ISSN: 2181-3337 | SCIENTISTS.UZ VOLUME 5 ISSUE 7 JULY 2026

PEDAGOGICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR DEVELOPING ENTREPRENEURIAL COMPETENCE IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR DUAL EDUCATION

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DOI: 10.67620/sai.57b0016

ABSTRACT

This conceptual paper examines the pedagogical foundations required to develop entrepreneurial competence among students in vocational education, with particular attention to dual education and the integration of school- and workplace-based learning. The paper replaces unsupported empirical claims with a transparent focused narrative review of authoritative vocational-education frameworks and relevant peer-reviewed studies. The synthesis identifies six interdependent foundations: competence-oriented learning outcomes; curriculum integration; action-based and project-based pedagogy; coherent coordination between school and workplace learning; guidance, mentoring, and institutional support; and authentic assessment combined with continuous programme improvement. On this basis, a staged implementation model is proposed in which students move from opportunity recognition to idea development, validation, resource planning, implementation, and reflection. The model treats entrepreneurship not only as business creation but also as the capacity to transform ideas into economic, social, or cultural value. The analysis argues that isolated courses, occasional competitions, and general motivational activities are insufficient unless they are connected to vocational specialisms, employer participation, structured advisory services, and evidence-based assessment. The paper concludes that entrepreneurial competence should be embedded across the vocational learning ecosystem and supported by trained teachers, workplace mentors, accessible guidance, and institutional leadership.

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Keywords:
entrepreneurial competence; vocational education and training; dual education; entrepreneurial learning; career guidance; experiential pedagogy.

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Introduction

Vocational education and training (VET) is expected to prepare learners not only for entry into existing occupations but also for changing forms of work, self-employment, innovation, and value creation. This expectation has become especially important where young people face uncertain labour-market transitions and where vocational graduates may need to combine employment, freelance activity, and small-enterprise development during their careers. Entrepreneurship education in VET should therefore be understood more broadly than instruction in how to register and manage a business. It concerns the development of initiative, opportunity recognition, creativity, responsible risk management, collaboration, resource mobilisation, and the capacity to act on ideas.

The European Entrepreneurship Competence Framework, commonly known as EntreComp, defines entrepreneurship as acting upon opportunities and ideas in order to create value for others. Its three broad competence areas—Ideas and Opportunities, Resources, and Into Action—provide a useful basis for organising entrepreneurial learning across disciplines and educational levels (Bacigalupo et al., 2016). This broad conception is particularly suitable for vocational education because students can create value through improvements in products, services, production processes, customer relations, community projects, or new ventures. It also avoids treating entrepreneurship as relevant only to students enrolled in business, finance, or economics.

International guidance increasingly presents entrepreneurial learning as an institutional responsibility rather than a single subject. UNESCO-UNEVOC (2020) describes entrepreneurial TVET institutions as learning ecosystems in which curriculum, teaching methods, partnerships, resources, assessment, leadership, and organisational culture reinforce one another. Cedefop's (2023) European synthesis likewise shows that entrepreneurship competence is developed most effectively when policy, provider leadership, teacher capacity, work-based learning, stakeholder collaboration, and student support are aligned. These perspectives shift attention from whether a course called "Entrepreneurship" exists to whether students repeatedly encounter opportunities to practise entrepreneurial behaviour throughout their vocational preparation.

Research also indicates that the pedagogical design of entrepreneurship education matters. Traditional transmission-oriented teaching can communicate terminology and business procedures, but entrepreneurial action involves uncertainty, iteration, judgement, and learning from feedback. Neck and Greene (2011) therefore argue for teaching entrepreneurship as a method through practice, experimentation, and reflection. A systematic review by Nabi et al. (2017) found that entrepreneurship education produces varied outcomes and that stronger research and programme design are needed to connect teaching methods with intended learning results. In vocational settings, the issue is even more specific: students must connect entrepreneurial competence to an occupational field and to actual conditions in workplaces, markets, and communities.

The supplied manuscript originally framed the topic as an interview study, but it did not provide verifiable information about participants, countries, recruitment, ethics, transcripts, or data analysis. The present version therefore does not claim primary empirical findings. Instead, it reconstructs the paper as a conceptual review that asks: What pedagogical foundations are required for the systematic development of entrepreneurial competence in vocational and dual education? The objective is to integrate established frameworks and selected empirical literature into a practical model for vocational colleges, technical schools, teachers, workplace mentors, guidance specialists, and institutional leaders.

2. Method and Scope

This paper uses a focused narrative-review approach. It synthesises authoritative framework documents on entrepreneurial learning and vocational education together with selected peer-reviewed studies directly relevant to entrepreneurship competence, experiential pedagogy, career guidance, institutional support, and the integration of school- and workplace-based learning. The purpose is conceptual development rather than exhaustive or systematic evidence aggregation.

Sources were retained when they contributed to at least one of four analytical questions: how entrepreneurial competence is defined; which pedagogical methods are appropriate; how entrepreneurship can be integrated into vocational and dual education; and which institutional conditions support implementation. Authoritative sources include the EntreComp framework (Bacigalupo et al., 2016), the UNESCO-UNEVOC practical guide for entrepreneurial TVET institutions (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2020), Cedefop's European synthesis (Cedefop, 2023), and OECD work on future-ready VET systems (OECD, 2023). Peer-reviewed studies were used to clarify pedagogy, competence exposure, career guidance, dual-learning coherence, and institutional support.

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The review is intentionally bounded. It does not estimate effect sizes, claim comprehensive coverage of all countries, or present the framework as empirically validated in a particular national system. The synthesis is analytical: recurring requirements across the selected literature were grouped into six pedagogical foundations and then organised into a staged implementation model. This transparent limitation is necessary because a conceptual paper must distinguish between evidence reported in previous research and proposals developed by the author.

3. Conceptualising Entrepreneurial Competence in Vocational Education

Entrepreneurial competence combines knowledge, skills, attitudes, and action. Business knowledge may include basic finance, accounting, marketing, customer relations, legal forms, and business planning. Transferable skills include communication, creativity, problem solving, negotiation, teamwork, leadership, and decision making. Attitudinal dimensions include initiative, persistence, self-efficacy, responsibility, and willingness to learn from uncertainty. These components are related but should not be treated as interchangeable.

Recent work in vocational education illustrates the importance of distinguishing what students are exposed to from what they ultimately achieve. Mack et al. (2024) developed the Vocational Education Entrepreneurship Knowledge and Skills scale to assess students' exposure to business knowledge and soft skills in TVET. Their distinction is valuable for programme evaluation: an institution cannot reasonably attribute entrepreneurial outcomes to its curriculum without first establishing whether students regularly encounter the intended knowledge and skills. Exposure, however, is only a starting point. Students also need opportunities to apply, integrate, and demonstrate competence.

Entrepreneurship education can pursue at least three related purposes. First, it can develop an entrepreneurial mindset that supports initiative and adaptability in employment and civic life. Second, it can prepare learners to create and manage a venture. Third, it can support actual venture creation through practice, incubation, finance, and mentoring. UNESCO-UNEVOC (2020) treats these purposes as overlapping rather than mutually exclusive. A vocational programme may begin with mindset development, move to occupationally grounded project work, and provide more intensive venture support to students whose ideas become feasible.

This broad understanding also strengthens inclusion. Entrepreneurial learning should not be restricted to students already perceived as confident, commercially oriented, or academically successful. Nor should it be concentrated only in traditionally business-related fields. Ferreras-García et al. (2021) show the multidimensional character of entrepreneurial competence, while the EntreComp framework explicitly applies across educational and occupational contexts. In VET, a student in construction, agriculture, mechanics, information technology, hospitality, design, health services, or another field can learn to recognise needs, improve a service, organise resources, communicate value, and test an idea.

Career guidance is part of this competence-development process. Studies of career education and guidance show that students benefit when employability and career-management learning are made visible, structured, and accessible rather than left to individual initiative (Aranda et al., 2021; Helens-Hart, 2019). Romero-García and Suárez-Ortega (2024) further connect professional guidance with the development of entrepreneurial competence in educational settings. In vocational education, guidance should help students interpret their occupational strengths, identify possible markets and employment pathways, evaluate risk, and decide whether self-employment or enterprise development is appropriate for their circumstances.

4. Six Pedagogical Foundations

4.1 Competence-oriented learning outcomes

Entrepreneurial learning must begin with explicit outcomes. Vague objectives such as "developing entrepreneurial spirit" are difficult to teach and assess. Outcomes should specify what learners will be able to recognise, produce, decide, communicate, and evaluate. EntreComp offers a structured reference, but institutions should translate broad competence areas into outcomes appropriate to each vocational field.

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For example, a hospitality student may identify an unmet customer need, calculate the basic costs of a service improvement, test the idea with potential users, and present a feasible proposal. An automotive student may identify a recurring maintenance problem, design a service solution, estimate resources, and communicate value to customers. These are entrepreneurial performances even when no new company is immediately created. Clear outcomes also allow teachers of general subjects, vocational specialists, and workplace mentors to understand their complementary roles.

4.2 Curriculum integration

A stand-alone entrepreneurship course can provide essential concepts, but it is rarely sufficient on its own. Entrepreneurial competence should also be embedded within occupational modules, practical training, projects, and work placements. This approach creates repeated exposure and helps students understand that entrepreneurship is connected to technical quality, customer needs, productivity, safety, sustainability, and professional ethics.

Curriculum integration requires deliberate mapping. Institutions should identify where each competence is introduced, practised, demonstrated, and revisited. Business knowledge can be taught through dedicated modules, while communication, opportunity recognition, cost calculation, problem solving, and project management can be reinforced in vocational tasks. Cedefop (2023) indicates that entrepreneurship competence is more sustainable when it is embedded across the learning ecosystem rather than dependent on isolated initiatives by individual teachers.

Institutional orientation also matters. Balasubramanian et al. (2020), although working in the university context, show that entrepreneurial orientation operates at an organisational level. For vocational institutions, this means leadership should support experimentation, external partnerships, teacher collaboration, student projects, and responsible use of resources. Without organisational support, curriculum integration can remain a formal statement that is not enacted in classrooms or workshops.

4.3 Action-based and project-based pedagogy

Entrepreneurial competence develops through purposeful action. Students need to investigate problems, generate alternatives, make decisions with incomplete information, interact with users, manage resources, and reflect on results. Suitable methods include occupationally grounded projects, simulations, design challenges, student enterprises, service-learning, case-based problem solving, prototyping, market interviews, pitching, budgeting tasks, and reflective portfolios.

Neck and Greene (2011) distinguish teaching entrepreneurship as a method from teaching only about entrepreneurship. This distinction is central to vocational education. Students should not merely memorise the sections of a business plan; they should make and justify decisions, revise assumptions, and experience the consequences of choices. Reflection is essential because activity alone does not guarantee learning. Teachers should require students to explain what changed, which evidence influenced a decision, what failed, and how the next attempt would differ.

Project authenticity should be calibrated to the learner's stage. Beginners may work with structured cases and small problems. Intermediate students can conduct user research, calculate costs, and test prototypes. Advanced students can complete interdisciplinary projects with employers, community organisations, or actual customers. The objective is progressive independence, not the premature expectation that every learner must launch a business.

4.4 Coherence between school- and workplace-based learning

Dual education creates a strong setting for entrepreneurial learning because students encounter both formal instruction and real production or service contexts. Yet the existence of two learning venues does not automatically produce integration. Eiríksdóttir (2020) found that school- and workplace-based learning can operate in parallel rather than as a coherent programme when communication and pedagogical coordination are weak.

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Entrepreneurial projects should therefore connect the two venues intentionally. Before a placement, students can identify an occupational problem or opportunity and prepare observation questions. During workplace learning, they can collect non-confidential evidence, consult mentors, and examine technical, customer, and organisational constraints. Afterward, they can analyse the opportunity at school, develop a proposal, and receive feedback from both teachers and workplace partners. This sequence turns workplace exposure into a structured learning cycle.

Workplace mentors require clear guidance. Their role is not merely to supervise attendance or task completion. They can model professional judgement, explain customer expectations, provide feedback on feasibility, and expose students to the commercial and organisational dimensions of a trade. Teachers, in turn, help students connect experience to concepts, ethical considerations, and reflective analysis. Shared rubrics and scheduled communication can reduce fragmentation.

4.5 Guidance, mentoring, and institutional support

Students may have technical ability and promising ideas but lack confidence, information, networks, or knowledge of support services. Guidance should therefore be visible, accessible, and connected to the curriculum. A student should know where to obtain help with idea validation, financial planning, grants, legal structures, intellectual property, marketing, and career decisions.

Guidance specialists should avoid assuming that entrepreneurship is the correct pathway for every learner. Their task is to support informed choice. This includes helping students assess personal goals, occupational competence, market evidence, financial risk, family responsibilities, and alternative career routes. Career education is most useful when it expands realistic options rather than presenting business creation as a universal solution.

Mentoring can be provided by teachers, entrepreneurs, alumni, employer partners, financial specialists, and local development organisations. However, occasional motivational talks are not a substitute for sustained support. Effective mentoring requires continuity, role clarity, and a connection to the student's project stage. Institutions should also ensure that students outside business-related programmes and students from underrepresented groups can access support on equal terms.

4.6 Authentic assessment and continuous improvement

Assessment should capture what students can do, not only what they can recall. Appropriate evidence may include opportunity analyses, customer or user interviews, prototypes, cost calculations, project plans, risk registers, pitches, reflective journals, team evaluations, and implementation reports. Rubrics should address both process and product, including creativity, evidence use, feasibility, communication, collaboration, ethical judgement, and reflection.

Not every project should be evaluated according to commercial success. A failed prototype may demonstrate strong learning if the student collected evidence, recognised weaknesses, revised assumptions, and explained the next step. Conversely, an attractive presentation should not receive high marks when it lacks technical quality or market evidence. Assessment must reward disciplined learning rather than confidence alone.

Programme evaluation should examine curriculum exposure, teaching quality, participation, progression, student experience, and longer-term outcomes. Mack et al. (2024) provide one example of measuring exposure to business knowledge and soft skills. Institutions may combine such measures with project rubrics, student feedback, employer feedback, participation data, and follow-up information on employment, further education, self-employment, or venture activity. Continuous improvement should be based on evidence rather than the number of events or competitions organised.

5. A Staged Implementation Model

The six foundations can be operationalised through a staged learning cycle. The stages are not strictly linear: students may return to earlier decisions when new evidence appears. The model is intended to connect classroom learning, workplace experience, guidance, and assessment.

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Stage	Core student task	Typical learning activities	Main support	Evidence for assessment
1. Explore	Identify needs, problems, or opportunities connected to the vocational field.	Observation, problem mapping, interviews, occupational cases.	Vocational teacher and workplace mentor.	Opportunity brief and evidence log.
2. Develop	Generate and compare possible solutions.	Ideation, design tasks, teamwork, technical consultation.	Teacher, peers, and subject specialists.	Concept alternatives and selection rationale.
3. Validate	Test assumptions with users, customers, employers, or community stakeholders.	Prototype testing, feedback interviews, small experiments.	Guidance specialist, employer partner, potential users.	Validation report and revised value proposition.
4. Plan	Determine resources, costs, risks, legal considerations, and responsibilities.	Budgeting, business-model work, scheduling, risk analysis.	Business teacher, finance/legal advisers, mentor.	Feasibility plan, budget, and risk register.
5. Implement	Deliver a pilot, service, product, process improvement, or simulated venture.	Work-based project, student enterprise, service learning.	Teacher-workplace mentor team.	Product/service evidence and implementation record.
6. Reflect and progress	Evaluate results and decide whether to revise, stop, scale, or transfer learning.	Portfolio review, presentation, peer and mentor feedback.	Assessment panel and career guidance.	Reflective report, competence profile, and next-step plan.

Note. The model is a conceptual synthesis developed in this paper from the reviewed frameworks and studies.

6. Discussion

The framework addresses a recurring weakness in entrepreneurship education: the tendency to treat entrepreneurial competence as the result of a single course, motivational event, or competition. Such activities may raise awareness, but they do not ensure progressive competence development. A pedagogically coherent approach requires outcomes, repeated practice, occupational relevance, feedback, reflection, and institutional support.

The relationship between vocational competence and entrepreneurial competence should be complementary. Entrepreneurship education must not displace the development of technical expertise. A weak technical product or unsafe service does not become viable because it is accompanied by an attractive pitch. At the same time, technical competence alone may not enable a graduate to recognise customer needs, calculate costs, communicate value, or organise resources. The central task is integration.

Dual education offers distinctive opportunities for this integration. Workplace settings expose students to real constraints, professional standards, customer relations, teamwork, and resource decisions. Schools provide protected space for conceptual understanding, experimentation, critical reflection, and learning from mistakes. When the two venues communicate, students can connect occupational experience to entrepreneurial analysis. When they do not, students may experience entrepreneurship as an unrelated classroom topic.

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The framework also positions guidance as a pedagogical function rather than an administrative service at the end of a programme. Students need support while they form ideas, assess feasibility, and make career decisions. This is consistent with career-education literature that emphasises the importance of structured support and students' awareness of available services (Aranda et al., 2021; Helens-Hart, 2019). Guidance should be closely linked to projects and workplace learning, while preserving the student's autonomy.

An inclusive approach is essential. Claims that gender inequality or other barriers are absent cannot be made without appropriate evidence. Institutions should instead monitor participation, access to mentoring, project leadership, funding opportunities, and outcomes across relevant groups. Equal access requires transparent selection procedures, diverse role models, accessible schedules, and active efforts to ensure that support does not reach only the most confident students.

Finally, programme evaluation should distinguish immediate educational outcomes from later economic outcomes. A course may improve knowledge, self-efficacy, opportunity recognition, or project competence without producing immediate business start-ups. Conversely, a new venture may depend on many factors outside the institution. Evaluation should therefore use a sequence of indicators, from exposure and learning performance to transition outcomes and sustained entrepreneurial activity.

7. Implications for Policy and Institutional Management

At policy level, entrepreneurial competence should be expressed through clear VET learning outcomes and qualification requirements while allowing adaptation to occupational and regional contexts. Policy should not be limited to requiring an entrepreneurship subject. It should support teacher development, work-based learning partnerships, guidance services, assessment resources, and mechanisms for institutional improvement.

At provider level, leadership should establish a cross-functional team that includes vocational teachers, general-subject teachers, guidance specialists, employer representatives, and where appropriate student or alumni voices. The team should map existing provision, identify gaps, coordinate projects, develop assessment tools, and monitor implementation. UNESCO-UNEVOC (2020) emphasises that entrepreneurial learning requires organisational development, stakeholder participation, resources, and monitoring, not merely curriculum content.

Teacher professional development should combine entrepreneurial knowledge with pedagogy. Teachers need opportunities to experience project design, user research, basic financial reasoning, mentoring, reflective assessment, and collaboration with employers. Workplace mentors also need concise training and clear expectations. Without shared language and tools, the school and workplace may evaluate different things.

Institutions should create a visible pathway of support. All students may receive foundational entrepreneurial learning, while those with viable projects may progress to specialised mentoring, incubation, finance advice, or external partnerships. This tiered approach avoids imposing venture creation on every learner while ensuring that promising projects receive appropriate assistance.

Resource decisions should favour continuity over spectacle. A modest, well-coordinated programme with repeated project cycles, trained staff, accessible guidance, and reliable assessment is more educationally valuable than isolated high-profile events. Competitions can contribute to learning when they are embedded within a broader curriculum and when feedback is available to students whose projects do not win.

8. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This paper is a focused conceptual review rather than a systematic review or empirical study. The proposed framework is informed by authoritative international guidance and selected research, but it has not been tested in a specific national VET system. Its relevance may vary according to institutional

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resources, labour-market structures, regulation, cultural expectations, and the organisation of dual education.

Future research should validate the framework through transparent empirical designs. Useful studies could include curriculum mapping across vocational fields; surveys of students' exposure to entrepreneurial knowledge and skills; interviews with students, teachers, guidance specialists, and workplace mentors; observation of project-based learning; and longitudinal tracking of educational and employment outcomes. Cross-national studies should report sampling, language, translation, ethics, and analytical procedures in sufficient detail.

Experimental or quasi-experimental work should avoid relying only on entrepreneurial intention. Studies should assess actual competence performance, quality of project decisions, transfer to workplace tasks, and delayed outcomes. Research should also examine differential access and outcomes by gender, socioeconomic background, disability, field of study, and location. Such evidence would help determine which elements of the framework are most effective, for whom, and under which institutional conditions.

9. Conclusion

Developing entrepreneurial competence in vocational education requires more than teaching students how to write a business plan. It requires a coherent pedagogical system in which students identify opportunities, mobilise knowledge and resources, act on ideas, receive feedback, and reflect on results within their occupational fields.

This paper identifies six foundations for that system: explicit competence-oriented outcomes; curriculum integration; action-based pedagogy; coordination between school and workplace learning; guidance and mentoring; and authentic assessment linked to continuous improvement. Together, these foundations support a staged progression from opportunity recognition to implementation and reflective career decision making.

The central implication is that entrepreneurial learning should be embedded across the vocational institution. Teachers, workplace mentors, guidance specialists, managers, and external partners have distinct but connected responsibilities. When these elements operate coherently, vocational education can prepare students not only to enter the labour market but also to improve workplaces, create value, respond to uncertainty, and pursue responsible self-employment or enterprise development where appropriate.

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