Joint Working Protocol

Safeguarding Children and Young People whose Parents/Carers have Problems with:
Mental Health, Substance Misuse, Learning Disability and Emotional or Psychological Distress

Date: May 2017

Review Date: May 2018
Safeguarding children is everyone’s business

Whilst local authorities play a lead role, safeguarding children and protecting them from harm is everyone’s responsibility. Everyone who comes into contact with children and families has a role to play. Working Together 2015

Most parents and carers have the capability and want to provide good or good enough parenting for their children, most of the time. Sometimes, the parent will have such overwhelming needs of their own that they may not have the capacity to be such a capable parent. This protocol supports early intervention work that can make a real positive difference to the outcomes for children and their families.

This multi-agency protocol has been written for every person, staff or volunteer, (hereafter called practitioners) working with people whose complex problems might impact on their ability to care for children and for practitioners working with children whose parents or carers have those complex problems.

It gives information about research and guidance for good practice. Parts 1 and 2 should be read by all; parts 3-5, giving more specific information, to be used depending on particular needs within the family.

Although not an exhaustive list, it should be read by every practitioner, engaging with children, adults or families, in or as:

- Adult Services
- Advocates
- A&E Departments
- Allied health professionals
- Ambulance services
- Armed Forces welfare
- CAMHS
- Children’s Centres
- Children’s Social Care
- Citizen’s Advice Bureaux
- Counselling services
- Domestic Abuse services
- Early Help services
- Early years’ settings
- Fire & Rescue services
- GPs, medical staff & nurses
- Health Visitors
- Housing & support providers
- Learning Disability services
- Mental Health services
- Midwives
- Paediatric services
- Pharmacists
- Police
- Probation & CRC
- Prison
- Rape Crisis & sexual violence services
- Refuges
- Schools & Colleges
- School Nurses
- Substance misuse services
- Youth Offending Teams

If your concerns are about immediate neglect or harm to a child, whether emotional, physical or sexual, the Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB) child protection procedures should be followed without delay. 4LSCB
Content
Who should read this protocol ii
Content iii
Key messages 5
Flowchart 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part 1: Introduction</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Purpose</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Scope</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Background:</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Key principles:</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Commitment from services:</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Case management</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Planning meetings:</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 Supervision</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9 Training</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1: 7 Golden Rules for Information Sharing</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part 2: General guidance for all</th>
<th>24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Risk</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Psychosis</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Parental treatment – impact on children</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Young carers</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Children with disabilities</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part 3: Specific/additional guidance: Mental Health

3.1 Definition
3.2 Implications for and impact on parenting
3.3 Prenatal and postnatal period

Part 4: Specific/additional guidance: Substance Misuse

4.1 Definition
4.2 Guidance
4.3 Implications for and impact on parenting
4.4 Pregnant women who misuse drugs and/or alcohol

Part 5: Specific/additional guidance: Learning Disability

5.1 Definition
5.2 Guidance
5.3 Implications for and impact on parenting
5.4 Prenatal and postnatal period

6. Glossary

All documents or sites available on the internet are hyperlinked
Key Messages

If you are working with adults who have mental health, substance misuse, learning disability problems or psychological distress, you must make sure that any children in their care, or who they have contact with, are considered.

You must liaise with Children’s Social Care if the children are at risk of harm, using the Local Safeguarding Children Board (LSCB) procedure without delay.

If the risks are lower, you should communicate with other workers who might be or need to be in contact with the children, using this protocol.

The LSCB, your professional bodies and employers require you to do this.

- Practitioners working with adults must identify and record at the earliest stage:
  - the adult’s relationship with any children
  - any parenting or caring responsibilities for children
  - which other agencies they need to work with if they have concerns about unborn babies, children or young people.
- Practitioners should discuss any concerns they have with the family before making a referral to Children’s Social Care, unless this discussion places the child at increased risk.
- Data protection must not be used as a barrier to appropriate information sharing.
- Risks to a child’s safety or welfare may only become apparent when several people share concerns which contribute to a larger picture of risk.
- Safeguarding issues increase adults’ eligibility for services.
- Mental health, substance misuse and learning disability problems can increase the risk of harm to children, especially when combined with domestic abuse.
- If a service user expresses delusional beliefs involving their child and/or they may harm the child as part of a suicide plan, a referral to Children’s Social Care must be made immediately.
- If a practitioner feels that a person may be at risk from an untreated psychosis they must alert the GP in order for the GP to arrange a mental health assessment.
- Changes in family circumstances should trigger a re-assessment of risk to children.
- If, after referral, practitioners remain concerned about the safety of a child, they should report their concerns to a supervisor/manager who must ensure concerns are resolved appropriately.
- Supervision, guidance and support from managers and/or specialists in safeguarding children are essential for people working with adults in contact with children.

- It is important to hear the ‘voice’ of the child.

- Young carers need to be identified as caring can have detrimental effects on young people’s education, health and emotional wellbeing.

- Any concerns about the safety of adults must be referred using the relevant Safeguarding Adults at Risk procedures.
Flowchart

Worker

Does client have child(ren)?

- **YES**
  - Record the following information:
    - Name of child(ren)
    - DOB
    - Residency
    - Main carer
    - Health Visitor/School
    - Children’s Services involved?
    - CAF open?
    - Subject to Child Protection Plan?
    - Ever been subject to CP Plan?
    - Young Carer?
  - Ask if Children’s Services currently involved?
    - **YES**
      - Contact service & liaise re: joint working & support plan for child(ren) & adult(s)
    - **NO**
      - Refer to Children’s Services
  - Assess impact of drug/alcohol, learning disability, mental health problem on parenting or unborn child.
    - **Are there concerns?**
      - Discuss with manager/supervisor/safeguarding lead
      - If no risk of significant harm, make most appropriate referral(s)
      - If child at risk of significant harm use LSCB procedures www.4LSCB.org.uk
        - Contact relevant drug/alcohol, learning disability or mental health service or deliver relevant intervention
        - Refer to drug/alcohol, learning disability or mental health services
        - Refer to Children’s Services
        - Agree joint assessment, future joint work, management & review of both child & adult problems

- **NO**

Is client receiving help for their drug/alcohol learning disability, mental health problems?

- **YES**
  - In regular/substantial contact with someone else’s child(ren)?
    - **YES**
      - Support access to antenatal care. Refer for or assess treatment & support needs
    - **NO**
      - No further safeguarding action

- **NO**

Is client or partner pregnant?

- **YES**
  - No further safeguarding action
- **NO**

If child at risk of significant harm use LSCB procedures www.4LSCB.org.uk

**Key**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action re:</th>
<th>Action re:</th>
<th>Joint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>adults</td>
<td>working</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part 1: Introduction

1.1 PURPOSE

1.1.1 To safeguard and promote the welfare of children and young people, including young carers, whose lives are affected by parents/carers using drugs/alcohol or by parents/carers with mental health needs, learning disabilities, autism, or other complex needs e.g. acquired brain injury, progressive neurological condition, that may adversely affect their ability to parent or care;

To promote effective communication between adult drugs/alcohol, mental health, learning disability, primary GP and community health care (health visitors, school nurses), other services and Children’s Social Care;

To set out good practice for the services involved to enable working together in the assessment and care planning for families with problematic substance use, mental health, learning disability or other complex problems and to ensure their full participation in the process wherever possible.

In the context of this protocol, ‘parents/carers’ includes anyone who has access to the child, for example, members of the extended family, friends and acquaintances.

The term ‘children’ refers to those aged 0-18 years of age. The needs of unborn babies must also be considered and it must not be assumed that teenagers are not harmed or that they can advocate for themselves.

1.2 SCOPE

1.2.1 This protocol has been written for use by the many statutory, non-statutory, voluntary, independent/private sector and primary care services working with parents/carers who may have mental health, learning disability, drug/alcohol or other complex problems.

It has been written by a multi-agency group with representatives from the many voluntary and statutory and non-statutory agencies that provide services to the residents of any of the 4 LSCB areas (Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Portsmouth and Southampton). It has been
informed by consultation that included child and adult service users. The document has been ratified by the 4 LSCBs.

All services represented on the 4 LSCBs will be expected to know of the existence of this protocol and be able to recognise when it should be used. Partner agencies must ensure that this protocol is disseminated widely within their organisation and that they seek assurance that front line staff have read it, particularly during induction, and are using it appropriately.

1.2.2 All practitioners are expected to use this protocol when they come into contact with:

- an adult with drug/alcohol, mental health or learning disability issues or other complex problems who is caring for, or has significant contact with, a child
- a child whose life is affected by a parent or carer’s use of drugs/alcohol or who has mental health, learning disability or other complex problems.

This should also include any other adults living in the same household as children. Practitioners working with adults should identify and record at the earliest possible stage the adult’s relationship with and caring responsibilities for any children.

1.2.3 It is important to note that this protocol is relevant as long as concerns about the parent’s capacity to meet the needs of the child/children are at a level where the child is not suffering harm. If the concerns are about immediate neglect, or harm, whether emotional, physical, or sexual, to the child, the 4LSCB Safeguarding Children child protection procedures should be followed without delay.

1.2.4 If there are concerns about the safety of a vulnerable adult, the relevant Safeguarding Adults at Risk procedure must be used.

1.2.5 This protocol sits at a level of secondary prevention in terms of the standard categories of prevention, where a quick response is required to prevent low level problems from getting worse. At times low level signs may be ‘the tip of the iceberg’ and an early discussion, referral or joint assessment may prevent more serious harm or neglect of a child. Munro review of child protection: interim report - the child's journey (chapter 2)
Parenting at any stage, from pregnancy to when the child becomes an adult at eighteen, can be a challenge for any parent or carer, requiring a great deal of physical and emotional effort. Most parents and carers have the capacity to provide good or good enough parenting for their children most of the time and are able to access universal services to support their health, education and leisure needs.

This protocol should be used if and when a usually capable parent has such overwhelming needs of their own that they may not have the capacity to be such a capable parent.

If this is short term, such as a parent being physically ill, then providing the physical and safety needs of the children are met, most children have the resilience to overcome the stress of this with the support of their friends and family. The protocol may need to be used if the issues continue for longer or frequent periods of time or the additional support is not available to the child.

### 1.3 BACKGROUND

#### 1.3.1 History of the protocol

1.3.1.1 The protocol came into existence in 1999 following the death of a baby whose mother was known to mental health and children’s services. It was revised in 2004 to include substance misuse after publication of *Hidden Harm 2003*.

In 2008 a further revision took place involving extensive consultation, including with young people.

1.3.1.2 The 2011 revision included a new section on parents with learning disability; a requirement of a Serious Case Review (SCR) in 2009, following serious injury to a baby whose mother had a learning disability and following recommendations arising from Lord Laming’s review of the protection of children.

Subsequent revisions have updated references and guidance.
1.3.2 **Key statutory duties**

1.3.2.1 Local authorities have specific duties under the Children Act 1989 in respect of children in need (Section 17) and children at risk of significant harm (Section 47).

1.3.2.2 Section 11 Children Act 2004 places duties on organisations to ensure that they consider the need to safeguard and promote the welfare of children when carrying out their functions. Section 10 of the same Act requires agencies to cooperate with local authorities to promote the well-being of children in each local authority area.

1.3.2.3 Further details regarding duties of organisations can be found in the statutory guidance WT 2015.

1.3.2.4 Local authorities have statutory responsibilities to assess and offer care and support to young carers, if eligible, under the Care Act 2014 Sections 61 and 62 and the Children and Families Act 2014 Section 96.

1.3.2.5 The Disability Discrimination Act 2005 makes it unlawful for agencies to treat disabled people less favourably, so in the context of this protocol, they must ensure that they do not treat children with disabilities less favourably than other children with regard to safeguarding.

1.3.2.6 The Equality Act 2010 gives people with a disability the right to ‘reasonable adjustments’, including information in an accessible format, in order to ensure they have equal access to services.

1.3.2.7 The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child states:

- Children have the right to live. Governments are responsible for making sure every child grows up healthy. Article 6: Survival and Development

- Children have the right to live with their parent(s) unless this is not in their best interests. Children who do not live with their parents or whose parents are separated or divorced have the right to remain in contact with both parents unless this is not in their best interests. Article 9: Separation from Parents

- Governments should make sure that children are appropriately cared for and are not being physically, psychologically, or sexually abused or neglected by their parents or other caregivers. Article 19: Protection from Child Maltreatment

- Children with disabilities, such as physical, emotional, cognitive, or developmental impairments, are entitled to all the rights...
prescribed in this Convention. Governments should ensure that these children receive the care and support they need in order to lead full, independent lives.

Article 23: Children with Disabilities

1.3.2.8 The Human Rights Act 1998 Article 8 respects a person’s right to a private and family life. Article 6 gives people a right to a fair trial, which includes family law.

1.4 KEY PRINCIPLES

1.4.1 Confidentiality and information sharing

1.4.1.1 “Fears about sharing information cannot be allowed to stand in the way of the need to promote the welfare and protect the safety of children. To ensure effective safeguarding arrangements:

• all organisations should have arrangements in place which set out clearly the processes and the principles for sharing information between each other, with other professionals and with the LSCB; and

• no professional should assume that someone else will pass on information which they think may be critical to keeping a child safe. If a professional has concerns about a child’s welfare and believes they are suffering or likely to suffer harm, then they should share the information with local authority children’s social care.”  
(WT 2015 p17)

1.4.1.2 “Early sharing of information is the key to providing effective help where there are emerging problems.”  
(WT2015 p16)

1.4.1.3 It is critical that all practitioners working with children and young people are in doubt that where they have reasonable cause to suspect that a child or young person may be suffering significant harm or may be at risk of suffering significant harm, they should always refer their concerns to Children’s Social Care. While a practitioner’s primary relationship may be with the parent, where there is cause for concern, appropriate information must be shared with Children’s Social Care.

1.4.1.4 “You do not need to be certain that the child or young person is at risk of significant harm” (to tell an appropriate agency)....“the possible consequences of not sharing relevant information will, in the overwhelming majority of cases, outweigh any harm that sharing your concerns with an appropriate agency might cause”. Protecting children and young people: The responsibilities of all doctors (General Medical Council, Sept 2012)
1.4.1.5 Practitioners should seek to discuss any concerns with the family and, where possible, seek their agreement to making referrals to Children’s Social Care to optimise the care of the children and protect them from harm. **This should only be done where such discussion and agreement seeking will not place a child at increased risk of significant harm.** The child’s interest must be the overriding consideration in making any such decisions.

1.4.1.6 However, where a child is not suffering, nor at risk of suffering significant harm, parental permission is needed for the sharing of information. This should be raised with parents at the beginning of professional involvement following agency guidelines, with emphasis on the help and support which can be accessed by the family as a result of sharing information with other agencies. In general, information sharing is in the best interests of the person and supports delivery of effective treatment. It is important to take into consideration their wishes and feelings and attempt to understand the nature of their daily lived experience. (Lord Laming)

1.4.1.7 Everyone should ensure that the information they share is proportionate and necessary for the purpose for which they are sharing it, is shared only with those people who need to have it, is accurate and up-to-date, is shared in a timely way and is shared securely. If in doubt, seek advice; this may be done without disclosing the identity of the person.

1.4.1.8 Consent or the refusal to give consent to information sharing about children should always be recorded. For further information see government advice 2015 [Information sharing: Advice for practitioners providing safeguarding services to children, young people, parents and carers](https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/information-sharing-advice-for-practitioners-providing-safeguarding-services-to-children-young-people-parents-and-carers), the aim of which is to support good practice in information sharing by offering clarity on when and how information can be shared legally and professionally.

See Appendix 1 for 7 Golden Rules for Information Sharing.

1.4.2 **Confidence to act**

Although the following quote comes from guidance for doctors, it is applicable to all practitioners. “**It is vital that all doctors have the confidence to act if they believe that a child or young person may be being abused or neglected. Taking action will be justified, even if it turns out that the child or young person is not at risk of, or suffering, abuse or neglect, as long as concerns are honestly held and reasonable, and the doctor takes action through appropriate channels.**” [Protecting children and young people: The responsibilities of all doctors](https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/protecting-children-and-young-people-the-responsibilities-of-all-doctors).
1.4.2.1 For useful guidance for everyone on how to make effective referrals to Children’s Social Care see Department of Health’s 2013 SAFER Communication guidelines for Health Visitors

1.4.2.2 Recent local Serious Case and Multi-Agency Case Reviews have noted the need for practitioners to escalate their concerns (individually or through their manager/supervisor) if they feel action has not been taken, yet their concerns remain. This is echoed by Marion Brandon et al in the New learning from serious case reviews 2009-11, who also state that practitioners must not make assumptions about actions others will take or fail to follow through on cases to ensure actions are taken. Similarly, Lord Laming talks about the importance of ‘respectful challenge’ of parents, colleagues and professionals in other agencies if practitioners feel that action is not being taken or is insufficient to safeguard a child.

1.4.2.3 If it becomes apparent that a change of circumstances has occurred or the parent is not complying with services and this raises concern about the welfare of the child or there is a concern that the child is at risk of significant harm, practitioners must make a referral to Children’s Social Care and other agencies in order that a re-assessment of the situation and appropriate action can be taken. These concerns may include:

- failure to attend for appointments
- failure to allow access for home visits
- avoidance of practitioners
- change in adult’s treatment
- homelessness or family network breakdown
- deterioration in mental health, physical health, more chaotic substance misuse
- introduction of a new adult, child or young person into the home situation or someone leaving the home situation.

1.4.3 Equalities

1.4.3.1 This protocol applies in all situations irrespective of the race, gender, age, sexual orientation, disability, class, cultural or religious beliefs of those involved.

1.4.3.2 In order to make sensitive and informed professional judgements about a child’s needs, and the capacity of parents/carers to respond to those needs, professionals should be sensitive to differing family patterns, lifestyles and child-rearing practices which can vary across
different racial, ethnic and cultural groups. **However, all professionals must be clear that child abuse or neglect, caused deliberately or otherwise, cannot be condoned or dismissed on religious or cultural grounds.**

1.4.3.3 All professionals will be aware of stereotypes and prejudices which exist about adults who use drugs/alcohol or have mental health needs or a learning disability, similarly about children who have disabilities. It is essential that these do not influence assessments. Any assessment should be thorough, based on observation of and discussion with the parents and children involved and should be undertaken jointly, or at least discussed with, relevant specialist workers (in voluntary, statutory or private sector) whose views should be taken into account.

1.4.4 **Child-centred**

1.4.4.1 “Effective safeguarding systems are child-centred”. ([WT2015](#))

1.4.4.2 “Where there is a conflict between the needs of the child and their parents/carers, decisions should be made in the child’s best interests”. ([WT2015](#))

1.4.4.3 Children have said that they need:

- vigilance: to have adults notice when things are troubling them
- understanding and action: to understand what is happening; to be heard and understood; and to have that understanding acted upon
- support: to be provided with support in their own right as well as a member of their family ([WT2015](#)).

1.4.4.4 Practitioners should be aware that some children may be ‘invisible’ possibly due to:

- appearing to thrive in the positive school environment
- presenting as healthy, clean and well cared for, masking underlying distress
- their own resilience, hiding the trauma they are experiencing
- a focus on a single ‘problem child’ in a family
- a focus on parental issues, without considering the impact on the child
- practitioners not seeing or speaking to the child
- practitioners not hearing/recognising what the child tries to say or show
- practitioners becoming overly optimistic, focusing too much on small improvements made by the family
- practitioners developing fixed views of families not updated in the light of contrary evidence
- parents’ disguised compliance

### 1.4.5 Whole Family Working

#### 1.4.5.1
In a system that ‘Thinks Family’, services for both adults and children join up around the needs of the family. *Think Family: Improving the Life Chances of Families at Risk, 2008*

#### 1.4.5.2
Universal services such as health, housing and education, have a key role in identifying children and adults with additional needs and signposting families to early help, specialist or other universal services. Practitioners in specialist adult services dealing with vulnerable parents should be alert to the needs of children and young people and think “**who do I need to work with?**” within services for children to help identify or meet their needs. This means that all those working with children, young people and their families are potentially involved in providing early help and/or intervention work in safeguarding children and their families to prevent harm.

#### 1.4.5.3
Unless it places a child at increased risk, it is important to engage with and involve families to reduce risk of harm to children. Evidence from help lines indicates “the possibility of seeking advice without losing control of what happens next is a way in which some children and families move towards seeking a service.” *C4EO Safeguarding Briefing 1, Nov 2009*

#### 1.4.5.4
Although written for doctors, this is applicable to all practitioners. “Doctors should work with parents and families, where possible, to make sure that children and young people receive the care and support they need. But in cases where the interests and wishes of parents may put the safety of the child or young person, doctors must put the interests of the child or young person first. Failure to act when a child or young person is at risk can have serious consequences for both the child and their family.” *Protecting children and young people: the responsibilities of all doctors*
1.4.5.5 When conducting initial assessments within your own agencies, always identify which other agencies might be involved in the care of the family, to provide a full picture.

1.4.6 **Partnership Working**

1.4.6.1 Safeguarding and promoting the welfare of children and, in particular, protecting them from significant harm, depends on effective joint working.

1.4.6.2 “Early sharing of information is key to providing effective early help where there are emerging problems.” *What to do if you’re worried a child is being abused, 2015*

1.4.6.3 Systems should be in place to ensure that:

- managers working with adults can monitor those cases which involve dependent children
- there is regular, formal and recorded consideration of such cases with Children’s Social Care practitioners
- if adults and children services are providing services to a family, practitioners communicate and agree interventions
- adult services can contribute to common assessments of need, such as CAF and Team Around the Child meetings, early help assessments, Supporting Troubled Families assessments, sharing their knowledge of the parent/carer and parenting capacity
- appropriate practitioners are invited to relevant planning meetings
- practitioners participate in the relevant planning meetings

Pan Hampshire Safeguarding Children Procedures

1.5 **Commitment from Services**

1.5.1 **Children’s Social Care**

1.5.1.1 Children’s Social Care will receive and record contacts expressing concerns about risks to children. They will be clear with other agencies about their threshold for involvement and give feedback on what will happen as a result of a contact. They will be open to having discussions with other services regarding their concerns. See LSCB websites for local thresholds.
1.5.1.2 All contacts about concerns will be recorded, whether they trigger an assessment or not, and in the event of subsequent referrals being received, will contribute to building a picture of issues and concerns which may trigger further action, which will be fed back to referring agencies.

1.5.1.3 Throughout their involvement with children and their families, Children’s Social Care will:

- focus on the needs of the child
- assess the unborn child’s needs and identify desired outcomes for the child
- assess the child or young person’s needs and identify desired outcomes for the child
- ensure that the wishes and feelings of child/ren are ascertained
- ensure the child is given the opportunity to be seen/heard on their own, but be aware that the child’s view of ‘normality’ and what is acceptable may be influenced by exposure to drug or alcohol abuse, or other factors (e.g. domestic abuse). Workers may need to take actions that are contrary to the views of the child but are required to protect them
- employ a policy of openness with families where information from other agencies impacts on planning for the child
- seek consent from family members to share information with other agencies in the best interests of the child (but bear in mind this should only be done if the discussion and agreement-seeking will not place a child at increased risk of significant harm) – see 1.4.1.5
- be clear whether an assessment early help assessment has been undertaken, and if so, its outcomes
- liaise with substance misuse teams where there is evidence or suspicion that parents are using substances and make sure that the assessment includes fathers, partners and all other relevant adults, not just the mother. Engaging with men in social care: a good practice guide [Fatherhood Institute & Family Rights Group, 2013](https://www.familyrights.org.uk/)
- consult with primary and secondary mental health services, learning disability and substance misuse teams for information to support assessment of parenting capacity, at the earliest possible opportunity, and for realistic assessment of any risk
even where there are no apparent safeguarding issues, undertaking joint assessment where possible

- invite representatives from mental health, learning disability and substance misuse services to Child in Need Planning Meetings and Child Protection Conferences where they are involved with the family
- together with relevant agencies, identify roles and responsibilities for any on-going work with the family: a meeting is preferable where decisions need to be made and owned

1.5.2 Services working with adults, including GPs

1.5.2.1 Through their involvement, services working with adults will:

- identify at an early stage any children within families and specifically adults with a caring responsibility and other adults in contact with children
- ensure, when assessing adults’ needs, that the adult is seen in terms of their parenting role as well as an individual and that any support to help their parenting role is taken into account. Liaison with services for children will be required
- understand that although parental mental ill-health, learning disability or substance misuse, especially in combination with domestic abuse, does increase the risk that children may be harmed, it is not a predictor of harm or neglect
- invite representatives from Children’s Social Care or other services to multi-professional care planning meetings where they are involved with the family, with the agreement of the service user
- provide a representative to attend Child Protection Conferences or other planning meetings where at all possible and/or provide a report
- ensure they are kept informed about plans for any children and incorporate these into future care planning.

1.6 Case Management

1.6.1 Effective inter-agency communication and multi-agency co-operation is crucial to the management of on-going work with people with mental health, learning disability, substance misuse or other complex problems and their families. There must be clarity with regard to the different roles and
responsibilities undertaken by different workers and a decision made regarding co-ordination, so that this is not left to the parent.

1.7 **Planning Meetings**

1.7.1 **Early Help Assessment**

1.7.1.1 An Early Help Assessment provides a process for identifying children’s needs and bringing services together to meet those needs more quickly and effectively.

1.7.1.2 Each agency/organisation will have its own system with regards to undertaking an Early Help Assessment. If there is uncertainty about using the assessment, advice should be sought from the relevant Children’s Social Care Department or the safeguarding children leads in the organisation.

1.7.1.3 Parents should be asked if an Early Help Assessment has already been done and if so, who is the Lead Professional.

1.7.1.4 Each LSCB area is responsible for developing a process for providing families with early help to prevent escalation of need. This process will be outlined within the relevant Thresholds document and guidance, available on the LSCB website.

1.7.2 **Other planning meetings**

1.7.2.1 Practitioners should be aware of any other plans around family members e.g. Children in Need planning, Core Group, Team around the Child (TAC), MAPPA (Multi-Agency Public Protection Arrangements), MARAC (Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conference), CPA (Care Programme Approach) and other multi-professional planning meetings and ensure they are involved in those processes.

1.7.3 **Child Protection Conferences** (4LSCB procedures)

1.7.3.1 Child Protection Conferences will be conducted in line with LSCB child protection procedures. It is expected that representatives of the appropriate statutory and voluntary agencies will attend Conferences, and if they cannot, that they will provide a deputy. They must supply the Conference Chair with a written report in time for the Chair to read and understand the case. Representatives may also be required to attend Core group meetings, where detailed plans to protect children are made, following the Conference.

1.7.3.2 GPs have a particularly important role to play because they hold key information regarding the family. They are the single point for holding an individual’s health information and usually the first point of contact for a person with the health service. They are expected to attend and/or submit a report for the Child Protection Conference (as above).
1.7.3.3 Parents, and where appropriate, children and young people, are encouraged to attend Conferences. They may be excluded, however, if they are under the influence of substances at the time of the Conference to such an extent that they are unable to participate effectively. Children may be offered an advocate to accompany them or speak for them to represent their views.

1.7.3.4 Parents are invited to bring someone to support them or an advocate to the Conference. Their key worker from the Drug/Alcohol, Mental Health or Adult Services team will always be invited to attend by the social worker where the needs of parents are seen to potentially adversely impact on the child. The key worker will be part of the professional network and will be expected to contribute to the decision-making and be clear as to what their service can offer to meet the needs of the child as part of the Child Protection Plan.

1.8 Supervision

1.8.1 It is crucial that all agencies establish a clear framework for supervision, guidance and support.

1.8.2 Supervision, guidance and support from managers and/or specialists with knowledge of safeguarding children is essential for people working with children, parents or carers. Concerns about children must be raised in formal supervision and any informal discussions or telephone advice must be followed up in supervision.

“To work with families with compassion but retain an open and questioning mindset requires regular, challenging supervision”.

Munro Review of Child Protection Part 1: A Systems Analysis

1.8.3 Those supervising practitioners working with adults should always ask about the care of children in the family and those managing child care cases should always ask about collaboration with adult workers if there are drug or alcohol misuse, mental health or learning disability problems affecting parents.

1.9 Training

1.9.1 There are statutory requirements under Section 11 Children Act 2004 for organisations to ensure that practitioners working with adults, who may have parenting responsibilities, should receive safeguarding children training appropriate to their role. WT2015 states that practitioners in universal services should have access to training to identify and respond early to abuse and neglect, and to the latest research showing which types of interventions are the most effective. Similarly staff in early years’ services should complete safeguarding training under Section 40 Childcare Act 2006.
1.9.2 There should be awareness-raising regarding this protocol in every relevant agency, with training related directly to this protocol being multi-agency. Research by Carpenter, J et al on behalf of the DCSF in 2009 Outcomes of Interagency Training to Safeguard Children showed that multi-agency safeguarding training was particularly useful and valued by practitioners.
Appendix 1

The seven golden rules to sharing information

1. Remember that the Data Protection Act 1998 and human rights law are not barriers to justified information sharing, but provide a framework to ensure that personal information about living individuals is shared appropriately.

2. Be open and honest with the individual (and/or their family where appropriate) from the outset about why, what, how and with whom information will, or could be shared, and seek their agreement, unless it is unsafe or inappropriate to do so.

3. Seek advice from other practitioners if you are in any doubt about sharing the information concerned, without disclosing the identity of the individual where possible.

4. Share with informed consent where appropriate and, where possible, respect the wishes of those who do not consent to share confidential information. You may still share information without consent if, in your judgement, there is good reason to do so, such as where safety may be at risk. You will need to base your judgement on the facts of the case. When you are sharing or requesting personal information from someone, be certain of the basis upon which you are doing so. Where you have consent, be mindful that an individual might not expect information to be shared.

5. Consider safety and well-being: Base your information sharing decisions on considerations of the safety and well-being of the individual and others who may be affected by their actions.

6. Necessary, proportionate, relevant, adequate, accurate, timely and secure: Ensure that the information you share is necessary for the purpose for which you are sharing it, is shared only with those individuals who need to have it, is accurate and up-to-date, is shared in a timely fashion, and is shared securely (see principles).

7. Keep a record of your decision and the reasons for it – whether it is to share information or not. If you decide to share, then record what you have shared, with whom and for what purpose.

Extract from HM Government, March 2015 Information sharing Advice for practitioners providing safeguarding services to children, young people, parents and carers
Part 2: General guidance for all

2.1 RISK

“Risk management cannot eradicate risk; it can only try to reduce the probability of harm”.

**Munro Review of Child Protection: Part 1 - A Systems Analysis**

2.1.1 The risks particularly associated with mental health, substance misuse and learning disability are dealt with within their specific sections. The risks for the children and parents are known to increase considerably when these factors combine with each other or with domestic abuse, often referred to as the ‘toxic trio’.

- **Domestic abuse:** 63%
- **Mental health:** 58%
- **Substance misuse:** 42%
- **1 characteristic:** 29%
- **2 characteristics:** 35%
- **All 3 characteristics:** 22%
- **None of the characteristics:** 14%


2.1.2 The same review identified that neglect was a background factor in 60% of the cases, including in 11 out of the 14 cases where a young person was thought to have committed suicide.

2.1.3 A new factor identified by the same review was the young age of the mother when her first child was born (60%) and the potential cumulative stresses and risks of harm as these mothers had more children.

2.1.4 Assessing these risks is important and requires the practitioner not only to rely on any standard risk assessment used in their particular field but to think broadly about risks to others and how these may be lessened through joint
working. It is also important to attempt to assess the resilience factors the child may have.

2.1.5 Family members and other children living with a person with complex problems may be assessed as being a protective factor for a child. Whilst their opinion of risk is important, practitioners must assess the risk independently, as the family member may be too entrenched in the circumstances to be able to give an objective view.

2.1.6 New Learning from Serious Case Reviews 2009-11 states “that if a parent presents with self harming or suicidal ideation or behaviour, the risks of harm to both parent and child should be taken very seriously indeed.” Evidence from SCRs in this period suggests that being a parent may not be as protective a factor as had previously been thought.

2.1.7 …”children are likely to be placed at greater risk through:

- failure to identify important males in children’s lives (especially when the man is living in another household)
- inadequate understanding of the roles fathers and other men play in the lives of at-risk children
- poor assessment of the risks posed by some men
- failure to challenge risky behaviour enough – pressurising mothers to manage the risk or get the men out
- failure to strengthen men’s positive contributions to their children’s wellbeing. Engaging with men in social care, Fatherhood Institute

2.1.8 Most children and young people who are seriously harmed or killed are not involved with specialist mental health or probation services and subject to their risk assessments. They are more likely to be receiving help and support through universal services such as those offered through GPs, health visitors, school nurses, walk-in centres, schools, voluntary sector or local council services, such as housing.

2.1.9 However, Munro & Rumgay in Role of risk assessment in reducing homicides by people with mental illness, The British Journal of Psychiatry argue that more homicides could be prevented by good mental health care, which detected relapse earlier. This includes those cases involving deaths of children.

2.1.10 The circumstances of people’s lives and health can change frequently meaning that the stresses and risks both for individuals and the family also change and need frequent holistic re-assessment.
2.1.11 Practitioners should be wary of being too optimistic as the child’s situation can deteriorate once support is removed. WT2015

2.2 PSYCHOSIS

2.2.1 A number of SCRs (i.e. Child A and Child B SCR, Hackney, Birmingham Case 14, Kyhra Ishag) have highlighted the risk that some people with psychosis can be to their children; in rare cases leading to filicide.

In the Hackney SCR, the mother had believed the children were not her own, having been swapped at birth. In the Birmingham SCR, the father appears to have had delusional beliefs, linked to his faith beliefs, leading to the failure to provide care for his child.

Having parents with psychosis can lead to emotional stresses in a family, which can have a negative effect on children in the home.

2.2.2 Practitioners from any agency may come into contact with people with psychosis. They may be experiencing:

- **hallucinations** – where people see, hear, smell, taste and feel things that are not there
- **delusions** – where people have fixed false irrational belief; this may be paranoid, believing others may wish to harm them or their family
- **thought disorder** - where people speak quickly and incessantly (pressure of speech) or switch topic mid-sentence (flight of ideas) or make irrational statements, believing things around them have changed in some way.

Early signs of psychosis may include:

- odd or bizarre behaviour
- severe deterioration of social relationships, social withdrawal or isolation
- inappropriate laughter, unexplained euphoric mood, feelings of depression or anxiety.

2.2.3 Psychosis is a symptom of a variety of conditions, which can include mental illnesses, such as schizophrenia or bipolar disorder, but can also be associated with drug or alcohol misuse and sometimes with physical conditions, such as Parkinson’s Disease.

For some, a period of psychosis will last only a few days, for others, if untreated, it can last for long periods. Some people only experience one
episode of psychosis throughout their lives, while other may have several. Most psychosis is treatable.

2.2.4 If any practitioner believes that the person may be suffering from a delusion involving their child, even if the thoughts are non-abusive, they must make a referral to Children’s Social Care.

If any practitioner believes a person may be a risk to children through other forms of psychotic ideas i.e. hallucinations, they must also make a referral to Children’s Social Care.

2.2.5 It is important that if a practitioner feels that a person may be at risk from an untreated psychosis, they alert the GP in order for the GP to arrange a mental health assessment as soon as possible. This includes if the person is unwilling or unable to seek help themselves. In some situations the GP can arrange an assessment under the Mental Health Act 1983, as amended 2007, if they believe the person to be a risk to themselves and/or others.

2.2.6 Children and young people can also develop a psychosis. Comprehensive help is provided for people with psychosis throughout the area covered by this protocol. Assessing it is usually by a GP referral, however Early Intervention in Psychosis teams accept self referrals and work with people from age 14 to 35 years.

2.3 PARENTAL TREATMENT – IMPACT ON CHILDREN

2.3.1 Consideration of the needs of parents in relation to access to treatment e.g. for their substance misuse or mental health problem, should be seen in the wider context of the effect on the whole family. Whilst accessing treatment is a positive step for the parent, it may have a negative impact on children; for a child it may mean taking on more caring responsibilities for their parents, both practically and emotionally, or separation from a parent.

2.3.2 Building on Public Health England’s Supporting information for developing local joint protocols between drug and alcohol partnerships and children and family services, 2013, practitioners need to consider:

- whether the parent needs childcare support to access treatment
- what childcare arrangements need to be in place for the parent to access an inpatient detox unit or residential rehab
- who is offering the child support
- whether the parent needs support getting the child to and from nursery or school
- what the child’s understanding is of the parent’s treatment
- whether the parent needs support in explaining what is happening
- whether a referral to young carers' services needs to be made
- inclusion of a plan for the care of the child in the adult's crisis or contingency plan
- liaison with school or early years services
- referral to Children's Social Care if a child is likely to be cared for outside their immediate family for more than 28 days (Private Fostering)

2.3.3 Practitioners should also be aware that successful treatment of parents, allowing them to resume their caring responsibilities, might mean a loss for the child of the role they had previously undertaken or a change in the dynamics of the relationship between the child and parent which may have an adverse effect on the child.

2.4 YOUNG CARERS

2.4.1 Section 96 of the Children and Families Act 2014 defines a young carer as “a person under 18 who provides or intends to provide care for another person.” This relates to care for any family member who is physically or mentally ill, frail elderly, disabled or misuses alcohol or substances. Children should not undertake inappropriate or excessive caring roles that may have an impact on their development. A young carer becomes vulnerable when their caring role risks impacting upon their emotional or physical wellbeing and their prospects in education and life.

2.4.2 There were 166,363 young carers identified in the 2011 census. This is likely to be an underestimate as parents rather than children completed the questionnaire and no mention was made of some conditions, such as substance misuse or HIV.

According to the Children’s Society report Hidden from View, 2013 young carers:

- may be as young as 5 years old
- have substantially lower GCSE attainment than their peers
- live in households with an average income of £5,000 lower than households with no young carer
- are 1.5 times more likely to come from a BME community than their peers
- are twice as likely not to speak English as a first language
- are 1.5 times more likely to have a special educational need or disability
than their peers

- are more likely to be NEET (not in education, employment or training) than the national average

**However, despite evidence of need, they are no more likely to be in contact with support agencies than their peers.**

2.4.3 The Children and Families Act 2014 and the Care Act 2014 (for young carers in transition) give new legal duties to Local Authorities to assess and meet the support needs of young carers deemed to be eligible for services.

2.4.4 For services to provide effective support for young carers and their families, it is vital that all practitioners working with them begin with an inclusive, wide-ranging and holistic approach that considers the needs of:

- the adult or child in need of care
- the child who may be caring and
- the family

2.4.5 Young carers identified the following concerns:

- gaps in the support of the person they cared for and the wider family
- impacts on their own wellbeing, personal development and education and pressures on their everyday lives
- lack of recognition by the NHS, GPs and schools about their needs as children who are also young carers
- the need for closer joint working across adult social care and children’s services to ensure better outcomes for children and the person who is supported. *Carers at the heart of 21st century families*, 2008.

2.4.6 *Recognised, Valued and Supported: next steps for the carers strategy*, 2010 states “The onset of mental health problems and the process of seeking help can be particularly traumatic for families. Those supporting people with mental health, personality disorder or substance misuse problems can be wary of seeking help outside the family because of stigma, discrimination and bullying that are still too often associated with these conditions. Many young carers remain ‘hidden’ from health, social care and education services – partly as a result of those services needing to do more to identify them but also because of family fears that they will be taken into care or because the young people themselves are concerned about the reactions of others and bullying by their peers.”

“A whole family approach will also minimise the risk of young carers feeling
forced into undertaking inappropriate caring roles.”

“Young carers have said that often services focus on the adult in front of them without thinking through the implications of the disability, mental illness or substance misuse problem on the children of the family. This can lead to a child taking on a harmful caring role.”

2.4.7 School nurses and their teams deliver the Healthy Child and public health programmes for children and young people aged 5-19, both in and out of schools. This includes support to young carers. Getting it right for children, young people and families, 2012.

2.4.8 For details of your young carers service please the map on the following link. map of young carers services.

2.5 CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

2.5.1 Children with disabilities have exactly the same rights to be safe from abuse and neglect and to achieve their potential as non-disabled children.

2.5.2 “Disabled children can be abused and neglected in ways that other children cannot and the early indicators suggestive of abuse or neglect can be more complicated than with non-disabled children.”

2.5.3 “Having a disability must not mask or deter an appropriate enquiry to Children’s Social Care where there are child protection concerns.” Safeguarding Disabled Children Guidance, DCFS 2009

2.5.4 Difficulties to be aware of when considering whether a child with a disability is being abused include:

- indicators of abuse being seen as part of the child’s disability (e.g. challenging behaviour, skin complaints, shyness, enuresis)
- failure to see the child’s needs as separate from their parents’ needs (i.e. seeing the disability and its effects on the family, not seeing the child)
- over-identification with parents/carers (i.e. accepting neglectful situations which would not be accepted in non-disabled children due to sympathy for parents)
- beliefs that disabled children are not abused
- bruising in places easily explained by equipment in use or moving and handling requirements
- being exposed to a greater number of adults/others providing personal and intimate care
- lack of stimulation
- unjustified/excessive use of restraint
- insufficient help with feeding which could lead to malnourishment
- lack of communication

2.5.5  Although limited, American research has shown that children with disabilities are 3.4 times more at risk of being abused than non-disabled children and are more likely to experience multiple abuse. PM Sullivan and JF Knutson, Maltreatment and disabilities: a population-based epidemiological study.

2.5.6  What is apparent is that children with disabilities are more dependent on their parents and carers for day-to-day personal care, ensuring they live in a safe environment and in accessing services they require. The impact of neglect on children with disabilities is significant and according to Ofsted’s Protecting disabled children: thematic inspection 2012, the risks are not always recognised in time.

2.5.7  Children with disabilities may also be more vulnerable to abuse due to their lack of understanding of what abuse is, their trust in adults and through being less able to express their views or worries.

2.5.8  According to the 2014 NSPCC Report 'We have the right to be safe', “Disabled children at greatest risk of abuse are those with behaviour/conduct disorders. Other high-risk groups include children with learning difficulties/disabilities, children with speech and language difficulties, children with health-related conditions and deaf children.”

2.5.9  Overall, the complexity and severity of the conditions a child may present with can make them more vulnerable for a large number of reasons and may hide the reality of their circumstances.

2.6  CHILD SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND ABUSE

2.6.1  The Children’s Commissioner for England identified, in her Inquiry into Child Sexual Exploitation in Gangs and Groups, the need for all practitioners to be aware of the warning signs of child sexual exploitation. Further guidance can be found in the 2009 Statutory Guidance, Safeguarding children and young people from sexual exploitation:

- going missing for periods of time or regularly coming home late
- regularly missing school or education or not taking part in education
- appearing with unexplained gifts, new possessions or money
- change in appearance including clothes
- inappropriate use of internet, receiving texts, messages from unknown adults
- associating with other young people involved in exploitation
- having older boyfriends or girlfriends
- detachment from age-appropriate activities
- engaging in sexual activity, especially sexually risky behaviour
- suffering from sexually transmitted infections
- mood swings or changes in emotional wellbeing
- drug and alcohol misuse

2.6.2 Many children and young people who are victims of sexual exploitation or being groomed for this may not recognise it themselves so would not be in a position to tell anyone.

For local information see [4LSCB Missing, Exploited, Trafficked Children Protocol](#)

2.6.3 It would be wrong to assume that most sexual abuse occurs in an exploitative situation. The Children’s Commissioner 2015 report [Protecting children from harm](#) asserts that about two thirds of all child sexual abuse occurs within the family.

2.6.4 The same report states that only about 1 in 8 victims of child sexual abuse come to the attention of statutory agencies. Most do not disclose the abuse until they are adults.

2.7 NEGLECT

2.7.1 [Working Together 2015](#) defines neglect as “The persistent failure to meet a child’s basic physical and/or psychological needs, likely to result in the serious impairment of the child’s health or development… Neglect may involve a parent or carer failing to:

- provide adequate food, clothing and shelter (including exclusion from home or abandonment)
- protect a child from physical and emotional harm or danger
- ensure adequate supervision (including the use of inadequate caregivers)
- ensure access to appropriate medical care or treatment, including antenatal and dental care
- respond to a child’s basic emotional needs.”
2.7.2 Neglect in the first three years of a child’s life can seriously impact on their brain development, particularly around regulating emotion, cause and effect thinking, empathy and conscience, and therefore can have serious consequences through adolescence and into adulthood. The child may have delayed speech and language, insecure attachments, withdrawal from relationships and may develop mental health problems in adulthood.

2.7.3 Neglect was a serious factor in 60% of the serious case reviews in the 2009-11 New learning from serious case reviews. Domestic abuse, mental ill health and/or substance misuse were common in households where children were neglected. Neglect occurred across all ages and was most common among those aged 11-15. Most of the children subject to these serious case reviews were not known to children’s social care at the time of the injury or death.

2.7.4 Practitioners may find neglect difficult to recognise or appreciate the severity and should be aware of the characteristics that can cause these difficulties:

- practitioners may become habituated to the child’s presentation and fail to question a lack of progress
- neglect rarely produces a crisis that demands immediate action
- if individual episodes are focused on, the persistence, frequency, enormity and pervasiveness of parenting behaviour may not be seen
- there may be a reluctance to pass judgement on parental behaviour especially if deemed to be culturally embedded or if associated with social disadvantages, such as poverty
- it may be associated with other forms of abuse
- there may be too great a focus on the parent and possibly their superficial or false compliance, rather than considering what it is like for the child

Missed opportunities: indicators of neglect - what is ignored, why and what can be done, Marian Brandon et al, November 2014

2.7.5 Neglect is the most common form of maltreatment that disabled children experience.

2.8 DOMESTIC ABUSE

2.8.1 Approximately 130,000 children were living with domestic abuse and approximately 1.4 million females and 700,000 males were victims of domestic abuse in 2013/2014. 62% of the children were directly harmed by the perpetrator as well as being harmed by witnessing domestic abuse. 85% of victims of domestic abuse had sought help from professionals on average
5 times before they received effective help. Those at high risk of harm lived with domestic abuse for on average 2.6 years before getting help.

**Safelives (formally CAADA)**

### 2.8.2 Domestic abuse is defined, although not a legal definition, by the Home Office as “any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive, threatening behaviour, violence or abuse between those aged 16 or over who are, or have been, intimate partners or family members regardless of gender or sexuality. The abuse can encompass, but is not limited to:

- psychological
- physical
- sexual
- financial
- emotional

Controlling behaviour is a range of acts designed to make a person subordinate and/or dependent by isolating them from sources of support, exploiting their resources and capacities for personal gain, depriving them of the means needed for independence, resistance and escape and regulating their everyday behaviour.

Coercive behaviour is an act or a pattern of acts of assault, threats, humiliation and intimidation or other abuse that is used to harm, punish, or frighten their victim.”

### 2.8.3 Domestic abuse frequently co-exists with child abuse. It rarely exists in isolation and may contribute to drug and alcohol misuse and poor physical and mental health. Parents may also have a history of poor childhood experiences themselves, including growing up with domestic abuse between their parents. Domestic abuse compounds the difficulties parents experience in meeting the needs of their children and even if there is no physical violence, it has been shown to have a serious negative impact on children and young people at each stage of their development, leading to health, behavioural, educational and social difficulties.

### 2.8.4 The presence of domestic abuse in a family increases the likelihood that children and young people will experience abuse and/or neglect. The risk of physical harm to both the victim and children increase around the time of separation and may continue as subsequent contact arrangements are made.

### 2.8.5 From January 2005 the legal definition of harm to children was extended to include the impairment suffered from seeing or hearing the ill treatment of
another – particularly in the home, even though they themselves have not been directly assaulted or abused (Adoption and Children Act 2002 Section 120). In 75-90% of incidents with domestic violence, children are in the same or next room. Munro review of child protection: interim report - the child's journey.

For detailed guidance see 4LSCB Practice Guidance Safeguarding Children Exposed to Domestic Abuse, 2012.

2.9 PSYCHOLOGICAL OR EMOTIONAL DISTRESS

2.9.1 In addition to mental health, substance misuse and learning disability, the following situations, which may cause psychological or emotional distress, are associated with increased risks to the whole family and for most will require support from friends, family and possibly services:

- transitions and unexpected life events, such as separation, divorce, bereavement, release from prison, return to civilian life from armed forces – on leave from active service or at the end of service
- social isolation
- hate crime
- pregnancy
- financial difficulties

2.9.2 Parents who offend

2.9.2.1 All agencies should be aware of the impact of a prisoner returning to the family home. Additionally, there is specific guidance for Police and Courts around arrest and sentencing of offenders with responsibilities for children.

2.9.2.2 Within HMP/YOI Winchester there is a family support service, managed by Spurgeons, a national children's charity. It aims to support prisoners in their role as fathers, to strengthen family relationships and to increase the stability of the children’s lives to enable them to achieve positive outcomes. Partners in this project are the Prison, Local Authorities, Probation and the Hampshire and Isle of Wight Community Rehabilitation Company.

2.9.3 Parents who kill their children

2.9.3.1 Parents who kill or seriously harm their children are not always known to services. In analyses of SCRs over the years it has been found that approximately 50% of the cases were not known to Children’s Social Care but they may have been known to other services working with children or adults.
2.9.3.2 Men are more likely to kill their children than women. The additional risk factors for men appear mixed but may relate to:

- being a violent individual or previously known to commit violent crimes
- being a perpetrator of domestic abuse
- undergoing, or there being a threat of, separation from a partner
- being emotionally distressed and having difficulties that bring feelings of loss, shame or hopelessness. This may be associated with emotional difficulties, prior abuse or linked with loss of work, housing difficulties or money worries. This may also be linked with suicide.

2.9.3.3 Although such murders are unpredictable, many are thought to be pre-mediated. It is therefore important to offer additional support to fathers, recognising the importance of their role within the family. The National Confidential Inquiry into Suicide and Homicide by people with a Mental Illness, 2009

2.9.3.4 Babies are particularly vulnerable; The Office for National Statistics: Homicide, 2012/13 states that children under one year old were again the age group most at risk of homicide, with 30 per million population as compared to the overall victim risk of 9.7 per million.

2.9.3.5 There is a higher proportion of infanticide by females shortly after the baby’s birth. This appears to be related to puerperal psychosis or the mother being unable to face the reality of being pregnant or a mother (see Section 3.3).

2.9.3.6 Most of the SCRs identified sources of information that could have contributed to a better understanding of the children and their families. This included information about or from fathers and extended family, historical knowledge, information from other agencies, the cultural background and research findings. Learning lessons from serious case reviews 2009-2010, Ofsted.

2.9.3.7 Learning from SCRs has also highlighted the need to identify if family members are being supported by different GP practices, as a result of personal choice or urgency. If this is the case, then effective information sharing need to be prioritised if concerns are raise. (Hampshire SCB Child Q SCR, 2013).

2.10 CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE WHO COMMIT SUICIDE

2.10.1 Suicide is one of the main causes of mortality in young people, although the rates are relatively low. The National Confidential Inquiry into Suicide and Homicide by people with Mental Illness published a report in May 2016 Suicide by children and young people in England. A number of themes were
identified in the deaths of the 145 young people who committed suicide between January 2014 and April 2015.

- Family mental health issues 14%
- Family substance misuse issues 11%
- Domestic abuse 8%
- History of abuse or neglect of the young person 14%
- Previous self harm by the young person 54%
- Suicidal ideas by the young person 57%
- Young person’s own mental illness 39%
- No contact with services by the young person 43%
Appendix 2

Experiences of young carers and adult survivors of childhood sexual abuse

“‘J’ is a primary school-age boy and carer for his mother who has used alcohol for many years. He is constantly anxious about his mother’s wellbeing and attempts to control her drinking, while also caring for his younger sister. The child describes how he and his sister go to the pub with their mother most nights and the child says he does this to monitor his mother’s drinking. The child tells his mother when to stop drinking and if she does not listen the child asks the barman to stop serving his mother.” In the child's time: professional responses to neglect, Ofsted 2014

“My Mum has a mental illness, but no one told me why she was acting so weird. None of the doctors told me. They didn’t think how I was feeling and worrying.”

Children's Society Include programme
Appendix 3
Further reading/resources

- Child maltreatment - recognition and management - NICE 2014
- SCIE: Think child, think parent, think family, 2012
- Barnardo's | Child Sexual Exploitation - Spot the signs
- What to do if you're worried a child is being abused, 2015
- Library of resources | NSPCC
Part 3: Specific/additional guidance: Mental Health

3.1 DEFINITION

3.1.1 This protocol refers to people with mental health problems, from mild and moderate to severe and enduring mental ill health and including eating disorders and personality disorders. It is important that all practitioners should be aware that the term 'mental health problems' covers a range of illnesses, some requiring brief intervention in primary care, while others require referral to specialist mental health services.

For the purposes of safeguarding children, the mental health or mental illness of the parent or carer should be considered in the context of the impact of the illness on the care provided to the child.

3.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR AND IMPACT ON PARENTING

3.2.1 The Royal College of Psychiatrists states that “data indicate that 10-15% of children in the UK live with a parent who has a mental disorder and 28% of those are the children of lone parents with a mental disorder.” Parents as patients; supporting the needs of patients who are parents and their children CR 164, January 2011

They also state that 68% of women and 57% of men with mental illness are parents. Parental mental illness: information for parents, carers and anyone who works with young people, March 2012

3.2.2 “Most parents with mental illness do not abuse their children and most adults who abuse children are not mentally ill.” Parents as patients; supporting the needs of patients who are parents and their children CR 164, January 2011. However, there are well-established links between parental mental disorder and poor outcomes for children. These can be felt from conception onwards and into adulthood.

3.2.3 That 2011 guidance, which is the latest, offers the following advice:

“Although many parents with mental illness and their children can be remarkably resilient, adverse outcomes for children are associated with parental mental disorder. Hence, psychiatrists and other mental health professionals in any speciality must consider the family context of service users and consider the well-being and safety of any dependent children at any stage of the care process from assessment to discharge. This will involve working closely with other agencies, across boundaries, sharing information as appropriate and remembering that a child’s needs are paramount even in situations where the necessary safeguarding action may impair the therapeutic relationship with the parent.”
3.2.4 The mental health of both fathers and mothers and any effect on the child need to be considered. Where both parents have a mental illness, the adverse effects on children may increase.

3.2.5 All parents find parenting challenging at times, and those with a mental health need often show considerable inner strength in adequately parenting their child. Being a parent with a mental health need, however, may be particularly challenging. Many parents are painfully aware that their disorder affects their children even if they do not fully understand the complexities. Social Care Online | Crossing bridges: training resources for working with mentally ill patients and their children, A. Falkov 1998

3.2.6 “Any assessment should measure the potential or actual impact of mental health on parenting, the parent/child relationship, the child as well as the impact of parenting on the adult’s mental health. Appropriate support and ways of accessing it should also be considered in the assessment.” Parents as patients; supporting the needs of patients who are parents and their children CR 164, January 2011

3.2.7 Parental personality factors (pre-existing and/or exacerbated by the illness) may mean parents have difficulty controlling their emotions, have an inability to cope or be self-pre-occupied. Violent, irrational and withdrawn behaviour can frighten children.

3.2.8 The lack of capacity to parent well may not be the only reason for poor outcomes for children whose parents have mental illness. Issues such as poor housing, financial difficulties, domestic abuse, or hostile neighbourhoods may be significant factors in parental stress and illness. Stanley et al (2003) Child Protection & Mental Health Services: Interprofessional response to the needs of mother. Bristol: The Policy Press

3.2.9 Unmet mental health needs can lead to the child taking on responsibilities beyond their years because of their parent’s incapacity. This may include becoming a carer for the parent and/or other children or family members.

Children may understand when things are not right and if their needs are not being met. They may not be able to, or want to say anything about it, or there may be no-one to tell; they may just get on with it by taking on inappropriate caring roles for their families (see young carers, section 2.4).

3.2.10 Questions about childcare and parenting issues are clearly sensitive and can have important implications for people with mental health problems. The stigma associated with mental illness may make parents reluctant to ask for help.

Fear of a child being removed from their care has been expressed by parents as an obstacle to seeking help for their mental health needs or fully
engaging with services. Practitioners need to be aware of this fear and should work with the parents and families openly, building on their strengths.

3.2.11 Families may struggle for a long time with a high level of stress, delaying seeking help until a crisis situation, thus leaving little opportunity for preventative intervention. Children in this situation may fear being removed. Balancing the rights and needs of both children and adults in families can pose difficult dilemmas. It is government policy to promote the wellbeing of children through timely and appropriate support.

3.2.12 All children, even young children, are sensitive to the environment around them. Thus their parents’ state of mind can have an effect on even the youngest child. In this context, all children are vulnerable when a parent has a mental illness but children may be helped considerably where the parent is aware of this. Stanley et al (2003) Child Protection & Mental Health Services: Interprofessional response to the needs of mother. Bristol: The Policy Press

3.2.13 Strengths in the family, such as the protective influence of another adult, can minimise the effects on children of the mental illness of a parent.

3.2.14 Identifying the impact of these stresses on the child is an important factor in the initial assessment for the child and the care plan for the parent and reinforces the need to see the mental health needs of parents/carers in the context of family life and functioning.

3.2.15 It is essential that an appropriate assessment of the parent/carer’s needs is undertaken to assess the impact on any child involved with the family. Children have a right to have their own needs assessed, receive appropriate services and to be heard in their own right so that risk factors can be identified and minimised and protective factors promoted.

3.2.16 To safeguard children of parents with whom they are working, mental health practitioners should routinely record details of the parent’s responsibilities in relation to children and consider the support needs of parents and children. This should include consideration of whether the adult is likely to resume contact with a child from whom they have been separated.

3.2.17 In General Practice, as a result of personal choice, urgency, inflexible appointment systems or failure to utilise systems appropriately, patients with serious mental health problems may not see the same GP on a regular basis. Where patients with serious mental health problems are referred to the Community Mental Health Team, there needs to be consistency of practitioner and information sharing. In these cases it is recommended that, where practicable, one named GP monitors then patient’s care and receives correspondence.
In cases where service users express delusional beliefs involving their child and/or they may harm their child as part of a suicide plan, a referral to Children’s Social Care must be made immediately.

Preventing harm to children from parents with mental health needs

The report details recommendations that must be actioned, the key points of which are:

- are there any children in the household?
- does the service user have contact with children in their working or social network?
- if there is no current contact with children will this be resumed in the future?
- in secondary care, a consultant psychiatrist should be directly involved in clinical decisions if the service user may pose a risk to children.

3.3 PRE-NATAL AND POST-NATAL PERIOD

3.3.1 Specific concerns apply to the pre- and post-natal periods. It is vital that there is joint working between the General Practice, Midwifery, Health Visiting and if involved, specialist Mental Health Services. It is essential to identify needs, assess and prepare safeguarding plans for both mother and child, using appropriate pre- and post-natal mental health pathways.

3.3.2 Post-natal depression (PND) is very common among new parents and may affect as many as 1 in 6 new mothers, typically in the first 3 months after delivery, sometimes lasting for 6 months or up to a year if left untreated. Maternal post-natal depression can be significantly harmful to young infants particularly from birth to 12 months of age, with increased incidence of insecure attachment. The impact of maternal depression in young children. Cox. A.D, Puckering.C, Pound. A and Mills. M (1987). Child Psychology and Psychiatry, vol 22, no 6 pp17-28


It is not the depression itself which causes damage, it is the impact on the mother’s ability to interact with and respond to her child. Prolonged non-availability of the primary carer can lead to emotional and cognitive difficulties, social withdrawal, negativity and distress.

3.3.3 The NICE Pathway - Antenatal and postnatal mental health gives guidance on identifying anxiety and depression at a woman’s first contact with primary care or booking clinic. Further information can be found in NICE Clinical Guidance 192.
3.3.4 Puerperal Psychosis is a disorder which affects 1-2 woman per 1000. It is potentially a very serious illness often requiring hospitalisation. The onset can be very rapid, within hours of birth although it often develops over days, sometimes weeks. Women with an existing diagnosis of Bi-Polar Disorder or who have a close family member with this are at significantly greater risk of developing Puerperal Psychosis and should be referred to a Perinatal Mental Health Service during pregnancy to agree a post delivery management plan.
Appendix 3

Summary of potential impact on child of primary and secondary behaviour associated with parental psychiatric disorder.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARENTAL BEHAVIOUR</th>
<th>POTENTIAL IMPACT ON CHILD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self preoccupation</td>
<td>Neglected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional unavailability</td>
<td>Depressed, anxious, neglected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical unavailability</td>
<td>Out of control, self reliant, neglected, exposed to danger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent separations</td>
<td>Anxious, perplexed, angry, neglected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threats of abandonment</td>
<td>Anxious, inhibited, self blame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpredictable/chaotic planning</td>
<td>Anxious, inhibited, neglected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irritability/over-reactions</td>
<td>Inhibited, physically abused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distorted expressions of reality</td>
<td>Anxious, confused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strange behaviour/beliefs</td>
<td>Embroiled in behaviour, shame, perplexed, physically abused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency</td>
<td>Caretaker role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pessimism/blames self</td>
<td>Caretaker role, depressed, low self esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blames child</td>
<td>Emotionally abused, physically abused, guilt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsuccessful limit-setting</td>
<td>Behaviour problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital discord and hostility</td>
<td>Behaviour problem, anxiety, shame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social deterioration</td>
<td>Neglect, shame</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Family Matters: Interfaces between Child and Adult Mental Health
Edited by Peter Reder, Mike McClure & Anthony Jolley (2000) Routledge
Part 4: Specific/additional guidance: Substance Misuse

4.1 DEFINITION

4.1.1 When referring to substance misuse this guidance will apply to the misuse of alcohol as well as “problem drug use”, defined by the Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs - GOV.UK as drug use which has:

“serious negative consequences of a physical, psychological, social and interpersonal, financial or legal nature for users and those around them.”

4.1.2 “Substance” is used to refer to any psychotropic substance (capable of affecting the mind – changing the way we feel, think or behave) including:

- Alcohol
- Illegal drugs including new psychoactive substances (legal highs)
- Illicit use of prescription drugs
- Over-the-counter and prescribed medicines that are used for recreational rather than medical purposes
- Some plants and fungi (magic mushrooms, cannabis plant)
- Cannabis resin
- Tobacco
- Volatile substances such as solvents (gases, lighter and other fuel).

4.1.3 It is important that all workers should be aware that the term “substance misuse” covers a range of usage, from minor recreational through to more serious use and physical addiction. In common usage then, not all “substance misuse” by parents leads to risk of significant harm to their children but may be indicative of potential risk. All cases should be assessed on their individual circumstances.

4.1.4 Substance use/misuse by parents/carers does not, on its own, automatically mean that children are at risk of abuse or neglect, but workers must recognise that children of problematic substance users are a high-risk group. Furthermore, adults who misuse substances may be faced with multiple problems, including homelessness, accommodation or financial difficulties, difficult or damaging relationships, lack of effective social and support systems, issues relating to criminal activities and poor physical and/or mental health.

Parents or carers who experience domestic abuse may use substances as a coping mechanism. Substance misuse may cause or exacerbate abuse within a relationship. Assessment of the impact of these stresses on the child is as
important as the substance misuse. It reinforces the need to see substance misuse by parents/carers in the context of family life and functioning, and not purely as an indicator or predictor of child abuse and neglect.

4.2 GUIDANCE

4.2.1 This protocol is written in line with the government’s Drug Strategy 2010 – Reducing Demand, Restricting Supply, Building recovery: Supporting People to Live a Drug Free Life, the National Treatment Agency’s (NTA) Models of Care for treatment of adult drug misusers, Department of Children, Schools and Families Think Tank Toolkit and Department of Health’s Models of Care for Alcohol Misusers (MoCAM), copies of which should be available to all practitioners in all agencies.

4.2.2 Hidden Harm is defined by the ACMD as “Parental problem drug use and its actual and potential effects on children” (ACMD, 2003). For the purpose of this guidance the term includes the misuse of all drugs specifically including alcohol.

4.2.3 In response to concerns around the children of drug misusing parents, the ACMD produced a report Hidden Harm in June 2003, outlining a series of 48 recommendations. From this enquiry, 6 key messages emerged:

1) We estimate there are between 250,000 and 350,000 children of problem drug users in the UK – about one for every problem drug user
2) Parental problem drug use can and does cause serious harm to children at every age from conception to adulthood
3) Reducing the harm to children from parental problem drug use should become a major objective of policy and practice
4) Effective treatment for the parent can have major benefits for the child
5) By working together, services can take many practical steps to protect and improve the health and well-being of affected children
6) The number of affected children is only likely to decrease when the number of problem drug users decreases

4.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR AMD IMPACT ON PARENTING

4.3.1 More than 2.6 million children in the UK live with hazardous drinkers and 705,000 live with a dependent drinker (see glossary for definition) Munro review of child protection: interim report - the child's journey, 42% of the 139 cases reviewed in the New Learning from Serious Case Reviews 2009-11 featured parental substance misuse, of which 29% used drugs and 27% alcohol. Many of these cases were not known to Children’s Social Care at the time.

4.3.2 The National Psychiatric Morbidity Survey 2007 suggested that “around 79,000 babies under one in England were living with a parent who was
classified as a “harmful” or “hazardous” drinker. The 2014 Survey results will be published in September 2016. Around 43,000 babies under one in England were living with a parent who had used an illegal drug in the past year”. All Babies Count: Spotlight on drugs and alcohol, NSPCC, 2013

4.3.3 Not all parents with drug problems cause harm to their children, but substance misuse can reduce their ability to provide practical and emotional care. It can have serious consequences for children, including neglect, educational problems, emotional difficulties, abuse and the possibility of becoming drug and alcohol misusers themselves. It can also cause young people to become carers of addicted parents.

4.3.4 Substance misuse is rarely the sole cause of family difficulties. It is usually part of a complex web of coexisting problems that include poverty, social exclusion, poor mental health and unemployment, which can’t easily be disentangled from the substance misuse.

4.3.5 Having children may lead some parents to enter treatment and stabilise their lives, but in other cases their children may be at risk of neglect or serious harm or take on inappropriate caring roles. Key messages from Parents with Drug Problems: How Treatment Helps Families (NTA 2012) are:

- Parents with drug problems present real risks to their children but drug treatment helps them to overcome their addiction and look after children better
- 105,780 of the people receiving drug treatment during 2011-12 (just over 50% of everybody in treatment) were either parents or lived with children
- 40,852 were parents living with their own children and 25,341 were living with children not their own – 1/3 of those in treatment; 39,587 were parents who were not living with their children
- Parents who live with their own children have fewer drug-related issues than others in treatment. They are also more likely to complete their treatment successfully
- Early intervention and joint working can maximise the positive impact treatment and support services have on parents with drug problems.

4.3.6 The following situations relating to a child or children should raise suspicion and will need further investigation/referral:

- Abnormal or delusional thinking about a child
- Persistent negative views expressed about a child
- Hostility, irritability and criticism of a child
- Inconsistent and/or inappropriate expectations of a child
- Emotional detachment from child
- Lack of awareness of child’s needs that might require attention e.g. illness
- Sleeping with a baby or young child, due to the risk of overlaying causing death of the baby/child
- Keeping a child at home to provide care (see young carer section 2.4)
- Family income used for drug/alcohol purchase rather than basic essentials
- Child exposed to fire risk in the home as a result of drug use or smoking
- Child’s safety compromised by drugs, alcohol and paraphernalia not safely stored in the home
- Child exposed to criminal activity connected to substance misuse
- Child exposed to contact with other substance misusing adults who may pose risks in or outside home
- Domestic abuse (see domestic abuse section 2.7.2)
- Disruption to relationships with the extended family, reducing the protective factor for children
- Sofa surfing with children, or in homes where children live

4.4  PREGNANT WOMEN WHO MISUSE DRUGS AND/OR ALCOHOL

4.4.1 These guidelines are intended to ensure a clear and consistent policy for those working with pregnant women who use substances, with a view to encouraging their co-operation with relevant agencies. The overall objective is to ensure the physical well-being of both mother and baby, and enable the baby to be safely discharged from the hospital to the care of the mother, wherever possible.

4.4.2 The current guidelines state that the safest approach is not to drink in pregnancy at all. The riskiest time for drinking in pregnancy is around conception and during the first trimester when the baby’s central nervous system is developing. Addressing the issues early in the pregnancy will give greater opportunity for attendance at antenatal appointments, engagement with substance misuse services and modification of lifestyle. Late booking and poor attendance for antenatal care are known to be associated with poor outcomes and therefore it is important that measures are put in place to encourage women to attend antenatal care on a regular basis.

*NICE Clinical Guideline 110: Pregnancy and complex social factors, 2010*

*Also see Maternity Services and Children’s Social Care Joint Working Protocol to Safeguard Unborn Babies 2014 4LSCB*
4.4.2 Substance misuse is often associated with poverty and other social problems, therefore pregnant women may be in poor general health, as well as having health problems related to drug use. As a general principle, substance misuse during pregnancy increases the risk of:

- Having a premature baby
- Having a baby with a low birth weight
- The newborn suffering symptoms of withdrawal from drugs used by the mother and requiring medication or other treatment
- The death of the baby before or shortly after birth
- An irritable and less responsive baby
- The newborn acquiring HIV, hepatitis C and/or hepatitis B infection
- Sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS)
- Physical and neurological damage to the baby, particularly if violence accompanies parental use of drugs or alcohol
- The baby suffering from foetal alcohol spectrum disorder (FASD) or foetal alcohol syndrome (FAS) when the mother drinks excessively

4.4.3 Mothers who are substance misusers should be encouraged to breastfeed in the same way as other mothers, including in the case of breastfeeding with hepatitis C and/or hepatitis B infection. In the case of mothers who are HIV positive, the view in the UK is that there are safe alternatives breastfeeding is not recommended.

4.4.4 Drug withdrawal symptoms at birth referred to as ‘neonatal abstinence syndrome’ (NAS) can occur in infants born to mothers dependent on certain drugs. They may make the baby more difficult to care for in the postnatal period. These babies may be nursed with their mothers on the postnatal ward unless they require treatment.

4.4.5 The pregnant substance user is likely to feel guilty about the harm she may be causing to the baby and fearful of the judgment of others.

As soon as any agency comes into contact with a pregnant woman who is misusing substances, they should inform maternity services of their involvement, highlighting any concerns and offer reassurance to the pregnant woman that the baby will not automatically be removed or be made subject to a Child Protection Plan because of her substance misuse.

Some pregnant drug users do not come to antenatal care until late pregnancy fearing judgmental attitudes. Children’s Social Care involvement, conflict with partners or having to give up drug use.
## Appendix 4 Summary of Potential Impact of Parental Drug Misuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yrs)</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Education &amp; Cognitive Ability</th>
<th>Relationships &amp; Identity</th>
<th>Emotional &amp; Behavioural Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>Substance misuse during pregnancy may result in symptoms of withdrawal. Missed medical check-ups and immunisations. Unsuitable clothing, very poor hygiene.</td>
<td>Cognitive development of the infant may be delayed through parents’ inconsistent, under-stimulating and neglectful behaviour.</td>
<td>Care of children by different strangers at different times can lead to insecure attachments.</td>
<td>A lack of commitment and increased unhappiness, tension and irritability in parents may result in inappropriate responses and emotional insecurity in the child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Children may be placed in physical danger by excessive parental drug misuse, and by the presence of drugs in the home. Children’s physical needs may be neglected.</td>
<td>Lack of stimulation. Nursery or pre-school attendance may be irregular.</td>
<td>Children may take on responsibilities beyond their years because of parental incapacity.</td>
<td>Children may be at risk because they are unable to tell anyone of their distress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9</td>
<td>School medicals and dental appointments missed. Psychosomatic symptoms e.g. sleep problems, bed-wetting.</td>
<td>Academic attainments may be negatively affected and children’s behaviour in school may become problematic.</td>
<td>Children may develop poor self-esteem and may blame themselves for their parents’ behaviour. Because they feel shame and embarrassment over their parents’ behaviour, children may curtail friendships and social interactions.</td>
<td>Conduct disorders with boys e.g. hyperactivity, inattention. Depression and anxiety in girls. Children may be in denial of their own needs and feelings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>Little or no support during puberty because of parental emotional withdrawal. Early experimentation with substances more likely.</td>
<td>Continued poor academic performance due to caring for siblings or parents. Higher risk of school exclusion.</td>
<td>Restricted friendships. Poor self image and low self-esteem.</td>
<td>Children are at increased risk of emotional disturbance and conduct disorders, including bullying. They are also at risk of becoming drug users themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>Increased risk of problem substance misuse. Risk of pregnancy, STIs and failed relationships.</td>
<td>Poor life chances due to poor school attainment or exclusion because of behavioural problems.</td>
<td>Lack of appropriate role models.</td>
<td>Emotional problems may result from self-blame and guilt, and lead to increased risk of suicidal behaviour and vulnerability to crime.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 5: Summary of Potential Impact of Parental Alcohol Misuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yrs)</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Education &amp; Cognitive Ability</th>
<th>Relationships &amp; Identity</th>
<th>Emotional &amp; Behavioural Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>Health risks to children include direct physical harm, including risk of serious injury or death by overlaying parents failing to ensure that the environment is safe. Harm caused by impaired physical concentration, can lead to problems completing breastfeeding or nappy changing.</td>
<td>Possible delay in cognitive development due to lack of appropriate and consistent stimulation.</td>
<td>Attachments to parents may be problematic or insecure because of inconsistent and chaotic behaviour and emotional withdrawal. Children can feel loss and abandonment if drinking behaviour is placed above child's needs.</td>
<td>Infants may have unsuitable clothing and poor hygiene. Indifference and despair that can accompany problem drinking can mean parents do not respond to or reassure their child in appropriate and positive manner – may lead child to believe they are unloved and unlovable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>When a parent is intoxicated the ability to care for children can decline and children can be at risk from both physical harm and neglect. Children may be left home alone or with unsuitable carers if parents place their drinking behaviour above child's needs.</td>
<td>Child may have cognitive deficit due to insufficient emotional stimulation and interaction. Nursery or pre-school attendance may be irregular since problem drinking often results in parents being disorganised or inactive.</td>
<td>Children commonly blame themselves for family's problems and attempt to put things right in vain and attempt to make their environment better able to support them.</td>
<td>Children may be more at risk of emotional disturbance as they cannot easily articulate emotions. The level of this disturbance may be missed as child's behaviour does not always reflect their mental state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9</td>
<td>Children may experience head and stomach aches, allergies, sleeping problems and bed-wetting.</td>
<td>Academic performance may be negatively affected with school attendance, punctuality, preparation and concentration also potentially affected. In contract, some children may immerse themselves in their studies and attain well.</td>
<td>Children may suffer from low self-esteem and feel that they are not in control of events in their life. They may find it harder to see themselves as an individual separate to the family problems.</td>
<td>Girls may internalise the depression, fear, anxiety and stress caused by their parent's inconsistent and chaotic behaviour, by withdrawing into make-believe. Boys may externalise the distress, resulting in conduct problems, hyperactivity and lack of concentration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>Children may receive no support through puberty because of parental emotional withdrawal. They may have difficulty in developing healthy and balanced attitudes to alcohol as a result of parental alcohol use – experimentation with alcohol and other drugs may be more likely.</td>
<td>Academic performance may be negatively affected due to children's concern about parental problem drinking, which can lead to children staying at home to care for family.</td>
<td>If parents' lives revolve around drinking, children may develop low self-esteem and blame themselves for the drinking. If income is directed primarily at parents' drinking, children may find it hard to maintain an acceptable appearance, causing them to be highly self-conscious, and may</td>
<td>Children may externalise the distress caused by parental drinking problems. These ways of externalising/internalising difficult feelings can lead to children being labelled or identified as 'the problem' by their families and others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15+</td>
<td>Can lead teenagers to drinking extremes, either mirroring their parents' problem drinking or abstaining. Risk of pregnancy, STIs and failed relationships are higher if parents, who may be emotionally withdrawn, do not discuss these issues with teenagers.</td>
<td>Caring responsibilities can impact negatively on a teenager’s education and their future employability. If excluded from school, parents may be incapable of getting children back into school or supporting their continued learning.</td>
<td>If parents’ behaviour is inconsistent and chaotic, children may have low self-esteem, feel rejected, isolated, unable to control event in their life.</td>
<td>Teenagers may show extremes of behaviour that are beyond parental control. Adolescents may resort to stealing when income is spent on parental drinking, and this criminal and anti-social behaviour may bring them into contact with the Criminal Justice system.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 6: Summary of protective Factors in Relation to Parental Substance Misuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yrs)</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Education &amp; Cognitive Ability</th>
<th>Relationships &amp; Identity</th>
<th>Emotional &amp; Behavioural Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>Good regular antenatal care. Support for the expectant mother of at least one caring adult. Medicines and illicit drugs are stored safely. Sufficient income and good physical living standards.</td>
<td>Regular supportive help from primary health care team and Children’s Services</td>
<td>The presence of a caring adult who responds appropriately to the child’s needs.</td>
<td>The presence of a caring adult who responds appropriately to the child’s needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9</td>
<td>Attendance at school medicals.</td>
<td>Regular attendance at school. Sympathetic, empathetic and vigilant teachers.</td>
<td>A supportive older sibling. Children who have at least one mutual friend have higher self-worth and are less lonely than those without. Social networks outside the family, especially with a sympathetic adult of the same sex. Belonging to organised out-of-school activities. Being taught different ways of coping and knowing what to do when parents are incapacitated.</td>
<td>The presence of an alternative, consistent, caring adult who responds appropriately to the child’s cognitive and emotional needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15+</td>
<td>Factual information about puberty, sex and contraception.</td>
<td>Regular school attendance. Sympathetic, empathetic and vigilant teachers. A champion who acts vigorously on behalf of the child. For those no longer in school, a job.</td>
<td>A mentor or trusted adult with whom the child can discuss sensitive issues. Practical and domestic help.</td>
<td>A mutual friend. Unstigmatised support of relevant professionals. The ability to separate themselves either psychologically or physically from stressful family situations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1 DEFINITION

5.1.1 In *Valuing People 2001* the Department of Health describes a learning disability as a significantly reduced ability to understand new or complex information and to learn new skills and a reduced ability to cope independently which starts before adulthood with lasting effects on development. There are a number of syndromes that can cause individuals to have a learning disability. Some people with a learning disability also have other physical or emotional conditions and may receive more than one diagnosis. This could impact on the kind of support they and their families require.

5.1.2 *Public Health England - Improving Health and Lives* estimates that there were 900,900 adults with a learning disability in England in 2013, with 140,015 known to Adult Services. Estimates of the numbers of parents with a learning disability vary widely from 23,000 to 250,000.

5.2 GUIDANCE

5.2.1 The DH *Good Practice Guidance on Working with Parents with a Learning Disability, 2007* says people with learning disabilities have the right to be supported in their parenting role, just as their children have the right to live in a safe and supportive environment.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR AND IMPACT ON PARENTING

5.3.1 Researchers suggest that parental ability is not related to IQ except when it falls below the range of 55-60. It is rare for mothers with a learning disability to harm their children; the children are more likely to be at risk of unintended neglect or harm from a person known to the mother. *Good practice Guidance for Clinical Psychologists when Assessing Parents with Learning Disabilities* ed. Dr Sandra Baum, Dr Gemma Gray & Dr Sheila Stevens, March 2011

5.3.2 Parents with learning disabilities frequently face challenges in their home environment; they may live with their own parents or family members which reduces any personal control they have over the domestic environment or the parenting of their children, or they may be quite isolated from social support.

5.3.3 They probably face a higher risk than other parents, of having their children removed from their care, which may be due to a lack of reasonable adjustments, attitude of staff or other stressors such as having a disabled child, domestic isolation, poor housing, poverty and a history of growing up in care or poor parenting themselves. It is these additional stressors when combined with a learning disability that are most likely to lead to concerns about the care and safety of a child rather than the intellectual capacity of the parent.
5.3.4 Fear of asking for support or that their child may be removed from their care may prevent parents with a learning disability from engaging with support or fully understanding what practitioners say to them.

5.3.5 Parents with a learning disability have a right to an assessment of their needs for support in their daily lives under the Care Act 2014. They may also be entitled to independent advocacy to support them in the assessment.

5.3.6 The majority of children born to parents with learning disabilities do not have learning difficulties themselves. Finding the right support? A review of issues and positive practice in supporting parents with learning difficulties and their children (Beth Tarleton, Linda Ward & Joyce Howarth, 2006, The Baring Foundation).

5.3.7 Having a learning disability does not mean that a person cannot learn new skills. They may take longer to learn, may need information being given on more than one occasion and in a different format. They may struggle to adjust to development changes in the child and need additional support at such times, e.g. eating solid food, walking, going to school, becoming a teenager.

5.3.8 Teenagers may be more able than their parents and are likely to take on the parenting role, becoming responsible for housework, cooking, correspondence, dealing with authority figures, and the general care of their parents and younger siblings. (See Young Carers, Section 2.4)

5.3.9 Consistent support, appropriate communication and multi-agency working, including those with knowledge of working with people with learning disabilities, appears to offer the best chance of people with learning disabilities being ‘good enough’ parents.

5.3.10 If you have any concerns about the children of adults with a learning disability, you should contact your local Adult Services to establish if the adult is known to services or make a referral through the normal routes. (See back page for contact details)

5.4 PRENATAL AND POSTNATAL PERIOD

5.4.1 Specific concerns apply to the pre and postnatal periods. It is vital that there is joint working between GPs, Midwifery, Health Visiting and, if involved, specialist Learning Disability Services. It is essential to identify needs, assess and, if necessary, prepare safeguarding plans for both mother and child.

5.4.2 Parents with a learning disability will require additional support before the baby is born to understand what is happening, to participate effectively in antenatal classes and at check ups. Careful consideration will be required to ensure communication methods are appropriate to the needs of the person e.g. repeated information methods giving, easy read or visual documents.
5.4.3 Parental learning disability may impact on the unborn child because it affects parents in their decision-making and preparation for birth. The quality of the woman’s antenatal care is often jeopardised by late presentation and poor attendance. When women with learning disabilities do attend antenatal care they may experience difficulty in understanding and putting into practice the information and advice given.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Glossary Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult Services</td>
<td>Local Authority Department with statutory responsibilities for adults, including safeguarding. Any reference to ‘services for adults’ relates to all statutory and non-statutory services working with adults.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ACMD</td>
<td>Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAF</td>
<td>Common Assessment Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAMHS</td>
<td>Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Child Protection conference</td>
<td>A confidential meeting between parents, Children’s Services child protection workers and other professionals; to discuss the welfare of a child(ren), after enquiry has shown that a child(ren) is at risk of abuse or neglect and to agree what needs to be done to reduce this risk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CPP</td>
<td>Child Protection Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Social Care or Children’s Services</td>
<td>Local Authority Department with wide statutory responsibilities for children, including safeguarding. Any reference to ‘services for children’ relates to all statutory and non-statutory services working with children.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Core Group</td>
<td>A group of identified professional who have a key role to play in the CPP, along with, where appropriate, the parents and child. Together, the Core Group has responsibility for developing, implementing and reviewing the CPP ensuring the</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>CPA</strong></td>
<td>Care Programme Approach</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>CSE</strong></td>
<td>Child Sexual Exploitation</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Detox</strong></td>
<td>Detoxification</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>DH</strong></td>
<td>Department of Health</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Domestic abuse (domestic violence)</strong></td>
<td>Domestic abuse is any incident or pattern of incidents of controlling, coercive or threatening behaviour, violence or abuse (psychological, physical, sexual, financial or emotional) between those aged 16 or over who are or have been intimate partners of family members, regardless of gender or sexuality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Early Help Assessment and Plan</strong></td>
<td>Assessment and plan to provide help, often multi-agency, at an early stage to prevent escalation of need. May be used as an alternative to a CAF.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>EIP</strong></td>
<td>Early Intervention in Psychosis</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Filicide</strong></td>
<td>The deliberate act of a parent killing their own son or daughter.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Harmful drinking</strong></td>
<td>Defined in NICE guidance as a pattern of alcohol consumption that causes health problems, including psychological problems such as depression, alcohol-related accidents or physical illness such as acute pancreatitis. No level of alcohol is safe to drink in pregnancy.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Hate crime</strong></td>
<td>Hate crimes are any crimes that are targeted at a person because of</td>
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<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hazardous drinking</td>
<td>Defined as a quantity or pattern of alcohol consumption that places people at risk of psychological or physical health problems. This can include binge drinking if drinking at other times is limited.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Infanticide</td>
<td>Homicide of an infant by a mother.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lead Professional</td>
<td>When a child or young person with multiple needs requires support from more than one practitioner, the lead professional acts as a single point of contact that the child or young person and their family can trust and who is able to support them in making choices and navigating their way through the system, ensuring they get appropriate interventions when needed, which are well planned, regularly reviewed and effectively delivered.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LSCB</td>
<td>Local Safeguarding Children Board Key statutory mechanism within each Local authority for agreeing how the relevant organisations in each local area will co-operate to safeguard and promote the welfare of children. There are LSCBs in Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Portsmouth and Southampton.</td>
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<tr>
<td>MAPPA</td>
<td>Multi-Agency Public Protection Arrangements Statutory arrangements supporting the assessment and management of the most serious sexual and violent offenders in the community.</td>
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<tr>
<td>NICE</td>
<td>National Institute for health and Care Excellence Non-Departmental Public Body responsible for developing guidance and quality standards in health and social care.</td>
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<td>NPS</td>
<td>New Psychoactive Substances NPS are drugs that are designed to replicate the effects of other illegal substances. People may refer to these drugs as “legal highs”, but all psychoactive substances are now either under the control of the Misuse of Drugs Act 1971 or subject to the</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Definition</td>
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<td>Perinatal</td>
<td>During pregnancy and for twelve months after birth.</td>
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<td>Practitioners</td>
<td>Any local paid or volunteer practitioners who might come into contact with parents with complex needs or their children.</td>
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<td>Rehab</td>
<td>Rehabilitation. Usually residential provision following detox to enable people to address non-treatment specific issues relating to their drug or alcohol problems, funded by Adult Services or the person. See detox.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCR</td>
<td>Serious Case Review. Local enquiry into the death or serious injury of a child where abuse or neglect is known or suspected to be a factor. Carried out by LSCBs, they are reported to Ofsted, Department for Education and the national panel of independent experts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>STI</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Infection. Diseases passed on through intimate sexual contact; common STIs in the UK include chlamydia, genital warts and gonorrhoea.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supporting (Troubled) Families</td>
<td>Multi-agency programme to support families with multiple, complex and persistent issues including unemployment, poor school attendance, involvement in crime and antisocial behaviour, problems with drugs and/or alcohol, physical or mental health problems, domestic violence or abuse.</td>
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<tr>
<td>TAC</td>
<td>Team around the child. A way of working with children and young people who, through the use of the CAF or initial assessment, have been identified as having unmet needs and require support from more than one agency/service to meet these needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Threshold document</td>
<td>Requirement of WT15 that LSCBs publish a threshold document to include the process for the early help</td>
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<tr>
<td>Universal services</td>
<td>Services available to the general public e.g. GPs, health and educational services.</td>
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<tr>
<td>WT15</td>
<td>Working together to Safeguard Children, Department for Education, 2015</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department for Education statutory guidance which sets out how organisations and individuals should work together to safeguard and promote the welfare of children and how practitioners should conduct the assessment of children.</td>
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