

Manuscript Details

Manuscript number	TFS_2018_483
Title	Clash of titans: The challenges of socio-technical transitions in the electrical vehicles technologies – The case study of Thai automotive industry
Article type	Research Paper

Abstract

The automotive industry has been focusing on electric vehicles (EVs). This recent change means that there will be a transformation in the automotive industry. This situation poses challenges since various actors must engage in this transition, for example, the government must invest in EV facilities, while carmakers and suppliers must also change their current technology. This study combines the strength of Global value chain (GVC) and National systems of innovation (NSI) using multi-level perspective (MLP) to create a framework that could reveal the interconnections between the actors of social settings and evaluate the sources both of innovation and socio-technical transitions by integrating both the national and international analysis together. The framework is used to point out the key players in the transition and investigate the effects of interactions between actors and to explore their effects on the transition in the Thai automotive industry towards EV. Our research highlights that the EV transition in Thailand is challenging as there seems to be a low level of collaborations among key stakeholders. Finally, the Thai government should carefully analyze the EV situation before providing any policy support as EV seems to be only a small fraction.

Keywords	innovation system; multi-level framework; global value chain; electric vehicle; transition; Thailand
Corresponding Author	Veerasith Songthaveephol
Corresponding Author's Institution	Salford Business School
Order of Authors	Veerasith Songthaveephol, Mostafa Mohamad

Submission Files Included in this PDF

File Name [File Type]

Highlights.docx [Highlights]

Socio-technical transitions in the Thai automotive industry towards EV.docx [Manuscript File]

Figure 2 - P18.docx [Figure]

Author Biography.docx [Author Biography]

To view all the submission files, including those not included in the PDF, click on the manuscript title on your EVISE Homepage, then click 'Download zip file'.

Research Data Related to this Submission

There are no linked research data sets for this submission. The following reason is given:
Data will be made available on request

Highlights

- Thailand should reconsider their policy towards promoting electric vehicles as 3rd national product champions.
- The capabilities of local automotive parts suppliers have been neglected when government decide to promote electric vehicles.
- The sales electric vehicles which required charging station account for less than 1% of the world automobile sales from 2011-2016.
- Not only the investment cost for charging infrastructure of electric vehicles is high, but government must also provide other financial and non-financial incentives to increase sales of electric vehicles.
- The shift towards electric vehicle is important. Yet, the government must carefully provide action plan and collaboration among actors in the Thai automotive is required to ensure the transition towards electric vehicles.

Clash of titans: The challenges of socio-technical transitions in the electrical vehicles technologies – The case study of Thai automotive industry

Abstract

The automotive industry has been focusing on electric vehicles (EVs). This recent change means that there will be a transformation in the automotive industry. This situation poses challenges since various actors must engage in this transition, for example, the government must invest in EV facilities, while carmakers and suppliers must also change their current technology. This study combines the strength of Global value chain (GVC) and National systems of innovation (NSI) using multi-level perspective (MLP) to create a framework that could reveal the interconnections between the actors of social settings and evaluate the sources both of innovation and socio-technical transitions by integrating both the national and international analysis together. The framework is used to point out the key players in the transition and investigate the effects of interactions between actors and to explore their effects on the transition in the Thai automotive industry towards EV. Our research highlights that the EV transition in Thailand is challenging as there seems to be a low level of collaborations among key stakeholders. Finally, the Thai government should carefully analyze the EV situation before providing any policy support as EV seems to be only a small fraction.

Keywords: innovation system; multi-level framework; global value chain; electric vehicle; transition; Thailand

Part 1: Introduction:

The automotive industry in developing countries has been facing technological challenges. Various studies (e.g. Giuliani et al., 2005; Ivarsson and Alvstam, 2005; Sadoi, 2010) have shown that the automotive industry has been changing. There has been more pressure from the carmakers to produce at low cost and provide integrated systems of products. There has also been an influx of foreign-owned suppliers, who attain better production and design capabilities, entering the countries. It is argued that suppliers must have higher technological capabilities to be able to

participate in product development or product engineering to maintain the orders from lead firms (Jongwanich and Kohpaiboon, 2013). There has also been a new challenge for automotive suppliers on innovation. The automotive industry has been focusing on electric vehicles (EVs). Germany is planning to ban combustion engine cars by 2030, while Great Britain and France will also ban the sale of new petrol and diesel cars from 2040 to reduce air pollution (Reuters, 2017). The change from conventional cars to EVs means that suppliers must also change technology. The industry has been moving towards EV trend and developing countries have started to capture this trend. To overcome obstacles faced, it is imperative that there is good coordination within the automotive supply chain (Ivarsson and Alstom, 2005). Moreover, the development of the automotive industry towards EV is not only the responsibility of single actor but requires collaboration from various sectors.

This study tends to understand the level of interaction between actors in each level of transition in the automotive industry and map those actors to explore their effects on the transition towards EV. Diverse types of actors located in three distinct positions, supplier firms at the micro-level, organizations within the country, such as universities, research organizations and industry associations, at the meso-level and transnational corporations at the macro-level, affect the system of innovation and socio-technical transitions. As the development of the automotive industry towards EV is not only the responsibility of single actor but requires collaboration from various sectors. the case of Thai automotive industry offers valuable insights due to the importance of the automotive industry in the country. Moreover, we believe that the study of the Thai country context reflects the situation in other countries in the same context, such as Brazil, Mexico and India, as they are facing comparable situation. A vast number of recent automotive industry investments have been made towards higher value-added projects in Thailand, facilitating the country's movement up the value-chain of production (BOI, 2015). There are two main research questions in the study Firstly, who are the main actor(s) that affect the socio-technical transitions of the EV technology in the Thai automotive supplies industry? And secondly, how does the interplay between technology and society affects socio-technical transitions of the EV technology in the Thai automotive?

The study begins with the review of the main literatures, consisting of national innovation system (NIS), global value chain (GVC) and multi-level perspective (MLP). These frameworks are the foundation for the newly introduced framework in this study. Afterwards we provide an

overview of the automotive industry after which we describe our research methodology. Following this, we present our research findings and conclude with its implications and suggestions for further study.

Part 2: Theoretical Context

2.1 National Innovation Systems and the importance of local actors

The systems of innovations have been implemented as a device to explain the productive problem of firms or to understand economic growth and the catching-up process of emerging countries (Iizuka, 2013). The core topic of this research is to understand the interaction between technological change and economic performance. The approach emphasizes the interdependence between technical and institutional change as the main theoretical area (Freeman, 1988). Innovation studies presume that a country's innovation system is a part of a larger system composed of sectors such as government, university, and industry and their environment, in the context of historical, cultural. The flow of technology and information among people, firms, and institutions is key to an innovative process. The focus on the institutional level is important as it creates patterns of interactions which could explain why and how innovations differ across contexts (Giuliani and Marin, 2007). Systems of innovation can be viewed in several dimensions. The actors involved, the networks and institutions may vary depending on how we choose the level of analysis. They can be national, regional, sectoral, or technological, all of which involve the creation, diffusion, and use of knowledge. One important dimension is the physical or geographical dimension. Sometimes the focus is on a specific country or region. In other cases, the main dimension of interest is a sector or technology. The model that has been widely used has been on a national level (Van Lancker et al., 2016).

The NIS approach was introduced in the late 1980s to early 1990s by the works of Freeman (1988) and Lundvall (1992). The theory then gained much attention and has been adopted by scholars and policy makers in both developed and developing countries from 1990s to early 2000s. The concept of NIS shifted attention from the previous focus on individual innovation actors (e.g. firms, universities, public research labs) to the links and interactions between the various actors making up the national innovation system. NIS emphasized on the ways institutions behave and relate to each other and provided a new rational gap to explain the disparities in technological and economic performance between countries (Godin, 2006). According to Nelson (1993, p. 4), NIS

“is a set of institutions whose interactions determine the innovative performance of national firms” while Lundvall (1992, p. 2) defined NIS as *“constituted by elements and relationships which interact in the production, diffusion and use of new, and economically useful, knowledge”*. Smith (1995, p. 72) added that *“the overall innovation performance of an economy depends not so much on how specific formal institutions perform, but on how they interact with each other”*.

The NIS approach shows that the innovation process is sophisticated and involved dynamic arrangements and links between various actors within the national boundary. Not only the activities of firms, but other functions in the country such as universities, research institutions, government, etc. and the interactions among them enable knowledge sharing and support for firms' innovation activities (Dodgson, 2009). It suggests that when the environment surrounding firms are properly managed and support the firms, it results in higher technological innovation, increasing capabilities of the firms and more substantial national competitive advantage. To improve overall performance of the nation, formal institutions such as firms, universities, government, etc. should interact with each other as elements of a collective system of knowledge creation.

Yet, NIS plays down the impact of international information exchange through inter-firm networks on the generation and diffusion of knowledge and innovation. The assumptions that innovations emerge within a country have become less true (Carlsson, 2006). The key players that generate innovations, particularly in developing countries, are transnational corporations (TNCs), who increasingly operate on a global scale, not only in manufacturing, but also on innovation and R&D activities as well. Thus, participate successfully in the more intense global competition, local institutions on training and education, support for local entrepreneurial activities, and improvement of physical infrastructures must be developed (Dicken, 2011).

2.2 Global Value Chain and the sources of global innovations

Hirschman (1970) argued about the importance of export markets in promoting backward linkages. Since export markets provide the scale and competition, exposure to sales abroad is considered to provide the potential for both expanding backward linkages and the capacity to develop in-house firm-level capabilities. Coe et al. (2004, p. 471) declared that the world has become *“globally organized nexus of interconnected functions and operations by firms and non-firm institutions through which goods and services are produced and distributed”*. With economic

liberalization and improvement of information and communication technologies, there has been a dynamic change in the production and trade in the global economy. TNCs have off-shored their productions to developing countries (Palpacuer and Parisotto, 2003). For example, the automotive assembly and components production is moved outside the traditional core triads of the US, Europe and Japan, to emerging economies such as Brazil, China, India, Mexico, and Thailand (Ivarsson and Alvstam, 2005; Pavlinek and Zenka, 2010). Low-cost but skilled labors in those countries have attracted large FDI flows to produce products for local markets and to export back to developed countries. Furthermore, there has been an increase in outsourcing activities, especially the demand for full-package products which give more power to component suppliers (Sturgeon et al., 2009). The expansion of production networks benefits developing countries by enhancing their capital, technology and access to international markets. Participations in global production networks are the major source of innovations in developing countries (Dicken, 2011).

GVC is the analysis of the input-output structure of value-adding activities, beginning with raw material and ending with the finished product (Gereffi et al., 2001). Gereffi (1999) developed a GVC framework to focus on the commercial dynamics between firms in the production chain and draws attention to the role of value creation, value differentiation and value capture in the production, distribution and retail process. The focus of the GVC literature is on the importance of a firm's upgrading (innovation) to face global competition and the role of governance structure by the TNCs that impact improvement of firms in developing countries that are linked to the global productions (Humphrey and Schmitz, 2002). The value chain perspective is effective in conceptualizing the forms of global integration of business as it shifts focus to the entire range of activities, from design to material sourcing, production and marketing. According to Sturgeon (2001), global value chain takes the entire chain of productive activities into account; the chain analysis maps the vertical sequence of events leading to the delivery, consumption, and maintenance of goods and services; at every stage and every location of value chain, it is sustained by a variety of inputs such as human resources, services, infrastructure, and capital equipment.

Inclusion in global value chain benefits developing countries as it enhances the corporate capital, technology investment, and access to international markets (Dicken, 2011). Participations in global production networks cause industrial upgrading in developing countries as firms that enter the global production network tend to be larger than firms which only focuses on the domestic market, earn higher profits, have higher R&D rates as they will receive better knowledge and

technology from TNCs (Cattaneo et al., 2013). Firms can enhance their competitiveness through sharing knowledge of value chain best practices (e.g. demand forecasting, breakeven quantity, and customs rules). Insertion in global value chain provides one of a few opportunities to gain access to and obtain information about the product demand in global market (Gereffi et al., 2005; Sturgeon et al., 2009).

2.3 MLP and the sources of local innovations

The MLP is an analytical and a heuristic framework to understand how system innovations come about through the interplay between technology and society and how transitions from one socio-technical system to another occurs (Geels, 2005). Innovation triggers transitions; however, the effect of change is not limited to technological transitions but to the entire socio-technical system. Geels (2005, p. 1) defines socio-technical system as a cluster of elements that are “linked together to achieve functionality, for example, technology, regulation, user practices and markets, cultural meaning, infrastructure, maintenance networks and production systems” at the level of societal functions.

The relation between the three concepts can be understood as a nested hierarchy or multi-level perspective. The first level is the meso-level formed by socio-technical regimes. Regime level refers to the semi-coherent set of rules that orient and coordinate the activities of the social groups that reproduce the various elements of socio-technical systems. The regimes not only refer to the social group of engineers and firms, but socio-technical systems are also actively created and maintained by several social groups such as public authorities, research institutions, financial institutions, supply chain, etc. Their activities dynamically reproduce the elements and linkages in socio-technical systems. The second level is the micro-level, which is formed by technological niches. From the MLP view, niches are the major source of radical innovations. Niches also provide locations for learning processes on many dimensions, e.g., technology, user preferences, regulation, symbolic meaning, infrastructure, and production systems. Niches also provide space to build the social networks which support innovations, such as supply chains and user–producer relationships. The macro-level is the third level of the analysis and is formed by the socio-technical landscape; it is an exogenous environment which affects the socio-technical development and is beyond the direct influences of actors and cannot be changed at will. The three levels provide diverse kinds of co-ordination and structuration of activities in local practices. Regimes are

embedded within the landscape and niches within regimes. Then, the radical innovation from niches creates a change in the existing regime.

Socio-technical transitions are major technological transformations in the way societal functions such as transportation, communication, housing, feeding, are fulfilled (Geels, 2002). Geels and Schot (2007) believes that socio-technical transition does not only involve technological changes, but also social changes in elements such as user practices, regulation, industrial networks, infrastructure, and symbolic meaning. Socio-technical system widens the idea that some large social groups, not only engineering communities, but also technology users, policy makers, societal groups, suppliers, scientists, etc. influences technological trajectories. The stability of established socio-technical configurations results from the linkages between heterogeneous elements. The elements and the linkages are the result of activities of social groups which produce them. The activities of these separate groups are aligned to each other and coordinated.

Socio-technical transition does not occur due to a shift from one regime to another; however, new regimes gradually grow out of the old ones. Changes in one elements of the regime trigger changes in other elements which, in turn, trigger further changes. Such reconfiguration processes take place on all dimensions of the socio-technical regime. According to Geels and Schot (2007) and Geels (2011), socio-technical transition is a result from the interaction between processes at various levels: (a) niche-innovations build up the internal momentum of innovation, (b) changes at the landscape level create pressure on the regime, and, (c) destabilization within the regime creates opportunity for niche's innovations.

2.4 Towards Global Systems of Innovation

This paper analyses research on how innovation as an interactive process between different socio-economic level and systems of innovation in a development context can be combined with how insertions in the global value chains could contribute to socio-technical development. A new combination between NIS, GVC and MLP could be beneficial both in enhancing the understanding the sources of innovation and socio-technical transition processes in developing countries and in building a more useful knowledge base for actions. By analyzing different layers, the framework would be able to provide analysis for each actor and how each actor contributes to the whole society. By integrating these frameworks, this paper would reveal the effect of both national and international aspects without providing biasness. Lundvall (2007) believes that the relationships

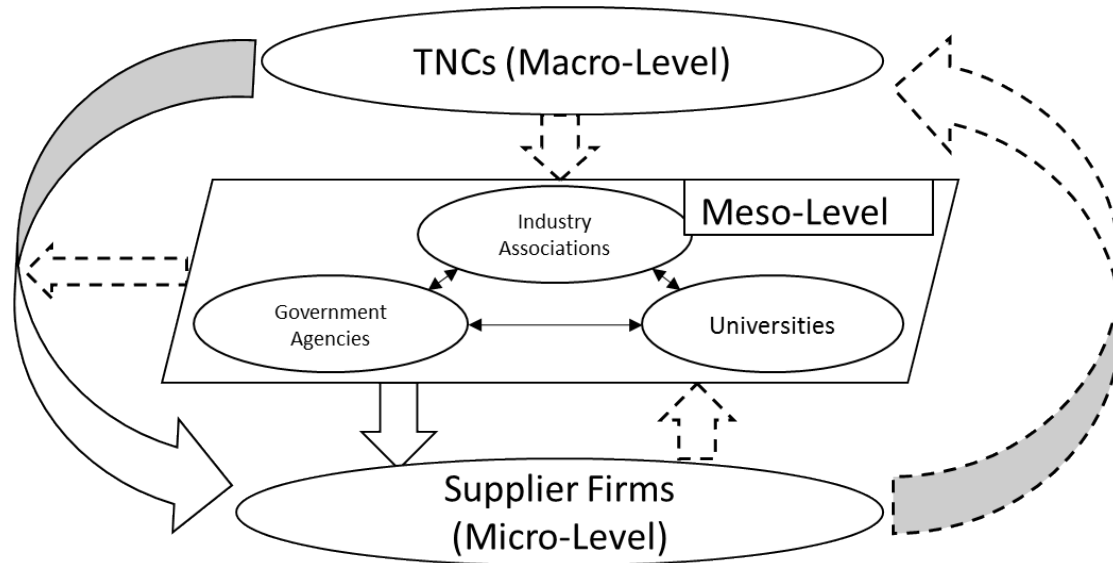
between globalization and national systems need to be further integrated into NIS study to explore more about how globalization processes affect the possibility to build innovation systems as such this study by would be beneficial to further extend the NIS concept by integrating the concepts from global value chain.

The outcome of innovation from the integrated framework will be determined by the effort made inside the firm, the national and international context. The strong emphasis upon dynamic interactions from MLP literature can be used to specify how innovation process is generated in a unique way since there has not been a study that systematically reflects how the interactions between firms (micro-level), their domestic environment (meso-level), and external forces (macro-level) affect innovation and the socio-technical transitions in developing countries. There has been no attempt to study the source of innovation and how socio-technological transition occurs within firms in developing countries, when taking both national and international sources of knowledge and their dynamic interactions into account, at the same time. This paper explores this gap by integrating the three frameworks, NIS, GVC and MLP as illustrated in Figure 1.

In the proposed framework, there are three layers of analysis, at the micro-level (firms), various actors at the meso-level (including government agencies, universities, industry associations, etc.), and at the macro-level (TNCs). The interactions among each level are dynamic and can be explained as follows. Firstly, as seen from NIS and GVC, there are direct interactions from TNCs and the meso-level to supplier firms to support the innovation of firms. Then, there is an indirect interaction between the regime level to the TNCs. First, each actor at the regimes level can indirectly influence the knowledge sent from the landscape level to the niches via different mechanisms, for example, government could provide subsidy on TNCs who support innovation generations at the niche level. Second, the demand from TNCs could also indirectly influence the meso-level to provide knowledge that the TNCs demand to the supplier firms. Finally, suppliers' capabilities could indirectly affect the knowledge/technology transferred from TNCs to local firms and their demand could impact the knowledge transferred from meso-level to their firms. The researcher proposes that all the interactions mentioned collectively then create the shifts in socio-technical transitions. There are three level of analysis, the micro-level, the meso-level and the macro-level with different actors in each level. Distinct from the MLP, which states that innovation is the bottom up from the firm level, altering the balance between each actor and generating socio-technical transitions, the researcher's proposed integrates the key idea from GVC framework

which emphasizes that TNCs are the major source of innovation for supplier firms and NIS framework indicative that the main source of knowledge and innovation comes from the support within the national level.

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework: The Global System of Innovation



Source: Author

Part 3: Innovation Systems in the automotive industry

3.1 Structure of the automotive industry

The automobile industry is a strong producer-driven industry, which means that the value chain is mostly coordinated by the automakers by bringing together many components produced by various suppliers to assemble vehicles (Dicken, 2011). The present automotive value chain has evolved into a complex, multi-tiered supplier structure with a high degree of outsourcing. Automakers own car brands and maintain their power by investing in key R&D, design, marketing, after-sale services and quality assurance. They also conduct market research, develop the vehicle concept and assemble vehicles in locations near major markets while outsourcing parts productions and system integrations to other parties (Abe, 2013). First-tier suppliers are component specialists' manufacturers that supply major systems, such as transmission, engine, brake, etc. directly to the

automakers and have significant R&D and design expertise. Second-tier and third-tier suppliers provide various raw materials to automakers and their suppliers for components productions. Those materials include steel and metals, textiles, glasses, plastics, rubbers and chemicals. Lower-tier suppliers also tend to produce simple, labor-intensive parts that would later be incorporated by higher-tier suppliers. Finally, car distributors receive the finished products from assemblers and sell the vehicles to customers in different markets, they conduct sales and marketing activities and provide after-sales services. There has been a geographic shift in automotive industry from developed countries to developing countries since the 1990s (Sturgeon et al., 2008). Local production has been a strategy for expansion for TNCs as the industry experience the enforcement of high tariff and local content requirements. Vehicle manufacturers started to extend their operations by outsourcing their productions in developing countries to reduce production costs and to gain access to new emerging markets (Hess and Yeung, 2006;).

The automotive industry in developing countries has been facing technological challenges and is evidenced by research conducted, such as in Latin American countries (Giuliani et al., 2005; Ivarsson and Alvstam, 2005; McDermott and Corredoira, 2010), Czech Republic (Pavlinek and Zenka, 2010) and previous studies on the automotive industry in Southeast Asia (Wad, 2008; Sadoi, 2013). These studies have shown that the automotive industry has been changing. There is more pressure from the carmakers to produce at low cost and provide integrated system of products. There has also been influx of foreign-owned suppliers, who attains better production and design capabilities, entering the countries. The performance of many local suppliers is weaker than foreign-owned suppliers and they are inadequate to maintain first-tier positions. And to overcome obstacles faced, it is imperative that there is good coordination within the automotive supply chain (Ivarsson and Alvstam, 2005). The development of the automotive industry is not only the responsibility of private firms, but the industry also needs requires support from the public sector. To critically analyze innovations and socio-technical transitions in the automotive industry, the researcher needs to look at three distinct levels, micro-, meso- and macro-levels, and explains the relationships among those actors.

3.2 Global Transition towards EV and change of actors

Climate change caused by increasing levels of greenhouse gases (GHGs) poses a serious threat to the lives of living creatures around the globe and could negatively affect ecosystems by

putting 20–30% of living species at a considerable risk of extinction (IPCC, 2012). The main source of GHGs is from the burning of fossil fuels during activities, particularly the operation internal combustion engines from vehicles. EVs consists of hybrid, plug-in hybrid and battery electric vehicles (HEVs, PHEVs, and BEVs). They are emerging automotive products that have the capability to reduce the environmental impacts of personal transportation mentioned above and to increase the efficiency of vehicle fuel. HEVs were introduced in 1997. PHEVs were introduced to limited production in 2004 and to mass production in 2011 (Bradley and Frank, 2009), and BEVs were introduced for sale to the public in 2011 (Al-Alawi and Bradley, 2013). The global cumulative electric car sales have surpassed 2 million in 2016 (IEA, 2017).

The growing number of EV sales has resulted in two significant changes in the automotive industry. Firstly, there is a shift in the creation of value-added in the supply chain. Although EVs and conventional vehicles share some of the same component parts, there are various new systems used for EVs that are not compatible with conventional vehicles, including new gear boxes, electric power steering, and water pumps to cool the electric engine (IDEC, 2013). Moreover, compared to conventional vehicle supply chain, only 30% of the value-added is generated through the power train, for an electric vehicle the value-added accounts for 60% of the total vehicle cost mainly due to the battery. Furthermore, the production of electric drivetrains requires new know-how, which has not yet developed from either parts suppliers or carmakers. The new components and systems deployed in EVs will create opportunities for battery makers, cell component makers, and their suppliers, while reducing the role of traditional component suppliers (Bierau et al., 2016).

Secondly, national government has become a more important player in steering the direction of the national automotive industry. Policy support is crucial tool for lowering barriers to electric car adoption (IEA, 2017). Key support mechanisms adopted in leading electric car markets, such as Norway, China and the US, use both the financial incentives of electric cars purchase and increasing the number of charging infrastructure. In Norway, electric cars are exempt from acquisition tax of NOK 100,000 (OECD, 2015). BEVs are exempt from the 25% value-added tax (VAT) on car purchases. EVs are also exempted on road tolls and ferry fees. These policies provide a highly favorable environment for EV sales and generate 29% market share of total vehicles in Norway (IEA, 2017). The adoption of EVs would have been very limited without support from external factors such as stringent emissions regulations, rising fuel prices, or financial

incentives (Eppstein et al., 2011). Thus, it is important to reveal how interactions of actors would change after the EV becomes important in the automotive industry.

Part 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Research Design

To analyze the phenomenon of the global system of innovation, the researchers believe that the study needs to fully understand the interactions between numerous actors within the social context of study. This will require rich data sources from individuals within diverse groups. As a result, a qualitative approach has been selected to explore this issue. Qualitative research attempts to discover and understand the process and the meaning of specific social phenomena through the analysis of non-numerical data such as texts, verbal, visual and audio data (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Silverman, 2010). Qualitative research looks through the in-depth analysis for the phenomena (Bryman, 2012). This method emphasizes the importance of contextual and situational issues underlying complex social phenomena and attempts to give a concise account for the research problems.

Case study research is one of the research strategies for qualitative study and is extensively used to explore a complex issue and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research. Case studies emphasize detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships (Yin, 2009). The method provides deep and comprehensive analysis and attempts to capture the complexity of the situation understudied. According to Yin (2009) a case study research should be considered when: (a) the research questions include how and why questions; (b) the behavior of actors involved in the study is unique; (c) the contextual conditions are relevant to the phenomenon under study; or (d) the researcher may want to illuminate a situation, to get an in-depth understanding of it. The use of the case study method helps researchers to make direct observations and collect data in natural settings, compared to relying on other derived data (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, case study method is effective in approaching phenomena that are little understood; dynamic processes; and includes relationships which are complex and difficult to overview and predict (Thorpe and Holt, 2008).

4.2 Data Collection

This research uses purposive sample to select the macro-level and meso-level samples with high possibility to provide technological support for the suppliers. Semi-structured interviews were utilized to obtain primary data. The interviews lasted about 90 min and were performed over the months of May 2017 and December 2017. The interviewees from selected organizations are also the head of the programs related to the research topic to ensure that the interview data would be beneficial to the Thai automotive industry. For the supplier category, the researcher selected a list of first-tier foreign-owned suppliers, large Thai first-tier supplier (which has capability to challenge foreign-owned suppliers), medium-sized local suppliers, joint ventures between foreign-owned, Thai-owned suppliers and second-tier suppliers to gather wide variety of automotive parts supplier businesses. The interviewees of supplier firms consisted of both engineers and senior management. In some instances, joint interviews both with the engineer and the senior management of the supplier firms were conducted. This is helpful as management position might not understand the specific technological aspect, while engineers possess technological knowledge, but do not understand the firms' strategy and relationships with other actors that could benefit technological transfer. The number of participants selected from automotive suppliers is higher compared to other parties; the rationale behind this was to ensure that the interview will cover four different type of suppliers in the Thai automotive industry (first-tier suppliers, second-tier suppliers, locally-owned suppliers or foreign-owned suppliers). It was important to find out how each type of supplier is affected from both organizations within the country and from abroad. Research institutions, industry associations, universities, carmakers and independent organization were chosen to provide information on how each actor in the framework collaborates with and how each actor provides support to automotive suppliers. In summary, there were 17 semi-structured interviews comprised of five stakeholders, two carmakers (C), ten supplier firms (S) inclusive of both seven local and three foreign-owned firms, two public organizations related to the automotive industry (P), one industry association (I), and two universities (U) (as illustrated in Table 1) to explore the innovation and sociotechnical transitions in the Thai automotive industry.

Table 1: Participants Sampling Table

Sample	Description	Justification
--------	-------------	---------------

C1	Japanese Carmaker	Market leader of automobile sales in Thailand
C2	Japanese Carmaker	Large Japanese automobile TNC
S1	Tier 2 100% Thai owned	Medium-sized local second tier suppliers with potential to become first-tier suppliers
S2	Tier 1 100% Japan owned	One of the biggest Japanese TNC first-tier suppliers with various branches around the world
S3	Tier 1 and 2 100% Thai owned	Medium-sized local suppliers which is subcontracted by both Japanese, European and the US carmakers
S4	Tier 1 100% Thai owned	One of the largest local firms in Thailand with its own R&D units and capabilities to challenge foreign-owned suppliers
S5	Tier 1 and 2 Majority Japan owned (83%)	Large-sized majority Japan-owned suppliers with HQ from Japan and provide products to two Japanese firms
S6	Tier 1 and 2 100% Thai owned	Medium-sized suppliers that just invested money on new machinery
S7	Tier 2 100% Thai owned	Medium-sized second-tier suppliers
S8	Tier 1 and 2 100% Thai owned	Medium-sized suppliers that not only produce parts for Japanese firm but also assemble parts for German firm
S9	Tier 1 100% Japan owned	Japanese suppliers that entered Thailand since 1990s. Produce solely for Thailand's market leader
S10	Tier 1 100% Thai owned	One of the largest local firms in Thailand with its own R&D units and capabilities to challenge foreign-owned suppliers

U1	Private University	Highly ranked private university with its own automotive engineering program
U2	Public University	One of the high-ranked public universities in Thailand with automotive engineering program. Engineering professors from the university have been doing various researches to support automotive industry
I1	Auto parts Association	One of the largest industry associations with its aim to provide technological supports to local suppliers
P1	Research Institution Metal Research Unit (Automotive)	Research institution which mainly focuses on the technological aspect of the suppliers in the automotive industry
P2	Research Institution Design and Engineering Research Unit (Electric Vehicles)	Research institution which mainly focuses on the technological aspect of the new trend of vehicles in the Thai automotive industry

4.3 Case Study Description

The performance of the global automotive industry in 2016 appears to be strong. Worldwide sales reached a record of 88 million cars, increasing 4.8 percent from 2015, and profit margins for suppliers and carmakers are at a 10-year high (PWC, 2017). Yet, to survive in a world where technological developments continue to take place at a fast pace rate, firms must introduce innovations. The main sources of innovation and socio-technical transitions have not been well-developed in the literatures, particularly on the study of developing countries. The GSI framework will be used to analyze the sources of innovation and socio-technical transitions of the Thai automotive industry.

The automotive assembly and components production has moved outside the traditional core triads (the US, the EU & Japan) to emerging economies (Ivarsson and Alvstam, 2005). Suppliers in developing countries must take on more enhanced roles such as, design, R&D and developing component modules and systems (Dicken, 2011). However, Sturgeon and Van

Biesebroeck (2010) mentioned that the success of automotive supplier firms in developing countries is rare. Suppliers that fail to develop their capabilities lose the TNCs as a customer. Moreover, the automotive industry has been focusing on electric vehicles. Germany is planning to ban combustion engine cars by 2030, while Great Britain and France will also ban the sale of new petrol and diesel cars from 2040 to reduce air pollution (Reuters, 2017). This situation has posted a new challenge to the socio-technical transitions in the automotive industry, particularly on the development choice of automotive industry in developing countries.

This case study describes the situation in the Thai automotive industry. Thailand has become a final assembly hub for South-East and East Asia, providing opportunities for local suppliers producing automobile parts (Sturgeon and Van Biesebroeck, 2010). In 2013, the automotive sector accounted for 12% of Thailand's GDP. The car production from Thailand was ranked 9th in the world with 2.85 million cars productions (BOI, 2015). However, Scott-Kemmis and Chitras, (2007) mentioned supports from other networks, other than TNCs, are crucial for Thai suppliers for innovation. Jongwanich and Kohpaiboon (2013) believes that Thai suppliers must improve their capabilities to maintain the orders from TNCs. Intarakumnerd and Techakanont (2016) showed that firm strategy and collaboration within NIS were important drivers of technological advancement in the Thai automotive industry, while Kohpaiboon (2008) believes that international source of knowledge is crucial for the Thai automotive industry.

The support from the government, public organization and the industry association has been essential in the Thai automotive industry, particularly to suppliers. After the local content requirement abolishment in 2000, the Thai government, with collaboration of public organizations and industry association, announced a new industrial plan for the automobile industry in 2001. The plan included several new initiatives, including the shift from import substitution to export, the establishment of the Thai Automotive Institute and an increased emphasis on public-private collaboration and consultation. The Thai government also used industrial policy of picking a national product champion and linking this with effective fiscal policy and some local production incentives in 2002. The aim was to attract foreign investments and to develop Thailand into a regional center for the automotive industry in Southeast Asia. The Thai government selected pickup trucks as the first product champion, creating a segment of market demand to attract foreign investments into models of production and heavily provide tax incentives. During those period, Thailand specialized into commercial vehicles, the one-ton pickup truck that came to be produced

by foreign OEMs, which transformed Thailand into a hub of global pickup production outside the US. The Thai government selected the eco-car as the second product champion in 2007, due to the expectation that there would be a shift in demand from pick-up trucks to smaller, more economical and ecological passenger vehicles because of the skyrocketing oil price.

Yet, the Thai automotive industry is currently facing difficulties in making progress in the world market. The country is at risk that the labor cost is increasing until the country can no longer compete against lower cost neighboring countries such as Cambodia, the Philippines and Vietnam in less skill-intensive activities, while the country lacks the technological know-how and human capabilities to move into more sophisticated, higher value-added activities and compete with more industrialized neighbors, such as Korea and Singapore (Intarakumnerd and Techakanont, 2016). Thailand's inferior performance compared with other economies at a similar level of development is due to relative weakness in innovation system. These concerns have prompted the government to transform Thailand's economic structure to "Thailand 4.0" by rolling out innovation strategies in different industries in 2017. The aim of Thailand 4.0 is to move on from a country with abundant cheap, unskilled labor to more innovation value-based economy to climb to the next step of the ladder and compete with more advanced economies (Suvit, 2017).

Various government agencies have been active to push the industry towards EV as a 3rd product champion during this period (TAI, 2014). The Ministry of Science and Technology has published a roadmap for electric vehicle (EV) and charging infrastructure within 2014-2019. This roadmap is approved by the Thai government and includes the promotion of Thailand as a production hub of EV parts. During the 2015, the Thai government had shown an attention on the EV technology and start to launch a policy to promote EV in Thailand. The NSTDA and the Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand (EGAT) are jointly conducting research and development of electric vehicles related issues, namely technical, support infrastructure and even policy. Yet, the EV is different from the 1st and 2nd product champions as it requires a change from combustion engine cars to electric batteries. As a result, suppliers must completely change their technology. The study seeks to explore the challenges in the Thai automotive industry on transformation from producing normal cars to EVs and reveals the socio-technical transitions between actors in Thai automotive industry.

Part 5: Research Findings

5.1 Sociotechnical view of the Thai automotive industry

The stakeholders that support innovations and create socio-technical transitions in the Thai automotive industry can be categorized into three major groups according to the framework, the firms at the micro-level, domestic actors at meso-level and the foreign actors at the macro-level (See Figure 2).

INSERT FIGURE 2

The main actor from the macro-level are carmakers who possess high technology, however, they outsource their production processes to both local suppliers and foreign-owned first-tier suppliers, so that they could be able to focus on higher value activities, such as R&D, branding and marketing (Humphrey and Memedovic, 2003; Sturgeon et al., 2008). They The main factor used in their selection process is the technological capabilities of suppliers. The major carmakers in Thailand are Toyota and Honda which accounts for 80% of total car sales in Thailand (TAI, 2014). It has been argued that the presence Japanese carmakers in the Thai market have discouraged local first-tier suppliers from developing new products or designs and have forced suppliers to use designs from them (Busser, 2008). Since the chance to gain contract with Japanese carmakers only arises when there is no first-tier Japanese supplier available and the cost of importing parts is high either due to transportation cost or high tariffs.

At the micro-level, there are suppliers consisting of two distinct groups: local suppliers and foreign-owned suppliers. Within the foreign-owned suppliers group are first-tier suppliers who follow the carmakers to Thailand, as they possess higher technological capabilities required by carmakers relative to the local suppliers. These foreign first-tier suppliers usually outsource to local second-tier suppliers, yet the situation still discourages local second-tier from enhancing innovation capabilities. Even though there are some spill overs of technology from foreign-owned first-tier suppliers to second-tier local suppliers, only small number of incremental innovations takes place (Natsuda and Thoburn, 2013).

Within the meso-level there are three groups that interact with each other and provide knowledge and technological support for innovations in the Thai automotive industry, that is, public organizations, industry associations and universities. Firstly, there are three key public

organizations that support innovations in the Thai automotive industry: the Thai Automotive Institute (TAI), Thailand Development Research Institute (TDRI), and the National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA). TAI was established on July 1998 with the aim of strengthening cooperation between the government and private enterprises to enhance the overall competitiveness of the Thai automotive industry. This role also included the TAI monitoring the status of the automotive industry and the provision of support on human resource development. TAI also provides consultancy services to improve production processes and organization management for local suppliers. Importantly, TAI prepared the master plan for the Thai automotive industry which provided recommendations and direction to strengthen the private sector; it publishes the Master Plan for Automotive Industry every four years. The most recent publication, Master Plan 2012-2016 focused on proactive development by understanding the future trends of automotive industry, and included concentration on Eco Car and Hybrid technology, to improve the potential of Thailand automotive industry to compete with other ASEAN members and China (TAI, 2012).

TDRI was established as a public policy research institute in 1984 to provide technical analysis to various agencies and help formulate policies to support long-term economic and social development in Thailand. NSTDA as a research organization was established in 1991 and has more than 2,600 employees, 68% of them are researchers with 400 Ph.Ds. NSTDA consists of four national research centers: The National Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (BIOTEC), National Metal and Materials Technology Centre (MTEC), National Electronics and Computer Technology Centre (NECTEC), and the National Nanotechnology Centre (NANOTEC). These research centers provide support on R&D, technology transfer, human resources development and infrastructure development for every major industry in Thailand including the automotive industry.

Secondly, there are two main industry associations supporting the Thai automotive industry in Thailand, namely, the Thai Automotive Industry Association (TAIA) and The Thai Auto-Parts Manufacturers Association (TAPMA). TAIA is a private association formed in 1981 and consists of carmakers, suppliers and distributors. The vision of TAIA is to “encourage and support the development of Thailand automotive and auto-parts industry for prosperity, strength, and competitive advantage of the industry, to be recognized in both domestic and international level with transparency, clarity, and equality in its operations.” (TAIA, 2014). TAPMA is a union of

auto parts manufacturing companies from the private sector to serve as the central voice for auto parts industrialists in the country to protect, support and develop Thai industries. Many suppliers are members of both organizations. The main difference between TAIA and TAPMA is that TAPMA focuses solely on local suppliers, specifically, enhancing their capabilities to compete with foreign-owned firms, while the focus of TAIA is on the development of the whole automotive industry which includes assemblers, distributors and parts manufacturers both cars and motorcycles.

Finally, the role of universities is in generating new knowledge and transferring knowledge, workforce development, and facilitating competitive initiatives. Two important forms of technological support from universities to the automotive industry is the flow of university graduates to the market, as well as the flow of new knowledge generated by university-based research through public channels (Intarakumnerd and Schiller, 2009). The missions of universities on enhancing technological capabilities of any industry includes consultancy service, joint research projects, university-based science parks, and university affiliated enterprises. However, it is observed that the Thai automotive industry does not have a strong interest in university-industry linkages and Thai universities only play a minor role in building the technology/innovation capability of firms (Mongkhonvanit, 2010).

5.2 Situation and the challenges towards EV transition in Thailand

The automotive industry has been moving towards EV and the Thai automotive industry has started to capture this trend. Many actors within the meso-level, particularly Thai government, universities and research organizations, have been discussed on the EV opportunity during this phase to properly analyze the automobile industry situation and to pass down knowledge to the local suppliers to achieve the EV production nationally. The Thailand's Alternative Energy Development Plan 2012-2021 also includes a renewable energy target of 25% of total energy consumption by 2021 from the current 8%, while EV is viewed as a significant supporter towards the plan's ambitions. The Thai Alternative Energy Development Committee drafted an Electric Vehicle Promotion Plan for Thailand. The Thai cabinet approved the plan in March 2015 and requested the Board of Investment (BOI) to further explore the potential of Thailand as a production hub for EVs within the year. As a result, the Electric Vehicle Association of Thailand

(EVAT) was formed on November 6, 2015 by the collaboration of research institutes and private organizations.

Various government agencies have been active during this period (TAI, 2014). The Ministry of Science and Technology has published a roadmap for electric vehicle and charging infrastructure within 2014-2019. This roadmap is approved by the Thai government and includes the promotion of Thailand as a production hub of EV parts. During the 2015, the Thai government had shown an attention on the electric vehicle (EV) technology and start to launch a policy to promote EV in Thailand. The NSTDA and the Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand (EGAT) are jointly conducting research and development of electric vehicles related issues, namely technical, support infrastructure and even policy. NSTDA also introduced the new unit for EV called Next-Generation Automotive Industry Program – Special Activity Session – Electric Vehicle in early 2016. EGAT and NSTDA underlined the need of an electric charging infrastructures to accommodate EVs. The interview shows that various meso-level actors believe that Thailand should encourage EV usage, while automakers are already prepared for EV deployment. Yet, the key challenge in the Thai automotive industry to move towards EV is as many suppliers are not ready for the transformation from producing normal cars to EVs, while many actors believe that the Thai government has not yet shown enough commitment of EV promotion as shown from various interviews.

The macro-level actors, carmakers, believe that that government should put more focus on improving technology of local suppliers on conventional vehicles rather than switching to new uncertain territory of EV. EV will be important for the Thai automotive industry in the future; however, the government must provide support on promoting EV and ensure that the change is gradual rather than rapid. Still, they are ready for EV and will invest in EV facilities after the government ensure the EV plan in Thailand.

“...I believe the automotive trend is leaning toward fuel-efficient EVs which is also cleaner source of energy...[W]e need support from the Thai government to ensure the usage of EV. Charging infrastructures and financial support to us [carmakers] and to consumers are important to switch customers from conventional cars to EVs...” (C2)

Yet, C1 remains convinced that Thailand is not ready for full EVs as there are challenges and difficulties such as a lack of charging stations. C1 also sees hybrids as a stepping stone to full electrification in the future, so government should grant investment privileges to hybrids alongside EVs. However, they are ready for the EV challenge in the future.

“...Thai government will provide more privileges for EVs, but there will be a transition period before the full EV replaces conventional cars. That is the reason why we promote hybrid as there will be a gradual change from hybrid to EV...” (C1)

The interviews of the carmakers on December 2017 are aligned with the EV directions announced by major carmakers. On February 2018, Yutaka Sanada, Nissan’s regional chief, stated that Nissan and other carmakers were seriously considering investing in the modern technology in Thailand, primarily for export to other countries in the Asia-Pacific region, while Nissan is considering on shifting their portfolio to more EV products within the coming three to five years (FT, 2018).

Despite the Thai government and the carmakers are ready for the EVs, it seems that Thai suppliers are not ready for EV introduction. As mentioned in section 3.2, many new systems used for EVs are not compatible with conventional vehicles and suppliers require investments on new machineries. The interviews show comparable results among different group of suppliers, including foreign suppliers, large local suppliers and small local suppliers. Even though some of foreign suppliers (S2 and S9) can receive knowledge from their parent’s company as they already have EV research center in Japan and have produced EV parts in some countries, they (S2, S5, S9) still prefer to produce parts for conventional cars. Some TNC suppliers (S2 and S5) are unsure about the Thai government’s direction on EV. They fear that the Thai political instability could change the direction of Thai automotive industry on EV and they would lose money if they put high investment on EV production facilities. Yet, another supplier (S9) is ready to invest in EV as alternative if there are clear focus and financial incentives from Thai government.

“...[W]e already have EV technologies, but we are unsure about investing on EV as the investment cost for EV facilities is high and we would need to hire more staff and also need extra

training for them...Producing EVs may be too hard for Thai workers and we would need to invest a lot...what if the Thai government change their direction towards EV, we would not want to invest for nothing...” (S2)

Some large Thai suppliers have already started to sought technologies and expand their portfolio on EVs. They believe that EVs will transform the overall automotive industry and could put some conventional parts makers out of business. As a result, they need to be prepared to supply parts for EVs in the long term.

“Due to this new disruptive technology, we have to seek new alliances for a partnership on any new and higher EV technology...[W]e have invested 400 million baht in its R&D center, focusing on support for lightweight materials used in EVs and created more human resources to be ready for the production of EVs if needed...[W]e have been supplying some EV parts for global carmakers such as Tesla Motors since 2017...” (S4)

In contrast to large local suppliers, small-and-medium local suppliers are not ready to produce EV parts. Many suppliers believe that EVs still represent small fraction of the automotive industry. Some suppliers (S3, S6, S8) believe that the investment cost of EV is too high compared to the benefits they will receive in return. Moreover, EV technology is totally different from their current technologies, while 2nd-tier suppliers (S1, S7) believe that EVs are not related to their business and there is no need for any investment.

“...of course everyone knows that EV is interesting prospect, but we do not have enough resource for it. It (Shifting to EV) is not as easy as the government say. Since we have no knowledge on EV, we need to find the source of technology and create new connections. We must invest in new machineries and new human capital...It will take us 5-10 years to be ready. And when we are ready, what if the government shift its focus to another product champion?...It is already hard enough to improve our performance in conventional vehicles to get more order from carmakers. We just invest in the upgrade of our current machinery and I don't think we will invest in EV anytime soon...” (S6)

“...Parts of EV is 70% different from conventional cars and EV use less parts compared to conventional cars. If the government shifts focus to EV, many local suppliers, particularly 2nd-tier and 3rd-tier will definitely run out of business...” (S3)

Not only the suppliers themselves are not fully ready on EV project, but the relationships between suppliers and other actors on promoting EV technologies are also poor. Firstly, both local and foreign-owned suppliers do not ask university for technological support. Moreover, they believe that university do not impact the level of innovation of their firms and in the automotive industry in Thailand. The interview of universities, both U1 and U2, also show that Thai universities do not impact innovation of the Thai automotive industry.

“Suppliers do not come to us for EV technology. They have their own sources of technology...[W]e mainly associate with researchers from some Japanese carmakers and the government research units on the EV technology.” (U2)

The result from the interviews confirms the study of Intarakumnerd and Charoenporn (2015) which stated that firms in Thailand have been slow and passive in technological learning. Government policies and institutions, including research institutes and universities, have not provided enough assistance to firms to enhance their technological capability, especially in terms of absorbing external knowledge from abroad. These results are contrast to the systems of innovation framework, which mentions that universities could perform a substantial share of R&D and university research can complement research results from international networks (Mowery and Sampat, 2005).

The relationships among meso-level organizations in the Thai automotive industry are manifolds; however, the co-operations between organizations are poorly managed, particularly on the EV project. Numerous examples can be drawn from the interviews. Regarding the interviews from U1 and P2, the interview shows that the meso-level organizations in the Thai automotive industry are not collaborate with each other to improve the innovation in the Thai automotive industry. The researches from each actor are sometimes redundant due to poor communication among actors.

“Our university staffs are doing researches on EV. We believe that EV is important for the future and we want to promote EV in Thailand...[Still,] Nobody has contacted us about our EV research even though we believe it would be useful.” (U1)

Like U1, P2 also believes that EV is important to the Thai automotive industry and is conducting EV researches as well. They have not had any interaction or joint research with any other meso-level actors, but they believe collaboration between meso-level actors would be useful for innovations in the industry.

“Our organization believes that EV is truly important for our automotive industry to be competitive in the world market and our EV research unit was introduced since the end of 2015. We are conducting many researches on the EV parts, particularly on batteries and parts for EV...We have never contacted any university or any other party to collaborate on EV research, but that would have been helpful.” (P2)

The situation of poor cooperation between the meso-level in the Thai automotive industry is also supported by Chaminade et al. (2012) who also mentioned that industry association and public institution does not communicate with each other. Despite more efforts from the meso-level organization to enhance the innovation on EVs, the resources, including money and time, on researches have been wasted due to poor collaboration within the meso-level organization. This situation is not beneficial for the innovations in the Thai automotive industry as local suppliers require support from the meso-level organization on enhancing capabilities and prepare to switch to EV products, which requires higher level of innovation compared to conventional vehicles. In contrast, there is a collaboration between university and the macro-level actor on introducing the EV technology to public.

“...[W]e already started EV pilot in Thailand this month (December, 2017), called HaMo (Harmonized Mobility) project. It is running in association with Chulalongkorn University. There are compact single seat EVs, along with 12 parking stations, around 30 parking points and 10 charging stations.” (C1)

In summary, there is a clash between two groups of actors in the Thai automotive GSI on the promotion of EVs in the Thai automotive industry. The macro-level actors and most of the meso-level organizations are ready to introduce EV as Thailand's 3rd product champion; however, the micro-level actors, parts suppliers, particularly indigenous suppliers, are not keen to produce EV parts. Suppliers believe that there has not been enough support and research on EV trend in Thailand. Moreover, the investments and incentives provided for EV is too high and the government should spend that money to improve performances of local suppliers on conventional vehicles. The next section summarizes the expansion of systems of innovation by looking at socio-technical transitions of the Thai automotive industry on EVs and provide policy recommendations for the EVs in the Thai automotive industry.

Part 6: Analysis and Discussion

6.1 Expanding the innovation systems - Socio-technical perspective

The focus of traditional NIS mainly focuses on the collaboration of national actors, particularly the role of government, on improving the capabilities of an industry in a country. GVC emphasizes the roles of TNCs in the value chain on enhancing the capabilities of suppliers, mainly in developing countries. Other frameworks, such as Triple Helix, has provided update on the relationships between government, industry and universities, emphasizing that the more active roles of universities are important for innovation. The GSI framework has shown that not only national actors are important, international actors are also sources of technology, while socio-technical transitions occur due to the interactions among actors. By using the GSI framework to analyze the actors and interactions in the Thai automotive industry, we can see that suppliers, particularly local suppliers, have also been important actors in the Thai automotive industry and for the country.

The automotive parts and components sector has been critical to the success of Thailand's automotive industry. There are approximately 2,700 automotive suppliers, including 1st-tier to 3rd-tier, employing over 600,000 labors (TAI, 2014). Local manufacturers supply around 85% of the parts used in pick-up truck assembly and around 70% of the parts used for passenger cars assembled in Thailand. Analyzing only those actors are not enough as applying those frameworks mentioned above in the Thai automotive industry would have neglect the suppliers' opinion in

Thai automotive industry which could create chaotic situation and could lead to extinction of Thai suppliers. The focus of the whole industry analysis should be carefully drawn.

6.2 Policy recommendations on transitions in the Thai automotive industry towards EV

Thailand 4.0 policy has generated the discussion on Thailand's 3rd national product champion with the manufacturing of high-technology EVs referred to as Next Generation Automotive. However, the program has left many questions that need to be explored and answered as switching to EV require total change from conventional automobile business. Investment on charging infrastructures must be made and the technology required to develop the EVs are different than normal cars. The Thai automotive industry will face notable change and the government needs to play key role in this transformation.

Table 2: Global automobile sales 2011 to 2016

Year	Conventional + HEV	% Growth	PHEV + BEV	% Growth	Total Car Sales	% Growth	% Share of EV (HEV+PHEV+ BEV)
2011	78,109,211	4.2	48,160	634.1	78,157,371	4.3	0.06
2012	81,997,772	5.0	118,690	146.4	82,116,462	5.1	0.14
2013	85,405,297	4.1	192,010	61.8	85,597,307	4.2	0.22
2014	88,000,530	2.5	325,090	69.3	88,325,620	2.7	0.37
2015	89,156,752	1.8	550,570	69.4	89,707,322	2.0	0.61
2016	93,123,825	4.4	781,809	42.0	93,905,634	4.7	0.83

Source: Author's calculation from Organisation Internationale des Constructeurs d'Automobiles (OICA) and International Energy Agency (IEA).

Still, we believe that the future of EV is still uncertain. Even though the EV has high growth rate, the sales of EVs that require charging infrastructures represent less than 1% of the world total automobile sales (see Table 2). Significant investments and supports must be made by the government to encourage EV adoption. The government plays key role in deploying financial incentives from both technology specific policies, such as subsidies to EV consumers, and technology neutral policies, such as emissions-based vehicle taxes (IEA, 2017). In some cases, lowering taxes for EVs and provide subsidies apart from normal registration and circulation fees

could provide financial incentive on purchasing EVs. Yet, EV adoption rate not only rely on financial incentives, but non-financial incentives also play vital role. According to Sierzchula et al. (2014), other than financial incentives, the presence of a local EV manufacturing facility and especially the number of charging stations around the country were significant factors of EV adoption rates. It means that the Thai government must provide large budget allocations if they want to introduce EV as the 3rd national product champion.

Moreover, by looking at the leading EV adoption countries, they not only receive supports from their government, but they also have other factors supporting the impressive performance. For example, Norway has the low electricity price due to their hydroelectricity plants (IEA, 2017). Korea and Japan possess strong competencies on battery technology (Jussani et al., 2017). China has the largest automobile markets, with high growth rate (OICA, 2017), while the US has Tesla Motors which has sparked electric vehicle revolution (Eisler, 2016).

Furthermore, effective communication and collaborations within actors are substantial to promote EV. The failure case of India's EV promotion created a waste of resources for their local suppliers (Sen and Murali, 2018). The situation occurred due to poor communication and change of direction from the Indian government. In March 2016, Piyush Goyal, then the minister of power, had said that by 2030 India could be a 100% EV nation. This target was repeated several times by Goyal and others in the following months. Moreover, Nitin Gadkari, minister of roads transport and highways, announced at the annual convention of the Society of Indian Automobile Manufacturers (SIAM) in September 2017, that India required a shift to EV; however, the U-turn of the EV policy occurred only six months after he announced his EV plan. In February 2018, Gadkari has decided against formulating an EV policy by stating that there is no need for any policy to support EV. It is belief that the EV investment plan was dropped due to that implementing an EV policy package would need huge investments which is not possible for the Indian government.

In our opinion, the Thai government must balance between conventional vehicles and EVs. EV is still alternative fuel choice as there are other technologies available (fuel-cells, hydrogen). Now, PHEV and BEV account less than 1% of the total automobile market, so the government should put more focus on improving the performance of local suppliers on conventional vehicles rather than EVs. This does not mean that Thailand should neglect the EV. The current research from meso-organizations would provide a good foundation to the Thai EV market in the future.

Furthermore, the government could increase support on EV while less support on traditional cars, following the direction of developed countries, in the future. The government must also provide supports for local suppliers to start EV research. Local suppliers, mainly small-and-medium sized ones, would face challenges to adapt the new EV technology, while MNC suppliers have already established EV departments in their home country. As a result, improving collaborations among meso-level organizations and between local suppliers and meso-level organizations would be essential for Thailand, particularly the local suppliers, to catch up the growing EV trend.

Part 7: Conclusion

Current frameworks to analyze the sources of innovation are exclusive to either within the national boundaries from the NIS research or the support from TNCs to local firms from the GVC framework. This study provides a new perspective of conceptual framework that could systematically analyze the interconnections between the actors of social settings and evaluate the sources both of innovation and socio-technical transitions by integrating both the national and international analysis together. This study responds to Sturgeon and Gereffi (2009)'s recommendation to extend GVC framework by providing new kinds of data that shed light on the position of domestic firms as the study extends GVC framework by combining the national actors to the current GVC analysis. The GSI framework also extend systems of innovation study by integrating the effect from global actor, the TNCs, to the current NSI framework. By integrating both the national and international aspects together, the GSI framework could provide clearer analysis on the supports on innovation to firms. Furthermore, the GSI solves the critique from Smith et al. (2005) and Geels and Schot (2007) who argue that more attention must be given to the how ongoing processes at the regime and landscape level affect the niche level as the GSI analyses interactions among all three levels. Finally, by applying the MLP lens, the GSI framework can analyze not only the technical aspects but also the social aspects.

The case study of Thai automotive industry offers interesting insights. The sources of transitions are generated from meso- and macro-levels. The top-down approach from both government (meso-level) orders and global market trend combined with new directions of TNC carmakers (macro-level) force the socio-technological transitions in the Thai automotive industry towards the adoption of EV. By adopting the GSI framework, it is seen that the micro-level actor (suppliers) could be overlooked by the government. Local suppliers also believe government and

the meso-level organizations must anticipate suppliers' capabilities before creating transitions as the organization structures, machineries, equipment and products of suppliers must be altered. Thai government should carefully analyze the capabilities of their suppliers before starting the EV transition. Still, the result of this study cannot be generalized as this is a sole case study on analyzing the transition of the Thai automotive industry towards EV.

The GSI framework could be further enhanced by exploring the relationship and interactions between the stakeholders and how to strengthen them. The study how knowledge transfer within the GSI framework, particularly how local suppliers will benefit from each stakeholder is also essential to improve the performance of local suppliers to compete with the TNCs. Further research should also elaborate on the actions required from each actor in the GSI framework to prepare for EV transition. Finally, it would be interesting to analyze whether EV is the right choice for developing countries is also essential as the initial investments for EV are high.

References

- Abe, M. (2013). Expansion of global value chains in Asian developing countries: Automotive case study in the Mekong sub-region. *Global Value Chains in a Changing World*, Geneva: World Trade Organization, 385-409.
- Al-Alawi, B. M., & Bradley, T. H. (2013). Review of hybrid, plug-in hybrid, and electric vehicle market modeling studies. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 21, 190-203.
- Bierau, F., Perlo, P., Müller, B., Gomez, A. A., Coosemans, T., & Meyer, G. (2016). Opportunities for European SMEs in global electric vehicle supply chains in Europe and beyond. In *Advanced Microsystems for Automotive Applications 2015* (pp. 223-235). Springer, Cham.
- Board of Investment (BOI) (2015). *Thailand: Global Green Automotive Production Base*. [Retrieved Online] http://www.boi.go.th/upload/content/BOI-brochure%202015-automotive-20150325_70298.pdf
- Bradley, T. H., & Frank, A. A. (2009). Design, demonstrations and sustainability impact assessments for plug-in hybrid electric vehicles. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 13(1), 115-128.
- Bryman A. (2012). *Social Research Methods*. 4th ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Busser, R. (2008). 'Detroit of the East'? *Industrial Upgrading, Japanese Car Producers and the Development of the Automotive Industry in Thailand*. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, Vol. 14, No. 1, 2008, 29-45.
- Carlsson, B. (2006), *Internationalization of Innovation Systems: A Survey of the Literature*, *Research Policy*, Vol. 35, No. 1, 2006, 56-67.

Cattaneo, O., Gereffi, G., Miroudot, S., and Taglioni, D. (2013). *Joining, upgrading and being competitive in global value chains: A strategic framework*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 6406

Chaminade, C., Intarakumnerd, P., & Sapprasert, K. (2012). Measuring systemic problems in national innovation systems. An application to Thailand. *Research Policy*, 41(8), 1476-1488.

Coe, N. M., Hess, M., Yeung, H. W. C., Dicken, P., & Henderson, J. (2004). 'Globalizing' regional development: a global production networks perspective. *Transactions of the Institute of British geographers*, 29(4), 468-484.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (second Eds.). (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.

Dicken, P. (2011). *Global Shift. Mapping the Changing Contours of the World Economy, 6th ed.*, SAGE Publication, London.

Dodgson, M. (2009). Asia's national innovation systems: Institutional adaptability and rigidity in the face of global innovation challenges. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 26(3), 589-609.

Eisler, M. N. (2016). A Tesla in every garage?. *IEEE Spectrum*, 53(2), 34-55.

Eppstein, M. J., Grover, D. K., Marshall, J. S., & Rizzo, D. M. (2011). An agent-based model to study market penetration of plug-in hybrid electric vehicles. *Energy Policy*, 39(6), 3789-3802.

Financial Times (2018). "Nissan in talks to make electric cars and batteries in Thailand." FEBRUARY 6, 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.ft.com/content/d7fc6652-0aec-11e8-8eb7-42f857ea9f09>.

Freeman, C. (1988) "Japan: A New System of Innovation," in G. Dosi, ed., *Technical Change and Economic Theory*. London (UK): Pinter Publishers, 330-348.

Giuliani, E., Pietrobelli, C., & Rabellotti, R. (2005). *Upgrading in Global Value Chains: Lessons from Latin American Clusters*. *World Development*, Vol. 33, No.4, 2005, 549-573.

Giuliani, E., & Marin, A. (2007). Global and local knowledge linkages: The case of MNE subsidiaries in Argentina. *Do Multinationals Feed Local Growth and Development*, 129-65.

Geels, F. W. (2002). Technological transitions as evolutionary reconfiguration processes: a multi-level perspective and a case-study. *Research policy*, 31(8), 1257-1274.

Geels, F. W. (2005). Processes and patterns in transitions and system innovations: refining the co-evolutionary multi-level perspective. *Technological forecasting and social change*, 72(6), 681-696.

Geels, F. W. (2011). The multi-level perspective on sustainability transitions: Responses to seven criticisms. *Environmental innovation and societal transitions*, 1(1), 24-40.

Geels, F. W., & Schot, J. (2007). Typology of sociotechnical transition pathways. *Research policy*, 36(3), 399-417.

Gereffi, G. (1999). International trade and industrial upgrading in the apparel commodity chain. *Journal of international economics*, 48(1), 37-70.

Gereffi, G., Humphrey, J., Kaplinsky, R. and Sturgeon, T. J. (2001). *Introduction: Globalisation, Value Chains and Development*. *IDS bulletin*, Vol. 32, No. 3, 2001, 1-8.

Gereffi, G., Humphrey, J., & Sturgeon, T. (2005). The governance of global value chains. *Review of international political economy*, 12(1), 78-104.

Giuliani, E., & Marin, A. (2007). Global and local knowledge linkages: The case of MNE subsidiaries in Argentina. *Do Multinationals Feed Local Growth and Development*, 129-65.

Godin, B. (2006). The knowledge-based economy: conceptual framework or buzzword?. *The Journal of technology transfer*, 31(1), 17-30.

Hess, M., and Yeung, H. W. C. (2006). *Whither Global Production Networks in Economic Geography? Past, Present and Future*. *Environment and Planning A*, Vol. 38, No. 6, 2006,.

Hirschman, A.O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.

Humphrey, J., and Memedovic, O. (2003). *The Global Automotive Industry Value Chain: What Prospects for Upgrading by Developing Countries*. UNIDO Sectorial Studies Series Working Paper.

Humphrey, J., and Schmitz, H. (2002). *How Does Insertion in Global Value Chains Affect Upgrading in Industrial Clusters?*. *Regional studies*, Vol. 36, No. 9, 2002, 1017-1027.

Iizuka, M. (2013). *Innovation systems framework: still useful in the new global context?*. UNU-MERIT Working Papers ISSN 1871-9872.

International Energy Agency (2017). *Global EV outlook 2017*. International Energy Agency, France.

Retrieved

from

<https://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/GlobalEVOutlook2017.pdf>

Iizuka, M., & Soete, L. (2013). *Catching up in the 21st century: Globalization, knowledge and capabilities in Latin America, a case for natural resource based activities*. In *Learning, Capability Building and Innovation for Development* (pp. 242-262). Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Intarakumnerd, P. and Charoenporn, P. (2015). *Impact of Stronger Patent Regimes on Technology Transfer: The Case Study of Thai Automotive Industry*. *Research Policy* 44 (7): 1314–26.

Intarakumnerd, P., & Schiller, D. (2009). University-industry linkages in Thailand: Successes, failures, and lessons learned for other developing countries. *Seoul Journal of Economics*, 22(4), 551.

Intarakumnerd, P., & Techakanont, K. (2016). Intra-industry trade, product fragmentation and technological capability development in Thai automotive industry. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 22(1), 65-85.

Ivarsson, I., and Alvstam, C. G. (2005). *Technology Transfer from TNCs to Local Suppliers in Developing Countries: A Study of AB Volvo's Truck and Bus Plants in Brazil, China, India, and Mexico*. *World Development*, Vol. 33, No. 8, 2005, 1325-1344.

Jongwanich, J., & Kohpaiboon, A. (2013). Capital flows and real exchange rates in emerging Asian countries. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 24, 138-146.

Jussani, A. C., Wright, J. T. C., & Ibusuki, U. (2017). Battery global value chain and its technological challenges for electric vehicle mobility. *RAI Revista de Administração e Inovação*, 14(4), 333-338.

Kohpaiboon, A. (2008). Thai automotive industry: multinational enterprises and global integration. Economic Research and Training Center, Thammasat University, Discussion paper series 04.

Lundvall, B. A. (1992). *National innovation system: towards a theory of innovation and interactive learning*. Pinter, London.

Lundvall, B. A. (2007). National innovation systems—analytical concept and development tool. *Industry and innovation*, 14(1), 95-119.

McDermott, C. M., & O'Connor, G. C. (2002). Managing radical innovation: an overview of emergent strategy issues. *Journal of product innovation management*, 19(6), 424-438.

Mongkhonvanit, J. (2010). Universities, Government and Industry in Knowledge, Skill and Innovative Capacity Diffusion of Thailand's Automotive Cluster. In Mongkhonvanit, J. (2010). *Industrial Cluster & Higher Education*. Xlibris Corporation.

Mowery, D.C. and Sampat, B.N. (2005). Universities in national innovation systems. J. Fagerberg, et al. (eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Innovation*, Oxford, Oxford University Press. 209-239.

Natsuda, K., & Thoburn, J. (2013). Industrial policy and the development of the automotive industry in Thailand. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 18(3), 413-437.

Nelson, R. R. (Ed.). (1993). *National innovation systems: a comparative analysis*. Oxford university press.

Palpacuer, F. and Parisotto, A. (2003). *Global Production and Local Jobs: Can Global Enterprise Networks Be Used as Levers for Local Development*. *Global Networks*, Vol. 3, 2003, 97–120.

Pavlínek, P., and Ženka, J. (2010). *Upgrading in the Automotive Industry: Firm-Level Evidence from Central Europe*. *Journal of Economic Geography*, Vol. 11, 2010, 559-584.

Reuters (2017). Electric cars win? Britain to ban new petrol and diesel cars from 2040. Retrieved from <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-britain-autos-idUSKBN1AB0U5>

Sadoi, Y. (2013). Technological capability of automobile parts suppliers in Thailand. In *Innovation and Industrialization in Asia* (pp. 109-123). Routledge.

Scott-Kemmis, D., & Chitavas, C. (2007). Revisiting the learning and capability concepts—building learning systems in Thai auto component firms. *Asian Journal of Technology Innovation*, 15(2), 67-100.

Sen S. and Murali A. (2018). The story of India's flip-flops on its electric vehicle policy — and how it will hurt. Retrieved From <https://factordaily.com/india-u-turn-on-electric-vehicles-policy/>

Sierzchula, W., Bakker, S., Maat, K., & van Wee, B. (2014). The influence of financial incentives and other socio-economic factors on electric vehicle adoption. *Energy Policy*, 68, 183-194.

Silverman D. (2010). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*, 3rd ed. London: SAGE.

Smith, K., 1995, 'Interactions in Knowledge Systems: Foundations, Policy Implications and Empirical Methods,' *STI Review* 16

Sturgeon, T. J. (2001). How do we define value chains and production networks?. *IDS bulletin*, 32(3), 9-18.

Sturgeon, T. J., & Gereffi, G. (2009). Measuring success in the global economy: International trade, industrial upgrading and business function outsourcing in global value chains. *Transnational Corporations*, 18(2), 1.

Sturgeon, T. J., Memedovic, O., Van Biesebroeck, J., and Gereffi, G. (2009). *Globalisation of the Automotive Industry: Main Features and Trends*. *International Journal of Technological Learning, Innovation and Development*, Vol. 2, No. 1, 2009, 7-24.

Sturgeon, T., Van Biesebroeck, J., & Gereffi, G. (2008). Value chains, networks and clusters: reframing the global automotive industry. *Journal of economic geography*, 8(3), 297-321.

Sturgeon, T., & Van Biesebroeck, J. (2010). Effects of the crisis on the automotive industry in developing countries: a global value chain perspective.

Suvit M. (2017). Thailand 4.0 Transforming towards Value-Based Economy. [Powerpoint slides]. Retrieved from <https://www.slideshare.net/WorsakKanokNukulchai/thailand-40-valuebased-economy-by-dr-suvit-maesincee>

Thai Automotive Industry Association (2014). TAIA & UK Trade Mission Meeting. [Powerpoint slides]. Retrieved from https://www.smmmt.co.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/Thai-automotive-industry_TAIA.pdf

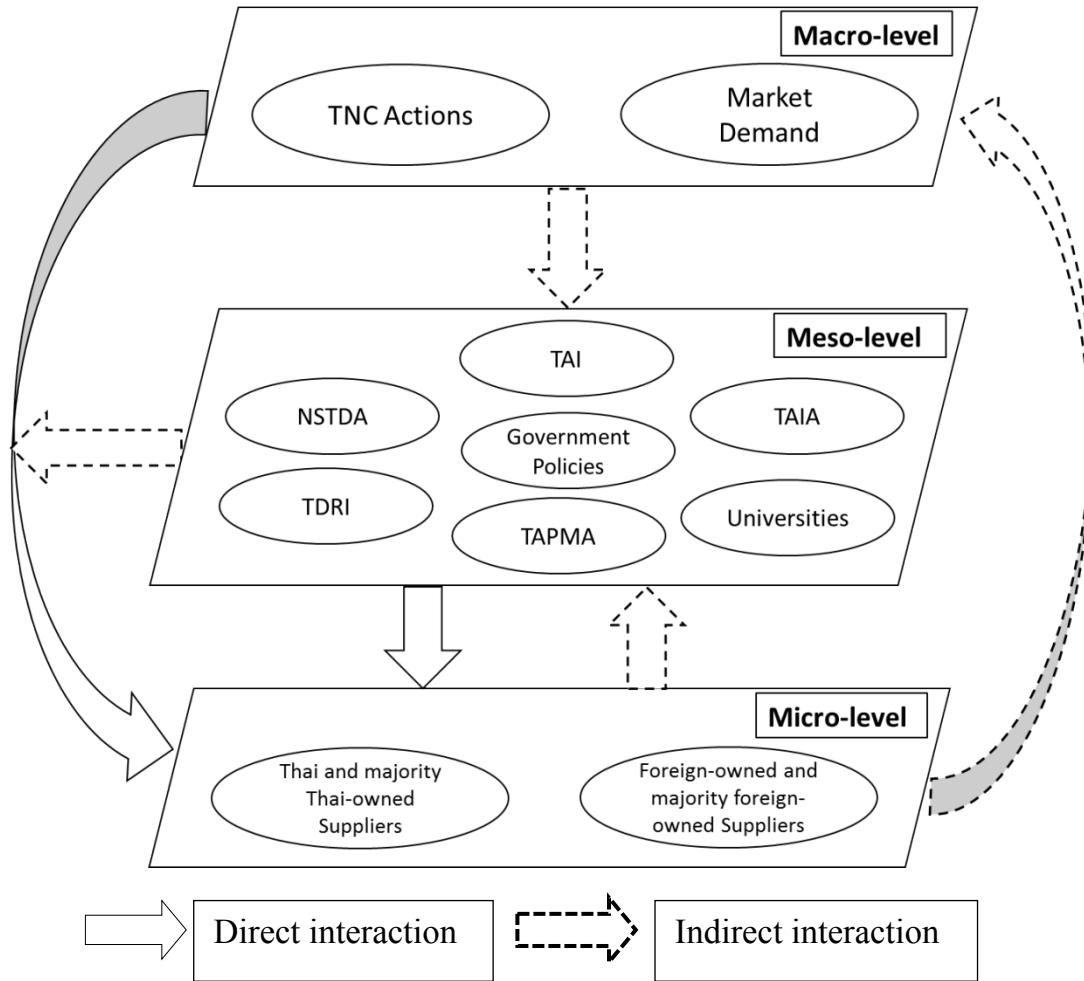
Thailand Automotive Institute (2012). Master Plan for Automotive Industry 2012 – 2016 By Thailand Automotive Institute Ministry of Industry. Retrieved from http://www.thaiauto.or.th/2012/backoffice/file_upload/research/11125561430391.pdf

Van Lancker, J., Wauters, E., & Van Huylenbroeck, G. (2016). Managing innovation in the bioeconomy: An open innovation perspective. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 90, 60-69.

Wad, P. (2009). The automobile industry of Southeast Asia: Malaysia and Thailand. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 14(2), 172-193.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. 4th ed. London: SAGE.

Figure 2: Global System of Innovation of the Thai Automotive Industry



Source: Author

Author Biography

1) Mr Veerasith Songthaveephol

Veerasith is a 3rd Year PhD Student at Salford Business School. He worked as an analyst in the national oil company in Thailand and was a Senior Executive at the Nielsen Company Thailand before starting his PhD. He is interested in innovations in the automotive industry.

2) Dr Mostafa Mohamad

Lecturer of Information Systems

Dr Mostafa is a system analyst by profession and an action researcher by blood. He has a wide professional and academic experience in the areas of multi-layer systems development, e-Marketing, business modelling, and digital innovation. Before joining Salford Business School, Mo has served as a lecturer at Manchester Business School and Leeds Business School. Formerly, he served 7 years as a supply chain manager in the automotive and telecommunication industries. During his time at SBS, Mo teaches a number of postgraduate and undergraduate courses in the areas of information management and systems development. Above all, he enjoys supervising PhD candidates in the wide discipline of business technology and Information systems.