

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DEPARTMENT OF IMMIGRATION IN PROMOTING SMALL BUSINESSES SECTOR: A CASE STUDY OF WOMEN CROSS BORDER TRADERS IN ZIMBABWE

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ABSTRACT

In a developing country like Zimbabwe, small scale businesses play a significant role in the economic development of the country and women cross border trading has always contributed immensely to Zimbabwe's economic development since the country gained its independence, and also during the peak of Zimbabwe's hyperinflation era. Thus, this study aims to establish the significance of the Department of Immigration in promoting women cross border trading. The study used phenomenology philosophy and case study approach. The primary data was obtained through self-administered questionnaire and focus group discussions at the borders of Chirundu and Kariba, while literature and archival data helped in soliciting for secondary data. A sample of 400 participants was systematically randomly selected from a total population of 15000 women cross border traders and 50 immigration officials respectively. The research findings show that the Immigration Department plays a role in women cross border trading if the rules and policies are favourable and simple to understand. Unfortunately, this is not the case in Zimbabwe because the immigration rules imposed on women cross border traders were found to be negatively affecting profitability and sustenance, and therefore not contributing to the growth of cross border trading sector. The Immigration Department was also found to be encouraging underhand dealings and corrupt tendencies. This includes corruption by both local and foreign immigration officials, delays in clearance of travelers at the borders and very tough restrictions on the movement of people across borders. Thus, the study recommended the implementation of immigration policies that encourage women cross border trading, ease access to immigration information as well as, training of the immigration officers in courses such as customer care among others.

KEYWORDS: Women Cross Borders Trading, Economic Policies, Immigration Policies, Trading Policies, Economic Development, Corruption, Small Business, Profitability

INTRODUCTION

According to Reinecke (2002), small businesses play a very important role in the economic development of a country. As a result, most governments are now paying more attention and priority to small business after realizing their contribution to economic growth and cross border trade is not an exception. In Zimbabwe women cross border trading has been around for quite some time (Munyoro et al, 2016) and the involvement of most Zimbabwean cross border traders dates back when the barter trade was being practiced with neighboring tribes, when people would go to places which are now part of modern DRC, Mozambique and South Africa just to name a few to do business by exchanging their wares

known then as 'barter trade' (Ranger, 1989). During that time, there were no official borders, which meant that there was little control by immigration as people could cross to any country with little restrictions and requirements (Munyoro et al, 2016; Ranger, 1989). However, according to Munyoro et al (2016), this important sector of the economy has grown from strength to strength even though it has faced a myriad of challenges and it is against this background that the study seeks to investigate the significance of the Department of Immigration in promoting small businesses in Zimbabwe. The plight of women involved in cross border trade was used as a case study among other issues as well as recommending immigration strategies that can be used to promote the growth of women cross- border trading in Zimbabwean and beyond.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cross Border Trading

Shairman (2013) defines cross border trading as the flow of transactions involving exports and imports between countries that share the same border such as Zimbabwe and its neighbours. In this case, formal cross border trading is defined as the trade that take place between neighbouring countries through channels which are formally established and this is concurred by Sauve (2009) who suggests that this type of trading involves businesses that are registered as importers and exporters involving goods that are normally of large quantities. Through formal cross border trading, a nation is able to quantify its imports and exports, thus ascertaining its balance of trade, either overall or in relation to a specific country Choshi (1996). However, it is worth mentioning that empirical evidence suggests that a sizeable percentage of trade between neighbouring countries in most developing nations is not captured due to its informality Benjamin, Golub and Mbaye (2003).

Theories On Cross Border Trading

According to Meagher (2012) and Sparr (1994), there are four schools of thought, namely the Dualist, Structuralist, Legalist and the rational choice theories which provide insight into how cross border trading can be understood.

The Dualist Theory

Proponents of the dualist approach to the economy assert that the organization of the economy has resulted in two distinct sectors of the economy and these sectors are commonly known as the monopoly and competitive sectors (Coetzee & Graaf, 1996). Key indicators for determining where a firm or industry is in the monopoly sector or competitive sector are its use of technology, profit margins, rate of unionization and size Kaufman et al, (1981). The monopoly sector is characterized as having large industries that employ large numbers of people and it is capital intensive, often generates large profits and can be unionized (Foster et al, 2011). Whilst, the competitive sector is constituted by small locally based, labor intensive firms utilizing low level technology and the rate of unionization in the competitive sector is very low (Coetzee and Graaf, 1996; Kaufman et al, 1981). Scholars of the dualist approach as noted by Dubay (2014), attribute cross border trading to exclude from opportunity in the modern economy. According to WIEGO (2013), the dualist school of thought describes the informal sector as being autonomous with few links to the formal economy, and argues that there are seven main features of the informal sector, namely ease of entry, heavy reliance on indigenous knowledge and resources, family ownership and management, small scale operation, labour intensive and adaptive technology and unregulated and competitive market.

The Structuralist Theory

Proponents of the structuralist theory argue that there is an exploitative relationship between the formal economy and the informal economy Gofrey (2011). Drawing on Wallerstein's World System model, Structuralists describe the formal economy as having large firms with highly paid and protected labour, whereas the informal economy operates at the periphery within society consisting of small enterprises with limited income and precarious employment (Godfrey, 2011) and Gofrey (2011) also argues that the structuralist school of thought suggests that the informal sector is largely focussed on relationship of production and unregulated institutions in a society and this is associated with socialism because capitalism encourages the establishment of formal firms, which often aims to increase profit by reducing labour costs and increasing competitiveness (Gofrey, 2011). Furthermore, formal businesses are exclusionary; hence informal enterprises are established by those not included within the formal economy (WIEGO, 2013). Thus, there is an exploitative relationship between the formal economy and the informal economy as formal economy extracts value from the informal sector. As noted by (Dunway, 2003), structuralists further analyse the informal sector and assert that although those within the informal sector experience exploitation they have greater flexibility and are more adaptive to their environment.

The Legalist Theory

The legalist approach originally drew on research on the experiences of entrepreneurs in Peru as acknowledged by Rakowski (1994) and it is attributed divisions between economic and social spheres in society to legal and bureaucratic regulations. As a result of their interest in legislative matters around the economy, the proponents of the legalist approach have influenced public policy platform with regard to recognition of those in the informal sector (Rakowski, 1994). According to WIEGO (2013), this approach focuses on rural-urban migration and legal systems to explain the growth of the informal sector (Munyoro et al, 2016). With rapid urbanization, the formal economy could not absorb the increase in supply of labour leading to informal sector as noted by (Desoto, 1989). Scholars of this school of thought argue that the cost of formalizing business is what discourages people from establishing formalized businesses (Rakowski, 1994) and that is the process of establishing a business which includes registering a license and once the business has been established paying taxes exceeds the cost of informality (ZIMRA, 2017: business. Gov.au, 2017). De Soto (1989), the pioneer of this school of thought asserts that the establishment and growth of the informal sector was a natural and evolutionary path taken by entrepreneurs who find the restrictions by the state on the business community limiting. This provides a rationale for the decision to choose to either establish a formal business or an informal one (Desoto, 1989).

Rational Choice Theory

The basic principles of rational theory are derived from neo-classical economics (Boerger, 2016) and it is based on a variety of different models. As Freidman and Hechter (1988) put together what they described as "skeletal" model of rational choice theory (Ritzer, 1996). Thus the focus of rational choice theory is on actors and these actors are seen as being purposive, or as having intentionality (Magher, 2003). That is, actors have ends or goals toward which their actions are aimed and they are also seen as having preferences in terms of values and utilities (Macy and Fletch, 1995). The main assumption of this theory is that any action by an individual is a purposive behaviour, which will hold benefits for the actor in some ways as noted by Scott (2000) and Boerger (2016). Thus, rational choice theory sees individuals behaviour as motivated by their wants, needs and goals and that individuals acts with specific given constraints that are based on the information they have about the conditions under which they are acting (Scott, 2000). Rational individuals choose the

alternative that is likely to give them the greatest satisfaction (Carling, 1992 and Coleman, 1973). Consequently, what distinguishes rational choice theory from these other forms of theory is that it denies the existence of any kinds of action other than the purely rational and calculative (Lesser & Moise- Leeman, 2009).

Accordingly, all social action, it is argued, can be seen as rationally motivated and as instrumental action, even though it may appear to be irrational or non-rational (Scott, 2000). The relationship between individual wants and constraints in achieving them can be seen in the pure technical terms of relationship of a means to an end and since it is not possible to achieve all their desires and goals, for this reason, must make choices in relation to both their goals and the means of achieving them as noted by Boerger (2016) and Scott (2000). Furthermore, rational choice theory holds that individuals usually anticipate the outcomes of alternative courses of action and calculate that which will be best for them (Levin and Milgrom, 2004). Rational individuals are expected to choose an alternative that is likely to grant them their goals at minimal cost (Boerger, 2016; Scott, 2000). Hence, Green (2002) suggested that there are two types of decision-making identified by rational choice theorists, namely involvement decisions and event decisions. Involvement decisions are those in which choices are made to become involved in an act or behaviour (Scott, 2000; Boerger, 2016), and the continuity or retreat from such behaviour depends on the weight of costs and benefits of it (Scott, 2000), while event decision are those in which the strategies of carrying out an action are determined (Boerger, 2016). If these strategies are difficult, such course of action or behaviour will not be taken (Stubs & Wheellock, `1990).

Therefore, the argument of this research is anchored on the notion that economic activity of Cross-border trading is rooted in rational choice theory as any individual before opting for Cross-border trading will have to weigh the pros and cons of such decision and since cross border trading does not require much capital and consequently an easy way of doing business as the rewards/profits accrued from cross-border trade far out weight its costs (Billing & A Leveesson, 1993). For this reason, this explains why there has been a sturdy increase in the women involved in cross border trading in recent years by bringing to the fore the fact that an activity become attractive if its potential benefits outweighs the potential dangers and costs associated with it.

THE HISTORY OF WOMEN CROSS BORDER TRADING IN ZIMBABWE

Pre-Colonial Era Women Cross Border Trading In Zimbabwe (1830-1890)

Historically, cross border trading in Zimbabwe dates back to pre-colonial times according to (Ranger, 2000). People carried out barter trade without the need for formal registration (Munyoro etal, 2016). In most parts of Africa, there were no taxes levied on goods brought or bartered from other countries as revealed by Sahlins (1972) who goes on to say that there were no recognizable borders and that foreign goods were actually cherished by the pre-colonial societies as they facilitated transfer of technology and increasing standards of living. Goods used to be sold internally within Zimbabwe and across the border to neighbouring countries without any difficulties. However, with the coming in of the British in Zimbabwe in 1890, the absence of taxes and free human movement across borders became a thing of the past.

Colonial Era Women Cross Border Trading (1890-1979)

The British upon colonization wasted no time in instituting a number of taxes on imports, which were set in line with the colonial government's agreements with neighbouring countries (Ranger, 2000). According to Tsikita (2009), during the colonial era, women continued to be involved in cross trading, both within their country and across borders,

particularly in the distribution of food and small consumer items as well as in the trade in services. Their active involvement in small-scale trading is linked with the gendered construction of the colonial economy and society, which allowed male access to formal education and employment in the colonial bureaucracy as well as other forms of formal employment Cole (1968). Residential regulations during this period restricted women's access to urban areas and confined them to rural areas under the jurisdiction of chiefs (Tsikita, 2009). These circumstances resulted in the gender segmentation of labour force, requiring women to restrict themselves to the margins of the colonial order, delivering much needed services to male migrants and establishing themselves in the informal distribution of goods and services (Yussuff, 2014). These colonial patterns have persisted into the post-colonial period, reinforced by the continuing gender discrimination in terms of access to education and formal employment and the growing informalisation of work due to economic liberalization policies (Cole, 1968).

Independence Era Women Cross Border Trading in Zimbabwe (1980-1989)

At independence, many African states adopted the artificially created borders, which led to the emergence of tariff, non-tariff barriers and stringent immigration rules and this in turn disrupted informal economic activity (Hess, 2011). Following independence, the new Zimbabwean government took upon itself to revise most of the trading agreements which had been signed by the British and revised most of them in order to suite the new conditions (GATT, 1994). Thus it is also important to note that the tariffs instituted by the Zimbabwean government have always been consistent with its trade policy, especially when it comes to bilateral and multilateral trade agreements (Sithole, 1996). Zimbabwe being a member of the General Agreement on Trade and Tariff (GATT) had to follow guidelines provided by the organization on the setting of taxes (GATT, 1994).

Post Independence Era Women Cross Border Trading in Zimbabwe (1990 -1999)

According to Chani (2008), cross-border trading between Zimbabwe and its neighbouring countries has spiralled over the past years. Muzvidziwa (1998) suggests that informal cross border trading was often associated with low-income and informal traders who were viewed unfortunately as "smugglers" while women were labelled as "prostitutes". Whilst, Mupedziswana and Gumbo (2001) also note that in the early 1990s the majority of women in cross border trading were not educated, and could neither read or write as most of them were school drop outs even though things have changed now according to Munyoro etal (2016). In those days, women could trade in such products such as doilliries and artefacts in neighbouring countries and then bring back the much needed foreign currency to the country which helped the country in boosting its economic development (Mupedziswana and Gumbo; Munyoro etal, 2016). The rise in women cross border trade may be attributed to a number of related factors including high unemployment, high inflation, shortages of goods and commodities, high levels of poverty and food insecurity. According to a recent study done by SAMP (2015), unemployment rate in Zimbabwe rose to 95%, and forced many people to shift to the informal sector where the people hoped to earn a living. Among such groups were cross border traders who frequently travelled to neighbouring countries to sell their products and return home with more goods for resale and some foreign currency (Mwaniki, 2011). The presence of a thriving black market given the differential in foreign currency rates and unfavourable economic policies such as ESAP also promoted cross border trade among different countries. The wide array of people involved in cross border trading indicates that it is no longer the preserve of a few. An economic activity once dominated by low-income households and a relatively uneducated population has become a viable livelihood alternative for many others reeling

under economic pressure. Although still dominated by women, male traders of late are also becoming involved hence, cross border trading has become an occupation or career for all (Krishna, 2013).

The New Millennium Era Women Cross Border Trading (2000 to Present Date)

Tekere et al (2009) has pointed out that there has been a significant increase in cross border trade by women in the first decade of the new millennium. The harsh economic conditions characterized by the hyperinflation and widespread unemployment has acted as a major incentive in the increase in both formal and informal cross border activities (Munyoro et al, 2016). This notion is also supported by UNFW (2009) which stated that at its hype in 2008 both formal and informal cross border trade was no longer restricted to the lives of the participants only. Rather, it became a huge economic activity, ensuring that the food supply from as far as South Africa, Mozambique and Botswana reached the country's populace. Hyperinflation became a thing of the past when the economy of the country was dollarized in 2009. However, according to Chikoko (2012), the lack of preparedness in converting bank balances to US dollars and other reasons plunked the country back into a serious liquidity crunch. According to Mupedziswana and Gumbo (2001)'s notion, all this mentioned above coupled by increased divorce rates and other social ills continued pushing Zimbabweans to engage more in cross border trading.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study utilized phenomenology research philosophy because the study emphasized and focus on people's subjective experiences and interpretations of the world (Oppenheim, 2009). It also focuses on experiences, events and occurrences with disregard or minimum regard for the external and physical reality (Holloway and Wheeler, 1996; Conery, 1983). It also involves long in-depth interviews with subjects, and sometimes researchers will interview the same subject several times to get a full picture of their experience with the phenomena (Burns & Grove, 1998). According to Armstrong (2010) and Easterby-Smith et al (1991) the good thing about phenomenological research is that it has some advantages which range from it having a better understanding of meanings attached by people and its contribution to the development of new theories and therefore it provides a rich and complete description of human experiences and meanings and findings are allowed to emerge rather than being imposed by the investigator. In addition, data gathered is seen as natural rather than artificial (Schutz, 1962).

In addition, a case study research design was used in conducting this research and is an operation or plan that stipulates the kind of information that is to be collected from what source, using what kind of procedure and also how it will be analysed (Bloomberg and Volpe, 2012; Sharjahan, 2005; Saunders et al, 2007). The study used both qualitative and quantitative data as well primary and secondary data. Questionnaires and focus groups were used to collect primary data, whilst secondary data was gathered from various sources such as government gazettes, immigration bulletins, previous researches and journals as well as surfing through the internet (Parahoo, 2007). The researcher systematically selected a sample of 400 respondents from the targeted population of women cross border traders and immigration officers from both Chirundu and Kariba border posts. Furthermore, the data was analysed using descriptive statistical tools such as the arithmetic mean and standard deviation, which helped in locating the centrality of the data along with determining the validity of the responses based on the data dispersion (Gunnemsson, 2003). The researcher also made use of inferential statistics which included chi-square test and the f-test, along with factor analysis so as to determine the validity of the findings based on demographic data and other characteristics (Cresswell, 2013)

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRATION

Questionnaire Response Rate

The results concerning the response rate on the field study are presented in the table below.

Table 1: Questionnaire Response Rate

	Border Post	Send/Scheduled	Returned/Conducted	Response Rate
Questionnaires distributed to Women Cross border traders	Chirundu	294	277	94,22%
	Kariba	106	91	85,85%
	Total	400	368	92%

Source: Authors

Table 1 above shows that the questionnaire response rates for women cross-border trade were 94,22% at Chirundu and 85,85% at Kariba border posts respectively.

Age of Respondents

In this study there were respondents from as young as 20years old and also the old aged exceeding 50 years. The majority of the respondents were below the age of 40 years indicating that the youths were highly active in this entrepreneurial activity of cross border trading.

Table 2: Frequency Table of Age of Respondents

		Age			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-30 years	25	27.2	27.2	27.2
	31-40 years	45	48.9	48.9	76.1
	41-50 years	18	19.6	19.6	95.7
	above 50 years	4	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total		92	100.0	100.0	

Source: Authors

Level of Education

The business of cross border trading is dominated by those who attended secondary school suggesting that they may have failed to acquire formal employment in the highly literate economy. As people advance in education less indulges in the cross border activity but however the fact that there are cross border traders with post grad qualifications shows that this trade is not only for the least educated but the highly educated ones too. This is contrary to the findings obtained by Mupedziswa and Gumbo (2001) who suggested that in the early 1990s the majority of women in informal cross border trade had little education. The results show that the literacy level of female traders has since improved since that time when the research was conducted.

Table 3: Frequency Table of Education of Respondents

		Education			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	secondary	69	75.0	75.0	75.0
	diploma	16	17.4	17.4	92.4
	degree	6	6.5	6.5	98.9
	post grad	1	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	100.0	

Source: Authors

Marital Status

The study revealed that 63% of the respondents were married while 26% percent were single giving a cumulative percentage of 89%. With such statistics the researcher concluded that it was easier for the single and married to enter into this type of trade than the widowed and divorced contrary to what is suggested in the literature. This is because the single have no family obligations while the married are able to leave their spouses in charge of their families during their absence.

Table 4: Frequency Table of Marital Status of Respondents

		Marital_Status			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	single	24	26.1	26.1	26.1
	married	58	63.0	63.0	89.1
	divorced	4	4.3	4.3	93.5
	widowed	6	6.5	6.5	100.0
	Total	92	100.0	100.0	

Source: Authors

Table 5: Descriptive and Inferential Statistics of the Impact of Immigration Rules on Women Practising Cross Border Trade

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Significance
Knowledge of immigration role	2.16	0.964	0.057
Information readily available	2.73	1.319	0.348
Service offered meant for development	2.14	1.135	0.027
Immigration rules clear and simple	2.72	1.18	0.891
Knowledge of required immigration documents	1.97	0.919	0.313
Immigration notifies new rules in time	2.35	1.27	0.6
Services and restrictions affect profitability	2.62	1.325	0.533
Waiting time determined by Immigration procedures	2.76	1.296	0.928
Immigration services discourage corruption	2.64	1.289	0.152
There are immigration policies to promote small business	2.85	1.185	0.981
Corruption by immigration from other countries affects profitability of my business.	2.98	1.391	0.417

Source: Authors

Knowledge of Immigration Role

An ANOVA score of 0.057 indicates that the respondents had no adequate knowledge on the role of the immigration department. This was supported by Muzvidziwa (2001) who revealed that cross border traders lack knowledge of official procedures required to cross borders.

Service Offered Meant for Development

Respondents (immigration officers) are not aware that the services they are offering is significant to the economic development of the country, hence their attitude towards their clients (women cross border traders).

Immigration Rules Clear and Simple

The respondents are of the view that immigration rules are not clear and simple as the mean score of this notion was below 3. Despite having a standard deviation above 1 the ANOVA test proved that this notion was significant.

Immigration Services Discourage Corruption

This findings show that immigration service promotes corruption as this is shown by a mean score of 1.28 which is strongly negative and an added ANOVA test score of 0.15 which is way above the significance level of 0.05. A study by Garatidye (2014) show that women informal cross border traders passing through the Beitbridge border post indicated that informal cross border traders were actually in the habit of setting aside some money for bribes in order to avoid what they called stringent Immigration and custom laws. Therefore it is clear that services offered by Immigration officials promote corruption, human trafficking, smuggling of undocumented travellers and underhand dealings.

There are Immigration Policies to Promote Small Business

The results of the study show that immigration policies do not promote small businesses and this was shown by a mean score of 2.85. This was judged as negative since it was found to be below 3. In addition, the standard deviation showed a value of 1.185 which is slightly above 1. The same was pointed out by Tekere et al (2002) who noted that there is lack of recognition of the women cross border traders, despite its contribution to the economic development of the country.

Information Readily Available

The study shows that the information concerning immigration policies were not readily available and this is shown by the mean 2.73. In addition, the Anova test proved that at 95% level of significance information was not readily available.

Knowledge of Required Immigration Documents

This study revealed that cross boarder traders did not have knowledge of the required documents as shown by the mean score of 1.97 and a standard deviation of 0.91.

Waiting Time Determined by Immigration Procedures

The waiting time at the border was proved to be determined by procedures of the immigration department and this is supported by a mean score of 2.76. These results are also in line with previous studies like one by Garatidye (2014) in which women cross border traders were found to be spending 6 to 8 hours waiting for them to be cleared at the Zimbabwean borders.

Corruption by Immigration from Other Countries Affects Profitability of my Business

The study also show that corruption by Immigration officials from other countries was affecting the profitability of women cross border trading businesses as this had a mean value of 2.9, which is close to a mean of 3 and this is echoed by Mupedziswa and Gumbo (2001)'s study.

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The categories defined by Gender = female and male occur with probabilities 0.5 and 0.5.	One-Sample Binomial Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The categories of Age occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The categories of Education occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The categories of Marital_status occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The categories of Years_of_experience occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
6	The categories of Knowledge_of_immigration_role occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
7	The categories of Information_readily_available occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.003	Reject the null hypothesis.
8	The categories of Service_offered_meant_for_development occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
9	The categories of Immigration_rules_clear_and_simple occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
10	The categories of Knowledge_of_required_immigration_documents occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
11	The categories of Immigration_notifies_new_rules_in_time occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.007	Reject the null hypothesis.
12	The categories of Services_andrestrictions_affect_profitability occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.007	Reject the null hypothesis.
13	The categories of Waiting_time_determined_by_procedures occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.026	Reject the null hypothesis.
14	The categories of Immigration_services_discourage_corruption occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.018	Reject the null hypothesis.
15	The categories of There_are_immigration_policies_to_promote_small_business occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.012	Reject the null hypothesis.
16	The categories of Corruption_by_immigration_affects_profitability occur with equal probabilities.	One-Sample Chi-Square Test	.974	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Source: Authors

The Findings

The findings of the study show that immigration officials are not aware of the significance of the Department of Immigration's role in the economic development of the country as noted by Munyoro et al (2016) and Muzvidziwa (2001). In addition, the study indicate that immigration rules are complicated and not readily available as noted by Tekere et al (2002) too as most women cross border traders face challenges in completing immigration formalities and understanding the procedures at the border. This is also supported by Gaidzanwa (1997) who pointed out that most women cross border traders do not understand border formalities and this is worsened by lack of information on prevailing immigration policies related to women cross border trading such as the Simplified Trade Regime in the COMESA region. As a result they are forced to pay high number of undue 'informal' taxes. It is common practice of immigration officials to take advantage of the women's ignorance and exploit it in various ways. The waiting time at the border was found to be long as this determined by immigration clearance time and this is supported by Gaidzanwa (1997) and Tekere et al (2000), who said that the women cross border traders are often delayed at the borders for flimsy reasons and are often held back by border officials asking for personal favours from these women traders. Furthermore, the study show that corruption from border agencies from other countries have a negative bearing on the profitability of women cross border trading in Zimbabwe. This was echoed by Garatidye (2014) and, Mupedziswa and Gumbo (2001)'s findings. This is supported by Ama (2013) who revealed that Botswana border officials increase total costs for cross border traders thereby, negatively impacting on

the survival and growth prospects of women cross border trading. Strict requirements for one to obtain border passes, such as proof of residence, passport size photos and copy of one's identification particulars were seen as not promoting free movement of people across borders. In addition, the fact that there are no policies to promote small businesses is contrary to North America's approach which encourages the growth of small businesses through cross border trading and this was noted by Conte (2006) who stated that the American government has policies that support cross border trading in particular small businesses at large such as the Small businesses Act of 1953. This Act supports small businesses in terms of education and training, financial support and winning government contracts as noted by Tekere et al (2002) and this has a positive bearing on the growth of national economy.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On account of the above findings obtained, the study recommends that the government must put in place immigration policies that cater for the needs of women cross border traders in particular and small business at large. This can be achieved through education and awareness. In short, the Department of Immigration should regularly engage women cross border traders and other formal businesses through stakeholder and business meetings, some of which might be organised by Zimbabwe Investment Authority (ZIA) and Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA). Education and awareness can also be achieved by distributing fliers and pamphlets on issues pertaining to immigration rules and policies, and this should be written in local languages. At the moment all immigration forms are written in English and some travellers may fail to understand or interpret what is required. These fliers and pamphlets can be distributed by using cross border buses and commuter omnibuses and also to those travelling in private transport. These fliers can also be put on notice boards and also be positioned strategically at both entry and exit points so that they are accessible to everyone crossing the border.

Registration of cross border traders should be encouraged in Zimbabwe including other small business, taking a leaf from the Ugandan experience where all small businesses have been registered as noted by Kate and Meager (2002). The data collected for example in Uganda is being used by the government to support the women informal trader associations. In addition, the registered small entrepreneurs have a legal status to enhance their voice in the decision making process at policy level, as well as to access information and training opportunities. Also, upon registration, these women cross border traders can have some preferential treatment at the borders, for example, having their own queues at the borders, using some cards or registers to cross instead of an ordinary passport and ease application of border passes and doing away with stringent requirements for one to obtain a border pass. The government should also implement favorable policies that will ensure the reduction of waiting time for people to be cleared at the borders, to accelerate the implementation of regional trade agreements, such as use of Simplified Trade Regimes (STRS) in the COMESA region, which are mainly designed to suit women cross border traders' programs. Also, to encourage the one-stop border post implemented at Chirundu border post, especially at all busy border posts around Zimbabwe such as Beitbridge, Forbes and Plumtree just to name a few as this move will significantly reduce clearance time of people at various borders, and also reduce congestion at the borders as argued by Grainger (2007). In addition, social-economic challenges such as the deadly HIV and AIDS caused by delays at the border posts will be greatly reduced in the process as more women are able to sleep in their houses instead of sleeping at the border posts due to delays. As a result the country as a whole will benefit as the funds which were supposed to be used to buy medicines for HIV and AIDS will be channelled elsewhere.

Furthermore, the government should put in place policies that are meant to curb corruption by immigration officials. One of the ways of doing this would be to reinforce the information and communication technology infrastructure to ensure that clearance of people is reliably done through computers and remote data access at all entry points. There is need to reduce documentary requirements and put in place transparent procedures and processes that will discourage underhand dealings. Information and communication technology can also be used to reduce corruption at the border posts as there will be limited interaction between immigration officials and the travelling public, which include cross border traders. Also, CCTV cameras should be put in places at all border posts so that corruption and other underhand dealings are quickly identified and responded to. Immigration must carry out campaigns discouraging corrupt activities and underhand dealings by staff and the cross border traders themselves. Also Immigration staff should be rotated after at least every six months at each border post so that they do not get used to the travelling public, and also top management should carry out random spot checks on all border posts. More workshops on customer care should be organised by the immigration management. All officers should always wear their nametags. The use of suggestion boxes and complaints register should be always be available at all entry points so that aggrieved travellers can lodge their complaints without fear or favour.

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