

DEVELOPMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN: THE NEED FOR GOVERNMENT REGULATION

ROZVOJ PODNIKATELSKÉHO VZDĚLÁVÁNÍ V KAZACHSTÁNU: POTŘEBA VLÁDNÍ REGULACE

Agipa Monobayeva

Petr Hájek

Maira Iembekova

ABSTRACT

This paper analyses the current situation in entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan and reveals the existence of significant gaps. The authors used research findings as well as previous studies to highlight the need to reconsider the public policy in entrepreneurship and government regulation in this relatively new field.

The study recommends an approach based on “Network Governance” to ensure favourable conditions for building an effective entrepreneurial ecosystem in the country. Implementation of principles of Network Governance is intended to bring together all stakeholders, including state and local governments, education, business and civil society to develop a comprehensive system of entrepreneurship education.

Key words: entrepreneurship, education, public policy, government, network governance, business

JEL classification: A23

ABSTRAKT

Cílem výzkumu je analýza aktuálního stavu manažerského vzdělávání v Kazachstánu. Na základě analýzy byly nalezeny jisté oblasti, které brání efektivnímu rozvoji této oblasti vzdělávání. Na základě výzkumu autoři doporučují přehodnotit veřejnou politiku v oblasti podnikání a upravit vládní regulaci v této relativně nové oblasti.

Studie doporučuje přístup založený na stanovisku "Network Governance", který zajistí příznivé podmínky pro vytvoření efektivního podnikatelského ekosystému v zemi. Zavedení zásad Network Governance má za cíl spojit odborníky z oblastí vzdělávání a podnikání, politiky z různých úrovní vlád i další zainteresované osoby vzešlé z občanské společnosti, aby vytvořili podmínky pro vybudování komplexního systému podnikatelského vzdělávání.

Klíčová slova: podnikání, manažerské vzdělávání, veřejná politika, vláda, network governance, obchod

JEL klasifikace: A23

INTRODUCTION

For any modern economy to function effectively and competitively, the government needs to ensure a strong educational system and enable the production of a highly skilled and entrepreneurial workforce. While education has always been the key to developing human capital, entrepreneurship is considered as a driving force for economic growth. It is entrepreneurship education that produces business and industry leaders, develops small and medium enterprises that significantly contribute to economic development.

In OECD countries entrepreneurship education is considered an important field that affects both the economy and well-being of society. Relevance of entrepreneurship education to the needs of business is one of the indicators of the competitiveness of the educational system and the economy as a whole. In many advanced economies governments and business along with educational system see joint responsibility in the development of entrepreneurial skills. Universities, colleges and business schools have a close relationship with the industry and government. Cooperation of education institutions with business and government creates an entrepreneurial ecosystem and leads to innovations and development. In Kazakhstan, such a close relationship is absent, although some initiatives and attempts have been taken to develop partnerships with the business and educa-

tion sectors. Entrepreneurship education is a relatively new field in Kazakhstan and the Central Asian region as a whole. Therefore, regulations and administrative systems surrounding business and entrepreneurship education are currently in the development stage. This paper focuses on entrepreneurship education and the need for government regulation to ensure proper legislation and a supportive environment for this emerging field.

Although many publications have addressed challenges in entrepreneurship and business education (Etzkowitz, 2000; Mintsberg, 2004; Kuratko, 2005; Matlay, 2009; Higgins, 2011; Martin, 2013; Huub, 2015; Yevenko, 2004; Mordovin, 2010; Kozhakhmetov, 2011; Mason, 2014; Fuerlinger, 2015; Ha, 2016), relatively little research has addressed mechanisms of regulation of entrepreneurship education, particularly with respect to Kazakhstan.

The paper seeks to address the following set of questions. First, what is the current state of entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan? What is the role of the government in developing and fostering entrepreneurship education? What are the main challenges in governance and regulation of entrepreneurship education? Second, why partnerships between education providers, business and government have had disappointing results? To what extent do business education outcomes meet the labour market needs in Kazakhstan? How do the existing obstacles and constraining factors correlate with government regulation?

Within this framework, this study will investigate the possibilities of introducing the principles of Network Governance in the creation of a platform for policy makers, academia and business to join their efforts in developing entrepreneurial skills and eliminating the existing discrepancy between education outcomes and job market needs. Network Governance is a form of governance that suggests a shift from the hierarchical governance schemes to a horizontal one based on co-participation and teamwork.

The primary message of this paper is that the government has to play a crucial role in the development of entrepreneurship education by providing proper legislation and motivating business and education institutions into consolidating their efforts in training entrepreneurial skills and thereby accelerating economic growth. It is extremely important for both business and education to realize their responsibility in achieving this shared and socially significant goal.

Methodologically, this paper builds on previously published studies on business education and entrepreneurship development, legislative documents, national and international reports on Kazakhstan. The paper also utilizes the results of a survey (questionnaires) of 50 college graduates, 50 university graduates, as well as the results of extensive interviews (involving semi-structured questions) with deans of business schools in three Kazakhstani universities as well as five directors of local companies and five managers of SME (business owners).

The paper comprises five sections: 1) Literature review, 2) Overview of the current situation in entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan, 3) Research findings, 4) Discussion, and 5) Conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of literature reveals that in recent years the topics related to entrepreneurship education, public policy on entrepreneurship, and the development of entrepreneurial ecosystems have been researched by several scholars (Etzkowitz, 2000; Audretsch et al., 2002; Gilbert et al., 2004; Kuratko, 2005; Baumol et al., 2007; Acs and Szerb, 2007; Sobel et al., 2008; Minniti, 2008; Carvalho, 2010; Varblane, 2010; Isenberg, 2011; Estrin, 2011; Friedman, 2011; Mason, 2014; Thai, 2014; Taylor, 2014; Fuerlinger et al., 2015; Khaleghifar et al., 2015; Terjesen, 2015; Rampersad, 2016; Brylina et al., 2017; Belitski, 2017; etc.). It should be noted that the overwhelming majority of these research publications are of western provenance. As mentioned in the introduction, of the small amount of work on entrepreneurship education in developing countries, little research has addressed challenges in Central Asian countries including Kazakhstan.

A thorough analysis of research publications reveals that the role of the government in the entrepreneurship ecosystem is crucial especially in providing supportive environment for the development of entrepreneurial culture and new venture creation. However, Rampersad (2016) argues that *“the current literature focuses mainly on business stakeholders rather than on the wider variety of players from government and university who also play a critical role”*.

Today many scholars see the government as an essential entrepreneurial agent especially when it comes to innovation and resources. As an example, *“many ecosystems and regions, such as Silicon Valley, have strongly benefited by this active*

role of the state. Most of the innovations that laid the basis for the iPhone of Apple were funded by state money” (Fuerlinger, 2015).

Gilbert (2004) argues that “public policy towards business is undergoing a profound shift. Specifically, a new set of policies designed to promote entrepreneurial activity has come to the forefront that focuses on enabling the start-up and viability of entrepreneurial firms rather than constraining existing enterprises”.

It is widely recognized that entrepreneurship benefits not only business but also other actors in the network (Acs, 2009; Rampersad, 2009). A review of international research publications suggests that in the development of an effective entrepreneurial ecosystem the government plays a crucial role along with higher education, business and civil society. Entrepreneurial ecosystem is defined as a “dynamic, institutionally embedded interaction between entrepreneurial attitudes, abilities and aspirations, by individuals which drives the allocation of resources through the creation and operation of new ventures” (Rampersad, 2009).

Alghamdi (2011), Plewa (2012), Rampersad (2009) argued that entrepreneurial outcomes depend on effective governance. The government plays an essential role in promoting entrepreneurship. The positive impact of good governance and public entrepreneurship policy on the development of an economy has been highlighted by numerous scholars (Ha et al., 2016; Rampersad, 2016; Fuerlinger et al., 2015; Acs and Szerb, 2007; Baumol et al., 2007; Gilbert et al., 2004; Audretsch et al., 2002). “The challenge facing the governance of these ecosystems is due to the diversity of actors involved in the innovation process, with their varied goals from education and research in universities to profit maximization in business” (Fradley, 2012; Troshani, 2011). Hence, there is a need to develop the effective mechanisms of governance to manage interactions between the network actors (Corsaro et al., 2012).

A large number of studies confirm the important role of networks in the development of entrepreneurship and achieving entrepreneurial outcomes (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000; Stearns, 1996; Uzzi, 1996; Hoang, 2003; Schout and Jordan, 2005; Dedeurwaerdere, 2007; Davies, 2012; Dodescu and Pop-Cohut, 2012; Stam and Spigel, 2016; Wegner and Koetz, 2016). By definition, Network Governance is “interfirm coordination that is characterized by organic or informal social system, in contrast to bureaucratic structures within firms and formal contractual relationships

between them” (Jones et al., 1997). A network is “*a collaborative structure, which depends neither on the market, nor on the hierarchy. Such networks are formed by several financially and legally independent partners with autonomous management that are, however, mutually dependent to achieve common goals*” (Assens, 2016). In terms of Network Governance Powell (1990) argues that it constitutes a “*distinct form of coordinating economic activity which contrasts and competes with markets and hierarchies*”. In other words, it consists of “*lateral or horizontal patterns of exchange; independent flows of resources; reciprocal lines of communication*” (Powell, 1990).

Provan and Kenis (2008) define the forms of Network Governance in two different dimensions: 1) “*Network governance may or may not be brokered.*” They refer to a network whose organizations interact with every other organization to govern the network “*shared governance*” in a decentralized way; 2) “*Network may be participant governed or externally governed.*” While participant governance means a network governed by its members on the equal basis of a “*shared participant governance*”, “*more centralized networks may be governed by and through a lead organization that is a network member*”.

Aarikka-Stenroos et al. (2014) argue “*that a holistic understanding involving the examination of all involved actors’ perspectives on networks for commercialization is often missing, so researchers should investigate the perspectives of divergent network actors*”. While government is recognized as a key actor that plays an essential role in ensuring proper legislation and promoting entrepreneurship, “*a broad search of the literature reveals that the fundamental and general question of how, and if, governments are able to influence positively entrepreneurial activity is far from being resolved*” (Minniti, 2008). Thai and Turkina (2014) argued that studies on governance and the impact of governance on the entrepreneurship development are limited. Therefore more studies are needed in this field.

There is a large number of publications that discuss issues related to entrepreneurship education. Kuratko (2005) argues that although some scholars link entrepreneurship education with the Harvard courses taught in 1947, “*the reality of entrepreneurship education as a force in business schools began in the early 1970s*” when University of Southern California launched the first MBA with concentration in Entrepreneurship in 1971. Howard E. Aldrich (2012) argues that entrepreneurship as a specific area was separated from Management field by Carl

Vesperam as a result of his study on cataloguing university programmes for business education.

There was a myth that entrepreneurship was a natural gift; people are born with certain traits and an entrepreneurial drive. In response to that, Peter Drucker wrote: *“The entrepreneurial mystique? It’s not magic, it’s not mysterious, and it has nothing to do with the genes. It’s a discipline. And, like any discipline, it can be learned”* (Drucker, 1985). In his study about the phenomenon of the entrepreneur Gartner (1985) assumed that *“entrepreneurial talents can be ‘matured-up’ by post-natal education since an individual’s personality and ability can be uniquely developed according to the context of his or her education and willpower”*.

Later in 1997, Gorman et al. (1997) noted that *“most of the empirical studies surveyed indicated that entrepreneurship can be taught or at least encouraged by entrepreneurship education”*. Hence, an “entrepreneurial perspective” can be developed in individuals (Kuratko, 2005). At present, it is recognized by the majority of scholars that entrepreneurship can and should be taught. There is evidence that *“highly educated entrepreneurs experience higher growth levels and survival rates”* (Ellis et al., 2004).

Entrepreneurship policy is defined as measures undertaken to stimulate entrepreneurship in a region or country (Terjesen, 2015). It is worth to note that entrepreneurship policy has become central in government strategies all over the world. Fostering entrepreneurship is not only the case for developing and less developed countries. In 2013, the European Commission adopted the Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan to revolutionize the culture of entrepreneurship in the European Union. It aims *“to ease the creation of new businesses and to create a much more supportive environment for existing entrepreneurs to thrive and grow”*. The main objective of the European Commission is *“to promote entrepreneurship education and stress its importance at all levels from primary school to university and beyond”* (European Commission, 2013).

Among the three areas for immediate intervention identified by the Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan are: 1) entrepreneurial education and training to support growth and business creation; 2) removing existing administrative barriers and supporting entrepreneurs in crucial phases of the business lifecycle; and 3) reigniting the culture of entrepreneurship in Europe and nurturing the new generation of entrepreneurs (European Commission, 2013). Hence,

entrepreneurship education continues to be an important strategic objective in Europe.

According to this strategic document, the key issues and challenges for entrepreneurship education in the EU include: good strategy at policy level; training of teachers; and assessment of entrepreneurial skills learnt by young people (European Commission, 2013). It is obvious that all three issues directly refer to public policy and entrepreneurship education.

The European Commission identifies entrepreneurship education as education that *“prepares people to be responsible and enterprising individuals. It helps people develop the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to achieve the goals they set out for themselves. Evidence also shows that people with entrepreneurial education are more employable”* (European Commission, 2013).

Kuratko (2005) mentioned that entrepreneurship activities at universities should pay attention to three main areas: entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurship research, and cooperation with entrepreneurs. In his study, Liñán (2004) suggested four different types of entrepreneurship education: 1) education for awareness; 2) education for start-up; 3) entrepreneurial dynamism; and 4) continuing education for existing entrepreneurs. Some scholars suggest that entrepreneurship education needs new approaches to teaching (Hwang et al., 2008). Chairam et al. (2009) argued for the need *“to move away from traditional passive learning styles towards more ‘constructionist perspectives’ that focus on entrepreneur’s ‘centred learning’*. In other words, *learning through experience and reflection should have greater priority than the methods and teaching styles that have been traditionally employed in the past”*. Munoz et al. (2008) suggest that *“passive learning methods will ultimately not develop critical thinking and communications skills that are a pre-requisite for success, not just in entrepreneurship, but also in the wider business world”*.

OVERVIEW OF THE CURRENT SITUATION IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN KAZAKHSTAN

The role of entrepreneurship education has been steadily increasing along with the entrepreneurial activity and the growing influence of human capital. In recent years the entrepreneurship climate in Kazakhstan has been positively evaluat-

ed. According to the Global Competiveness Report (2016–2017), Kazakhstan has improved its position to rank 53 this year (out of 138); (World Economic Forum, 2016-2017). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2016–2017 (GEM) on Kazakhstan demonstrates satisfactory results in such settings as the status of entrepreneurs in society (9th place out of 61), job expectation (10th place out of 60), the level of entrepreneurial activity (34th place out of 64) and the choice of entrepreneurship as a good career (10th place out of 61). The level of early-stage entrepreneurial activity in the country is 10.2 %, which is comparatively good (GEM, 2016–2017). According to the World Bank Doing Business Report, Kazakhstan has climbed 16 positions since 2015, reaching the 35th place in the ranking of the ease of doing business among 190 countries (World Bank, 2017).

These positive changes would not have been possible without the development of entrepreneurship education, which is a new field for the country. In fact, business education in post-Soviet countries like Kazakhstan appeared only in the 1990s. That was due to the transition from planned to market economy after the collapse of the Soviet Union. It took time to change peoples' mindset and eradicate the negative image of an entrepreneur (during the Soviet period the words “business” and “entrepreneur” were associated with speculation and usury). According to GEM experts, today Kazakhstani people perceive entrepreneurs as successful businessmen who make a significant contribution to the economic and social development of the country. Entrepreneurship is increasingly seen by young people as a worthy career choice. Almost half of Kazakhstan's population has intentions to start a business (GEM, 2016–2017).

Today entrepreneurship programmes in Kazakhstan are provided by vocational colleges, economic universities, business schools, the DAMU Entrepreneurship Development Fund (an investment company which is a subsidiary of Baiterek corporation operating as an SME development fund), private training companies and entrepreneurship development centres that offer short-term business courses. Starting from 2016, the National Chamber of Entrepreneurs (NCE) offers entrepreneurship training programme “Business Bastau” and “Business Kasip” to foster new business creation. Within the framework of the Business Road Map 2020, two projects “Business Advisor” and “Business Growth” have been developed to train people in business fundamentals. Apart from this, the National

Chamber of Entrepreneurs implements the online training project “Atameken Business Academy”. In addition, a methodological centre for training business trainers has been established under the support of NCE (Atameken, 2016).

Thus, there is a clear recognition of the importance of entrepreneurship by the government. The National Plan “100 Steps for the Five Institutional Reforms” suggests a comprehensive development of entrepreneurship and expansion of employment along with a comprehensive transformation of public administration (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2015).

In the President’s address to the people of Kazakhstan, “The Third Modernization of Kazakhstan: Global Competitiveness”, modernization of the labour market has been identified as one of the main priority objectives (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2017a). In 2017, in order to ensure productive employment and improvement of the labour market, the government launched “The Programme of Productive Employment and Mass Entrepreneurship”. The programme suggests creation of an effective system of training professional skills demanded by the labour market and the development of mass entrepreneurship. Among the 10 steps of entrepreneurship development announced by the National Chamber of Entrepreneurs, the 2nd step suggests a mass-scale training of people in the basics of business that implies the development of entrepreneurship education (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2017b).

Thus, along with the recognition of the importance of entrepreneurship, there is a clear understanding of the need of entrepreneurship education. As evidence of the recent developments in this field, the Association of Entrepreneurship Education has been created under the support of the National Chamber of Entrepreneurs in March 2017. Until now, 20 universities from different regions of Kazakhstan have joined the Association. The main purpose of the union is to foster entrepreneurship education through the development of effective partnerships with policy makers and the business sector (Atameken, 2017).

Despite some improvements of the business climate, an analysis of the current situation in the entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan revealed the existence of significant gaps. Educational programmes on entrepreneurship are taught fragmentarily. There is no integrated approach to the development of cohesive educational programmes from primary and secondary schools to postgraduate institutions. Training of business fundamentals within the projects “Business

Advisor” and “Business Growth” lasts only 2–5 days depending on topics. This format does not seem effective taking into account the unprepared audience, especially in rural places.

According to the National Report of the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, entrepreneurial education at the school level (primary and secondary schools) as well as in colleges and universities is not sufficient. Criticism was directed mainly at “*teaching economic principles, fostering entrepreneurial traits, focusing on new and growing firms in the curricular and preparing for entrepreneurship as a career*” (GEM Kazakhstan, 2015–2016).

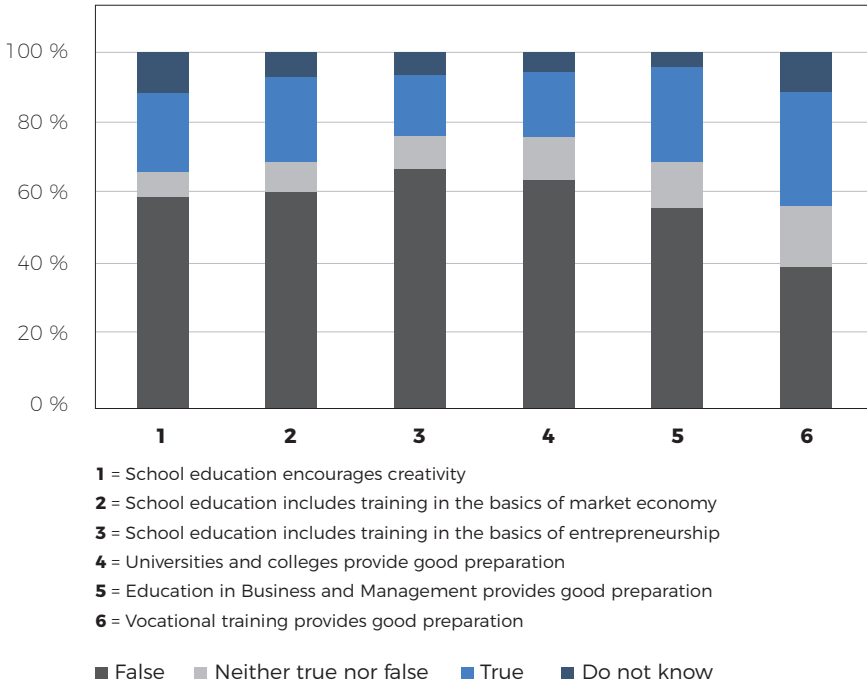
In contrast to primary, secondary and higher education, the situation in vocational schools (professional and technical colleges) was evaluated positively by experts. This is mostly because of the recent developments in the VET system: professional and technical colleges implement a dual education programme under the support of Kasipkor Holding; colleges work on new professional standards that have been developed together with employers.

Tab. 1 » Kazakhstan experts' assessment of entrepreneurial education and training

Assessment criteria	Average scores	Standard deviations
Teaching in primary and secondary education encourages creativity, self-sufficiency and personal initiative	3.81	2.61
Teaching in primary and secondary education provides adequate instruction in market economic principles	3.64	2.64
Teaching in primary and secondary education provides adequate attention to entrepreneurship and new firm creation	3.09	2.46
Colleges and universities provide good and adequate preparation for starting up and developing new firms	3.56	2.44
The level of business and management education provides good and adequate preparation for starting up and developing new firms	4.49	2.05
The vocational, professional and continuing educational systems provide good and adequate preparation for starting up and developing new firms	4.88	2.32

Source: GEM Kazakhstan (2015–2016)

Fig. 1 » Evaluation of education



Source: GEM Kazakhstan (2015–2016)

Among all educational levels, higher education plays the most important role since it is directly linked to research and innovation that is essential for start-ups and the creation of new businesses. The analysis of the state standard study plans in higher education reveals that “Entrepreneurship” has been taught as a compulsory course only in economic faculties on undergraduate level (Minister of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016). No university teaches a course on new venture creation except a few business schools that offer the course within their MBA programmes. It is worth noting that there is no major in Entrepreneurship; the state classifier of majors in higher and postgraduate education does not contain Entrepreneurship in the approved list of specializations. The course “Entrepreneurship” has been embedded into the study plan of the economics specialization. Thus, it is considered only a part of the economics specialization.

Professional standards in higher education are still in development. So far, no accreditation agency exists that would specifically focus on the evaluation of business education including entrepreneurship programmes. It can be argued that there is no proper policy in place towards the development of entrepreneurship education on higher education level. Meanwhile, higher education institutions in OECD countries “*have an important role in the improvement of entrepreneurship, being part of an entrepreneurial ecosystem with business and government*” (OECD, 2017).

As mentioned before, the business education sector in Kazakhstan is still in formation. Among the most recognized local business education providers belong the Almaty Management University, the Graduate School of Business at the Nazarbayev University, Narxoz University, KIMEP, the University of International Business (UIB). It should be noted that 80 % of business schools and private training companies are located in Almaty and Astana. A few business schools have representative offices in Aktobe, Pavlodar, Shymkent, Atyrau (Monobayeva, 2014). Thus, the other regions experience a shortage in entrepreneurship/business education.

Results of a recent research demonstrate that colleges, business schools and universities have weak and fragmented links with companies and business structures. Therefore, entrepreneurship education is not aligned with the needs of the labour market. According to the Report of the Atameken National Chamber of Entrepreneurs (Atameken, 2016), the existing system of training and assessment of personnel does not provide the local market with appropriate specialists. The research on formation of the “*regional entrepreneurship development maps*” conducted by the Atameken union among 6,250 entrepreneurs showed that 50 % of respondents often have difficulties with the recruitment of the right specialists. 41 % pointed out that none of the education institutions in their region train the required specialists. As a result, 59 % of all respondents indicated the need to re-train the hired staff. Thus, it is obvious that it is mostly related to a mismatch between human resources formation and the market needs.

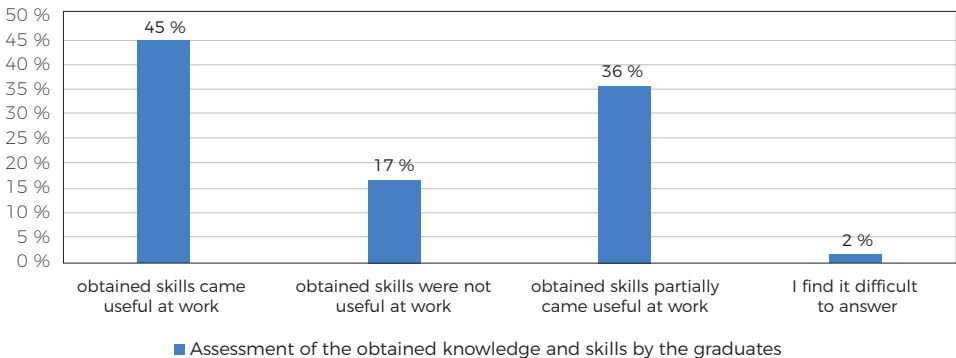
RESEARCH FINDINGS (ON EDUCATION)

To study the quality of entrepreneurship programmes, as part of the research, 50 graduates from colleges and 50 graduates with economic specializations from Kazakhstan universities, three deans of business schools and five directors and five business owners have been surveyed and interviewed. Questions to the graduates have been related to the extent of satisfaction with the obtained entrepreneurial skills; representatives of education and business communities have been asked mainly about partnership relations and regulation issues.

Among the survey participants were graduates of the Economic College as well as graduates from Bachelor degree programmes from Narxoz University, the University of International Business and the Almaty Management University. More than 50 % of the completed questionnaires have been received from the graduates at Narxoz University. In terms of gender, 58 % of the respondents were female; 41 % were male.

The results of the study revealed that only 45 % of employed graduates confirmed that the knowledge and skills obtained in college/university came useful at work. 36 % indicated that the obtained knowledge and skills came partially useful at work. 17 % indicated that the obtained knowledge and skills were not useful at work. 2 % indicated that they find it difficult to answer.

Fig. 2 » Assessment of the obtained knowledge and skills by the graduates



Source: Authors

It should be noted that in comparison with college graduates, not all university students find a job in their field of study after graduation. Concerning student

practical work, only 20 % of respondents positively assessed internships during their study at university; many students left the questions on internship without an answer.

Tab. 2 » Assessment of internship (practical work) by university graduates

#	The statement	Fully agree	Agree	Dis-agree	Com-pletely dis-agree	Other (please indicate)
1	The internship (practical work) has made it possible to successfully apply the acquired theoretical knowledge in practice	-	32 %	25 %	10 %	-
2	I have checked my professional competences during the practical work and found them sufficient	-	28 %	25 %	10 %	-
4	The internship in the company provided an opportunity to collect the relevant data for my diploma project	5 %	15 %	42 %	-	3 %
5	The internship confirmed the right choice of profession	-	20 %	18 %	-	-
6	I got the job opportunity	-	15 %	35 %	-	-
7	There was a good and friendly atmosphere during the practical work	-	35 %	38 %	-	5 %
8	The supervisor was very helpful during the internship	5 %	15 %	22 %	30 %	-
9	There was no discipline, students were left to themselves	-	35 %	20 %	-	-
10	In general, I positively evaluate the internship in company	5 %	20 %	38 %	-	-

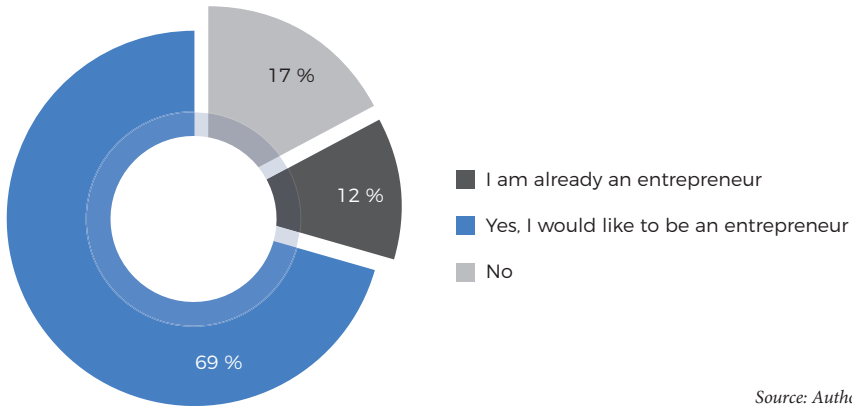
Source: Authors

Thus, there is a need to develop new approaches to both the organization and evaluation of student internships (practical work) in companies.

The answers to the question “Would you like to become an entrepreneur?” showed that at the time of filling out the questionnaire 12 % of the respondents were already entrepreneurs. One of the main trends that have been revealed by the survey is a very high level of interest and the willingness to develop

entrepreneurship: 69 % of the respondents indicated that they would like to become entrepreneurs at some stage in their career.

Fig. 3 » Planning of entrepreneurial career



Source: Authors

The results of interviews with company executives showed that employers are often not satisfied with the knowledge and skills university graduates possess and therefore they prefer to hire individuals who have practical work experience. Otherwise they have to re-train the university graduates. Hence, the student learning outcomes are not aligned with the needs of the labour market. In accordance with the OECD report on Higher Education in Kazakhstan (2017), “policy makers do not yet know whether graduate supply is well-aligned to labour market demand — these data do not yet exist” (OECD, 2017).

Cooperation between companies and universities has been evaluated differently by university deans and by top managers of companies. While in some cases universities are satisfied with the development of corporate links, companies express concern about the efficiency of collaboration that is mostly provided through student internships. Thus, universities and companies have weak and fragmented relations.

University deans pointed out the challenges in delivering business programmes within the framework of the existing legislation. The current state standards for higher and postgraduate education focus mostly on scientific and pedagogical field. Little attention is paid to business and entrepreneurship programmes. University deans argue that this is due to the lack of a holistic concept of

entrepreneurship education and the imperfect legislation in this field. It is also for this reason that partnership relations between academia and business are weak and ineffective. This fact suggests the need to reconsider the approaches to developing proper legislation for higher education.

Although the majority of employers expressed dissatisfaction with university collaboration, the results of interviews revealed that there is a full understanding of the need for strengthening partnership relations both with educational providers and the state. All of the executives surveyed agreed that the professional programmes and curricula should be assessed by experts — practitioners in order to comply with the job market needs. Employers are ready to participate in advisory councils for quality assessment in education institutions as well as in the development of professional standards and competencies if there are motivation incentives. So far, they do not have enough motivation to do that.

The research findings demonstrate that both business and academia have a clear understanding of the need to create strong partnership relations in order to improve entrepreneurship education.

In answering the question “What are the main factors that constrain the development of entrepreneurship education?” most respondents indicated insufficient funding, inadequate legislation in business education and a lack of government support. It is obvious that in this situation entrepreneurship education needs government support. As Ischina (2001) argued, “*in the production of education, market mechanisms have a limited capacity, and the crucial role is played by the state (government)*”. Underestimating the importance of government regulation of entrepreneurship education would entail serious consequences and may pose a threat to the national economy.

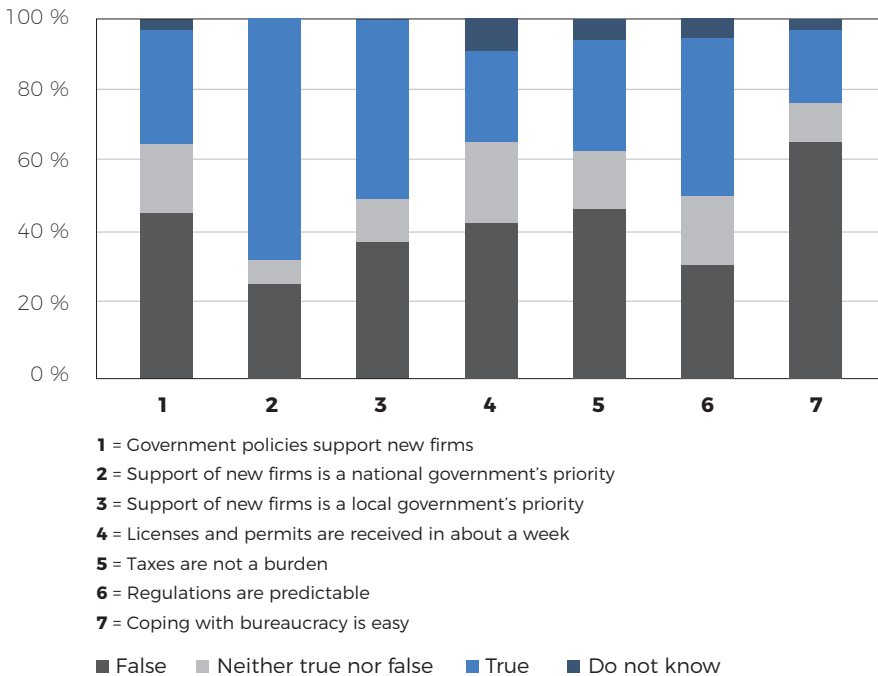
RESEARCH FINDINGS (ON PUBLIC POLICY)

Kazakhstan government fully recognizes the importance of entrepreneurship. Development of entrepreneurship is one of the main priorities of the current state policy. As mentioned in the previous sections, the Nation Plan “100 Steps for the Five Institutional Reforms” suggests a comprehensive development of entrepreneurship (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2015). One of the latest initiatives of the government was the launch of the Program of Productive

Employment and Mass Entrepreneurship (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2017b). Hence, it is critical to develop entrepreneurship education to produce skills that are relevant to the economy and the society.

Despite some improvements in the business climate achieved in recent years, an analysis of the current situation, conducted by an expert team for the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor report, revealed significant gaps in government entrepreneurship policy. Thus, according to the National Report for Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2016), *“the experts were mostly negative in assessing the difficulty of dealing with government regulations, red tape and licensing requirements for new and growing firms”*. Experts indicated a low support of entrepreneurship at the local level in comparison with the support at the national level. They were also critical of the *“time it takes new and growing firms to obtain permits and licenses, and attention to new firms in such concrete matters as public procurement”* (GEM Kazakhstan, 2015–2016).

Fig. 4 » Evaluation of government policy

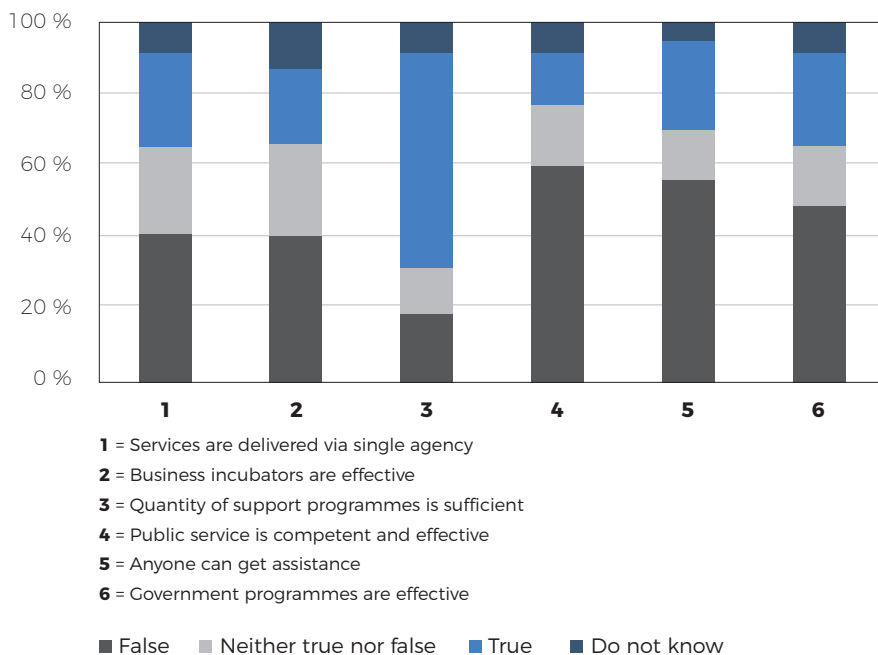


Source: GEM Kazakhstan (2015–2016)

It is obvious that urgent measures have to be undertaken to reduce red tape and to improve government regulations. It is also important to provide support of new firms on the local level and eliminate bureaucracy.

Results of the evaluation of governmental programmes for entrepreneurs showed that most experts positively note the number of government programmes for entrepreneurs. At the same time, they were critical of such programmes' effectiveness (GEM Kazakhstan, 2015–2016).

Fig. 5 » Evaluation of government support programmes



Source: GEM Kazakhstan (2015–2016)

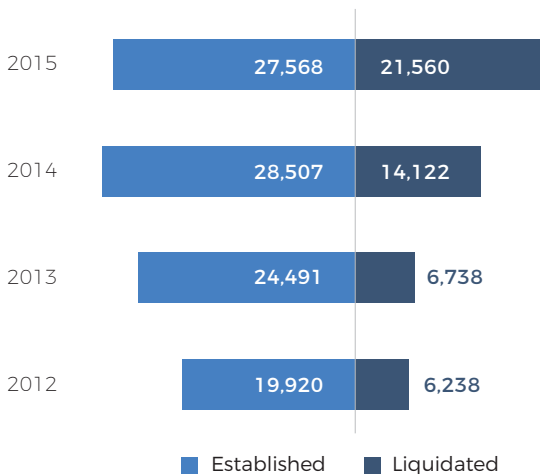
To ensure the effectiveness of governmental programmes it is necessary to reconsider approaches to coordination and assessment of programmes targeting new and growing firms, as well as to provide more support for both established and growing firms. It should be noted that “most experts were sceptical about the competency level and efficiency of government agencies’ staff members and the ability

of any nascent entrepreneur to get support from government programmes” (GEM Kazakhstan, 2015–2016). Therefore, it is critical to create ways to assess the competence and effectiveness of government agencies’ staff members.

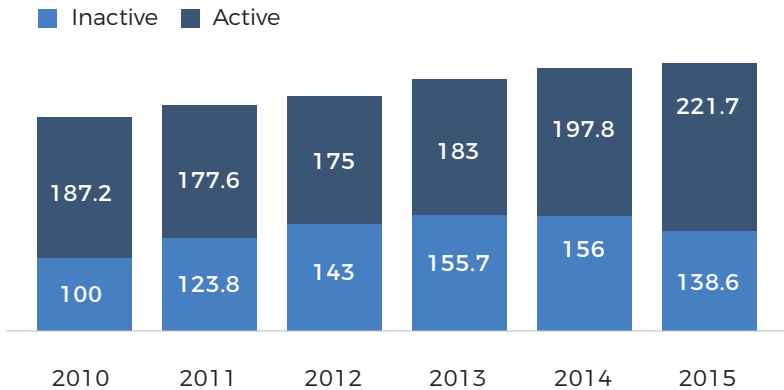
Insufficient government policy unfavourably affects the development of entrepreneurship.

To date, the lack of the relevant entrepreneurial skills affects creating and sustaining new businesses. The existing statistical data shows that the survival rate of newly established SMEs is rather low. For example, the number of registered legal entities in Kazakhstan as of 1 January 2016 was 360,287 (enterprises of various sizes and forms of ownership), number of operating entities — 191,520 companies (53.2 %). Thus, half of the registered businesses cease to function (Steblyakova, 2016). This corresponds to some extent to the statement of Roomi et al. (2009), who argued that in life-cycle approach “growth is a very complex process and is just as likely in mature firms as in new firms”. In fact, many new SMEs in Kazakhstan do not move from the early growth phase to the next stages. It is unsurprising that 75.4 % of Kazakhstan’s respondents in the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor report a fear of failure. Thus, three quarters of the working population who wish to start a business, do not do so because of the fear of failure of the future endeavours (GEM, 2016–2017).

Fig. 6 » The number of established and liquidated companies



Source: Atameken (2016)

Fig. 7 » The number of registered companies, in thousands

Source: Atameken (2016)

Research findings and experts' report suggest that urgent measures should be taken to improve the situation of the state entrepreneurship policy. Thus, the results of the study revealed the existence of significant gaps in government regulation that affect the education outcomes and insufficient cooperation between education providers and business. Research findings identified the need to develop a concept of entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan, as well as to bring together government, business and education institutions to ensure that entrepreneurial programmes and student learning outcomes meet the requirements of the labour market. In other words, there is a need to reconsider the public policy in entrepreneurship education.

DISCUSSION

Kazakhstan government fully recognizes the importance of entrepreneurship. The development of entrepreneurship is one of the main priorities of the current state policy. As mentioned in the previous sections, the Nation Plan “100 Steps for the Five Institutional Reforms” suggests comprehensive development of entrepreneurship (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2015). One of the latest initiatives of the government was the launch of the Program of Productive Employment and Mass Entrepreneurship (Government of the Republic of Kazakhstan, 2017). Entrepreneurship is considered to be a driving force in achieving the goal to become one of the 30 most developed economies by 2050. To reach this goal, the country needs to meet the OECD standards. One of the key indicators is the achievement of a 50 % share of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in GDP by 2050 (the current indicator is 26.2 %). Employee labour productivity needs to be at least double (Atameken, 2016). It is obvious that in order to achieve these goals the country needs entrepreneurial skills. Hence, the development of entrepreneurship education is crucial.

As noted in previous sections, entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan is currently in the development stage. There is no holistic approach to the development of a cohesive educational programme on Entrepreneurship. It stems from the lack of entrepreneurship schools, departments and chairs. Meanwhile, the Summary Report on Entrepreneurship in emerging economies suggests: *“Schools of entrepreneurship are urgently needed; they should be established and organized as areas of knowledge, the same way as there are schools or institutes of finance, marketing, and so on. The existence of such schools would give academic legitimacy to this new field of study — ENTREPRENEURSHIP — and would be the source of information and education for future graduates. In addition to teaching and research, these schools would be in charge of promoting a business culture within the university and of making good use of the university’s abundant scientific-technical knowledge for the creation of new enterprises”* (Kantis et al., 2002).

We can argue that it is critical to develop a comprehensive system of entrepreneurship education. New approaches toward entrepreneurship education should be developed by the Ministry of Education and Science together

with the newly established Association of Entrepreneurship Education. It is important to involve the business community in the development of curricula, to bring entrepreneurs to the classroom to talk about their experience, to develop new courses and to do research in this field. It is also important “to prepare for entrepreneurship early on starting with primary school. Moreover, entrepreneurial education should be coordinated so that students would be able to gain knowledge about entrepreneurship and introduction to entrepreneurial activities in a step-by-step way, with emphasis placed both on entrepreneurship theory and practice” (GEM Kazakhstan, 2015–2016).

Despite some improvements in the business climate in recent years, still a lot has to be done by the government. As Hada (2016) noted, “from hand holding to monetary support, a lot of measures need to be taken by the regulators to encourage Entrepreneurship”. Among the possible measures, first of all, it is important to create an entrepreneurial ecosystem where government plays an essential role along with education and industrial sector (Mazzarol, 2014).

Some scholars argue that creating entrepreneurial ecosystem creates challenges for policy-makers (Mason, 2016). According to Fiona Murray, there are two logical approaches to create an entrepreneurship ecosystem: the governmental logic that suggests “special inputs such as technology parks and innovation centers to promote the development of the ecosystem, and the logic entirely based on the people and their personal networks” (Regalado, 2013). Thus, the government has to find the right balance to support an environment for both high growth firms and small businesses (Fuerlinger, 2015).

Mason (2016) argues that “entrepreneurial ecosystems are based on pre-existing assets and [are] not just a tool for high-tech industries. Traditional industries like food and drink, energy, logistics, water industry, manufacturing all provide the platform to create dynamic, high-value added entrepreneurial ecosystems”. In the context of Kazakhstan, it can be argued that the government contributes to the creation of pre-conditions for the emergence of entrepreneurial ecosystems. The recent initiatives mentioned in the previous section might be considered as a prerequisite for entrepreneurial ecosystems.

It is critical that state entrepreneurial policies are reviewed over time. The western experience shows that as the ecosystem evolves, the degree of government

intervention changes. “For example, at the emergence stage the emphasis may need to be on supporting the start-up processes, but as the ecosystem matures the need to help firms with organizational development, human capital development, internationalization support and access to growth capital will increase” (Mason, 2014). Otherwise, the lack of government support may cause negative results. Perhaps it is for this reason that many established companies in Kazakhstan do not move from the early growth phase to the next stages.

As Fuerlinger (2015) argues, “despite being increasingly central to modern business, entrepreneurship ecosystems are yet not well understood”. This assumption can be applied to the current situation in Kazakhstan.

In our opinion, the challenges that the government faces in the development of entrepreneurship are caused mainly by insufficient governance and the lack of proper interactions of all actors including business, education, civil society and the government. It is the government’s responsibility to facilitate this interaction.

An analysis of the existing publications on entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial education in OECD countries shows that the public entrepreneurship policy in most advanced economies is based on the principles of the New Public Management and Good Governance. Barry (2011) argues that Good Governance fosters entrepreneurship. As networks are the most common form of governance, Good Governance is often called Network Governance. The concept of Network Governance suggests a shift from the vertical (hierarchical) governance schemes to the horizontal ones. It also suggests close partnership and interaction between state and local governments, business and non-governmental organizations, education providers and civil society. Strategic management of the network is based on the principle of co-participation and teamwork activities.

In the context of the introduction of concepts of the New Public Management and Governance within the framework of an administrative reform in Kazakhstan, it has become possible to develop a conceptual model of government regulation of entrepreneurship education based on principles of Network Governance. Networks and partnerships enable entrepreneurial actors to interact more efficiently. The use of partnership principles enables each party to effectively use the available resources, and to strengthen positions of all stakeholders. As Benson-Rea and Wilson (2000) argue, “the major objective in forming networks is

access to resources and cost minimization hence growth enhancement". The need in Network Governance is caused by such factors as limited budgetary funds for the implementation of social projects and programmes, the consequences of devaluation, the need to attract extra-budgetary sources of funding and to provide motivational incentives for private sector. In the same way Taylor (2004) has argued that "[e]ncouraging entrepreneurship networks dedicated to inclusive entrepreneurship and promoting entrepreneurship as a mean of self-employment and employment could lead to more rapidly 'exit the crisis' and regional economies recovery".

The characteristics of networks and partnerships suggest that the government (public sector authority) is not a dominant party but an equal partner in achieving common socially significant goals. It is usually the government and business that are considered the main two parties in any partnerships. However, taking into account the key role of universities as the main instrument of government policy in the field of education, and of society as the major consumer of business education services, it is reasonable to include these categories among the major actors in entrepreneurship networks. Networks and partnerships provide effective ways for support, further research and development, and involvement of employers in the education process.

Ha et al. (2016) argues that at the macro level, it is important for policy makers to ensure supportive environment and create proper conditions for entrepreneurs to set up new businesses. Therefore, "*being knowledgeable of institutional hindrances to business start-up can help them not only understand the current situation, but also come up with policy measures in order to keep their countries' entrepreneurship development on the right track*". In this regard, some researchers argue that "*governance plays a critical role in making that happen*" (Bjørnskov, 2008; Friedman, 2011). Governments can take a variety of actions that favour entrepreneurial activities by increasing the quality of governance. In building sustainable ecosystem, effective network governance is critical to ensure the proper interactions of all entrepreneurial actors.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the research suggest that entrepreneurship education in Kazakhstan needs government support. To eliminate the existing gaps and overcome the challenges, it is critical to develop a conceptual model of government regulation of entrepreneurship education.

This study recommends an approach based on Network Governance. Implementation of principles of Network Governance is intended to bring together all stakeholders, including state and local government, education and business, to create an effective entrepreneurial ecosystem.

Entrepreneurship education is essential to the economic growth of any country. Therefore, it can be argued that the development and improvement of this sector serves the national interests and economic security.

Problems in entrepreneurship education require in-depth study and theoretical comprehension. The study calls for further research to identify relevant management strategies that can be applied in government regulation.

REFERENCES

- MONOBAYEVA, A. (2014). Development of Business Education in the Republic of Kazakhstan: Challenges and Solutions (in Russian). *KazNU Bulletin*, 102(2), pp. 120–129. ISSN 1563-0307.
- AARIKKA-STENROOS, L., B. SANDBERG & T. LEHTIMÄKI (2014). Networks for the Commercialization of Innovations: A Review of How Divergent Network Actors Contribute. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 43(3), pp. 365–381. ISSN 0019-8501.
- ACS, Z. J. & L. SZERB (2007). Entrepreneurship, Economic Growth and Public Policy. *Small Business Economics*, 28(2–3), pp. 109–122. ISSN 0921-898X.
- ACS, Z. J. & P. BRAUNNERHJELM (2009). The Knowledge Spillover Theory of Entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, 32(1), pp. 15–30. ISSN 0921-898X.
- ALDRICH, H. E. (2012). The Emergence of Entrepreneurship as an Academic Field: A Personal Essay on Institutional Entrepreneurship. *Research Policy*, 41(7), pp. 1240–1248. ISSN 0048-7333.

ASSENS, C. & A. C. LEMEUR (2016). *Networks Governance, Partnership Management and Coalitions Federation*. London: Palgrave Macmillan. ISBN 978-1-349-84981-9.

ATAMEKEN (2016). National Report on the Position of Entrepreneurial Activity in the Republic of Kazakhstan. In: *atameken.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: <http://atameken.kz/uploads/content/files/Национальный%20доклад.pdf>

ATAMEKEN (2017). Kazakh Association of Entrepreneur Education. In: *atameken.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: <http://atameken.kz/ru/projects/25811-atameken-alaynda-aza-kspkerlk-blm-beru-auymdasty-ryldy>

BELITSKI, M. (2017). Entrepreneurial Dynamics and Higher Education Institutions in the Post-Communist World. *Regional Studies*, 51(3), pp. 439–453. ISSN 0034-3404.

BELITSKI, M. & K. HERON (2017). Expanding Entrepreneurship Education Ecosystems. *Journal of Management Development*, 36(2), pp. 163–177. ISSN 0262-1711.

BENSON-REA, M. & H. I. M. Wilson (2000). Performance and the Life-Cycle of the Firm and its Networks. In: *citeseerx.ist.psu.edu* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.203.5681&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

BJØRNSKOV, C. & N. FOSS (2008). Economic Freedom and Entrepreneurial Activity: Some Cross-Country Evidence. *Public Choice*, 134(3), pp. 307–328. ISSN 0048-5829.

CANTILLON, R. (1959). *Essay on the Nature of Trade in General*. London: Frank Cass and Co., Ltd.

CARAYANNIS, E. G. & M. VON ZEDTWITZ (2005-02). Architecting GloCal (Global-Local), Real-Virtual Incubator Networks (G-RVINs) as Catalysts and Accelerators of Entrepreneurship in Transitioning and Developing Economies: Lessons Learned and Best Practices from Current Development and Business Incubation Practices. *Technovation*, 25(2), pp. 95–110. ISSN 0166-4972.

CARNIER, T. A. (1996). A Perspective on Entrepreneurship. *Harvard Business Review*, pp. 103–108. ISSN 0017-8012.

CARVALHO, D., T. COSTA & P. DOMINGUINHOS (2010). Creating an Entrepreneurship Ecosystem in Higher Education. In: *researchgate.net*

[online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/221908171_Creating_an_Entrepreneurship_Ecosystem_in_Higher_Education
CORSAO, D., C. CANTÙ & A. TUNISINI (2012). Actors' Heterogeneity in Innovation Networks. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 41(5), pp. 780–789. ISSN 0019-8501.

DODESCU, A. & I. POP-COHUT (2012). Network Governance and Supporting Entrepreneurship Case Study: Regional Entrepreneurship Network in North-West and West Regions of Romania. In: POLITIS, J. (Ed.). *Proceedings of the 8th European Conference on Management Leadership and Governance*. Reading: Academic Publishing International Limited, pp. 136–140. ISBN 978-1-908272-75-1.

DRUCKER, P. (1985). *Innovation and Entrepreneurship, Practice and Principles*. New York: Harper & Row Publisher.

ELLIS, R. (2004-06). The Definition and Measurement of L2 Explicit Knowledge. *Language Learning*, 54(2), pp. 227–275. ISSN 1467-9922.

ESTRIN, S. & T. MICKIEWICZ (2011). Entrepreneurship in Transition Economies: The Role of Institutions and Generational Change. In: MINNITI, M. (Ed.). *The Dynamics of Entrepreneurship*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 293–338. ISBN 978-0-199580-86-6.

ETZKOWITZ, H. & L. LEYDESDORFF (2000). The Dynamics of Innovation: From National Systems and “Mode 2” to a Triple Helix of University–Industry–Government Relations. *Research Policy*, 29(2), pp. 109–123. ISSN 0048-7333.

EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2013). Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan. In: ec.europa.eu [online]. [cit. 2017-06-13]. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/promoting-entrepreneurship/action-plan_en

FRADLEY, K., I. TROSHANI, G. RAMPERSAD & P. DE IONNO (2012). An Organizing Vision Perspective on Green IS Development. In: aisel.aisnet.org [online]. [cit. 2017-06-13]. Available at: <https://aisel.aisnet.org/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1063&context=icis2012>

FRIEDMAN, B. A. (2011). The Relationship between Governance Effectiveness and Entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(17), pp. 221–225. ISSN 2220-8488.

FUERLINGER, G., U. FANGL & T. FUNKE (2015-12). The role of the State in the Entrepreneurship Ecosystem: Insights from Germany. In: link.springer.com

[online]. [cit. 2017-06-09]. Available at: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s40604-014-0015-9>

GARTNER, W. B. (1985). A Conceptual Framework for Describing the Phenomenon of New Venture Creation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 10(4), pp. 696–706. ISSN 0363-7425.

GARTNER, W. B. (1989). Who Is an Entrepreneur? Is the Wrong Question. *American Journal of Small Business*, 12(4), pp. 11–22. ISSN 0363-9428.

GEM (2016–2017). Global Report 2016–2017. In: *gemconsortium.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-14]. Available at: <http://www.gemconsortium.org/report/49812>

GEM KAZAKHSTAN (2015–2016). National Report 2015–2016. In: *gemconsortium.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-15]. Available at: <https://www.gemconsortium.org/country-profile/77>

GILBERT, B. A., D. B. AUDRETSCH & P. P. MCDUGALL (2004). The Emergence of Entrepreneurship Policy. *Small Business Economics*, 22(3–4), pp. 313–323. ISSN 0921-898X.

GORMAN, G., D. HANLON & W. KING (1997). Some Research Perspectives on Entrepreneurship Education, Enterprise Education and Education for Small Business Management: A Ten-Year Literature Review. *International Small Business Journal*, 15(3), pp. 56–77. ISSN 0266-2426.

GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN (2015). National Plan: 100 Steps for the Five Institutional Reforms. In: *online.zakon.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-12]. Available at: https://online.zakon.kz/document/?doc_id=31977084

GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN (2017a). Address of Kazakhstan President to the Nation “The Third Modernization of Kazakhstan: Global Competitiveness”. In: *akorda.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-12] Available at: http://www.akorda.kz/kz/addresses/addresses_of_president/memleket-basshy-sy-nnazarbaevty-n-kazakstan-halkyna-zholdauy-2017-zhylgy-31-kantar

GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN (2017b). Program of Productive Employment and Mass Entrepreneurship (in Russian). In: *prz.enbek.gov.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-13]. Available at: <https://prz.enbek.gov.kz/ru/node/8>

HA, T. T., N. N. CHAU & N. T. HIEU (2016). The Impact of Governance on Entrepreneurship Development in ASEAN+1 Countries: Evidence from World

Bank Datasets. *Modern Economy*, 7(5), pp. 515–525. ISSN 2152-7245.

HADA, M. (2016). Role of the Government in Supporting Entrepreneurship. In: *linkedin.com* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-14]. Available at: <https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/role-government-supporting-entrepreneurship-manish-hada>

HIGGINS, D. & C. ELLIOT (2011). Learning to Make Sense: What Works in Entrepreneurial Education? *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 35(4), pp. 345–367. ISSN 0309-0590.

HWANG, N. C. R., G. LUI & M. Y. J. W. TONG (2008). Cooperative Learning in a Passive Learning Environment: A Replication and Extension. *Issues in Accounting Education*, 23(1), pp. 67–75. ISSN 0739-3172.

ISCHINA, I. (2001). Economical Foundations of Education in the Russian Society. In: *dissercat.com* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-09]. Available at: <http://www.dissercat.com/content/ekonomicheskie-osnovy-funktsionirovaniya-obrazovaniya-v-rossiiskom-obshchestve>

ISENBERG, D. (2011). The Entrepreneurship Ecosystem Strategy as a New Paradigm for Economic Policy: Principles for Cultivating Entrepreneurship. In: *entrepreneurial-revolution.com* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-09]. Available at: <http://entrepreneurial-revolution.com/2011/05/11/the-entrepreneurship-ecosystem-strategy-as-a-new-paradigm-for-economic-policy-principles-for-cultivating-entrepreneurship/>

JONES, C. & W. HESTERLY (1997). A General Theory of Network Governance: Exchange Conditions and Social Mechanisms. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(4), pp. 911–945. ISSN 0363-7425.

KANTIS, H. et al. (2002). Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies: The Creation and Development of New Firms in Latin America and East Asia. In: *uv.es* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-09]. Available at: <https://www.uv.es/motiva/MotivaRES/LeivaLibroBIDEntrepreneurship.pdf>

KANTIS, H. D. & J. FEDERICO (2011). Entrepreneurial Ecosystems in Latin America: The Role of Policies. In: *researchgate.net* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-09]. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265312887_Entrepreneurial_Ecosystems_in_Latin_America_the_role_of_policies

KHALEGHIFAR, M. et al. (2015). Investigating the Effect of Good Governance on Entrepreneurs' Economic Activity (In Hamadan Province). *International*

- Journal of Basic Sciences & Applied Research*, 4(9), pp. 542–553. ISSN 2147-3749.
- KIESNER, F. (2009). *Creating Entrepreneurs: Making Miracles Happen*. London: World Scientific Publishing Company. ISBN 978-98-1426-111-1.
- KREISER, P. M., L. D. MARINO, P. DICKSON & K. M. WEAVER (2010). Cultural Influences on Entrepreneurial Orientation: The Impact of National Culture on Risk Taking and Proactiveness in SMEs. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 34(5), pp. 959–983. ISSN 1540-6520.
- KURATKO, D. F. (2005). The Emergence of Entrepreneurship Education: Development, Trends, and Challenges. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(5), pp. 577–598. ISSN 1540-6520.
- LIÑÁN-ALCALDE, F. & J. C. RODRÍGUEZ-COHARD (2004). Entrepreneurial Attitudes of Andalusian University Students. In: *sre.wu.ac.at* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-12]. Available at: <http://www-sre.wu.ac.at/ersa/ersaconfs/ersa04/PDF/161.pdf>
- LITAN, R., W. J. BAUMOL & C. J. SCHRAMM (2007). *Good Capitalism, Bad Capitalism and the Economics of Growth and Prosperity*. New Haven & London: Yale University Press. ISBN 978-0-300-10941-2.
- MASON, C. & R. BROWN (2013). Creating Good Public Policy to Support High Growth Firms. *Small Business Economics*, 40(2), pp. 211–225. ISSN 0921-898X.
- MASON, C. & R. BROWN (2014). Entrepreneurial Ecosystems and Growth Oriented Entrepreneurship. In: *oecd.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-13]. Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/leed/Entrepreneurial-ecosystems.pdf>
- MATLAY, H. (2009). Entrepreneurship Education in the UK: A Critical Analysis of Stakeholder Involvement and Expectations. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 16(2), pp. 355–368. ISSN 1462-6004.
- MAZZAROL, T. (2014). Growing and Sustaining Entrepreneurial Ecosystems: What They Are and the Role of Government Policy. In: *iicie.com* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-22]. Available at: http://www.iicie.com/uploads/White-Paper/1463661660SEAAZ_WP_01_2014_Mazzarol.pdf
- MINISTER OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF THE REPUBLIC OF KAZAKHSTAN (2016). Standard Plan. State Standard Study Plan on Higher Education. In: *adilet.zan.kz* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-22]. Available at: <http://adilet.zan.kz/rus/docs/V1600014092>
- MINNITI, M. (2008). The Role of Government Policy on Entrepreneurial

Activity: Productive, Unproductive, or Destructive? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 32(5), pp. 779–790. ISSN 1540-6520.

MINTZBERG, H. (2004). *Managers Not MBAs: A Hard Look at the Soft Practice of Managing and Management Development*. Harlow: Prentice Hall. ISBN 978-0-273-66324-9.

MORRISON, A. (2000). Entrepreneurship: What Triggers It? *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 6(2), pp. 59–71. ISSN 1355-2554.

MUNOZ, C. & A. HUSER (2008). Experiential and Cooperative Learning: Using a Situation Analysis Project in Principles of Marketing. *Journal of Education for Business*, 83(4), pp. 214–220. ISSN 0883-2323.

OECD (2017). Higher Education in Kazakhstan 2017. In: *read.oecd-ilibrary.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-16]. Available at: https://read.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/higher-education-in-kazakhstan-2017_9789264268531-en#page1

POWELL, W. (1990). Neither Market nor Hierarchy: Network Forms of Organizations. In: STAW, B. M. (Ed.). *Research in Organizational Behaviour*, 12. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, pp. 295–336. ISBN 1-55938-029-2.

PROVAN, K. G. & P. KENIS (2008). Modes of Network Governance: Structure, Management, and Effectiveness. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 18(2), pp. 229–252. ISSN 1053-1858.

RAMPERSAD, G. (2016). Entrepreneurial Ecosystems: A Governance Perspective Article. *Journal of Research in Business, Economics and Management*, 7(3), pp. 1122–1134. ISSN 2395-2210.

RAMPERSAD, G., P. QUESTER & I. TROSHANI (2009). Developing and Evaluating Scales to Assess Innovation Networks. *International Journal of Technology Intelligence and Planning*, 5(4), pp. 402–420. ISSN 1740-2832.

RATTEN, V., J. FERREIRA & C. FERNANDES (2016). Entrepreneurial and Network Knowledge in Emerging Economies: A Study of the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. *Review of International Business and Strategy*, 26(3), pp. 392–409. ISSN 2059-6014.

REGALADO, A. (2013). In Innovation Quest, Regions Seek Critical Mass. In: *technologyreview.com* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-04]. Available at: <https://www.technologyreview.com/s/516501/in-innovation-quest-regions-seek-critical-mass/>

ROOMI, M. A., P. HARRISON & J. BEAUMONT-KERRIDGE (2009). Women-Owned Small and Medium Enterprises in England: Analysis of Factors Influencing the Growth Process. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 16(2), pp. 270–288. ISSN 1462-6004.

SCHUMPETER, J. A. (1934). *The Theory of Economic Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

SHANE, S. (2003). *A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-Opportunity Nexus*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing. ISBN 978-1-781-00799-0.

SHANE, S. & S. VENKATARAMAN (2000). The Promise of Entrepreneurship as a Field of Research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), pp. 217–226. ISSN 0363-7425.

SOBEL, R. S. (2008). Testing Baumol: Institutional Quality and the Productivity of Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 23(6), pp. 641–655. ISSN 0883-9026.

STEBLYAKOVA, L. (2016). Implementation of the Concept of Entrepreneurship Education as a Necessary Condition for the Fulfilment of the State Program on Industrial and Innovative Development. In: *Proceedings of the International Scientific-Practical Conference “Science Integration, Education and Production — Basis of the Implementation of the Plan of the Nation”*. Karaganda: Karaganda State Technical University. ISBN 978-601-315-131-1.

TAUSL PROCHAZKOVA, P. (2015). Various Perspectives on Entrepreneurship Education: Emerging Trends in Entrepreneurship Support. *Trendy v podnikání*, 5(2), pp. 28–36. ISSN 1805-0603.

TAYLOR, D. W. & R. THORPE (2004). Entrepreneurial Learning: A Process of Co-Participation. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 11(2), pp. 203–211. ISSN 1462-6004.

TERJESEN, S., N. BOSMA & E. STAM (2015). Advancing Public Policy for High-Growth, Female, and Social Entrepreneurs. *Public Administration Review*, 76(2), pp. 230–239. ISSN 1540-6210.

THAI, M. & E. TURKINA (2014). Macro-Level Determinants of Formal Entrepreneurship versus Informal Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 29(4), pp. 490–510. ISSN 0883-9026.

- TROSHANI, I., G. RAMPERSAD & N. WICKRAMASINGHE (2011). Cloud Nine? An Integrative Risk Management Framework for Cloud Computing. In: *pdfs.semanticscholar.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-17]. Available at: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/eb37/de0170ede16852c5184538816ed5cf00dbce.pdf>
- VARBLANE, U. & T. METS (2010). Entrepreneurship Education in the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) of Post-Communist European Countries. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 4(3), pp. 204–219. ISSN 1750-6204.
- WORLD BANK (2017). Doing Business 2017. A World Bank Group Flagship Report. Economy Profile 2017: Kazakhstan. In: *openknowledge.worldbank.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/28478>
- WORLD ECONOMIC FORUM (2016–2017). The Global Competitiveness Report 2016–2017. In: *weforum.org* [online]. [cit. 2017-06-10]. Available at: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GCR2016-2017/05FullReport/TheGlobalCompetitivenessReport2016-2017_FINAL.pdf

Agipa Monobayeva, Ph.D.

Deputy Director of Doctoral Studies Department
Narxoz University, Almaty, Kazakhstan
agipa.monobaeva@narxoz.kz

Petr Hájek, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor
Unicorn College, Prague, Czech Republic
petr.hajek@unicorncollege.cz

Maira Iembekova, Ph.D.

Associate Professor, Department of Public Administration
Narxoz University, Almaty, Kazakhstan
maira.iembekova@narxoz.kz