies</b>	Strengthen practitioner AI literacy; integrate HITL protocols into workflows	Launch targeted training programmes; adopt standardised ethical review templates	Embed continuous ethical auditing; build inter-agency data-sharing platforms with safeguards	Percentage of staff trained; documented HITL compliance rate
<b>Researchers</b>	Conduct longitudinal studies on predictive AI impact in child welfare	Initiate multi-site evaluations of model outcomes; study community trust dynamics	Publish evidence on long-term effectiveness, equity, and unintended consequences	Number of peer-reviewed publications; policy adoption influenced by findings
<b>Community Representatives</b>	Participate in AI co-design and oversight; ensure cultural relevance	Form advisory boards; review public-facing transparency reports	Institutionalise community-led governance of AI tools in social work	Frequency of advisory board meetings; public trust survey scores

## 9. CONCLUSION

Predictive AI offers significant opportunities to enhance child protection practice by enabling earlier risk identification, optimising resource allocation, and supporting professional judgment. When designed and implemented responsibly, these systems can strengthen safeguarding outcomes, reduce harm, and improve the efficiency of social work interventions. However, their potential is inseparable from the ethical imperatives that must govern their use.

Bias mitigation, transparency, privacy protection, and clear accountability structures are not optional add-ons but foundational to the legitimacy of AI in child welfare. As demonstrated through the case studies in Figure 4, jurisdictions that embed these principles into law, operational practice, and stakeholder engagement achieve higher trust and more equitable outcomes.

Moving forward, the challenge is to balance technological innovation with the rights and dignity of children and families. By committing to transparent, fair, and rights-based deployment, predictive AI can become a valuable partner in the mission to protect the most vulnerable while upholding the core values of social work.

## REFERENCE

1. Villumsen AM, Rosholm M, Bodilsen ST, Toft SD, Berg LS, Nirmalarajan LY. Ethical considerations in research when building predictive risk modelling in child and family welfare. *Journal of Comparative Social Work*. 2024 Oct 3;19(1):102-26.
2. Aarnio N, Pösö T, Repo J. Procedural causality hidden in child welfare assessments. *NEUE PRAXIS: ZEITSCHRIFT FÜR SOZIALARBEIT, SOZIALPÄDAGOGIK UND SOZIALPOLITIK*. 2023:83-92.
3. Keddell E, Hyslop I. Role type, risk perceptions and judgements in child welfare: A mixed methods vignette study. *Children and Youth Services Review*. 2018 Apr 1;87:130-9.
4. Calder M, McKinnon M, Sneddon R. National risk framework to support the assessment of children and young people. Edinburgh: Scottish Government. 2012.
5. Bastian P. Datenauswertungen zur Vorhersage von Entwicklungen—Predictive Risk Modelling. *Sozialer Fortschritt*. 2023 Nov 1(11):849-68.
6. Franzén C, Nilsson EL, Norberg JR, Peterson T. Trust as an analytical concept for the study of welfare programmes to reduce child health disparities: the case of a Swedish postnatal home visiting programme. *Children and youth services review*. 2020 Nov 1;118:105472.
7. Munro E. Risk assessment and decision making. *The SAGE handbook of social work*. 2012:224-35.
8. Dorgbenu EA. Improving investment strategies using market analytics and transparent communication in affordable housing real estate in the US. *GSC Adv Res Rev*. 2023;17(3):181–201. doi: <https://doi.org/10.30574/gscarr.2023.17.3.0480>.
9. Munro E. Managing societal and institutional risk in child protection. *Risk Analysis: An International Journal*. 2009 Jul;29(7):1015-23.
10. Leviner P. Child protection under Swedish law—legal duality and uncertainty. *European Journal of Social Work*. 2014 Mar 15;17(2):206-20.
11. Wollter F, Eriksson M. Emergency risk assessments in child welfare services: developing structured support to professional assessments. *Child & Family Social Work*. 2024.
12. Stanley T. 'Our tariff will rise': Risk, probabilities and child protection. *Health, risk & society*. 2013 Feb 1;15(1):67-83.
13. Helm D, Roesch-Marsh A. Ecology of judgement in child welfare and protection. In *Seminar held 2010* (Vol. 19, No. 10, pp. 2016-07).
14. Dorgbenu EA. Enhancing customer retention using predictive analytics and personalization in digital marketing campaigns. *Int J Sci Res Arch*. 2021;4(1):403–23. doi: <https://doi.org/10.30574/ijrsra.2021.4.1.0181>.
15. Hultman E, Forkby T, Höjer S. Professionalised, hybrid, and layperson models in Nordic child protection-actors in decision-making in out of home placements. *Nordic Social Work Research*. 2020 Jul 2;10(3):204-18.
16. Lecluijze I, Penders B, Feron FJ, Horstman K. Co-production of ICT and children at risk: The introduction of the Child Index in Dutch child welfare. *Children and Youth Services Review*. 2015 Sep 1;56:161-8.
17. Villumsen AM, Gjedde CA. The context-bound phenomenon of decision-making on referrals: A scoping review. *Children & Society*. 2023 Jul;37(4):1274-93.
18. Skivenes M, Skramstad H. The emotional dimension in risk assessment: a cross-country study of the perceptions of child welfare workers in England, Norway and California (United States). *The British Journal of Social Work*. 2015 Apr 1;45(3):809-24.
19. Darlington Y, Healy K, Feeney JA. Approaches to assessment and intervention across four types of child and family welfare services. *Children and Youth Services Review*. 2010 Mar 1;32(3):356-64.
20. Sjøbjerg LM, Nirmalarajan L, Villumsen AM. Perceptions of risk and decisions of referring children at risk. *Child care in practice*. 2020 Apr 2;26(2):130-45.

21. Adegboye O, Olateju AP, Okolo IP. Localized Battery Material Processing Hubs: Assessing Industrial Policy for Green Growth and Supply Chain Sovereignty in the Global South. *International Journal of Computer Applications Technology and Research*. 2024;13(12):38–53.
22. Mackrill T, Ebsen F, Birkholm Antczak H, Leth Svendsen I. Care planning using SMART criteria in statutory youth social work in Denmark: Reflections, challenges and solutions. *Nordic Social Work Research*. 2018 Jan 2;8(1):64-74.
23. Adelakun Matthew Adebowale, Olayiwola Blessing Akinngbe. Cross-platform financial data unification to strengthen compliance, fraud detection and risk controls. *World J Adv Res Rev*. 2023;20(3):2326–2343. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2023.20.3.2459>
24. Lätsch DC, Quehenberger J. The voice of the child in assessments of risk: do children from families on social assistance get less attention?. In 16th International Conference of the European Scientific Association on Residential & Family Care for Children and Adolescents (EuSARF), Zurich (online), 1-3 September 2021 2021 Sep 3.
25. Aldgate J, Rose W. Assessing and Managing Risk in Getting it right for every child. GIRFEC website: <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/1141/0123849.pdf>: Scottish Government. 2008.
26. Vyvey E, Roose R, De Wilde L, Roets G. Dealing with risk in child and family social work: From an anxious to a reflexive professional?. *Social sciences*. 2014 Oct 16;3(4):758-70.
27. Sørensen KM. The impact of political guidelines on participation of children and families' network in the risk assessment process. *Nordic Social Work Research*. 2019 Sep 2;9(3):250-61.
28. Parton N. Concerns about risk as a major driver of professional practice. Beyond the risk paradigm in child protection. 2017 Feb 20:3-14.
29. Gillingham P. Predictive risk modelling to prevent child maltreatment and other adverse outcomes for service users: Inside the 'black box' of machine learning. *The British Journal of Social Work*. 2016 Jun 1;46(4):1044-58.
30. Östlund G, Lindstedt PR, Cürüklü B, Blomberg H. Developing welfare technology to increase children's participation in child welfare assessments: an empirical case in Sweden. *European Journal of Social Work*. 2024 May 3;27(3):611-24.
31. Titterton MI. Positive risk taking with people at risk of harm. *Good practice in assessing risk: Current knowledge, issues and approaches*. 2011 Jan 15;3.
32. Lecluijze I, Penders B, Feron F, Horstman K. Innovation and justification in public health: The introduction of the child index in the Netherlands. In *Ethics in Public Health and Health Policy: Concepts, Methods, Case Studies* 2013 Mar 22 (pp. 153-173). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
33. Munro E. Decision-making under uncertainty in child protection: Creating a just and learning culture. *Child & Family Social Work*. 2019 Feb;24(1):123-30.
34. Raymond Antwi Boakye, George Gyamfi, Cindy Osei Agyemang. Developing real-time security analytics for EHR logs using intelligent behavioral and access pattern analysis. *Int J Eng Technol Res Manag*. 2023 Jan;07(01):144. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15486614>
35. Myrvang R, Bekkstrand VH. Evidence and risk discourses: Shaping professional practice and families in child protection. *Nordic Journal of Social Research*. 2023 Aug 30;14(1):1-3.
36. Kojan BH, Marthinsen E, Clifford G. Combining public health approaches with increased focus on risk and safety: A Norwegian experience. In *Re-visioning public health approaches for protecting children* 2019 Apr 27 (pp. 455-469). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
37. Onabowale Oreoluwa. Innovative financing models for bridging the healthcare access gap in developing economies. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*. 2020;5(3):200–218. doi: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2020.5.3.0023>
38. Keddell E. The devil in the detail: algorithmic risk prediction tools and their implications for ethics, justice and decision-making. *Decision Making, Assessment and Risk in Social Work*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. 2023 Aug 16:405-20.
39. McCafferty P, Taylor B. Risk, decision-making and assessment in child welfare. *Child Care in Practice*. 2020 Apr 2;26(2):107-10.
40. Žalimienė L, Gevorgianienė V, Petružytė D, Seniutis M, Gvaldaitė L, Šumskienė E, Charenkova J. Navigating the context of uncertainty in child protection practice. *Journal of Public Child Welfare*. 2023 Jan 1;17(1):141-66.
41. Sletten MS. Proceduralisation of decision-making processes: a case study of child welfare practice. *Nordic Social Work Research*. 2024 Jan 2;14(1):149-61.
42. de Haan I, Connolly M. Anticipating risk: Predictive risk modelling as a signal of adversity. *Beyond the Risk Paradigm in Child Protection: Current Debates and New Directions*. 2017 Feb 20:29.
43. Kumbankyet J. Checks and balances: the ultimate guide to internal control systems. February 2025. ISBN: 9798311897655.
44. Keddell E. Comparing risk-averse and risk-friendly practitioners in child welfare decision-making: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Social Work Practice*. 2017 Oct 2;31(4):411-29.

- 
45. Ejrnæs M, Moesby-Jensen CK. Social workers' risk assessment in child protection: the problem of disagreement and a lack of a precise language about risk. *European Journal of Social Work*. 2021 Sep 3;24(5):802-14.
  46. Guidi P, Meeuwisse A, Scaramuzzino R. Italian and Nordic social workers' assessments of families with children at risk. *Nordic Social Work Research*. 2016 Jan 2;6(1):4-21.
  47. Houston S. Meta-theoretical paradigms underpinning risk in child welfare: Towards a position of methodological pragmatism. *Children and Youth Services Review*. 2014 Dec 1;47:55-60.
  48. Brunnberg E, Pećnik N. Assessment processes in social work with children at risk in Sweden and Croatia. *International Journal of Social Welfare*. 2007 Jul;16(3):231-41.
  49. Harnett PH. Managing risk and uncertainty in the context of child protection decision making. *The British Journal of Social Work*. 2024 Sep;54(6):2435-49.
  50. Križ K, Skivenes M. Systemic differences in views on risk: A comparative case vignette study of risk assessment in England, Norway and the United States (California). *Children and Youth Services Review*. 2013 Nov 1;35(11):1862-70.
  51. Sørensen KM. A comparative study of the use of different risk-assessment models in Danish municipalities. *British Journal of Social Work*. 2018 Jan 1;48(1):195-214.
  52. Adelakun Matthew Adebawale, Olayiwola Blessing Akinagbe. Leveraging AI-driven data integration for predictive risk assessment in decentralized financial markets. *Int J Eng Technol Res Manag*. 2021;5(12):295. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15867235>
  53. Nirmalarajan LY, Svoldgaard Berg L. Predictive risk modelling in child and family welfare: reflections on a Danish case. *European Social Work Research*. 2025 Mar 3;3(1):104-9.