Transferring knowledge and skills across international frontiers: The experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England

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CRISFORD CHOGUGUDZA

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Department of Social Work

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Abstract

This thesis explores the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in their quest to transfer the knowledge and skills acquired in Zimbabwe to England. The aims of the study were to analyse the knowledge and skills of overseas Zimbabwean social workers now working and living in England and their experiences in transferring these to practice, to analyse how globalisation processes have influenced the recruitment, knowledge, practice and integration of overseas social workers from Zimbabwe into the wider UK society, and to provide evidence about recruitment practices, the transfer of skills and knowledge, and challenges and opportunities faced by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

A Case Study design was employed in this study utilising a qualitative research approach as its methodological framework. Semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were also used to explore the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers. Semi-structured interviews and basic demographic questionnaires were used to collect data from 30 overseas Zimbabwean social workers based in two London boroughs and a Major City in 2013. Globalisation and its main dimensions were analysed and utilised in this research as a theoretical tool of analysis.

The key findings of this case study are that study participants reported that they were able to transfer some basic social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England with relevant adjustments. The study found that overseas Zimbabwean social workers had brought in what is perceived to be broader skill sets, which added a new dimension to the diversity and skills matrix of children's social care system. The perceived success of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England confirmed a changing approach in the transfer of knowledge and skills from the global South to the developed North. This is a change from the traditional unidirectional approach where knowledge and skills have always transferred from the North to the South. However, the study found the existence of perceived barriers in transferring social work knowledge, values and skills fundamentally rooted in the social, cultural, political and legislative differences between Zimbabwe and England.

The study recommends better recognition of the broader skills set of overseas social workers and their different work ethics, the creation of policies of inclusivity for overseas social workers, and for employers to design better, consistent and targeted induction and training programmes that can equip newly recruited overseas social workers with the necessary skills and support to help them integrate and function effectively in their practice posts.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation, submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy and entitled *"Transferring Knowledge and Skills Across International Frontiers: The Experience of Zimbabwean Social Workers in England",* represents my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person.

Signed……. (Candidate)

Date……..

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AFM	Apostolic Faith Mission
BASW	British Association of Social Workers
BSA	British Sociological Association
DoH	Department of Health
DWP	Department of Work and Pensions
EEA	European Economic Area
ESRC	Economic and Social Research Council
EU	European Union
GSCC	General Social Care Council
HCPC	Health and Care Professions Council
IBBS	International Bibliography of the Social Science
IASSW	International Association of Schools of Social Work
IFSW	International Federation of Social Workers
ILR	Indefinite Leave to Remain
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organisation for Migration (Geneva, Switzerland)
HTA	Home Towns Association
IPPR	Institute of Public Policy Research
KT	Knowledge Transfer
MDC	Movement for Democratic Change

NASW	National Association of Social Workers (Zimbabwe)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NQSW	Newly Qualified Social Worker
NZ	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OZSW	Overseas Zimbabwean Social Workers
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PQ	Post Qualification
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SCCIR	Social Care Code for International Recruitment
SSCI	Social Science Citation Index
SWTF	Social Work Task Force
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
USA	United States of America
ZANU-PF	Zimbabwe African National Union – Patriotic Front
ZSWN	Zimbabwe Social Workers Network

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background and context of the study

This study explores the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers who were recruited from abroad, their motivations to work outside Zimbabwe and their ability to transfer the knowledge, values and skills acquired in their home country to England. The study describes their experiences once they arrived and started working, and how globalisation has influenced the processes of their recruitment, migration, and knowledge and skills transfer. The impetus for this thesis originated from the researcher's passion for this subject area and his own background as an overseas Zimbabwean social worker working and living in England. The study adopted a qualitative design that involved interviews with overseas Zimbabwean social workers currently and previously employed by two London boroughs and by a Major City. The study focused particularly on migration trajectories, awareness of globalisation, its main dimensions, and their influence on overseas Zimbabwean social workers' motivations to emigrate to England and transfer knowledge, values and skills when and where they could. A range of thematic narratives regarding the areas of social worker migration, globalisation, knowledge, values and skills transfer was gathered from the social workers and analysed.

This study is located in the broader context of episodes of the international migration of skilled people. Wittenberg et al (2008) argues that demographic and social factors in most developed nations have created need for the employment of international care workers in the few decades to come. Migrant workers will increasingly become an essential part of the above workforce as a consequence of the status of the social care sector in the labour market irrespective of whether they are directly recruited as care workers or are recruited upon landing in the UK (Anderson, 2007).

The international recruitment of social workers to England is part of the process of migration in general. The transfer of knowledge and skills from abroad is linked to the

above process, as is the case with other professionals. The transfer of knowledge and skills from abroad, including from Zimbabwe, is influenced in part by globalisation, another phenomenon associated with international migration. Globalisation and its main dimensions of economic, technological, political, and social/cultural elements have been employed as a conceptual framework in this study. In view of the above, globalisation is therefore perceived to have influenced many overseas social workers, including those from Zimbabwe, in multifarious ways: from the point of taking the decision to migrate abroad, during the migration process itself and in transferring knowledge and skills.

This study is also significant in that the subject area being explored is relatively recent and has not been thoroughly investigated before. Tinarwo's (2011) PhD thesis (Case Study) is closest to this study, but fundamentally different in emphasis. Tinarwo's case study explores the concept of social capital, focusing on the migration of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to one major British city, Birmingham. Tinarwo's (2011) study had different aims and focus from this one, albeit exploring several common threads and contacting similar samples of social workers about four years earlier than the present study.

Hussein et al, (2009, 2010 & 2011) through the King's College London, Social Care Workforce Research Unit have produced a number of research papers on the international recruitment of overseas social care workforce in the UK, and they are discussed in detail later; but these have not significantly explored the particular issues of knowledge and skills transfer and the concept of globalisation. Some of these studies include among others; Hussein et al (2008), (2009) and (2010), Manthorpe et al (2011) and Moriarty et al (2010). However, the above studies do offer significant insights into various critical issues and themes regarding overseas social care workers' recruitment patterns, integration and general experiences in the UK. Evans (2004) and (2007) also conducted studies of recruitment of social workers to the UK (including a review of evidence) and explored some common themes, which this study has also explored, although with a different emphasis. The above studies, when looked at together, have been useful in informing the present study, and are referred to more fully later in this thesis.

This study offers a new element in the area of international recruitment of social workers by focusing on Zimbabwe as a source of skilled labour, and Zimbabwean social workers as carriers of knowledge and skills to England in particular. It is important to state that most studies conducted on the recruitment of overseas social workers in the UK and England have not comprehensively examined the issues of globalisation, knowledge and skills transfer in one study. This therefore, makes the present study uniquely exploratory, with significance in the wider debate on overseas social worker recruitment.

1.2 Research Problem

Large scale international recruitment of social workers from developing countries is according to the extant literature historically relatively recent (just over two decades old), largely under-researched and under conceptualised in social sciences as has been observed by most researchers including Hanna and Lyons (2011), Hussein et al (2008) and Evans (2004). In particular, the large-scale recruitment of social workers from Zimbabwe is a very recent and unprecedented phenomenon. There are few detailed studies of this particular group of professionals to inform this study including the ones carried out by Hussein et al (2008, 2009 and 2010), Evans (2004 and 2007) and Tinarwo (2011).

It is also important to note that new patterns of migration have emerged as stated by Hanna and Lyons (2011) who argue that the UK has for some time experienced staff shortages in both social work and the wider social care sector. This has resulted in recruitment of staff from abroad to try to ease the pressures in many regions of England in particular and these have come from a variety of countries. Hanna and Lyons (2011) further state that traditionally, social worker recruitment into the UK has targeted English-speaking countries, particularly those in the Commonwealth (e.g. Australia, Canada and South Africa) but a change in immigration laws and policies has led to increasing use of staff trained in other countries of the European Union. The above indicates a change of focus in the recruitment of international social workers, which this case study acknowledges.

The majority of studies carried out on international social workers recruitment including those by Evans (2004, 2007) and Hussein (2009, 2010) suggest that local authorities are those most affected by staff shortages in social work, which have created the need for overseas recruitment; hence, they have been the focus of the studies carried out so far. They have not in essence analysed issues relative to knowledge and skills in detail as explored in the present study.

Consequently, the lack of good empirical data on overseas social workers, including those from Zimbabwe provides the major justification for exploring the issues affecting overseas social workers and making recommendations on how to address some of the problems and issues emerging from the phenomenon of overseas social worker recruitment.

1.3 Aims

The main aims of the research were:

1.3.1. to analyse the knowledge and skills of Zimbabwean social workers working and living in England and their experiences in transferring these to practice,

1.3.2. to analyse how globalisation processes have influenced the recruitment, knowledge, practice and integration of overseas social workers from Zimbabwe into the wider UK society and

1.3.3. to provide evidence about recruitment practices, the transfer of skills and knowledge, and challenges and opportunities faced by overseas (specifically Zimbabwean) social workers in England.

The study has highlighted the important aspect of the changing patterns and modes of international recruitment over the past decade or so as highlighted by Hanna and Lyons (2011). It also explored a number of key areas which include difficulties in adapting to a new work environment, values and ethics and integration into the English society, and creating social support networks (social capital) as part of the wider experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers working and living in England.

1.4 Research Questions

Main Question

1. How can different forms of globalisation help us to understand the transfer of knowledge, skills and values by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England?

The research also seeks to answer the following further questions

(a) What factors have influenced overseas Zimbabwean social workers in migrating to England?
(b) What specific knowledge and skills have the social workers transferred to the English context?
(c) How relevant and transferrable to England is the social work practice, training and education previously received in Zimbabwe?
(d) In what ways have overseas Zimbabwean social workers benefitted from the different elements of globalisation during their time in England?

1.5 Broader impacts

Most importantly, the study provides a contribution to the existing small but growing body of knowledge on the experiences of overseas social workers in the UK in general and England in particular. It produces incremental knowledge on the benefits, social and practice challenges and experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. It is expected the study will therefore have implications for policy makers, social work training institutions and educators, employers and the generality of the children's social care sector in relation to the area of international recruitment.

1.6 Glossary of terms

It is essential at the very outset to define a number of operational concepts that are used throughout the research study.

Brain drain is the colloquial term for the loss of trained and educated individuals from a state, due to voluntary emigration. According to Grubel (1994) brain drain entails the phenomenon of abandonment of a country to another by highly skilled professionals who leave their home country for improved conditions.

Globalisation is defined by Giddens (1990:64) as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa. Lyons (2006) argues that globalisation can seem a remote process, related only to the economic and commercial world, but similarly having a differential impact on global work opportunities and living conditions on many people and this has influenced debate on welfare policies, including those provided by the state.

International labour migration; this according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), is the movement of people from one country to another for the purpose of employment. Today, an estimated 105 million persons are working in a country other than their country of birth (ILO, 2010).

International Social Worker: according to the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), an international social worker is one who deals with problems that transcend national boundaries or are of an international or global nature (IFSW, 2014).

Knowledge exchange: According to Saxena (2011) Knowledge exchange (KE) is collaborative problem-solving among practitioners, researchers, and decision-makers, which occurs essentially through linkage and exchange. It results in mutual learning through the process of planning, producing, disseminating, and applying existing or new research in decision-making.

Knowledge sharing: Schwartz (2006) refers to knowledge sharing as the exchange of knowledge between and among individuals, groups and organisations. This exchange may be focused or unfocused and between the one who communicates knowledge and the one who assimilates it and the focus is on human capital and the interaction of individuals.

Knowledge transfer: Newman and Conrad (1999) refer to knowledge transfer as activities associated with the flow of knowledge from one party to the other through communication, translation, conversion, filtering and rendering. Lochhead and Stephens (2004) in their debate of knowledge transfer refer particularly to processes that achieve the effective sharing of knowledge among individuals, business units and departments.

Overseas Zimbabwean social worker: This refers to a social worker trained and recruited from Zimbabwe but (in this study) now practising social work in England. Overseas Zimbabwean social workers are predominantly black African. Overseas Zimbabwean social workers are scattered throughout the four countries of the UK, namely England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Zimbabwean social workers in this research do not include UK trained Zimbabwean social workers.

Push and Pull factors: *Push factors* are those that force a person or individuals, due to different reasons, to leave one place and go to another. For example, factors such as low productivity, unemployment and underemployment, poor economic conditions and lack of opportunities for advancement, may compel people to leave their place of origin in search of better opportunities elsewhere including abroad. *Pull factors* are those factors that attract migrants to an area, place or country, such as, opportunities for better employment, higher wages, facilities, better working conditions and amenities among others (Kainth, 2010).

Skill Mix: According to Buchan & O'May (2000), Skill Mix refers to the combination or grouping of different categories of workers employed in any field of work or area of specialisation and this can be applied to micro or micro context of local service delivery.

Social Care Worker: According to Lalor, K., & Share, P (2013), social care workers plan and provide professional individual or group care to clients with personal and social needs. Their client groups are of a varied nature and include children and adolescents in residential care; young people in detention schools or secure units; people with disabilities of all types; the homeless and drug/alcohol addicts as well as families in the community or the elderly. The National Health Service and Community Care Act (1990) defines Social Care in England as the provision of social work, personal care, protection or social support services to children or adults in need or at risk, or adults with needs arising from illness, disability, old age or poverty. In essence, any worker employed in the social care sector as defined above can also be classified as a social care worker.

Social worker: Social workers are defined as professionals who work with a wide range of people including children and, families among other vulnerable groups and their responsibilities include improving and safeguarding their social wellbeing. Social workers practise in a wide range of settings such as the community, residential care, hospitals, prisons, probation and schools among others. Social work as a profession requires a range of personal qualities including patience, understanding, resilience and tolerance. Social workers make difficult decisions and work within a legal framework in order to protect children and vulnerable adults (Northern Ireland Direct, 2013) According to the British Association of Social Workers (BASW) 2013, state that social workers must be registered and have a social work degree (either an undergraduate degree in social work, or a masters in social work). In order for one to practice in England, one has to register with the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC).

Social Networks: "Individuals create interpersonal bonds with others within their social network, however these bonds are in some unspecified way causally connected with the actions of these persons with the social institutions of their society" (Barnes, 1954, p. 38-39).

Transnationalism: "transnationalism is the processes by which immigrants forge and sustain multi-stranded social relations that link together their societies of origins and

settlement. An essential element is the multiplicity of involvements that trans migrants sustain in both home and host societies" (Basch et al, 1994:6).

Zimbabwe: This is a Black African country situated in Southern Africa, formerly the British colony of Southern Rhodesia, with a population of around 14million (CIA Country Report, 2015).

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into eight chapters.

Chapter One introduces the study and its significance as well as summarising the experiences of Zimbabwean social workers as carriers of knowledge and skills in England.

Chapter Two focuses on the conceptual framework of the research, drawing on relevant literature, describes the frame of reference of the research area, and provides the basis for analysing the empirical findings.

Chapter Three presents the general literature review, draws out the salient themes that are pertinent to the study, and identifies gaps in the literature.

Chapter Four focuses on research methods and the procedures used to collect the information required for the study. This chapter in particular provides insight into the research design of the study, the target population, sampling procedures, research instruments and data analysis.

Chapter Five focuses on the concepts of knowledge and skills transfer, drawing on the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

Chapter Six focuses on the general experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

Chapter Seven provides a discussion of the research findings, with specific reference to the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in the areas of knowledge and skills transfer and the influence of globalisation. The specific research questions are also addressed in this chapter.

Chapter Eight provides the summary of the study and draws some general conclusions relating to the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in the United Kingdom. This chapter also focuses on policy implications and recommendations for further research.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has outlined the background to and the structure of the thesis, with brief definitions of key terms and an account of the researcher's position and the focus of the research. The next chapter will present the theoretical framework of this study, which is globalisation and how this phenomenon influences social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer in England.

Chapter Two

(Conceptual Framework)

Globalisation

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores globalisation as a theoretical tool of analysis in exploring the phenomenon of knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England. It presents varied definitions of globalisation, highlights some of the key arguments about globalisation, the dimensions of globalisation, and the possible impact of specific elements of globalisation on social work knowledge, practice and social work migration.

According to Bertucci and Alberti (2003), Globalisation is viewed as a concept that transcends many spheres of contemporary society, including in part, the transfer of social work knowledge, values and skills by overseas social workers in England. It is a perceived to be complex phenomenon, comprising a great variety of tendencies and trends in the economic, social and cultural spheres. Bertucci and Alberti (2003) further state that this increasingly influential global concept has a multidimensional dimension, which makes its definition unique and controversial. Globalisation at the very least has created both opportunities and costs.

Globalisation as a concept is a huge area of study whose main components and arguments cannot be explored in the context of this study. Only the aspects of globalisation that are relevant to this study will be explored and discussed: these include definitions of globalisation, key debates, main actors, globalists and sceptics, views on positive and negative impacts of globalisation, dimensions of globalisation, globalisation and social work, globalisation and social work knowledge and skills transfer and the impact of globalisation on social work migration.

2.2 Definitions of globalisation

According to Labonte and Schrecker (2005), globalisation, like many sociological and economic concepts, is difficult to summarise within a single definition. Globalisation as a concept has multiple, contested meanings. In general, it describes the ways in which nation states; businesses and people are becoming more connected and interdependent across national frontiers through increased economic integration, communication, cultural diffusion and movement.

In agreement with above, Dominelli (2004b) argues that globalisation is a contested term, ranging in meaning from the economic integration of countries in one economic system, to one that considers the impact of economic global relations on social relationships from the meta-level of a social system to the interstices of everyday life practices (ELPs).

According to Midgley (2001) more serious social science analyses of globalisation recognise its multifaceted dimensions. While globalisation does encompass international economic integration, it also has demographic, social, cultural, political and psychological dimensions. Midgley (2001) believes in this wider interpretation, globalisation is viewed as a process of rapidly increasing human interaction within a 'one-world' system that transcends previous political, spatial and temporal boundaries.

According to Giddens (1990:64), "globalisation can thus be defined as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa''. It appears Giddens' definition is easy to understand, interpret, and can easily inform arguments regarding social work knowledge, values and skills transfer. Giddens (1990) clearly describes the phenomenon of global interconnectedness at local and international levels, and his definition and subsequent writings resonate well with this research.

Kumar (2003) argues that there are currently several definitions of globalisation making it defining globalisation particularly difficult. He contends that there is a virtually unanimous awareness among the globalisation theorists that globalisation theories draw

on a variety of different and sometimes contradictory perspectives, that there is considerable disagreement over definitions of globalisation, that the nature of globalisation is dependent upon one's theoretical perspective, that there are competing conceptual explanations of globalisation as a concept, that depending upon the observer's preferences, the term globalisation is understood and interpreted differently and that it is often used very loosely and often in contradictory ways.

In view of the above and indeed many other definitions, it is extremely difficult to argue that one particular definition of globalisation among many others is the most accepted and comprehensive definition of globalisation. The above scholars agree in principle that globalisation is a controversial, fluid and complex phenomenon whose definition is subject to different interpretations. However, the fundamental issue in all the definitions of globalisation, it appears, is the notion of interconnectedness between different peoples and systems across the globe. This study attempts to link how globalisation and its dimensions are connected to the specific research questions, including social work knowledge and skills transferability. There are key broad debates that underline the concept of globalisation and these help us to understand the phenomenon better.

2.3 Key debates

There are multifarious debates on globalisation as a concept; there are those who argue for globalisation's merits, perceiving it as a solution to political, economic, social problems and issues. Others argue that globalisation is undesirable and has done more harm than good, exacerbating and entrenching inequalities between and within nations. According to Ćetković, J and Žarković, M (2012) while there are a number of benefits brought about by globalisation such as interconnectedness and increased global trade, they argue that it has also destroyed the local culture, and is responsible for wider global inequalities and immensely worsened the lives of the poor.

While yet others believe there is no point in arguing for or against globalisation as it is here to stay and therefore we must embrace it nevertheless. Some academics and researchers tend to focus on the symptoms of globalisation, which include such areas as international migration and global cultural flows. According to Thacker, 2008, some critics

of globalisation regard it as mythical and a distraction from important socio-economic and political issues. The above debates, for the purposes of this study, include arguments about the origins of globalisation, the main actors of globalisation, its proponents and critics, also known as globalists and sceptics, and the positive and negative impacts of globalisation. Given the complex nature of the concept of globalisation, it is therefore impossible to comprehensively address all the debates arising from globalisation. However, this study has a particular focus on globalisation and its practical influence on the knowledge and skills transfer experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers now working and living in England.

In their contribution, Ferguson, Lavalette & Whitmore (2005) stated that globalisation has essentially shaped the economic, political and cultural affinities existing between people across the globe. It has become an unstoppable force during the twenty first century and has a profound impact on the provision of welfare.

2.4 The origins of globalisation

The precise origins of globalisation are contested and subject of continuous discussion. An analysis of the existing literature reveals that globalisation is situated in different eras by different scholars. There is consensus by the majority of scholars however, that globalisation as a phenomenon continues to evolve and manifest itself in multifarious ways. Fulcher (2000) argues that globalisation is one of the most contested topics in the field of social sciences; it is not new in one sense, exchanges between nations having occurred throughout history. It is believed the nation state was built on the principle whereby citizens were members of a state living within the borders of a defined territory.

Globalisation as a phenomenon has also been linked to colonialisation. Basheer (2015) contends that by definition, globalisation entails the expansion of communication links between different regions whereas colonialism was the expansion of both power and territory. However, the two are concepts are considered to be similar in the sense that the powerful have an upper hand and can increase their profits at the expense of the poor. Like colonialism, globalisation promises better lives to the people by creating new jobs for the public.

Banergee and Linstead, S (2001) argue that despite its *one world many nations* rhetoric, notions of globalisation are inextricably linked to the continued development of western economies, creating new forms of colonial control in the so called post-colonial era. In essence, globalisation becomes the new global colonialism based on the historical structure of capitalism thereby promoting the objectives of colonialism more efficiently in a rational way.

Basheer (2015) further states that globalisation and colonialism are almost the same because they both address the perceived benefits and disadvantages of the two. Colonialism and globalisation are considered to be intertwined because of the nature of powerful countries to use underdeveloped countries to maximise returns. Globalisation and colonialism are considered inherently similar because they give powerful and rich countries an opportunity to exploit the poor countries. Like colonialism, globalisation promises better lives to the people by creating new jobs for the public. At the same time, modern authors highlight the short comings of colonialism to the colonised but fail to reveal the negative effects of globalisation on underdeveloped nations and their peoples.

In view of the aforementioned, social work is presumably affected by both colonialisation and globalisation factors, especially in developing countries where knowledge, training and practice are linked to colonial or western influences in spite of attempts to localise some aspects of the curriculum and practice.

The globalisation literature suggests the existence of a number of actors involved in globalisation, and these help shape the phenomenon. The other main actors or participants in globalisation include nation states, individuals, multinational corporations, international organisations, non-governmental organisations, local and corporate media organisations, educational institutions, academics and researchers. The above actors all influence the process of globalisation in many ways and at varying levels. For example, nation states perceive and respond to globalisation differently from companies who operate transnationally. Equally, individuals, academics and researchers see globalisation differently. There are supporters of and sceptics of globalisation who hold different and often competing views.

2.5 Globalists and sceptics

According to (Held & McGrew, 2003), Globalists (supporters of globalisation) also acknowledge that globalisation constrains government economic policy options. There is a division between those who perceive neoliberal policies set as natural, benign, and essential for development and those who reject neoliberal policies as destructive and inherently unequal. The latter group recognises the existence of economic globalisation but believe that integration should contribute more to development. This is a debate about who benefits from globalisation and how.

The proponents of globalisation see it as an inevitable and unstoppable process that has benefitted everyone at different levels and will continue to shape the whole future of the globe in a progressive way. Held & McGrew (2003) argue that sceptics (those who doubt the existence and importance of globalisation), on the other hand, perceive globalisation somewhat differently. They see the world as less economically integrated and ascribe whatever economic expansion that has occurred to regionalisation.

Held & McGrew (2003) further argue that sceptics continue to believe that nation-states are the central regulators of the global economy and that multinational corporations, while playing a pivotal role, are not as powerful as globalists make them out to be. Moreover, they reinforce the long-standing primary commodity-manufacturing relationship between the global South and the global North. The sceptics make the Marxist argument that current trading relationships are really a new phase of capitalist imperialism, and that only marginal changes have occurred in the international division of labour.

2.6 Positive and negative effects of globalisation

There are many negative and positive effects of globalisation. Nyakoa (2013) states that globalisation is perceived as creating numerous opportunities for sharing knowledge, technology, social values, and behavioural norms. It is believed that globlisation promotes development at different levels including individuals, organisations, communities, and societies, across different countries and cultures. The advantages of globalisation may include sharing of knowledge, skills, and intellectual assets that are necessary for multiple developments at different levels, mutual support, supplements and benefits to produce

synergy for various developments of countries, communities, and individuals (Cheng, 2000; Brown, 1999; Waters, 1995).

Lyons (2006) argues that globalisation is a reality, that it affects all societies and sections within them (albeit in different ways), and that systems of welfare and the practices of social workers are affected by the processes and effects of globalisation, as well as by other regional influences.

One of the criticisms levelled at globalisation is the development of a monoculture via "cultural colonialism." In this view, weakened cultural traditions, along with the importation of foreign media, retail stores, and goods encourage cultural homogenisation. Multinational news outlets, like CNN and Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation have provoked the complaint that the "flow of information" (a term that seemed to include both ideas and attitudes) was dominated by multinational entities based in the most powerful nations (MacBride & Roach, 1989: 286).

Globalisation, as a process, has brought many of the positive improvements in fields of economy, science and technology, but it has also brought some undesirable consequences like unemployment, poverty and social exclusion that directly concern social work. By causing these undesirable consequences, globalisation imposes a challenge on social work, in their efforts to help economically and politically excluded social groups (Jurčević & Živković, 2011).

2.7 Dimensions of globalisation

Globalisation is a broad concept, which has many different dimensions. For the purposes of this study, the following dimensions will be explored here: namely, economic globalisation, political globalisation, technological globalisation and cultural/social globalisation. The other dimensions of globalisation will also be discussed, but the focus will be on the above dimensions and their potential influence on the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in relation to their transfer of knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England.

Economic globalisation

According to Bairoch and Kozul-Wright (1996), despite the multidimensional nature of globalisation, it can be better understood by starting with its economic dimension. Economic globalisation is defined as a process in which the production and financial structures of countries are becoming interlinked by an increasing number of cross-border transactions to create an international division of labour in which national wealth creation comes, increasingly, to depend on economic agents in other countries, and the ultimate stage of economic integration where such dependence has reached its spatial limit.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) has stated that, "Economic 'globalisation' is a historical process, the result of human innovation and technological progress. It refers to the increasing integration of economies around the world, particularly through trade and financial flows. The term sometimes also refers to the movement of people (labour) and knowledge (technology) across international borders (IMF, 2000)

"Globalisation refers to global economic integration of many formerly national economies into one global economy, mainly by free trade and free capital mobility, but also by easy or uncontrolled migration. It is the effective erasure of national boundaries for economic purposes. International trade (governed by comparative advantage) becomes interregional trade (governed by absolute advantage). What was many becomes one.", (Daly, 1999:1) It is assumed that the shrinking or reduced relevance of national frontiers has had some effect on the rise of international migration of both skilled and unskilled people from mainly developing countries for economic reasons and in some cases, to fill in the skills gaps in the destination countries mainly in the developed north. Arguably, this phenomenon includes the migration of social workers as well. However, it is also not clear yet whether global economic integration will result in globalised social work curricula and training.

Cultural/Social globalisation

Cultural globalisation refers to "the emergence of a specific set of values and beliefs that are largely shared around the planet" (Castells, 2009, p.117). The source of most global informational flows is mass media. Traditionally, this entails a flow of information in a

single direction, dispersion from one to many. Movious (2010) argues that throughout the developed world, the globalisation of media is tantamount to the globalisation of culture. Indeed, cultural globalisation is familiar to almost everyone; prominent icons of popular culture, like Coca-Cola and McDonalds, are common examples that can be found 'everywhere'. Looking at global cities (Sassen, 1991), where a consistent brand-name consumerism exists, cultural globalisation can appear to act as a solvent, dissolving cultural differences, to create homogeneity across the globe.

According to Featherstone (1995), the process of globalisation suggests two images of culture. The first image entails the extension outwards of a particular culture to its limit, the globe. Heterogeneous cultures become incorporated and integrated into a dominant culture, which eventually covers the whole world. The second image points to the compression of cultures. Things formerly held apart are now brought into contact and juxtaposition. Jameson (1998) argues that as a cultural process, globalisation names the explosion of a plurality of mutually intersecting, individually syncretic, local differences; the emergence of new, hitherto suppressed identities; and the expansion of a worldwide media and technology culture with the promise of popular democratisation.

Waters (2001, p.6) suggests, "Globalisation is the direct consequence of the expansion of European culture across the planet via settlement, colonisation and cultural replication. It is also bound up intrinsically with the pattern of capitalist development as it has ramified through political and cultural arenas. However, it does not imply that every corner of the planet must become westernized and capitalist but rather that every set of social arrangements must establish its position in relation to the capitalist west - to use Robertson (2002)'s term, it must relativise itself." The above implies that there is a strong affinity between globalisation and western capitalism.

Tomlinson (1999) points out that culture is changing, people make culture and culture makes people in the form of cultural identity, while the transmission of cultural traits affects assimilation and acculturation, which indirectly influences the culture, religious and economic structure of the local community or society. Additionally, Scholte (2002) states that the influence of globalisation on cultural identity is one of the immense and multi-dimensional concerns of the day, because modernisation and globalisation brought

fundamental transition in the origins of identity construction, from the values of family, community, nation, and physical geography, to those of global media.

In cultural terms, Nash (2000) argues that globalisation implies an increased cultural interconnectedness across the globe, principally because of the mass media, and because of flows of people in migration, tourism and the global economic and political institutions leading to similar life patterns in different parts of the globe. Globalisation opens up the local culture to other ways of living and gives alternatives. Local cultures are exposed to ideas such as human rights, democracy, market economy, as well as new methods of production, new products for consumption and new leisure habits (Nash, 2000).

As Wood (2008, p. 30) observes, “proponents of social and cultural globalisation argue that globalisation has had profound impacts on social organisation and cultural life as well. From a globalists’ point of view, globalisation via the internet, mass media, ease of travel, supranational organizations (e.g. NGOs) and conventions, have facilitated the spread of liberal democratic values and human rights and nurtured the growth of global civil society”. Specifically, “Improvements in communications and the spread of information were critical to the collapse of the Iron Curtain. People learned what was happening in other countries and understood that they did not have to live the way they were living, and the Iron Curtain fell” (Fischer, 2003, p. 3-4). Globalisation has increased interactions one-on-one and via Information and Communication Technology (ICT), which, in turn, has increased opportunities for learning from diverse sources and with diverse content outside traditional education programmes (Stromquist & Monkman**,** 2000)**.**

Cultural globalisation also entails transformational changes in education in different countries. Some ongoing examples and common evidence of globalisation in education are web-based learning; use of the Internet in learning and research; international visit/immersion programmes; international exchange programmes; international partnerships in teaching and learning at the group, class, and individual levels;

interactions and sharing through video-conferencing across countries, communities, institutions, and individuals (Holmes et al, 2010).

The social dimension of globalisation refers to the impact of globalisation on the life and work of people, on their families, and their societies. Concerns and issues are often raised about the impact of globalisation on employment, working conditions, income and social protection. Beyond the world of work, the social dimension encompasses security, culture and identity, inclusion or exclusion and the cohesiveness of families and communities (ILO, 2003)

Arguably, cultural globalisation resulting from colonialism could be a major factor in the assumed similarities of the education systems between Zimbabwe and England, which partly helped to facilitate the migration of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to England in search of work opportunities.

Midgley (2001) summarises the arguments for social workers by contending that globalisation is creating chaos and destroying local cultures, fostering the emergence of a single, world culture based on Western values. Midgley (2001) further states that globalisation is generating a powerful cultural backlash and cultural forms, which incorporate the features of existing cultures and, at the same time, give rise to new cultural patterns. The above suggests to Midgley (2001) that social workers need to have substantial knowledge and an understanding and awareness of global culture and how it affects day-to-day practice.

Political globalisation

In her study of education in Uganda, Wood (2008) has observed, “Political globalisation reflects the changes in the political landscape resulting from the emergence of supranational governance via regional (e.g. European Union) and global (e.g. United Nations, World Bank) organisations that exercise economic and/or political power directly or indirectly. They do this by prioritising certain forms of development assistance and/or through international agreements and conventions (e.g. Education for All and Millennium Development Goal declarations, environmental treaties, Doha Development Round, human rights instruments, etc.) An array of financial mechanisms (including the existence

of global networks of companies) and interest groups whose legitimacy may not be universally acknowledged, but whose existence invites collective action or at least a framework for it, also exert influence beyond their geographical base" (Wood, 2008, pp 15-16.).

The above has changed the power dynamics both between and within so-called "developed" (largely northern hemisphere, industrial-based countries) and "developing" (largely southern hemisphere, agrarian-based) countries. Arguably, globalisation is often viewed as a process that has diminished the role of the 'nation-state" (Wood, 2008, p. 16).

Held et al (1999) see political globalisation in the context of the transformation of the state, of the concept of sovereignty and the emergence of powerful international non-governmental organisations with political, cultural and economic influences over individual nation states.

Mullard (2004) in his contribution to the globalisation debate sees globalisation as being associated with issues of power and influence and the ability of multi-national corporations to influence change at both national and international levels.

Technological globalisation

The technological dimension of globalisation refers primarily to the advances of (a) New Information and Communication Technologies (NICTs), which according to Kerby (2005) have fuelled the communication and information revolution of recent years; and (b) new production technologies, which have produced efficiencies in production and created the so-called "post-Fordist" era of manufacturing. The technological dynamic of globalisation includes everything from the internet and mobile phones, which have done much to create the "interconnectedness" of the world, to improved logistics systems, which have enabled industries worldwide to function more efficiently and profitably, to modern agronomic practices, which are restoring infertile lands and opening up new opportunities in agriculture (Kerby, 2005)

Borcuch et al (2012), state that the process of globalisation can be understood as the global reach of communications technology and capital movements. Globalisation has several distinct elements – trade, foreign direct investment, short term capital flows, knowledge, movements of labor. At the top of the list is localized - globalisation of knowledge, the free flow of ideas that has followed the lowering of communication costs and the closer integration of societies. Borcuch et al (2012), further contend that the transfer of that knowledge, which globalisation has facilitated, is likely to prove one of the strongest forces for growth in emerging markets in coming decades. This globalisation of knowledge not only entails technical knowledge, but also ideas, which transform societies, and knowledge that forms the basis not only of the adoption of policies, which serve to enhance growth, but also of institutions

Social work knowledge and practice have all been influenced by technological globalisation and continue to be affected in many ways such as use of the internet, access to electronic material about global issues and problems. Technology also plays a significant part in the transfer of social work knowledge and practice. Most overseas Zimbabwean social workers now have access to ICT technology of some sort, be it email, computer, or mobile phone, which enables them to see where job opportunities exist and how to access those opportunities. It is however, imperative to understand the link between globalisation and social work as this is a key aspect of this study.

2.8 Globalisation and social work

There is emerging discussion on globalisation and social work, and the key contributors in this debate include Lena Dominelli, James Stephen Webb, Karen Lyons and James Midgley among others. There is limited research and evidence on the nexus between globalisation and social work. The key arguments in the globalisation / social work debate are around the universalisation of education and practice as well as the effects of cross cultural values and practice among others. There is also a continuing debate on the issues around globalised and localised social work education and practice. Kaseke (2001) argues that social work education and training has also not been spared from the process of globalisation. The above view is also echoed by Jurčević & Živković (2011) who contend that social work must not avoid nor ignore the processes that globalisation

imposes and as a global profession, it has to embrace the globalisation, adopt it as positive change and work along with it.

Dominelli (1999) believes that globalisation has dramatically affected countries such as the United Kingdom, where the 'market discipline' accompanying globalisation is no longer confined to economic matters but extends to the activities of government, the social welfare system and even to human relationships. Dominelli (1999) further states that social work has also been affected by this development. Its caring commitments have been replaced by a 'crass commercialism' that imposes business ethics on the helping process, technocratises service delivery and weakens the profession's ability to serve those in need. In addition, social work has suffered from the de-professionalisation of the social services and has lost control over its own affairs.

"Globalisation is not only reducing the resources available for social work and reshaping organisations … but it is also creating new patterns of work and accountability and profoundly reshaping the fundamental values and philosophies upon which modern European social work has been built" (Trevillion, 1997, p.1). Khan and Dominelli (2000) construct the relationship between globalisation and social work as a unitary causal mechanism, even though also appealing to the idea that globalisation is a complex set of multiple processes rather than a single process or end state.

In the UK, according to Dominelli (2004a, 2004b) globalisation has affected social work practice in the following major ways.

- Disempowering social workers by restricting their access to resources that match their assessment of needs, particularly of those required by specific individuals.
- Increasing the techno-bureaucratic nature of practice through performance indicators and efficiency measures aimed at maximizing the use of limited resources for the greatest number of people.
- Shifting the practitioner–worker relationship away from relational social work to one that is more distant, because of the state's involvement in commissioning processes for services to be delivered by private and voluntary sector agencies.
- Altering the relationship between service users and the state by turning them into consumers of services in a quasi-market while simultaneously offering them greater

choice and control over their lives through the personalization agenda and individual budgets.

- Reducing the impact of solidarity in service provisions by moving away from universal services in favour of residual ones that target the neediest of the needy.
- Encouraging individual responsibility for meeting one's own needs while the state becomes preoccupied with competitiveness, opening the welfare market to international corporations keen to profit from their engagement in this field and supporting privatization.
- Increasing the impact of the international on local practice through the internationalization of social problems like poverty, the drug trade, trafficking in women and children, the arms trade and organized crime.
- Increasing the impact of migration in both the demands made by movements of people on services, and the movement of social workers who train in one country and go to work in another (Dominelli, 2004a, 2004b).

An analysis of the existing literature shows that there is limited research evidence to support or reject the premise of Dominelli's arguments above. A social work related definition of globalisation describes the concept as "a process of global integration in which diverse peoples, economies, cultures and political processes are increasingly subjected to international influences" (Midgley, 1997, p.xi). Additionally, Midgley suggests that globalisation indicates "the emergence of an inclusive worldwide culture, a global economy, and above all, a shared awareness of the world as a single place" (Midgley 1997, p. 21). The above clearly suggests the need for social workers to understand globalisation and how it affects the world around them, thereby forcing them to adjust or conform to the demands of globalisation.

Cnaan et al, (2008) believe that at a minimum, these new models of social work practice must reflect an understanding of the transnational nature of the social problems that bring clients, client groups, and other constituencies to the attention of human service workers. They add that these should be grounded on empirical evidence and must offer positive guidance concerning a range of social development solutions that can be applied to discrete social needs.

Ife (2000:1-15) states that given global forces now control social workers, it is necessary to understand this in a way that we can use that knowledge to contextualise our actions. Social workers are therefore required to live with the tension between local and global knowledge. To concentrate on one, at the expense of the other, Ife argues limits our practice. With globalisation, the need to achieve a synthesis of the expert knowledge of the social worker and the equally expert knowledge of the disadvantaged is critical, in order to link the global knowledge market, now so dominated by the internet, with the personal and community level knowledge of those who are marginalised and excluded from the global economy.

Ife (2000:1-15) further states that if both local and global are important arenas for practice, social workers need to develop both local and global skills. Global skills and the skills required to link the local and the global are however, a new arena for social workers. The most obvious of these skills, according to Ife, is the use of information and communication technologies, which provide the opportunity to link disadvantaged and marginalised individuals, families, groups and communities with their counterparts around the world.

Mupedziswa (1997) contends that social workers are currently practising in an extremely complex world. They need to understand the forces of globalisation – economic, ecological and social – to connect with their international colleagues, and to represent themselves in an informed fashion in international circles. This applies whether or not they are delivering direct services to immigrants or refugees.

It is imperative in the context of this conceptual framework to consider how relevant to the UK is the system of social work education and practice received by overseas Zimbabwean social workers, and how globalisation might have influenced their decision to migrate abroad in search of social work opportunities. The main criticism by Mupedziswa (1997) and Kaseke (2001) is that social work education and training in Zimbabwe does not reflect global influences in terms of preparing social workers for the future global employment market. The general argument is that the social work curricula in developing countries, including Zimbabwe, do not necessarily fit with the phenomenon of a global market for social work.

Tan and Rowlands (2004) argue that in a globalised world, social work has to be prepared to be flexible at dealing with the options to enhance social well-being. Social work is concerned with the impact of globalisation on the welfare of the citizen and of the world community. In the spirit of social justice, the call by social workers and others has been for a fair globalisation. Tan and Rowlands further state that this process is one of inclusion, continued dialogue and consensual action.

According to Healy (2001) and Hokenstad & Midgley (1997), there is also an argument that there is interest in the renewal of the global dimensions of social work practice recently, with discussions regarding both the positive benefits of cross-national collaboration between social workers as well as the often-negative effect globalisation processes can have on people's health and welfare.

Estes (1992) argues that the concept of globalisation and the new wave of technological innovations, coupled with the global interdependence between and among individuals, groups, and nations, are having a tremendous effect on social work education and practice throughout the world. With escalating global social problems, social work professionals are continuously engaged in finding solutions to both local and global problems. More importantly, Estes (1992) further contends that Social workers require new levels of understanding and new models of practice if they are to contribute effectively toward the resolution of social problems that have roots in global socio-political and economic realities. At a basic level, these new models of practice must reflect an understanding of the transnational nature of the social problems that bring clients, client groups, and other constituencies to the attention of social workers in particular.

The above arguments clearly demonstrate the increasing impact of globalisation on social work training and practice across the globe, and hence the need for social workers and policy makers to adapt and prepare for more influences of globalisation on the profession in the future.

According to Ferguson et al (2004), social work, like other social professions, has been profoundly affected by neo-liberal ideas and policies. In the Global South, the context has usually been one of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) which have been

imposed by the IM F, which have required governments to privatise the public sector. By contrast, in the West, 'neo-liberal social work' has mainly been the product of the twin processes of marketisation and managerialism, which are underpinned by theories of New Public Management.

In her contribution to the debate, Dominelli (2005) argues that British social work education has been shaped by the forces of globalisation-devolution, and user empowerment. This has created a constantly changing curriculum, which has been dominated by employer concerns with routine practice. These developments have subjected social work to the demands of international competition and commercial providers, with the state losing provider status. Educators have been unable to exercise much influence in these shifting sands. Dominelli (2005) further contends that, it is ironic the international dimensions of social work and the need for a truly professionalised, highly paid and well-trained workforce able to deliver empowering practice have been marginalised. The place of social work education in the academy remains suspect and social work's position as a research-led subject remains weak.

According to the IASSW and IFSW (2009), globalisation has affected the social work profession in various ways, including the following: social work needs to be professionally competent working across cultures and to identify what ethical practice means in a global context, professional knowledge about effectiveness has to be understood in a culturally reflexive manner, there has been an enrichment of knowledge about diversity and culture in many areas, but those who come to practise their professional skills in a new country may need support, as do those who stay to working in challenging political and economic circumstances. Alongside these recommendations there is reported to be increased international movement of citizens, including social workers and service users (Garrett, 2006).

Movement of workers brings movement of ideas, and it challenges 'thinking local', but workers moving between cultures and languages may need support to make the transition to their new work environment. Global changes have an impact locally, and as suggested above, professionals need to be able to respond to a wider range of needs and social

circumstances than previously. This raises ethical questions about the practice of international recruitment for 'sending' countries (Welbourne et al, 2007), while the increasing diversity of the workforce in the receiving countries is much to be welcomed. Globalisation it is assumed has created a need for social workers to have cultural competence as a component of their professional competence, and their training needs to reflect this aspect of demand for a professional service.

Dominelli (2005) believes that globalisation has internationalised social problems, which have spread into several countries, and giving nation-states more problems in common. Internationalisation has changed the local and made it global. For Instance, migration has meant that many families can now be described as transnational, i.e., family members live in many different countries and link up with each other through extensive networks which are often invisible to the practitioner who operates on the basis of dealing with the people whom they can directly access in a particular geographical site. Dominelli (2005) further argues that social work education needs to effectively address this complex and complicating dimension of globalisation in practice and the new degree (in the UK) does not require social workers to either understand or become familiar with the international elements of their work.

The above changes show how much social work has to adapt to suit the demands of globalisation not only in the United Kingdom but also in developing countries including Zimbabwe, where curriculum development should not be solely restricted to the local circumstances or conditions.

Nonetheless, there are also those in the social work profession who are skeptical of the concept of globalisation and its impact on social work in general. Webb (2002) is doubtful about the theories of globalisation, as he believes that we are stuck in a world of globalised imagery that is particularly pertinent to a social work profession that is desperately seeking to legitimate itself, whilst simultaneously trying to fight off potential foes that wish to usurp its professional identity and power. Webb (2002) further asserts that social work's position in relation to globalisation comes to resemble a passive-

aggressive one. It has no clearly identified or legitimate mandate in relation to globalisation, ethical or otherwise.

Gray (2005) in her contribution to the debate suggests that there is a risk that promoting global standards for social work education may lead to Western models of practice being seen as universal ideals to be reached. Gray (2005) notes that it may be possible to consider an international model of practice or education as a touchstone for comparisons, without trying to gain international agreement on definitions or standards. There is evidence that alternative forms of social work are available for adoption or adaptation. This questions the internationalist view, because it says that there are different forms of social work with different cultural roots, rather than variations on a common social work model. Major factors that shape the debate about the globalisation of social work are westernisation, localisation and indigenisation (Gray & Fook, 2004). They above authors write, “While noting a shared discourse in social work arising from its historical development and ongoing international exchanges, we draw attention to the wide disparities in values and practices in diverse multicultural contexts” (Gray & Fook, 2004 p. 640).

Globalisation has arguably affected the social work profession in various ways. It is imperative however for social workers to be flexible and work across cultures in order to identify what ethical practice entails in an increasingly globalising world. Social work knowledge and its effectiveness need to be understood in an internationally acceptable fashion. In compliance with the demands and influences of globalisation, social work needs to adapt and respond to the ever-increasing concerns and issues of a global and international nature.

2.9 Globalisation, social work knowledge and skills transfer

There is very little literature in the public domain about the globalisation and social work knowledge and skills. For many social workers, globalisation is not a clearly understood phenomenon and in many respects, its impact can be subtle enough to be indistinguishable from the impact of other forces at work in society.

The proponents of globalisation contend that social workers need an increasing understanding of international social work knowledge and skills as part of their profession in a rapidly globalising social work global era. However, the debate should be whether the transfer of social work knowledge from one country to another is beneficial to contemporary social work practice. Arguably, globalisation can be either a facilitator or hindrance to the processes of knowledge and skills transfer. This study uses globalisation as a framework to explore influences on overseas Zimbabwean social workers in their attempts to transfer their social work knowledge and skills to England, and how effective or successful this process has been.

Globalisation is perceived as a way of describing social change that is sweeping the world and affecting the issues and particularly the inequalities that social workers deal with within their own borders according to Lyons (2006) and other scholars. Knowledge, values and skills about social work may, as per some of the above cited authors, be viewed as universally valid for use in practice across all cultures and nationalities. Social workers, policy makers and educators nevertheless need to set out explicitly to translate their knowledge and skills between different cultures and nationalities in response to the inevitable influences of globalisation.

The scholarly arguments above appear to suggest that globalisation has had significant influences on educational policies, curricula and practices in many countries throughout the globe albeit with different experiences in different countries. The driving forces behind these changes in social work education and practice for instance, have been economic, political, social, technological, and cultural globalisation forces, which are unstoppable.

2.10 The influence of globalisation on social work migration.

There is little debate or evidence from literature on globalisation and its impact on social work migration. However, this is an area of research interest amongst global academics. There is a great deal of research on globalisation and the wider international migration of skilled labour, especially from developing to developed countries. Skeldon (1990), states that the migration of skilled labour reflects, in a more focused way, the global patterns of migration. The debate on the globalisation of social work migration is also to be located

in the wider area of international skilled labour migration. Overseas Zimbabwean social workers especially, can expect to have been affected by the same global pressures affecting other skilled migrants from elsewhere in the developing world.

Miles (1982) contends that migration stems from labour shortages in developed capitalist economies, unable to resolve that shortage by creating a new reserve army of labour from among the sections of the population within the national boundary and not currently involved in wage labour. A solution is to encourage migration from abroad, usually from developing countries, which are not able to provide full employment for their populations. Immigration is encouraged by the state, which sets specific conditions of employment.

According to the OECD (2002), like other categories of migrants, skilled people mostly move in response to economic opportunities abroad that are better than those available at home as well as in response to the migration policies in destination countries. Other factors, however, also play a role in the decision of the highly skilled to migrate and in their choice of destination; and they include intellectual pursuits, be they education, research or language training. In the case of researchers and academics, the conditions in the host country regarding support for research, and the demand for Research & Development staff and academics can be important determinants in the migration decision and destination. Among the entrepreneurially minded, according to the OECD, the climate for innovation generally, and that for business start-ups and self-employment may play an important role in the decision of the highly skilled to move abroad.

Globalisation has introduced a third set of motivations, called "network" factors which include the free flow of information, improved global communication and faster and lower costs of transport. While network factors are not a direct cause of migration, they do facilitate it (Zenelaga et al, 2005)

2.11 Summary

Globalisation is a multi-faceted phenomenon influencing every society at every level of existence. As a phenomenon, globalisation has had an important impact in reducing the relevance of borders by making movement from one country to another cheaper and

easier than before. It is also common knowledge that the forces of globalisation are changing the context for social work debates, knowledge and practice across national borders. Discussion of the four dimensions of globalisation indicates the existence of a link between globalisation and them, and with the phenomenon of knowledge and skills transfer. From specific to more general influences, social workers continually need to update their knowledge and skills to understand global issues and to intervene effectively. Globalisation affects social work knowledge, skills and practice at all levels, as well as ongoing professional development, research and writing, and sharing and exchange of knowledge at different fora.

This study uses globalisation as a conceptual framework in understanding the transfer of social work knowledge, values and skills acquired by social workers, from Zimbabwe to England in particular. An analysis of the existing literature suggests that globalisation plays a facilitatory role in the transfer of knowledge, values and skills through its various dimensions such as economic, political, cultural and technological globalisation. It is to be expected from the above that these four main dimensions of globalisation have affected overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in a variety of social and professional ways. Ultimately, globalisation could well also have influenced overseas Zimbabwean social workers in terms of their understanding of complex global issues and how these influence their day-to-day practice, their motivations to move abroad, the way they practise social work, how they perceive their identity as transnationals, and above all in their efforts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. The next chapter will explore more fully and specifically the existing literature on international social work migration, knowledge, skills, and the transfer of social work knowledge and skills by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

Chapter Three
Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the available literature on the recruitment and experiences of overseas social workers in England in general and those from Zimbabwe in particular. This review is organised into several themes. These are the general context of migration; social work developments in England; social work reforms in England, motivations to move abroad; social work migration from Zimbabwe; social work development in Zimbabwe; the relevance of social work training and practice in Zimbabwe to England; integration into English society; induction and training; policy guidelines on foreign recruitment; the social care code of practice for international recruitment; the effects and benefits of migration; brain drain; ethical issues; the concept of knowledge; and knowledge and skills transfer (see Appendix 8). The review focuses on evidence about overseas recruitment of social workers, and more specifically the transfer of knowledge and skills from abroad to England by overseas Zimbabwean social workers as a distinct ethnic professional group. Overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England are part of a larger group of international social work professionals who have been recruited into the English children's social care system from different parts of the globe.

As stated in the introductory chapter, information and evidence on the recruitment of overseas social workers in England in general is relatively new, limited but gradually developing. The literature review reveals the scarcity of research and information in the public domain about recruitment in England of social workers from abroad, apart from a few largely general studies and limited data. It is clear from existing research that the phenomenon of social work knowledge and skills transfer across international borders has not been comprehensively explored. Where evidence in the literature has been identified this often covers social care workers and other related professional groups, not just social workers.

A few studies were carried out in response to government policy of approaches to help mitigate staff shortages in the children's social care sector, and little is known generally about how employing internationally educated professionals affects service delivery in social work (Welbourne, Harrison & Ford, 2007). Only a small number of studies have begun to identify some of the challenges and benefits of employing internationally educated social workers (Evans et al 2007; Hussein et al 2010; Manthorpe et al 2010) among others. (See Appendix 9 for key Authors and Research Studies)

Social Work Task Force (2009), states that staffing shortages mean that social work is struggling to hold its own as a durable, attractive public sector profession, compromising its ability to deliver consistent quality on the frontline. There is no robust, standing system for collecting information on local and national levels of vacancies, turnover and sickness, and for forecasting future supply and demand. Local authorities are finding it hard to identify effective methods for managing the workloads of frontline staff. Staff shortages and financial pressures have made these challenges harder still.

More specifically, the process of recruiting overseas Zimbabwean social workers and the extent to which they have transferred knowledge and skills in England is similarly not well documented in the existing literature. This review acknowledges the existence of some, though not very comprehensive research, with published results available, on the link between globalisation and social work migration and knowledge and skills transfer. Notably, there is a thesis done by (Tinarwo, 2011) reporting work done from 2008 on social capital among overseas Zimbabwean social workers in a "Large Council" (identical with one of the two locations drawn on later for the present study). The present study goes beyond this and identifies information gaps, provides profiles and synthesises information regarding the wider and specific experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. Nevertheless, the scarcity of relevant literature on the topic of overseas recruitment of social workers and transfer of skills to the UK, especially from a developing country such as Zimbabwe, makes this study an exploratory one. In addition, it is important to acknowledge the contribution made by three Zimbabwean social workers (Tobaiwa et al, 2006) who highlighted their experiences as overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in terms of the challenges they faced when they were recruited to

work as overseas social workers. The talk about their positive experiences, expectations and misconceptions about their role as overseas social workers as part of their experiences in England.

Most of the studies undertaken regarding overseas recruitment have focused on larger and general groups that include overseas social care workers, not overseas social workers as an identified sub-group. In addition, some of the available literature reviewed notes no specific distinction between overseas trained and overseas born but locally trained Zimbabwean social workers, making it difficult to disaggregate data that are specifically linked to overseas-trained social workers in England. This review also notes the lack of a full critical discussion of key issues such as globalisation and its influence on social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer, as part of the experiences of overseas social workers. Where these have been mentioned in the literature, there are gaps and weaknesses in the way the issues and data are presented. The lack of research data on the above does not necessarily suggest that there is no knowledge and skills transfer to England from Zimbabwean social workers, hence the need for conducting this research. There is wide agreement by scholars such as Evans (2004 and 2007), White (2006), Lyons (2006), Hussein et al (2008 and 2010) and Lyons and Hanna (2011) among others that research in the broader area of overseas social worker migration, globalisation and social work knowledge and skills transfer is patchy and under-developed and justifies further research.

3.2 Literature review search strategies

In developing this review, a number of search strategies were employed. The process of conducting the literature review involved the following elements: knowing what information was needed, planning where and how to get relevant data, putting the data into categories, as well as constructing a list of experts and identifying the key issues and research in the area of study. The researcher arranged oral interviews with some social care research experts who offered their advice on how and where to collect specific and general literature on this subject. The researcher accessed a few dissertations and unpublished papers on the subject area, to supplement the published sources. He was also able to develop a working bibliography, using library resources, both printed and

electronic, and followed references in order to locate sources. Once the researcher located the relevant sources, the next step was to summarise them into a coherent literature review through a critical analysis of information and put this into a suitable context. This process was also partly informed by Creswell (2002) who offers a five-step process which includes "identifying terms to typically use in your literature search; locating literature; reading and checking the relevance of the literature; organising the literature you have selected; and writing a literature review" (p.86).

The search strategies included internet searches for academic and professional publications, such as case studies, newspaper articles and records of professional experience and opinion on overseas recruitment, though material in some cases was not evidence-based enough to produce any meaningful information. This was followed by a review of web-based sources, journals, books and other existing data, drawing on evidence-based studies.

During this search process, the researcher did not focus on particular years of publications and geographical areas but covered a number of years and continents due to the limitations of research data in the chosen area of study. The initial searches focused on more general topics such as International social work recruitment: Social work mobility: knowledge and skills transfer: Globalisation and social work: Social work migration: Transnationalism and Social networks among others, with a view to narrow down the search to specific areas of focus in the next stage.

The search strategy used also drew upon a range of both national and international databases, including some of the most commonly used, such as Embasse, Medline, International Bibliography of the Social Science (IBBS) and Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) as well as other electronic data sources. The search strategy involved multiple searches of each of the named data sources. Further, the internet was searched for professional organisation and government websites as potential sources for unpublished research studies, discussion papers, media releases and action reports relating to social worker shortages, migration and experiences in destination countries. The literature search was predominantly carried out in the first two years of the study but continued right up to the end of the research project in 2014.

The search terms used in the review included the following: Overseas AND social work recruitment; International AND Social work recruitment; social work migration, social work and globalisation, globalisation and social work; Zimbabwean Social workers AND overseas recruitment; Overseas social workers AND Skills transfer; and Social work AND Knowledge Transfer; and Social work AND Skills transfer. The outcome of the above searches was the generation of general data on overseas recruitment of social workers, social work mobility across international frontiers, Zimbabwean social workers abroad, overseas Zimbabwean social workers, international social care recruitment, social work knowledge and skills transfer and social work and recruitment, which were then analysed and reduced to specific details relevant to the research. Seven major sources were: two from Kings College London, one from the University of Swansea, two from Australia and the thesis on overseas Zimbabwean social workers and Social Capital in a big city by Tinarwo (2011). Both single and mixed methods were reported in the above seven sources, which focus mainly on the general experiences of social workers and social care workers.

3.3 General context of social work migration

Social work migration is part of the wider international migration phenomenon and literature will therefore be analysed in this context. While migration is as old as humanity itself, theories about migration are new (Massey et al, 1994). Migration is the result of the interplay of various forces at both ends of the migratory axis. These factors are political, social, economic, legal, historical, cultural, or educational (Mejia et al, 1979). It is generally accepted that push factors are found in the sending countries and pull factors are found in the destination countries. Further, according to Yaro (2008), both forces must be operating for migration to occur and additionally, facilitating factors must be present as well, such as the absence of legal or other constraints that impede migration, factors usually controlled by governments.

Overseas Zimbabwean social workers are not immune from the same factors experienced by other immigrants from various parts of the developing world. One such factor is the increasing globalisation of the profession, leading to the international transfer of knowledge and skills from one part of the globe to the other. The field of social care in

general and social work in particular, is not immune from this process: hence, social work migration cannot be treated in isolation. Social work has not only become part of the global migration phenomenon but a feature of globalisation as well.

Bartley et al (2012) contend that social work itself is a global profession and is practised in over 140 countries. Its spread and development have been accompanied by a drive to attain professional status and a coherent international identity through the work of a number of international organisations concerned with social work practice and education, such as the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) and the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW). Social work has globalising characteristics, and social workers are ranked among the highly skilled and most sought after border-crossing professionals who seek greater professional and economic opportunities abroad, (Bartley et al, 2012).

Globalisation in social work is an inevitable effect of the increasing weaknesses of international boundaries as people, ideas and capital move more freely around the globe (Hugman, 2010). Social workers from Zimbabwe, as knowledge carriers, global careerists can therefore be seen as part of the global trend of the profession in crossing international borders, hence the interest here in knowledge and skills transfer.

Lindsay and Findlay (2001) contend that emigration of highly skilled persons from developing to developed countries has increased over the past decade. On the one hand, there has been accelerating demand for skilled workers in developed economies experiencing labour shortages. On the other hand, better wages and employment conditions, better information, recruitment, and cheaper transportation are encouraging skilled migrants to seek jobs in developed economies. Lindsay and Findlay (2001) further state that globalisation is linking together labour markets creating labour flows spanning global cities that are rooted in hierarchies of labour demand

Chikanda (2004) argues that the migration of skilled labour can best be described in the context of push and pull factors in the sending countries and the increasing demand for labour in the destination countries. Poor working conditions and low remuneration are cited as the main push factors. There is a consensus in the discourse on economic

development that the migration of skilled workers constitutes a drain on the sending country's human, resources because it has invested in the development of human capital that will be subsequently utilised by the recipient country. Although such migration is largely beneficial to the individuals concerned, it has negative socio-economic impacts on the sending country (Chikanda, 2004).

It is thus commonly perceived that economic migration from developing countries causes a so-called brain drain. This phenomenon, which is prevalent in other developing countries, has become topical in Zimbabwe, where deteriorating economic, social and political conditions are aggravating the emigration tide. The trend for instance in the health field continues alongside the continuing domestic political, social and economic crisis (Chikanda, 2004)

The available literature presented by Chikanda (2004), Bloch (2008), Tevera (2002), Hall (2006), Chetsanga and Muchenje (2003) suggest that the reasons by Zimbabwean professionals (including social workers) to emigrate from their country of birth to other countries are not only limited to economic factors alone, they also include a growing dissatisfaction with political and social conditions in the country. The deteriorating political situation in the country dominated by the Zanu (PF) government has created an excuse for Zimbabwean professionals to escape the hardships experienced in the country in search of better living and working conditions in countries such as the United Kingdom.

Tevera (2005:1) addresses the issue of the migration of Zimbabwean professionals and maintains the level of dissatisfaction of Zimbabwean professionals with economic conditions is the highest in the region. He says they are particularly worried about salaries, the cost of living, taxation and the availability of goods.

Regarding the political aspect, human rights abuses in some African countries, Zimbabwe included, have been argued to 'push' professionals to leave their home countries (Kyambalesa, 2009).

The Department of Social Welfare, the main employer of social workers in Zimbabwe, is arguably the worst affected by the phenomenon of social work emigration to the UK,

according to Batty (2003) quoted in the UK Guardian of 19 February 2003. Batty further states that about 1,500 social workers have come to the UK from Zimbabwe as a result of the country's economic slump and poor working conditions, according to professional bodies. Batty (2003) quoted Christopher Chitereka, then president of Zimbabwe's National Association of Social Workers (NASW), who said: "Nearly half of the total workforce - 1,500 out of 3,000 - now work in the UK."

However, the figure of 1,500 has not been confirmed by the Council of Social Workers of Zimbabwe and the GSCC on their part reported in 2011 country statistics (through a Freedom of Information Request) there to have been just under 300 registered social workers in England, where arguably the majority of overseas Zimbabwean social workers are based.

Dziro (2013) argues that the extreme economic problems in Zimbabwe have led hundreds of social workers, including lecturers, to move to the UK, Canada and Australia. Some have moved to neighbouring countries like South Africa, Botswana and Namibia, where conditions of service are relatively better. Dziro (2013) further states that the School of Social Work lost two of its Professors to South Africa and Botswana and five others to the UK and Lesotho. This led to the University of Zimbabwe to remove the training of the Master's degree in social work, indicating that there were no longer enough qualified personnel to teach the programme, thereby affecting the development of social work education and training in the country.

To further understand what motivated overseas Zimbabwean social workers, a wave of skilled migrants, to migrate to England, migration theories will be analysed in part in this section, focusing on the literature on the main types of migration and what motivates people to migrate.

Economic Migration: according to Gupta and Omoniyi, (2007), they see *economic* migration as the single most significant factor behind the movement of skilled labour between countries. Migration is defined as the cross-border movement of people from a homeland to a location outside that homeland, with the purpose of taking up employment and conducting day-to-day existence there for an extended period. In principle, such

movement needs to be more than an expression of an individual desire for a change or choice of locale. Gupta and Omoniyi, eds. (2007) further state that, as a social phenomenon, this usually arises from and reflects economic inequality or economic opportunity between politically discrete zones: hence the term ‘economic migration’.

The role of economics in motivating migrants is significant (Becker, 1992). According to Becker, there are many seemingly non-economic human behaviours that are intrinsically economic, migrants are rational actors whose motivations are utilitarian and economically based. Borjas (1990)’s global migration market theory dovetails with this. It states that migrants’ decisions are made based on a cost/benefit analysis. This theory is an extension of Sjaastad (1962)’s human capital theory, which was the first attempt at describing migration in a cost/benefit analysis format, where the most influential motivation is the expected wage in the destination country. Global migration market theory says that migrants will weigh the costs of moving against the commensurate level of wages and chances of finding employment in the destination country (Borjas, 1990).

In this theoretical model, if the latter is more than the former then migration will occur and economic globalisation plays a part in fuelling migration. Becker (2011) argues that all of the economic benefits associated with globalisation are particularly supportive of the circular migrant lifestyle, due to the ability of the migrant to easily make a transition, in the physical sense, between the two worlds of the country of origin and the destination country.

The actual motives of migrants in moving from one place to the other can be complex and difficult to unravel, from the time they decide to leave their home country to the time they actually cross the borders and decide to stay in the destination country, as will be discussed below.

3.4 Motives for migrating abroad

The reasons for social workers migrating abroad are often characterised as motivations or responding to ‘push and pull’ factors. Lowell and Findlay (2001, p. 3) contend that not only has the demand for skilled labour in developed countries increased, but other pull

factors such as “better wages and employment conditions, recruitment and cheaper transportation,” encourage skilled migrants to seek jobs and opportunities in developed countries. Nurse (2004, p. 108) claims, as ‘push factors’, “economic decline, widening inequality, increasing poverty, social displacement, crime and political crisis have been the main drivers of emigration in the Americas)”

Social workers relocate from one country to another for a range of professional reasons, some of which have been found to concern professional advancement and financial security (Firth, 2004 cited in Hanna and Lyons 2011). Hanna and Lyons (2011) also state that the choice of a country of destination is largely influenced by knowledge of career and job availability, language compatibility, and previous experience and knowledge of the destination country.

The above pull factors affect social workers who are from developing countries such as Zimbabwe, South Africa and India. According to Quinn and Rubb (2005), another factor, which serves as a supply-push factor for emigration, is the mismatch between an individual’s skill set and a suitable occupation. They further state that migration occurs when the individual cannot find the appropriate job to match their skill.

Drawing upon “push” and “pull” factors that influence decisions about migration, Castles, (2000) has outlined some of the factors that might encourage workers to become international recruits. “Pull” factors might include the: practice of active recruitment of workers from overseas (to temporarily solve a labour shortage), the fact that pay and employment conditions may look attractive, English tends to be the first or a major language for the people appointed, many have family connections with the country or are following other compatriots already established there. Castles (2000) further states that “push” factors might include the: lack of opportunities for paid employment or a particular range of experience, unattractive (or even threatened) living and working conditions in the country of origin.

As Lee (1966), noted, the decision to migrate is not entirely rational, as it is partially based on emotions and the potential migrant’s imaginings about life in another country, which

cannot be entirely known prior to migration. Lee also considered the personality of potential migrants as a factor in the migration decision. The above factors could apply to overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, as the factors noted resonate with their circumstances, which clearly show the relationship of their migration patterns and motives to wider skilled international migration trajectories.

Other approaches to migration emphasise structural factors, such as the host country's attitude to immigration, previous colonial relationships between countries, and social networks between people in host and receiving countries (Faist, 2000; Massey et al., 2006). Economic disparities between sending and receiving societies are common to most migration models and studies frequently consider push and pull factors in explaining migrants' reasons for relocating (Madden & Young, 1993; Moran et al., 2005; Segal et al., 2006; Stimson & Minnery, 1998). The push-pull migration model, with qualifications, provides a useful framework with which to examine other analyses of motivations to migrate, such as the typologies developed by Tartakovsky and Schwartz (2001) and Taylor (1969). There are multifarious reasons why some migrants choose England as their destination, and these include social workers from across the range of English-speaking countries, such as those from Australia, North America and Africa, including those from Zimbabwe. The next section focuses on debates around overseas social work recruitment in England.

3.5 Overseas social worker recruitment in England

This literature review found that there has always been some movement of social workers between different countries, but the scale of international migration to the UK in general increased substantially in the relatively recent past, with one early report suggesting a quadrupling in the number of international social workers from 227 in 1990–1 to 1,175 in 2001–2 (Batty, 2003). This expansion occurred at a time when there were shortages of UK-trained social workers, accentuated by steep declines in the number of entrants into social work education (Moriarty and Murray, 2007; Perry and Cree, 2003). Overseas Zimbabwean social workers were part of the movement noted above. The above literature suggests that the recruitment of overseas social workers to the UK rose in the late 1990s

to the early 21st Century with large numbers of social workers initially coming from countries such as South Africa, the USA, Australia, India, Canada, and New Zealand.

As previously mentioned in Hanna and Lyons (2011), the recruitment of international social workers to the UK has tended to be predominantly from English speaking countries, however, there are indications of a recent increase in the trend towards the recruitment of social workers from other EU countries compared to the traditional pattern of recruitment of social workers from countries in the Commonwealth or the USA.

There is evidence of a sizeable number of overseas Zimbabwean social workers working and living in England. According to the GSCC (2010) country statistics, the number of registered social workers in England trained in and recruited from Zimbabwe stood at 279 as of July 2010. Compared to the number of social workers recruited from other big country countries such as Australia, South Africa and the US, the number of social workers recruited from Zimbabwe is just a small fraction but nevertheless significant as a proportion of social workers in Zimbabwe. No evidence exists of any recent increase in the number of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in any significant way according to the literature review. However, analysis of the literature suggests no evidence of any subsequent or recent major recruitment drive for overseas social workers from Zimbabwe. It would appear the decision in 2010 by the UK Coalition Government to impose an immigration cap on the recruitment of professionals from outside the European Economic Area might have resulted in a halt or slowdown in recruitment from Zimbabwe and other countries outside the EU. This controversial cap presumably affected many local authorities who would be employers of overseas Zimbabwean social workers among others. This policy was controversial in the sense that it applied only to those workers seeking long-term employment. However, it did not apply to people who come from other European Union countries to seek employment in Britain. It was speculated at the time that this policy change would lead to an increase in unfilled vacancies in key occupations (e.g. social workers) and in the longer term the average levels of qualifications and/or experience in regions that have had a higher reliance on migrant workers (e.g. London) might fall. Skills for Care & Development (2011) expressed particular concern about the

impact of restrictions upon recruitment of social workers from outside the EEA in terms of child protection and family support. (Skills for Care and Development, 2011)

Table 1: Top 10 countries providing social workers from abroad

The GSCC Social Care Register in July 2010 showing the top ten countries of applicants in England

Top 10 countries providing social workers in England	**No of Social Workers**
South Africa	940
India	922
Australia	879
United States	875
Canada	307
New Zealand	282
ZIMBABWE	**279**
Ghana	123
Nigeria	95
Philippines	70

Source: GSCC Country Statistics 2010 (976)

The above statistics demonstrate the geographical representation of overseas social workers in England in 2010 and rankings by country of origin. However, when European Economic Area registrants were included in 2011 statistics, information obtained under the Freedom of Information Act, those from Zimbabwe ranked eighth (322), with fewer than from Germany (452) and Romania (431), though still with approximately the same as from Canada (340)

Table 2: GSCC: The IQ (Internationally Qualified) Qualifications by Country of Training

GSCC: Top countries supplying social workers to England	Number of Social Workers
1. South Africa	1130
2. India	1089
3. Australia	937
4. USA	891
5. Germany	452
6. Romania	431
7. Canada	340
8. **ZIMBABWE**	322
9. New Zealand	305
10. Poland	218
11. Ghana	172
12. Spain	136
13. Nigeria	120

Source: Charles Bell: Freedom of Information Act Request 2011
https://www.whatdotheyknow.com/request/international_gscc_registered_so#outgoing-154440

According to an August 2011 Freedom of Information Act Request by Charles Bell, there were 6,682 internationally qualified social workers on the GSCC register. The IQ (Internationally Qualified) Qualifications by Country of Training file provides details by country. This information was accurate as at 24 August 2011.

The Council of Social Workers of Zimbabwe (2013) reported that the number of registered social workers in Zimbabwe was currently 487, out of a possible 3000 qualified social workers, most of whom were in the country and practising without formal registration (allafrica.com/stories/201303260278.html). The reasons for some social workers not registering could be related to the cost of registration, lack of awareness of the powers and authority of the Social Workers Council and lack of enforcement powers on the part of the Council.

The literature reveals that the majority of overseas social workers in England were recruited from English speaking countries, such as Australia and South Africa, the USA, Canada, Zimbabwe, Nigeria, and secondly from other EU members such as Germany and the Czech Republic. From published (though not the latest) sources, more than half of the entire overseas social work workforce in the UK had qualified in and therefore were assumed to come from four English-speaking countries, namely South Africa, Australia, India and the USA (Hussein et al, 2010).

According to Hussein et al (2010), as of July 2010, the total number of social workers registered to practice in England by the GSCC was 84,297 of which 6705 (8%) gained their social work qualification outside of the UK. Out of these 23% were trained within the European Economic Area (EEA) and 77% outside the EEA. For registrants who qualified outside the UK, qualifications were acquired from 78 countries, 25 countries within the EEA and 53 outside.

The data on social worker migration into the UK can best be understood in the context of the role of the General Social Care Council (GSCC) and its information and statistics. The GSCC was the official body in England that until August 2012 regulated overseas registration and practice of internationally trained social workers into England. The GSCC collated data on registered overseas social workers on a regular basis and issued periodic guidance on the recruitment of overseas social workers. The Heath Care Professions Council (HCPC), which has now replaced the GSCC, continues to register and regulate foreign-trained social workers in England. It has produced no data in this area by the time of this research, and indeed the most recent publicly available specific statistics were those obtained in 2011 through a private Freedom of Information Act request by a social work international recruiter, Charles Bell.

The trend of international recruitment of social workers in England has probably continued in the last few years, though with changes in sending countries. In as much as the recruitment of international social workers is significant for local authorities experiencing acute shortages of childcare social workers, overseas recruitment nevertheless remains

controversial in many ways and debates continue around the issue, as will be discussed later.

3.6 Key debates regarding overseas social worker recruitment in England

In the United Kingdom, some of the issues involved in international recruitment are being identified and debated (Eborall, 2003; Evans et al (2006); Welbourne et al (2007) and White, (2006). These include a recognition of the stresses and adjustments new recruits experience in working in unfamiliar policy, legislative and cultural contexts (Evans et al (2006); Welbourne et al, (2007) and the additional pressure that this places on agencies to provide induction (Eborall, 2003).

Welbourne et al (2007) suggest that the recruiting agencies and employers need to recognise that social work practices may not necessarily easily translate across national borders, and that contextual and cultural aspects of practice may be different. It is argued that organizational arrangements including political and policy influences all impact practice in areas such as child protection (McDonald et al, 2003). However, issues relative to challenges of recruitment, transferability of knowledge and skills, qualification equivalence and the impact of overseas social workers on the children's social care sector, among others, are also significant.

The recruitment of social workers from overseas is increasingly a global phenomenon, but there are currently no international equivalence requirements for social workers according to the International Federation of Social Workers & International Association of Schools of Social Work (2004). This means that each country determines their own standards and requirements in relation to social work qualifications. Zubrzycki et al (2008) argue that while every social worker should take individual responsibility in relation to the above matters, it is important that recruiting agencies become aware of how equivalence issues can undermine a worker's professional identity, status and their opportunity for career progression.

According to Zubrzycki et al (2008) not much work has been undertaken on the issues involved in the recruitment of overseas-qualified child protection workers, particularly in relation to the transferability of knowledge, skills and values across international borders.

Instead, recruitment objectives have often been underpinned by the assumption that practitioners who opt to work abroad will have the capacity to adjust positively and quickly to new statutory contexts and practices.

The recruitment of overseas social workers has its own identified challenges. Among these, social workers may encounter difficulties in adapting to a new culture of social work practice (Welbourne et al, 2007, Devo, 2006). A further issue of debate in the UK in relation to international recruitment is the level of support, training and time needed for overseas workers to adjust to a new practice (Zubrzycki, et al, (2008). Welbourne et al (2007: 33) identifies the provision of adequate support to overseas-trained social workers as an ethical issue, because it is linked to the development of safe working practices for both workers and service users.

According to Lyons (2006), the international movement of workers, including social workers and child protection workers, can illuminate key areas of practice. For example, it can provide an opportunity to research 'good practice' in recruitment and induction across international boundaries. It can also highlight the benefits and stresses of relocation, how to maximize the expertise of the new recruits to the workforce, and to explore the impact of international recruitment from a service user's perspective (Lyons 2006: 373). It also offers an opportunity to consider how organisational practices, which aid retention, can be tailored to the needs of workers recruited from overseas.

The issue of international recruitment of social workers in England has been an element in the debates on child welfare policy and practice. Reid, (2010), reported in *The Guardian,* 26 September 2010 that local councils in England were being prevented from hiring vitally needed social workers from outside the European Union after the introduction of a temporary immigration cap of 24,100 non-EU skilled workers entering the country before April 2011 was imposed ahead of a permanent immigration cap. Local authorities say non-EU social workers are desperately needed until new UK training initiatives produce enough staff to meet the skills shortage according to the Guardian, 26 September 2010. A national shortage of qualified social workers was identified in Lord Laming's inquiry into child protection failures (Laming, 2009).

Reid (2010) reports that the UK Border Agency turns down requests for non-EU social workers in response to the introduction of a temporary immigration cap, which is preventing councils from addressing their social worker shortages with non-EU workers. The British Association of Social Workers (BASW) in 2010 also reportedly raised concerns regarding the impending immigration cap, arguing that it was clear from evidence supplied by their members that a considerable number of local authorities have relied upon the recruitment of social workers to plug gaps and that, there was compelling evidence of the importance of overseas social workers to critical areas of child care.

According to Bartley (cited in Cooper, 2014) this globalised market of international social workers is premised on an assertion that social work adheres to a central set of values and ethics that transcends national boundaries. Similarly, higher education programmes in social work in a number of countries now stress 'universal social work professional values' such as self-determination, confidentiality, being non-judgmental, acceptance and the respect for diversity. Irrespective of their universality, social work values and ethical codes are always interpreted through the lens of national or regionally-specific historical, social, political and cultural norms.

Bartley (in Cooper 2014) believes these norms are manifest in a range of challenges that confront transnational social workers: in employment practices and workplace cultures; negotiating new sets of legislative imperatives and political tensions; gaining recognition of the validity and transportability of their overseas educational qualifications, skills and practice expertise; and navigating the particular forms of ethnic and cultural diversity and attendant politics that manifest in local sites and impact on social work practice. Bartley (in Cooper 2014) further argues that professionals who choose to pursue opportunities to practise in other countries not only cross national borders, but may enter unfamiliar professional territory as well. This seems to extend to more than the initial transitory period where migrant social workers should expect (and reasonably be expected) to adapt personally and professionally in a new country.

Research carried out by Zubrzycki et al (2008) suggests that in Australia while international recruitment processes can attract experienced and well qualified child protection workers to agencies that are struggling with staff shortages and experiencing

organisational change, they can also, in the initial stages of transition, leave workers feeling somewhat overwhelmed and at times de-skilled and uncertain about how best to contribute to the local practice context. This study provides some comparative evidence for the literature from the UK, which suggests that international recruitment in the human services is a complex matter (Evans et al (2007; Welbourne, et al, 2007).

International recruitment of social workers can be described as complex in the sense that it involves bringing to the UK, many people who are of different cultures, trained in different social work backgrounds, with different levels of language capabilities and in some cases, holding different social values, among other characteristics. The process of adapting to the UK social and work systems could be a daunting task and challenging for both the recruiters and the overseas social workers.

A few studies have been carried out on the relationships between social work knowledge, practice and globalisation, and between globalisation and social worker recruitment, from which one can draw empirical findings. The study by Findlay & McCormack (2007), entitled Globalisation and Social Work Education and Practice, was of Australian practitioners and sought to measure knowledge of globalisation and assess the practitioners' beliefs about the importance of global knowledge for social work practice. This study is relevant to this thesis, as Australia is one of the Anglophone countries with a significant number of social workers registered and working in England according to the General Social Care Council in 2011 (now defunct).

Although the above study relates specifically to Australia, it does show some similarities with the wider social work context in the UK. In particular, there are parallels in the issues relative to globalisation and its dimensions and how social workers perceive of the importance of these issues as part of social work practice, which has been influenced by global issues.

Debating the international dimension of social work requires that social work professionals understand the local environment and approach social problems from a global perspective. Indeed, according to Hokenstad and Midgley (2004), social work education must focus on what is considered relevant to the profession as it pertains to

the local conditions of a country, as well as understand and learn from the approaches and solutions developed for social problems in other parts of the world (Hokenstad & Midgley, 2004). In order to understand globalisation, knowledge and skills transfer in relation to social work in England, it is imperative to look at the context of social work developments in England.

3.7 Social work developments and reforms in England

There have been a few major relevant developments in social work in the UK, in England during the last decade in particular. The most prominent have been in the area of children and families and especially in child protection practice areas. MacAlister et al (2012) contend that the acknowledged importance of an effective workforce, social work has struggled to recruit and train enough high-calibre staff, it has suffered from a perception of low prestige, and it has been criticised for offering degree courses that provide inadequate training. Tackling this problem has been seen to require action in a number of areas. In particular, there is an acknowledged need to improve the quality and training of the workforce (MacAlister et al, 2012).

Social work development in England encompasses education, training and practice. The persistent shortages of social workers have been some of the keys issues dominating policy debates and academic discourse over a long period. There have been a number of recent suggestions on how social work training, practice and recruitment in England can be improved, and some of these have been controversial (MacAlister et al, 2012).

Crawford and Phillips (2012) argue that following the Victoria Climbié and Baby P tragedies, children's social care has been in the public spotlight, with successive governments prompting radical changes and reforms in the sector. Reviews into the children's social work sector have identified a number of problems that need to be addressed. These include funding pressures, a high workload, poor collaboration between other agencies, and a poorly trained and poorly supported workforce. Added to this, Crawford and Phillips (2012) state that local authorities are facing many years of reduced spending: council budgets were cut by an average of around 10 per cent in 2012.

Holmes et al, (2013) state that since the last decade there have been a number of more radical reforms such as the 2003 introduction of the requirement to obtain an honours-level degree in social work to practice, and the phasing out of the Diploma of Social Work. More recently, reform of social work has been driven by the work of the Social Work Task Force and the Munro Review. Holmes et al (2013) further argue that there are ongoing debates around the implementation and evaluation of many of the above reforms.

Holmes (2013) highlights the following key aspects of the reforms and these include: Development of the Professional Capabilities Framework (PCF), which now covers all levels of social work, including ensuring that capabilities at more advanced stages adequately reflect different career pathways; Promoting the Standards for Employers and Supervision framework; Further moving towards both encouraging and recording continuing professional development, with a long-term view to encouraging further progress; -Strengthening the quality of entrants into the profession; Altering the social work degree curricular and practice placements, informed by The College of Social Work, and guided by partnerships between Higher Education Institutions and employers; Developing new practice placement arrangements, including supporting partnerships; -Implementation of the Assessed and Supported Year in Employment (ASYE); Developing guidance on the Careers Framework to clarify its use for social work professionals and employers; Developing the social work supply and demand model (Holmes et al, 2013: 20)

The 2010 Munro Review of Child Protection recommended reforms to social work practice in England whose main highlights included the following: The removal of fixed assessment timescales, thoughtful working practices, and better and clearer consideration of priorities, Ofsted's revised child protection inspection framework. This focuses on the impact and effectiveness of help and protection for children and better coordination of services to provide better understanding of children's needs. The appointment of a chief social worker and recruitment of principal social workers to social work teams was also proposed. Finally, Munro proposed a reduction in statutory guidance so that there is more scope for professional and local autonomy, and encouraged local authorities to offer improved early help intervention (Munro Report, 2011)

It can also be argued that since the *Munro review of child protection* (2011) there has been a growing focus on 'systems thinking' in children's services - the redesign of organisational culture and structure in order to facilitate direct work with children and families; build social workers' professional confidence and ownership of their practice and better manage bureaucratic and administrative pressures (Munro Report, 2011).

There are however some criticisms of the effectiveness of the Munro Review recommendations. Rajan-Rankin and Beresford (2011) argue that while Munro does propose a useful critique of past reforms in child protection, her analysis of their failures as being 'unanticipated' is almost naïve. It is argued that these reforms have all but made it impossible for front-line workers to be more than administrative clerks have and they have lost power, voice and agency in the work they do. The reforms it is alleged they reduce the young person in need to being a 'case' which needs immediate resolution, rather than as a child with specific needs among other things. Munro is criticised as confusing child-centredness, with child engagement with the child protection system. Rajan-Rankin and Beresford (2011) further state that remaining child-centred requires at the very least an acceptance that any examination of the child's needs must involve a deeper examination of the family and community as well. It is further argued that social work practitioners as recommended in Munro's reports, can gain a useful summary of child protection systems and procedures in these reports, but from a practitioner's perspective, these reports provide little new knowledge and direction in extending current debates.

3.8 Shortage of child care social workers in the UK

One of the major reasons why social workers move from other countries to the UK is essentially to fill vacant posts, especially in the children's social care sector where in some parts of England there has been a longstanding shortage of frontline social workers. Due to the nature and extent of the problems facing the children's social work profession, the vacancy rates have continued to increase (MacAlister, 2012). Despite recent improvements in the number of people training to be social workers, the profession continued at that time to be listed on the official shortage occupation list and the number of vacant jobs remained relatively high compared to other public sector professions. In

his contribution, McAlister (2012) further states that while data on vacancy rates is patchy, they showed that in 2011 around 8–10 per cent of posts in England were vacant and staff turnover was around 10 per cent. This meant there were around 2,500 vacant jobs in social work in 2011, and around 1,350 of those were in children's social work.

According to Harlow (2004, in Hussein et al, 2011), in recent years, the high turn-over of social work practitioners in the UK coupled with limited demand into the social work field due to the high demands and negative public image of this profession has led to a chronic staff shortage. In piecing together this multifaceted reality, some of the causal factors already put forward include the decreasing number of 'domestically' trained social workers (Moriarty et al, 2011, 2012) and the ageing professional workforce in UK social work system in line with national demographics (Lyons, Hanna, 2011, 7). These factors, leading to a severe staff shortage in the UK social work system, appear to be the main explanatory factors for recruiting international social workers, as noted by Hussein et al (2011) and Hanna and Lyons (2011).

Hanna and Lyons (2011) also mention the changing migration policies in the UK in particular and how this affects the recruitment of international workforce. The Immigration Act 2014 is one piece of legislation by the UK government, which is meant to curb the inflow of foreign workers into the UK. The Act specifically states that the government may decide to prioritise some skills shortages to the detriment of others, and impose time limits on certain sectors to stay on the designated shortage occupation list. This means putting further restrictions on the employment of professionals from outside the EU including social workers.

However, a more recent consideration by the Think Tank, Policy Exchange of the data on social work employment or recruitment in England depicts a more nuanced picture. While there is an oversupply of adults' social workers and NQSWs in England, there is still a shortage of children's social care social workers in England. The Policy Exchange model predicts that there will only be a proper match of experienced social workers to vacancies available in 2022, and even then, there would be a shortfall in filling children's social worker posts (Holmes et al, 2013).

According to Welbourne et al (2007), professional migration of social workers has become an increasingly international phenomenon. Specifically from 2007 10,000 internationally educated social workers had been made eligible to register to practise social work in Britain, although apparently not all had taken up employment. In the decade from the late 1990s, a shortage of professional social workers in Britain (and Ireland) led to prolonged efforts at international recruitment, which helped many local authorities in alleviating shortages particularly in childcare services (Bowcott, 2009; Walsh, et al, 2010).

The shortage of social workers in the UK in general is thought to have occurred for varied reasons. In the 1990s, there had been a decline in the number of social work students, although this was subsequently reversed because of government investment in the new social work degree. There was also some evidence suggesting that rates of stress and burnout are higher than previously among social workers, meaning that some may choose to leave the profession (Moriarty et al, 2008).

Lyons (2006) argues that while there is anecdotal evidence of individual and international movement of social workers for work purposes over recent years, it is also clear there have been systematic efforts to recruit social workers from abroad to make up for the shortages in nationally trained staff in a number of western countries, including the UK.

Evans et al (2007) investigated international social care recruitment in eight organisations in Wales, including a major private recruitment agency and providers in the private, voluntary and statutory sectors. Among the conclusions of this study was that international recruitment is only a short-term strategy that does not solve the fundamental domestic problems that lead to shortages in the first place.

3.9 Migration from Zimbabwe

The general migration patterns from Zimbabwe provide the wider context of social worker migration to the UK. Zimbabwe has a population of 11.6 million people (UNESCO, Zimbabwe report, 2013-2015). Compared to other countries in the sub-region and in Africa, Zimbabwe has a highly educated population, with a literacy rate of 92 percent (UNESCO). As in many African countries, migration of skilled professionals, including that

of social workers, is a critical issue. This results from a number of political and socio-economic issues, which have severely affected the availability, and security of suitable jobs for the increasing number of highly skilled professionals in Zimbabwe. Political and economic deterioration in Zimbabwe has coincided with reform of the UK's immigration and asylum system. The legacy of this coincidence is a confusing patchwork of migrants from Zimbabwe in the UK: naturalised citizens, refugees, asylum seekers, reunited families, undocumented workers and over-stayers, students, work permit holders, and those whose nationality is disputed (Wintour, 2009).

The Zimbabwean population in Britain increased from 47,158 in 2001, according to census statistics, to an estimated 200,000 in 2008 (Pasura, 2008a), though the actual 2011 Census figure was 110,000 (Office for National Statistics, ONS Country of Birth Statistics, 2013).

Zimbabweans according to Wintour (2009), are overwhelmingly concentrated in London and its commuter towns such as Luton, Milton Keynes and Slough. There are also major centres of Zimbabwean settlement outside London, which include Leeds, Leicester, Manchester, Birmingham and Coventry. However, Zimbabweans in the UK are scattered, partly because of the policy of dispersal of asylum seekers and partly because of the importance of care work, for example in coastal and other retirement centres.

There is no specific ethnically disaggregated data for different groups of Zimbabweans in the UK. However, a study of 500 Zimbabweans in the UK found most respondents were black and Shona. Nearly three-quarters (71 per cent) spoke Shona fluently, a third (32 per cent) spoke Ndebele fluently, while 12 per cent were fluent in both Shona and Ndebele. Only 12 respondents were monoglot English speakers, suggesting that they were white Zimbabweans (Bloch, 2008). There have been five main distinctive phases of migration and displacement from Zimbabwe from the 1960s to the present, When Zimbabwe attained its independence in 1980, many white Zimbabweans left the country, and some migrated to Britain. As Tevera and Crush (2003: 6) explain, “between 1980 and 1984, 50,000 to 60,000 whites left the country because they could not adjust to the changed political circumstances and the net migration loss was over 10,000 per year.”

It is difficult to quantify the total number of Zimbabweans who have migrated to the UK for two main reasons. Firstly, some migrants will by now have taken up British nationality. Secondly, in the UK, some Zimbabwean migrants will have been former white colonial and postcolonial migrants not subject to immigration controls. However, estimates of Zimbabwean migrants in the UK vary; some put the number as high as 1.2 million (Mbiba, 2005). This figure is however, controversial, as neither the Home Office nor any other independent source, i.e. Office for National Statistics (ONS) has confirmed it. As stated above official statistics from the ONS indicate a much smaller figure. This review of literature reveals the absence of a single credible source of statistics regarding the population of Zimbabweans in the UK. This therefore, makes it very difficult to draw up reliable estimates in order to accurately inform the present study.

The migration of skilled Zimbabweans to the UK in general and England in particular, as in other forms of migration elsewhere, is diverse in terms of its characteristics and motivations; it is also a direct result of globalisation and its many forms. Firstly, it encompasses those who have migrated for political and economic reasons or for a combination of these plus – to a lesser extent – other factors such as the desire to study abroad. Secondly, the skills base of Zimbabweans falls along a continuum ranging from highly educated skilled professionals to unskilled workers (Zinyama, 1990).

At Zimbabwe's independence in 1980, nationalist commitment ran high, and the overwhelming majority of the small number of Zimbabwean exiles, students and professionals who had been based in the UK during the liberation war returned to Zimbabwe. There was a small outflow of professionals in the early postcolonial context, but the numbers grew significantly through the 1990s (McGregor, 2006)

The more general emigration from the country accelerated from the mid-1990s, as the effects of neo-liberal structural adjustment policies were felt, exacerbated by corruption and economic mismanagement (Gaidzanwa 1999; Tevera and Crush 2003). Presently, according to the International Crisis Group (ICG Country Report, 2013) the political situation in Zimbabwe remains critically unstable due to a number of factors which include a poor human rights record, political violence, stagnant economic growth, falling standards of living, and political instability due to the polarisation between the two major

parties, the governing Zanu PF and the opposition MDC. The above factors continue to create fertile ground for emigration by skilled professionals.

According to Chikanda (2004), as Zimbabwe then became the most rapidly shrinking economy in the world, and the state unleashed violence against members of the new political opposition and others, families from all social classes were increasingly compelled to send members outside Zimbabwe's borders to ensure basic survival escape assaults or meet aspirations for accumulation or education. Rampant inflation meant that the purchasing power of public sector wages, which had long been in decline, collapsed to the point that essential commodities and education for children were unaffordable. In addition, public servants, particularly teachers stationed in the rural areas, were targets for persecution, and the urban middle classes more generally were regarded with suspicion as potentially disloyal (Chikanda, 2005).

In this context, Zimbabwean migrant communities in the countries of the region swelled dramatically, particularly in South Africa and Botswana; and middle class families with the funds and connections emigrated to Britain and other global destinations. It was noted that many professional nurses considered leaving the country in the immediate future: their reasons included better earnings abroad, the need to save quickly for later use at home, pessimism about Zimbabwe's future, fear of crime and violence, the impossibility of making ends meet on public sector salaries, the need to ensure their children's future, the demanding nature of their work, a lack of opportunities for professional advancement, and fear of contracting AIDS at work, due to the absence of basic equipment such as gloves (Chikanda 2005: 2, 19).

The above picture, regarding nurses from Zimbabwe, mirrors similar experiences for other professionals including social workers. The studies carried out on overseas social workers, including Zimbabweans in England, included in Lyons and Littlechild (2006) and Hussein et al (2010) highlight the similar points expressed in Chikanda (2005). The next section looks at the development of social work and social work practice in Zimbabwe and the migration of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to the UK.

3.10 Social work development in Zimbabwe

The history of social work in Zimbabwe, as in a few other English-speaking African countries, was principally influenced by the British social work system because of the previous colonial relationship between the two countries. In Africa, individuals who wished to train as social workers in the 1950s and early 1960s had little option but to go abroad, mostly to the West. They were thus trained using curricula that had a Western orientation. With time, a number of local social work training institutions were founded, including the School of Social Work in Ghana (which opened in 1946), the Jan Hofmeyer College in South Africa (which later closed), and the Oppenheimer College of Social Science in Zambia, which was later absorbed into the University of Zambia. Later, similar institutions were opened elsewhere, including the School of Social Work in Harare, Zimbabwe, which was founded in 1964 by the Jesuit Fathers of the Roman Catholic Church. When the school was first established, it offered a one-year Certificate Course in Group Work (Hampson ed, 1986).

This training was based on the understanding that poverty was pushing many people from the deprived rural areas into crowded urban areas, which were not ready to receive such a huge influx of internal migrants. Consequently, there were numerous social problems in urban areas, including unemployment, overcrowding, destitution, juvenile delinquency, prostitution, social disintegration, and family breakdown. The first class at the School of Social Work consisted of eighteen students, who took part in the full-time one-year course for group workers, which was designed to train workers for group activities in clubs, welfare centres, and industrial and mining centres. During that first year, the need for a higher level of full-time training became clear (Hampson ed, 1986).

The first three-year Diploma in Social Work was launched in 1966. In 1969, the School changed its name to the School of Social Work and became the first associate college of the University of Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), with students being awarded a Diploma in Social Work after three years (Kaseke, 2001). The School of Social Work introduced new programmes. The Certificate in Youth Work was introduced in 1980 to help train youth workers and youth leaders involved in the various youth programmes emerging across the country. The Bachelor of Social Work (Honours) degree in Clinical Social Work was

established in 1982; the Master of Social Work degree in 1983; and the Bachelor of Social Rehabilitation degree in 1985. The Masters programme was intended to produce higher-level professional social workers who were expected to assume positions of leadership in social work agencies, both in the public and voluntary sectors. The programmes essentially offered three main areas of specialisation: research, social work education, and social policy and administration. These programmes only operated for a couple of years, and subsequently collapsed and were reorganised (Chogugudza, 2009).

The School of Social Work in Zimbabwe, like most institutions in Africa, was staffed with lecturers who had been trained in the West, and this, according to Mupedziswa, (1992), resulted in an inappropriate orientation of the programmes offered in the 1980s and later, characterising this as social work training in Africa inheriting the Western bias of its colonial legacy. Theories tended to be adopted wholesale from Western theorists and practitioners, reflecting Western academic analysis and the culture of individualism (Mupedziswa, 1992). It would appear from this opinion that there was insufficient reflection in the courses or theories on the local conditions in Zimbabwe; hence some of them were not relevant without a necessary adjustment to suit local conditions.

The development of social welfare systems, social work practice and social work education in Africa must be understood within the historical context of each country (Chitereka, 2009). The basic institutions (political, legal, social, economic and educational) of all African countries were influenced by the formal response to the meeting of human need (Asamoah, 1995). Britain exported a remedial model, which was based on the principles underlying remedial social services in the United Kingdom, and which concentrated on addressing symptoms not causes of problems. Therefore, services in former British colonies focused on rehabilitation and, not surprisingly, selected as the unit of attention vulnerable individuals, including women, migrants, homeless children, the disabled, juvenile delinquents, the unemployed, and the physically and mentally ill (Asamoah, 1995).

This review suggests that social work in its early phases in most African countries mainly embraced the remedial approach to solving social problems. Kaseke (1991) notes that the development of social work in Zimbabwe is closely tied to the country's colonial

history, its orientation reflecting a wholesale transfer from the British experience. According to Mupedziswa (1988), while this arrangement may have suited the colonial regime, it was evident that such an arrangement would not augur well for the new socio-political order.

According to Moyo (2007), the social welfare needs of the indigenous African people in pre-independence Zimbabwe were expected to be met by local communities, thereby excluding them from formal social work processes. Mamphiswana and Noyoo (2000) argue that social work as a profession is perceived by the people of Zimbabwe as a Western concept, which at times has found itself in conflict with the social traditions of Africa.

Against this background, therefore, social work education in Zimbabwe appears to have taken longer to be appreciated as a formal profession than other traditional disciplines such as psychology, nursing, teaching, or law. Until the establishment of the School of Social Work in Harare in 1964, social work as a distinct profession did not exist in Zimbabwe.

At independence, social work was able to adopt an unambiguous commitment to the policies of social justice and equity in health care, relief and resettlement programmes, education, and personal social services, intended to be free of racial and discriminatory practices. At a graduation ceremony in 1981, the Prime Minister Robert Mugabe challenged social workers ‘’to be change agents’’ in the many fields of the country’s development efforts (Agere and Hampson, 1981). The above comment, and similar views from other politicians and officials, exerted considerable pressure on the School of Social Work to produce the “particular type of student” that would fit into the new socio-economic dispensation in Zimbabwe at the time (Agere and Hampson,1981). Until 2002, the School of Social Work of the University of Zimbabwe was the only institution offering social work education and training in Zimbabwe. Two other universities, the Women’s University in Zimbabwe and Bindura University of Science Education have since 2002 introduced Diploma and Degree courses in social work, ending more than three decades of

monopoly of social work training by the University of Zimbabwe**.** (see Appendix 5 & Appendix 6)

Since 1980, the delivery of social work education and training in Zimbabwe, as well as its practice, has changed dramatically. To understand this, it is imperative to look at social work in the context of the country's demographic composition and social structure. The challenge for social work in Zimbabwe is to transform itself so that it focuses on the root cause of social problems. Many of these problems can be attributed to poverty, resulting from the working of political, social and economic structures. The question is, should social workers develop intervention methods that seek to bring about structural change in society (Kaseke, 1991). It is however, important to understand the appropriateness of the nature of social work training in Zimbabwe in order to properly contextualise the background of overseas social workers in England who come from Zimbabwe.

Kaseke (2001) argues that the development of social work education in Zimbabwe since independence has lagged behind the development of the social work profession, even in the light of the fact that social work itself is a relatively new profession there. The establishment of the Department of Social Welfare paved the way for extending the profession from a whites-only profession to providing an education programme for the African people. Since there were no trained social workers in the country at the time this department was established, there was a heavy reliance on immigrant social workers from Britain to serve the white community, and black social workers were trained in South Africa and Zambia to serve Zimbabwe's indigenous African population.

3.11 Social work practice in Zimbabwe

In the first decade of independence, the social work profession became more organised, fairly sophisticated and well resourced. Those in government employ, (major employer of social workers in Zimbabwe) although they had heavy workloads, social work practitioners has sufficient resources to facilitate meaningful practice. As the first decade of Independence ended, the economy began to flounder. To appreciate the nature of social work practice in Zimbabwe today, it is necessary to understand the socio-economic and political environment in which is it being practised. The socio-economic problems

facing the country in the 2000s impacted on social work practice. As noted elsewhere, the above difficult period witnessed the protracted mass exodus of scores of social workers to the diaspora (Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall, 2006).

Kaseke (2001) acknowledges that the emphasis in social work education and training in Africa has fundamentally shifted to a social development approach, which places greater significance on macro intervention to reach the individual or group. The curriculum recognises the need to focus intervention primarily on those structures that are not responsive to human needs. Examples include land reform, rural development, employment creation, economic reform programmes, donor aid, and globalisation. In recognition of the fact that social work education in Zimbabwe is inextricably linked to rural development strategies, students are encouraged to undertake at least one placement in a rural setting (Kaseke, 2001).

Mupedziswa (1998) argues that the developmental approach has been recommended to the social work profession in Africa for a variety of reasons, the most compelling of which is the fact that due to a general lack of resources, Zimbabwe (and indeed Africa as a whole) can hardly afford the luxury of continuing to employ the remedial strategy, an approach which over the years has proved to be particularly costly.

Mupedziswa (1998) suggests that the developmental approach is therefore particularly well suited to social work education and training in Zimbabwe. Mupedziswa appears to suggest a change of approach in social work education, training and practice in Zimbabwe from that which is colonially oriented to a locally based approach, leading to indigenisation of the profession in the country. Kwaku (1993) argues that social work practice and training should take into account the environmental, cultural and ideological variability of a people. It is necessary that indigenisation should focus on skills, outlook, philosophies, theories and models that are local in content. That is, they must start from within and then go on to determine the problems and their solutions, resources and skills available, processes and procedures to use, and what help may be required or borrowed from outsiders. Thus, social work knowledge and practice must emerge from local initiatives, which should then sustain it.

3.12 Relevance of Zimbabwean social work training and practice to England

This section analyses perceptions that social work knowledge and practice in Zimbabwe is relevant to England, and therefore transferrable to some extent, underpinning the fact that social workers from Zimbabwe have immigrated to England to work as social workers. In understanding the concept of knowledge and skills transfer in respect of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, it is therefore imperative to briefly discuss relevant elements of the historical background of social work training and practice in Zimbabwe, which were set out more fully above. Kaseke (1991) argues that the type of education, training and practice in Zimbabwe reflects the wholesale transfer of social work practice from developed countries particularly, Britain, but as a response to the social problems associated with urbanisation and industrialisation in Zimbabwe. The multiracial nature of Zimbabwe, similarities in the education system, the increasing westernisation of Zimbabwean culture and the wide use of the English language as an official medium of communication all suggest parallels that could influence social work practice.

The specific relevance of Zimbabwean social work education, training and practice to the English children's social care system is still a matter for investigation. Kaseke (2001) contends that the social work model in Zimbabwe has fallen behind in its transformational role due to its close ties with the Zimbabwean government's socialist policies. Kaseke further argues that the dramatic change in the social work curriculum during the formative years of Zimbabwean independence effectively diluted the original British-informed social work training approach. However, subsequently, according to Kaseke, due to the influences of globalisation and the internationalisation of the social work profession, there have been some curriculum shifts again, which resemble global social work education trends.

Kaseke (1991) argues that historically, most social workers in Zimbabwe have been employed by the state Department of Social Welfare, which was established in 1948. The Ministry of Health, local authorities, non-governmental organisations, industrial and voluntary organisations also employ social workers.

In view of the above, it can be stated that that social work training and practice in England and Zimbabwe are similar in part but this is not the only credible reason why Zimbabwean social workers migrate to England. Kaseke (2001) argues that one of the weaknesses of the social work model in Zimbabwe is that it has failed to adapt to the fast-changing nature of the profession in keeping with globalisation, which is partly responsible for international skilled labour migration. Consequently, social workers trained in Zimbabwe have lagged behind the universally changing realities of the profession in the 21st Century. In general, there are major differences in the way social work is organised and practised in England and in Zimbabwe This raises questions as to whether the Zimbabwean education and training model equips social workers from that country with the requisite skills to meet the challenges of practising in England, where the expectations for specialism in child care (as opposed to generic practice) are much higher. Social work education and training in Zimbabwe was designed for a different setting altogether, consistent with the demands of a developing country. It appears any attempt to try to apply it to the English system wholesale presents many challenges for social work practitioners wanting to transfer their skills across international frontiers.

The other issue that is not addressed in detail in the existing literature is how the social background of Zimbabwean social workers affects their integration, overall practice and ability to effectively transfer knowledge and skills in England. The socio-political system in Zimbabwe, including its traditional value system, could be said to be fundamentally different from the English system. This may in some respects influence the functioning of some overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. For example, issues such as same-sex relationships, gender relations, child abuse and protection experiences, legislation and social security systems may attract controversy or misapprehension amongst Zimbabwean social workers in England. There is no extensive literature or consensus on the issue of the current relevance of Zimbabwean social work education, training and practice to the English children's social care system, thereby making the case for further research justifiable.

3.13 Social worker recruitment from Zimbabwe

The migration of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to the UK is not a unique phenomenon. It appears from the literature review that they are attracted or pushed by similar factors as their professional colleagues from other developing countries such as South Africa and Nigeria. Migration of social workers between different countries of the world is a general trend (Firth, 2004). Social work is an international profession, which is supported and promoted by the internationally agreed definition of social work, together with the international ethical and global standards of social work (IASSW, 2005; IFSW, 2005).

Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall (2006) have described the mass exodus of Zimbabwean trained social workers to England and other destinations as a consequence of the downward trend of the Zimbabwean economy, with corruption and mismanagement featuring very prominently. The literature also suggests that the pressures of globalisation, among other factors, have encouraged skilled workers to move to other countries such as England where job opportunities exist. Hall states that political uncertainty, against the backdrop of a chaotic land reform programme and loss of confidence in Zimbabwe from the international community, all weighed heavily against sustainable social worker employability in Zimbabwe. In addition, the shortage of resources at the Department of Social Welfare (the primary social workers' employer) and the dwindling of resources in NGOs, where many social workers were operating in secondary settings, resulted in a loss of employment or major deskilling of social workers. Sticking to social work principles, ethics and values became a major challenge for social workers under the circumstances.

Hall (2006) further states that the unstable socio-political environment fuelled by a high demand for social work professionals in England and elsewhere, led to the mass exodus of social workers from Zimbabwe. Given the deteriorating state of affairs in the country, the number of practitioners in the various fields has rapidly dwindled, as many have left for such countries as South Africa, the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. One other commentator suggested that by 2003 up to 60% of all professionals had left

Zimbabwe for greener pastures (Sparks, 2003). It is assumed that the above number includes overseas social workers.

Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall (2006), state that the exodus of qualified social workers adversely affected the viability of professional social work practice within the Department of Social Welfare in Zimbabwe, in terms of staffing and the sustainability of programmes. They further state that the difficult conditions described above had a major effect on social workers in Zimbabwe, resulting in serious social worker skills shortages in the country since the year 2000. To fill the gap, the government was obliged to recruit social scientists of varied backgrounds, including sociologists, political scientists and psychologists, to practise as social workers (Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall, 2006).

According to Wyatt et al (2010), Zimbabwe's social welfare system has a huge caseload, and even by the most conservative estimates, its professional staffing is wildly out of alignment with that of other countries in the region. Lack of adequate numbers of professional personnel impedes effective implementation and monitoring of child protection legislation. In 2010, Zimbabwe employed a very limited number of social work professionals who should be responsible for the administration of the Children's Act under the DSS. In 2003, the country had about 3,000 social workers. Of those social workers that remained in the country after others migrated, many are 'unaccounted for' as they have joined the private sector or NGOs, or are doing work unrelated to the profession. Wyatt et al (2010) further state that in Zimbabwe, before the mass exodus of trained social workers, there was never any real debate with regard to who should work as a social welfare officer in the Department of Social Services.

The review of the literature reveals that, as is the case with migration in general, social workers emigrate for different reasons including for better pay, better working conditions and higher standards of social work practice, a better quality of life, professional development opportunities and educational opportunities for their children (Lyons, 2006, Hussein et al 2008). Castles and Miller, (1998) contend that the need for improved salaries is one of the motivations for moving to England. Dual Market Theory states that this is indeed what happens to migrants in the destination country.

The neo-classical theory according to (Massey, 1993), states that wage differentials between countries cause workers to move from low wage to high wage countries. Although overseas Zimbabwean social workers were employed in lower grades, the money they earned in England was still substantially more than their salaries at home. The Zimtreasury Poverty Datum Lines report (2014) reports that the hyper inflationary environment that prevailed in Zimbabwe had drastically reduced wages in real terms, leaving many professionals just below the Poverty Datum Line.

Lyons (2006) argues that there are both individual and structural dimensions to the ethical issues raised in relation to international labour mobility. Individually, social workers share with the general population the right to leave their country and to seek the best possible conditions for themselves and their families e.g. in terms of access to work, health care or education. Similarly, they should expect to be treated according to the laws and norms of their new country, including as these might relate to anti-discriminatory policies and practices, so that their experience is valued and they are not exploited. Lyons (2006) further argues that social workers are also motivated by the desire to improve life chances; and this could be compared with Zimbabwean social workers trying to flee from a near failed state, where standards of living continue to fall.

Professional development opportunities also feature very prominently in the reasons why social workers seek opportunities abroad. This motivation is likely to be present in the case of young professionals, for whom there are limited opportunities for employment in social work posts in their own countries or where opportunities for professional advancement are limited by restrictions in the educational qualifications open to social workers (Lyons, 2006).

3.14 Effects of recruitment and migration from Zimbabwe

Lyons (2006) states that one of the main concerns about overseas recruitment from some countries, e.g. South Africa (Sewpaul and Jones, 2005), is the extent to which this deprives them of much needed human resources, following their investment in training for a field where qualified staff are in short supply (Welbourne et al, 2007). For instance, in 2003, it was reported that Zimbabwe's Department of Social Welfare had a 75%

vacancy rate, attributed to aggressive recruitment by British agencies (White, 2006: 365). While the general situation in Zimbabwe now gives reason to suppose that, had they stayed, such workers would themselves be facing a situation of extreme hardship, this nevertheless illustrates a result of the brain drain.

Zimbabwe was facing a serious shortage of social workers, with one social worker working with over 42 000 children, according to a senior official source of the Council for Social Workers in Zimbabwe, speaking in March 2013 (The Herald, 26 March, 2013) Addressing the media in Harare, to raise awareness of social work in Zimbabwe, the Council chairperson Mr. Phillip Bohwasi said there was a critical shortage of social workers in Zimbabwe. He attributed the shortage to a massive brain drain and the Government's policy on job freezing, rendering social workers jobless. There were so many events happening in Zimbabwe warranting the services of social workers according to Mr Bohwasi, which range from rape cases of young children, abuse of women and children in any form, and the need for counselling of child victims of abuse; but most of these cases go unattended because of the shortage of skilled social workers (NewsdzeZimbabwe, March 25, 2013). The need for social workers in Zimbabwe has been growing rapidly as the economy in the country has deteriorated, increasing the rate of poverty, disease and deprivation, compounded by the withdrawal of non-governmental organisations in the country in the face of hostility from the Zimbabwe Government in recent years (Newzimbabwe.com, 14 February 2012).

3.15 Recruitment processes for overseas social workers in England

Social work and social care vacancies in England have been partly filled by international labour migration. Some staff are primarily recruited from their home countries; others are recruited after arrival in the UK. The business of recruitment is often undertaken by commercial employment agencies which may provide assistance with visa processing/application arrangements, subsidise travel costs and provide support upon arrival in the UK (Hussein et al, 2010: Community Care, 2004).

However, there is not a lot of literature on the workings of this sector (Hussein, Manthorpe and Stevens, 2008). Some local authorities in the UK have directly recruited cohorts of

social workers from overseas, employing, and supporting them as a group (Thompson 2004). It has also been established that other overseas social workers may travel to the UK and then look for employment upon arrival (Welbourne et al, 2007).

White (2006) in her contribution espouses how using the internet has made it easier for some social workers to find out about job vacancies and to obtain information on the different social work systems and qualifications. In view of the above, the internet apparently is seen as part of the technological globalisation as discussed in chapter 2.

The OECD (2004) noted that where there is an established community of workers from overseas, there is an increased probability of other members of that community moving there. International research suggests that social work agencies have over recent periods aggressively marketed to migrants the benefits of moving to their country, in anticipation that this labour pool will fill gaps in its social care system (Welbourne, et al., 2007; Simpson, 2009).

3.16 Integration of Zimbabwean social workers into English society

The available literature on migration has generally proposed that once migrants entered a foreign country, they would break ties with their home countries and work towards being incorporated into the host society (Itzigsohn and Saucedo, 2002; Portes and Boron, 1999). In attempting to explain the different ways through which migrants adapt to life in destination countries, terms such as assimilation, integration, settlement, insertion and incorporation have been used (Vertovec, 2009), with the authors concentrating on assimilation and multiculturalism as the two broad paradigms of migrant integration (Faist, 2009; Givens, 2007).

Park and Burgess (1924) in their definition, view assimilation as a process of interpenetration and fusion in which persons and groups acquire the memories, sentiments, and attitudes of other persons and groups, and by sharing their experience and history are incorporated with them in a common cultural life. Faist (2009) on his part contends that assimilation is based on the assumption of different integrative stages; for instance, cognitive, relating to the norms of the immigration society, structural, relating to

education, and employment and civil societal, relating to the participation of immigrants in all spheres of life.

The above provide different models through which assimilation, into a host society can be analysed. Under the phenomenon of multiculturalism, immigrants are allowed to participate fully in host society institutions as cultural minorities (Faist, 2009). The host government is compelled to implement affirmative action measures, and anti-discriminatory and equal opportunity policies, among others, to enable immigrants to access services like any other group in that country. Immigrants are also empowered to acquire the human and cultural capital needed to participate in the host society, while maintaining the right to pursue their own culture (Vasta, 2007).

Fouché & Beddoe, (2013) argue that the process of social and professional integration for overseas recruited social workers entails a complete change of life and methods of work and of ethics, which can result in culture shock for some. Physically resettling and finding employment in a new country is only part of the challenge for social workers and other highly skilled migrants crossing borders. In the same way that learning about a culture, language and social norms are part of the general acculturation process, adjusting to the professional and workplace culture in a new country poses challenges of its own. Fouché & Beddoe (2013) further contend that even though the challenges social workers face in settling into a new country and a new work context may influence their effectiveness in their role, only limited support is provided.

While research suggests that a central value base particular to social work transcends cultural boundaries on a global level, the available evidence suggests that social work practice itself is very diverse and is shaped by local conditions (Abbotts, 1999). Even for Anglophone countries, which share similar cultural and political traditions, such as Britain, the USA and Australia, it has been argued that social work is very much shaped by the local context in which it is taught and practised. In order to live and practise effectively in another country, social workers may therefore require additional training on institutions, legislation, language and the social norms of the country to which they relocate. (McDonald et al, 2003)

Professional integration also involves gaining an understanding of issues and priorities for the local service, and an understanding of social care values, and cultural and moral beliefs. The sharing of cultural differences in the forms of practice is considered to be of particular value in childcare services, and the above can be fostered through appropriate training and induction (Evans, 2007).

The issue of cultural awareness is of paramount importance to any new migrants in a new environment. Cultural differences in the way people relate to each other, child and family interactions and the myriad ways in which culture shapes our attitudes and behaviour as individuals present some of the greatest challenges to living, working or studying social welfare in a foreign country (White, 2006). A critical component of practice for any migrant social worker is to become cross-culturally competent in their newly adopted professional situation. Although cultural specificity has led some practitioners to question the credibility of 'foreigners' in social work or social work education, the ethnic background and/or language abilities of migrants can be advantageous. However, their existing cultural knowledge and skills are reportedly under-utilised by their employers, at least in New Zealand (Nash and Trlin, 2004: 35).

There is increased international movement of citizens, including social workers and service users (Garrett, 2006). Global changes have an impact locally, and professionals now need to be able to respond to a wider range of needs and social circumstances than previously. Globalisation has created a need for social workers to have cultural competence as a component of their professional competence, and their training needs to reflect this aspect of demand for a professional service (IASSW and IFSW, 2006).

The literature on integration suggests a consensus on the critical importance of context in social work knowledge and practice. Context defines relevance, and the applicability of social work in a particular environment. The issue of context however, remains a key area of debate between those advocates of indigenisation of social work and those who advocate the universalisation of basic social work principles. Lyons (2006) argues for seeing the world as a global society where both local and global responses can interact to ameliorate the conditions of global citizens and proposes a 'glocalisation' approach to social work practice, a fusion, where people think globally while acting locally.

Social work is described as a heavily context - dependent profession (Graham et al, 2006; Healy, 2004). While there is some agreement on basic human needs, how responses and resources attend to those needs varies greatly according to local circumstances and cultures. For this reason, while global standards for education and practice are significant, they cannot be the sole means for ensuring preparation for practice across cultures and countries (Pullen Sansfacon et al, 2012). There is agreement from most scholars on the fact that social work practice is shaped by local conditions, local procedures and local legislative framework, which therefore requires social work practitioners from a different context to adjust accordingly in order to practice effectively in a new context.

Regarding specific aspects of integration and assimilation, the literature suggests that most employers claim that they do provide support and training for their workers who arrive from overseas. However, the extent of this appears to vary between different employers. According to Experian (2007), many employers provide initial help, such as welcoming their new recruits at the airport and providing them with accommodation for the first six months. Some employers or recruitment agencies provide practical assistance in setting up bank accounts, shopping, helping with work permits, and one employer talked of cultural awareness training. According to the Experian study (2007), the stories vary from good to bad when the social workers were individually asked to give accounts of their experiences during their processes of migration to England.

The literature suggests that support required by overseas social workers when they arrive in England includes both basic training and induction, to enable them to familiarise themselves with their role and to start work smoothly. There is however, a lot of discussion by scholars, academics and policy makers, drawn on in the next section, as to the nature, adequacy and relevance of the training and induction offered by different local authorities across England and the UK at large.

3.17 Induction and training

The evidence emerging from the literature suggests that some overseas social workers receive induction, but there is little information given on the shape, form or relevance and depth of the induction. The extent appears to vary across different employers and there

is no standardisation of induction and training across the local authorities where such induction and training exist. Tinarwo (2011) reports that early Zimbabwean arrivals in her studied location received no induction, and some of those recruited later also reported having no induction (Tinarwo, 2011: 154)

Social work researchers in England have advocated induction programmes for such individuals that should: meet the needs of the overseas workers in terms of necessary professional development; serve the needs of agencies and service users for/with whom these individuals will work; and contribute to the validation and recognition of the prior experiences of overseas workers and maintain or restore their professional competence (Hayes and Humphries, 2004; Simpson, 2009; Hussein et al., 2010). According to several different research studies conducted in the UK, induction programmes are on offer for newly recruited social workers. The nature, duration and scope of these varies greatly however, and in many cases they have been judged not to be sufficient to the specific needs of migrant social workers (Khan and Dominelli, 2000; Hayes and Humphries, 2004; White, 2006; Evans et al., 2007; Experian, 2007; Welbourne et al., 2007; Simpson, 2009).

According to Experian (2007), the induction programmes provided in the UK are often inadequate to the complex needs of overseas social workers, some of whom would have experienced an immense transformation in their lives. They were often informal and very short suggesting that many employers were not following Induction Standards in the UK as advised by SCIE in 2006.

Some of the social workers recruited from abroad needed support with adjusting to the different job culture in the UK and it is observed that most have found it easy to adjust if they receive good training and induction. It has also been observed that transnational social workers come with a range of qualifications and practice competencies and experience that may not only contribute to the local professional context, but also indeed expand it as intervention models and skills sets developed overseas can be put into practice in new settings. Thus in the process of integration a cross-pollination may occur which can bring benefits to both the profession and client communities (Bartley et al, 2012).

Lyons and Littlechild (2006) argue that an in-depth analysis of the training and induction programmes offered by recruiting local authorities remain unaddressed in relation to the needs of these new social work recruits. This is especially so from developing countries such as Zimbabwe, where cultural adaptation plays a crucial role and the lack of analysis of the issues affecting social workers in particular, during their transition process from Zimbabwe to England.

The context within which the recruitment of overseas social workers occurs in England cannot be fully understood without appreciating, albeit briefly, policy guidance and ethical issues in the UK in relation to foreign recruitment, as is discussed below.

3.18 Restrictions on foreign recruitment into the United Kingdom

Evans (2007) states that social work is classified as a priority occupation by the Home Office, allowing visa applications to be fast tracked within four weeks. It was not surprising therefore, that in an effort to ameliorate the effects of staffing shortages many councils with Social Services Responsibilities (CSSRs) recruited social workers either from other countries, employing overseas staff directly or indirectly through employment agencies. The Experian Report, for Skills for Care and Development (2007) reported that the majority of employers that recruit from overseas said it had been successful, and they would continue this in the future. Any further restrictions on the recruitment of overseas social workers were assumed likely to have a negative impact on new social workers from developing countries especially. The above prompts discussion below of the issue of the voluntary non- binding Social Care Code of Practice for International Recruitment, which was directly linked to the recruitment process for overseas social workers.

3.19 Social care code of practice for international recruitment

The Department of Health (DoH) in 2006 introduced a voluntary declaration called the *Social Care Code of Practice for International Recruitment* that aimed to influence international recruitment processes in social care. This was the only guidance for those involved in international recruitment of social care workers in general. However, this code of practice was voluntary and non-obligatory, and is no longer promoted. (see Appendix 7)

The Principle 2 of the Code specifies that international recruitment should only be conducted in countries where social care staff are in plentiful supply and that international social care staff will be expected to demonstrate a level of English language proficiency consistent with safe and skilled communication with clients, carers and colleagues. Principle 5 of the Code further states that international social care staff will have a level of knowledge and proficiency equivalent to that expected of an individual trained and recruited in the UK by the end of their induction period, among other crucial requirements.

Evans et al (2007) contend that the Code recognises the complexities of international recruitment and specifies actions that employers should take when planning international recruitment campaigns. The reality is that the Social Care Institute for Excellence, a non-governmental body, cannot enforce any of the principles above, but can only encourage those involved in international social care recruitment to observe its provisions.

3.20 Ethical issues associated with international social worker recruitment from developing countries

There is a consensus in the literature review that recruiting social workers from developing countries raises ethical issues, given the fact that the above countries need social workers more than England. In common with the recruitment of professionals in other areas of the global labour market, the movement of trained staff is primarily from financially poorer countries to richer ones (OECD, 2004). Lyons and Huegler (2012), suggest that there are both individual and structural dimensions of the ethical issues raised in relation to international labour mobility. Individually, social workers share with the general population the right to leave their country and seek the best conditions for themselves and their families e.g. in terms of access to work, health or education.

3.21 Effects of migration in relation to overseas Zimbabwean social workers

Historically, Zimbabwe's international migration involved largely white people entering or leaving the country and importing labour from neighbouring countries like Zambia and Malawi, this has now changed, with the country having become a major personnel exporter (Tevera and Zinyama, 2002). Educated and skilled people have been lost at a

rate faster than they can be replaced. This has increased the workload of the remaining employees, leading to poorer services. Increased migration from Zimbabwe has also resulted in loss of tax revenue from potential earners (Bloch, 2005). As previously stated by Hall (2006), Chetsanga (2003) and Batty (2003) among others, the migration of skilled workers to developed countries from African countries, including Zimbabwe, has left a serious skills shortage in Africa where they are needed most.

Dayton-Johnson (2009) argues that the effects of migration on employment have many facets. The migration of low-skilled workers might result in rising wages or a relaxation of the local labour market in areas with high rates of emigration and an oversupply of labour. Dayton-Johnson (2009) further states that the outflow of skilled workers deprives developing countries of their human capital with serious consequences on the delivery of key services like education or health care, and on economic productivity. Dayton-Johnson further state that, in contrast, overseas work experience might provide opportunities to improve skills and further knowledge, while others whose qualifications are not recognised in their receiving country, may see their skills diminish while abroad, making return difficult.

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Roberts (2008) argues that the governments of sending countries should explore the reasons why so many people are migrating from their countries. Efforts could also be made to attract emigrants back home. Ghana, for example, increased the wages for its medical staff and encourages them to work abroad for a certain period to gain overseas experience and then to return.

Katseli *et al* (2006) argue that essentially, the public focus is more on the negative aspects, ignoring the good things that the migration process brings with it. On a positive note, migrant workers send remittances home to support their families, so that they can buy daily commodities like food, fuel and medication (Pasura, 2008a). It is also believed that essentially, Migrants also maintain multiple relations across borders at the familial, social, economic, political, organisational and cultural levels, which assist them to link countries of origin and host countries. The links that are formed between the sending and

receiving countries improve communication, thereby enhancing market activities between the two countries (Katseli *et al*, 2006).

Immigrants have in general been a significant source of labour for developed countries, leading to an increase in economic activity. In the UK part of a Zimbabwe diaspora sample Bloch found that the largest employment sector was health and social work, and the largest number were working in carer/care assistant roles, followed by nursing (Bloch, 2005). Those involved with recruiting overseas social workers have testified that employees from overseas are hardworking, loyal and high quality people (Hussein *et al*., 2010; Community Care, 2004).

3.22 Brain Drain

The tendency for skilled and educated professionals to leave their countries of origin in search of better returns for their investment is referred to as the 'brain drain' (Iredale, 2001, p 7-24). With the recognition of networks of skilled workers in circulation, many social scientists and national policymakers have tended to shift from the term 'brain drain' to notions of the globalisation of human capital, brain exchange, brain circulation and the creation of a global mobile workforce (Vertovec, 2002).

Chetsanga and Muchenje (2003) argue that the brain drain has certainly remained one of the greatest developments challenges facing Zimbabwe. It has been driven by a combination of *push* and *pull* factors, both socioeconomic and political in character. Zimbabwe's brain drain can be attributed to unfulfilled expectations relative to political freedoms, uncompetitive salaries, poor working conditions, limited career development and opportunities, issues of governance and social security and attendant benefits.

3.23 Benefits of migration for overseas Zimbabwean social workers

An analysis of the available literature suggests that there are obvious benefits derived by migrating from a poor country such as Zimbabwe to an affluent country like England, where there are opportunities for enhancing personal development as well as enjoying a relatively good life. There are also considerable opportunities for Zimbabwean social workers to develop knowledge and skills through experiences in England. The

environment in England fosters a sense of career development and personal advancement for ambitious people. Tinarwo (2011: 166) reports examples of further professional training and academic qualifications obtained with the assistance of the employer.

It can only be assumed that migrant social workers who subsequently return home bring with them a wealth of experience, knowledge and specialised skills from working in another country. It is believed that this wealth of experience will be beneficial to their country of origin that is if they decide to go back into practice or impart the knowledge and skills to fellow citizens through other means.

3.24 Conceptualising Knowledge

This section focuses primarily on the literature on the definition of knowledge, types of knowledge in general, social work knowledge, and skills and knowledge transfer, as part of the experience of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England and the relevance of knowledge and skills transferred from Zimbabwe to England.

The advent of the knowledge economy in the late 1980s brought the focus on knowledge as an important source of wealth for countries. Knowledge is considered a key driver for creating new ideas and innovation, raising productivity and increasing competitiveness (Foray 2006; Huggins and Izushi 2007). This has resulted in an increased and continuous employment demand for highly skilled people.

The definition of knowledge can vary, depending on the types or forms of knowledge being discussed. The concept ‘knowledge’, its definition, source, and the forms and methods in which it is acquired have been the subject of study since the time of the philosophical debates by Aristotle and Plato. Knowledge (in the abstract) comes from perception or from experience acquired in circumstances and by various means that is kept in memory (Piaget, 1970).

Many more focused definitions of knowledge exist; one of the most relevant to this thesis is the one by Davenport and Prusak (1998) pg 4 which states;

> "Knowledge is a flux mix of framed experiences, values, contextual information, and expert insights that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organisational routines, processes, practices, norms and cultures".

However, for the purposes of this study it is important to discuss types of knowledge and knowledge transfer specifically in the context of social work. The sociological underpinnings of knowledge help in understanding the context within which social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe can be transferred to England. Culturally, overseas Zimbabwean social workers come from a completely different society, with its own set of norms and values. It is in this vein therefore, that one can understand the challenges overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England face in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills to a different society.

3.25 Types of Knowledge

There are many different forms or types of knowledge in general. The conceptualisation of knowledge has moved to some extent since Polanyi's (1966) recognition of a binary divide between tacit and explicit forms, even though the resulting literature remains heavily indebted to this. In contemporary knowledge debates, the starting point for any discussion is Polanyi's (1966) seminal work that distinguishes between tacit and explicit knowledge. Knowledge can be either tacit or explicit. Tacit knowledge exists in either the heads of individuals or a collective body, and has been acquired through experience and repetitive actions (Kostova, 1996). Explicit knowledge, which can exist either individually or collectively, is documented and can be transferred in a formal and systematic way through rules, policies, and procedures (Pablos, 2004; Polanyi, 1962).

3.26 Tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge

Polanyi's (1958) distinction between tacit and explicit knowledge is the usual starting point in this literature. Tacit knowledge, which is akin to the highly personal knowledge that individuals may find difficult to express, can often only be transferred between individuals face to face.

Knowledge explicitness refers to the extent to which knowledge is verbalised, written, drawn or otherwise articulated; highly tacit knowledge is hard to articulate, and is acquired through experience (Polanyi 1966a), whereas explicit knowledge is transmittable in formal, systematic language. As stated by Polanyi (1966a), individuals know more than they can explain. This is because individuals have knowledge that is non-verbalised, intuitive, and unarticulated. Polanyi (1962) defined such knowledge as 'tacit.' Tacit knowledge is hard to communicate, and is deeply rooted in action, involvement and commitment within a specific context and it is considered to be a continuous activity of knowing.

According to Polanyi (1962), the tacit dimension of knowledge defines and gives meaning to its complementary explicit dimension. That is, the inarticulable tacit aspect of knowledge is only known by an awareness of it through a sensing of its corresponding explicit complement (Polanyi, 1966a). Tacit knowledge is contrasted with explicit or propositional knowledge. Very loosely, tacit knowledge collects all those things that we know how to do but perhaps do not know how to explain. In Polanyi's writings, tacit knowledge means that there is a type of knowledge that is not captured by language or mathematics. Because of this elusive character, we can see it only by its action.

According to Fodor (1981), tacit knowledge is knowledge that the actor knows he has (how to catch a ball, tie a knot, mark a line) but which he cannot, nonetheless, describe in terms other than its own (skillful) performance. So, tacit knowledge is knowledge we have, and know we have, but nonetheless cannot put into words. This raises the question as to whether tacit knowledge is transferrable. Fodor (1981) further states that tacit knowledge is embedded in the human brain, cannot be expressed easily, and requires extensive personal contact, mentorship networks, knowledge maps and video conferencing.

Blacker's (2002) typology of different types of knowledge is relevant for migration because like the tacit and explicit distinction, it refers to knowledge that is intrinsic to individuals, which can be carried between locations, and knowledge, which is more difficult to transfer through mobility, which is developed through interpersonal interactions. The above

typology has resonance to the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers attempting to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England.

The above knowledge types are broadly relevant to social work but there is also knowledge that is specific to the social work profession, whether someone trained in Zimbabwe or England, and this is referred to as social work knowledge.

3.27 Knowledge in social work

The literature suggests that the knowledge base of social work derives from many sources and is subject to ongoing debate. Crucially, the areas of knowledge and knowledge transfer are complex and for this reason, this chapter will confine the discussion to social work and related knowledge

Askeland & Payne (2001) argue that most social work literature is developed and written from an urban perspective, in relation to social policy, social problems, and how to understand and deal with them. Academics producing social work knowledge are mainly situated in urban environments. If they write about rural issues, this will be from a visitor's or outsider's perspective. Countries, including the USA, UK and many in Europe, where much of the professional literature is produced, have urban societies, whereas countries where the international literature is used, such as Africa, Asia, Australasia and the Scandinavian countries, have strong rural communities. Knowledge developed from an urban perspective, may be difficult to use for social workers in rural settings (Askeland & Payne, 2001). The above underpins the understanding that social work knowledge is context-specific but transferrable to a certain extent, with adaptations where necessary. Different approaches derived from various contexts may be required to produce valid knowledge in different settings.

Social work draws on its own constantly developing theoretical foundation, according to the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW, 2014), as well as theories from other human sciences, including but not limited to community development, social pedagogy, administration, anthropology, ecology, economics, education, management, nursing, psychiatry, psychology, public health, and sociology. The uniqueness of theories in social work is that they are applied and emancipatory. Much of social work theory is

co-constructed with service users in an interactive, dialogic process and therefore informed by specific practice environments.

Trevithick (2008) highlights the complexities that underpin the way that knowledge is acquired, used and created within social work, and in ways that embody the knowledge that all parties bring to the encounter. In particular, she argues that the knowledge that service users and carers contribute is more than experience and also includes knowledge—theoretical, factual and personal and practical knowledge. Trevithick (2008) also talks about knowledge creation, but pays very little attention to the transfer of that knowledge, particularly from outside the developed world such as by overseas social workers (including Zimbabweans) working in the British social care system.

Having outlined the different types of knowledge, it is therefore important to consider how knowledge is transferred from one person or particular situation to another. This leads to a debate on what exactly is knowledge transfer and how that knowledge transferred, particularly within social work circles across international frontiers, for instance from a Zimbabwean practice context to a UK context.

3.28 Knowledge transfer

This section will focus on knowledge transfer to England from overseas Zimbabwean social workers through one to one interaction, group or institutional arrangements. The section also draws information from knowledge transfer phenomena elsewhere.

Transferability of knowledge is pivotal to this study and attention will be given to factors that both facilitate and hinder this process. The literature reveals that most studies do not significantly cover the area of social work knowledge transfer particularly involving overseas social workers. Analysis of knowledge transfer in social work is still a relatively new phenomenon compared to its application in management, information and technological fields. According to Newman and Conrad (1999: 3-4), knowledge transfer "refers to activities associated with the flow of knowledge from one party to the other. This includes communication, translation, conversion, filtering and rendering". Lochhead and Stephens (2004) stress that knowledge transfer refers more specifically to processes that

achieve the effective sharing of knowledge among individuals, business units, departments or even different branches.

Knowledge transfer has also been defined as an attempt by an entity to copy a specific type of knowledge from another entity (Rogers, 1983). Others have analysed knowledge transfer by focusing on such elements as speed, extent, effectiveness, and institutionalisation. It is neither about how quickly knowledge is transferred (speed) nor how much of the knowledge is transferred (extent). Instead, knowledge transfer is about ensuring that efforts provide the desired results (effectiveness) and ensuring that the new knowledge becomes embedded within the organisation's fabric (institutionalisation). Knowledge transfer is therefore defined as either the identical or the partial replication of knowledge from one place to another and involving both a provider and a receiver (Kostova, 1996; Szulanski, 1996). Any discussion of knowledge to be transferred must focus on three dimensions: type, embodiment, and transformation (Song et al, 2003; Szulanski, 1996).

In his contribution to the debate on knowledge transfer, Berthoin (2011) describes knowledge transfer as less likely to occur if there is no recognition or desire to draw upon the experiences of individuals who have acquired unique knowledge abroad.

Baldwin and Ford (1988) define knowledge transfer as the generalisation to the work situation of knowledge, competence, and attitudes acquired during training, and Taylor (1997) states that in the professional world, knowledge transfer refers to a situation where a worker who has participated in a training programme succeeds in applying in his work the knowledge and skills acquired.

The above demonstrates the informal element of knowledge transfer, especially through social networks in the workplace. Interactions between actors, the contextual environment, the available equipment, and existing standards can also be sources of knowledge/skills transfer and sharing within an organisation.

The literature review reveals that the concept of knowledge transfer is more familiar in technical or technological fields, in which the emphasis is on the scientific nature of the concept. As mentioned earlier, there is not much information in the public domain

regarding knowledge transfer in social sciences, and in social work in particular: hence the interest in this area of research.

On a more micro basis, knowledge can be seen as knowledge packages, embedded in different structural elements of an organisation, such as in the people and their skills, the technical tools, and the routines and systems used by the organisation, as well as in the networks formed between and among these elements (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Leonard-Barton, 1992). From this perspective, knowledge transfer involves the re-creation of a source's knowledge-related elements – its knowledge package – in the recipient (Winter, 1995). According to Bruneel et al (2009), successful knowledge transfer is as much dependent on the capacity of business to absorb new knowledge as it is on the capability of the knowledge base to provide it in a relevant form. The challenge for success in knowledge transfer is to address both the inherent barriers in knowledge transfer arising from the nature of knowledge itself, together with managerial and organisational good practice in building collaborative relationships,

Knowledge transfer is often associated with the application of knowledge or skills to solve a particular problem. This knowledge or these skills are generally acquired through training, considered as the first mechanism of knowledge transfer, (Sabri et al, 2004).

One suggestion is that the very term 'transfer' of knowledge is misleading. That suggests the 'conduit metaphor' of knowledge, as if knowledge is a physical good transported along a communication 'channel'. A 'food for thought' metaphor would be more appropriate: in order to yield thought, information has to be assimilated in a cognitive interpretation system (Nooteboom, 2001).

Part of knowledge 'transfer' is to adapt information to that system, based on communicative ability, and to develop the absorptive capacity of that system (Faye et al, 2008). When knowledge is 'externalised' (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995), reduction takes place: knowledge is disembedded from cognitive frameworks or categories that are and remain tacit to some degree. When the recipient absorbs this, it needs to be absorbed again into his cognitive framework, which entails re-embedding in background knowledge

that is again, to a smaller or larger extent, tacit. The transfer of knowledge requires sufficient fit between this dis-embedding and re-embedding. This is the issue of crossing cognitive distance (Nooteboom, 2001). The above arguments illustrate the complexities involved in transferring knowledge from one context to the other and are relevant to this study given the different contexts involved in transferring knowledge by overseas Zimbabwean social workers from Zimbabwe to England.

Szulanski (1996) developed the notion of 'internal stickiness' to refer to the difficulty of transferring knowledge within organisations. He identifies four sets of factors influencing the difficulty of knowledge transfer: characteristics of the knowledge transferred (i.e. causal ambiguity, unprovenness), of the source (i.e. lack of motivation, not perceived as reliable), of the recipient (i.e. lack of motivation and absorptive capacity), and of the context in which the transfer takes place (i.e. barren organizational context, arduous relationships). The findings of the empirical part of his study showed that the major barriers to internal knowledge transfer are the recipient's lack of absorptive capacity, causal ambiguity, and an arduous relationship between the source and the recipient.

It is through the vehicle of language that practices, meanings, values and ideologies are taught and learned. Therefore, proficiency in the local language by international assignees facilitates the transfer process. Yet, as Brannen (2004) has shown, transnational transfers involve much more than the transfer of linguistic signals. Transferring the linguistic signals alone does not ensure that the meanings attached to them are transferred. Sense making occurs in context, and when context is not shared, meanings are often lost (Brannen, 2004).

Once knowledge is acquired, one must make adjustments such that it can fit into the new context. That is, it needs to be transformed to be applicable in the new environment where it will be employed. This transformation is another dimension of the knowledge transfer process. It is the ability to recognize and exploit technological opportunities within the organization (Garud and Nayyar, 1994). There are certain things specific to knowledge and its transfer, which require that it be adapted for the new conditions in which it will be applied. In order for this transformation to occur, the organisation must first determine how best to acquire and keep knowledge within the organisation. This study also explores

the issue of adaptability by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in their quest to transfer knowledge acquired from Zimbabwe to England.

Transfer of new knowledge requires adjustments in capacities of absorption and communication between the knowledge careers and those receiving it. Macaulay (2001) suggests a number of factors that may facilitate transfer of learning. These include providing an initial context for transfer of learning by, for example, focusing on the learner, with explicit attention to the learner's way of learning; and providing a safe environment in which learning, induction and training may take place. The transfer process includes ensuring that initial learning is securely achieved and that the learner can see and understand the connections between the original learning and the new situation, enabling the learner to have practical experience in a structured and organised way of the old learning in the new situation, and encouraging reflection on the experience.

One element of the literature suggests the transfer of knowledge refers to learning in one context and applying it to another. "Transfer of training is of paramount concern for training researchers and practitioners. Despite research efforts, there is concern over the "transfer" (Baldwin and Ford, 1988: pp. 63-103). Also linked to the transfer of knowledge in the present study is the transfer of skills and values, social work skills and values, across international frontiers.

It has also been proposed in the innovation literature that knowledge transfer is not a matter of simple, linear transfer. Rather, it requires an ongoing process of interaction, as in the 'chain-linked model' of Kline and Rosenberg (1986). The implication of the above is that knowledge transfer is not a straightforward process, as it relies on those factors that ensure its smooth transmission between people or organisations; and equally, there are obstacles to this process.

3.29 Skills and skills transfer

Skills can be defined as the ability and capacity, acquired through deliberate, systematic and sustained effort, to smoothly and adaptively carry out the complex activities or job functions involving ideas, which can be seen as cognitive skills. Furthermore, skills are defined as expertness, practised ability, facility in doing something, dexterity and tact.

Skill encompasses experience and practice, and the gaining of skill leads to unconscious and automatic actions (Lawler and Mohrman, 2003).

According to Lawler and Mohrman (2003), skill is more than just the following of rule-based actions. The potential downside of such an attribute is that, in the absence of knowledge and attitudes, such a "skilled" person may have no ability or capacity to react to situations outside the normal condition. Lawler and Mohrman (2003) further suggest that without the knowledge and attitudes contributing to competence, such skills alone can be demonstrated as causative factors in human error. Put alternatively, skills alone, without knowledge and attitudes, can be dangerous - knowledge and attitudes must support skills.

According to Moriarty (2011), evidence to the Social Work Task Force (SWTF, 2009) suggested a consensus on the main skills, knowledge, and personal characteristics that social workers in England were thought to need in order to do their jobs effectively. When entering the profession, social workers were thought to need a good working knowledge of the legislative framework; local systems and resources; the roles and responsibilities of other professionals; and new research. They were also thought to need the following skills: decision-making skills; interpersonal skills; effective communication skills; drafting skills; analytical skills; and the ability to strike a balance between sympathising and challenging (Social Work Task Force, 2009). The above is a summation of the most basic skills that social workers in general require to be able to perform their day-to-day tasks, and it is arguably therefore these skills that overseas social workers are expected to possess in order to effectively discharge their duties in England.

Vigilante (1985) states that the problem of the transfer of professional social work skills from one country to another has long been a matter of concern for social workers in the international community, for social work educators, and for potential students desiring to earn a social work degree in a country other than their own. Vigilante (1985) further states that concerns about transferability seem to grow from the fact that social work practice is closely associated with the social and cultural fabric of communities, that practice skills and education for practice must be derived from these cultures and customs, perhaps

specific to each culture. In the past, the issue of skill transfer has referred to skills learned in the United States and United Kingdom and their application in other countries. It is important to explore the transfer of knowledge and skills from developing countries such as Zimbabwe to England and illustrate how this process has developed.

3.30 Knowledge and skills transfer by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England

There is a dearth of literature on the success of knowledge and skills transfer by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. Only one case study, by Tinarwo (2011) has explored the area of knowledge and skills transferability in a limited way although her study's focus was principally focus on the issues around social capital and the general experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in one Major City in England.

The other studies, carried out by King's College Social Care Workforce Research Unit (Hussein et al, 2008, 2009 and 2010), (White, 2006) and (Evans, 2004 and 2007) do not specifically address the issues of knowledge and skills transferability fully, though they mention them as part of the wider experiences of overseas social workers in England and the UK in general.

Tinarwo's (2011) study of Zimbabwean social workers in a Major City focuses on the processes of and complexities of recruitment of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, but with no detailed content on practice issues such as knowledge and skills transfer. Tinarwo (2011)'s study, which was based on 24 interviews and 14 completed questionnaires, therefore provides information on relevant contextual issues; but not much specific information on the themes identified in this study in the areas of globalisation and social work practice, and knowledge and skills transfer. Tinarwo (2011)'s study therefore overlaps geographically and possibly with some respondents, to the current study undertaken about four years later. It is significant in understanding the overall process of migration from Zimbabwe and the importance of social capital and social networks for overseas Zimbabwean social workers in one part of England and how this relates to knowledge and skills transfer.

The critical issue for this present study is whether and under what conditions social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe are transferrable to England, given the current widening differences in training, legislative frameworks, funding criteria, practice organisation, values and cultures between Zimbabwe and England. Kaseke (2001) argues that problems are likely to arise because of cultural and societal value differences and significant differences in the social work curricula and training methods between the developmental and generic social work model in Zimbabwe and a competence based specialist model in England.

The literature review reveals the existence of an abundance of clear policies and procedures and robust child care legislation in England, in comparison to a background of poor resources, poor procedures and non-existent (in some respects) and weak legislation in Zimbabwe, may affect the ability of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to transfer knowledge and skills to England. The various literature on social work appear to suggest that social work principles are universal and that generic forms of practice are easily adaptable; hence it is easy to transfer skills from one setting to the other, provided one is offered reasonable training and induction. It is against the above background that this study seeks to investigate the transferability of skills and knowledge, and what obstacles they have encountered in their attempts to transfer their skills, knowledge and values acquired from Zimbabwe to the UK context.

The key issue for this study is the transferability of knowledge and skills via the international migration of social workers, and how effective or difficult this process is. Transferability of knowledge and skills to a foreign context is complex, and despite acquiring a transferable skill set, migrants may be regarded as lacking in understanding of local knowledge and of the demands of the host society (Simpson, 2009). These concerns may lead to migrant professionals experiencing discrimination and prejudice, fuelled by perceived non-comparability of qualifications and barriers with regard to language and culture (Larsen, 2007), resulting in a diminished sense of self-esteem in the professional role.

3.31 Summary

This literature review addressed key available material on the recruitment and experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. Their experiences, which were largely of a professional and social nature, were found to be varied and diverse, consistent with the forces of globalisation and social workers' migration trajectories. There is emerging evidence from the review suggesting a potential link between globalisation, social work and knowledge and skills transfer in general. The literature review explored general theoretical issues and how globalisation can influence the motivations of overseas Zimbabwean social workers to migrate to England to seek career opportunities and better standards of living. The literature review has also considered the views and perspectives of different scholars on the concept of knowledge, types of knowledge; globalisation, knowledge and skills transfer in respect of migration and where possible in respect of overseas social workers, including those from Zimbabwe. The review has identified gaps in the information and research regarding globalisation and social work, knowledge and a skill transfer and has identified key arguments and highlighted areas of convergence and divergence on the social work context of knowledge and skills and their transferability.

Methodologically, there are several different research strategies that have been previously used in this area of study, including case studies, mixed methods and mono research methods such as surveys and qualitative studies. Qualitative research methods have been used by a number of scholars and appeared to be the most appropriate to address the research questions of this exploratory study.

The literature is consistent with and reflects the scarcity of significant official empirical data since 2010, especially in relation to overseas social worker recruitment, their experiences and their ability to transfer social work knowledge and skills to England. This constitutes a major gap of research-based information and knowledge in this area. The review also highlights perceived areas of similarity and difference in social work knowledge, skills and practice between Zimbabwe and England. Ethical issues associated with overseas recruitment, and views on the effects and the benefits of migration abroad on Zimbabwean professionals were explored. The next chapter

provides a detailed outline of the methodological framework, research strategies and techniques that were used to gather the empirical data

Chapter Four

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology employed in this study. The generation of data and information pertaining to the research topic is described in relation to the research aims and objectives. The chapter presents the research statement, rationale and overview of the study, research questions, research design, ethical considerations, data collection methods, reliability and validity issues. Hessler (1992) describes methodology as the science of research decisions, which provides rules and norms for the researcher to evaluate the decisions for the chosen approach and implement them in the research. Crotty (1988) defines methodology as the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods, and linking the choice and the use of methods to the desired outcomes. Other authors state that methodology focuses on how the researcher gains knowledge about the social world and these include Strauss & Corbin, (1998) & Robson (2002). This element of the study was largely guided by the views of the above scholars/researchers.

Previous studies of overseas social worker recruitment by a number of scholars have used both single and mixed methods approaches to study the recruitment and experiences of overseas social workers in the UK in general. This study builds on the above by exploring the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England; in particular, how they have transferred their social work knowledge and skills across borders. Primarily, this Case Study applies a qualitative research methodology, one that among other methodologies was considered the most suitable for this type of research. Globalisation is applied as a conceptual framework or tool of analysis as previously discussed in Chapter 2. Cognisant of the above, the research methodology draws out the general and specific experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England as knowledge and skills carriers. The sampling method/s and sample frame (including population) of the study are defined; researcher bias, Ethical issues, and the implications of the study and data analysis are also specifically discussed in this chapter. Despite

issues of insider research, in the research process good research ethical standards were maintained throughout the research.

4.2 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the case study is to synthesise and contextualise the evidence regarding the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, and to contribute to the body of research and knowledge on overseas social worker mobility across international frontiers and the ability to transfer social work knowledge and skills. This is in view of significant gaps in the existing research, with regard to what is known about knowledge and skills transfer by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England and how globalisation and its different dimensions influence this process.

Saunders *et al* (2003) describe the research purpose as being exploratory, descriptive, analytical or predictive. Collis and Hussey (2003) explain that exploratory research is conducted into a problem or issue when there are very few or no earlier studies from which conclusions can be drawn. Robson (2002) defines exploratory research as a valuable means of finding out what is happening, to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light.

4.3 Qualitative Study

A qualitative approach was chosen for this exploratory case study and was found to be the most appropriate research strategy in answering the stated research questions, as the principal aim was to investigate relatively complex issues regarding knowledge and skills transfer by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. A second aim was to generate data or themes necessary for an in-depth understanding of the aforementioned, and a third was to gain a deeper understanding into the process of knowledge transfer through the study of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England as a relatively newly researched group, which is very mobile and transient. The choice of the above qualitative approach was consistent with the focus on overseas Zimbabwean social workers as part of a larger heterogeneous cohort of skilled international social work migrants based in England.

This case study used a multi-site approach including two London boroughs and a Major City in the midlands as the main research sites. These were purposively selected as the areas with significant numbers of overseas Zimbabwean social workers working in the Children's Social Care system in England. The selected research sites were considered to be ethnically diverse. The two sites were practicable and easily accessible for the researcher, in view of the limited time available to conduct the research, as well as minimising any problems encountered in devising a sampling frame. The choice of multiple sites instead of a single study site was expected to make the results stronger and potentially increase the robustness of any conclusions developed from observed findings (Yin, 1993). De Vaus (2001) states that researchers should select a setting that they know something about and should consider whether it meets particular requirements. Having worked and lived in both London and the Major City as a social worker, the researcher chose to target the sample population carefully in order to involve as many potential respondents as possible. The next section highlights some of the research methods that could have been used in this study and considers the most suited method to answer the research questions.

The aim of qualitative methodology, according to Ohman (2005), is to develop new knowledge based on participants' own beliefs, words and experiences, not on pre-defined, testable hypotheses. It is inductive rather than deductive, and it is interpretative rather than predictive. The design is flexible, iterative and emergent and therefore requires of the researcher an ability to change and adapt the research process in accordance with emerging results. Qualitative research is thus different from quantitative research, as it allows for flexibility throughout the research process and for this reason was also more suitable for this type of investigation (Ohman, 2005).

Qualitative research has its foundation on an interpretative orientation that focuses on a complex process of making sense and preserving the meaning of data (Liamputtong and Ezzy, 2005). Qualitative research aims *'to capture lived experiences of the social world and the meanings people give to these experiences from their own perspectives' (Corti and Thompson 2004, p. 326)*.

Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005) state that "*qualitative research cannot be described in terms of a set of theories and techniques that always apply. Rather, qualitative research draws on a variety of theoretical perspectives and practical techniques, including theories such as phenomenology, symbolic interactionism, cultural studies, psychology, feminism; and techniques such as interviewing, narrative analysis, ethnography, and focus groups" (p. 2).*

Qualitative researchers claim that the experiences of people are essentially context bound; that is, they cannot be free from time and location or the mind of the human actor. Researchers must understand that socially constructed nature of the world and realise that values and interests become part of the research process. Complete objectivity and neutrality are impossible to achieve, the values of researchers and participants can become an integral part of the research (Smith, 1983).

Qualitative research builds knowledge through induction; that is, it uses the observation of phenomena to develop generalisations to explain or describe relationships (Marlow 2005). According to Bryman, (2004) Qualitative research emphasises an inductive approach, and it rejects the concepts of positivism in preference for an emphasis on the ways individuals interpret their social world and have a view of social reality as a constantly shifting property created by individuals.

Bryman (1988) supports the idea that qualitative research is a naturalistic, interpretive approach concerned with understanding the meanings which people attach to phenomena (actions, beliefs, decisions and values) in their social worlds by stating that *'the way in which people being studied understand and interpret their social reality is one of the central motives of qualitative research'* Bryman (1988, p.8).

However, Mason (1996) acknowledges that there is no consensus on what constitutes qualitative research, and it is no surprise that qualitative research does not represent a unified set of techniques or philosophies, and that it has grown out of a variety of intellectual and disciplinary sources.

Further, one of the limitations of qualitative research, as noted by Padgett (1998), & Winter (2000) is that invariably, only small numbers of subjects can be studied, because

data collection methods are so labour intensive. It is often criticised for being subject to researcher bias; difficulties in analysing data rigorously, and a lack of reproducibility and generalisability of the findings. There are concerns about limits of the capacity to generalise from qualitative research findings. According to Wainwright (1997), proponents of qualitative research argue that there are strategies available to the qualitative researcher to overcome the potential biases and limitations of the qualitative approach. In qualitative research, it is the quality of the insight that is important rather than the number of people who share that insight.

The researcher acknowledges the above limitations of the qualitative approach but believes that the benefits of using this method in this specific type of migration related study outweigh the limitations, especially in comparison with the alternative research methods available.

Other research methods such as quantitative method and multi-methods were considered for this study but were found to be less suitable in addressing the particular research questions.

4.4 Rationale for choosing the qualitative research method

Holiday (2007) argues that it is possible to devise a qualitative research approach for Almost every conceivable scenario, and also states that 'it is therefore very clear that one does not begin by choosing a method…methods can be sufficiently flexible to grow naturally from the research question and in turn, from the nature of the social setting in which the research is carried out' (p.20). A qualitative research method was identified as the best overall way of exploring the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers, including their ability to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to the UK.

Given that this study sets out to explore the nature and ways of transferring knowledge and skills in which the social context of globalisation may influence the process of transferability from one context to another, it seemed most appropriately suited to a qualitative research methodology. In essence, qualitative research attempts to understand how social context influences a given phenomenon. It is grounded in the

Interpretive Tradition, which takes the position that any study of human behaviour must consider the social context that shapes such behaviour (Bryman, 2004, p13, 540). Under this premise, the most pertinent questions in this study were regarding the interpretations of overseas Zimbabwean social workers' experiences of transferring knowledge and skills to the UK. It is therefore, the researcher's view that the interpretive nature of the chosen method would make it is easier to explore the extent and depth with which knowledge and skills were transferred by the overseas Zimbabwean social workers through their own individual stories. Understanding the other methods aforementioned helped the researcher in making useful comparisons, looking at the advantages and disadvantages of each method before choosing the qualitative research method as the primary one for this study.

4.5 Research design

A Case Study design was used in this small-scale explorative study about the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in relation to the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England. Johnson and Christensen (2004) contend that the outline, plan, or strategy used to arrive at findings addressing a research question is called the research design. Research design essentially refers to the plan or strategy of shaping the research (Henn, Weinstein and Foard, 2006), and might include the entire process of research, from conceptualising a problem, to writing research questions, and on to data collection, analysis, interpretation and report writing (Creswell, 2007). Polit and Hungler (1995) argue that research designs are of a varied nature especially regarding the extent at which the researcher imposes on the research situation and how much flexibility is in the process?

According to Labaree (2009) a case study is an in-depth study of a particular research problem instead of using a sweeping statistical survey. This chosen research design is often used in social science research to narrow down a very broad field into one or a few easily researchable examples. This case study research design was considered useful in investigating the phenomenon of international social worker recruitment with particular reference to knowledge and skills transfer.

4.6 Pilot study

A pilot study was carried out to test individual semi-structured interview questions using six overseas Zimbabwean social workers who were conveniently selected by the researcher due to their availability. The participants in the face-to-face pilot study did not take part in the main interviews of the study. Their omission from taking part in the main study was deliberate; to avoid the disaggregation of the research findings as answering the question for the second time is not the same as first time.

The aim of the pilot was to explore how easy and manageable it was to ask the questions. The pilot process involved according to Naoum (1998) testing the wording of the questions, identifying ambiguous questions, testing the technique to be used to collect data and measuring the effectiveness of the standard invitation to respondents. Piloting offers a good basis for assessing some important issues the researcher may be concerned about, such as the level of difficulty of questions, willingness to answer sensitive questions, and the time it takes to answer all questions (Brace, 2004; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2002; Saunders *et al.* 2003).

The results of the pilot study showed that some of the initial questions were unclear while others were duplicated and a few were leading questions so that they did not yield much interview data. These issues were addressed by rephrasing and re-wording of the questions to ensure consistency and clarity of the items in the questionnaire/interview guide, or by deleting the duplicated questions. In particular, the results of the pilot study assisted the researcher in making improvements in the interview content; and in the interview guide, including use of appropriate wording and the order of the questions. Insight gained in pilot interviews was also used to improve on subsequent interviews. McKinlay (2004) argues that a pilot study allows re-designing of the project, starting all over again or abandoning the intended project altogether.

Following the completion of the pilot study, the participants were debriefed to determine if there were any questions that were confusing or ambiguous. They were also questioned as to whether in their opinion any significant topics had been left out of the interview topic guide or basic demographic data questionnaire. Pilot testing was extremely valuable and

contributed a great deal to the study by clarifying the interview questions and ensuring the research instruments were suitable and ready for the actual fieldwork.

4.7 Sampling

The case study employed Purposive sampling, which is different from random sampling or probability sampling in which the nature of the population is defined and all members have an equal chance of being selected (Marshall, 1996). Marshall and Rossman (1995) argue that when selecting sampling methods, it is critical to take decisions on well-developed sampling methods in order to ensure the study's soundness. Creswell (2003: p185) notes that: 'the idea behind qualitative research is to purposively select participants or sites (or documents or visual materials) that will best help the researcher understand the principles and research questions'. Purposive sampling method was found to be consistent with this qualitative case study compared to other sampling methods.

4.8 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling was chosen for this case study to help identify participants or respondents for the semi structured qualitative interviews. Marshall and Rossman (1995) state that, with purposive sampling, cases are chosen deliberately to represent characteristics known or suspected to be of key relevance to the research questions. Purposive sampling allows for the selection of the sample for the purpose of study and gives insights into a particular issue related to the issues under study. Marshall and Rossman (1995) further state that purposive sampling is different from random sampling or probability sampling, in which the nature of the population is defined and all members have an equal chance of being selected. Purposive sampling is directed by the questions being asked. This was particularly important in the case of overseas Zimbabwean social workers, who are a modern transient ethnic group, found in particular geographical areas in England and meeting the criteria for inclusion in relation to the research objectives.

The researcher-accessed participants mainly through the Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) leadership, a network based in the Major City, but with membership across England. This had the effect of reducing the time needed in identifying

Zimbabwean social workers as potential respondents through a single database. However, it is worth noting that the Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) still has formally ceased to exist but the previous leadership still exists and has links with overseas Zimbabwean social workers across the UK. Although, the ZSWN was not currently functional as a membership organisation at the time of the research, overseas Zimbabwean social workers still use its leadership structures for networking purposes albeit on an ad hoc basis. It was selected to identify respondents for this case study. However, despite the researcher trying to access overseas Zimbabwean social workers through the above organisation, those who had not been associated with the Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) were excluded from this process, as it was difficult to access them. As an overall strategy, social workers (respondents) were contacted through e-mails and by telephone at their current work places once they agreed to be contacted. The researcher arranged the dates, times and venues for the interviews following receipt of consent to take part in the interviews from the social workers.

Basic demographic data questionnaires were then sent by post to 100 Zimbabwean social workers whose the private contact details (emails and phone numbers) were obtained through the coordinator of the Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) group. The researcher was aware of the fact that postal questionnaires are known to have a low response rate, according to Robson (2002) but was optimistic for a reasonable response rate following the interest generated by the study topic.

4.9 Sample Size

According to (Jones, 2002), there is no ideal sample size in qualitative methodology and instead the size of the sample needs to be linked to the purpose of the research in terms of what will be useful, what will be credible and in essence, what can be done in the available time and who can be accessed. Jones (2002) further argues that in using purposive sampling, the sample size is determined by the research topic and availability.

The researcher contacted the Chairman of ZSWN who obtained permission to release contact details of potential respondents (overseas Zimbabwean social workers) from a list of 207 GSCC/HCPC registered social workers in UK. 100 social workers consented to

take part in the case study by completing the initial basic demographic data questionnaire. They were contacted by the researcher by both email and telephone, to introduce the study and ask whether they will participate in the study. 36 respondents agreed to participate in face-to-face interviews and for various reasons including time, availability and convenience, a final sample of 30 social workers (15 from the 2 London boroughs and 15 from a Major City). The final number of 30 comprised of all children social workers. The criterion for taking part in the research was whether one had trained as a social worker in Zimbabwe and worked or had previously worked for the Major City or the two London Boroughs.

Table 3 Diagram of the Sampling process

Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) List of Names	207
Social workers who agreed to be contacted and take part in the study	100
Social workers who returned their Basic Demographic data Questionnaires	36
Final sample of social workers (respondents) interviewed	30

Source: Semi structured interviews with respondents in 2013

4.10 Ethical considerations

A protocol detailing the aims and objectives of the study as well as the method of investigation and dissemination of the results was sent to Royal Holloway University of London (RHUL) Ethics Committee before commencement of the study. It received approval as a justified investigation.(See Appendix 4) Further, the researcher himself is a registered and practicing social worker, who was at the time of the study subject to the HCPC (2012) Standard of Conduct, Performance and Ethics and the General Social Care Council Code of Practice for Social Care Workers (GSCC, 2004).

Ethics are not merely matters of etiquette, but are the professional beliefs that act as guides to the implementation of those beliefs (Gilchrist & Schinke, 2001). There are significant issues to be confronted about ethics, particularly as qualitative studies mean that participants are studied in their environment rather than a laboratory, giving rise to some additional moral ambiguities (Padgett 1998).

The following are parts of ethical practice in research: ensuring informed consent, ensuring anonymity, privacy and confidentiality; voluntary participation; honesty and avoidance of deception or misrepresentation; consciousness of the special power of the investigator; coding (anonymising) the names and identities of respondents in all notes and records as well as building trust with respondents (British Sociological Association – Statement of Ethical Practice – March 2002).

Bell and Bryman (2007) state that the lack of informed consent as an ethical issue is not widely debated in the academic literature. The issue of confidentiality is also vital and of critical relevance to any research. Protecting interviewees from any repercussions of their comments being reported should also be a concern for researchers (Robson, 2002). All these considerations were included in the study design. Prior to carrying out the research, ethical approval was obtained following the research procedures set by the School of Criminology and Sociology, Royal Holloway University of London Ethics Committee. The researcher formally sought permission from the two London boroughs, a Major City in the Midlands and the Zimbabwe Network of Social Workers, requesting to interview overseas Zimbabwean Social Workers. The researcher was given approval to conduct research with Zimbabwean social workers from the above organisations, except by the Major City council whose research governance process was cumbersome. However, a number of overseas-trained Zimbabwean social workers working for the Major City council chose to participate in the research through their association with the Zimbabwe Network of Social Workers (ZNSW).

Fully Informed Consent: Before the commencement of the study, the researcher produced an information sheet (see Appendix 1c), which contained information about the research. This information was given to every Zimbabwean social worker who expressed

initial willingness to participate in the study. Participants were given a couple of days after reading the information to decide whether they wanted to participate in the study. This period allowed them the opportunity to share their views with friends and family, as well as time to ask any questions about any anxieties or to seek further clarification on any issues they did not understand. Participants were informed that they could terminate the interview at any time if they had concerns. They were informed that their identity would be protected by changing identifying features in any reports or publications that might result from the research. This practice is consistent with informed consent as described by Beauchamp and Childress (1994) and May (2004). The need to obtain fully informed consent has a bearing on research involving sensitive issues and greater personal involvement of and risks to the participants, such as migrant social workers from Zimbabwe.

Voluntary Participation: was also key to this study. Participants, who had given their consent, were advised that nevertheless they could withdraw from taking part at any time and could decline to answer particular questions. Participants were also reminded that they could ask questions or seek clarification at any point during the interviews. The British Sociological Association (BSA) Statement of Ethical Practice (March 2002) guideline 1, aims to make members or researchers aware of the ethical issues that may arise throughout the research process and to encourage them to take responsibility for their own ethical practice. The Association encourages members to use the Statement to help educate themselves and their colleagues to behave ethically.

Privacy and Confidentiality: Participants in this study asked for their names not to be included on any published materials without their consent. The participants' right of privacy and right to refuse to answer certain questions were respected throughout the interview process. Ethical considerations were applied throughout the interview processes during this study, as was procedurally required.

4.11 Data collection

I conducted field research involving 30 respondents from two London boroughs and a Major City over a period of four months from July 2013 to October 2013. Before embarking on the data collection process, I completed preparatory tasks for the field research a few months preceding July 2013. These important tasks included among others, sorting out ethical approval from the University Ethics Committee, seeking permission from the two London boroughs and a Major City, identification of a preliminary list of contacts and potential respondents, sorting out the research instruments, scheduling initial interviews with respondents and finalising the logistical arrangements for the field research

Data were collected through the use of semi-structured interviews as the primary data collection technique, and two focus group discussions to validate the themes that emerged from the individual semi-structured interviews. The use of semi-structured interviews was essential in exploring the views of the overseas Zimbabwean social workers on their experiences, while the basic demographic data questionnaire helped in understanding some contextual / background issues of the overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

4.12 Primary data

This study used focus group discussions, and semi-structured interviews and basic demographic data questionnaires as part of the primary data collection methods. According to Collis and Hussey (2003) original or primary data can be obtained and collected through a variety of ways. These may include observation, interviews and questionnaires, conversation and discourse relevant to a specific research study. Meanwhile, Ghauri and Gronhaug (2002) contend that a significant advantage of primary data being collected is that it enables there to be a focus on the specific requirements of the research, such as the use of questions requiring particular responses.

4.13 Semi structured interviews

In-depth semi-structured interviews employing open-ended questions were used to collect rich and valuable data from overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. In total the researcher interviewed 30 participants in the form of in-depth interviews. All interviews were conducted in English with a few exceptions where participants used phrases in their two vernacular Shona and Ndebele language which the researcher was familiar with. Interviews took place in participants' homes, car parks and the library among other small venues. All interviews were either tape recorded or written up using pen and pad with the express consent of the participants. The semi-structured interviews lasted between 1 and half and 2 hours each on average.

Babbie (2005) notes the inherent flexibility in this approach (semi-structured interviews) as one of its major advantages. "Semi-structured interviews are non-standardised and are frequently used in qualitative analysis. In this type of research, the interviewer does not do the research to test a specific hypothesis" (David, & Sutton, 2004, p 87). The researcher has a list of key themes, issues, and questions to be covered. In this type of interview, the order of the questions can be changed depending on the direction of the interview and what the researcher is setting out to achieve (Kvale, 1996).

An interview or topic guide (See Appendix 3) was developed and used, but leaving an option for additional questions to be asked. The interview schedule was partly informed by the conceptual framework, globalisation. It was found to be very useful is managing the interviews and collecting rich and valuable data from the 30 overseas Zimbabwean social workers who participated in the research. The strengths of semi-structured interviews are that the researcher can prompt and probe deeper into the given situation with greater flexibility, thereby allowing the interviewee to say as much as they wish to. There are several advantages of using the interview approach, which include flexibility, and the interviewer can adapt the situation to each subject. The interview may also result in more accurate and honest responses, since the interviewer can explain and clarify both the purpose of the research and individual questions.

It was considered that the direct interview approach, using semi-structured interviews, would allow exploration of themes as they arose and the direct checking of information provided. Adding to the significance of the interview approach, the use of interviews enables interview subjects to offer insights not otherwise available (Wainwright, 1997). Interviews enable the asking of questions that explore matters of opinion as well as researching matters of fact (Yin, 2003), meaning that the interviewee becomes a participant rather than only a respondent. The semi-structured approach used in this study also provided sufficient structure to ensure that the research questions were addressed in a logical format for the interviewee, ‘’but also had enough scope to explore the underlying contexts and meaning and detailed understanding’’ (Bryman, 2004, p 319).

4.14 Focus group discussions

Two focus group discussions involving five social workers (respondents) were used in this study in each of the two research sites. These respondents were interviewed previously. The small group size was intentional in order to ensure that its members did not feel intimidated and could express their opinions freely. The researcher used the same topic guide (see Appendix 3) as was used in the individual interviews complemented by additional questions on the themes that had been generated from the individual semi structured interviews. As aforementioned, the focus group discussions in this study were used to validate the themes that emerged from the Individual interviews. These discussions were tape recorded with the consent of the social workers (respondents) then transcribed and analysed accordingly. These were ‘moderated’ by the researcher in order to interpret and discuss a specific set of issues and, in doing so; he examined in each respondent, their recorded beliefs, opinions and ideas (Morgan, 1988; Kitzinger, 1994; Denscombe, 2007). According to Morgan (1988), focus group discussions not only provide useful data about what respondents/participants think on a specific topic, but essentially also uncover valuable data on why participants hold a certain position. Kruger (1988) argues that focus group discussions usually produce data that provides insights into attitudes, perceptions, opinions and views of participants, which suited this particular study involving a mobile transient group of overseas Zimbabwean social workers living and working in England.

The researcher's rationale for using focus group discussions was the fact that their potential dynamics can shed light on specific topics, such as those being explored in this study.

4.15 Basic demographic data questionnaire

This study used a basic demographic data questionnaire as a research method to complement the qualitative research method. The researcher sent basic demographic data questionnaires to 100 overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England who agreed to take part in the research. These were sent through recorded email addresses and 36 were returned completed and signed. The researcher eventually decided to interview a final sample of 30 respondents who took part in both focus group and individual semi structured interviews. The basic demographic data questionnaire consisted of both closed and open-ended questions, which sought information on personal characteristics such as age, gender and marital status, qualifications, years of experience in England and Zimbabwe among other personal data. In essence, it was learnt that questionnaires needed to be simple and clear in order to achieve the intended objective (Oppenheim, 1992). The primary objective of using demographic data questionnaires in this study was to help the researcher in gaining a deeper understanding of the individual profiles of the respondents including demographic issues.

4.16 Data analysis

Data analysis aimed to answer primarily the main research question, which is; how can different forms of globalisation help us to understand the transfer of knowledge, skills and values by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. The process of data analysis was an on-going process from the start of the data collection right up to the end of the data analysis process. The researcher accumulated considerable information manually and electronically, which was stored on a laptop and as backup, on three secure USB drives. The researcher had 30 interviews to transcribe data from ready for analysis. The collection of data is usually followed by its analysis. Data analysis refers to the process of generating value from the raw data (Johnson and Christensen 2004:500). Since this case study employed mainly a qualitative methodological approach, data from the semi-

structured interviews and focus group discussions were analysed. According to Marshall and Rossman (1989, p112) 'Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data'. Rapley (2004, p.26) observed, "analysis is always an on-going process," beginning with the first seed of the research idea and continuing through the reporting process itself. In accordance with (Bryman, 2001), data analysis commenced as soon as data collection started and this in essence, allowed the researcher to be more aware of the emerging themes that may have arisen following up on later interviews.

Merriam (1998, p.151) contends that qualitative research is not a linear, step-by-step process and that data collection and analysis in qualitative research can happen simultaneously.

In addition, however, the researcher used content analysis on the basic demographic data questionnaires, which were used to gather information to inform the background details of the respondents and for the profiling of research participants.

4.17 Thematic analysis

The researcher used thematic analysis as the most appropriate framework of analysis for this qualitative study, to extract the common patterns and themes from the individual semi structured interview and focus group discussions texts. The basic demographic data questionnaires were analysed using descriptive analysis. Hall and Hall (2004) advocate the use of thematic analysis for qualitative data. They state that this method is especially appropriate when data come from semi-structured interviews. In this study, data analysis involved the process of making sense of texts reporting the personal and professional experiences, which overseas Zimbabwean social workers working and living in England described. This was particularly in relation to their knowledge of globalisation and how as a phenomenon, it influenced their ability to transfer knowledge and skills acquired in Zimbabwe to the UK. This method of analysis was also chosen because of its flexibility and because it is a relatively easy and quick method to learn and adopt for a novice qualitative researcher (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

In this study, the emphasis was on the interpretation and exploration of the meanings that participants ascribe to their experiences within the social care system, utilising their Zimbabwean experiences and applying their transferrable knowledge and skills in a globalised environment such as England.

NVivo 9 as a software package was selected to collate the range of qualitative data collected by this study. This package is suitable for dealing with large volumes of non-numerical data such as interviews, documents and transcripts and helps to manage and analyse the data gathered (Berger et al, 2006). Myers (1997) states that research methods emphasise that qualitative analysis software packages are useful for organising the indexing, coding and categorising of data, but it is the researcher who must apply a development strategy to formulate the analysis. Its rationale can be extended to the mapping of the software facilities and characteristics against the research approach, methods used and type of data that the research is generating. The important issue is that the software cannot direct the data analysis; the researcher drives this. For instance, the researcher will define what analytical issues are to be explored, and which ideas are important and the most appropriate mode of representation.

The use of NVivo enables the researcher to return to, retrieve and maintain the contextual integrity of the data, whilst facilitating editing activities without disturbing or invalidating existing coding and linking (Berger, 2006). According to Creswell (2007), the advantages of using a computer program to assist with data analysis are: a computer program provides a way to organize and file data, it allows for quick access to data, it forces the investigator to look closely at the data and think about what each sentence might mean, it offers a concept mapping feature which allows the investigator to see the relationships among the data, and finally it affords the investigator the opportunity to easily retrieve memos associated with the data.

The researcher transcribed the semi structured interviews in this study and then imported them to Nvivo, where each interview was carefully read. It was critical at this stage to ensure that all significant words, phrases and sentences relevant to the research problem were allocated codes. During this process, the researcher was careful in avoiding creating too many codes as this would have been complicated and difficult to manage.

The final step in the analytical framework was to develop thematic explanations from the data gathered. This crucial step involved going backwards and forwards between the data and the emerging themes and explanations until there was satisfaction that the data and themes related well to the objectives and research questions of the study. Data from basic demographic questionnaires were compared to those obtained from the interviews to check for similar or dissimilar responses, where there was comparability. The themes emerging from both questionnaires and qualitative interviews will be discussed in detail in the following chapters. Audio tapes were used and destroyed as soon as they were transcribed consistent with the Data Protection Act, 1998.

4.18 The researcher's epistemological position

A researcher's epistemology is his/her theory of knowledge, which determines how social phenomena are, studied (Creswell, 1994). In this qualitative study, the researcher's epistemological position was that overseas Zimbabwean social workers working and living in England would be expected to have the experiences to be studied. Because of this, engagement with them was necessary so as to collect data. I am both an academic researcher and a professional social worker, making me suitable to interview the overseas Zimbabwean social workers based in England. During and before the interviews I made it very clear to the participants that l was a Zimbabwean social worker who had also crossed international frontiers to England in search of social work opportunities, and therefore was familiar with the issues I was investigating. This helped in building rapport and trust with the participants and at the same time assured them of my non-judgmental stance during the interviews. The above is supported by Lewis (2003), who argues that a common cultural background between the researcher and participants may enrich the researcher's understanding of participants' accounts and the language they use.

Lewis (2003) further states that there may be instances where the researcher's experiences mirror those of the participants in terms of oppression or imbalances of power, especially if issues of oppression or discrimination are relevant to the study. In this context, l was also cautious about the amount of information I could reveal about my own experiences. As Miller and Glassner (1997) explain, the amount of information the researcher reveals to respondents about themselves can influence what information

participants are willing to disclose or share. In this instance therefore, I limited myself only to the general aspects of social worker migration to England.

4.19 My role as a researcher

In this particular study, the researcher was subject to several influences. These include his own socio-cultural background, his own personal experiences, and affinity to the subject area, being a Zimbabwean social worker recruited from overseas. The researcher's interests derive not just from the fact of being a Zimbabwean social worker working and living in England, but crucially from the complexity experienced by being part of the international skilled labour migration process. On the other hand, the researcher's background as an overseas recruited Zimbabwean social worker entails that he was a positive resource for this study. In this regard, it was relatively easy during the research process to build rapport with the respondents, but at the same time to avoid crossing professional boundaries and to maintain the status of an independent researcher. In this instance, as an insider researcher, there was a possibility of bias in favour of personal experiences. Anthropologists and linguists call this the 'emic perspective' (Patton, 2002). However, Holloway and Wheeler (2002) note that this involvement can be dangerous as the researcher can lose awareness of their role and rely on assumptions, which do not necessarily have a basis of reality.

There were no potential risks to the researcher identified during the research process and his personal safety was addressed effectively by undertaking all interviews in public areas and ensuring that there was a third party aware that the interview was taking place.

4.20 Researcher bias

The researcher's own background influenced his choice of the research topic and the perspective judged most appropriate for this purpose, the researcher approached this topic from an insider's perspective, with the idea of understanding the experiences of his research group. However, there are dangers associated with the insider perspective, as argued by Holloway and Wheeler (2002): that this involvement may result in losing awareness of one's role and rely on assumptions which do not always have a basis in reality.

In order to address the possible effects of this insider involvement, the researcher consciously adopted the ‘etic perspective’ or ‘outsider view (Patton, 2002). This is important in making sense of one’s observations and minimising bias. Researcher bias is common in conducting research; The term 'bias' can also be employed in a more specific sense, to identify a particular source of systematic error: a tendency on the part of researchers to collect certain data (and not others), and/or to interpret and present them in such a way as to favour false results that are in line with their prejudgments and political or practical commitments. This may result in a positive tendency towards a persuasive, but biased, conclusion. Equally, it may involve the exclusion from consideration of some set of possible conclusions that could happen to include the truth (Hammersley and Gomm, 1997).

Referring to problems in the use of interviews in research, Cohen and Manion (1994) argue that one of the ways validity can be improved is by eliminating or reducing bias associated with the interviewer. Several potential sources of bias directly associated with the interviewer include the attitudes and opinions of the interviewer; a tendency for the interviewer to see the respondent in his own image; a tendency for the interviewer to seek answers that support her preconceived notions; and misperceptions on the part of the interviewer of what the respondent is saying (Cohen and Manion: 281-282)

Identified areas of bias comprise the following in this study; the researcher holds personal interests and has a particular affinity to this issue. Being an overseas Zimbabwean social worker recruited from abroad and working in the Children’s Social Care system and interviewing fellow overseas social workers was therefore a challenging experience. The researcher was aware of the aforementioned and tried to be objective by distancing himself from his own background as Zimbabwean social worker by reassuring respondents and being consciously neutral in interviews.

4.21 Data Integrity

Credibility

Credibility is a criterion that mirrors internal validity for quantitative methods (Bryman, 2004) and two of the best techniques in this context to assure credibility are respondent

validation or member validation (Bloor, 1997, 2001). The use of focus group discussions to validate themes generated during individual semi structured interviews brings a measure of credibility to this study.

Dependability

Dependability mirrors reliability in quantitative research, and one of the techniques that improves this aspect is effective working on research governance matters and creating auditable processes of data collection and analysis (Lieblich et al, 1998). The more transparent the research is in relation to peer review, supervision and auditing, the more dependable will be the results (Lieblich, et al 1998; Riessman, 1993). A PhD dissertation like this one is a highly dependable document, as the methodologies are discussed in detail and the protocols, transcripts and analyses are conducted under close external and rigorous supervision. Dependability was considered as the researcher sought to adhere to the protocols of the research.

4.22 Validity

Joppe (2000) argues that validity refers to whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure, or how truthful to reality the research results are. Researchers generally assess validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others. The concept of validity is described by a wide range of terms in qualitative studies. This concept is not a single, fixed or universal concept, but "rather a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects" (Winter, 2000, p.1). Although some qualitative researchers have argued that the term validity is not applicable to qualitative research, at the same time, they have appreciated the need for some kind of qualifying check or measure for their research in order to justify its claims. Validity is often affected by such factors as selection bias. Selection bias can be the most important threat to internal validity in intervention research, but is often insufficiently recognized and controlled (Larzelere and Kuhn and Johnson, 2004). In this study, the researcher recognised the danger of selection bias by maximising the range of potential respondents from different geographical sources. To enhance the validity of a qualitative study,

techniques like prolonged engagement with research participants, multiple, persistent observations and clarification with participants of tentative findings can be used (Barringer, 2006).

In this study, the researcher engaged with the participants, overseas Zimbabwean social workers, from the beginning, and kept a credible and consistent relationship with them from the outset by reassuring them on the objectives of the study and keeping them informed of the interview schedules. The researcher's availability to clarify the research process and strict adherence to the research protocol were all crucial to ensure the viability of the study.

4.23 Reliability

Reliability was considered in this study albeit not applicable. Reliability 'refers to consistency of the results obtained in the project' (Paltridge, 2006, p.216). Internal reliability refers to consistency of the data collection, analysis of the data and interpretation of the results; that is, 'the extent to which the researcher was consistent in what she did and whether someone else would get the same results if they carried out the same analysis of the data'. (Paltridge, 2006, p.216)

Although the term 'reliability' is a concept used in testing or evaluating quantitative research, the idea is used in all kinds of research. If we see the idea of testing as a way of information evaluation then the most important test of any qualitative study is its internal quality. A good qualitative study can also help to "understand a situation that would otherwise be enigmatic or confusing" (Eisner, 1991, p. 58). This relates to the concept of good quality research, when reliability is a concept to evaluate quality in a quantitative study, with a "purpose of explaining"; while the quality concept in a qualitative study has the purpose of "generating understanding" (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551). Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the research, namely whether the approach (including the research instruments) will yield the same result every time it is applied. "A research instrument that produces different results every time is used to measure what is undoubtedly the same phenomenon has low reliability, and is less accurate than one that produces similar results" (Bless and Higson, 1995: p130).

In view of the small-scale qualitative nature of this case study, the issue of reliability did not arise. This is in view of the fact that the results of this study cannot be replicated elsewhere and the findings cannot be generalised as would be the case in a quantitative study.

4.24 Summary

This chapter has set out the research purpose, design, data collection methods and the analytical techniques adopted. It has also detailed the qualitative research approach and presented data analysis issues that follow from this. Issues of dependability, credibility, researcher bias, reliability and validity are also explicitly addressed to enhance the quality of the case study. The chosen sample and sampling frame were defined; the interview and questionnaire techniques the study used have been explored. The software analysis tools (including Nvivo 9) have been discussed, and their use and appropriateness justified. The relevant ethical considerations have also been presented. It is clear from the literature review that there are several methods that can be employed in this kind of migration research. The chapter has described the reasons for the appropriate primary use of a qualitative methodological approach, one of the most suitable research methods in setting out to investigate, synthesise and contextualise the experiences of overseas social workers in England. The merits of other possible research methods have also been described but the researcher elected to use primarily the qualitative approach, which was considered the most appropriate method for this particular type of study, which was multi-sited. The use of semi-structured interviews, basic demographic data, and triangulation among other techniques were useful in gathering and analysing rich data regarding the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in transferring knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England in the context of globalisation.

Chapter Five

Analysis of Research Findings

Knowledge and Skills Transfer

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is the first of three chapters that present, analyse and discuss findings emerging from the qualitative interviews with respondents, including the demographic data of 30 respondents as described in the Chapter 4. The richness of the data collected from the respondents necessitated the division of the main themes into individual chapters. The chapter focuses on one of the main themes emerging from the analysis of data in relation to knowledge and skills transfer. This chapter also highlights how the respondents defined knowledge and skills transfer in their own understanding. The chapter further explores the specific social work knowledge and skills reported by overseas Zimbabwean social workers (referred to as respondents) working and living in England. The chapter also examines how the respondents believed they have transferred knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England, and the obstacles they have experienced during the transfer processes. The role and influence of globalisation on knowledge and skills transfer are also explored and analysed in this chapter.

When asked to define knowledge and skills transfer all 30 respondents from the two research sites were able to define the above as 'a systematic process of transferring ideas, knowledge and practical skills from one context to another'. The respondent reported that the transfer processes were carried out through a number of methods or channels both at an individual or group level. There were however, divergent views on how the transfer of knowledge and skills can be achieved. These include most significantly, whether or not the knowledge and skills transferred from Africa to England were relevant in the first place and in essence, transferrable with or without any adjustments.

> "Transferring knowledge and skills from one country to another seems easy on paper as I and a number of my colleagues thought during the initial settlement period in England. In reality, …….it all became clearer to me at a later stage as

> I was struggling to understand the nature of social work, training, practice and organisation in England that the transfer processes were complex and in many ways not as straight forward as it seems", (Greg, 42).

Findings also revealed that more than half of the respondents were able to define and contextualise the concepts of social work knowledge and skills transfer and how these relate to the two countries of Zimbabwe and England. They expressed eagerness and enthusiasm to share their experiences of the processes of knowledge and skills transfer in the two contexts. However, there were sharp differences on the degree of transferability of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England given the inevitability of adjustments to the transfer processes. These issues will be explored in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

In this section, the biographic and background information of the respondents are presented in order to show the distribution of participants by gender, age, occupation and qualifications. This information adds to the context of the study and helps the reader to understand some pertinent issues that are included in the findings. Pseudonyms instead of real names have been used in this study to protect the anonymity of the respondents.

Table: 4 General profiles **of respondents**

Basic characteristics of the respondents (N = 30)

Average age	40 years (range: 31 – 51)
No of Participants	30
Location and Employment	London Borough X & Y - 15 Major City - 15
Ethnicity	Black African
Gender	Male -15 Female -15
Marital Status	Single - 8 Married - 14 Divorced - 6 Widowed - 2
Average Position	Social Worker (26)
Management Representation	Team Manager (4)
Average Social Work Qualification	Bachelor of Social Work (BSW)
Average years of experience in UK Average years of social work practice	10 years 15 years
Average overall experience	15 years
Service/s Employed	Children Services (Child Protection)

The average age of respondents was 40 years, while the average length of years of experience in England was 10 years. The average number of years in social work practice for the respondents was 15 at the time of the research in 2013. Findings showed that respondents had a considerable amount of practice experience both in England and in

Zimbabwe; however, this may or may not have had any impact on their ability to transfer knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England in a significant way.

The study found that respondents were employed as managers (team managers or equivalent), and the remainder, 26 as basic grade social workers. The majority of respondents were educated to Bachelor of Social Work degree level while 21 respondents were educated to Master's degree level (social work, MBA, Psychology, Education and Law). Respondents reported that the Diploma in Social Work was the basic qualification required in Zimbabwe for one to register and practise as a social worker, although the majority of social workers there have a Bachelors degree in Social Work.

At the beginning of the study, 28 respondents reported that they had attended the School of Social Work of the University Of Zimbabwe (UZ), while 2 respondents reported that they attended the University Of South Africa (UNISA). Findings from the study revealed that 25 respondents had previously worked for the Department of Social Welfare in Zimbabwe before immigrating to England while the remainder, 5 worked for Non-Governmental Organisations in Zimbabwe prior to their move to England. The above means that there was a degree of closeness between and among the respondents as the majority of them knew each other from University or previous work environments in Zimbabwe.

5.2 Key themes that emerged from the study

Key themes that emerged from the study were categorised into sub themes as follows:

(a) Specific knowledge and skills transferred,

(b) Relevance of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England

(c) Methods and processes of transferring knowledge and skills

(d) Barriers encountered when transferring knowledge and skills and

(e) The influence of globalisation on knowledge and skills transfer.

5.2.1 Specific knowledge and skills transferred

The majority of the respondents reported that a great deal of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were transferred to England. There was also a sense of pride from the majority of respondents in this regard. Most respondents reported that they had successfully managed to transfer some basic knowledge and skills to England which were perceived as relevant with very little or no adjustments at all. According to one respondent;

> "My knowledge and experience in the African extended family child care system made it easy to explore and complete Kinship assessments and arrange Family Group Conferences in the UK. Further, my experience and knowledge of absolute poverty in Africa made it easier for me to make better assessments of poverty and neglect in the UK", (Munashe, 36).

According to findings, all respondents perceived that they had added some value to the English childcare system in terms of diversity and practice in the areas of England where they worked. Respondents also reported a collective feeling of "achievement" in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. Some expressed that their work had been acknowledged by their supervisors, other local professionals and service users).

One of the respondents also employed as a Team Manager stated;

> "The feedback received from service users, senior management and fellow professionals generally reflect a shared view that overseas Zimbabwean social workers are very hard working, courteous and comparatively effective and have contributed immensely to the improvement of social work practice especially in child protection", (Richard, 44)

A small minority of respondents reported that for them, it did not matter how harder they worked, as their managers did not recognise their efforts, which further fuelled further sentiments of racism and discrimination.

> "The way I see it is that no matter how hard I work, nobody appears to recognise and appreciate my efforts ……..so why should I bother" (Lindani, 44)

There was a sense of achievement expressed by most respondents concerning what they perceived were successes in the knowledge and skills transfer processes they had been involved with. When asked to specify which specific knowledge and skills they had transferred to England from Zimbabwe. According to the findings, there were striking similarities amongst the respondents regarding the specific knowledge and skills they reported to have transferred in their different respective areas of practice. The most commonly identified knowledge and skills reported by respondents' during individual interviews included the following; non-specific social work aspects such as cultural diversity, decision-making, mentoring, supervisory, training, leadership and management skills. The respondents reported the above skills as general and easily transferrable to any practice context.

Knowledge perceived to have been transferred from Zimbabwe to England

The specific knowledge reported by respondents as transferrable from Zimbabwe to England included social work theories and principles such as casework, community work, research methods, theories about poverty, attachment, child development, empowerment, anti-oppressive practice and anti-discriminatory practice, socio-economic development, social administration, socio-economic principles, systems approaches, social work with people with disabilities, psychodynamic and problem solving intervention methods.

Some respondents referred to traditional social work principles propounded by Biesteck, Pincus and Minahan (1773) as relevant to their professional experiences in England. Social work ethics and values also featured prominently as some of the knowledge transferred to England from Zimbabwe. There was broad consensus from the respondents on the importance of the above knowledge to their social work practice in England. The above were considered by respondents to be similar to the competence-based knowledge embedded in the social work training programmes in England. The

study found that the principles of Biesteck, Pincus and Minahan (1773) were linked to casework practice.

As previously stated in Chapter 3, knowledge transfer is more generally classified into explicit and tacit knowledge with the majority of the above knowledge having been explicit. The respondents did not say much about tacit knowledge, which underlines the difficulties, associated not only with conceptualising it but its application to practical situations as well.

The above view was expressed by one respondent:

> "While I established that explicit knowledge was easy to translate into written points and ideas and pass it on to another person, I found out that I also had a lot of knowledge I had acquired through many years of experience in the job in Zimbabwe but transferring that personal knowledge into explicit points and ideas was extremely difficult for me", (Talk more, 39).

Generational differences on perceptions of knowledge and skills transfer

The study found generational differences on the perceptions of knowledge transfer from Zimbabwe to England amongst the respondents. The older respondents held the view that there were similarities between the two childcare systems, which made it easier for them to transfer knowledge and skills, whereas younger respondents held the view that there were widening differences in social work practice between the two countries and that the perceived similarities were overblown. Major differences were also found to exist in the nature and application of childcare legislation in the two countries. The older respondents reported that their experience and knowledge of social work legislation in Zimbabwe made it easier for them to integrate professionally into the English childcare legal system. The younger respondents and clearly less experienced respondents on the contrary expressed divergent views that the English childcare legal system was fundamentally different from the Zimbabwean childcare legislation and that in England childcare legislation was advanced and evolved more rapidly than the situation in Zimbabwe. One older respondent commented:

> "There is no major difference in child care legislation between England and Zimbabwe. In essence, the legislation in both countries is premised on the same principle, which is to …… and protect children from suffering significant harm but however, differences existed on how to achieve the principle of protection", (Joylene, 50)

In contrast, one of the younger respondents said,

> "It very simplistic and unrealistic to compare child care legislation in a developed liberal democracy such as England to a poor and autocratic country such as Zimbabwe. In England legislation evolves all the times and there are checks and balances to ensure the legislation is appropriate", (Roy, 33).

According to findings, the younger respondents perceived their experience of the processes of knowledge and skills transfer differently from that of the older respondents. This was evidenced by their admission that they had learnt from the mistakes and experiences of the earlier groups of overseas Zimbabwean social workers and that they were better able to transfer knowledge and skills more specifically and in a targeted not generic way, as was the case with the older respondents who were pioneers.

> "We learnt from the mistakes of the older generations and made the processes of knowledge and skills transfer better and possibly much easier to achieve." (Tinei, 34)

The younger generation of respondents reported that social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were outdated and inconsistent with the growing global trends due to poor resources, lack of or limited access to technology and to the internet. A few younger respondents reported that whilst in England, the whole education system had moved towards Modules and flexible placements, in Zimbabwe they were still stuck in the older system or older and rigid course work style.

When asked to specify which skills they had transferred, most of the respondents reported the following as the most common skills in no particular order of importance; cultural competencies; communication skills; networking skills; negotiating skills; engagement skills; assessment and planning skills; community organisation skills; caseload

management/appraisal skills; motivational skills; mediation skills; analytical skills; advocacy skills; acknowledging and managing diversity; computer skills; recording skills; writing skills; court work skills; work organisation and research skills. The above were grouped into sub-themes as indicated in the table below:

Table 5 Participants perception of skills that were 'transferrable' from Zimbabwe to UK

Skill	**Level of Transferability**
Interviewing skills,	Fully applicable
Writing skills,	Fully applicable
Communication skills,	Fully applicable
Advocacy skills	Applicable
Observational skills,	Applicable
Research skills	Fully applicable
Supervisory and management skills	Fully applicable
Planning skills and organisational skills	Fully applicable
Poverty assessments skills	Contextual
Kinship assessment skills	Contextual
Computer skills,	Contextual
Assessment skills	Applicable
Analytical skills	Fully applicable
Reflective learning skills	Fully applicable
Networking skills	Applicable
Recording skills	Contextual
Court work skills	Contextual
People skills	Contextual

Source: Semi-Structured Open-ended Interviews

The study found similar views from the majority of the respondents concerning the skills they had transferred to England from abroad. These skills indicated in the table above

were considered by respondents to be very basic and easily transferrable with little adjustments.

Findings show that unlike the respondents, experience with skills transfer, which was relatively easy, knowledge transfer was perceived to be more complex given its context specific nature as discussed in the literature review. The most common aspects of social work knowledge transferred perceived to have been transferred from Zimbabwe to England have been listed in the table below as reported by respondents;

Table 6 : **Summary of Knowledge and level of its transferability**

Knowledge	**Level of Transferability in England**
Systems Theory	Applicable
Psychosocial/psychodynamic/psychoanalytic Theories	Applicable
Attachment Theory	Fully applicable
Child protection policies and procedures	Contextual
African cultural values	Contextual
Anti-discriminatory and anti-oppressive theory and practice	Contextual
Cognitive behavioural therapy	Applicable
Empowerment theory	Applicable
Community work/development	Contextual
Person-centred approach	Applicable
Task-centred approach	Applicable
Solution focused approach	Applicable
Cultural diversity	Contextual
Community development theories	Contextual
Poverty reduction theories	Contextual
Mediation approaches	Contextual

Source: Semi-Structured open-ended Interviews

The older respondents reported that they had become more confident of the knowledge and skills they possessed, particularly their management and supervisory skills, which they felt were not recognised and utilised as much as they would have wanted. They considered the above skills as very important to them and their professional development in England. The researcher observed that the older respondents including, some who had been managers and supervisors abroad previously, talked about their knowledge and skills very passionately. They insisted their previous skills were useful in their day-to-day professional roles and relevant in their attempts to transfer to England the knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe. The majority of the older respondents expressed the view that their entire skills set and work experience was critically important to their practice in England but moaned of lack of recognition.

> "When transferring knowledge and skills from one particular setting to another one does not always choose which skills to transfer or not, all of them equally matter, however, you emphasis more on those skills which are most relevant and easily transferrable", (Tatenda, 51)

As an example of generational differences, the older respondents expressed greater confidence in possessing what they considered were important and effective skills in assessing poverty and neglect for instance. They reported possessing good skills in engaging with poor families due to of their wide experience with absolute cases of poverty in Zimbabwe. They also reported that they work very diligently and were not scared to work unsocial hours, as this was very normal practice in Zimbabwe

> "I feel confident when I am completing assessments on issues around poverty and neglect, as I have considerable experience in assessing mostly poor clients/service users in Zimbabwe. My own experience with cases of abject and absolute poverty in Zimbabwe for most of my social work career gives me confidence when assessing poverty and neglect cases and this I believe is a skills I have proudly transferred to England" (Tembi, 35)

Perceptions of being undervalued as skilled professionals

There was a perception from a minority of respondents with prior management experience that their previous management experiences were not valued, which made them feel undervalued and marginalised by the employing authorities. The lack of automatic recognition of specific skills emerged as one of the reported general areas of discontent amongst the older and more experienced respondents. They further reported that they felt discriminated against, as their local colleagues with inferior academic qualifications appeared to get better promotional opportunities compared with them.

> "I and my colleagues have accepted that no matter how diligent and smart we work, our efforts, experience and qualifications will never be recognised. That's the way it is here in England for black workers from Zimbabwe; at some point one colleague referred to us as cheap labour," (Zoe, 49)

When asked to explain why they think they have superior academic credentials than their local colleagues, the majority of respondents reported that the University of Zimbabwe Social Work curriculum was much broader in its scope compared to what they described as 'narrow and limited' competence based English social work degree programmes; they felt this puts them in a better position in understanding the issues involved in the transfer process.

However, there was consensus from respondents that the technological, computer and networking skills acquired from Zimbabwe were less developed in comparison to situation in England. This they reported was due to limited access to latest information technology in Zimbabwe and on the control that the government has on technological companies. This had meant a steep learning curve for most of the respondents as a former Social Welfare officer in Zimbabwe stated;

> "The largely specialised computer based and better organised nature of children's social services operations in England render some of the skills acquired from Zimbabwe irrelevant or less effective. In addition, the level and application of communication skills are different between Zimbabwe

> and England, not every social worker in Zimbabwe has access to a computer nor the level of training desirable'', (Thando, 39).

Most respondents expressed the view that some of the local authority managers they had encountered did not 'fully appreciate' the respondents as professionals of equal standing due to the bad reputation associated with their country of origin. They perceived these managers as holding 'racist or discriminatory' views. However, the above assumptions were not based on concrete facts and evidence as one respondent stated;

> "Overseas Zimbabwean social workers are very sadly considered by some managers and even local work colleagues as 'cheap labour', just being used to fill in the gaps that local authorities could not afford to fill from local talent. This is really worrying and unfortunate" (Roy, 33)

Manifestly, the above sentiments resonated widely with the majority of respondents especially in the Focus Group Discussions but none of the respondents was prepared to elaborate further what they meant by 'cheap labour'. This was despite assurances of confidentiality from the researcher. Most of the respondents were not sure of the consequences or possible reprisals if they shared any further information regarding the 'cheap labour' comments. Some respondents expressed profound feelings about "unfair treatment" by their employers. They spoke very passionately about what they considered was 'subtle racism' in the workplace.

> "Some of us worked and lived in Apartheid South Africa and can easily spot signs and tones underlying racist behaviour. The routine selective allocation of tasks and cases, and other subtle signs of discrimination at the work place, are some clear examples of how racism is applied and managed against non-British social workers", (Takura, 47).

It was clear from the respondents' responses and body language that the issues of racism and discrimination were very emotive and deeply sensitive to them. The findings revealed that the majority of the respondents agreed with the above sentiments. They referred to themselves as a distinct ethnic professional group 'deeply misunderstood and under-appreciated'. Almost all respondents reported that the perception that they were

'cheap labour' was having a negative effect on their self-esteem, confidence and potentially, their ability to effectively transfer knowledge, values and skills. The respondents cited the 'cheap labour' label as one of the perceived barriers they experienced in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills to England from Zimbabwe as will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

There were divergent views among the respondents on whether social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were relevant in their entirety to England given the different contexts or organisation of social work in the two countries.

> "While I agree that there are some similarities in the basic concepts of social work education and training in Zimbabwe and the United Kingdom, I strongly think on a wider scale, the similarities are fewer than most of us thought before we came over to England. The organisation, legislative framework and funding of social work in the England is by far more advanced than in Zimbabwe", (Nyasha, 43).

There were strong views from a sizeable number of respondents that overall social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe had little relevance to England, and that some adjustments were necessary when transferring them to the English context to reflect the complexities and sophistication of the English Children's social care system. On the other hand, a small older and vocal minority of the respondents reported the existence of clear similarities between the two countries. This prompted them to believe that knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were relevant to England and therefore largely transferrable. They stated that it had taken them a shorter period to adjust to their new environment than they originally anticipated. However, the majority of the respondents agreed that the complexity of the English children's social care system presented them with some challenges, which exposed the inadequacies of the social work education and training in Zimbabwe. The findings revealed quite a mixed picture on the issue of knowledge and skills transferability.

These challenges according to the respondents included among others, little previous exposure to specialised and better-organised social work practice, the emphasis on respect for service user views, threats of employer disciplinary action, "covering one's

back" attitudes and lack of exposure to advanced IT systems. While there were intergenerational differences on the perception of knowledge and skills transferability, there were no major gender differences on the same issues.

One respondent commented that:

> 'When I started work in England, it did not take me more than a week to realise that the social work practice we were promised by recruitment agencies was not quite the same as I had experienced. I struggled with the levels of scrutiny the practice was exposed to in England, the policies and procedures and the frequency of supervision social workers are exposed to. Given the above, I quickly concluded that some adjustments were required to enable me and colleagues to function effectively as overseas social workers in England'. (Louise, 38)

5.2.2 Relevance of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England

Most of the respondents reported that the issue of relevance of social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England was very critical to them as migrants from a small and poor developing nation. The respondents expressed the view that the legacy of British colonial administration in Zimbabwe meant that their social work education, training and practice mirror the British social work system to some extent. However, some respondents expressed the view that the difference between Zimbabwe and England in terms of economic, social, technological and political factors affects the organisation and development of social work education, training and practice. There was overwhelming agreement from respondents that the transition from Zimbabwe to England presented was challenging in many respects in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills to England from Zimbabwe.

> "The whole process of transition from Zimbabwe to England was challenging in many areas from finding accommodation, finding schools for the children, assimilation and integration into the wider British society, induction and indeed the process of transferring knowledge and skills", (Nelly, 37).

There was a perception from a small minority of respondents that they did not fully appreciate the more professionalised and specialised social work model in England.

Some respondents reported that they did not understand the practice of being challenged in their practice by other professionals and service users. A minority of respondents reported that the challenges from service users in particular were 'unwarranted' and 'undermining' to their professional integrity. They perceived this challenge as 'a culture of entitlement' as opposed to the situation in Zimbabwe where in the main; the social worker had more power and control over the service user. The respondents reported that in Zimbabwe, social workers largely decide what support, services and resources service users receive, instead of this being a consultative process between social workers and service users, as is the case in England. The study found that the relationship between the social worker and the service user was a critical element of the process of knowledge and skills transferability

The critical issue for this study is whether the social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe are relevant and transferrable to England given the different social and practice contexts. In this respect, however, there were largely congruent views among the respondents that a 'considerable' amount of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were transferrable to England with adaptations as one enthusiastic respondent echoed:

> "I found transferring knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England easily possible given the universal nature of the basic theories and values of social work. In my view in addition, experience, it is the context and adaptability that matters more than anything. For instance, the cultural values in Zimbabwe are different from those in England such as acceptance of homosexuality. The aspects of social work from Zimbabwe that do not fit into the English cultural and value system will not be transferrable" (Romeo, 35).

There was some evidence of gender differences amongst the respondents on the issue of knowledge and skills transferability. A sizeable number of women respondents reported that the view that most of their male colleagues were over optimistic about the whole issue of transferability of knowledge and skills to England. There was a suggestion for cautious optimism on their part, as it became clear from individual qualitative interviews that there were sharp differences in social work organisation and practice between Zimbabwe and England. In general, some respondents were more optimistic than others, which

demonstrates the complex nature of the issues of knowledge and skills transferability from one social work context to another. The differences of opinion raise wider questions about the relevance of social work education and practice from Zimbabwe to England and whether it is possible to transfer knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England with what level of success given the barriers reported by respondents.

Another widely expected finding from the qualitative interviews was that social workers in England had greater discretionary powers regarding the allocation of resources and provision of support services compared to their counterparts in Zimbabwe. The above, it is assumed enhances their effectiveness as practitioners, unlike in Zimbabwe where the converse is true and a barrier to their effectiveness.

> "In England, social workers have relatively more discretionary power when it comes to offering services and resources of course, in consultation with the line manager, where as in Zimbabwe the services and resources are scarce and often non-existent making the practitioner less effective than in England. In extreme cases, sometimes there are even not enough resources to employ more social workers meaning that a lot of people are left without any services of social workers" (Makanaka, 48)

When asked how the issue of discretionary power affected the processes of knowledge and skills transfer, respondents insisted that knowledge transfer did not take place in a vacuum; they believe that relationships with service users are important since they are the ones who in the end benefit from the process of knowledge and skills transfer.

There appeared to be some confusion on the part of a few respondents who repeatedly mentioned the concept of knowledge exchange in the same breath as knowledge transfer. The researcher reminded them that knowledge exchange is a relatively large area for research on its own.

The majority of respondents reported that they were able to transfer knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England albeit with limitations presented by differences in culture, values, and political and social backgrounds between the two countries. The respondents

also reported differences in the following areas as critical to the transfer process: attitudes to sexual orientation, child protection issues, managing challenging or delinquent behaviour in children and the role of the state in the organisation and funding of children's services departments. The above could be interpreted as barriers.

An overwhelming number of respondents reported that the transfer of knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England was influenced largely by significant differences in the social work curricula, practice and training methods between the two countries. They reported that in Zimbabwe, social work education and training was largely based on the generic social work model, vis-à-vis the competence based specialist model in England. There was also a perception from the respondents that their limited or lack of understanding of the specialist competence based practice had affected their ability to transfer their largely generic or Afro-centric social work skills into the English children social care system. The social work education, training and practice in England were reported by respondents as highly developed and complex.

The majority of respondents reported culture, language and social norms as part of the general acculturation or assimilation process, which they felt was a difficult experience for them as internationally recruited social workers. Further, adjusting to the professional and workplace culture in a new country presents significant challenges. These were reported by some respondents as constituting barriers to the process of transferring knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England. To emphasise the cultural differences stated above, one respondent commented;

> "In Zimbabwe, cultural issues such as the rebuke of homosexuality and lack of and little attention to gender equality may influence social work practice; yet in England such issues are largely incorporated into the diversity and equality ethos of social work training and practice". (Collins, 31)

Findings showed some misconceptions reported by most respondents on the assumed similarities in social work training, practice and organisation between Zimbabwe and England. These misconceptions appear to have created misunderstandings regarding the relevance to England of certain of their skills acquired from Zimbabwe. They blamed

recruitment agencies for providing them with ‘misleading information’ about social work practice in England. When asked to provide example of the misleading information from recruitment agencies only a small minority were prepared to provide evidence on specific issues or instances.

> “It appears staff from my recruitment agency did not have enough social work knowledge and misinformed me and my colleagues on how social work in England was similar to Zimbabwe. They also misinformed us about how social work was organised in England, they sounded more like sale people than career specialists, it appears the motivation was just to bring us over to England without giving us more valuable information that was helpful in our integration”, (Mutsa, 38)

There was agreement from the respondents on the view that the English child social care system was very different in organisation and practice from Zimbabwe as opposed to their initial impression before they arrived in England. A sizeable minority of respondents suggested that the different practice contexts resulted in culture shock, which for some negatively influenced their confidence and performance at work and their ability to transfer knowledge and skills. The respondents reported the above as some of the barriers they encountered at work. The majority of respondents felt they were not given sufficient time to adjust to their new settings on arrival from Zimbabwe.

The analysis of data from the interviews revealed that some respondents were recruited from rural Zimbabwe, where they had never used a computer or mobile phone or sat in a case conference call. The respondents reported that they were expected to adjust quickly and function normally in their new work settings in England but many of them encountered significant challenges.

> “Coming from the remotest and least developed part of Zimbabwe and moving straight into one of the biggest cities in Europe was not an easy thing to comprehend for me and indeed many of my colleagues. Where I was recruited from, I had not used a computer and did not have a driving license. This move to England was a big culture shock for me. I needed to adjust and assimilate into the British social and practice system first before I could develop any confidence to transfer any knowledge and skills”, (Richard, 41)

The lack of communication between recruitment agencies and social work managers about the relevance of the knowledge and skills possessed by overseas Zimbabwean social workers was reported as another barrier to the effective transfer of knowledge and skills especially when the knowledge base was not properly presented to their employers. The majority of respondents reported that the above created problems at the beginning of their social work careers in England. It was reported the agencies exaggerated some of the skills, knowledge and experiences of the respondents without consulting them. The respondents believed their managers' decisions on what type of induction and training was necessary for them was shaped by what information they received from the recruitment agencies.

> "My manager expected me to perform certain tasks she thought I was familiar with as an experienced and skilled worker from abroad as was stated on my CV. I lost some confidence when my manager discovered that I did not have any prior knowledge about for instance legal planning meetings and hospital discharge planning meetings when my agency file stated that I had. This led to me being closely supervised in the first 6 months of my practice", (Luke, 41).

Many respondents reported that management support, induction and training were important in their understanding of the social work organisation and practice in England. They believed that induction and training were prerequisites for learning their jobs and for effective knowledge and skills transfer once they knew what they were doing.

5.2.3 Methods and processes of transferring knowledge and skills

Knowledge transfer is a complex process and as such, there are many methods and processes of transferring knowledge and skills in the field of social work. The analysis of data from the respondents indicates the majority of them used a few different methods and processes in transferring social work knowledge and skills to England from Zimbabwe.

The respondents reported using both structured and unstructured methods, which they referred to as formal and informal methods such as one to one, through team meetings, peer supervision and professional meetings. They further stated that they mostly

transferred their knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England at two basic levels, which could be classified into individual and group levels.

> "I was able to transfer knowledge acquired from Zimbabwe to colleagues here in England through just having one to one informal discussions/conversations, team meetings where I and a few colleagues were given the opportunity to present the relevant skills we felt were easily transferrable. We also used peer supervision groups and team meetings as platforms for discussing and transferring relevant knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England", (Munashe).

5.2.4 Individual and Group levels

The data from the responses of the majority of the respondents suggest that social work knowledge and skills were significantly transferred from one national context to another at individual level for their personal and professional benefit. The following were predominantly used in relation to transferring knowledge and skills; report writing, social work home visits, supervision, interviews / engagement with service users and other professionals, caseload management, case planning, social work assessments, case analyses, one to one individual work with children, networking and observations. Most of the respondents reported that they had transferred their previous social work knowledge and skills acquired from one professional and social situation in Zimbabwe to another in England through a variety of methods and channels.

> "I was able to use a lot of the skills I acquired in Zimbabwe here in England but I found that court skills were a bit difficult to transfer because of differences in family court systems between England and Zimbabwe", (Gabby, 41)

At a group level, the majority of the respondents reported that they had transferred relevant knowledge and skills through the following: team meetings, peer supervision with local colleagues, core group meetings, multi-agency meetings, case discussions, professional meetings, family group conferences, case conferences, child in need meetings and seminar presentations, cross-cultural communication, court work presentations and management meetings, among others.

Most respondents reported that the transfer of knowledge from one context or person to another was essentially relational; it depends on the relationship or transaction between individuals in a particular setting. In essence, they perceived themselves as translators of knowledge, whose role is very distinctive because of their mobility between social work settings, from Zimbabwe to England.

> "I was able to use the skills I transferred from Zimbabwe to England i.e. computer skills, communication skills, cultural competency skills and conflict resolution skills", (Roy, 33)

The respondents reported that it was important for them to be confident of the knowledge and skills they were transferring and the context within which they were transferring the knowledge and skills to in order for the transfer process to achieve the intended results. They also reported that they needed to be familiar with the ways and methods through which they were transferring the knowledge and skills and these include as stated above one to one interactions, team meetings and peer supervision.

> "I was very much aware of the fact that in order for me to successfully transfer relevant knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England, I needed to be acutely aware of the knowledge I am transferring. I needed to be confident of my ability to transfer the knowledge and to be aware of the context within which the knowledge is being transferred. I also found that some of the people I was transferring the knowledge to appeared surprised that I knew something they thought was important to their practice" (Lynette, 36)

Findings revealed that careful planning and coordination were required in order to determine which method or channels were the best for a particular audience. Although, the respondents overwhelmingly stated that they were aware of the conditions under which knowledge and skills transfer could be done, it appears this depended on the willingness of the recipient to accept that what was being transferred. The majority of the respondents despite reporting they had successfully transferred relevant knowledge and skills to their work settings in England, they were however, not able to specify with certainty the degree of success in this endeavour.

5.2.5 Barriers to knowledge and skills transfer

The majority of respondents reported experiencing a number of barriers in their quest to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. They identified most importantly, lack appreciation of their skills, prejudice by service users, local colleagues and other professionals. Additionally, nearly all respondents reported experiencing some difficulties in transforming tacit knowledge into explicit information, poor management of the transition process into the English child social care system; lack of an in-depth understanding of the local language and colloquial expressions; cultural differences; superficial knowledge and understanding of English culture and social values; lack of confidence, self-belief and self-motivation; poor preparation by managers before the social workers' arrival in the country; a perceived lack of management support during the early days in post; a lack of adequate and appropriate induction and training during the initial stages; some genuine knowledge gaps particularly of issues of equality and diversity and the lack of an enabling environment and poor adaptability to the new environment.

> "I found it difficult during the first days in the UK to translate my knowledge acquired from Zimbabwe into the UK context due to the following; poor understanding of local language, complex and frequently changing procedures, cultural differences, differences in working systems and lack of appreciation of local social work colleagues Overcoming the above was a long drawn out and difficult process for many of us", (Benson, 39).

The majority of the respondents reported that they were allocated complex child protection cases and were expected to handle such work competently as soon as they started work in England. It appeared there was an assumption that as they were experienced social workers who had 'relevant' foreign experience, purportedly similar to England, adapting to the local practice system could not be difficult for them. Most of the respondents admitted that the assumption that they *'could hit the ground running'* undermined their confidence and effectiveness, as they did not receive sufficient training and induction during the initial period of employment as overseas social workers in UK. This was despite the considerable prior experience they had as one responded said:

> "It was surprising that my manager gave me a full caseload only a week after arriving in England despite not having completed my induction and initial training, I felt I was being set up to fail as I did not feel confident to undertake child protection work effectively. I felt really vulnerable and thought of going back home to Zimbabwe", Kelvin (39).

The respondents reported two of the major barriers in their efforts to transfer knowledge acquired from Zimbabwe to England: insufficient knowledge of the technologies or computer packages used in capturing and analysing service user data.

> "A lot of us did not have a clue of how to use the computers to capture data and struggled to understand the different computer packages i.e. ICS, Framework I, Swift…….which were necessary in maintaining service user data. The whole area of use of computer technology was very new to us. In Zimbabwe, we were used to paper files but in England we had to adapt to using paperless files, which was a huge challenge. I eventually managed to complete the computer training with the help of my manager and colleagues," (Leon, 37)

Findings revealed that the respondents' perception of lack of acceptance by local colleagues and other professionals, huge suspicions about their suitability as competent social workers recruited from a poor developing country such as Zimbabwe among other negative experiences they found hard to prove their worth. However, most respondents reported that the ignorance and lack of familiarity with the practice environment during the initial days made their lives a little more difficult. This changes as they became more confident and assertive with their responsibilities.

> "There were some wrong perceptions formed about who we were as overseas social workers and what level of competence we had as black Africans, especially from service users, some professionals and colleagues in the office", (James, 38).

It was clear from their pained facial expressions that the majority of the respondents were irritated by the 'negative attitudes' they experienced. Most of the respondents identified the above as an example of the unfair treatment they thought they were receiving within

the English child social care system. Some respondents described above as condescending and disrespectful and, a significant barrier to any attempts of transferring knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England.

Findings from data analysis suggested the existence of divergent views among the respondents especially regarding the perception that they were singled out or “looked down upon” in the workplace due to their ethnic status as overseas Zimbabwean social workers. A sizeable minority of respondents slightly less than half reported that some of their colleagues were doing well and their work was being acknowledged and praised by some sections of management and service users, which was a morale booster for them. They described overseas Zimbabwean social workers in general as ‘well valued, resilient and hardworking professionals’ in their experience.

> “Despite the fact that some of my colleagues have reported feelings and incidents of discrimination and poor treatment by managers and local colleagues, I have not experienced any negative treatment by anybody. My view is that as long as you do your job as expected, managers especially, will not bother you. I feel valued and accepted by members of my team as one of them”, (Tyler, 38)

Unsurprisingly, a minority of respondents who had previously been managers and supervisors in Zimbabwe also expressed their frustration with their respective employers regarding the lack of recognition of their other non-social work skills, which they considered relevant to their managerial or supervisory roles. Findings regarding the above revealed that this was an area that caused many negative feelings among the majority of respondents. It is clear that the above formed part of their professional experiences in England and may have influenced their confidence levels and resilience in their attempts to transfer relevant knowledge and skill to England.

Many respondents expressed strong sentiments about feeling deskilled, frustrated, disenfranchised and undervalued at the work place compared to their local counterparts. They were however; less optimistic about any chances of upward mobility as they believed the system was skewed against them. This was despite their ‘vast experiences

abroad and possession of advanced qualifications'. More than half of the respondents possessed a Master's degree in social work and related disciplines.

> "it was disappointing that my qualifications in management acquired from Zimbabwe were not considered when I applied for supervisory roles and this snub for non-core social work qualifications acquired abroad appeared to have affected a few of my colleagues from Zimbabwe as well", (Richard, 41)

Findings from the data analysis of the individual interviews appear to suggest that some respondents did not fully appreciate the view that social work was context specific, and that in most cases, social work skills could not be transferred in their original form without adaptation.

Contrary to assumptions and perceptions that close colonial connections between Zimbabwe and England facilitated a swift knowledge and skills transfer process, the study found that there were other factors that made the transferability process a little more complicated than many had predicted prior to moving to England.

One respondent stated that:

> "There was a time I felt that my heavy African accent undermined my understanding of the wider English culture, integration into the wider British society, my confidence and ability to effectively transfer my knowledge and skills acquired abroad to England", (Thandi, 36).

The study found that the success of knowledge and skills transfer acquired from Zimbabwe to England was arguably dependent on the ability of respondents to understand their living and practice environment as reported by the respondents themselves. In this respect therefore, cultural and professional adaptation was immensely important to the respondents personally and in their ability to transfer knowledge and skills.

It also emerged from findings that a sizeable number of the respondents managed to overcome some of the stated barriers by taking basic English lessons to improve their

English language. Some tried hard to socialise with white colleagues and more established migrants, in order to understand general English cultural issues. All of the respondents cited their completion of Post Qualifying (PQ) courses in Child Care as having helped them in understanding the all-crucial competence based social work practice in England, as well as contextualising the knowledge and skills they acquired from Zimbabwe to their respective work environments in England.

> "As soon as I realised that I was experiencing difficulties understanding the social and practice environment, I decided to take a basic English course to sharpen my language skills, interacted more with local white British people to understand more about their social values and undertook the PQ1 Child Care Award course to help me understand the competence based social work practice in England. It was necessary for me to take the steps I did, as I could not see any other way of enhancing my integration process. It paid in the end", (Nomusa, 43)

The majority of respondents reported a lack of practical understanding of the concept of relative poverty, cultural differences on what constitutes child abuse, neglect, and a lack of understanding of the complex benefits system in England. The study found that the above affected their levels of confidence in practice in some ways, during their early days of practice in England. Making necessary adjustments was critical in the process of transferring knowledge and skills from abroad to England. There was a consensus view that coming from an impoverished African country, led by a well-known dictator did not help the respondents in gaining confidence from services users and professional colleagues. This perception affected their acceptability as competent social workers and made their efforts to transfer knowledge and skills a little harder.

> "My being black African from Zimbabwe, a country widely despised in the West for it's so called brutal leader, Robert Mugabe, was a major barrier itself when it came to engaging with service users and professional colleagues, I needed to work twice as hard as my local colleagues in order to be appreciated as a worthy professional", (Tendai, 35)

The analysis of qualitative interviews revealed that the majority of the respondents lacked the confidence and motivation to transfer in a significant way, their knowledge and skills

acquired from Zimbabwe to England in spite of their advanced qualifications and vast experience. It would appear the context within which the transfer process was meant to take place was less than conducive due to a number of constraints as previously stated. It is also worth noting that not all respondents from Zimbabwe possessed advanced qualifications. This made it difficult to establish the extent to which the knowledge and skills were transfer occurred. However, it was not the intention of this study to measure the degree of success of the transferability processes.

5.2.6 The influence of globalisation on knowledge and skills transfer

As already mentioned in Chapter 2, globalisation has become more influential as a context in social work education, training and practice in many countries including Zimbabwe. Understanding the concept of globalisation and its various dimensions in relation to social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer in particular has not been widely explored. When respondents were asked about their understanding of the term globalisation, the majority of them reported that they understood the concept of globalisation and its influence on knowledge and skills transfer in England; but while these views were impressive on the surface, a sizeable number of respondents were apparently limited in their understanding when asked about specifics of globalisation i.e. questions such as; how has globalisation affected your practice. The above demonstrates why the area of globalisation and social work, knowledge and skills transfer needs further research. Nearly all respondents mentioned Economic, Political and Technological and Social/Cultural globalisation as having the greatest effect on the processes of knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England.

A sizeable majority of respondents mentioned globalisation a few times during the interviews and focus group discussions but only a handful were able to give tangible examples of specific global dimensions, which affected or influenced the process of transferring the knowledge and skills they acquired in Zimbabwe to England. They for instance, mentioned the power of technology as part of globalisation, but did not clearly articulate how technological globalisation had influenced their practice and knowledge and skills transfer in any specific way. Most respondents however, were able to

demonstrate the existence of a link between relevant dimensions of globalisation and the process of transferring knowledge and skills to England.

> "As someone who attended University in Zimbabwe about ten years ago, I benefitted from technological and socio-cultural globalisation, which meant that I had access to career opportunities and developments, social work knowledge, practice and social work skills in other countries. This led to my relocation to the UK where I feel globalisation has continued to help me to transfer some knowledge and skills acquired abroad to the UK", (Eddison, 41)

When asked about the impact global factors had on their general practice, the majority of respondents reported that global factors had positively informed their practice and enhanced their knowledge and skills acquired from abroad, making them more confident to transfer these to England where possible. The respondents concurred on the view that the influence of global factors in social work knowledge, skills and practice was inevitable and that social workers needed to embrace the increasingly crucial global factors affecting practice instead of resisting them.

> "The truth about globalisation is that whether you accept it or not it will always affect you socially and in terms of your practice. I find myself embracing aspects of globalisation in all spheres of my life, including in transferring the knowledge and skills I acquired from abroad. For instance, the use of computers and smart phones has become an essential part of the technological globalisation we cannot resist", (Molly, 47).

Findings showed that there was very little specific mention by respondents of other forms of globalisation apart from the technological and socio/cultural factors. When asked about key issues currently affecting global social work knowledge skills and values, again only a handful of the respondents were able to adequately address these issues. The lack of adequate understanding by social workers in general on the importance of global factors to their practice and how these shape their practice in an increasingly globalised world is worrying as highlighted in the conceptual framework. Chapter 2 details the influence of globalisation to social work.

According to Dominelli (2012), it is increasingly acknowledged that social work is largely influenced by global trends and many social problems either are common to different societies or have an international dimension or even involve social professionals in transnational activities and international mobility. The above emphasise the importance of understanding globalisation and global factors as part of social work practice.

The study found that a few older respondents were skeptical about the link between globalisation and the knowledge and skills transfer processes. They argued that the two processes were not linked together but complementary to each other. However, when further asked about the reality of resisting or ignoring global influences on social work knowledge and practice, knowledge and skills transfer, they conceded that the process of globalisation was inevitable.

> "I don't see the link between globalisation and knowledge and skills transfer. The two processes exist separately", (Simba, 51).

The analysis of interviews revealed a number of key findings. These findings include (1) the view that most of the respondents were able to transfer to England basic social work knowledge and skills they acquired from Zimbabwe at a basic level but with adaptations in view of the differences in context between the two countries, (2) globalisation was seen as a significant factor in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills from abroad to England and technological globalisation was cited as the most prominent form of globalisation they knew and had benefited from (3) the older generation of respondents appeared more confident of the knowledge and skills transfer process than the younger generation of respondents who were less confident and largely pessimistic of the transferability processes and (4) the inadequacies of the training and induction processes were perceived by respondents to be detrimental to the process of knowledge transfer.

5.3 Main broad findings

The main broad findings emanating from this part of the study were:

a) The perceived generational differences in the conceptualisation of the knowledge and skills transfer process from Zimbabwe to England.

b) Overseas Zimbabwean social workers felt that they transferred new ideas and new ways in such as child protection, kinship assessments, cultural competencies when working with black and African families and in assessing issues of neglect and poverty.

c) The existence of a potential link between globalisation and knowledge and skills transfer

d) Overseas Zimbabwean social workers felt themselves to have brought with them a range of good skills, which included but not limited to family counselling, cross cultural communication, kinship care assessments and community development

e) That the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired from abroad was only possible with relevant adjustments given the context specific nature of social work.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has presented and analysed some of the findings from the analysis of qualitative semi-structured interviews with 30 respondents in England. This includes some basic demographic data linking this chapter to the literature review in Chapter 3. From the analysis of the findings, it is clear that the differences in perspectives regarding the concept of knowledge itself and associated concepts, the relevance of knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England influenced the processes of knowledge and skills transfer in England. This study revealed that the majority of the respondents strongly believed they had managed to transfer relevant knowledge and skills, which had improved their own practice as individual practitioners and as a distinct ethnic group. They believed the social work knowledge and skills they transferred to England from Zimbabwe had benefitted them in improving their own practice. They saw themselves as the carriers of knowledge and skills that made a difference to the profession in a small but significant way. However, a minority of respondents indicated that the vast differences that existed in social work training and practice between England and Zimbabwe might have affected the degree of transferability of knowledge and skills between the two contexts. It was clear from views of respondents that knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe could not be fully transferred to England without some necessary adjustments, reflecting the

realities of social work training and practice in both countries. Findings presented revealed divisions amongst the respondents on the relevance of some of the specific knowledge and skills perceived to be transferrable from Zimbabwe to England. The findings further revealed a number of barriers in the attempts by respondents to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. The study findings also showed the existence of a relationship between globalisation and knowledge and skills transfer in particular, but there were no strong views on this nexus as respondents did not demonstrate a strong awareness and detailed understanding of the specific aspects of globalisation. This above suggest that globalisation is an increasingly important phenomenon which affects social work practice in general but it appears the level of awareness of its implications to practice is still limited and undeveloped.

Chapter Six

General migration experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England

6.1 Introduction

This is the second part of the Findings chapters, and focuses on the sub themes that emerged from the reported general migration experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers (respondents) working and living in England. These sub themes range from experiences with the process of recruitment, social work organisation and culture in England, experiences of transnationalism, social networks, communication and cultural challenges, racism and discrimination and the benefits of migration.

The lived professional experiences of the respondents in England could be perceived to be largely shaped by unfulfilled expectations in some cases, professional and personal challenges encountered in the process of their professional integration, including language among other factors. Some of these experiences reported by respondents, including poor initial induction and training, differences in culture, lack of familiarity with computer systems, and scepticism from colleagues and service users were directly and indirectly linked to the transfer of social work knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England, as indicated in Chapter 5. Knowledge about globalisation and its dimensions was also further explored in this chapter. Findings revealed a rather limited understanding of this concept by respondents albeit demonstrating some awareness of its impact on their day-to-day practice.

This chapter highlights some findings which on the surface, may not reflect any direct link with the main issue of knowledge and skills transfer but are essential in creating the necessary conditions for such transfer to take place. To illustrate the above point Siar (2011) argues that the success of knowledge transfer appears to depend on the level of stability of the knowledge recipients, which includes some of the respondents in this case study. In understanding the above, the importance of appropriate support for the successful adjustment and settlements of migrants cannot be understated. According to the analysis of individual interviews, most respondents reported that the above issues

influenced their ability to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England.

6.2 Issues of Globalisation

Globalisation was used as a conceptual framework in analysing some of the experiences by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. Findings showed that, when asked about their understanding of globalisation and its different forms, the majority reported that they were broadly aware of this phenomenon. When asked the follow up question of the influence of global factors on social work training, knowledge, values and skills development in Zimbabwe, only a few could identify specific global factors apart from social media, financial austerity, technological globalisation and the internet. Most respondents reported they were aware of globalisation and its relevance to social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer but could not give substantive examples. However, a sizeable majority reported that globalisation was hugely influential on their day-to-day practice in England as skilled social work immigrants from Africa. The respondents were not as comfortable in their responses each time the researcher mentioned anything global or globalisation as opposed to the topic on knowledge transfer, which they appeared to be more familiarised with. The study found that only a few respondents were demonstrably interested in talking about globalisation in detail, they managed to offer some answers, which were not as emphatic as with other issues, such as the economy and politics.

Most interestingly, many respondents reported that in their experience, the transfer of knowledge and skills was not an isolated process but that it was linked to the whole spectrum of migration issues such as racism, transnationalism, assimilation and integration, social networks to name a few.

> “My experience as an overseas social worker in England who is trying to transfer knowledge and skills is that the process of transferability of knowledge and skills is complex and therefore cannot be divorced from the other aspects of settlement or migration”, (Zodwa, 39)

> “Without good induction, peer support, good integration into the host country, a stable living environment, conducive working environment free of racism,

> management support…….and your own confidence, the process of knowledge and skills transfer cannot succeed" (Joshua, 33).

6.3 The recruitment process for the migrant social workers

The study noted that the majority of the respondents were recruited to work in England through varied means, which included recruitment agencies, self-application in response to advertisements, joining family members and with help through referrals from friends, as outlined previously in Chapter 3. Agency recruitment was the largest single method used to bring social workers to England. When asked about their recruitment experiences, most of the respondents recruited by international recruitment agencies reported largely negative experiences, with very few reporting positive experiences.

The study findings showed that a sizeable number of respondents were charged what they considered 'high fees' by recruitment agencies. There were also consistent reports from respondents expressing dissatisfaction with the quality of induction and initial training they received soon after starting work in England. Some respondents (who showed visible signs of annoyance when recalling this during the interviews) reported that they were provided with inadequate or inaccurate information about where they would be working, what level of support they would be receiving and how much they would be earning after a probationary six months period. As one respondent stated:

> "There was a lot of misinformation about what really was on offer for us in England, what we were told during the early recruitment process is not exactly what happened when we arrived in England, in terms of perks….., induction and training. This led to some mistrust between us and our employers who blamed the agency for the inaccurate employment information". (Paul, 39)

Most respondents perceived some recruitment agencies as 'deceitful and unprofessional'. There were manifestly, very strong feelings of possible financial exploitation of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in the hands of recruitment agencies. There was a perception that the recruitment agencies were simply interested in financial benefits from the overseas

social workers, instead of promoting or safeguarding their welfare once they arrived in England. The study found that some of the recruitment agencies were so keen to get social workers to England to the extent of paying their airfares, which they recovered from the respondents through direct debit payments over a period once they started working.

One respondent echoed that:

> "Most of us felt abandoned by the recruitment agencies once we started work, they told us their responsibility ended with the signing of work contracts. They constantly harassed us by demanding that we pay them back the money they used to bring us here through monthly installments. We did not have access to the invoices, all we were given was the total bill…….. Our new employers were less interested in helping, they instead referred us to Unions i.e. Unison and BASW for help, and this left many of us very frustrated and helpless".(Tatenda, 51)

A common thread in the data was that the information provided by recruitment agencies to employers in respect of their experience and prior knowledge of social work practice and organization in England and start dates was not accurate. This resulted in a lot of confusion regarding their induction and readiness to 'hit the ground running' as was expected by their managers. Some of the managers were not informed of their starting dates in their teams. Additionally, some of these managers had not worked with overseas recruited social workers before, especially those from black Africa. They did not know what to do with them. The social workers spent a few days just doing nothing in the office, while the requisite procedures were being undertaken. In a few cases, a minority of respondents reported that they arrived in an office where there was no preparation made for them in terms of seating arrangements, computer log on details, induction and training (especially child protection training) and being asked to attend child care proceedings without proper preparation and knowledge of the case.

> "When I arrived in the office, everyone was looking at me suspiciously and that made me feel embarrassed and scared that the office environment was hostile to me. I introduced myself as a new social worker recently recruited from Zimbabwe and the manager did not recognize who I was, she had allegedly not been informed of my coming", (Tatenda, 51)

The respondents reported that their professional confidence levels were greatly affected by the practice of managers giving them complicated cases without proper guidance. As stated, they were expected to "*hit the ground running*", as one said; they were supposedly recruited as experienced workers with fully transferrable skills. For instance, a number of respondents later found out they were not supposed to perform child protection duties without relevant training first.

The study found that some only received the essential child protection training whilst they were already working with child protection cases making them vulnerable to blunders and risking their professional integrity.

Extract from the data;

> When asked whether they received initial induction and training at his first job upon arrival from Zimbabwe and to describe the nature and relevance of that induction, one responded offered this lengthy response.
>
> *Respondent:*
> "I received the initial corporate induction first, the one where one is shown how departments are organized, where to get stationery, introduction to computers and the facilities available within the work environment. This was pretty easy and fast. This type of induction is usually organised by the Corporate Services department and had little to do with my role as a social worker. The departmental induction run mostly by Children's Services, perhaps the most important induction for me as a social worker did not take place for several weeks. The reason for the delay was that there were not enough new starters to conduct a comprehensive induction. I waited for almost four months before I was formally inducted into the social care system. My manager referred me to the senior practitioner for information and support whilst I was awaiting the proper and more formal induction. When the induction eventually took place, a few colleagues and I were not happy about the way it was delivered. It was a one-day induction facilitated by two presenters who introduced the LA policies and procedures and how to conduct Child protection Investigations. It was so quickly delivered such that we did not have enough time to ask the relevant questions. At the end of this induction which lasted from 10am

> to 3:30pm, we were told that we now had the knowledge and skills to undertake Child Protection cases with support from our respective managers". (Ronny, 44)

The study found that the above approach was not appropriately delivered and may not have adequately prepared the newly recruited respondents to effectively undertake serious child protection investigations.

The study found that most respondents were surprised about the emphasis placed on social work experience rather than qualifications in England. This made many of them feel a little vulnerable, as they did not have the specific child protection experience expected of them.

> ''The lack of specific child protection experience worried most of us. During the beginning of our practice in England, we encountered a number of challenges…We were treated as less of professionals despite some of us having had lots of experience and solid educational and professional qualifications even better than some managers'', (Tembi, 35).

6.4 Motivations to relocate to England

Respondents reported a variety of reasons behind their decisions to immigrate to England. Every respondent had their own story different from the other with the exception of a few respondents who reported kindred reasons and experiences. Findings from the analysis of individual interviews revealed that the majority of respondents were affected by the following factors which in essence could be described as Push and Pull factors such as; deteriorating social, economic, political and security situation in Zimbabwe, lack of opportunities for employment back home, protection of human rights, stable and predictable economic conditions and better school and education opportunities in England. The above reasons were similar to those highlighted under motives for migrating abroad as stated in Chapter 3.

One respondent commented that:

> "There were many reasons why I took the decision to move to England and these include mainly the deteriorating political and economic situation in Zimbabwe, fast plummeting standards of living fuelled mainly by hyperinflation and economic collapse. The future of my young children was also important and to take

> advantage of the many educational opportunities that exist in England". (Tomana, 33)

Findings revealed a multidimensional approach to knowledge and skills transfer, as opposed to the traditional unidirectional approach, which entails knowledge and skills moving in a linear direction from the developed North to the global South. The respondents reported that they were among the few international social workers to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from a small developing country traditionally recipient of knowledge from the more developed North, where social work as a profession is longer established.

6.5 Social work organisation and culture in England

There was wide agreement from the respondents that significant differences existed in the organisation and culture of social work practice between Zimbabwe and England. The respondents reported that they had experienced structural differences in the organisation of social work practice in England and Zimbabwe. The main areas of organisational and structural difference cited were to do with the distinction between children's social care services and adult social care services. The majority of respondents cited specialisations within children's services such as Looked After, First Response, Long Term, Children with Disabilities Teams as difficult to understand during the initial days of employment. The respondents were used to a generic social work structure and practice where social workers, officially called social welfare officers, make all the decisions regarding social work issues having very little consultation with service users or guidance from supervisors.

> "In Zimbabwe, there is no distinction between children and adults social work departments, as social workers; we deal with everybody and everything. There is no specialisation. We also tell service users what to do and in the main, there is very little or no consultation between social workers and service users as is the case in England". (Graham, 36).

As previously discussed in Chapter 3 social welfare departments in Zimbabwe, the biggest employer of social workers in Zimbabwe makes no distinction between 'children's and adults' departments. The majority of respondents also reported that, while they welcomed the high level of support in England through frequent and robust supervision, they found it difficult to comply with the expectation that they should give managers/supervisors feedback on allocated cases at all times.

Most respondents considered the organisation of children's services in England as very complex, confusing at the very least and very advanced in comparison to Zimbabwe. They mostly reported that it took them several months to gain a clear understanding of how the entire system works. This included situating the welfare benefits system in the broader social care system in comparison to the situation in Zimbabwe. The study found that many respondents had no clue about how the benefits system works in England and more importantly how it is linked to children's services.

One respondent stated that:

> "The social care system in England creates dependency by rewarding people for just sitting at home and in Zimbabwe we neither have the resources nor the means to just provide social care benefits just like that" (Takura, 40).

It emerged from individual interviews that most respondents were not used to being challenged by clients in Zimbabwe, as was the case in England. The concept of complaining against social workers was new to nearly all the respondents. The findings showed that the service user/ social worker relationship was treated differently in Zimbabwe and England. Furthermore, respondents reported that in Zimbabwe, parents and guardians did not have solicitors in court, the majority of parents had limited or no detailed knowledge of human rights principles and there were no structured child protection conferences or formal statutory safeguarding plans comparable to England. In Zimbabwe, it was also reported in interviews and focus group discussions that families were disempowered and did not always have the ability to make decisions, as was typically the case in England.

> "In Zimbabwe, parents did not have the same level of support or empowerment regarding constructive participation in child protection conferences or equivalent meetings where they can challenge the authorities about their children. The police have more power than anyone else and could not be trusted in making impartial decisions about children at risk of harm…….Police corruption is rampant and so are some parts of the criminal justice system". (Richard, 41)

Nearly all respondents reported experiencing significant problems in understanding the many protocols and procedures especially in child protection, as well as the low thresholds of child abuse criteria justifying intervention in English local authorities. The majority of respondents reported noticeable differences in the practice and legislation of child care/protection.

> "Our lack of adequate induction and training on child protection policies and procedures impacted negatively on our practice when conducting home visits, investigating cases of abuse, practice in care proceedings and multiagency relationships. The aggregate effect of the above was loss of confidence in our own practice and fear of making mistakes, I personally felt vulnerable as a professional" (Ranga, 28).

When asked to state incidents or situations which made them feel vulnerable due to anxieties about the poor induction and initial training they received, the respondents reported cases of a couple of overseas Zimbabwean social workers who had been referred to both the GSCC and HCPC for disciplinary action (during the time of this study in 2013) due to identified professional malpractice. The above are just but a few areas of difference in social work knowledge and practice between Zimbabwe and England, and these reportedly influenced any efforts by Zimbabwean social workers to transfer knowledge and skills to England.

There was a perception that the respondents had different understandings of what constitutes child abuse and warrants child protection investigations and procedures from those of their English colleagues. Some respondents reported that the culture and

practice in England allowed too many rights to children, which affected the balance of child protection and parental discipline.

> "The power and rights children have in England make it very difficult to use effective intervention methods for fear of crossing professional boundaries. In contrast, the culture in Zimbabwe unlike in England supports the use of stern disciplinary measures against children without major repercussions to parents. Understanding the English system what constitutes child abuse was a major challenge for me and many of my colleagues from Zimbabwe". (Amy, 37)

The majority of the respondents agreed that it was therefore difficult to transfer knowledge and skills effectively without relevant adaptations due to the contextual differences in child protection definitions, laws, procedures and cultural values between the Zimbabwe and England.

> "I found it difficult during the early days to try and transfer all my knowledge and skills about child protection from Zimbabwe, where there is weak and relatively poor child protection practice, poor legislation and different perceptions about child abuse and domestic violence", (Roy, 33)

The study findings also indicated that the majority of respondents had considerable experience conducting informal kinship assessments, leading to the placement of vulnerable children with the wider family where they would be supported by a network of close relatives. The data also showed that most of the respondents had a better understanding of the extended family system where child foster care arrangements were largely undertaken by the extended (wider) family unit. The majority of respondents reported that the area of kinship care, or use of the wider family in childcare arrangements, was one major area where they had good competencies in. They also reported feeling confident in the ability to transfer their knowledge and skills to local colleagues in England.

Another factor that seemed to affect the confidence levels of the respondents was the lack of a good understanding of the social work practice context, culture and social values in England during the early settlement days, but also in their efforts to transfer knowledge,

values and skills acquired in Zimbabwe to England in due course. The majority of respondents agreed entirely in having difficulties understanding the risk aversion culture, popularly known as '*covering your back'*, which essentially entails one doing things in a self-protective way in case there are problems in the future. It appears the concept of *'covering your back*' made them susceptible to making more mistakes due to the anxiety this concept created during practice as one of them stated;

> "It has never been my practice to do things in order to protect myself against any future challenge but I do things for the benefit of the children I am working with. It took me and most of my Zimbabwean colleagues a long time to understand this concept. It is clear this concept is widespread across children social care practice in England but the managers do not openly promote it, which makes it difficult to understand. Some of us have become scared of making mistakes in view of complaints and litigation culture in this country", (Tendai, 33)

6.6 Experiences with transnationalism

Transnationalism emerged as a key theme albeit originally it was not part of the research questions. However, the researcher decided to accord it the importance that the respondents thought it deserved. Transnationalism was perceived as an important element of their migration process, which affected most of the respondents in this study.

There was overwhelming consensus from the respondents that they had maintained some contact, albeit at varied levels, with their professional colleagues and families in Zimbabwe as a way of keeping themselves updated on social, political and practice issues.

Negi and Furman (eds. 2010) in their contribution to the transnational social work debate argue that we live in a global society that affects both our daily lives and our professional careers in many intense ways in which we cannot afford to ignore things that happen around us and in places further away from us. They believe every form of social work practice is, in reality, transnational practice. Social workers, they argue, have to stay in touch with the many issues that affect us and even intervene when appropriate and that

social workers now have access to much of the world through information technology, which was never the case previously.

In view of the afore-mentioned therefore, Negi and Furman (eds, 2010) conclude that it is critical that social workers make technology a part of their transnational practice. Technology is seen as one of the tools used in transnational practice to turn difficult tasks into doable tasks and the potential of these tools cannot be ignored any more than the global environment can be overlooked. Negi and Furman (eds, 2010) identified the blocking and filtering of Internet technologies by some nations, preventing access to some or all Internet content, which is usually done for political reasons. Transnational social work also involves not only the adhoc approach to technology training but an understanding of both technology in general and how to use technology in social work. They also further argue that the context of social work is changing from local to global as part of the information technology and the information economy globally. Social workers therefore will need information technology skills to deal with this new reality.

The majority of the respondents reported that they had established and strengthened their ties with family and relevant institutions in Zimbabwe in an ongoing and mutually beneficial way. This form of transnationalism had reportedly helped them to integrate and function reasonably well in their host communities, socially and professionally.

> "I have established ties with two universities in Zimbabwe where I have taken part in voluntary activities such as guest lecturing and linking high school students from Zimbabwe with universities and colleges in the United Kingdom. I use information technology to achieve this. I believe that, as a transnational worker, I have the unique responsibility of transferring to England knowledge, skills and values that are considered relevant". (Michael, 44)

According to this respondent, there was a lot of knowledge that he and his colleagues had acquired from Zimbabwe, which was easily transferrable to England. The majority of the respondents overwhelmingly expressed the view that transnationalism helped them

in transferring knowledge and skills gained from Zimbabwe to England. They reportedly had achieved this through back and forth travel to Zimbabwe and maintaining constant face-to-face and electronic links with professional colleagues there. Most respondents reported that they understood the challenges associated with transferring knowledge, values and skills from one social and practice context to another and that transnationalism had facilitated that process.

Findings of the study also revealed transnationalism evoked the feelings of identity and belonging. Findings revealed for most of the respondents, the host-country is considered 'home', even if this is contrasted with the recreation of a Zimbabwean setting in the diaspora. The respondents also consider Zimbabwe as 'home', which leads to a dual notion of home. The respondents reported that, through transnationalism, they do not see distance as a barrier to their connectivity with home as in the place of origin. Those respondents who still have their immediate families in Zimbabwe were the most vocal in defining their transnational activities.

> "I strongly believe in the power of transnationalism and social networks. I am a member of a burial society in Zimbabwe and have maintained my membership for more than twenty years. I participate in the activities of the burial society personally, when I visit Zimbabwe and virtually in England. This relationship is important to me and my family in many ways", (Munashe, 39).

The data from the interviews revealed that most respondents regularly attend training sessions or workshops organised by the Council for Social Workers in Zimbabwe to keep them abreast with what was happening within the social work profession in Zimbabwe. The idea was to use some of the knowledge, skills and values acquired from these workshops/training sessions to improve their practice in England. A small number of respondents reported that keeping in touch with practice in Zimbabwe helped them to understand social work developments back home in case they decide to return to Zimbabwe to practice.

6.7 Feelings of Identity

The respondents reported that they felt strongly about being different from their British counterparts and were very passionate about the difference, especially as ethnic black Africans, Zimbabweans in particular, working and living in England. There are certain characteristics depicted in their local community and within their work environment, which bound the respondents together as skilled social care migrants in England. The sense of belonging to their home country of Zimbabwe even though they are physically domiciled in England, appeared to be pivotal to the lives of the respondents. The findings showed that the respondents perceived that the 'prejudices and discrimination' they often encounter from service users, colleagues and other professionals tend to embolden their sense of identity. Some of the participants stated that the longer they stay away from home the more their perceived attachment with Zimbabwe gets stronger.

> "The idea of living away from home generates some emotionalism especially when one feels discriminated and marginalised socially, and within the work place. For me, the above has made me a stronger individual. It's not easy to stay away from the place you call home and where you are treated like the rest of the population. However, I have over years learnt to believe that as an international worker, I will always face challenges and need to seek strength from my family and community", (Millie, 33).

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> "I have to be careful in UK as a dual citizen, because my rights of domicility here are not the same as the natural born British citizen. The constant experiences of racism and discrimination reminds me of who I am it terms of my identity, and this shapes my destiny and those of my children", (Rudo, 44)

> "…….I believe our problems of discrimination, exploitation and racism are deeply rooted in who we are, not what skills we possess", (Rutendo, 43)

According to the study findings, it appears that the issue of identity was a major issue for most of the respondents because of their perception of difference and that their negative experiences should be seen through that prism.

6.8 Social Networks

The study found that social networks were very important in the lives of the respondents especially during the initial settlement days. The study findings revealed that the majority of respondents reported using social networks in finding accommodation, in deciding which school they took their children to, in deciding which church to attend and in seeking help and support with social and professional issues. The majority of the respondents perceived that social networks had played a significant role with information and support in their decision to immigrate to England. As potential migrants, they had been connected to networks through both direct links (family, relatives and friends) and indirect ones (community networks). According to Crisp (1999), social networks enable other migrants to follow peers, utilising the provision of information about job opportunities, money for transportation, and accommodation

The majority of the respondents stated that they significantly benefitted from the social networks they identified when they first moved to England. They further contended that the social networks helped create a supportive environment in which they could transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England.

The study findings revealed that respondents' social support networks both within and outside their work environment were hugely instrumental to them in every respect including in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England particularly during the early days of their careers. As part of the social support networks, it was found that there was support received from the recruitment agencies, the new work environment and fellow overseas Zimbabwean social workers. The above support networks, it was reported, helped the respondents in adjusting to life in England and developing a sense of identity and belonging.

One respondent commented;

> "if I had not identified and utilised the social networks in England my initial stay and settlement in the host community and integration at the work place would have been a big nightmare" (Elizabeth, 46)

The study found that the existence of both personal and professional support networks helped in the process of integration and acculturation. This was implicit in what one respondent stated:

> "……...for me it was very clear that if I did not have the support from friends, church members, colleagues at work, managers, fellow Zimbabwean overseas professionals, social workers and nurses included, I would have found it extremely difficult to cope with the many challenges that I encountered at the beginning. These ranged from an irate racist neighbour, impatient bus drivers, difficult service users, untrusting work colleagues and cheeky landlords" (Tembi, 35).

6.9 Communication and cultural challenges

When respondents were asked to describe their experiences of living in England in general, most of them explained that they had encountered many linguistic and cultural challenges. These were related to the proper use of language, for example, they mentioned terms such as political correctness, the role of the state and civil society in determining what is good or bad parenting, the existence of powerful children's rights, the definition of parenting responsibilities, attitudes towards gay rights, the importance of multi-agency working, differences in the conception of civic responsibilities, attitudes towards domestic violence, attitudes towards marriage and civil partnerships, among others. Respondents reported that an understanding of the above issues was important in the process of transferring knowledge, values, and skills they had acquired from Zimbabwe to England. According to the respondents, knowing the correct language, and English social and cultural values and etiquette did help a great deal in this regard,

Although many respondents cited similar language as one of the factors motivating their migration to England, they had found that communicating with colleagues and service

users was still challenging. Most of the respondents reported that sharp differences in social work culture, terminology and practice were a major challenge in their attempts to transfer values, knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. However, most respondents reported that a gradual understanding of the diverse or multicultural nature of the English society helped them overcome some of the cultural differences encountered when they arrived in England.

One respondent said that:

> "During the first days we arrived in England, it was very hard for most of us to understand in essence some aspects of English culture such as acceptance of homosexuality, nuclear family systems, sending frail and elderly parents to care homes and ways and methods of disciplining children. It took me in particular a long time to understand the above cultural aspects and embed them accordingly in social life and professional practice", (Loveness, 36)

Most respondents agreed that understanding the above cultural aspects and values was important in determining which of their experiences, knowledge and skills were relevant to transfer to the English social and professional context.

6.10 Racism and discrimination

Respondents also revealed very passionately how they encountered what they described as episodes of racism and discrimination in England. A number of isolated accounts of painful incidents of racism and racial discrimination suffered by Zimbabwean social workers in England were cited.

> "On a number of occasions my manager and some colleagues asked me questions which suggested that what I was doing was either a black or an African thing. In one instance, I was allocated mostly black families in comparison to my white colleagues and in other instances; some disrespectful comments were made to me and my compatriots by white colleagues, which I interpreted as being racist or discriminatory". (Andy, 41)

However, there was an acknowledgement from all respondents of the existence of very robust laws against racism in England.

> "……in UK there are very robust laws against racism and other forms of discrimination and their strict application would help to protect some of us from poor African countries but the reality sometimes is different", (Roger, 39).

Most respondents reported that some of the racism and discrimination they experienced was covert and therefore difficult to evidence, but had been a painful experience. The alleged racism, it appears was both overt and covert but respondents were largely reluctant to report incidents as they felt reporting would threaten their jobs and make them more vulnerable. It is important to note that the respondents did not expect to be met with racism and hostility when they relocated to England.

The respondents reported being subjects of perceived racism and discrimination from white and black Caribbean social workers respectively and, from service users and from other professionals in isolated incidents. They stressed that discrimination from black Caribbean social workers was unanticipated and even more painful. The perceived lack of support received from managers had apparently resulted in some respondents being subject to disciplinary action and in one extreme case, a respondent reported having been suspended from her social work duties for more than six months only to be reinstated with support from the trade union UNISON on the grounds that there was not enough evidence to dismiss her. Some respondents also reported they were also unfairly excluded from training opportunities and promotion to senior roles such as senior practitioner and team manager but gave no further evidence to substantiate this.

> "the biggest problem most of us faced was the lack of confidence to report cases of racism and discrimination; getting the required evidence to warrant an investigation was not easy. Most of us did not even understand the procedures for reporting cases of racism and perceived discrimination. Most importantly, we were not sure of what would happen to us if we reported cases of racism against managers for instance. It was very difficult for us," (Timmy, 41)

Some respondents reported incidents where they experienced racism perpetrated by other professionals who did not have confidence in them as equally credible social workers. This affected their confidence levels in many areas of their professional practice. Findings from the study also showed cases of respondents suffering racial prejudice from

some service users, which was surprising for most of them, given their dominant relationship with service users in Zimbabwe.

One respondent (Lilly 44) said that:

> "A service user complained to my manager that I could not speak well enough English, had a heavy African accent and that my approach was more instructional than constructive. This complaint led to my receiving a negative performance appraisal from my manager and I was devastated".

The above issues were apparently connected in part to the poor training and induction most of the respondents received when they initially took up their posts. The complaints and negative appraisals against the respondents reduced dramatically as they received further training and developed more confidence in their roles.

> "I felt more vulnerable as a practitioner during the early days in my job due to lack of proper induction and training and received more complaints…….. and negative appraisals from sections of senior management However, things improved a great deal a few years later as I became more confident and resilient", (Roy, 33)

A minority of the respondents had divergent views about the reported racism, discrimination and prejudice. They argued that this was actually more pronounced in situations where there were issues of professional and social integration by overseas social workers into English society. They also cited incompetence on the part of some of the respondents whose practice standards were considered questionable and who were being challenged for such incompetence. These incompetent social workers they suggested were most likely using racism and discrimination as an excuse for challenges to their poor performance and lack of professionalism. The above view was however, controversial, as respondents were divided on the degree of racism and discrimination they encountered in the workplace.

The study found that some respondents held inaccurate views about the existence of a fair and equal society in England prior to their arrival from Zimbabwe. They expected, as

promised by recruitment agencies, a significantly better life including a plethora of opportunities for themselves and their families which was true in part.

The racism and discrimination suffered by some on arrival and supposedly perpetrated by white colleagues, professionals and service users caused some respondents to turn to each other and create spaces for themselves where they could feel accepted. They turned to the Zimbabwe Social Workers Network (ZSWN) for support particularly, from the acting chairperson and one former committee member who were still active in the organisation. The ZSWN was seen as very crucial in addressing some of the effects of racism and grievances encountered by some respondents. It was also noteworthy that those who were members of UNISON or BASW felt better protected against incidents of racism and other forms of discrimination or unfair treatment by their employers.

> "The ZSWN although not fully functional now, has supported us with skills in identifying signs of racism and discrimination where it occurs and how to report it properly through the right channels. I have seen some people reporting cases of racism and discrimination without proper evidence and ending up being accused of making false allegations". (John, 34)

6.11 Settlement experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England

Findings from the analysis of qualitative interviews revealed that the majority of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England had either permanent residence status or acquired British citizenship, which underline their intentions to stay in England in the long term. This was not surprising though. The initial experiences of migrants and their families involved a range of social, cultural and economic factors. Most of the respondents felt that the ease with which they as migrants have settled into their destination country, was a significant indicator of their long-term adjustment, which has helped in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to their new settings. It would appear from the analysis of individual interviews that the settlement experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England present both positive and negative experiences. Some of these experiences were as reported by respondents as detrimental to their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England.

For most respondents, it would appear that the process of moving from Zimbabwe to England was on balance, smooth but more challenging during the initial days. These challenges were reported to include among others; having to prove to everyone that they were efficient and competent compared to their local colleagues, having to fight some incidents of racism and prejudice from some edgy managers, colleagues and services users. Understanding the different types of service users, abuse allegations against social workers and the impact of the welfare state on social service delivery were also some crucial challenges for the respondents in England according to data analysis.

When asked about whether they had benefitted from the migration process, the majority of the respondents agreed that they had benefitted by investing in a financially secure future, due to the relatively better salaries they receive in England, which helped them to make personal financial and property investments abroad. Most of them, it emerged had managed to buy houses in England and back home in Zimbabwe. The better salaries they received in England had enabled them to send regular remittances back home to Zimbabwe to support their families.

Findings showed that the majority of the respondents had benefitted from a higher standard of living compared to the poverty they endured in their country of origin where conditions of employment were reported to be less than satisfactory. There is evidence of declining employment opportunities in Zimbabwe, where the conditions of living in the county have worsened in recent years due to the ongoing political upheavals and economic decline (Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall, 2006). The respondents reported the existence of peace, protection of civil liberties and human rights, predictable economic trends as some of the benefits accrued by the overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England.

> "When I arrived in England 14 years ago, I did not have anything, however in 10 years I have managed to acquired two masters degrees, my children attend a grammar school; I enjoyed the best access to health care as opposed to the crumbling health facilities in Zimbabwe. I have job security and can spend peaceful nights at home. I feel I made the right decision to move to England" (Richard, 41)

The majority of respondents reported the existence of superior educational and career development opportunities in England as a positive experience for those who were interested in furthering their education and improving their personal development. The educational opportunities referred to above include top-class universities, colleges, and professional institutes in which equal opportunities exist for all students as long as they meet the enrolment criteria.

One respondent reported that:

> "In Zimbabwe, the deteriorating economic conditions have created an environment where access to the few good educational facilities and public facilities is very difficult. It therefore means that only those with good political connections or who are rich can have access to good educational opportunities for their children for instance". (Viola, 46)

6.12 Multiagency working

Most respondents reported that the practice of multiagency working was a good experience for them. It was an experience most of them had not seen during their social work practice in Zimbabwe. The benefits and challenges of multiagency working were cited as a good experience in their practice. Findings showed that the majority of respondents identified multi agency working as a new way of working for them, which they felt, was a good platform to communicate with professionals from diverse backgrounds, learn new ideas as well transfer some of their skills from abroad.

> "In Zimbabwe one can never dream of the police, schools and social workers working together effectively due to the existence of selfish egos, lack of resources for coordinating these professionals…….. and more Importantly, the mistrust between these different professionals will always work against any form of collaboration".
> (Tish, 50)

6.13 Supervision

The study found that a significant number of respondents applauded the system of supervision in England compared to their experience in Zimbabwe where in some cases they did not receive any supervision in many months and, when they did, the quality was less than impressive. Some respondents reported that only in England had they learnt that supervision was indeed considered as a tool for managing accountability and efficiency. They also saw supervision as a form of management support and partly related to reflective practice and learning. The respondents reported that it was through supervision where they tested the effectiveness of the skills transfer process, as this would reflect in the progress of their cases and the appraisals they received from their managers and supervisors.

> "In the absence of properly organised training and induction in the early days, I found very regular and well-structured supervision being useful in providing me with the guidance and the support I desperately needed as a social worker practising in a foreign context". (Melusi, 46)

6.14 Relationship with service users and other professionals

Findings from the study revealed that most respondents had difficulties in forming and maintaining positive relationships with service users and other professionals and this was critical in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills from abroad to England. One respondent reported that problems with communication and in understanding work ethics in England contributed to relationship problems. A lack of understanding of the power relationship between the social worker and the service user was a major challenge for the newly recruited overseas social workers from Zimbabwe. This was very clear as stated by one respondent:

> "It was very difficult for me to tolerate abuse from a service user during home visits and being openly challenged by another professional during multiagency meetings such as Child Protection Conferences and Core Group meetings…….. What made it worse was my manager's advice that I should be able to stand up to the services users and other professionals challenging my

> practice. I expected the manager to fight for my 'corner' which certainly was not the case", (Kgothatso, 45)

The study found that the social worker /service user relationship dominated discussions amongst the respondents, most whom appeared not to adequately understand the power relationship between the social workers and service user in England. When asked about the existence of Anti-oppressive practice, the majority of the respondents struggled to link this practice to the social worker - service user relationship. The above demonstrated the need for respondents to adopt a less directive and oppressive approach characteristic of their practice in Zimbabwe, which was not acceptable practice in England.

> "The difficulties most of us had in relating to service users appropriately resulted in us receiving complaints on a regular basis at least during the early days of arrival in England. For me in particular, support from colleagues and my Manager in supervision helped in changing my relationship with service users and other professionals from poor to appropriate", (Paul, 39)

6.15 Summary

This chapter has presented some general experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England and how some of these have influenced their efforts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England. The consequence is seen through their personal status rather than their professional position, which is often a source of discontent for most of them. Their reported experiences and achievements can be seen through the prism of colonialism and its consequences, which include the creation of social work studies and the career of social worker in Zimbabwe. The experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England were both negative and positive and were reflected in their social and professional lives. Some of these experiences impeded their efforts to transfer crucial knowledge and skills acquired from abroad. Many of the overseas Zimbabwean social workers developed some coping mechanisms to offset their negative experiences. This chapter also addressed in some detail issues around the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers' experience with globalisation, social networks, transnationalism, racism and discrimination and

transnationalism. More importantly, their resilience and determination to succeed in a foreign land, it would appear, helped the overseas Zimbabwean social workers to adjust to the new environment as well as to deal effectively with the challenges they encountered. These social workers also found that crossing international borders to practise social work was not as easy as initially anticipated. The context -specific nature of social work practice was one of the significant challenges for overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, whose attempts to transfer social work skills, values and knowledge encountered a number of barriers.

Chapter Seven

Discussion of Research Findings

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the main findings of this qualitative study and their wider implications for social work practice and knowledge and skills transfer in particular. The chapter addresses the following issues: the main objectives of the study, motivations to migrate to England, the influences of globalisation on social work knowledge and skills transfer, transnationalism and social networks, experiences of racism and discrimination, general experiences of the migration process and the benefits of the migration process. This chapter discusses the study findings in comparison with those of other relevant studies where possible – notably the earlier thesis of Tinarwo (2011)

The processes of transferring knowledge, skills and values had to address challenges, which have been discussed in detail in Chapter 5. While it is generally accepted as reported in the findings chapter 5 and 6 that social work knowledge and skills transferability between two contexts, which are not very similar in many ways, it is possible that some form of transferability took place. The necessity of adjustments in the knowledge and skills being transferred from one context to another is an imperative. The existence of barriers or challenges as reported by respondents is also an issue that required serious consideration. While some of the challenges and barriers were not insurmountable, others were deeply rooted in the social and cultural differences between Zimbabwe and England. However, what did not come out very strongly from the respondents in their evidence was how effective or capable were they in surmounting these challenges.

7.2 Context of the study

The study was constructed to have a particular focus on overseas social workers who trained and worked in Zimbabwe and relocated to England to work as social workers, mostly in children's services departments, with a view to examining how they have transferred knowledge and skills they acquired abroad to England, for their own benefit

and as well as their local colleagues. More broadly, this chapter also offers general thoughts on areas considered to be in need of attention and further research.

This study looked at overseas Zimbabwean social workers' migratory trajectories, and how these have shaped their migratory experiences. The study also explored the participants'' personal circumstances, which provided the basis for a better understanding of their lived experiences as overseas social workers in England and their contributions to wider English society. The study also described the factors that motivated overseas Zimbabwean social workers to want to move abroad in search of employment opportunities.

More generally as stated in Chapters 1 and 3, this case study was undertaken in the wider context of international migration of skilled workers in western countries where the supply of social workers in the social care sector in declining creating a shortage particularly in the Children and Families departments, child protection to be specific.

Studies carried out by Evans (2004, 2007), Welbourne (2007) Hussein et al (2008, 2009, 2010) and Tinarwo (2011) among others discuss the reasons why there is a shortage of social workers in England and Wales. In the case of Evans (2004, 2007), she further unravels in different strands why the shortage of social workers in UK is affecting the delivery of children's social care. This case study has also discussed the shortage of social workers in Zimbabwe and how this has affected the delivery of social welfare services as they are known in the country. In the literature review chapter 3, Batty (2003), Mupedziswa and Ushamba (2006), Hall (2006) and Dziro (2013), all describe and analyse the evolution and development of social work in Zimbabwe and, the journey it has taken in terms of education, training and practice. They both agree on one major point that the deteriorating socio-economic and political situation that has been unravelling in Zimbabwe for many years now has provided fertile ground for social workers in Zimbabwe to leave the country in search of better opportunities elsewhere.

7.3 Motivations to emigrate to England.

The study found that the overwhelming majority of the Zimbabwean social workers moved to England through UK based social care recruitment agencies that facilitated initial interviews and planned their migration journeys throughout. Only a small number of the social workers in this study came to England on their own to seek career opportunities. These few came to England mostly to join their families on spousal visas and ended up taking up social work jobs, as they did not have any work or visa restrictions.

Lyons and Huegler (2012) in their chapter on labour mobility, lament the absence of substantive research into social workers' motivations for seeking work outside their home countries. They mention altruism and adventure, exploring roots and identity, professional development opportunities and improving life chances as some of what experiential evidence, and anecdotal evidence suggest as some models of motivation. According to Lyons (2006), some of the social workers are motivated to travel, explore roots and/or gain experience abroad and this can be argued that the above is mainly limited to social workers from the western world some of whom have ethnic ties to the United Kingdom. This type of motivation would not affect social workers from Zimbabwe. However, the colonial ties existing between Zimbabwe and the colonial power, Britain is perceived by the respondents in Chapters 3, 5 and 6 to have not only influenced their decisions to relocate to England but impacted on their ability to transfer knowledge and skills acquired in Zimbabwe to England as well.

The literature review Chapter 3 revealed that the majority of the respondents came to England in the late 1990s, a period when most local authorities in England were experiencing social work labour shortages and urgently needed to fill vacant posts and therefore intensified their recruitment efforts for social workers abroad (Welbourne, Harrison and Ford, 2007).

There were many varied reasons why respondents migrated to England. However, there were some similarities or general trends in the motivations of most of the respondents. The most common reasons or motivations included; seeking professional and personal advancement, family reunion, better wages and better living conditions for themselves

and their families, in view of the fast deteriorating standards of living in Zimbabwe. There were no major surprises displayed in the above motivations by Zimbabwean social workers, as their reasons for migrating mirrored those of other professionals from elsewhere in Africa and indeed from Zimbabwe. Tinarwo (2011), reports that migration reasons for overseas Zimbabwean social workers in her sample were varied, and did not centre on economic motivation. “International exposure” was the most frequently cited reason, followed by “joining the bandwagon” (Tinarwo, 2011: p265-6)

> “I have always wanted to buy a house back home and lift up my extended family in Zimbabwe and I knew that in order to achieve that I needed to find a job abroad……..My own standard of living has improved a great deal due the decision I made to move to the UK”, (Miriam, 41)

Motivations for moving to England differed slightly among social workers depending on their social background, age, and life and career stage. The majority of the overseas Zimbabwean social workers had taken a decision to immigrate to England well in advance of their departure, which indicates that a lot of consideration and consultation had taken place to arrive at this seemingly difficult decision. However, the study established that other respondents came to England for holiday, visiting friends, on business trips, stayed on, and ended up working as social workers with the help of social networks. Some respondents cited the benefits of living in a developed world with better living standards, superior infrastructure, superb health and educational facilities, and being able to find scholarships as crucial to their decision to move abroad. The above factors also featured very highly in the reasons for immigrating to England. The perception that England was a more relaxed, positive, and accepting society with a good human rights and tolerance record featured highly in the motivation list.

> “I came to England to visit my friend but decided to stay when I realized that I could get a job with my social work qualification”, (Kundi, 42)

There were also variations amongst the respondents on motivations to emigrate to England. One respondent described her motivations to move to England;

> "……because it was fashionable to do so at the time and he had to join the bandwagon." It was clear some participants just looked for international exposure as well as to try the "grass is greener on the other side adventure". Some decided to move to England to widen their professional horizons and gain new skills abroad and to test the 'milk and honey' promised by the recruitment agencies. (Joylene, 50)

The findings indicate the decision for many overseas social workers from Zimbabwe to relocate to England was largely influenced by the belief that their social work knowledge, skills and values were transferrable across social or practice settings, contexts and cultures. The transferability of social work knowledge and skills across borders was also influenced by the fact that Zimbabwean social work education and training were similar to the English system. For some this was good enough reason to convince them to relocate. However, the findings chapters unraveled some inconvenient realities that the transferability process was complex and depended on a number of factors that the respondents had not seriously considered before relocating to England. As stated previously, the status of Zimbabwe as a former colony of Britain gave the social workers the confidence that the transition from Zimbabwe to England would be relatively easy to deal with, due to similarities of language and other elements. The above perceptions provided respondents with the enthusiasm and confidence to make the move to England to seek employment opportunities although the reality for many turned out to be different once they arrived in England. There was a general acknowledgement from the respondents that the entire migration process had been challenging, as significant adjustments were required in order to adapt to the new environment abroad, which was more complicated than they had thought. However, a minority of older respondents were more optimistic about the transfer process but at the same time acknowledged the existence of major barriers to this process.

7.4 Globalisation influences on social work knowledge and skills transfer

Globalisation emerged as a key aspect perceived to have influenced the process of transferring social work knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England but was not adequately addressed by the majority of the respondents. Many of the respondents, albeit not being fully conversant with the concept of globalisation, acknowledged its influence and relevance to their day-to-day practice. Their responses however, suggest the existence of some gaps in the way this important phenomenon is conceptualised by the majority of the respondents'. This gap in information and understanding by many of the 30 respondents interviewed is worrying, given the increasing importance of globalisation in our daily lives. Most respondents, when asked about their knowledge of globalisation, concurred that globalisation was basically the breaking of national barriers between countries and societies, creating of global interconnectedness through international transmission of knowledge, technology, culture and information leading to one global village. However, the respondents could not go beyond the basic definition and understanding the forms or dimensions of globalisation except technological globalisation;

> "……and one can try and ignore the power and influence of globalisation on pretty much everything including social work training, practice and knowledge and skills development but the reality is that globalisation defines the future for all of us. It is a trend we are not able to resist. I see the effects of globalisation in my practice every day", (Nomusa, 43)

However, a small minority of these respondents also acknowledged the existence and irresistibility of globalisation and its dimensions: mainly economic, political, technological and social/cultural. Please see Dominelli (2012), (findings Chapter 6). This was demonstrated by their ability to link globalisation to social work issues and cite credible examples of some of the effects of globalisation on their day-to-day practice i.e. effects of improved technology and social media on their practice and of economic austerity on migration and human rights. Globalisation was also reported as one of the most important factors that influenced the participants' decisions to move to England to take up a career

in social work. Some participants reported that globalisation actually made their transition from Zimbabwe to England even more swift, as easy access to information online (in English) helped them to understand the influence of global issues on social work practice and how social work was organised and resourced in England.

Respondents reported that they brought associated knowledge in other professional areas which enhanced their performance and helped them to understand in a much broader way issues of assimilation and integration, knowledge and skills transferability among other aspects. In view of the above, the study found what appeared to be a degree of exaggeration among the respondents that their skills were being ignored and characterised this as discrimination. However, it was clear there was no guarantee of automatic recognition of skills from the employers, as the Bachelor of Social Work degree was considered adequate to practice social work in England (GSCC, 2012).

The majority of the respondents acknowledged the fact that social work knowledge and skills will always be different from one context to the other but that the basics remain fundamentally the same. The existence of barriers to practice and transferability is not unique and was expected in the findings given the fact that social work is considered a context specific profession.

The main research question was: to what extent can different forms of globalisation help us to understand the transfer of knowledge, skills and values by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. It has been largely answered in the preceding chapters, in detail in Chapters 5 and 6. The findings illustrate the depth of knowledge of Zimbabwean social workers about globalisation, and how this has enabled them to understand the processes of knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England. The social/cultural and technological dimensions of globalisation were cited by participants as having benefitted them greatly upon arrival and settlement in England.

It was evident that most respondents had a sound understanding of technological advancements such as the advent of the internet, Facebook, technological knowledge transfer between the developed North and the underdeveloped South and other technological innovations, which are some of the drivers of globalisation, which affected their social work practice and knowledge transfer.

A minority of respondents believed globalisation was a process of social change just like any other phenomenon, and one which did not play a particularly prominent role in their decision to move to England to seek career opportunities. This small minority of respondents apparently did not consider that globalisation had anything to do with changes in social work education and practice; they preferred instead to use the term internationalisation rather than globalisation to conceptualise these changes. They could be considered as globalisation sceptics as they are termed in globalisation studies as previously discussed Chapter 2.

The majority of the respondents were able to mention some globalisation theories and terminologies but struggled to deconstruct the various components of the globalisation concept to easily understandable and coherent arguments. In particular, most respondents could not easily link globalisation to specific aspects of their training and professional duties. It is however unclear from the evidence whether the above was largely due to the respondents' lack of above average understanding of globalisation or due to its complex, confusing and often contradictory theories as highlighted by Kumar (2003) in Chapter 2. The lack of a standard definition of globalisation did not help respondents in their understanding of globalisation and its relationship to and influence on social work practice.

7.5 Social work knowledge and skills transfer

The transfer of knowledge and skills in social work, especially from a developing to a developed country, is a relatively new phenomenon; there are no studies currently that have been carried out in this area. Transferring social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England was reported to be a major achievement by the majority of respondents, who believe they succeeded in achieving this to a degree, albeit with some challenges. There was however a sense of frustration from some respondents who felt their attempts to transfer valuable knowledge, skills and values acquired from Zimbabwe to England were not as appreciated and supported by the authorities in England as they would have liked. The arguments presented in Chapters 3 and 5 demonstrated the complex nature of transferring knowledge and skills from one particular context to the other.

Skills recognition was a major topical issue during the research and the findings reported in Chapters 5 and 6 demonstrate the extent of the frustration by respondents who felt undervalued and overlooked in the workplace. It was evident that some respondents felt less fully appreciated in terms of their skills, experience and knowledge. For instance, the study noted one respondent who was once a high ranking social work practitioner in Zimbabwe, yet more than 10 years later she continues to work as a social worker in England, despite possessing some 'useful management and supervisory skills' from her previous job.

The transfer of knowledge and skills is a complex area that not only had its own successes but setbacks as well. The study noted that the process of knowledge and skills transfer provided some respondents with a degree of pride. Many of them felt they had acquired unique knowledge, which they could impart to their local colleagues in England if afforded the opportunity to do so.

However, there was an acknowledgement from the majority of respondents especially the mature group, of the difficulties experienced in transferring tacit knowledge in particular. Tacit knowledge as discussed in Chapter 3, is knowledge acquired by individuals which may not be easily transferred into explicit knowledge. Although some respondents expressed that they were able to use their tacit knowledge acquired in Zimbabwe for their own benefit admittedly, the majority of them stated that they could not easily transfer tacit knowledge to their colleagues in England. This underlines the challenges associated with knowledge transfer from one context to another as has been mentioned by a number of authors in Chapter 3 & 5.

There was a general understanding from respondents that all social work knowledge and skills are context-specific, but that their application was a matter of appropriateness and relevance from one situation to another. The findings clearly show that transferring knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England had not been a straightforward process, there were many challenges that were encountered. The respondents became aware of the scale of these challenges when they were already here as insufficient information was shared with them prior to their relocation to England.

The challenges encountered by the respondents appeared to be greater than had been anticipated. It was clear from the findings that the barriers to the process knowledge and skills were of a varied nature and in some cases embedded in the migration process itself. These challenges were due to the factors including; the nature and relevance of the knowledge and skills suited for transfer and the flexibility with which they could be transferred. Further challenges included the ability to transfer the specific skills and knowledge to another person, or group or another situation in a way they could understand and use these, the perceived credibility and integrity of the person transferring the skills and knowledge and the availability of forums and other means to transfer knowledge and skills as highlighted in Chapters 3 and 5. The availability of tools needed for a successful transfer process, the level of support from the appropriate authorities and the environment within which the knowledge and skills were being transferred were critical to the process of transferability. The above were considered to be essential prerequisites for a successful knowledge and skills and transfer process.

Much of basic social work knowledge and skills were regarded as transferrable in the main, with adaptations in view of the different contexts that social work operates under in the two countries. Given some similarities on social work theories between English and Zimbabwean social work education and training, it was unsurprising that most of the respondents mentioned basic social work knowledge and skills as transferrable across professional contexts.

However, the impact of knowledge transfer according to Rutter and Fisher (2013) is difficult to evaluate in terms of its influence on the recipients or knowledge users. Implicit or tacit knowledge in particular is considered to be the most difficult to transfer. In view the above therefore, the assertion by the majority of the respondents that they transferred ‘a great deal’ of their knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England could be overoptimistic.

The study noted that whilst the majority of the respondents were expressly fairly confident about the knowledge and skills they believe they transferred from Zimbabwe to England, without an independent assessment of the relevance and effectiveness of the means of transferability, the impact of that knowledge could be difficult to measure. For instance,

the relevance and effectiveness of tacit knowledge can only be determined through self-reporting.

There was also no evidence from the majority of the respondents to suggest concerted efforts from management were made to tap into their explicit knowledge and incorporate it where possible, into their induction and training, practice guidelines and procedures. As a result, the application of this knowledge and skills was left to the respondents unchecked leading to the conclusion that the knowledge application process may have been haphazard and uncoordinated.

This contrasts with the general pessimism that social work knowledge is heavily context specific and therefore not easily transferrable from one situation to another. However, it must not be forgotten that the sample is self-selected, and thus could exclude those social workers from Zimbabwe who did not succeed in their new roles, and as a result possibly left England or quit social work altogether.

The study noted that the respondents had difficulty in understanding the western perspective, with its emphasis more on casework practice premised on individual worth and self-determination, as opposed to the developmental model they experienced in Zimbabwe in which the community is more important than the individual.

> "Our social work experience is heavily embedded in the social development approach which is more generic than specialized. Individual casework practice is very peripheral as an approach of social work in Zimbabwe. Given the above and……it was difficult for us to embrace the western practice model which places more emphasis on the individual than community. Undertaking the PQ Child Care Award helped me and my colleagues a great deal in adjusting to social work practice in England", (Richard, 41)

Although it is true that social work, as a profession, is context specific as indicated in Chapter 3, there was still a significant scope for the transfer of relevant and basic social work knowledge and skills across international borders. The generic values and other basic tenets of social work practice are essentially the same the world over and their

application in different contexts is a matter of adjustment and appropriateness. The above suggests that social workers can function effectively across contexts and transfer at least some of their basic knowledge and skills from one context to the other with appropriate induction and training.

The study noted convergent views from respondents on the types of knowledge and intervention methods or theories social workers can use across international borders and the importance of ensuring that these methods and theories meet local conditions in order to be effective. It was evident from the data from the individual qualitative interviews that the existence of some similarities in the language and professional values between Zimbabwe and England made some aspects of social work easily transferrable within a context. In essence, there are knowledge and skills that are universal and others that are indigenous to Zimbabwe, hence the idea of social work being context-specific in the main as opposed to the wholesale transfer.

For any knowledge and skills transfer process to succeed, there has to be enabling factors as discussed in Chapters 3 and 5, which make it happen. For most the respondents, the environment within which the knowledge and skills transfer processes take place has to be a positive and conducive one. The existence of barriers stated in Chapter 5 presents some problems for social workers wishing to transfer knowledge and skills in a different context. Respondents also stated in Chapter 5 that they managed to find some ways of addressing those barriers in the quest to achieving successful knowledge and skills transfer in England. It appears from the findings in Chapter 5 that some of the barriers were perceived to be contextual but frustrating to the respondents who were very passionate about transferring knowledge and skills in England.

The study noted the main reported barriers to a successful knowledge and skills transfer process as the prevalence of negative perceptions towards black foreign social workers with ‘an accent’ different from local social worker colleagues, by service users and other professionals. Reportedly, skeptical attitudes towards overseas Zimbabwean social workers had the effect of reducing their confidence and enthusiasm in their attempts to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from abroad to England.

These differences to some extent affected the nature and level of knowledge and skills transfer by over Zimbabwean social workers in England. The issue of relevance of social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to England was one of the most contentious issues identified by the respondents in Chapter 5. However, the misinformation by recruitment agencies during and after the recruitment process created some anxieties among the respondents as it became clear to them that the information they received about the relevance of Zimbabwean social work education and practice to England had been overstated. What became clear from the discussions on relevance of social work education from one place to another is the context specific nature of the profession and the need to adapt to the local conditions in the host country. The study also confirmed what is already known in terms of the nature of knowledge, distinguishing between tacit and explicit knowledge as discussed in Chapter 3.

The respondents mentioned their ability to transfer 'special knowledge' particularly in the understanding of absolute poverty, working with the wider family and their competence in cross-cultural communication and kinship assessments. These issues are discussed in Chapter 5 and it would appear from the analysis of data that respondents felt that their experience with assessing cases or issues of poverty in their home country made is easier for them to use those assessment skills to good effect in England.

7.6 Transnationalism and social networks

Transnationalism and active social networks form part of their migration experiences, which respondents associated with knowledge and skills transfer, albeit in a limited way as discussed previously in Chapter 5. Fundamentally, social work knowledge transfer as a new phenomenon in this context reflected the transnational character of the respondents in England and their status as potential knowledge carriers. Knowledge transfer links the host and sending countries through circular flows of knowledge, values and skills and respondents in this study experienced this.

Transnationalism and social networks resonated well with the majority of respondents who felt very proud about their transnational activities. According to Bloch (2008), not much research has focused on the transnational activities of Zimbabweans. However,

what came out clearly from this study in Chapter 6 was the complex nature of transnationalism and how it affects social work. Negi & Furnam (eds 2010) discuss the transnational nature of social work and how this is affected by technology and the need for social workers to fully embrace technology as part of their day to day work. Although, transnationalism was not included in of the research questions in this case study, it emerged as a theme from the interviews and was popular throughout the research. This is, however, not uncommon in qualitative studies where themes can be generated as the research is in progress.

The study found that transnationalism and social networks have become a part of the narrative of the respondents in England as either economic migrants or expatriate workers in England. The transnational nature of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England was arguably linked to their experience with the processes of knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England. It was evident from the qualitative interviews that the majority of the respondents were able to create some links between their transnational character and knowledge and skills transfer. Their use of social networks and knowledge and skills transfer once they moved to England was also evident although not very well developed. Most respondents acknowledged that transnationalism and social networks helped them to refine their transfer of knowledge and skills abilities through links maintained with academic and professional colleagues from Zimbabwe, some of whom were important repositories of knowledge.

7.7 Experiences of racism and discrimination

The findings in Chapter 6 regarding racism and discrimination from colleagues, other professionals, managers and some clients raise serious issues about the attitudes of local professionals towards not only the respondents in this study but to those from other countries as well. While some of the perceived cases of racism and discrimination reported by respondents appeared genuine, arguably, some of the respondents used this as a distraction from other issues such as poor performance and inability to integrate into the English society. The issue of racism and discrimination featured saliently in the Findings and was reported as one of the barriers to the processes of knowledge and skills transfer. What did not come out clearly from the findings was how management

addressed cases of perceived racism and discrimination. The respondents highlighted the existence of subtle and unspoken episodes of racism and discrimination in the workplace, and in some cases, these had affected their confidence and courage in transferring knowledge and skills. They reported that subtle racism and prejudice continues, albeit being less prevalent at the time of interview than during their initial settlement years in England. There were also some sentiments of exploitation on the part of the majority of respondents. The area where racism was felt most was at the work place, in which respondents reported being sidelined in promotions and critical training opportunities.

> "A lot of us foreign workers felt offended by remarks by some local colleagues that we were just *cheap labour* on poverty wages, employed to cover skills gaps in a stretched service. Being called cheap labour was an example of exploitation on our part as social workers from a poor African country", (Tendai 39)

The study also found that most respondents were less impressed by being allocated high caseloads comprising dangerous and difficult clients and being needlessly criticised in an environment characterised by little practice support. Almost all respondents suggested, as reported above, that their heavy African accents created some resistance from service users and other professional colleagues. Tinarwo (2011) also reported that a large majority of her respondents found racism a challenge; though in their statements they were not sure whether the workplace treatment was due to racism. This leads to the suggestion that dealing with cases of racism and discrimination is difficult for management, and it would appear there was very little understanding from the respondents that without evidence there is no investigation. Many of the respondents who reported cases of racism and discrimination as discussed in chapter 6 were not prepared to provide any concrete evidence perhaps for fear of reprisals especially during the early days of moving to England. It would also appear, judging from the findings in Chapter 6, that the respondents lacked confidence and were not aware of reporting procedures.

7.8 Work Ethics

Evidence from the interviews suggests that the overseas Zimbabwean social workers had very good work ethics. It was their perception of working hard, having a less complaining culture, tendency to work long hours with little or no compensation and low sickness record.

> "As African workers, we believe in working hard for our money, we put everything into our work thus long hours without getting paid extra and we value work more than anything. We can even go to work even when sick. The main driver for us from Zimbabwe is the need to safeguard our scarce jobs at all costs", (Nelly, 37).

Hussein et al (2010: 78) in their study of the recruitment of international social care workers reported that the majority of their recruitment agency respondents reported that international social care workers are 'exceptionally hard workers' who appreciate and value their earnings as they need them in many cases to send 'money to their families'.

7.9 General experiences of the migration process

Apart from the specific themes, there were also wider experiences affecting overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. These included problems in understanding the organisation of social work practice in England as well as the differences in work ethics and prioritisation.

It was clear from the findings that although social work skills are regarded as transferrable, practising in a foreign country is not an easy thing to do and requires more than just the knowledge of basic social work values, especially when one is making the transition from practising in a less developed country, where the focus of social work is generic and based on community development (Mupedziswa and Ushamba in Hall, 2006). Transitioning from the above background to a developed country where statutory casework and competence-based social work practice predominates can be a difficult task as highlighted in Chapter 3. Cultural awareness is also a crucial aspect when migrating as a professional who has to deal with the lives of local people on a day-to-day

basis. Abye (2007) argues that today's immigrants are culturally competent when they get to their countries of destination, which was true of those in this study. The respondents in this study reported their knowledge and experience in cross cultural communication, which is a significant issue in terms of integration and assimilation into a new society in the host country.

Although the findings indicate difficulties for respondents regarding language and culture, it was clear from the analysis of data that the majority of respondents were already competent in English and familiar to some extent with the British way of life when they migrated. Nevertheless, learning about the nuances and specifics of British culture cannot be achieved in one day; it is a continuous process, which for some can take a long time. Overseas social workers need to be flexible enough to be able to adjust their own values and beliefs to suit those of their employer and the society they live in.

Tinarwo (2011: 289) in her study proposed that shadowing opportunities should be provided within the induction process to enable social workers to familiarise themselves with child protection procedures, legal processes, social work organisation in England, and work-related ethics. The analysis of the literature on this subject suggested that some local authorities with more experience of employing overseas social workers had established specialised mini teams staffed by experienced and established overseas social workers whose job it was to mentor and help familiarise new arrivals with social work policies and procedures as part of the wider training and induction programmes.

There was demonstrably a general lack of understanding by respondents prior to their arrival about the current organisation and functioning of the Children's social care system in England. This was linked to the respondents' familiarity with a more holistic or generic approach in Zimbabwe, as opposed to the more specialised and individualistic approach to social work practice in England.

The majority of the respondents encountered major problems in understanding the many protocols and procedures especially in child protection, as well as the perceived low assessment criteria for child abuse investigation of cases in the child social care system according to national practice guidance. There were noticeable differences in the use and

application of legislation and practice in relation to child protection investigations between Zimbabwe and England. Subsequently, it became apparent to them that some of the above differences were both significant and deeply rooted in the childcare legislation and procedures in England; and this required rapid familiarisation. This lack of familiarity with the English childcare system was cited as a major challenge for most of the respondents soon after their arrival in England. However, some respondents could use their relevant transferrable skills and knowledge to overcome the above challenges. As highlighted in the findings Chapter 5, there was a good understanding by respondents of the differences between specific aspects of social work skills, knowledge and practice, which made it easier for them to select which aspects of their practice, skills and knowledge from abroad were transferrable to their new context.

The study also noted some variations in terms of the availability of supervision for the newly recruited overseas social workers with some reporting receiving consistent supervision and others not receiving supervision in many months thereby feeling unsupported. The above finding was also reported in Tinarwo (2011:172-173) where one respondent reported that he had at one time gone for several months without receiving supervision because his manager was not always available for supervision, in other ways he was too busy to give supervision. Most of these respondents said that they did not receive consistent supervision and, in some cases leaving them to make critical decisions when they could not get hold of their managers for considerable periods of time. This is in direct contrast to Lord Laming in his recommendations about supervision of social workers. Lord Laming (2009) reiterated the long-accepted position that high-quality supervision is critical to good practice. Supervision is the primary mechanism for ensuring effective oversight and review of practice, and should provide a forum for practitioners to share anxieties about cases (Gibbs, 2001; Littlechild, 2002).

The issue of lack of preparedness on the part of social work managers was cited as a major issue that affected the overseas social workers during their early days of settlement in England. The confusion caused by this lack or organisation and preparation reflected the lack of coordination between those involved in recruiting and employing overseas

social workers. The responsibility for this was spread between the recruitment agencies and the employers in the two London Boroughs and the Major City.

The other finding which was also noted by Tinarwo (2011) and others was that international recruitment of social workers to Children Services departments in England in particular, was not very well organised or well-coordinated in terms of obtaining the right profiles of candidates from recruitment agencies, the advance preparation for the arrival of new recruits by managers, provision of appropriate induction and initial child protection training as well as assisting new recruits in assimilating into the wider British culture. The above is based on evidence from the respondents as has already been discussed in chapters 5 and 6.

The need to adjust to a new social and practice context was not surprising for the new social worker recruits from abroad. Learning the social values and practice ethics was always going to be a challenging experience for the respondents living and working in England. The study noted that most of the above social workers had to rely on asking for advice from the more established compatriots and some local colleagues, most of whom were reluctant to help where possible. As in any situation, there were some exceptions, for those who were lucky to receive good initial induction and training and did not need much external help with the process of adjustment.

7.10 Summary

This chapter has discussed key findings emerging from the data analysis of the qualitative interviews and focus group with the respondents, including their views on recruitment, motivations to migrate to England, globalisation and its impact on knowledge and skills transfer. Their understanding of globalisation and its influences on social work knowledge, values and skills transfer was also a critical aspect of this study. Globalisation being the conceptual framework for this study was explored, with a particular focus on its main dimensions of economic, technological, political and social/cultural factors. The nexus between globalisation on one hand and social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer on the other was significant in this study. The concepts of transnationalism, social networks, and identity, which unexpectedly emerged from the interviews and focus group

discussions, were also explored though in a limited way. These concepts were accorded high importance by respondents who regarded them as critical to their migration experiences and career trajectories. There were passionate views about transnationalism and social networks from the respondents, most of whom could link the above concepts to globalisation, social work knowledge and skills transfer in a more general way.

What emerged from the data was that some basic social work knowledge and skills acquired from Zimbabwe were transferrable to England with adaptations, consistent with differences in the national contexts. More importantly, the study found that the success of the social work knowledge and skills transfer processes might depend largely on a number of factors. These include mainly, the suitability of the host environment to acknowledge the knowledge and skills to be transferred, positive management support, mutual recognition of those behind the transfer process, willingness and flexibility by those doing the transfer (overseas Zimbabwean social workers) to make suitable adjustments relative to the existing cultural, social and legislative conditions in the host country. At the same time, this study did not set out to evaluate the actual degree of success of skills and knowledge transfer, so the relative importance of these aspects is untested. Unsurprisingly, the existence of barriers was particularly frustrating for the respondents who were eager to transfer their valuable knowledge and skills to England. Issues of racism, skepticism, prejudice and discrimination appeared to matter to most respondents who considered them as barriers in their efforts to successfully transfer knowledge and skills. Finally, it should be acknowledged that the nexus between globalisation, social work knowledge and skills transfer by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England could not be fully explored in the context of one limited qualitative study. However, the findings of this study are significant in understanding the transferability (including the preconditions) of social work knowledge and skills from one specific cultural and national context to another, and how the phenomenon globalisation and its main dimensions influences this. The study found that, despite the existence of a range of constraints including those that are context related, generic social work knowledge, values and skills could, in the view of respondents, be transferred from one context to the other at a very basic level.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions Chapter

8.1 Introduction

This exploratory case study set out to explore the transferability of knowledge, values and skills acquired by overseas Zimbabwean social workers from Zimbabwe to England. Debates around the migration and recruitment of overseas social workers into England and the part played by globalisation and its main dimensions in influencing the above were also examined. Further, the research explored the social workers' own understanding of globalisation and its influence on the transfer of social work knowledge and skills across international frontiers. The study also examined the issues underpinning the transferability of knowledge and skills, relevant methodological issues, push and pull factors in migration, debates on social work shortages and social work reforms in England, the nature of social work organisation and education in Zimbabwe, social and professional integration issues, the benefits and effects of migration, identity, transnationalism and the role of social networks during settlement in England. The study provides focused insights into the areas of social work migration and practice, globalisation and knowledge and skills transfer. The themes that emerged from this study provide a fuller understanding of the reported experiences of a specific group of overseas social workers from Zimbabwe living or working in particular locations in England.

The main research question was: How can different forms of globalisation help us to understand the transfer of knowledge, skills and values by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England. In answering this question, there was also discussion of the context, and evidence on practice within children's social care services in two locations.

8.2 Summary of findings

The main findings of the study were that basic social work knowledge values and skills were regarded as transferrable, albeit with adaptations to suit conditions in the destination or host country. This is evidenced by the relative successes reported by overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England despite challenges encountered in the process.

Overseas Zimbabwean social workers reported that they brought with them skills set which supported social work practice in their host cities and towns. This was applied in such areas as cultural competencies, working with particular groups (black and African families, asylum seekers and refugees), management and supervisory roles, assessment of poverty and neglect, diversity, family group conferences and kinship assessments among others. It was also found that the respondents were comparatively older than their British counterparts were and tended to stay longer in their jobs and in England.

This study has highlighted some significant gaps and weaknesses in the extant literature on overseas social workers in England, especially those from developing countries like Zimbabwe. Manifestly, the existing literature does not address issues of globalisation, or social work knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England. Further, empirical research on the nexus between globalisation, social work practice and knowledge and skill transfer was found to be lacking.

As highlighted in Findings Chapter 5, it is possible to discern a multidimensional approach to knowledge and skills transfer, as opposed to the traditional unidirectional approach, which entails knowledge and skills moving in a linear direction from the developed North to the global South. Furthermore, this study has highlighted knowledge and skills transfer as an important concept in social work, increasingly influenced by globalisation and its main dimensions. Respondents in this study, it would appear, are among the few international social workers to transfer knowledge and skills acquired from a small developing country, traditionally a recipient of knowledge from the more developed North, where social work as a profession is more vibrant and better organised.

The findings of this study concerned the respondents' understanding of globalisation, its main dimensions and how the phenomenon has influenced and shaped their practice in England. Globalisation was reported as influential in attempts by overseas Zimbabwean social workers to transfer knowledge, values and skills from Zimbabwe to England. The study also found intergenerational differences to be significant in the conceptualisation of knowledge and skills transfer from Zimbabwe to England. As described earlier in Chapter 5, the more experienced respondents seemed more comfortable and assertive in the above regard than their younger counterparts did. It also emerged from the data that,

despite differences expressed by respondents as to whether certain knowledge and skills were transferrable, there was convergence of views on the issues of context and adaptability to the new practice setting for any meaningful transfer process to take place.

Hussein et al (2010) in their research on international social care workers, stated that one of the attributes that attract employers in the care sector to recruit international workers is the fact that these workers tend to be better qualified than staff recruited from the local population. As previously discussed in Chapter 5, the average respondent in this study had a Master's degree or other postgraduate qualification in social work or related fields. The study found that the respondents among others recruited elsewhere from abroad, have added a dimension of professional value and diversity to social work practice in England. They brought with them broader skill sets not necessarily new, but a suggestion that their recruitment also ushered in a fresher way of doing things from a different cultural perspective. Their skill sets included but were not limited to, family counselling, cross-cultural communication, assessment and planning, networking, research and writing, community development, management and advocacy skills. These skills were instrumental in improving their own practice as well as sharing with their local work colleagues and friends. In general, there is a suggestion that the respondents have 'added value' in a limited but significant way to childcare practice in England.

It emerged from the data that the respondents contributed significantly to the general *skills matrix* (Buchan and O'May, 2000) in England ranging from their communication and linguistic skills, cultural competencies, superior qualifications, flexibility and interdependence skills. Evidence from the interviews suggests that the respondents drew strengths from each other, a positive attribute for teamwork.

It would appear from the findings chapters that the initial induction and training programme for respondents in England was regarded as inconsistent, inadequate and largely Eurocentric. The trainers did not consider the unique culture and characteristics of respondents from developing countries such as Zimbabwe. The evidence from data suggested that induction programmes were varied, in terms of duration, delivery, structure and relevance as was also found by Hussein et al (2010) in their study of international care workers in UK. There was also no evidence offered to suggest any consultation

between the recruitment agencies and social work team managers in shaping induction programmes. In addition, there was no national attempt to standardise or guide induction and initial training programmes within the local authorities in London and the Major City. These findings are similar to findings by Hussein et al (2008) and Tinarwo (2011) in their respective studies with similar groups.

The study also found evidence that appears to suggest that, due to the relatively older workforce from Zimbabwe, they were more likely to seek UK permanent residence or citizenship and settle in the UK permanently instead of going back home to Zimbabwe.

The evidence from the data analysis indicate that recruitment agencies involved in bringing the majority of the respondents to England did not adequately prepare them before they moved into post in England. In some cases, the respondents appeared to have been provided with little or less than accurate information about how social work is organised in the UK therefore creating wrong impressions on their part. In some cases, the respondents were promised certain work conditions or benefits that did not exist or found it difficult to access.

8.3 Significance and contribution of the study to the body of knowledge

This exploratory qualitative study is significant for several reasons. These include contributing new knowledge, skill sets and new insights into the existing general knowledge base and wider discourse on social work knowledge and skills transfer. This study is also important in that the international recruitment of social workers to England, especially those from Zimbabwe, is a relatively recent phenomenon (just two or three decades old) compared to other traditional professions such as Nursing and Medicine. There is very limited empirically based research information available on this group, particularly regarding the nexus between globalisation and social work knowledge and skills transfer. The absence of a comprehensive study of overseas Zimbabwean social workers as a distinct group in the above regard helps make this study valuable and significant.

This study by focusing on the small group of respondents from little known Zimbabwe, provides an added dimension of investigation and more focused research compared with

that of other scholars, recognising the scarcity of research information in the public domain. The literature used in this study is mostly drawn from previous small-scale studies. Further, the study provides a synthesis of existing information on a newly researched group. It also provides an overall critical analysis of issues of social work knowledge, practice and social integration and how these affect overseas social workers in England, especially those from Zimbabwe.

The varying trends for overseas social workers recruited to work in England from abroad in the last few years, and the ethical debate on whether overseas recruitment from developing countries such as Zimbabwe should be allowed make this research relevant. A particular aspect is the value such social workers might be thought to add to the English children's social care sector in the context of the moral and ethical issues arising from the entire recruitment process. The above are critical issues that need further exploration than this study provides.

This study is one of only two that have been specifically carried out in respect of overseas Zimbabwean social workers, as a new research group in England. Earlier studies carried out on overseas Zimbabwean social workers recruited from abroad have had different emphases, such as on the importance of social capital in supporting migrant social workers (Tinarwo, 2011). In contrast, this study provides an analysis of issues of globalisation, and social work practice, knowledge and skills transfer by a sample of Zimbabwean social workers trained abroad and working in English children's social care services.

This thesis gives a voice and particular attention to overseas social workers recruited from Zimbabwe who would not have had any specific attention as an ethnic group, given the obscurity of social work practice in Zimbabwe and the bad reputation the country receives from the international corporate media.

The study produces incremental knowledge on the social and practice challenges and experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England in their efforts to transfer their knowledge and skills.

This study contributes to the small amount of empirical literature on the relationship between globalisation and social work knowledge and skills transfer, which is an area that still requires further research. The issues of globalisation, knowledge and skills transfer might continue to feature prominently in respect of the recruitment of overseas social workers in future.

8.4 Limitations of the study

The study was not without limitations. It drew its literature review from limited sources. The study also draws on a small sample size, from two urban locations in England, which was not desirable. This raises issues and questions about generalisability. In essence, the findings of this study cannot be generalised beyond the sample of 30 self-selected respondents out of the entire overseas Zimbabwean social worker population in England of about 300. However, the above limitations could be overcome by conducting a much wider research with a larger national sample. At the same time, where comparisons were directly possible in relation to a similar sample researched a few years previously by Tinarwo (2011), findings were broadly consistent.

The omission of the views of other stakeholders, such as managers, other professionals and service users has limited what can be claimed about the validity of the study's findings. Self-report, from hindsight, is only a partial way of investigating complex processes, such as the demonstration or application of knowledge and skills. As indicated earlier, manager perspectives on some reports might well have qualified the claims, including those where racism or prejudice within organisations had been perceived. Additionally, comparison groups, in a much larger study, would have allowed for securer findings as to whether or not observations were particular to overseas Zimbabwean social workers.

The inclusion of managers and services users in the study would have created an opportunity for triangulation of data. Triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Patton, 1999), enables the researcher to test validity through the convergence of information from different sources.

The fact that nearly a third, seven of the respondents in one of the three research cites had taken part in a similar study by another researcher Tinarwo, a few years earlier may have slightly influenced their views on this study despite thematic differences between the two studies. To minimise this potential limitation, I reassured the seven respondents that this study was fundamentally different in focus from the previous one they took part to ensure their committed participation.

There were also methodological limitations by using a qualitative case study design at the expense of a mixed methods approach for instance. Mixed method research employs both approaches iteratively or simultaneously to create a research outcome stronger than either method individually. Malina (2011) argues that overall, combined quantitative and qualitative methods enable exploring more complex aspects and relations of the human and social world.

Another potential limitation was that of 'Insider Researcher Effects'. The fact that the respondents already knew the researcher as one of them might have presented potential issues of confidentiality and anonymity. The researcher approached this topic from an insider's perspective, with the idea of understanding the experiences of his research group. However, according to Holloway and Wheeler (2002), there are dangers associated with the insider perspective, as this involvement may result in losing awareness of one's role and rely on assumptions that do not always have a basis in reality.

However, anticipating these, assurances were given to the participants on the importance of anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher adopted the 'outsider perspective' and conducted himself in as professional as possible manner, observing all research protocols and procedures as a way of minimising the research limitations.

8.5 Recommendations for policy and practice

The use of the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to convey an understanding of a sample of overseas Zimbabwean social workers' motivations for coming to England, their migration trajectories and lived experiences once they arrived and started working

in English children's social care services. The findings revealed a number of salient issues pertaining to recruitment, employment and experiences of Zimbabwean social workers in England, in two London boroughs and a Major City in particular at the time of recruitment and subsequently.

There remains a need for a long-term policy approach when it comes to recruiting social workers from developing countries such as Zimbabwe where they need social work professionals more than the UK.

However, there should be recognition of the fact that the international recruitment patterns have changed since the Coalition Government in the UK came into power in 2010. Since then, the recruitment of social workers from outside the European Union has apparently been reduced, as an emphasis is now being placed on reducing the overall numbers of migrants from outside the European Union coming into the UK. According to Moriarty et al (2011), in April 2011, the coalition government sought to reduce net migration by placing an annual limit on the number of non-EEA citizens who will be allowed to work in the UK. This in essence, meant that not many Zimbabwean social workers were going to find it easy to emigrate to the UK for work purposes due to the above policy.

The local authorities recruiting overseas social workers should ensure that overseas social workers are properly supported and respected and are given recognition for their skills and the qualifications obtained abroad, for purposes of promotion to more senior roles within the workplace. Social work managers need to be better prepared by their employers and adequately trained to recognise the importance of the additional knowledge and skills overseas social workers bring to England. They should also be consistent and transparent in promoting social workers on merit using the established promotional procedures to avoid any suspicions of favouratism based on race as alleged by some of the respondents. Formal systems of promotion need to be in place and should be made transparent to all social workers irrespective of their background.

Overseas social workers should benefit from better organised, relevant, standardised and targetted induction programmes, which add better value to their practice instead of leaving them to ponder on whether they are needed or not. The awareness of cultural

differences should be encouraged as part of the initial induction and training to enable overseas social workers to integrate and function more sensitively and effectively.

Regarding perceived exploitation and racism in the work place, it is recommended that managers and social workers should acknowledge that racism might exist in the work place and that black social workers, especially those from overseas, may be affected by it. Managers need to take the initiative and be in the forefront of condemning acts of racism and harassment and deal with them decisively when they are reported.

There should be better preparation of overseas social workers including a skills audit to allow social workers with relevant exceptional skills to put them into practice. The preparation can include consideration for overseas social workers to be given priority in undertaking post qualification training courses within 6 months of taking up post, in order to familiarise them with the English social care system at the initial stages of their practice.

In future, it is suggested that recruitment agencies and local authorities should ensure that all training programmes for overseas social workers include elements of globalisation and cultural competence to enable them to embed these concepts into their day-to-day practice.

Employers should consider establishing work based support groups comprised of experienced social workers and managers to support new international social work recruits in practicalities such as opening bank accounts, finding accommodation, improving their English language and understanding the culture and values instead of leaving this to recruitment agencies, which often abandon the recruits once they take up their posts.

It must be acknowledged that host countries such as England, need to expand education, training and retention not only for the purposes of achieving an adequate supply of skilled workers but to avoid becoming excessively dependent on overseas social workers to meet domestic needs. In addition, the local authorities should adopt policies specifically aimed at making the best use of existing social work staff by improving retention packages. Employers should also endeavour to provide a conducive and supportive

environment for the effective transfer of relevant knowledge, skills to England from overseas social workers.

8.6 Implications for theory

The theory of globalisation was the main tool of analysis for this study. Whilst it helped to understand the motivations of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in moving abroad to seek opportunities, more research is required to gain further insights into the role of globalisation in influencing the transfer of social work knowledge and skills transfer to England. The nexus that exists between globalisation, knowledge transfer and social work practice in England needs further exploration in order to inform future social work practice and curriculum development in both sending and receiving countries. Overseas Zimbabwean social workers relied significantly on some processes or characteristics of globalisation, such as technological connectivity through internet/social media and television for their settlement in England, communication with loved ones abroad, personal and professional development, integration at work and in the community and networking locally and abroad. Internationalisation and its applicability in social work also emerged during the study process as a potentially fruitful theoretical framework for future research.

8.7 Suggestions for further research

The study identified some key themes such as perceived racism and discrimination, recruitment problems, distorted understandings of social work practice and organisation in England, the influences of globalisation on social work knowledge and skills transfer, which are significant in understanding the experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in English statutory children's social care services.

Cognisant of the interest in social worker migration to England from other countries, the researcher hopes that there will be attempts to widen research to involve study of overseas social workers from different countries, so that patterns may be established and generalisations made where possible. This will also add specific detail to the limited evidence regarding skilled labour migration in relation to the broader social care sector in England. This case study revealed the various problems, issues and inconsistencies

associated with not only the area of recruitment of overseas social workers but changes in the immigration system as well and how these affect new recruitments in the future. It would also help to refine the present study's findings if a wider national sample of overseas social workers could be the subject of research in more varied work settings – such as in adult social care services and in third sector or private sector social work.

8.8 Summary

The findings presented in this study regarding the transferability of social work knowledge and skills from Zimbabwe to England suggest some successes and challenges. What emerged from this qualitative exploratory case study is that basic social work knowledge, values and skills acquired from abroad (Zimbabwe) are transferrable to England with adaptations, which reflect the differences in social, economic, cultural, political, and legal contexts between the two countries. Differences in social work education and training, organisation, culture, legislation and, political systems, meant that some knowledge, skills and values could not be transferred fully from Zimbabwe to England without important and necessary adaptations by the social workers. (These include a better understanding of, for instance, child sexual, emotional and physical abuse (child protection), understanding of the legal rights of children and parents, understanding the cultural diversity of the host country, including the rights of homosexual parents and couples, understanding the nature of English social work in England, its organisation, specialisations and different functions, understanding the different legislation and court system, normal workloads, different risk thresholds and their assessment, relationships with other professionals, the availability of resources, accountability processes, and the nature of the relationship between social worker and client among others).

Further, evidence presented in this study reflects a superficial understanding of globalisation and its main dimensions by the majority of the respondents but very little awareness of the specifics aspects of globalisation and its impact on social work practice. The study explored the nexus between globalisation on one hand, and social work knowledge and skills transfer on the other. This is however, a wide-ranging and contested largely theoretical area of debate, which requires further refinement and exploration than was possible in the present limited study. This study nevertheless makes new

contributions to the existing slim knowledge base on overseas social work recruitment, globalisation, knowledge and skills transfer.

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Appendix 1 (a)

Letter of Invitation to the Interview

Dear Participant

Inviting overseas Zimbabwean social workers to participate in interviews for a PhD study

My name is Crisford Chogugudza and I am a PhD student at the University of London Royal Holloway, Department of Social Work. I am inviting you to participate in an interview for a research project that focuses on overseas Zimbabwean social workers currently or previously employed by a Major City l and two London Borough Councils. The study involves completing the attached basic demographic data questionnaire, which should take you half an hour at most, followed by a face-to-face interview to be held at a time convenient to you.

The general objective of the research is to explore the migration experiences of these social workers in England, and their understanding of globalisation in relation to knowledge, values and skills transfer.

The study specifically aims to identify views of overseas Zimbabwean social workers' understanding of the different forms of globalisation and how these have shaped their migration process and subsequent transfer of knowledge, values and skills in England.

The information from the study will be reported in a way that ensures anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained. Collected data will be safely destroyed one year after completion of the degree. A summary of the research findings will be sent to all participants. The overall aim of the study is that research findings help to improve policy and practice for overseas social workers in England.

If it is your decision to participate in this study, please sign the attached informed consent.

Please retain a copy of this letter and your written consent for future reference.

Yours sincerely

Crisford Chogugudza

Royal Holloway University of London

Egham, Surrey, TW20 0EX

Appendix 1 (b)

Information Sheet for Participants

Royal Holloway, University of London

Title of Study: Transferring knowledge and skills across international borders: The experiences of overseas Zimbabwe Social workers in England.

Crisford Chogugudza: PhD Candidate

Supervisors

Dr Frank Keating and Professor David Denney

The main objective: This research is a qualitative study focusing on overseas Zimbabwean social workers who have been recruited by a Major City and two London Borough Councils from 1999 onwards. The research focuses on the general migration experiences of overseas Zimbabwean social workers in England, their understanding of globalisation and its different forms in the transfer of knowledge, values and skills

Who will be involved? Overseas Zimbabwean social workers previously or currently employed by a Major City / two London Borough Councils are invited to participate in interviews and or fill out questionnaires.

When and where will data collection take place? Between July 2013 and August 2013 in the Major City and two London Borough Councils.

How long will the interview process take? Interviews are expected to last for an average time of about an hour while the basic demographic data questionnaire should take about 30 minutes to complete.

What if a participant changes his/her mind? Participation in this study is voluntary; you may withdraw from participating at any time without penalty and you are not obliged to answer all questions.

Could the study cause physical or emotional harm, or other negative consequences? Some people may become upset during interviews if they recall unpleasant experiences? In such circumstances, I will stop the interview process and arrange for appropriate counselling to those needing it.

Will participants' names appear in the research project? Information from the study will be reported in a way that ensures anonymity and confidentiality. No identifying particulars will be used in any material produced from this study.

Who is going to get the information? Anonymised data from interviews will be stored in a password-protected database and kept in a locked shelf or cabin that only the researcher can access.

How will the information be used? Data will only be used for purposes of the PhD Thesis and for related publications.

What benefits do you derive from participating? There will be no financial benefit for participating in this study. However, this study will give you any opportunity to contribute to an important research process that may lead to positive changes in policy making in relation to overseas recruitment of social workers in general. A summary of research findings will be sent to interested participants.

Appendix 1(c)

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Name of Study and Researcher

Please indicate

I have read the information sheet about this study (YES/NO)

I have had the opportunity to ask questions (YES/NO)

I have received satisfactory answers to any questions (YES/NO)

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason (YES/NO)

I agree to participate in this study. (YES/NO)

Signed…….

Name ……..

Date ……

NB: This Consent form will be stored separately from the responses you provide.

Please note: There should be no data collected on the consent form as this will be stored separately from data.

Appendix 2

Basic Data Questionnaire (PhD Research); Please tick the box where necessary

1. Gender (a) □ Male (b) □ Female

2. Age Group (a) □ 24-35 (b) □ 36-45 (c) □ 46-55 (d) □ Over 56

3. Marital Status (a) □ Single (b) □ Married (c) □ Other (Specify) ----------

4. Nationality……i.e. British, Zimbabwean or Dual

5. Ethnicity (a) □ Black African (b) White (c)) Other (Please Specify)……..

6. Date of Arrival in England…….

7. Method of recruitment to England……i.e. Agency or Self

8. Current Immigration Status……Work permit/Indefinite/Citizen

9. Qualifications Held and when……. e.g. DipSW 91, BSW 96

10. Country where you obtained your social work Qualifications……

11. Post qualifying training received in UK, Yes □ No □ if yes please specify…....

12. Years of social work experience in Zimbabwe:

(a) □ 0-5 (b) □ 5-10 (c) □ 11-15 (d) □ Over 15

13. Social Work Department employed……i.e. Children/Adults Service

14. Current position at work……i.e. Social Worker/Team Manager

15. Years of experience in England----------

Thanks for your cooperation in responding to this research.

I would like to conduct follow up interviews to explore your understanding of the concept of globalisation and how it has influenced the process of knowledge, values and skills transfer in England. Please understand that, not all people who consent to have a follow up interview will be contacted or interviewed.

If you would be willing to participate in a follow up interview, please sign below and provide contact details. Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.

Name……..Email address……

Contact Number/s…….Signature…….

Appendix 3

Interview Topic Guide

Preamble

Your effort in responding to this interview is greatly appreciated. You can choose not to answer any question if it causes distress or for any other reason. You could withdraw your consent to participate in this interview at any time.

Issues of Migration

1 Please talk me through your migration experience to England as a social worker from Zimbabwe?

2. Would you please tell me your reasons/motivation for migrating to England?

3.Did you encounter any difficulties when you first arrived, and if so please tell me about it?

4.What is your view regarding the preparation overseas Zimbabwean social workers have received in order to live and practice in England?

5.Are you aware of the Zimbabwe Network of Social Workers? If yes, what is your view regarding their role in supporting overseas Zimbabwean social workers?

6. What is your understanding of the concept of globalisation and its different forms?

7. What is your view regarding the influence of global factors on social work training, values and skills in Zimbabwe?

8. Did any of the global factors influence your decision to practise social work in England?

9. Please talk me through what you consider as key issues currently affecting global social work knowledge, skills and values in England?

10. To what extent have global issues informed your social work knowledge and practice in England?

11. What is your view regarding the influence of overseas Zimbabwean social workers on social work values and practice in your area?

12. To what extent are social work/social values, knowledge and skills acquired in Zimbabwe transferrable to your area of practice in England? Please expand.

13. Please talk me through specific aspects of social work knowledge, values and skills gained from Zimbabwe to England?

14.Please tell me how you have applied social work knowledge, values and skills gained from Zimbabwe to England? Please give examples.

15.Were there any barriers in applying social work knowledge, values and skills acquired from Zimbabwe to your current practice in England?

16.Do you have any additional comments about this research or any other issues not covered above?

Application no: 03/2011

ROYAL HOLLOWAY
University of London

ETHICS COMMITTEE

Result of Application to the Committee

Name of Applicant:	**Crisford Chogugudza**
Department:	**Criminology and Sociology**
Title of Project:	**An exploration of the experiences of Overseas Zimbabwean Social Workers in the United Kingdom**

This is to notify you that your research project:

	Has been approved by the Committee
✓	Has been approved under Chair's Action, this decision to be reported to the Committee at its next meeting

.....
Professor Geoff Ward
Chair, Ethics Committee

16/2/11
.....
Date

Appendix 5

University of Zimbabwe Social Work Curriculum at Date [accessed on 11.02.15]

Bachelor of Science Honours Education Degree in Social Work (HBScSW)

Entry Requirements:

All applicants have to meet the following minimum requirements for admission prescribed under the general regulations (i.e.):

Have obtained at least five Ordinary Level subject passes including English Language and Mathematics passed with a grade C or better

At least 2 'A' level subjects

Special or mature admission shall be in accordance with the General Regulations.

Registration

Part 1

Code	Description.
SW101	Introduction to Social Work
SW102	Introduction to Social Welfare
SW103	Introduction to Sociology
SW104	Introduction to Psychology
SW105	Social Work Law and Policy
SW106	Social Psychology
SW 108	Social work ethics and values
SW109	Introduction to Social Anthropology
SW 110	Youth Development
PC103	Communication Skills
HS101	HIV/AIDS Education
CS101	Introduction to Computer Science
PC108	Citizenship Education and Conflict Transformation

PART II

Code	Description.
SW215	Social Research Methods
SW202	Social Work with Individuals
SW203	Administration and Management of Social Welfare Organizations
SW204	Socio-economic Development 1
SW205	Social Work with Groups and Communities
SW206	Sociology of Medicine and Health Care
SW207	Small to Medium size enterprise development
SW208	Socio-economic Development II
SW209	Child Welfare Policy and Practice
SW210	Individual and Social Pathology
SW214	Rural Development
SW 216	Disabilities Studies
PG 203	Peace Building and Peace keeping

PART III

Code	Description.
SW300	Attachment
SW301	Research Project

Part IV

Code	Description.
SW401	Social Policy and Administration
SW402	Gender Studies
SW403	Principles and Practice of Rehabilitation
SW404	Counseling

SW405 Project Planning and Management

PG402 Civil Society

SW406 Community Health and Community Psychology

SW408 Social Work in Humanitarian Organizations

SW409 Principles of Accounting

SW411 Integrated Social Work Methods

SW412 Project Monitoring and Evaluation

SW 413 Disaster Management

Appendix 6

Women's University in Africa (Zimbabwe) Prospectus [accessed on 13.02.14]

Diploma in Social Work

Objectives

The Students Shall Acquire the Following:

•Familiarity with the models of social work practice and their usefulness and limitations.

•An understanding of the theories underlying practice and practice decisions;

•An understanding of the social work code of ethics and its relevance to practice.

•A commitment to social justice, with the professional goal of interrupting oppression as it is manifested in clients' lives and in society.

•Practice skills, assessment, differential planning, the carrying out of interventions, the evaluation of practice and its outcomes and termination.

•The ability to understand the multiple and complex reasons for client situations and actions including the "positives" within client problems.

•The ability to have perspective on one's actions as a practitioner and to use oneself deliberately and ethically to effect change.

Entry Requirements

Subject to provisions of the University Academic Regulations for admission, the following entry requirements shall apply:

•A minimum of 5 (five) Ordinary Level passes including English Language at grade C or better.

•Exemption from courses

Applicants who possess the above minimum entry requirements and have passed the certificate in social work may be exempted from some of the courses of the Diploma in Social Work upon acceptance on to the Diploma course.

Duration of Programme

•The Diploma in Social Work shall take two years full-time to complete. It shall be offered on a semesterised basis.

Course of Study

Year One Semester 1

Code	Course
DSW111	Introduction to Social Work
DSW112	Introduction to Social Anthropology I
DSW113	Introduction to Psychology I
DSW114	Introduction to Sociology I
DSW115	Social Psychology I
DSW116	Academic Communication Skills
DSW117	Community Health

Year One Semester 2

Code	Course
DSW121	Introduction to Social Welfare
DSW122	Introduction to Social Anthropology II
DSW123	Introduction to Psychology II

DSW124 Introduction to Sociology II

DSW125 Social Psychology II

DSW126 Professional Communication Skills

DSW127 Social Work with Individuals I

Year Two Semester 1

Code Course

DSW211 Social Work with Groups I

DSW212 Social Work with Communities I

DSW213 Socio-Economic Development I

DSW214 Introduction to Social Research Methods and Statistics

DSW215 Principles and Practices of Rehabilitation

DSW 216 Individual and Social Pathology

DSW 217 Fieldwork Placement

DSW 218 Research Project

Year Two Semester 2

Code Course

DSW221 Social Work with Groups II

DSW222 Social Work with Communities II and Gender Studies

DSW223 Socio-Economic Development II

DSW224 Social Work with Individuals II

DSW225 Social Policy and Administration

DSW226 Integrated Social Work Methods

Appendix 7

Principles of the Social Care Code of Practice for International Recruitment

Principle 1: International recruitment is a sound and legitimate contribution to the development of the registered and unregistered social care workforce.

Principle 2: International recruitment campaigns will only be conducted in countries where social care staff are in plentiful supply.

Principle 3: Employers will respect the rights of individual applicants from other countries to improve their work, career prospects, and not discriminate on the grounds of race, nationality or ethnic origin.

Principle 4: International social care staff will demonstrate a level of English language proficiency consistent with safe and skilled communication with clients, carers and colleagues

Principle 5: International social care staff will have a level of knowledge and proficiency equivalent to that expected of an individual trained and recruited in the UK by the end of their induction period.

Principle 6: International social care staff will be made aware of and demonstrate a commitment to the standards and principles of social care as set down in the General Social Care Council's Code of Practice for social care workers.

Principle 7: International social care staff legally recruited from abroad to work in the UK , are protected by relevant UK employment law in the same way as other employees and will be made aware of their rights.

Principle 8: International social care staff will have the same support and access to relevant education and training and continuing professional development as all other employees.

Principle 9: International social care staff will undergo and satisfy the employer's occupational health assessment prior to leaving their country of origin and commencing employment.

Principle 10: International social care staff will undergo the most comprehensive criminal record checks in their country of origin, as that country is able to provide before departure. In the UK they will comply with any checks required by UK legislation and regulation as with any other employees.

Principle 11: All international social care staff will supply evidence of their right to work in the UK or have a valid work permit before entry to the UK.

Principle 12: International social care staff will receive appropriate information, support and induction to enable them to settle in and operate effectively in the role to which they have been recruited.

Source: www.sccir.co.uk/principles

Appendix 9

Below is a table that shows some of the **key authors and major researches** that have been carried out that are similar or useful to my study.

Author/Source	**Research Paper Title**	**Methodology**
Bartley, A, Beddoe, L & Fouché, C and Harington, P - International Journal of Population Research: Volume 2012 (2012)	Transnational Social Workers: Making the Profession a Transnational Professional Space	A multi-method design
Evans, S. (2004); Kings College London: Social Care Workforce Research Unit.	International Recruitment of Social Workers to the UK: A Systematic Review of Evidence. Final Report to the Department of Health (Unpublished).	A multi-method design.
Evans, S et al (2007): Centre for Social Care work Research School of Human Sciences; Swansea University	International Recruitment of social care workers and social workers in Wales-Final Report	A multi-method, multi-phase design.
Experian: A report for skills for care and Development : January 2007	Overseas Workers in the UK social care, children and young people sector	Quantitative Research
Hussein, S, Manthorpe, J and Stevens, M: Kings College London British Journal of Social Work September 2008	People in Places: A Qualitative Exploration of Recruitment Agencies' Perspectives on the Employment of International *Social Workers* in the UK	Qualitative Research
Fouche, C.B., & Beddoe L (2012): The Global Agenda for Social Work and Social Development (pp 53-64) Geneva: IFSW	Crossing borders: Migrant social workers as global professionals in. Hall, N. (ed.), Social Work around the World V	Survey
Hussein, S, Manthorpe, J and Stevens, M; Kings College London-July 2007 – July 2009	International Social Care Workers: Initial outcomes, workforce experiences and futures	Qualitative Research and secondary data

'Hussein, S., J. Manthorpe, M. Stevens and J. Moriarty (2010) http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcr008 (accessed 19 July 2011).	Change and Continuity: A Quantitative Investigation of Trends and Characteristics of International Social Workers in England', British Journal of Social Work. Advance Access.	Quantitative Research
Hussein, S., Manthorpe, J. & Stevens, M. (2009). Social Care Workforce Research Unit, King's College London.	The Experiences of International Social Care Workers in the UK: findings from an Online Survey. London:	Online Survey
Hussein, S., Manthorpe, J., Stevens, M. (2010). The British Journal of Social Work, 40, 3, 1000‑1016.	People in Places: A Qualitative Exploration of Recruitment Agencies' Perspectives on the Employment of International Social Workers in the UK.	Qualitative Research
Hussein, S., Manthorpe, J. & Stevens, M. (2010). : Social Care Workforce Research Unit, King's College London.	International Social Care Workers: Profile, Motivations, Experiences and Future Expectations – Final Report	Multi –Method Research
Hussein, S., Stevens, M., Manthorpe, J., Moriarty, J. (2011). Change and Continuity: A Quantitative: British Journal of Social Work, 41, 6, 1140‑1157.	*Investigation of Trends and Characteristics of International Social Workers in England. British Journal of Social Work, 41, 6, 1140‑1157.*	Online Survey
Manthorpe, J., Hussein, S., Charles, N., Rapaport, P., Stevens, M. & Nagendran, T. 2010. - European Journal of Social Work, 13(3): 393-408.	*Social care stakeholders' perceptions of the recruitment of international practitioners in the United Kingdom – a qualitative study'.*	Qualitative Study