ISSN 2349-7831

International Journal of Recent Research in Social Sciences and Humanities (IJRRSSH)
Vol. 3, Issue 3, pp: (6-19), Month: July - September 2016, Available at: www.paperpublications.org

THE IMPACT OF TELECOMMUNICATION BUSINESS ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND POVERTY REDUCTION (A STUDY OF ZAMFARA STATE)

OJELEYE YINKA CALVIN

Department Of Business Administration National Open University of Nigeria

Abstract: **The study examines the impact of telecommunication business on youth unemployment and poverty reduction in Zamfara State. The study intends to find out how telecommunication business activities have positively influenced the wellbeing of the young people. Data were collected using multistage sampling and purposive sampling techniques from 200 respondents in the study area. Data generated were analyzed using descriptive statistics, multiple least-squares regression model and logit regression analysis model. The result of the multiple least- square regression analyses showed that telecommunication business has significant influenced on youth employment in the study area. Similarly the result of the logit regression analysis also revealed that telecommunication business has significant influence on youth poverty reduction in the study. The study recommended for government interventions at all levels to encourage these youth in term of easy access to venture capital, telecommunications service provider quality service delivery and provision of appropriate youth telecommunication employed database.**

Keywords: **Telecommunication business, Unemployment, Youth, Youth unemployment, Poverty.**

1. INTRODUCTION

Youth occupy a prominent place in any society. They are one of the greatest assets any nation can have. Apart from being leaders of tomorrow, they out-number the middle-aged and the aged (Onyekpe, 2007). Young people's contribution to the advancement of the society cannot be over-emphasized since they occupy a very strategic position in the society, they are the future and hope of any nation; hence a nation that neglects her youth, trades her future. The stage of youth is one of assimilating knowledge of all kinds and enthusiastic in the search of knowledge no wonder that most of the Technological breakthroughs of the 21st century is as a result of the direct dynamism, vision and innovation of the young people.

The Nigerian National Youth Policy (2009), defines youth as persons between the ages of 18-35 years. The youth are also most volatile and the most vulnerable segment of the population in terms of social-economic, emotion and other aspects according to Anasi as quoted by (Ajufo, 2013). Around the world young people disproportionately suffer from the malaise of unemployment and Poverty. The scale of the problem is immense holding back economic growth while stifling the aspirations of young people recently entering the workforce and at the beginning of their careers (International Telecommunication Union, 2014). According to the Population Reference Bureau (2014), world population is around 7.2 billion. Youth make 17 per cent (1.2 billion) of the world's population and 40 per cent of the world's unemployed. Youth unemployment hit 13 per cent (156 million) in 2014.

Nigeria has one of the largest and fastest growing Telecommunication Market in Africa. The sector attracts considerable foreign investment given a potential for further growth. The environment is becoming more competitive than before due to the influx of both local and foreign investors into the market. The liberalization of Telecommunication sector over

Twelve years ago by the administration of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo has thus provided immense opportunities for investment and growth (Ndukwe, 2003).

The following hypotheses are formulated and are as follows:

i. The telecommunication business positively impact on youth unemployment in the study area,

ii. There is significant relationship between youth in telecommunication business and poverty reduction in the study area.

We accept the null hypotheses (Ho) if the calculated t-value is less than the tabulated, if not we reject the null hypotheses.

2. CONCEPT OF TELECOMMUNICATION

Kayne and Foster (2015), telecommunications is a general term for a vast array of technologies that send information over distances. Mobile phones, land lines, satellite phones and voice over Internet protocol (VoIP) are all telephony technologies just like one field of telecommunications. Radio, television and networks are a few more examples of telecommunication. He further, explained that while most people associate telecommunications with modern technologies, the strict definition of the term encompasses primitive and even ancient forms of telecommunication. Among these is the use of smoke signals as a kind of visual telegraph. Puffs of smoke were time-released by smothering a fire with a blanket, then quickly removing and replacing the blanket. Widely used by the American Indians, smoke signals could communicate short messages over long distances, assuming a clear line of sight. Other forms include the use of relay fires or beacons. ShoreTel (2015), also supported the views of Kayne et als (2015), on pre-historical form of telecommunication; prehistoric man relied on fire and smoke signals as well as drum messages to encode information over a limited geographic area as they attempted to contact neighboring clans. These signals also needed to have very simple, pre-decided meanings like "safe" or "danger" or "victory" or could be used as a form of alarm system in order to alert prehistoric clans to predators or invading clans. He defined telecommunication as the science and technology of communication over a distance. The ability to convey information quickly, accurately and efficiently has always been one of the main focuses driving human innovation of today, communication still remains a key for survival and success. Man's first attempts at distance communication were extremely limited.

Freeman (1999), defines telecommunications as the transmission of signals over long distance, such as by telegraph, radio or television. He termed telecommunication “electrical communication”. This is a descriptive term, but of somewhat broader scope.

The emergence of Telecommunication has brought a new era in communication industry. The internet, mobile phone and computer, have brought about a fundamental shift in patterns of communication and human relationships. Communication revolution has also brought about amazing social, economic, cultural and psychological transformations. It has reduced the globe into a village through reduction of time and space. These recent advances in telecommunications technology have been an important vehicle in permitting information exchange to develop as a valuable commodity for moving the country into post-industrial and information based economic growth. In this present world, a modern telecommunication infrastructural development is not only essential for domestic economic growth, but is a prerequisite for participation in increasingly competitive world markets and for attracting new investments (Kiel &Johnson, 2005) cited by (Asogwa, Ohaleme, and Ugwuanyi, 2013).

Mobile telecommunications connect people anytime from anywhere. Transmission of voice and data through mobile telecommunication networks makes it possible to send information and conduct transaction in a new way.

3. THE CONCEPT OF YOUTH

Youth constitute not only a formidable demographic force, but also make up the next generation of parents, workers and leaders. Their well-being, therefore, has implications not only for their own lives, but also for the societies they will build and maintain. Their ability to play these roles effectively depends on the support of their families, communities and on the commitment of their governments to their development. Meeting their needs is a major continuing public policy challenge which calls for constant re-thinking of policies, re-assessment of priorities, commitment of adequate financial resources, and effective implementation of programs. More efficient and equitable resource allocation and improved policy formulation and implementation can only be achieved with a better understanding of their needs (Ruhl, 2011). According to UK Essay (2013), there is no unique definition of youth; each and every country has its own definition which varies

over time. Most of these definitions depend on cultural, institutional and socio- political issues. The same view is supported by African Union (2011), claimed that the meaning of youth, and the way society regards youth, varies across time, space as well as within societies. For developing nations and most particularly for African countries the definition of youth poses a persistent challenge given the socio-economic and political realities within which youth are defined and characterized in policy formulation and design. Global governance institutions such as the United Nations (UN) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) conventionally consider individuals under the age group of 15-24 as youths. The United Nations Secretariat uses the terms youth and young people interchangeable for statistical purposes without prejudice to other definitions by Member States (United Nations, 2015).

Africa Union Charter (2006), youth or young people shall refer to every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years. According to Ghana's National Youth Policy (2010), youth is defined as those between 15-35 years. The Nigerian National Youth Policy (2009), defines youth as persons between the ages of 18-35 years. The National Youth Policy of Kenya (2006), defines youth as individuals between 15-30 years. Malaysia's National Youth Policy (1996), states that youth range between the ages of 15– 40. However, the policy also specifies that youth development programs and activities shall be focused on youth aged 18– 25 years of age. The South African National Youth Policy (2000), defines youth as any persons between the ages of 14 and 35 years.

Curtain (2001) defined youth as an economic and social concept referring to a separate stage in the lifecycle between childhood and adulthood. This period of transition refers to a complex interplay of personal, institutional and macro-economic changes that most young people have to negotiate in other than wholly traditional societies. The relative importance and intermingling of these factors can vary widely not only between countries according to their level of economic development. It can also vary within countries according to socio economic, ethnic and other social groupings. Youth according to Matthew (2007), refer to the stage in life of physical growth and psychological development; this means the growth of all the energies through which normal individual human is built up. Youth-hood can be defined as that phase or period of life in which one passes from childhood to maturity. Maturity on the other hand refers to a situation whereby one becomes fully developed i.e. both genders (male and female) (Abdullahi, Abdullahi, Yelwa, 2008). The National Youth Development Policy (2001) asserts that the youth are the foundation of a society; their energies, inventiveness, character and orientation define the pattern of development and security of a nation. Through their creative talents and labour power, a nation makes giant strides.

4. CONCEPT OF YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment is a very complex phenomenon for which there is no standard definition; instead various countries adopt definitions that suit their local priorities (Adesina, 2013). He argued that in broad terms, the term unemployment denotes a condition of joblessness or lack of employment. In other words, anyone who is fit and available to work but fails to get one may be considered as being unemployed for the concerned period. Youth unemployment refers to the share of Labour Force ages 15-24 years without work but available for and seeking employment (International Labour Organization, 2015). Youth unemployment can also be described as the conglomerate of youth with diverse background, willing and able to work, but cannot find any or cannot find the type of job that they are trained to do and which they will be proud to do as their area of expertise (Mofoluwawo, 2015). In the decade between 1997 and 2007, unemployment of youth worldwide increased from 10.9% to 11.9 % while the global adult unemployment rate stayed level at 4.2 from 1997 to 2007. The youth are approximately three times more likely to be unemployed than adults, youth-to-adult unemployment rate was 2.8 in 2007, up from 2.6 in 1997(ILO, 2008

Around the world young people disproportionately suffer from the malaise of unemployment and Poverty. The scale of the problem is immense holding back economic growth while stifling the aspirations of young people recently entering the workforce and at the beginning of their careers. High youth unemployment not only hampers economic growth, for youth it can be a debilitating experience that affects their desire and ability to lead productive and rewarding lives. With the youth bulge swelling the ranks of working age population worldwide, urgent attention is needed to address the plight of youth and provide them with better opportunities for employment. (International Telecommunication Union, 2014). Out of the 1.2 billion 15 to 24 year olds in the world, 200 million of whom are in Africa about 75 million are looking for work in the poorest regions, many of those who are employed work in low paid, insecure jobs with little hope of advancement. Faced by economic uncertainty and lack of opportunity, cast as possible agents of social unrest and seen as a potentially lost generation; if young people are gifts, many must feel like unwanted ones (The Guardian, 2013).

5. CONCEPT OF POVERTY

Poverty in the face of abundance is now the world's greatest challenge and major developmental objective is the achievement of equality in the distribution of income and reduction of poverty. Poverty is a major way of describing economic hardship and degradation of human dignity; it may be said to be the root of virtually all socio-economic and political ills of the society particularly in recent times (Ezeanyeji and Ozughalu, 2014). About 2.8 billion persons of the world's population live on less than $2 a day, and 1.4 billion on less than $1 a day (World Bank, 2009). In 1990 the magnitude of extreme poverty was greatest in East Asia; today Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia account for about 80 percent of the global poor. According to the 2011 estimates, extreme poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa was around 47 percent. Almost three-fifths of the world's extreme poor are concentrated in just five countries: Bangladesh, China, the Democratic Republic of Congo, India, and Nigeria. Adding another five countries (Ethiopia, Indonesia, Madagascar, Pakistan, and Tanzania) would comprise just over 70 percent of the extreme poor (World Bank, 2015).

The conceptualization of poverty is highly problematic. Poverty affects many aspects of human condition including physical, psychological, social and even spiritual. This has made it impossible for there to be any general consensus on the definition of poverty. Indeed, a concise and universally acceptable definition of poverty has been elusive (Ezeanyeji et al., 2014). Poverty is an abject state of being, in which an individual is incapable of utilizing resources around him to improve himself or herself economically, socially, politically or otherwise. It could be due to lack of opportunities for education which is basic to any human development. Poverty could occur as a result of indolence or misinterpreted religious beliefs (Chigbo, 1996). It could also be a state of the mind or a psychological disposition that places the individual in question in want, material or spiritual. Materially, it involves the want for food, clothing and shelter. Spiritually, it involves want of peace of mind, the spirit and the inner man (Akwara, Akwara, Enwuchola, Adekunle, and Udaw, 2013). Okoronkwo (1996), poverty ordinarily stands for a situation whereby one cannot meet average requirements; any situation under which one cannot afford a good meal at any given time is real poverty. One is poor when one cannot plan for tomorrow because he or she has failed for today. Poverty means a man's inability to afford decent food, shelter, clothing and recreation. It entails the absence of the basic requirements essential for the survival and comfort of man. It is hunger and starvation. It is squalor and it is the non-availability of basic Medicare (Jolaosho, 1996).

6. THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

The dominant economic theories of unemployment consist of theories that are embraced by the most dominant schools of political economy. The classical theory, as analyzed by Pigou (1933) and Solow (1980), as cited by Mouhammed (2010), argues that the labor market consists of demand and supply of labor. Demand for labor is a derived demand obtained from the declining portion of the marginal product of labor. The demand curve is a negative function of the real wage in that if real wages increase the quantity demand for labor will decline, and the opposite is correct. The supply of labor is derived from worker's choice whether to spend part of their time working or not working (leisure). Supply of hours worked is a positive function of the real wage, because if the real wage rises, workers supply more hours of work. In equilibrium, demand and supply of labor are intersected at a clearing point that determines the equilibrium real wage rate and full employment. They argued that unemployment "apart from frictional obstructions would be nonexistent if it were not for the fact that wage-earners habitually stipulate for a rate of wages higher than the 'equilibrium' level." Full employment does not mean that there is no unemployment. Still frictional unemployment does exist at the going real wage rate.

On the other hand, Keynes (1936) considers unemployment as an involuntary phenomenon. He though that employment is cyclical, generated by the deficiency of effective demand, where determinants of investments become the most crucial factors. Capitalists hire workers and invest to produce output when the expectations about the economy and profits are favorable. If expectations about the future are supported by reality, investments and employment continue rising until equilibrium is reached. This equilibrium is attained by the intersection of aggregate demand and supply whose intersection point is called the effective demand, which may be less than the full employment equilibrium. If expectations about the future of the economy are not favorable, capitalists invest less and employ fewer workers. Hence, equilibrium is achieved where cyclical unemployment exists. This unemployment which is due to the deficiency of effective demand, particularly investment expenditures, can be cured by public works which may be able to stimulate private investments (Mouhammed, 2010).

Joseph Schumpeter (1934) argued that innovation is the key to reducing unemployment. Innovation he asserted is triggered by the entrepreneur. He did not provide explicitly a theory of unemployment but his theory of the business cycle

does demonstrate clearly how unemployment can be reduced. Innovations which create more jobs relative to job destruction are the basic force beyond the increases in employment and the decreases in unemployment. When entrepreneurs innovate something new such as the production of a new product, a new market, a new method of production, new technologies, and a new organization, they increase investments to materialize those innovations. Investment expenditures will increase demand on economic resources and will increase their prices. Other entrepreneurs will imitate the leaders by adopting the new innovations. Labor and materials will be employed to produce the new items. Consequently, wages will be increasing and unemployment will be declining, assuming that employment creation will outweigh employment destruction due to the new innovations (Mouhammed, 2010).

However, for the purpose of this research, the Schumpeter theory of employment was adopted since it is right in principles and suitable in applicability in understanding the role played my new constructive innovation especially in the telecommunication sector in reducing unemployment and poverty in Nigeria.

7. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

GSM Association (2014), examined the socio-economic impact of mobile phone to Latin American countries argued that mobile telecommunication has a positive and direct impact on the economy. However, further to the direct economic impact, the revenues generated by the mobile industry in Latin America have a multiplier effect on the rest of the economy as a proportion of the wages, taxes or profits paid out by the industry are subsequently spent across other sectors.

Recent study carried out by Bertillar (2015), researched on the impact of mobile phone usage on youth micro enterprise development in Embakasi South in Nairobi, Kenya. A sample of 336 youth entrepreneurs were taken as respondents using stratified random sampling. The study utilized a questionnaire with open and close ended questions, an interview guide to collect primary data from a key informant and focus groups. Analysis of quantitative data involved the generation of descriptive statistics while qualitative data was analyzed using thematic analysis. Bar charts, pie charts, and tables were employed to represent the data for interpretation. The findings indicate that many youths are using the mobile phone to run their businesses and benefitting from the technology that comes with the mobile phone with over 90% of the respondents owning mobile phones.

Fasoranti (2010), examined the impact of the deregulated telecommunication sector on urban employment generation in Lagos metropolis, the profitability and efficiency of GSM operators and the influence of some selected macroeconomic variables on income generated from the business. This shows that deregulation has actually reduced youth unemployment in the study area. The study also showed that GSM operation is profitable both in the short and in the end. The regressions analysis also showed that experience, cost of operation, amount of loans obtained were significant factors in GSM business.

Similar research conducted by Mohammed (2009), which also investigated the liberalization of the Nigerian telecommunications sector: a critical review using Secondary data obtained from Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) and analyzed qualitatively reveals that they has been a tremendous increase in total telecom productive capacity, employment generation, number of connected lines, competition, GSM telecom services, service quality and foreign direct investment in the telecom sector after full liberalization.

Mumini (2013), examined the impact of deregulated telecommunications sector on employment generation in Ilorin metropolis, Kwara State Nigeria. Primary data was used, a well-structured questionnaire. The data obtained from the field were analyzed using descriptive and influential statistical tools using multiple linear regression models. He found that those who were unemployed for long period of time to be the majority in the telecoms business, the positive relationship shows that many people rush into GSM business to get out of poverty. This implies that telecoms business has substantially created jobs especially for the youths and positively influenced income and standard of living.

According to Bakare and Gold (2011), investigated the impacts of global system for mobile telecommunication (GSM) on income, employment and transaction cost in Nigeria. Linear regression analytical techniques were used for data analysis. The study made use of primary data obtained from 1,000 respondents' from 20 selected communities in Ilorin metropolis in Kwara State, Nigeria, through the administration of questionnaires. The purposive sampling method was also employed in the study with a sample unit. The outcome of the empirical investigations shows that Global System for Mobile Communication has contributed positively to the economic situations of Nigeria and has served as source of income and employment to many Nigerian youths.

ISSN 2349-7831

International Journal of Recent Research in Social Sciences and Humanities (IJRRSSH)
Vol. 3, Issue 3, pp: (6-19), Month: July - September 2016, Available at: www.paperpublications.org

8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The population for this study will consists of the entire operators of Telecommunication business in Zamfara State. However, because of the practical impossibility of studying the entire population, the researcher decided to limit the study to selected respondents as category of operators of telecommunication businesses. Due to non-availability of sampling frame in the form of multi-stage random sampling procedure and purposive sampling techniques is employed to select the sample for the study. A multi-stage random sampling procedure is used in selecting 200 respondents in Telecommunication Business in the state. This is in line with the previous study conducted by Fasoranti (2010). There are fourteen local Governments areas (Anka, Bakura, Brinin Magaji, Bukkuyum, Bungudu, Gummi, Gusau, Kaura-namoda, Maradun, Maru, Shinkafi, Talata Mafara, Tsafe and Zurmi) that comprise Zamfara state. Out of the Fourteen Local Government areas two (2) are selected; Gusau and Maru Local Government. Respondents' community is purposively selected based on their geographical location, high population and telecommunication network coverage. The data collected from the field is compiled, edited and coded to ensure that all obvious errors resulting from inaccurate measurement are removed. The coding of the questionnaire will ease the analysis, using version 22 of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

Muitple linear regression model is used to test for H_{01}

$$TELEMP = \beta_0 + \beta_{1EMPBF} + \beta_{2YRSBFEMPL} + \beta_{3SOI} + \beta_{4EDU} + \beta_{5TCOST} + \beta_{6AGE} + \beta_{7SEX+} \beta_{8STATUS} + \mu \ldots equ. (1)$$

Where; TELEMPL = Telecommunication Youth employment by respondents, EMPBF = Employed before GSM , YRSBFEMPL = Years not employed before GSM, SOI = Size of investment, EDU = Level of education of the respondents, TCOST= Transaction cost of respondents, AGE= Age of the respondents, SEX= Sex of the respondents, STATUS= Marital of status of the respondents, μ= Error term capturing other explanatory variables not explicitly included in the model, β_0 = Constant Parameter, βs = Coefficient of the independent variable .

Logit Regression is used to test for H_{02}

$$Pry\ (1/0) = \beta_0 + \beta_{1AGE} + \beta_{2SEX+} \beta_{3STATUS} + \beta_{4EDU} + \beta_{5EMPCRE} + \beta_{6SAVS} + \beta_{7INFO} + \beta_{8INCME} + \beta_{9STASFY} + \mu.equ. (2)$$

Where AGE = Age of the respondent to be measured in years, SEX = Sex of the respondents, STATUS = Marital Status of the respondents, EDU= Educational status, EMPCRE= Telecommunication employment creation, SAVS= Savings of the respondents, INFO= Level of respondents accessibility to information, INCOME= income of the respondents, SATISFACTION= satisfaction of the respondent on the job.

9. DATA ANALYSES

Table 1. Profiles of Telecommunication Business Operators in the Study Area.

Variable	Respondent Opinion	Frequency	Percentage
Age Structure	15-25	72	36
	26-35	121	60.5
	36-45	5	2.5
	46-above	2	1
Respondent Status	Single	130	65
	Married	70	35
Level of Education	Primary	21	10.5
	Secondary	114	57
	Post-Secondary	55	27.5
	No formal	10	5
Gender Attribute	Female	49	24.5
	Male	151	75.5

The results from Table 1. indicate that out of the 200 respondents, seventy two respondents (72)(36%) fall into the age bracket (15-25). one hundred and twenty one (121)(60.5%) respondents are in the (26-35) age range. Five (5)(2.5%) respondents fall within the (36-45) age range while two (2)(1%) respondents fall within the (46- above) age range. This shows that majority of the operators of telecommunication business are youths. This is confirmed by the responses of the respondents on their marital status where about 65% of the respondents corresponding to one hundred and thirty (130) respondents are single, only about 35% (70) are married.

Another characteristic of the respondents is that our result shows that fifty five (55)(27.55%) acquired post-secondary education either in the form of , NCE,OND, HND or first Degree. one hundred and fourteen (114)(57.0%) possessed 'O' level. Another group twenty one (21)(10.5%) respondents obtained primary school leaving certificate or Islamic/Arabic education while only ten (10)(5.5)% of the respondents claimed that they did not have any formal education. This implies that although majority of the respondents have acquired a reasonable level of education, they could not secure formal employment. This result further reveals that majority of the operators of telecommunication business in the study area are male. As can be seen in Table 4.1, (151) (75.5%) of respondents are male and the remaining constituting (49) (24.5%) are female.

9.1 The Impact of Telecommunication Business on Youth Employment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.841[a]	.707	.688	.20172

a. Predictors: (Constant), EDUCATION, SEX, EMPBF, STATUS, TCOST, SOI, AGE, YRSBFEMPL

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.982	8	1.498	36.808	.000[b]
	Residual	4.964	122	.041		
	Total	16.947	130			

a. Dependent Variable: TELEMPLO

b. Predictors: (Constant), EDUCATION, SEX, EMPBF, STATUS, TCOST, SOI, AGE, YRSBFEMPL

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.350	.188		12.535	.000
	EMPBF	.150	.043	.194	3.517	.001
	YRSBFEMPL	.986	.094	.728	10.522	.000
	TCOST	.095	.054	.103	1.745	.084
	SOI	8.669E-7	.000	.281	4.724	.000
	AGE	.012	.005	.171	2.510	.013
	SEX	-.192	.053	-.225	-3.611	.000
	STATUS	-.132	.050	-.158	-2.659	.009
	EDUCATION	.052	.046	.070	1.122	.264

a. Dependent Variable: TELEMPLO

As shown by the parameters in table 1 the model fit the data well and the explanatory power was relatively high and significant. The coefficient of determination R^2, which measured the proportion of changes in the dependent variable that

is explained jointly by the independent variables, was 0.707 and the remaining 0.293 is explained by other factors outside the model. This implied that a unit change in all the independent variables could bring about 71% changes in the dependent variable (youth employment).This therefore reinforces the fact that the model is of good fit. The model is adequate since the F-statistics is significant at 1%.This means that at least one of the coefficients of the explanatory variables is statistically significant. Four (4) variables were significant in this model. Employed before GSM, Years Not Employed Before GSM, Size of Investment and Sex of respondent. Three of the variables; Unemployment before GSM (0.153) and years of unemployment before GSM (0.98) and Size of investment (8.669) had positive coefficients while Sex of respondent (-0.192) had negative coefficients.

The positive value of the coefficient of unemployment before GSM variable (0.150) implied that GSM has increased employment in the study area by 15%. Therefore, engaging in telecommunication business reduced poverty and provided employment opportunities for the teeming population of Zamfara state. Duration of unemployment is also significant and positive 0.98 (10.522). This implies that those who were unemployed for longer period (98%) constituted the bulk of telecommunication business operators in Nigeria. The positive relationship also indicated that the urge to get out of poverty due to unemployment drives many people to telecommunication business. Therefore, telecommunication business has substantially created jobs and impacted positively on income and standard of living of mostly young people in Nigeria. likewise the positive and significant value of investment 8.669 (4.724) shows that investment in GSM business has a positive influence on income and youth employment generation. The negative coefficient of sex (gender) -0.192 (-3.611) implied that telecommunication employment is male dominated against female. Thus, based on these we reject the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant relationship between telecommunication business and youth employment creation.

9.2 The Impact of Telecommunication Business on Poverty Reduction

Case Processing Summary

Unweighted Cases[a]		N	Percent
Selected Cases	Included in Analysis	200	100.0
	Missing Cases	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0
Unselected Cases		0	.0
Total		200	100.0

a. If weight is in effect, see classification table for the total number of cases.

Dependent Variable Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
NO	0
YES	1

Block 0: Beginning Block

Classification Table[a,b]

			Predicted		
			POVERTY		
	Observed		NO	YES	Percentage Correct
Step 0	POVERTY	NO	0	40	.0
		YES	0	160	100.0
	Overall Percentage				80.0

a. Constant is included in the model.

b. The cut value is .500

ISSN 2349-7831

International Journal of Recent Research in Social Sciences and Humanities (IJRRSSH)
Vol. 3, Issue 3, pp: (6-19), Month: July - September 2016, Available at: www.paperpublications.org

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	1.386	.177	61.498	1	.000	4.000

Variables not in the Equation

			Score	df	Sig.
Step 0	Variables	AGE	6.835	1	.009
		SEX	1.500	1	.221
		STATUS	18.750	1	.000
		EDU	.024	1	.877
		EMPCRE	4.469	1	.035
		SAVINGS	107.151	1	.000
		INFO	.907	1	.341
		INCOME	18.750	1	.000
		STAFSY	17.161	1	.000
	Overall Statistics		126.053	9	.000

Block 1: Method = Enter

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	129.027	9	.000
	Block	129.027	9	.000
	Model	129.027	9	.000

Model Summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	71.134[a]	.475	.752

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 8 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	Df	Sig.
1	2.575	8	.958

Contingency Table for Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

		POVERTY = NO		POVERTY = YES		
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	Total
Step 1	1	20	19.874	0	.126	20
	2	14	13.157	6	6.843	20
	3	3	2.906	19	19.094	22
	4	2	1.410	16	16.590	18
	5	0	1.155	19	17.845	19

	6	1	.786	19	19.214	20
	7	0	.482	17	16.518	17
	8	0	.178	24	23.822	24
	9	0	.041	23	22.959	23
	10	0	.013	17	16.987	17

Classification Table[a]

			Predicted	
			POVERTY	Percentage Correct
	Observed		YES	
Step 1	POVERTY	NO	12	70.0
		YES	157	98.1
	Overall Percentage			92.5

a. The cut value is .500

Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1[a]	AGE	-.342	.161	4.514	1	.034	.710	.518	.974
	SEX	.656	1.134	.335	1	.563	1.928	.209	17.787
	STATUS	1.027	1.020	1.015	1	.314	2.793	.379	20.604
	EDU	-.327	.553	.350	1	.554	.721	.244	2.132
	EMPCRE	-2.437	.801	9.252	1	.002	.087	.018	.420
	SAVINGS	6.077	1.287	22.311	1	.000	435.904	35.010	5427.327
	INFO	-.928	.809	1.319	1	.251	.395	.081	1.927
	INCOME	3.679	1.113	10.918	1	.001	39.605	4.467	351.147
	STAFSY	-.093	.607	.023	1	.878	.911	.277	2.994
	Constant	6.713	5.548	1.464	1	.226	823.391		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: AGE, SEX, STATUS, EDU, EMPCRE, SAVINGS, INFO, INCOME, STAFSY.

As shown by the parameters in the table, the model fit the data well and the explanatory power was relatively high and significant. The **Nagelksk R^2** which is similar to the R^2 of the multiple linear regression in table 2 measured the proportion of changes or variance in the dependent variable that is explained jointly by the independent variables or the predictors is 0.752 which show that the model is of good fit.

Secondly, the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test is also a statistical test which seek to establish how s ignificant and good fit a model is. In the test for a given model to be of good fit the p value significance must be greater than 0.05, with any value less than 0.05 simply means the model is not of good fit and obviously insignificant. However, from table 4.3 the test value is 0.958 is greater than p value 0.05 this test further establish that our model is of good fit.

Furthermore, the Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients (the overall significance of the regression) equation chi square is 129.027 was found to be high at 1 percent; which means that at least one of the coefficient of explanatory variables is significantly different from zero.

Three variables were significant in the model from table 4.3. These include the telecommunication employment creation, savings and income generation. Two variables savings and income had positive coefficient p value significance at 1% while telecommunication employment had negative coefficient significant at 0.05%

The negative coefficient of telecommunication employment creation variable which is -2.437 (0.087) showed that employment and poverty level were inversely related. This suggested that the more people participate in telecommunication business the less the poverty level. Therefore, telecommunication employment could be considered to be an important strategy for reducing the incidence of poverty in Nigeria.

The positive coefficient of saving variable showed with a one percent change in telecommunication savings there would be a variance 6.077(0.911) change in poverty. This implied that savings from telecommunication business will help in reduction of poverty since the pool of savings would translate to investments in the same or different ventures which would in turn benefit Nigeria as a whole.

Finally, the coefficient of income revealed that with one percent (1%) change in telecommunication income there would be a variance 3.679(0.395) change in poverty. This implied that income from telecommunication business will help in reduction of poverty. Thus, based on these we reject the null hypothesis, which states that there is no significant relationship between telecommunication business and poverty reduction.

10. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The regression result support one of the major objective of the research in the sense that telecommunication business has been able to create youth employment in the study area. the capacity of telecommunication business in creating youth employment is supported this study and seems to be in collaborated with the work of Mumini (2013) and Bakare et al (2011) showed that Global System for Mobile Communication (Telecommunication Business) had contributed positively to the economic situations of Nigeria and has served as source of income and employment to many Nigerian youths and Urama et al (2012) showed that developments in telecommunications has positive impact on household Poverty level in Nigeria.

11. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study examined the impact of telecommunication business on youth employment and poverty reduction in Zamfara state. The population for this study consisted of the entire operators of Telecommunication business in Zamfara State. multi-stage random sampling procedure and purposive sampling techniques were employed to select the sample for the study. A multi-stage random sampling procedure was used in selecting 200 respondents in Telecommunication Business in the state. Ordinary Multiple Least-Square Regression Model was used to specifically assess the extent to which telecommunication business has helped reduced youth unemployment while Logistic Regression Model was employed to assess the extent to which telecommunication business has helped in poverty reduction. The result of the Ordinary Multiple Least-Square Regression Model showed that the telecommunication business has exacted strong influence on youth employment generation in the study area. In the same manner, the result of the Logit Regressions Model showed that telecommunication business had a strong influence in poverty reduction in the study area.

REFERENCES

[1] Abdullahi, H. Abdullahi, Y.Z. and Yelwa, M. (2013). Youth Participation, Unemployment and Poverty in a Democratic Nigeria: Towards a Policy Response for Sustainable National Security and Economic Development. Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development. 4(10), 171-182.

[2] Adesina, O.S. (2013). Unemployment and Security Challenges in Nigeria. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science. 3(7), 146-156.

[3] Africa Union Charter. (2006). Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.un.org/en/africa/osaa/pdf/au/african_youth_charter_2006.pdf

[4] Ajufo B.I. (2013). Challenges of Youth Unemployment in Nigeria: Effective Career Guidance as a Panacea. An International Multidisciplinary Journal, Ethiopia, 7 (1), 307-321

[5] ISSN 2070—0083.DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/afrrev.v7i1.21

[6] Akwara, A. F., Akwara, N. F., Enwuchola, J., Adekunle, M. and Udaw, J. E. (2013). Unemployment and Poverty: Implications for National Security and Good Governance in Nigeria. International Journal of Public Administration and Management Research. 2 (1), 1-11. ISSN 2350-2231

[7] Asogwa, F.O., Ohaleme, K.K. and Ugwuanyi, R.O. (2013). The Impact of Telecommunication Expenditure on Economic Growth in Nigeria. Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development 4 (13), 40-44.

[8] Bakare, A. S. and Gold, K. L. (2011). Estimating the Impacts of Global System for Mobile Telecommunication (GSM) on Income, Employment and Transaction cost in Nigeria. Journal of Economics and International Finance. 3(1), 37-45.

[9] Bertillar, J.M. (2015). The Impact of Mobile Phone Usage on Youth Micro Enterprise Development in Embakasi South in Nairobi, Kenya. A Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirement of the Award of the Degree of Master of Arts in Communication Studies, The University of Nairobi. K50/69653/2013

[10] Chigbo, M. (1996). Some Popular Perceptions of Poverty in Nigeria quoted in UNDP

[11] Human Development Report on Nigeria. Lagos

[12] Commonwealth Youth Development Index (2013). Retrieved on January 17, 2016 from http://youthdevelopmentindex.org/views/faq.php

[13] Cornell University Library PSEC Documentation Committee. (2011). APA Citation Style. Retrieved on January 22, 2016 From Cornell University. https://www.library.Cornell.edu/

[14] Curtain, R. (2001). Youth and Employment: A Public Policy Perspective. Development Bulletin. 55 (1), 7-11. Retrieved on December 24, 2015 from http://curtain-consulting.net/download_controlled/Youth%20%26%20Development/youthpol.pdf

[15] Essays, UK. (2013). Definition of Youth Unemployment Sociology Essay. Retrieved on December 21, 2015 from http://www.ukessays.com/essays/sociology/definition-of-youth-unemployment-sociology-essay.php?cref=1

[16] Ezeanyeji, I. and Ozughalu, U. M. (2014). Conceptual and Theoretical Issues in Poverty, and a Reflection on the Poverty and Competitive Situation in Nigeria. International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management. 2(11), 1-16

[17] Fasoranti, M.M. (2010). The Influence of the Deregulated Tele-communication Sector on Urban Employment Generation in Nigeria. Research Journal of Social Sciences, 5(1), 1-6.

[18] Freeman, R.L. (1999). Fundamentals of Telecommunication. New York, John Wiley & Sons ISBNs: 0-471-0-471-22416-2

[19] Ghana National Youth Policy (2010). Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.youthpolicy.org/factsheets/country/ghana/

[20] International Labour Organization (2008). Global Employment Trends for Youth. Retrieved on January, 22, 2016 from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_elm/---trends/documents/publication/wcms_112573.pdf

[21] International Telecommunication Union (2014). Digital Opportunities: Innovative ICT Solutions for Youth Employment Report. Retrieved On January 22, 2016 from https://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Digital-Inclusion/Youth-and-Children/Documents/YouthReport_2014.pdf

[22] International Youth Foundation. (2013). Analysis of ICT-Enabled Youth Employment In Ghana, Kenya, and South Africa Volume 4: Annexes- South Africa. Retrieved on January 25, 2016 http://www.iyfnet.org/sites/default/files/library/RockFdnSouthAfricaAnnex.pdf

[23] Jolaosho A.O. (1996). Some Popular Perceptions of Poverty in Nigeria quoted In UNDP Human Development Report on Nigeria. Lagos

[24] Kayne, R. and Foster, N. (2015). What is telecommunication Retrieved January 21, 2016 from www.wisegeek.org/what-is-telecommunication

[25] Keynes, J. (1936). The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money. Harcourt: Brace.

[26] Kwakwa, P. A. (2012). Mobile Phone Usage by Micro and Small Scale Enterprises in Semi-Rural Ghana. International Review of Management and Marketing. 2(3), 156-164

[27] Malaysia's National Youth Policy (1996). Fact Sheets. Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.youthpolicy.org/factsheets/country/malaysia/

[28] McConnell, C.R. (1975). Economics. New York: U.S.A, McGraw Hill Ltd.

[29] Mofoluwawo, E.O. (2015).Youth Unemployment Saga in Nigeria: Implications for Security Challenges and Economic Development" Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal. 2(3), 107-115. DOI:10.14738/assrj.23.538.

[30] Mohammed, A. M. (2009). Liberalisation of The Nigerian Telecommunication Sector: A Critical Review. Journal of Research in National Development. 7(2), 1-10

[31] Mouhammed, A. (2010). Unemployment and the Entrepreneur. International. Journal of Economic Research. 1(1), 55-68.

[32] Mumini, K. (2013). Impact of Deregulated Telecommunication Sector on Employment Generation in Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria. In partial fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Science Economics, Postgraduate School Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto. (10211204006)

[33] National Bureau of Statistics (2009). Social Statistics in Nigeria. Abuja., The NBS Publication

[34] National Bureau of Statistics (2015). Unemployment/Underemployment Watch Q3 2015. Retrieved on January 21, 2015 from www.nigerianstat.gov.ng/pages/download/334

[35] Matthew, O.C.K. (2007). Youth Employment and Sustainable Development. Lagos Nigeria. Sam Artrade,

[36] National Youth Policy (2001). National Youth Policy and Strategic Plan of Action. Retrieved on January 21, 2016 from http://www.youth-policy.com/Policies/Nigeria%20National%20Youth%20Policy%20&%20Plan%20of%20Action.pdf

[37] National Youth Policy of Kenya (2006). Fact Sheets. Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.youthpolicy.org/factsheets/country/kenya/

[38] Oladunjoye, I.M. and Audu, J. S. (2014). Impact of Information and Communication Technology on Youth and its Vocational Opportunities in Nigeria. Journal of Good Governance and Sustainable Development in Africa. 2(1), 106-112

[39] Onyekpe, N. (2007). Managing Youth at Election: The constitution. A journal of Constitutional Development 1(1): 76 – 87.

[40] Pigou, A.C., (1933). The Theory of Unemployment. London: Macmillan.

[41] Solow, R.M. (1980). On Theories of Unemployment. The American Economic Review. 70(1),1-11.

[42] Ruhl, O. (2011). Nigeria's Youth Turning challenges into opportunity. A Convocation lecture Presented on the events of the 23rd Convocation of Federal University of Technology Owerri, Imo State, Nigeria. Retrieved on December 21st, 2015 from http://sisteresources.worldbank.org/NIGERIAEXTN/Onno-Ruhl.pdf

[43] Salami, C.G.E. (2011). Entrepreneurship and Youth Unemployment in Nigeria: The Missing Link. Global Journal of Management and Business Research. 11(5), 21-26.

[44] Schumpeter, J. (1934). Theory of Economic Development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

[45] ShoreTel (2015). The history of telecommunication. Retrieved on December 12, 2015 from www.shoretel.com/history-telecommunication

[46] South African National Youth Policy (2000). Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.youthpolicy.org/factsheets/country/southafrica/

[47] The Guardian (2013). Africa's rising population and youth unemployment challenge. Retrieved on December 12, 2015 from

[48] http://www.theguardian.com/global-development-professionals-network/2013/jul/11/africa-kenya-population-youth-unemployment

[49] United Nations Development Programme. (2013). Human Development Report 2013. Retrieved on December 20, 2015 from: http://hdr.undp.org/en/reports/global/hdr2013/.

[50] United Nation General Assembly Resolutions (2013). Retrieved on 21 December, 2015 from http://www.un.org/documents/resga.htm

[51] United Nations Habitat (2001). Retrieved on December 28, 2015 from http://www.unhabitat.org/pmss/listItemDetails.aspx?publicationID=33938

[52] Urama, N.E. and Oduh, M.O. (2012). Impact of Developments in Telecommunications on Poverty in Nigeria. Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development. 3(6), 25-34

[53] World Bank (2009). World Development Indicators online 2009. Retrieved on December 23, 2015 from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator.

[54] World Bank (2015) Ending Poverty and Sharing prosperity. Retrieved on December 23, 2015 from http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/gmr/gmr2014/GMR_2014_Full_Report.pdf

[55] World Programme of Action for Youth (2014). Definition of Youth. Retrieved on December 21, 2015 from http://undesadspd.org/Youth/WorldProgrammeofActionforYouth.aspx