

THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL AND COMMITMENT ON CAREER SUCCESS OF SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES IN KATSINA STATE, NIGERIA

BY

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Abstract

This study examined the effect of social capital and commitment on the career success of small and medium enterprises in Katsina State. The study adopts a quantitative research design, and the sample consists of 446 small and medium owners and managers in Katsina State. Out of the 446 copies of the questionnaire distributed, 401 (89.9%) were used for data analysis using SPSS. The result shows that social capital and commitment have a significant effect on the career success of small and medium enterprises. The study concludes and recommends that future studies should consider investigating small and medium enterprise owners and managers in other parts of the country and sub-sector activities, which may provide more in-depth results and other different variables, either as intervening or additional variables to their effect.

Keywords: Bonding, Bridging, Commitment, Career Success

Introduction

Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are crucial players in the global economy, contributing significantly to job creation, productivity, and income generation (Vashishth et al., 2021). These enterprises are pivotal for poverty reduction, job creation, wealth generation, and income distribution in any country, comprising over 95% of businesses worldwide and generating around 60% of private sector jobs (Mudyahoto et al., 2023; Enaifoghe & Veri, 2023). Despite their importance, SMEs face numerous challenges, particularly in Nigeria, where the business environment remains hostile despite government efforts to improve conditions (Gumel, 2017). One major obstacle for SMEs is the lack of access to resources and social capital, which hinders their success (Gao, Sung, & Zhang, 2013). This limitation in access to financial resources, coupled with inadequate information, constrains the growth and competitiveness of SMEs in Nigeria (World Bank, 2015). Additionally, some researchers attribute the failure of Nigerian businesses, particularly SMEs, to a lack of commitment and understanding of basic business management processes (Ame et al., 2023). Despite numerous studies on entrepreneurship, there remains a dearth of research on the subjective aspect of career success among individual business owners in developing economies like Nigeria (Oyedele et al., 2014; Rilwanu & Abdulkarim, 2014). Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by focusing on the subjective evaluation of career success among individual owner/managers in Katsina State, Nigeria, shedding light on their career experiences (Judge et al., 1999). The notion of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) emerged in the developmental discourse of the country in the late 1940s (Etuk et al., 2014) with the objectives of enhancing trade, fostering industrialization among developed nations (OECD, 2004), and attaining global sustainable growth and development (OECD 2015). However, a persistent and pivotal methodological inquiry in the field of entrepreneurship is the definition of a small firm (Silver et al., 2015). There is no singular answer to this query as it varies among scholars, practitioners, and policymakers. Typically, SME definitions are tailored within each nation based on their role in economic development and the programs and policies established by institutions and agencies dedicated to SME promotion. For instance, what constitutes SMEs in developed nations like the U.S.A may be akin to large-scale businesses in developing economies such as Nigeria.

Moreover, these definitions evolve over time in line with policy directions (Etuk et al., 2014). While definitions across different countries share similarities, they typically rely on criteria such as the number of employees,

turnover, size, market share, profit, and capital (O'Regan, &Ghobadian, 2004). Some definitions lean towards qualitative or quantitative aspects. However, the use of quantitative criteria has often been unclear and therefore unsatisfactory and misleading in many respects. Consequently, it is suggested that qualitative definitions, such as Harms et al. (2010), who define SMEs as "independent, owner-managed firms," offer a more suitable approach (Etuk et al., 2014). Career success stands as a cornerstone concept in the realm of career literature, influencing how individuals perceive and respond to their career trajectories (McDonald et al., 2023; Salisu, Hashim, &Galadanchi, 2019). It represents a pivotal target for individuals, organizations, and nations alike (Seema & Sujatha, 2015; Salisu, Hashim, &Galadanchi, 2019), garnering significant attention from researchers, practitioners, and policymakers (e.g., Pan & Zhou, 2015) across individual and organizational levels (Maurer & Chapman, 2013).

Research Objectives

1. To determine the effect of bonding social capital on small and medium enterprises owners/managers career success.
2. To determine the effect of bridging social capital on small and medium enterprises owners/managers' career success.
3. To determine the effect of commitment on small and medium enterprises owners/managers' career success.

Literature Review

Conceptual Review

Arthur et al. (2005) define career success as the achievement of desirable work-related outcomes over one's career trajectory. Similarly, Seibert et al. (1999) characterize it as the accumulation of positive psychological or work-related outcomes resulting from work experiences. Judge et al. (1995) describe it as the accumulation of positive outcomes derived from work experiences, while Judge et al. (1999) define it as the real or perceived achievements resulting from one's work experiences. Mirvis and Hall (1994) delineate it as the attainment of personally meaningful goals through work experiences. These definitions collectively emphasize career success as the culmination of positive and desirable outcomes achieved through one's career journey (Arthur et al., 2005). Indeed, career success can be viewed as a resource facilitating the attainment of other desired outcomes (Spurk et al., 2018; Salisu, Hashim, &Galadanchi, 2019). Career success is commonly conceptualized through two distinct dimensions (Arthur et al., 2005). Many scholars, both past and present, have recognized this dichotomy, which views career success as comprising objective (extrinsic and observable) and subjective (intrinsic and unobservable) components or domains (Liu et al., 2015). Traditional literature on career success has commonly referred to the term "objective career success" to denote the observable, quantifiable, and verifiable achievements or advancements individuals make within their occupations and organizations (Salisu, I., Hashim, N., &Galadanchi, A. (2019). Objective career success is characterized by factors that can be directly perceived and measured by others in a standardized manner (Arthur et al., 2005) Examples of typical measures of objective career success include salary increases, career progression, and job offers (Spurk et al., 2018). Essentially, it refers to the accomplishment's individuals achieve in their careers that can be objectively observed and evaluated either by themselves or by third parties (Li et al., 2014; Biemann & Braakmann, 2013). Hogan et al. (2013, p. 4) propose that objective career success can be defined "in terms of occupational prestige and financial attainment, both of which can be assessed quantitatively." Similarly, Sammarra et al. (2013) describe it as an external perspective based on tangible indicators of an individual's career situation. Since the 1950s, social scientists have recognized significant discrepancies in individuals' perceptions of their career success (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986; Pellegrin & Coates, 1957). While research on objective career success (OCS) has been extensive and has a long history in organizational behavior (Ng & Feldman, 2014b), there has been a recent surge in attention towards subjective career success (SCS) (Park, 2010). Scholars argue that an

increasing number of individuals now view their career success subjectively, in contrast to the objective perspective that was predominant in the past (Eith et al., 2011). Subjective career success is often defined as individuals' feelings and perceptions about their own career experiences (Herath, 2014). Career success can be regarded as a resource that aids individuals in achieving other outcomes (Spurk, Hirschi, & Dries, 2019). On one hand, indicators of career success, such as holding high-status positions, may influence how individuals interpret the people around them. These indicators can act as resources that affect their emotions and behaviors (Haenggli, & Hirschi, 2020). The scope of SCS is broad (Dries et al., 2008). Gattiker and Larwood (1986) argued that the construct is multidimensional, mainly comprising feelings and perceptions of job, financial, interpersonal, hierarchical, and life success. Additionally, other scholars have identified additional components of the construct (Drie et al., 2008; Dyke & Murphy, 2006). Indeed, there is considerable variation across different studies regarding the facets included in the operationalization of SCS (Ng & Feldman, 2014b). Social capital refers to the pool of actual and potential resources available to individuals or social units through a network of relationships (Schlepphorst, Koetter, Werner, Soost, & Moog, 2020). It has been argued that individuals with greater social capital have a higher likelihood of achieving desired outcomes (Chen et al., 2015). As a result, social capital has garnered considerable attention from researchers and policymakers across various academic disciplines, including sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, management, and entrepreneurship, in both developed and developing economies (Agénor & Dinh, 2015). Van Deth (2003) has even described social capital as "a minor industry in the social sciences" due to its widespread acceptance and applicability (p. 79). Although rooted in sociology and initially studied by Durkheim in 1897 in relation to social influence and suicide (Durkheim, 1951), the term "social capital" was first introduced to the academic arena by Hanifan (Ritchie & Robison, 2012). Scholars have used various terms interchangeably with social capital, such as ties/network, moral resources, intangible assets, sociability, and social energy (Woolcock, 1998). Abu Muna et al. (2023) define social capital as the trust and norms inherent in social interactions that have the potential to enhance society's effectiveness by facilitating coordinated actions.

As social capital encompasses various dimensions (Tsounis et al., 2023; Veerle et al., 2012), breaking it down into subcategories can be highly beneficial as it helps clarify how social relationships influence different outcomes such as success and satisfaction. While there is no consensus on the specific components of these dimensions (Medina et al., 2023; Salisu, Hashim, Mashi, & Aliyu, 2020), scholars generally agree that the construct is multidimensional in nature, prompting them to differentiate among its various facets and dimensions (Salisu, Hashim, & Galadanchi, 2019). Drawing from Granovetter's (1985, 1973) argument on strong and weak ties, Putnam introduced the distinction between bonding and bridging social capital (Agger et al., 2014). Although some scholars have criticized this division (Williams, 2006), the crucial point lies in understanding the different roles played by bonding and bridging, depending on individuals' or groups' ability to connect within rich social networks (Putnam, 2000). Bonding social capital encompasses horizontal norms of reciprocity, trust, and social relations based on informality, similarity, and closeness, fostering strong ties within a group, typically among close friends, business partners, families, or within a community (Tsounis et al., 2023). It involves connections among individuals sharing similar ethnicity, class, or other social characteristics, characterized by strong and regular interaction and built on mutual attraction and common interests (Reeskens & van Oorschot, 2014; Chen et al., 2009). Bonding social capital also encompasses the emotional support and resources available within these interactions (Yip et al., 2007), often involving intense feelings of sympathy, love, care, and concern (Ritchie & Robison, 2012). It is often referred to interchangeably as intra-community social capital (Shoji, Haskins, Rangel, & Sorensen, 2014), strong ties (Kivijärvi, 2014), homogeneous networks (Reeskens, & Van Oorschot, 2014), close-knit solidary ties, or localized social capital (Islam, & Alam, 2018). While bonding relationships play a crucial role in spreading behavioral norms, creating healthy norms, regulating social behavior, and providing mutual help and support (Islam, & Alam, 2018) bridging social capital tends to attract more attention from policymakers, as bonding capital often helps individuals "get by," whereas bridging capital is essential for "getting ahead" (Onyx & Leonard, 2010). Thus, there is a need to shift focus from merely "getting by" to "getting ahead" by developing, utilizing, and maintaining bridging social capital (Onyx & Leonard, 2010).

Bridging social capital refers to horizontal trust, reciprocity norms, and social connections that occur in irregular relationships. It can be likened to a bridge that connects different plots of land or countries that vary in terms of their populations, size, and resources (Ritchie & Robison, 2012). Bridging social capital emphasizes connections with diverse groups of individuals who do not share similar social identities but maintain weak ties that offer better opportunities (Unni, 2014). These weak ties link individuals from different social settings, groups, and organizations outside their immediate community based on mutual respect and reciprocity, often facilitated by organizations and social groups that provide access to external resources (Hampton, 2011). Thus, bridging social capital involves network connections that are broad and heterogeneous, such as connections among different ethnic groups (Jun & Ha, 2015). According to Putnam (2000), bridging social capital is "outward-looking and encompasses people across diverse social cleavages." It is often referred to interchangeably as extra-community social capital (Sørensen, 2014), weak ties (Kivijärvi, 2014), heterogeneous networks (Salisu, Hashim, Ismail, & Isa, 2017), or loose-knit solidary ties (Onyx & Leonard, 2010). Although there is a relationship between bonding and bridging—where bonding can sometimes bridge and bridging can bond—bridging is more crosscutting and provides critical resources that may not be available in immediate relationships (Hampton, 2011). Bridging social capital is highly valuable to individuals who possess it (Growiec&Growiec, 2014; Neves, 2013). To organizational researchers, commitment serves as a primary explanation for why some individuals choose to remain employed while others do not (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1991). Various theories have emerged to explain the factors behind individuals' commitment, highlighting it as a moral obligation, emotional attachment, and/or a rational cost-benefit analysis (Solinger et al., 2014). In an effort to encompass these theories, Meyer and Allen (1991) defined commitment as a combination of three bases: affective, normative, and continuance bases. They describe commitment as a psychological bond between individuals and their organizations that makes it highly unlikely for them to voluntarily leave the organization. Although their definition has faced conceptual and empirical criticisms (Kell & Motowidlo, 2012), their work remains one of the prominent and widely used frameworks in organizational literature (Okpu & Jaja, 2014).

Empirical Review

Initially, social capital was hailed as a potentially transformative concept capable of addressing various unresolved issues or puzzling phenomena. Consequently, research on networks has demonstrated that social capital can lead to numerous significant economic advantages (Poder, 2011, p. 365), including career success, job performance, happiness, subjective well-being, and more. Social capital often manifests as valuable professional networks, connections, and credentials (Salisu, Hashim, Ismail, & Isa, 2017), which provide individuals with opportunities to accumulate social capital and gain the diverse knowledge and experience necessary for advancing their careers (Salisu, Hashim, Ismail, & Isa, 2017). For example, numerous studies have shown that social capital influences subjective well-being (e.g., Bartolini & Sarracino, 2015), happiness (Bartolini & Sarracino, 2014), innovation (Jian & Zhou, 2015), performance (Meiseberg, 2015), economic development (Graeff & Svendsen, 2013), and entrepreneurial intention (Evald et al., 2011), among others. However, this study specifically focuses on literature linking social capital to career success. There is a widespread agreement among scholars regarding the importance of recognizing fundamental entrepreneurial traits that foster success. Understanding the factors that influence individual career success is crucial for both individuals and their organizations (Salisu, Hashim, & Galadanchi, 2019). Numerous studies have highlighted the significance of psychological factors in achieving sustained success (Hisrich et al., 2007), such as self-efficacy (Laguna, 2013), internal locus of control (Saud et al., 2014), achievement motivation (Saud et al., 2014), social skills (Baron & Markman, 2003), and risk propensity (Obschonka et al., 2011).

Commitment is also recognized as a significant factor (Przepiorka, 2015; Kollar, 2014). This concept remains a focal point for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers due to its association with critical outcomes like success (Lee et al., 2014). Undoubtedly, commitment has been shown to influence success in various ways. For example, Karavardar (2014) investigated the role of commitment in the career success of employees in the hazelnut processing industry in Giresun, Turkey, finding a significant correlation between the two constructs. Similarly, Srikanth and Israel (2012) conducted an empirical study on the relationship between career

commitment and success, revealing that commitment predicts success and career satisfaction, although they found no indirect effect of satisfaction in the relationship. Additionally, Salisu, Hashim, & Galadanchi, 2019) and Poon (2004) observed a significant positive relationship between commitment and both subjective (career satisfaction) and objective (salary) facets of success. Ballout's study surveyed bank employees in Lebanon, while Poon's research involved white-collar workers from various organizations in Malaysia who were also part-time graduate students. Interestingly, the KUT scale used in this study was found to positively predict satisfaction (Klein et al., 2014). Conversely, other studies have found satisfaction to predict commitment (Aküzüm & Tan, 2014), indicating a reciprocal relationship between the two constructs. The general notion is that both committed and satisfied individuals strive for success.

Theoretical Review

The Conservation of Resource (COR) Theory, introduced by Hobfoll in 1989 and further developed by Hobfoll and Shirom in 1993, has dominated the landscape of organizational behavior theories for more than two decades, emerging as one of the most frequently cited and utilized theories in the field (Halbesleben et al., 2014). It has seen widespread application across different countries and disciplines, serving as a predictive tool for human behavior and motivation. At its core, COR posits that individuals are driven to preserve, protect, and enhance their valuable resources, with the threat of resource loss being a significant concern (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011). Resources, as defined within this theory, encompass a broad spectrum of entities, ranging from tangible materials to intangible assets, which individuals leverage for problem-solving and coping (Delgado, 2014; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The theory highlights the importance of resources in facilitating goal attainment and personal development, with scholars exploring its implications across various domains, including education and career success (Ngo et al., 2014; Feldman et al., 2015). Similarly, Social Capital Theory (SCT) has garnered attention, particularly in the realm of entrepreneurship, where the significance of social relationships is increasingly recognized (Gedajlovic et al., 2013). Scholars argue that SCT, with its ability to inform and be informed by entrepreneurial inquiries, holds promise as an integrative framework for studying social dynamics and outcomes across different levels and contexts (Stam et al., 2014). SCT suggests that well-connected individuals are more likely to achieve success, tapping into their social networks for resources and information (Tan et al., 2014). Despite its popularity, SCT faces skepticism regarding the differentiation of its elements and sources, yet it remains instrumental in theorizing the relationships between individuals and groups, especially in terms of achieving collective outcomes (Alfred, 2009; Putnam, 2000). While challenges persist in fully understanding and utilizing SCT, it continues to offer valuable insights into the nature of social relationships and their impact on various outcomes, including career success (Seibert et al., 2001). To further explore these relationships, the current study aims to examine the impact of these variables on entrepreneurial career success in Katsina State, Nigeria.

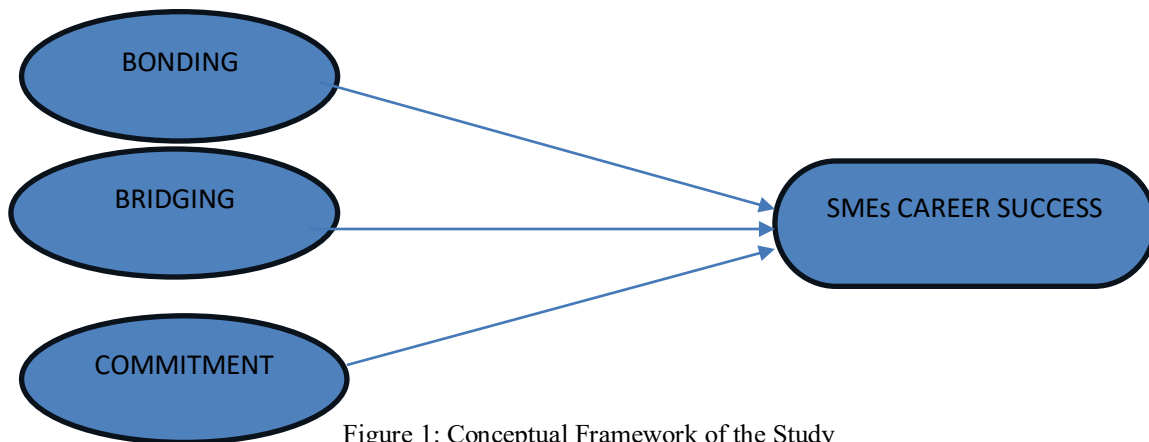


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Study

Methodology

This research employs a quantitative approach and utilizes a descriptive, cross-sectional survey design. The focus of the study is on the entire population of owner/managers of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) operating in Katsina, Nigeria. The total number of enterprises in Katsina was sourced from the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria and the 2017 survey report by the National Bureau of Statistics, which was released in 2018. According to these sources, a total of 1,367 SMEs were identified in Katsina State. Data for this study were collected exclusively from SME owners/managers located in Katsina State, Nigeria. Utilizing the sampling frame obtained from SMEDAN, the total sample size for this study was determined to be 297 using Krejcie and Morgan's table. As recommended in the literature due to prevalent non-response or low response rates in Nigeria, an additional 50% was added, resulting in a final sample size of 446 (Nakpodia et al., 2007; Salkind, 2012). Probability sampling techniques, specifically cluster sampling, were employed considering the nature of the populations. Data collection was conducted using questionnaires, and all data were gathered simultaneously (Sekaran, 2016).

Results

Demographic Statistics of the Respondents

Table 1 presents demographic statistics of the surveyed population, offering insights into age distribution, business characteristics, and financial performance. A significant portion of respondents falls within the 18-30 age range, particularly concentrated in the 18-25 category. Concerning the size of businesses, a notable proportion employs 10 to 49 individuals, and most enterprises have been operational for a decade or less. Business legal structures vary, with sole proprietorships and private limited liability companies being predominant. Additionally, a majority of respondents have attained tertiary education qualifications. In terms of industry, a substantial number of businesses operate within the wholesale/retail trade sector. Financially, the survey reveals diverse net profits after tax revenue, with a considerable segment reporting annual earnings exceeding ₦1,500,000. This comprehensive overview provides valuable insights into the demographic makeup, business profiles, and financial dynamics of the surveyed entities.

**Table 1:
Demographic Statistics**

		Frequency	Percent
Age group	18-25	254	63.3
	26-30	147	36.7
	Total	401	100.0
Number of employees	10 to 49	324	80.8
	50 – 199	77	19.2
	Total	401	100.0
Years in the current business	5 years or below	98	24.4
	6 – 10 years	108	26.9
	11 - 15 years	126	31.4

	16 years or above	69	17.2
	Total	401	100.0
Year of establishment	1-5 years	83	20.7
	6-10 years	97	24.2
	11-15 years	86	21.4
	16-20 years	79	19.7
	More than 20 years	56	14.0
	Total	401	100.0
Business ownership by legal status	Sole Proprietorship	164	40.9
	Partnership	95	23.7
	Joint Venture	51	12.7
	Private Limited Liability Company	65	16.2
	Faith-Based Organization	4	1.0
	Others	22	5.5
	Total	401	100.0
Level of literacy	Primary School	9	2.2
	Secondary School	110	27.4
	Tertiary institution	282	70.3
	Total	401	100.0
Industry	Manufacturing	150	37.4
	wholesale/retail trade	251	62.6
	Total	401	100.0

Net profit after tax revenue	Less than #500,000 per annum	92	22.9
	#500,000- 1,000,000 Per annum	75	18.7
	₦1,000,000 – ₦1,500,000 per annum	54	13.5
	More than #1,500,000 Per annum	180	44.9
Total		401	100.0

Descriptive Statistics of Variables

All variables in this study were assessed using a five-point Likert scale, and descriptive statistics were computed for analysis. Table 2 presents the mean and standard deviation (SD) for Commitment, Bridging, Bonding, and Career Success variables. The mean score for Commitment is 3.4607, reflecting the typical level of commitment within the sample. Its standard deviation of 0.72899 indicates the spread of data points around this mean, with lower values suggesting closer proximity to the mean. Bridging, on average, scored 2.5441, and its standard deviation of 0.89948 signifies the variability of data points. Bonding, with a mean score of 3.7614, denotes the average level of bonding observed. Its standard deviation of 0.84268 illustrates the spread of data around the mean. Career Success, with a mean score of 2.8387, represents the average level of career success within the sample. Its standard deviation of 1.03658 indicates the degree of variability in the data.

*Table 2.
Descriptive Statistics*

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Commitment	401	1.00	5.00	3.4607	0.72899
Bridging	401	1.00	5.00	2.5441	0.89948
Bonding	401	2.00	5.00	3.7614	0.84268
Career Success	401	1.00	5.00	2.8387	1.03658

Correlations

Table 3 presents Pearson correlation coefficients among Career Success, Commitment, Bridging, and Bonding variables. These coefficients quantify the strength and direction of linear relationships between pairs of variables, ranging from -1 to 1. The correlation between Career Success and Commitment is 0.1795, indicating a weak positive

relationship. This suggests that as Career Success increases, Commitment tends to rise, although the correlation is not notably strong. The correlation between Career Success and Bridging is 0.3191, indicating a moderate positive relationship. As Career Success increases, Bridging tends to increase as well, with a stronger correlation compared to Commitment. Conversely, the correlation between Career Success and Bonding is -0.298, representing a moderate negative relationship. As Career Success increases, Bonding tends to decrease, again showing a stronger correlation than with Commitment. The correlation between Commitment and Bridging is 0.2649, indicating a moderate positive relationship, where an increase in Commitment is associated with an increase in Bridging. However, the correlation between Commitment and Bonding is 0.074, signifying a very weak positive relationship, which is not significant. Finally, the correlation between Bridging and Bonding is -0.148, indicating a weak negative relationship, where an increase in Bridging is associated with a decrease in Bonding, though the relationship is not particularly strong.

**Table 3
Correlations**

Pearson Correlation	Career Success	Commitment	Bridging	Bonding
Variable				
Career Success	1			
Commitment	0.1795***	1		
Bridging	0.3191***	-0.298**	1	
Bonding	0.2649***	0.074	-0.148***	1

Regression

Table 4 displays the results of an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for a regression model. The dependent variable, Career Success, is analyzed through Model 1. Sum of Squares, totaling 119.710, represents the squared differences between predicted values and the mean of Career Success. The Degrees of Freedom (df) are 3, indicating the number of predictors in the regression model: the constant (intercept), Bonding, Commitment, and Bridging. Mean Square, calculated as 39.903, represents the variance explained by the predictors. The F-statistic, at 51.087, serves as a test statistic determining the overall statistical significance of the model. The high F-statistic suggests that the regression model is indeed statistically significant. The associated p-value is close to zero ($p < 0.05$), confirming the statistical significance of the model. Thus, based on the F-statistic and its low p-value, the regression model comprising the predictors (Constant, Bonding, Commitment, and Bridging) is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

**Table 4:
ANOVA^a**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	119.710	3	39.903	51.087	.000 ^b
	Residual	310.092	397	0.781		

Total 429.80 400
2

a. Dependent Variable: Career Success

b. Predictors: (Constant), Bonding, Commitment, Bridging

Table 5 presents the outcomes of a multiple linear regression analysis with Career Success as the dependent variable and Commitment, Bridging, and Bonding as independent variables. The coefficient for Commitment is 0.414, with a standard error of 0.064, suggesting that a one-unit increase in Commitment is associated with a 0.414-unit rise in Career Success. The standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.291 indicates a positive relationship between Commitment and Career Success, signifying that higher Commitment correlates positively with Career Success. Commitment emerges as a statistically significant predictor of Career Success, with a p-value (Sig.) of 0.000.

Similarly, Bridging yields a coefficient of 0.521 and a standard error of 0.052, indicating that a one-unit increase in Bridging leads to a 0.521-unit increase in Career Success. The standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.452 reinforces the positive relationship between Bridging and Career Success. Bridging is also a statistically significant predictor of Career Success, with a p-value (Sig.) of 0.000. Additionally, Bonding exhibits a coefficient of 0.381 and a standard error of 0.053, signifying that a one-unit increase in Bonding corresponds to a 0.381-unit increase in Career Success. The standardized coefficient (Beta) of 0.310 confirms the positive relationship between Bonding and Career Success. Like Commitment and Bridging, Bonding is a statistically significant predictor of Career Success, with a p-value (Sig.) of 0.000. Overall, the results suggest that all three independent variables (Commitment, Bridging, and Bonding) significantly predict Career Success, with p-values of 0.000 for each variable. Bridging demonstrates the strongest positive influence on Career Success, with a Beta value of 0.452, followed by Bonding (0.310), and Commitment (0.291). This indicates that while all three variables positively impact Career Success, Bridging has the most substantial effect, followed by Bonding and Commitment, respectively.

**Table 5:
Coefficients**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	-1.353	0.359		-3.772	0.000	-2.058	-0.648
	Commitment	0.414	0.064	0.291	6.517	0.000***	0.289	0.539
	Bridging	0.521	0.052	0.452	10.025	0.000***	0.418	0.623
	Bonding	0.381	0.053	0.310	7.189	0.000***	0.277	0.486

*a. Dependent Variable: Career Success, ***=sig 0.001*

Discussion of Findings

The primary aim of this study is to investigate the correlation between bonding and bridging social capital and Commitment concerning the career success of small and medium enterprise (SME) owners/managers in Katsina State. Consequently, three hypotheses were formulated to represent the positive relationship between bonding, bridging, and commitment on the career success of SME owners/managers. Bonding social capital, a dimension illustrating the extent to which the career success of SME owners/managers is influenced, is the initial focus. The study reveals a favorable association between Bonding and Career Success, although Bonding exerts a slightly weaker positive impact compared to Bridging. Nonetheless, Bonding emerges as a statistically significant predictor of Career Success. Similarly, the study explores Bridging Social Capital's impact on the Career Success of SME Owners/Managers, indicating a positive relationship between Bridging and Career Success. Bridging is identified as a statistically significant predictor of Career Success, exerting the most potent positive influence among the variables examined. Additionally, the investigation delves into the positive relationship between Commitment and the Career Success of SME Owners/Managers in Katsina State, leading to the hypothesis that commitment positively correlates with SME owners/managers' career success. The findings reveal a positive correlation, suggesting that higher Commitment correlates positively with Career Success, although Commitment demonstrates the least impact among the independent variables. Nonetheless, Commitment is deemed a statistically significant predictor of Career Success.

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have garnered recognition as significant contributors to employment, economic growth, and poverty alleviation. It's crucial for owners/managers, government officials, and policymakers to acknowledge that their decisions concerning SMEs directly impact the activities of these enterprises. The literature review reveals that SMEs often face challenges due to their lack of financial capability and other resources, such as Social Capital, which is a primary cause of underperformance. Moreover, career success holds profound significance for individuals engaged in a career, extending beyond traditional empirical measurements. The absence of access to social capital may be a contributing factor to the failure of many SMEs' owners/managers in their endeavors toward career success. This underscores the imperative for owners/managers to enhance coordination and employ social capital, particularly bridging, to attain career success. Furthermore, considering the obstacles in obtaining finance and social capital, financial institutions should incentivize SME owners/managers by facilitating their access to both financial and social capital resources. In conclusion, this study underscores the critical role of Social Capital and Commitment as resources that can lead to owners/managers' career success. Therefore, they should be regarded as complementary resources directly enhancing enterprise outcomes and consequently influencing career success.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This exploratory study has provided fresh insights into the concept of career success and the role of bonding and bridging social capital (), as well as commitment, within the entrepreneurial context. Overall, the analysis results indicate positive direct relationships among these variables. However, it's important to note that this research can only offer limited insights beyond the specific context in which the data were collected. While it stands as a rare contribution to understanding the determinants of career success in an entrepreneurial setting, the findings are specific to the sample from Katsina State, Nigeria. Therefore, there's a clear need for further studies in this field worldwide, considering the diverse national cultures that may shape entrepreneurial career development differently. Given that entrepreneurship is deeply influenced by cultural factors, future research should delve deeper into defining and understanding career success across various cultures. The relevance of investigating the career success of entrepreneurs remains high, and additional studies can expand upon the findings presented in this study, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the topic.

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