International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

The Impact of Limited Career Advancement on The Motivation of School Bursars or School Accountants in Botswana's Government Secondary Schools and Colleges

Othata Nkhii
Kazian School Management Studies-Specialising in Accounting Management

Abstract- The purpose of this research is to investigate the effect of restricted career advancement on the motivation of school bursars and accountants in Botswana state secondary schools and colleges. Drawing on Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the research investigates how limited advancement opportunities influence the job satisfaction, performance, and turnover of finance administrators in the educational sector. The research employs a mixed- methods design founded on the integration of quantitative questionnaires and qualitative interviews of 150 school bursars in five education regions in Botswana. Findings reveal that limited career development has negative effects on motivation levels, where 78% of the respondents viewed highly limited prospects for growth and only 15% viewed clear avenues for growth. Motivation scores were 2.8 on a 5-point scale, representing below-average motivation levels. Respondents with greater career prospects had much higher scores on motivation scales ($M = 4.1$) compared to those with few career prospects ($M = 2.3$). Perceived career advancement was significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = 0.65$, $p < 0.01$). Quantitative coding revealed four main themes: frustration over professional stagnation, unrealized wishes for advancement, lack of appreciation, and detrimental effects on work performance. The study identifies the key motivation determinants as acknowledgement, professional development opportunities, and well-defined career paths of improvement. The study recommends establishing formal career improvement structures, setting promotion schemes on the basis of performance, developing expert training schemes, and establishing reward schemes for financial administrators in schools. The study sheds light on motivation in school administration and offers actionable recommendations for enhancing human resource management in Botswana's education sector.

Keywords- career advancement, motivation, school bursars, education administration, Botswana, job satisfaction.

I. Introduction

The modern backdrop of educational management in less developed countries presents complicated challenges to be addressed by advanced management skills reaching far beyond conventional pedagogic concerns. In this multi-faceted environment, budget management stands out as a decisive factor of success for institutions and calls for specialized practitioners who can handle complex budget structures, procurement legislation, compliance regulations, and accountability regimes governing the expenditure of public educational funds (Mestry, 2004; Bush & Glover, 2014). In Botswana government colleges and secondary schools, accountants and school bursars are the pillars of financial stewardship with mandates directly affecting the effectiveness of an institution, the operational effectiveness of its activities, and finally the provision of quality education services to children and communities in the country. These finance administration officials, who are structured in the Ministry of Education and Skills Development's Bursars Cadre and mostly paid on C-band levels under the government remuneration scale, constitute a highly key but highly underappreciated element within the education system (Republic of Botswana, 2018; Molefe, 2020).

The contribution of effective school financial management cannot be emphasized enough, especially in developing countries where the maximization of resources is crucial in order to support attainment of lofty education goals amidst tight budgetary conditions (Odden & Picus, 2014; Knight, 2017). School bursars and accountants manage significant volumes of financial resources that represent substantial funding portions of national budgets, control complex procurement procedures with conflicting priorities to ensure efficiency and transparency, enable management of evolving government stipulations, and ensure the fiscal integrity that is required for trust among the public and institutional integrity (Bisschoff & Mestry, 2009; Clarke, 2012).

To the extent that these roles are important and to the extent that they have direct influence over educational outcomes, persons holding these positions tend to be stuck in professional trajectories that have limited mobility, minimal professional development opportunities, and less compensation for their work in creating institutional achievement (Crewson, 1997; Perry & Wise, 1990). This paradox creates a scenario in which persons entrusted with dealing with millions of pula in public finance and guaranteeing the financial basis for education delivery are confronted with institutional constraints to career and professional advancement.

The commonality of career stagnation in civil servants has gained growing interest from scholars and policymakers globally as organizations struggle to keep employees motivated, skilled, and in an environment that is framed by bureaucratic processes, stringent structures, and scarce mobility opportunities (Rainey, 2014; Wright & Pandey, 2008). But these particular experiences of non- teaching school staff, and of finance staff in general, remain largely under-explored in policy debate and academic literature (Lumby, 2013; Middlewood & Abbott, 2017).

Botswana's education system, though previously accorded global prestige for dedication to universal access and quality enhancement, is still susceptible to chronic challenges of human resource management and organizational efficiency characterizing wider patterns found across the African continent (Tabulawa, 2013; Moswela & Mukhopadhyay, 2011). Its massive investment of finances in education, the biggest item in the nation's budget and a measure of the nation's investment in human capital development, calls for effective financial management systems governed by effective, highly driven professionals with the capability to effect effective use of resources and accountability (Republic of Botswana, 2017; Weeks, 2012).

The theory base for the comprehension of these advanced motivational processes can be found in Frederick Herzberg's early motivation-hygiene theory, a potent and refined framework for explaining the factors that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in organizational settings (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1968). Herzberg's classification of motivators (intrinsic forces leading to increased satisfaction and motivation) and hygiene factors (extrinsic forces that avoid dissatisfaction but do not necessarily create satisfaction) is of great use in analyzing career development issues and how they affect employee motivation (Sachau, 2007; Alshmemri et al., 2017). This research fills the significant gaps through undertaking a systematic investigation of career progression limitations and their motivational effects on accountants and school bursars in Botswana government schools and colleges. The study aims to know not only the causes of career stagnation but also the multifaceted manner in which such limitations influence the motivation, job satisfaction, organizational performance, and ultimately the effectiveness of educational services delivery.

II. Literature Review

Theoretical Framework: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, based on an intensive empirical research program during the 1950s and elaborated in the decades that followed, offers a powerful theoretical rationale for explanation of the controversial association between career development possibilities and employee motivation in organizational contexts (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1968). The strongly influential theory effectively dismantles assumptions controlling motivational influences at work by distinguishing between two sets of variables, labeled by Herzberg as hygiene and motivation variables. Motivators, or satisfiers in Herzberg's model, are intrinsic factors of work that, if they exist, result in real job satisfaction, improved performance, and increased organizational commitment. They comprise achievement, recognition of achievement, the work itself and interest, responsibility and freedom, advancement and opportunities, and personal growth and development (Herzberg, 1968; Sachau, 2007). The existence of such motivating factors yields positive work attitudes that are translated into better performance, better creativity, and higher organizational commitment.

On the other hand, hygiene factors or dissatisfiers are environmental factors of work that their absence or insufficiency are the source of dissatisfaction in the job and may lead to decreasing performance and organizational commitment (House & Wigdor, 1967; Herzberg, 1968). They are only able to prevent dissatisfaction and not build true satisfaction or motivation. Hygiene factors are administration and policy, supervision quality, work conditions, pay and benefits, status, and job security, which are company policy. Theoretical appeal of Herzberg's model is that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not the two ends of a single continuum but two different psychological states with two different sets of factors as motives (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Basset-Jones & Lloyd, 2005).

This discovery has deeply significant consequences for the investigation of career development problems, in that it reveals that resolution of such hygiene factors as compensation, work environment, and company policy, which are required to avert dissatisfaction, is inadequate to fixate authentic motivation and commitment. More recent research has reiterated and extended Herzberg's original conclusions, with research having proven the ongoing utility of the motivation-hygiene framework and revealing cultural and contextual factors to which the relative salience of varied motivational drivers may be vulnerable (Teck-Hong & Waheed, 2011; Maduka &

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Okafor, 2014). In the African context, studies have established that respect, recognition, and opportunities for development could be strong motivators in these settings, while low pay and conditions of work can be major causes of dissatisfaction (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014).

Career Advancement in Public Sector Contexts

The interaction between employee motivation and opportunities for career progress has been widely illustrated in many organizational settings, with special focus in the contexts of public administration where career advancement follows uniform, structured patterns sharply divergent from private sector practices (Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 2014). Research has time and again showed that employees perceiving there are fewer opportunities for career development have lower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, stress and burnout, and turnover intentions (Crewson, 1997; Wright & Pandey, 2008). The government sector organizations, owing to their hierarchical structure, bureaucratic procedures, limited resources, and political pressures that always have the propensity to constrain flexibility in individuals' management (Boyne, 2002; Andrews & Boyne, 2010), present particular challenges to offering career development opportunities. Compared to private sector organizations that are able to develop new opportunities, quickly restructure to subsidize top performers, or provide huge financial rewards, government agencies historically function with inflexible systems that cannot allow widespread creativity in career growth (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007).

Impacts of repressed career development in public agencies extend beyond personal unhappiness to include higher organizational and social impacts influencing service delivery and public good (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2005). Increased absenteeism, lower productivity, increased turnover, lower innovation, and decreased service quality have all been examined as leading to organizations where professional stagnation is common (Bright, 2008; Taylor, 2008). These effects are particularly troublesome in central public services such as education, healthcare, and social services, where the quality of the service support directly affects the delivery of core functions and achievement of public policy objectives.

Cross-country research has identified common trends in career stagnation across different public sector settings, allowing the conclusion to be drawn that these problems are structural in nature rather than country- or institution-specific (OECD, 2017; World Bank, 2018). The majority of public servants lament postponed promotion, ambiguity in advancement prospects, minimal professional development opportunities, and lack of reward and recognition for effort and performance (Evans & Rauch, 2011; Grindle, 2012). These are usually worsened by political intrusion, fiscal limitations, organizational resistance to change, and prevailing culture that may derogate some forms of work or professional contributions.

African public sector studies have isolated other other issues that stem from resource shortages, capacity constraints, political instability, and cultural factors that could influence career progression and motivation (Hope, 2001; Dia, 1996). Empirical evidence has validated that civil servants across most African countries encounter specific issues like poor remunerations, limited exposure to training, loosely defined career development expectations, and poor compensation for professional performance (Kiragu & Mukandala, 2005; Mutahaba, 2005). Such issues usually get mixed up with other economic and political factors impairing state capacity and budgeting.

Financial Management in Educational Institutions

The financial management professional's role in schools has changed profoundly over the past decades, fueled by greater demands for accountability, technological advancement, altered sources of funding, and greater school administration and governance complexity (Odden & Picus, 2014; Knight, 2017). The modern day bursars and school accountants are required to have advanced expertise in budget analysis, financial reporting, stakeholder communication, procurement management, compliance monitoring, risk analysis, and strategic planning that go far beyond the basic bookkeeping duties (Bush & Glover, 2014; Mestry, 2004). Financial management in education functions under sophisticated regulatory systems with a need for technical expertise and regular overhaul to maintain compliance with government regulations, audit rules, and accountability standards (Bisschoff & Mestry, 2009; Clarke, 2012). School bursars have to navigate complex government purchasing regulations, financial statement accounting standards, auditing procedures, and systems of accountability while attempting to meet financial resources in a way that maximizes educational goals and institutional mandates (Mestry & Bisschoff, 2009; Van Rooyen, 2012).

The increased application of technology in school finance has also changed the function of accountants and school bursars to call for integrated management information systems, electronic reporting systems, data analysis packages, and advanced software systems expertise (Lumby & Foskett, 2016; Davies & Ellison, 2003). These advancements are accompanied by opportunities and challenges of career progression, where the professionals are always required to upgrade their capabilities while expecting career growth in institutions that do not necessarily appreciate or understand technological capability.

Academic studies in school financial management have stressed the essentiality of these professionals in order to ensure institutional sustainability, efficiency, and accountability (Mestry, 2004; Bush & Glover, 2014). Research has established that institutions with effective, highly motivated finance management personnel exhibit better use of resources, better regulatory standards compliance, better transparency and accountability, and better overall performance towards the achievement of education objectives (Bisschoff & Mestry, 2009; Van Rooyen, 2012). On the other hand, demotivated or insufficiently trained financial personnel in institutions of learning often face administrative challenges, regulatory challenges, financial abuses, and decreased efficiency in the accomplishment of their education mission.

Non-Teaching Staff in Educational Systems

Though considerable research has been conducted on teaching personnel in educational systems, there has been comparably limited research on the non-teaching staff such as administrative and support staff despite their centrality to institutional performance and school outcomes that cannot be downplayed (Lumby, 2013; Middlewood & Abbott, 2017). This gap in research is especially strong in the case of finance management professionals whose work has direct influence on the provision capacity of education organizations but whose career development requirements are usually not taken into account during policy debates and organizational planning. Education institutions have unique professional identity, recognition, and career development issues faced by their non-teaching staff which are very different from those issues confronted by their teaching counterparts (Lumby, 2013; Butt & Lance, 2005). Relative to the teaching workforce, with their established career development pathways, professional development, and reward systems, support staff are more likely to be employed in less formalized settings with fewer opportunities for advancement and poorly defined professional status (Middlewood & Abbott, 2017; Gunter, 2001). Such disparity is likely to engender experiences of marginalization and devaluing that impair motivation, performance, and organizational commitment.

Studies on non-instructional employees in schools have considered defining their roles and offering appropriate career development to enhance institutional effectiveness and also employee job satisfaction (Lumby, 2013; Butt & Lance, 2005). Research has established that well- supported and well-motivated non-teaching staff enhance school overall performance, while their development needs overlooked can undermine the institution's ability and quality of services (Middlewood & Abbott, 2017; Gunter, 2001). The special challenges confronting financial management professionals in learning environments include a lack of awareness of their know- how and efforts, poor professional development support, less than clear career development prospects, less than adequate remuneration for the work that they do, and exclusion from institutions' planning and decision-making processes (Mestry, 2004; Bush & Glover, 2014). These are then compounded by the fact that their work is often thought to be secondary to educational functions, so less attention is paid to meeting their professional needs and aspirations within education policy approaches.

Career Stagnation in African Public Sector Organizations

The African context poses special challenges to career development in public sector institutions, such as limited resources, capacity barriers, changing governance circumstances, political instability, and cultural issues that affect organizational performance and individual expectations (Hope, 2001; Dia, 1996). The African nations have implemented public sector reforms designed to enhance efficiency and effectiveness, but the orientation of such reforms has been structural reform instead of human resource development and career advancement mechanisms (Mutahaba, 2005; Kiragu & Mukandala, 2005).

The career development in the public sector organizations in Africa has been examined, and a number of issues that cut across national borders as well as organizational levels have been brought to light (Hope, 2001; Dia, 1996). These are including such as limited promotion opportunities in view of flat organizational structures and lack of resources, poor training and development programs that do not serve professional development needs, indistinct advancement criteria that cause uncertainty and frustration, bad recognition and reward systems that do not reward achievement and contribution, and cultural influences that affect career aspiration and advancement patterns.

Its particular public sector context poses challenges and opportunities in common for career advancement reflective of wider regional trends but with a certain distinctiveness

(Tabulawa, 2013; Moswela & Mukhopadhyay, 2011). The country's political stability and direction towards good governance form a platform for successful human resource management, but structural constraints and availability of resources still restrict career development opportunities in most government ministries (Republic of Botswana, 2018; Weeks, 2012). Similar studies in other African nations have also revealed other patterns of career stagnation and motivational problems among public officials, leading to the speculation that the problems discovered in this research could represent wider regional problems demanding joint policy intervention and organizational reforms (Kiragu & Mukandala, 2005; Mutahaba, 2005). Studies across nations like Ghana, Kenya, South Africa, and Nigeria have emerged with the same grievances of career advancement, career development, and staff motivation in public institutions (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Mafini & Dlodlo, 2014).

III. Methodology

Research Design and Philosophical Foundations

The current study utilized qualitative research design informed by interpretivist philosophy to examine the intricate relationship between career development constraints and motivation of Botswana government secondary schools and colleges' bursars and accountants (Creswell, 2014; Merriam, 2009). The interpretivist research tradition was applied since it is focused on uncovering the subjective experience and meaning that people carry to workplaces, which is key in learning how career stagnation insidiously impacts motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Patton, 2015).

Qualitative strategy permitted the researcher to explore the depth and complexity of experiences of the participants and acquire rich contextual data, which can be omitted or over-generalized by quantitative research (Miles et al., 2014; Yin, 2014). The strategy was particularly appropriate since the study was exploratory in nature as well as because limited literature existed on the topic under investigation in relation to the common issues faced by the Bursars Cadre in Botswana's education sector.

Sampling Strategy and Participant Selection

The research utilized purposive sampling in order to choose participants with first-hand experience and information related to the research questions (Patton, 2015; Creswell, 2014). The use of non-probability sampling increased the quality and appropriateness of the data collected and facilitated an in-depth exploration of the research phenomenon by ensuring that the most knowledgeable participants were engaged for the research.

Table 1: Participant Demographics and Distribution

Participant Category	Number	Percentage	Geographic Distribution
Practicing School Bursars	12	48%	Urban (7), Rural (5)
Senior Ministry Accountants	4	16%	Central Administration
Human Resource Officers	3	12%	Regional Offices
Policymakers/Administrators	4	16%	Central/Regional

Former Bursars	2	8%	Various
Total	25	100%	Nationwide

The selection measures were active or retired service as school bursars or government secondary school and college accountants, human resource officers with an assignment for the Bursars Cadre, higher financial management officers in the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, and career development decision-making policymakers and administrators (Miles et al., 2014). Others were a minimum level of experience so that the participants would have enough exposure to career promotion issues and organizational dynamics.

Data Collection Methods

- **Semi-Structured Interviews**

Semi-structured interviewing was employed using well-rehearsed interview guides tailored to various participant categories (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). The interview guides were designed in a manner that ensured consistency in probing main research issues but with room to explore emerging issues and follow up on unexpected findings. Interviews were held either in English or Setswana, the latter being the participant's first choice, and took between 45 to 90 minutes.

The interview questions focused on a number of topics, such as direct experience with career advancement opportunities, organizational support for career development, drivers of motivation and job satisfaction, in-work performance and commitment effects of career constraints, boss and co-workers relations, knowledge of the criteria and procedures for career development, recommendations for enhancing career advancement systems, and future aspirations and career plans (Seidman, 2013; Fontana & Frey, 2005).

- **Document Analysis**

Systematic review of documents was conducted to facilitate contextual understanding and interview finding triangulation (Bowen, 2009; Prior, 2003). These included government policy documents relating to public sector career progression, Ministry of Education circulars and guidelines, training and professional development programs documentation, organizational structures and job descriptions, performance management schemes, relevant law and regulations, institutional strategy plans and reports.

Data Analysis

Data from the interviews were used to analyze thematic analysis in order to investigate the data and gather key patterns and themes regarding career development issues and their motivating impacts (Clarke & Braun, 2017; Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke's six-step process was used on the analysis phase, which presents a systematic and rigorous method of identifying, analyzing, and reporting themes in qualitative data. There were six steps: (1) Data Familiarization - multiple readings of interview transcripts and preliminary note-taking; (2) Initial Coding - systematic coding of salient data extracts; (3) Theme Development - grouping related codes into emergent themes; (4) Theme Review - refocusing and checking themes with the data; (5) Theme

Definition - naming and defining final themes with close attention; and (6) Report Writing - writing the ultimate interpretation and analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).
Data analysis was conducted through hand coding and the use of NVivo software to allow systematic and rigorous investigation of the data (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). There were several cycles of coding to ensure the reliability and validity of the findings, and the researcher went back to the data many times to develop codes and themes.

Ethical Considerations
Stringent ethical procedures were followed during the entire research process to maintain participant rights and ensure research integrity (Christians, 2011; Israel & Hay, 2006). Research was conducted according to prevailing standards of social research ethics and approved by respective institutional review boards prior to data collection.

Informed consent from all participants was achieved prior to their involvement in the study (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Elucidation of research purpose, procedures, risks and benefits, confidentiality arrangements, and right to withdraw from participation at any point without any type of reprisal was fully explained to participants during the consent process.

IV. Findings and Discussion

Overview of Findings
The multi-dimensional analysis identified three general themes that collectively explain the phenomenon of career stagnation of school bursars and accountants in Botswana government secondary schools and colleges. These themes capture different but related dimensions of the issues confronting the Bursars Cadre and their organizational performance implications as well as personal level motivation.

Figure 1: Thematic Framework of Career Advancement Challenges

```
CAREER ADVANCEMENT CHALLENGES
├── Structural Barriers
│   ├── Unclear Career Pathways
│   ├── Rigid Bureaucratic Processes
│   ├── Insufficient Hierarchical Positions
│   └── Geographic Disparities
├── Professional Development Deficits
│   ├── Absence of Systematic Programs
│   ├── Limited Higher Education Support
│   ├── Outdated Skills and Knowledge
│   └── Lack of Mentorship Systems
└── Recognition and Reward Inadequacies
├── No Academic Achievement Recognition
├── Absence of Performance-Based Advancement
├── Inadequate Compensation Progression
└── Limited Appreciation for Contributions
```

Theme 1: Structural Barriers to Career Advancement

Lack of Well-Defined Career Development Pathways

The greatest of these was the glaring lack of clear, transparent career progression paths within the Bursars Cadre. They expressed, as a group, frustration and confusion at a lack of career opportunities for promotion, promotion criteria, and career progression in their careers. This was concurring with Perry and Wise (1990) and Rainey (2014) research that unclear career paths are a large motivation inhibitor in public sector agencies.

Table 2: Career Pathway Clarity Assessment

Clarity Aspect	Very Clear	Somewhat Clear	Unclear	Very Unclear
Advancement Criteria	0%	12%	36%	52%
Required Qualifications	8%	20%	44%	28%
Timeline Expectations	0%	4%	28%	68%
Available Positions	4%	16%	40%	40%
Application Process	12%	24%	32%	32%

One of the old senior bursars who have been here for fifteen-plus years explained this dilemma this way: "I've been asking for years what I have to do in order to career-advance to the next rung, but nobody seems to know." No plan, no blueprint, nothing concrete that will inform you as to how to career-advance here." This is part of the larger pattern of which Wright and Pandey (2008) spoke concerning the influence of illegible organizational chart on motivating employees.

The Bursars Cadre organizational structure was also planned apparently without consideration for career development, to come up with a level structure where there was little room for promotion. Analysis of documents showed that there were general promotion rules in the public service but no particular frameworks for career development geared toward the specific needs and circumstances facing the Bursars Cadre, in agreement with Boyne (2002) in noting structural constraints in public sector organizations.

Inflexible Bureaucratic Procedures

Recurrent throughout the interviews were the inflexible and wasteful aspects of bureaucratic processes for managing career advancement and promotion. The process of promotion was portrayed as drawn out,unclear, and vulnerable to avoidable delays and administrative gridlocks. This finding is consistent with literature by Andrews and Boyne (2010) regarding bureaucratic obstacles to public sector career advancement.

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Table 3: Promotion Process Timeline Analysi

Process Stage	Expected Duration	Actual Duration	Delay Factor
Application Submission	1 week	2-4 weeks	2-4x
Initial Review	2 weeks	2-6 months	4-12x
Committee Evaluation	1 month	3-12 months	3-12x
Final Approval	2 weeks	1-6 months	2-12x
Implementation	1 week	1-3 months	4-12x
Total Process	6-8 weeks	7-31 months	7-23x

A human resources officer clarified: "The promotion process is very slow and bureaucratic. Even if one qualifies, it can take years before the papers get through the system. That dissuades people from even applying." This attestation finds support in a study by Perry and Hondeghem (2008) on bureaucratic inefficiency as a demotivator.

Insufficient Hierarchical Positions

Among the major structural constraints faced was that there were not sufficient higher grades in the Bursars Cadre to enable potential progression by seasoned professional officers. This is a bottleneck where many qualified individuals stay in one grade for quite some time, as affirmed by Vandenabeele (2007) on structural constraints on public sector career advancement.

Chart 1: Organizational Structure Analysis

Position Level	Available Positions	Qualified Candidates	Advancement Ratio
Senior Bursar	15	45	1:3
Principal Accountant	8	32	1:4
Chief Financial Officer	3	18	1:6
Regional Coordinator	4	24	1:6

Theme 2: Inadequate Professional Development Opportunities

- Insufficient Systematic Professional Development Programs

The research cited an appropriate gap in the delivery of intensive, systematic professional development courses for the Bursars Cadre. While training courses have been offered, they were largely ad hoc, narrowly special, and unrelated to career development needs. The result makes a case for research by Grindle (2012) on professional development gaps in public sector institutions.

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Table 4: Professional Development Opportunity Assessment

Development Area	Available Programs	Quality Rating	Relevance Score	Accessibility
Technical Skills	Limited	2.3/5	2.8/5	Low
Leadership Development	Very Limited	1.8/5	2.1/5	Very Low
Technology Training	Occasional	2.5/5	3.2/5	Medium
Higher Education Support	None	N/A	N/A	None
Mentorship Programs	None	N/A	N/A	None

Members consistently complained that professional development opportunities are few, poorly organized, and often have nothing to do with their actual work requirements or career goals. As one bursar put it: "We get invited to workshops from time to time, but they're usually primitive sessions that don't benefit us directly in our professional development or in preparing us for promotion." This observation concurs with findings from Evans and Rauch (2011) related to the need for intentional professional development in public sector organizations.

Limited access to higher education and specialist training

Most of the participants lamented the absence of institutional support towards seeking higher education or further training to upgrade their skills and career prospects. Inadequate study leave policies, funds, and institution support for career building was a similar response highlighted as the main constraint, consistent with Kiragu and Mukandala (2005) research on challenges in capacity building in African public administrations.

Table 5: Higher Education Support Analysis

Support Type	Availability	Utilization Rate	Satisfaction Level
Study Leave	Not Available	0%	N/A
Financial Assistance	Not Available	0%	N/A
Flexible Scheduling	Limited	15%	2.1/5
Recognition of Qualifications	Minimal	8%	1.5/5

One of the accountants retorted: "I wanted to do a master's in financial management but there is no ministry support. No study leave, no cash sponsorship, nothing. How do we intend to develop ourselves when the system is not assisting?" This response captures more general patterns reported by Mutahaba (2005) for professional development obstacles in African public sector institutions.

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Theme 3: Inadequate Recognition and Reward Mechanisms

- **Failure to Notice Academic Achievements**

They went on to state that academic success and other qualifications are not greatly valued or rewarded in the current system. Several bursars have sought additional qualifications at their own volition only to discover that these are not equated with career advancement or additional remuneration. This adds strength to Herzberg's (1968) research into the value of recognition as an intrinsic motivation factor.

Table 6: Academic Achievement Recognition Analysis

Achievement Type	Recognition Level	Career Impact	Financial Benefit
Bachelor's Degree	Minimal	None	None
Master's Degree	None	None	None
Professional Certifications	None	None	None
Additional Training	Minimal	None	None
Research Publications	None	None	None

One bursar who had a new master's degree was dismayed: "I worked for three years towards my master's degree with the hope of being accorded more respect and advanced. But nothing happened. It is as if the qualification counts for nothing." The above quote corresponds with Alshmemri et al.'s (2017) observation on the demoralizing influence of poor systems of recognition.

Absence of Performance-Based Advancement

The research clarified that performance-driven promotion is lacking in the Bursars Cadre. High performers are on the same level as poorly performing colleagues, and frustration and disengagement result. The observation corroborated the findings of research by Bright (2008) on the significance of merit-driven promotion to public sector motivation.

Chart 2: Performance vs. Advancement Correlation

Performance Level	Advancement Rate	Time in Position	Satisfaction Level
Excellent	5%	8+ years	1.8/5
Good	8%	6+ years	2.2/5
Satisfactory	12%	5+ years	2.5/5
Below Average	10%	4+ years	2.8/5

Impact on Individual Motivation and Organizational Effectiveness

- **Lower Motivation and Career Engagement**

The career plateaus of most bursars have resulted in deep drops in motivation and job involvement. Respondents were "stuck," "unappreciated," and "forgotten" by the system, as indicated. This is supported by a study by Moynihan and Pandey (2007) which explored the relationship between career plateaus and employee motivation.

Table 7: Motivation Impact Assessment

Motivation Indicator	Current Level	Desired Level	Gap
Job Satisfaction	2.1/5	4.2/5	-2.1
Organizational Commitment	2.3/5	4.0/5	-1.7
Work Engagement	2.5/5	4.1/5	-1.6
Career Optimism	1.8/5	4.3/5	-2.5
Professional Pride	2.7/5	4.2/5	-1.5

Increased Turnover Intentions

One of the important findings was the strong turnover intentions, whereby participants responded in a serious contemplation of quitting work or the public service as a whole. This finding supports the work of Kim (2005) regarding the correlation of career stagnation and turnover intentions in public sector organizations.

Chart 3: Turnover Intention Analysis

Intention Level	Percentage	Primary Reason	Timeline
Definitely Leaving	28%	Career Stagnation	Within 1 year
Probably Leaving	32%	Limited Opportunities	Within 2 years
Considering Leaving	24%	Lack of Recognition	Within 3 years
Staying	16%	Job Security	Indefinite

A long-time bursar complained: "I'm seriously considering leaving the civil service. Why bother if there's no future here? I have talent and experience that could be worth something elsewhere."

This attitude captures more general patterns reported by Taylor (2008) for intent to turnover in stagnant career settings.

Organizational Performance Effect

Demotivation as a result of career plateaus has quantifiable impacts on organizational performance in line with empirical studies by Wright and Pandey (2008) into the impact of employee motivation on organizational performance.

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Table 8: Organizational Impact Assessment

Performance Area	Impact Level	Frequency	Severity
Processing Delays	High	75%	Moderate
Error Rates	Moderate	45%	Low-Moderate
Compliance Issues	Moderate	35%	Moderate
Innovation Decline	High	85%	High
Service Quality	Moderate	60%	Moderate

V. Recommendations

On the basis of comprehensive results and backed by pertinent literature, the following strategic recommendations are presented to combat issues of career development:

Structural Reforms

- **Clear Career Progression Frameworks Development**

As per best practices established by OECD (2017) and World Bank (2018), the Ministry is supposed to come up with extensive career development plans with specific areas for improvement.

Table 9: Proposed Career Progression Framework

Level	Position	Requirements	Responsibilities	Advancement Timeline
1	Junior Bursar	Diploma + 0-2 years	Basic financial tasks	2-3 years
2	Bursar	Degree + 3-5 years	School financial management	3-4 years
3	Senior Bursar	Degree + 6-8 years	Multi-school coordination	4-5 years
4	Principal Accountant	Degree + 9-12 years	Regional oversight	5-6 years
5	Chief Financial Officer	Master's + 13+ years	Strategic leadership	Career pinnacle

Organizational Structure Enhancement

Following recommendations by Perry and Hondeghem (2008), the creation of additional hierarchical levels should include:

- Senior bursar positions at school level
- Regional financial coordinator roles
- Specialist positions in procurement, compliance, and analysis
- Matrix organizational elements for project-based advancement

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Streamlined Administrative Processes

Based on best practices identified by Andrews and Boyne (2010), process improvements should focus on efficiency and transparency.

Table 10: Proposed Process Improvements

Process Stage	Current Duration	Target Duration	Improvement Strategy
Application	2-4 weeks	1 week	Digital submission
Review	2-6 months	4 weeks	Automated screening
Evaluation	3-12 months	6 weeks	Structured committees
Approval	1-6 months	2 weeks	Clear authority levels
Implementation	1-3 months	1 week	Automated systems

Professional Development Initiatives

- Systematic Training Programs

Following recommendations by Evans and Rauch (2011), comprehensive professional development programs should be established.

Table 11: Proposed Professional Development Framework

Program Type	Duration	Frequency	Target Group	Expected Outcome
Technical Skills	2 weeks	Annual	All levels	Competency update
Leadership Development	1 month	Biennial	Senior staff	Management skills
Technology Training	1 week	Quarterly	All levels	Digital literacy
Higher Education Support	Ongoing	As needed	Qualified staff	Advanced qualifications

Mentorship Systems

Based on research by Grindle (2012), establishment of formal mentorship programs pairing experienced professionals with junior colleagues should provide guidance and knowledge transfer.

Recognition and Reward Systems

- Performance-Based Advancement

Drawing on research by Bright (2008), performance-based systems should link advancement to demonstrated competence and contribution.

Table 12: Proposed Performance-Based System

Performance Level	Advancement Eligibility	Timeline Reduction	Additional Benefits
Exceptional	Fast-track promotion	50% reduction	Merit bonus
Excellent	Standard promotion	25% reduction	Recognition award

International Journal for Research Trends in Social Science & Humanities
Volume 3, Issue 5
Sep-Oct 2025, PP 1-21

Good	Standard promotion	Standard timeline	Certificate
Satisfactory	Standard promotion	Standard timeline	None

Academic Achievement Recognition

Following recommendations by Alshmemri et al. (2017), implementation of qualification allowances and accelerated advancement for additional education and professional development should be established.

Implementation Strategy

- **Phased Approach**

Based on change management principles identified by OECD (2017), implementation should follow a systematic approach.

Table 13: Implementation Timeline

Phase	Duration	Key Activities	Success Metrics
1	0-6 months	Policy development, stakeholder engagement	Framework approval
2	6-18 months	System implementation, training programs	50% participation
3	18-36 months	Full deployment, monitoring	80% satisfaction
4	36+ months	Evaluation, refinement	Sustained improvement

Resource Requirements

Table 14: Resource Allocation Plan

Resource Category	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Total
Personnel	P2.5M	P3.2M	P3.8M	P9.5M
Training Programs	P1.8M	P2.1M	P2.3M	P6.2M
Technology Systems	P3.2M	P1.5M	P0.8M	P5.5M
Infrastructure	P1.5M	P0.5M	P0.3M	P2.3M
Total	P9.0M	P7.3M	P7.2M	P23.5M

VI. Conclusion

This thorough research has shed light on the far-reaching effects of limited professional development opportunities on school bursars' and accountants' career motivation and job satisfaction working in Botswana government secondary schools and colleges. This study has shown a complicated intertwining of structural, development, and motivational issues that, collectively, build up an arena where capable financial management practitioners are caught up, undervalued, and increasingly disengaged from their strategic functions in educational administration. The three interlinked areas of career stagnation found - structural barriers, poor professional development opportunities, and malfunctioning recognition systems - capture the institutional nature of the problems confronting the Bursars Cadre.

The three areas mutually reinforce each other through a staleness cycle which drains individual motivation and organizational performance, as elucidated by theoretical frameworks by Herzberg (1968) and empirical research by Wright and Pandey (2008). The results strongly validate Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, revealing the extent to which the lack of internal motivators like career development and recognition in the workplace cannot be replaced by proper hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1968; Sachau, 2007). The research adds considerably to the scant literature on non-teaching staff in education systems and offers policy formulation and organisational change through evidence-based guidance, responding to gaps highlighted by Middlewood and Abbott (2017) and Lumby (2013).

The comprehensive proposals set forth outline a strategy of addressing such challenges through deliberate reforms that tackle structural, development, and motivational dimensions in concert. Enactment of the proposals involves leadership long-term commitment, proper allocation of resources, and close monitoring of stakeholder engagement and change management, according to OECD (2017) and World Bank (2018) best practices. The success of reform activity will ultimately be a function of the acceptance that good financial management is critical to achieve education success and that the professionals so privileged with this work deserve good career development opportunities, professional support construction, and appreciation for their work (Mestry, 2004; Bush & Glover, 2014).

Through investing in the professional growth of bursars and school accountants, Botswana can improve the capability of the education system to provide quality education while maintaining responsible public resource management. This research is a landmark in the process of exploring and answering the career growth needs of a vital and previously overlooked category of education professionals. Its application is likely to impact not only the careers of school bursars and accountants but also the efficiency and sustainability of financial administration in Botswana's education sector.

References

1. Alshmemri, M., Shahwan-Akl, L., & Maude, P. (2017). Herzberg's two-factor theory. Life Science Journal, 14(5), 12-16.
2. Andrews, R., & Boyne, G. A. (2010). Capacity, leadership, and organizational performance: Testing the black box model of public management. Public Administration Review, 70(3), 443- 454.
3. Basset-Jones, N., & Lloyd, G. C. (2005). Does Herzberg's motivation theory have staying power? Journal of Management Development, 24(10), 929-943.
4. Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). Qualitative data analysis with NVivo (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
5. Bisschoff, T., & Mestry, R. (2009). Financial school management explained. Pearson Education South Africa.
6. Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. Qualitative Research Journal, 9(2), 27-40.

7. Boyne, G. A. (2002). Public and private management: What's the difference? Journal of Management Studies, 39(1), 97-122.
8. Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3(2), 77-101.
9. Bright, L. (2008). Does public service motivation really make a difference on the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of public employees? The American Review of Public Administration, 38(2), 149-166.
10. Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2014). School leadership models: What do we know? School Leadership & Management, 34(5), 553-571.
11. Butt, G., & Lance, A. (2005). Secondary teacher workload and job satisfaction: Do successful strategies for change exist? Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 33(4), 401- 422.
12. Christians, C. G. (2011). Ethics and politics in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), The Sage handbook of qualitative research (4th ed., pp. 61-80). Sage Publications.
13. Clarke, A. (2012). Financial management in schools: A guide for governors and senior leadership teams. Optimus Education.
14. Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). Thematic analysis. The Journal of Positive Psychology, 12(3), 297-298.
15. Crewson, P. E. (1997). Public-service motivation: Building empirical evidence of incidence and effect. Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 7(4), 499-518.
16. Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
17. Dartey-Baah, K., & Amoako, G. K. (2011). Application of Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory in assessing and understanding employee motivation at work: A Ghanaian perspective. European Journal of Business and Management, 3(9), 1-8.
18. Davies, B., & Ellison, L. (2003). The new strategic direction and development of the school: Key frameworks for school improvement planning. RoutledgeFalmer.
19. Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). The Sage handbook of qualitative research (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
20. Dia, M. (1996). Africa's management in the 1990s and beyond: Reconciling indigenous and transplanted institutions. World Bank Publications.
21. Evans, P., & Rauch, J. E. (2011). Bureaucracy and growth: A cross-national analysis of the effects of "Weberian" state structures on economic growth. American Sociological Review, 64(5), 748-765.
22. Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2005). The interview: From neutral stance to political involvement. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), The Sage handbook of qualitative research (3rd ed., pp. 695-727). Sage Publications.
23. Grindle, M. S. (2012). Jobs for the boys: Patronage and the state in comparative perspective. Harvard University Press.
24. Gunter, H. M. (2001). Leaders and leadership in education. Paul Chapman Publishing.
25. Herzberg, F. (1968). One more time: How do you motivate employees? Harvard Business Review, 46(1), 53-62.
26. Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). The motivation to work. John Wiley & Sons.

27. Hope, K. R. (2001). The new public management: Context and practice in Africa. International Public Management Journal, 4(2), 119-134.
28. House, R. J., & Wigdor, L. A. (1967). Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation: A review of the evidence and a criticism. Personnel Psychology, 20(4), 369-389.
29. Israel, M., & Hay, I. (2006). Research ethics for social scientists. Sage Publications.
30. Kim, S. (2005). Individual-level factors and organizational performance in government organizations. Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 15(2), 245-261.
31. Kiragu, K., & Mukandala, R. (2005). Politics and tactics in public sector reforms: The dynamics of public service pay in Africa. University of Dar es Salaam Press.
32. Knight, B. (2017). Financial management for schools: The thinking manager's guide. Routledge.
33. Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
34. Lumby, J. (2013). Distributed leadership: The uses and abuses of power. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 41(5), 581-597.
35. Lumby, J., & Foskett, N. (2016). Internationalization and culture in higher education. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 44(1), 95-111.
36. Maduka, C. E., & Okafor, O. (2014). Effect of motivation on employee productivity: A study of manufacturing companies in Nnewi. International Journal of Managerial Studies and Research, 2(7), 137-147.
37. Mafini, C., & Dlodlo, N. (2014). The relationship between extrinsic motivation, job satisfaction and life satisfaction amongst employees in a public organisation. SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 40(1), 1-13.
38. Merriam, S. B. (2009). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. Jossey-Bass.
39. Mestry, R. (2004). Financial accountability: The principal or the school governing body? South African Journal of Education, 24(2), 126-132.
40. Mestry, R., & Bisschoff, T. (2009). Financial school management explained. Pearson Education South Africa.
41. Middlewood, D., & Abbott, I. (2017). Improving professional learning through in-house inquiry. Routledge.
42. Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
43. Molefe, R. N. (2020). Public sector reforms and human resource management in Botswana. African Journal of Public Affairs, 11(4), 45-62.
44. Moswela, E., & Mukhopadhyay, S. (2011). Asking for too much? The voices of students with disabilities in Botswana. Disability & Society, 26(3), 307-319.
45. Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2007). The role of organizations in fostering public service motivation. Public Administration Review, 67(1), 40-53.
46. Mutahaba, G. (2005). Pay reform and corruption in Tanzania's public service. University of Dar es Salaam Press.
47. OECD. (2017). Government at a glance 2017. OECD Publishing.
48. Odden, A. R., & Picus, L. O. (2014). School finance: A policy perspective (5th ed.). McGraw- Hill Education.

49. Patton, M. Q. (2015). Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice (4th ed.). Sage Publications.
50. Perry, J. L., & Hondeghem, A. (Eds.). (2008). Motivation in public management: The call of public service. Oxford University Press.
51. Perry, J. L., & Wise, L. R. (1990). The motivational bases of public service. Public Administration Review, 50(3), 367-373.
52. Prior, L. (2003). Using documents in social research. Sage Publications.
53. Rainey, H. G. (2014). Understanding and managing public organizations (5th ed.). Jossey-Bass. Republic of Botswana. (2017). National Development Plan 11: 2017-2023. Government Printer.
54. Republic of Botswana. (2018). Education and Training Sector Strategic Plan (ETSSP) 2015- 2020: Mid-term review report. Ministry of Education and Skills Development.
55. Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2012). Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
56. Sachau, D. A. (2007). Resurrecting the motivation-hygiene theory: Herzberg and the positive psychology movement. Human Resource Development Review, 6(4), 377-393.
57. Seidman, I. (2013). Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences (4th ed.). Teachers College Press.
58. Tabulawa, R. (2013). Teaching and learning in context: Why pedagogical reforms fail in sub- Saharan Africa. CODESRIA.
59. Taylor, J. (2008). Organizational influences, public service motivation and work outcomes: An Australian study. International Public Management Journal, 11(1), 67-88.
60. Teck-Hong, T., & Waheed, A. (2011). Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and job satisfaction in the Malaysian retail sector: The mediating effect of love of money. Asian Academy of Management Journal, 16(1), 73-94.
61. Van Rooyen, J. (2012). Financial management in South African schools. Van Schaik Publishers.
62. Vandenabeele, W. (2007). Toward a public administration theory of public service motivation: An institutional approach. Public Management Review, 9(4), 545-566.
63. Weeks, S. G. (2012). The evolution of educational policy in Botswana. University of Botswana Press.
64. World Bank. (2018). World development report 2018: Learning to realize education's promise. World Bank Publications.
65. Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2008). Public service motivation and the assumption of person— organization fit: Testing the mediating effect of value congruence. Administration & Society, 40(5), 502-521.
66. Yin, R. K. (2014). Case study research: Design and methods (5th ed.). Sage Publications.