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Nakhon Ratchasima Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences (NJHSS) publishes academic works online in the fields of humanities and social sciences. Its scope includes social sciences, arts and humanities, language and literature, education, social innovation, education and innovation technology, information sciences, and other related fields. It serves as a platform to share knowledge about humanities and social sciences among faculties, scholars, students, and public. Contributions are welcomed from both inside and outside the university to continuously develop and promote academic works that can be practically applied, and be beneficial to the whole society. The journal accepts articles in English only.

The journal is published four times per year, namely issue 1 January-March, issue 2 April-June, issue 3 July-September, and issue 4 October-December. All articles will be reviewed by three experts in relevant academic fields, and all of experts come from within and outside of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University (double-blind peer review).

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2. The journal publishes two types of articles: 2.1. Research Articles: Presenting systematically conducted studies or investigations, including research objectives, conceptual frameworks, research methodology, results, discussions, and recommendations. 2.2. Academic Articles: Offering general knowledge synthesized with the authors' opinions beneficial to readers, including an introduction, content, and conclusion.

3. Articles must not have been previously published or be under consideration by other journals.

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7. Nakhon Ratchasima Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences is in the process of development for quality evaluation by Thai Journal Citation Index (TCI) in humanities and social sciences field.

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Editor's Note

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The current issue features articles that address significant topics in the fields of language and literature, translation studies, education, public policy, and humanities. A total of five articles are presented, comprising three academic articles and two research articles. Each contribution offers valuable insights that advance academic development and support practical applications. **The first article** is “Writing Advertising Copy for Public Relations The Art of Writing for Creative Career Practice”. **The second article** is “Business Structure in Thailand and Community Self-Reliance A Critical Analysis and Policy Recommendations”. **The third article** is “Family Accommodation for Families of Hospitalized Children A Gap in Public Service Provision in Thailand”. **The fourth article** is “Strategic Collaboration Guidelines between Private Universities and Industry Partners (Chambers of Commerce and Industry Councils) for Establishing Effective Scholarship Funds to Enhance Student Potential in Thai Higher Education”. **The fifth article** is “A Comparative Study of Thai and Chinese Terms Referring to Jesus in Contemporary Bible Versions”.

The editorial team of Nakhon Ratchasima Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences (NJHSS) would like to express our sincere gratitude to all of authors for their contributions, as well as to the esteemed reviewers for their valuable guidance that help maintain the high quality and standard of our journal.

We sincerely hope that this issue will be beneficial to all readers and serve as an inspiration for further study and research in the future.

Thank you all for supporting our journal.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Teerawat Karnsopa', with a stylized flourish at the end.

(Dr. Teerawat Karnsopa)

Editor of Nakhon Ratchasima Journal of
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Writing Advertising Copy for Public Relations: The Art of Writing for Creative Career Practice

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Abstract

This article reviews and synthesizes literature from twenty scholarly works, namely: Kloyjai Sophonpan (2542 [1999]), Kaewta Krungwong (2544 [2001]), Chosita Maneesai (2553 [2010]), Natthanant Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]), Nantaporn Adirekchotikul (2547 [2004]), Nittaya Jitraktham (2550 [2007]), Nuttreeya Phonphanit (2550 [2007]), Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]), Rungrat Chaisamret (2550 [2007]), Laksana Satawethin (2542 [1999]), Wiset Chanprakhon (2550 [2007]), Suphawan Mongphet (2547 [2004]), Somphorn Mantasut Phaengphiphat (2540 [1997]), Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]), Saijai Thongniam (2545 [2002]), Seri Wongmontha (2546 [2003]), Saowanee Sikkhabandit (2540 [1997]), Ubonwan Pitiphatthanakhosit (2542 [1999]), Aekkachat Charumetheechon (2541 [1998]), and Ops Kaewchampa (2547 [2004]). The synthesis of advertising-copy writing for public-relations purposes that can be applied to career practice is divided into eight topics: the necessity of business advertising; characteristics of advertising language; writing product slogans; components of advertising-copy writing; problems in advertising-copy writing and corrective methods; public relations; and the code of ethics of advertising practitioners. Writing advertising copy is

therefore the use of language to disseminate messages to the public through various suitable methods in order to invite and persuade audiences and stimulate demand through persuasion techniques. Hence, writing advertising copy for public relations is essential for career practice.

Keywords: Advertising, Public Relations, The Art of Writing for Career Practice

Introduction

Advertising is the presentation of a product, its quality, and its uses in order to respond to consumer needs. The principal objective of advertising is therefore to persuade customers to take an interest in and use the advertiser's product. Advertising should be guided by creativity, presenting content that is interesting, memorable, informative, and stimulating to demand; presenting the distinctive features of the product; and building a brand identity that is recognized and remembered. Operating a business should therefore involve advertising, and the business owner must have knowledge and understanding of advertising in order to apply it to their own business as successfully as possible. The word "advertising" therefore means the use of language for communication and dissemination to the public through suitable methods and various media—including radio, television, and various forms of print—to inform and announce to large numbers of people about a product or service, in order to invite and persuade, stimulate demand, build trust, and create a positive image for the organization.

Advertising stimulates sales, disseminates information about products or services so that consumer groups will remember and favor them, and transmits informational knowledge. Natthanan Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]) stated that the purposes of advertising are to introduce products and

services that have been produced; to invite consumers to try buying or using; and to bring products to the market so that target groups become familiar with products or services that have not been produced before—by introducing the name, benefits, methods of use, and so on, using various persuasion techniques such as added benefits, larger quantities, discounts, exchanges, free giveaways, or premiums; to build a company image, consumer trust, and correct understanding; to attract buyers and remind consumers to remember the product. Advertising also supports other selling methods, such as distributors, intermediaries, or salespeople. Furthermore, advertising can communicate with people in remote areas through television, radio, newspapers, sound-broadcasting vehicles, billboards, and other channels. When a product or service is produced, the product description explains its benefits and properties, which is also a way of educating consumers.

Is advertising necessary, and when should advertising be undertaken? What methods will best promote sales to the public? From these questions, it can be seen that advertising is necessary. Newly produced products or services must rely on advertising so that the public becomes familiar with the product. Seri Wongmontha (2546 [2003]) stated that advertising is necessary for business because of the following:

Product differentiation—such as size, shape, weight, color, and quality—where advertising will clearly point out the differences between products. Hidden virtues in the product—today products closely resemble one another but differ in internal properties; whenever a product has hidden virtues, customers must be informed. A broadly expanding product market—if a product has a wide market and many customers, without advertising it

cannot build customer awareness. Competitors at the same level using advertising—consumers may think that any product that is advertised is a good and best-selling product; therefore, if competitors advertise, one must advertise as well. Blocking competitor entry—heavy advertising is used to prevent competitors from entering. The desire to create a large-scale impact—some products use advertising to create a major impact, such as TV ads, full-page newspaper ads, large billboards, or celebrity endorsers. The desire to enter the stock market—for future prospects, credibility, and a good image. The desire to sell ideas—when there is an idea for developing society and the nation, advertising should be undertaken to persuade the public to agree.

Writing advertising copy should consider the producer, the history or background to build confidence and acceptance among consumers; properties and production processes of the product or service; how, where, and when the product is sold; and what clear benefit the consumer will receive. Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]) stated that before writing advertising copy one should: know the product or service—details about the product's properties, methods of use, price, size, and care; know the target group—customer details such as gender, age, education, status, income, occupation, and so on; know the advertising media—which types of media will reach the target group thoroughly, budget, durability, and speed; know the various stages of advertising—where to start and how to introduce the product and service to the public; the form of advertising—such as television, radio, newspaper, magazine, journal, sound-broadcasting vehicle, billboard, exhibition, or demonstration; the use of psychological principles, which will make the reader feel that they believe and agree easily.

Somphorn Mantasut Phaengphiphat (2540 [1997]) advised that words and sentence constructions should be chosen so that the reader or listener experiences three reactions: immediate reaction, perception, and the use of imagination; and the use of advertising language, which should be concise and clear, with word choices appropriate to occasion and society, employing figurative expressions—whether comparison, unusual wording, or words conveying strength and intensity—possibly with repetition, emphasis, plays on idioms, or wordplay with rhyme, as will be detailed in later sections.

From the above, it is clear that advertising is the use of language for communication and dissemination to the public through various suitable methods and diverse communication channels in order to invite, persuade, stimulate demand, build trust, and create a positive image for the organization. Its objectives are to introduce products and services, invite trial purchases or trial use through various persuasion techniques such as added benefits, increased quantities, discounts, exchanges, giveaways, or free items. When there is a newly produced product or service, advertising is necessary so that the public becomes acquainted with it. The author has reviewed twenty scholarly works—namely Kloyjai Sophonpan (2542 [1999]), Kaewta Krungwong (2544 [2001]), Chosita Maneesai (2553 [2010]), Natthanan Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]), Nantaporn Adirekchotikul (2547 [2004]), Nittaya Jitraktham (2550 [2007]), Nuttreeya Phonphanit (2550 [2007]), Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]), Rungrat Chaisamret (2550 [2007]), Laksana Satawethin (2542 [1999]), Wiset Chanprakhon (2550 [2007]), Suphawan Mongphet (2547 [2004]), Somphorn Mantasut Phaengphiphat (2540 [1997]), Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]), Saijai Thongniam (2545 [2002]), Seri Wongmontha (2546 [2003]), Saowanee Sikkhabandit (2540 [1997]), Ubonwan

Pitiphatthanakhosit (2542 [1999]), Aekkachat Charumetheechon (2541 [1998]), and Ops Kaewchampa (2547 [2004])—and synthesized them to show that writing advertising copy for public relations is highly essential, especially in terms of the language and expressions used to advertise products. This academic article therefore proposes the art of creatively writing advertising copy as a guideline for career practice.

The Necessity of Business Advertising

The objectives of writing advertising copy are to convey meaning, increase sales, inform, persuade, and remind. Is advertising necessary? When should advertising be undertaken, and which method best promotes sales? From these questions it is clear that producers must use advertising for newly produced products or services so that the public becomes acquainted with them. Kloyjai Sophonpan (2542 [1999]), Nantaporn Adirekchotikul (2547 [2004]), Nuttreeya Phonphanit (2550 [2007]), Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]), Seri Wongmontha (2546 [2003]), and Ops Kaewchampa (2547 [2004]) have discussed the necessity of business advertising as follows:

1. Product differentiation—both physical differences in the external appearance of the product (such as size, shape, weight, color, and quality), where advertising clearly highlights the product's differences (e.g., thicker, thinner, more durable, more economical, more beautifully colored, blended with higher-quality ingredients), and psychological differences regarding brand image that can be used to compete with rivals, which can be referenced to build credibility—perhaps the beauty of the packaging or the use of famous presenters.

2. Hidden virtues in the product. Today, products closely resemble one another but their internal properties differ. Whenever a product has hidden virtues, customers must be informed; otherwise the product may be perceived as expensive yet worthless in the eyes of the customer.

3. A broadly expanding product market. Without advertising, awareness and understanding of the product cannot be built among customers, or only with much time. Advertising reaches the target group, so whenever there is a product, advertising is indispensable.

4. Competitors at the same level using advertising. Sometimes consumers think that any product that is advertised is good and sells well; therefore, if there are competitors, advertising is necessary.

5. Blocking competitor entry. Advertising strategies are used to prevent competitors from entering.

6. The desire to enter the stock market—to demonstrate future prospects with credibility and a good image.

Advertising is therefore necessary when a company's products have product differentiation, hidden virtues, an expanding product market, competitors at the same level using advertising, the need to block competitor entry, or the desire to enter the stock market. Advertising is therefore suitable for all products, whether already in production or newly produced.

Characteristics of Advertising Language

Writing advertising copy should involve the study of psychological principles to understand human needs. Determining the best form of advertising language is difficult to conclude, because no single form is best.

From a review of the literature by Kloyjai Sopphonpan (2542 [1999]), Kaewta Krungwong (2544 [2001]), Natthanan Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]), Nittaya Jitraktham (2550 [2007]), Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]), Wiset Chanprakhon (2550 [2007]), Saowanee Sikkhabandit (2540 [1997]), Suphawan Mongphet (2547 [2004]), Aekkachat Charumetheechon (2541 [1998]), and Ops Kaewchampa (2547 [2004]), the author has synthesized and proposed the characteristics of advertising language as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of Advertising Language

No.	Characteristics of advertising language	Examples of writing
1	Advertising language must show the benefits the consumer will receive after finishing reading the copy.	Mouthwash, Quick Care formula, reduces bacterial buildup, penetrates deep to clean the gums, and effectively reduces bad breath. (น้ำยาบ้วนปาก สูตร Quick Care ลดการสะสมของเชื้อแบคทีเรีย ชอกซอนทำความสะอาดลึกถึงเหงือก และลดกลิ่นปากอย่างได้ผล)
2	Advertising language must be clear so that the reader can understand it.	Hair Coat, natural herbal formula, nourishes hair, reduces split ends, leaves hair soft, smooth, and weighted, and protects hair from sunlight. (แฮร์โค้ท สูตรสมุนไพรธรรมชาติ บำรุงเส้นผม ลดการแตกปลาย ผมนุ่มสลวย มีน้ำหนัก ปกป้องเส้นผมจากแสงแดด)
3	Advertising language must be straightforward and credible.	Pure brand drinking water, produced from natural underground sources, safe and meeting international quality standards.

No.	Characteristics of advertising language	Examples of writing
		(น้ำดื่มตราเพียง ผลิตจากแหล่งน้ำใต้ดินธรรมชาติ ปลอดภัยและมีคุณภาพมาตรฐานระดับสากล)
4	Advertising language must stimulate consumer demand or the desire for ownership.	Save money: shop everything at one price—99 baht—e.g. Nescafé, red pork, red tilapia, sugar, etc., from today until 31 January 2026. (มอบความประหยัด ช้อปปิ้ง สินค้าราคาเดียว 99 บาท เช่น เนสกาแฟ หมูเนื้อแดง ปลาทั้งทิม น้ำตาลทราย ฯลฯ วันนี้งถึง 31 ม.ค. 2569)
5	Advertising language, once disseminated, makes readers remember the message and the product name.	"Pepsi: Live to the fullest." ("เป๊ปซี่เต็มทีกับชีวิต") "Hungry? Just drop by Seven Eleven." ("หิวเมื่อไหร่ก็แวะมา Seven eleven")
6	Advertising language must use language appropriate to the product or service.	Many tastes, many styles to choose from, with cutting-edge technology—smooth in every motion, beyond every movement, with Nation Color TV. (หลากหลายสไตส์ที่เลือกได้ กับสุดยอดเทคโนโลยีล้ำหน้า พลั้วทุกสีลา เหนือกว่าทุกความเคลื่อนไหว กับโทรทัศน์สีเนชั่น)
7	Advertising language must create satisfaction and a positive attitude toward the product or service owner.	The birth of strength: FBM Bank, into a new financial future of even greater stability, with deep-rooted finance and expert experience handed down. The leading banking group of Southeast Asia is ready to meet every financial need of the

No.	Characteristics of advertising language	Examples of writing
		Thai people. Serving you today. (กำเนิดความแข็งแกร่ง ธนาคาร เอฟบีเอ็ม สู่อนาคตใหม่ทางการเงินที่มั่นคงยิ่งกว่าด้วยรากฐานการเงินและประสบการณ์อันเชี่ยวชาญที่ได้รับการถ่ายทอดกลุ่มผู้นำธุรกิจด้านการธนาคารแห่งภูมิภาคเอเชียตะวันออกเฉียงใต้จึงพร้อม ตอบทุกความต้องการทางการเงินของคนไทย ให้บริการคุณแล้ววันนี้)
8	Advertising language must be concise, clear, and use words appropriate to the occasion and society, with figurative or comparative expressions, novel or unusual words, or words showing strength and intensity. There may be word repetition, emphasis, idiomatic play, or wordplay with rhyme.	True Net, happiness times two—upgrade happiness throughout the home. Install True Net today, 12 Mbps + watch TrueVisions free = 699 baht/month. (เน็ตทรู สุขคูณ 2 อัปเดตความสุขได้ครบทั้งบ้าน ติดเน็ตทรูวันนี้ 12 Mbps. + ดูฟรี! ทรูวิชั่นส์ = 699 บาท/เดือน)

Advertising language must be combined with psychological principles, which will make the reader feel that they believe and agree easily. Somphorn Mantasut Phaengphiphat (2540 [1997]) stated that the words written for an advertisement should be chosen so that the reader or listener experiences three reactions: immediate reaction, perception, and the use of imagination, as follows:

1. The choice of words or content for immediate persuasion. When reading or hearing it, the audience has an immediate reaction—wanting to buy, wanting to have, wanting to try—through simple language, short, direct, and clear sentences, for example:

"Buy 1, Get 1 Free." ("ซื้อ 1 แถม 1")

"Everything one price, 99 baht." ("สินค้าราคาเดียว 99 บาท")

"Grand Sale 50% off." ("ลดราคาครึ่งยิ่งใหญ่ 50%")

2. The choice of words or figurative expressions to arouse interest. This can be done for new products, novel products, product improvements, or price announcements, for example:

"Lactasoy, larger than before, more economical price." ("แลตตาซอย ขนาดใหญ่กว่าเดิม ราคาประหยัดกว่า")

3. The choice of words to embellish content—creating new ideas or changing them, sparking new imagination, raising curiosity that stirs varied imagination, or evoking the desire to try and the urge to buy within the advertising period—by choosing words that attract interest, prompt thought, including strong or intense words, for example:

"I-Star unveils its latest mobile phone, with luxurious design and complete functionality—watch all TV channels, support dual SIM, full entertainment whether watching movies or listening to music, enjoy dual-side photography, and supports memory up to 8 GB."

("I-Star เปิดตัวโทรศัพท์มือถือรุ่นใหม่ล่าสุด ดีไซน์หรู เพียบพร้อมด้วยฟังก์ชันที่ครบครัน สามารถรับฟังทีวีได้ครบทุกช่อง รองรับการใช้งาน 2 ซิม ครบครันทุกความบันเทิงไม่ว่าจะดูหนัง ฟังเพลง พร้อมผลิตเพลินกับการถ่ายรูป 2 ด้าน รองรับหน่วยความจำได้สูงสุด 8 GB")

In addition to what should be considered before writing advertising copy as stated above, one should be careful when writing advertising copy: do not harm others, do not exaggerate beyond reality, do not conceal facts that should be revealed so as to mislead consumers, do not attack commercial competitors, and do not neglect morality, ethics, or the long-held good traditions of society (Natthanan Sirijaroen, 2548 [2005]). When choosing words or messages for advertising, the writer must consider many factors to make the advertising language able to stimulate consumer behavior. These factors include: objectives, the consumer group, properties and functions of the product, advantages and disadvantages, characteristics of the product, special properties, history of the product and the company, competition, advertising approach, and opportunities for disseminating the product to consumers. The use of words in advertising typically involves creating slogans, repeated emphasis, unusual words, attracting attention through various linguistic devices, words that prompt decisions, persuasive words that make consumers feel they are receiving the very best—modern and high-class. The text usually identifies the product and service name, mostly at the end. Advertising language emphasizes the positive image of the product and service through linguistic devices, which sometimes may exceed reality (Chosita Maneesai, 2553 [2010]).

Writing Product Slogans

A good product slogan must be able to interest receivers and be remembered immediately so that they do not forget. The writing should therefore be an important message that publicizes the product and persuades the receiver. Wiset Chanprakhon (2550 [2007]), Somphorn

Mantasut Phaengphiphat (2540 [1997]), and Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]) defined "slogan" as a short phrase coined to publicize, invite, and persuade receivers.

Writing a product slogan helps the receiver become interested through simple yet meaningful wording. Slogans are divided into two types: slogans for agencies, organizations, or institutions, with the aim of presenting concepts, policies, and the direction of the agency and building a distinctive identity for the target group; and slogans for use in campaigning for a particular activity, with the main aim of stimulating and reinforcing the feelings, attitudes, and behaviors of the target group. They should be written to the point, with concise content and complete meaning, using rhyming language and consistent rhythm (Ubonwan Pitiphatthanakosit, 2542 [1999]). From the literature review, the author has synthesized and proposed the characteristics of slogan writing in Table 2 as follows:

Table 2

Characteristics of Slogan Writing

No.	Characteristics of slogan writing	Examples of writing
1	Writing to the point. Writing aligned with the issue to be communicated to the consumer; consider what is being communicated.	"Polluted air, hazardous life." ("อากาศเป็นพิษ ชีวิตเป็นภัย") "PTT: Thai energy for Thais." ("ปตท. พลังไทย เพื่อไทย") "Drivers beware of pedestrians; pedestrians beware of vehicles." ("ขับรถระวังคน ข้ามถนนระวังรถ")
2	Writing in short, concise wording— from 2 words upward, perhaps 1 to 4 phrases, possibly one sentence	One phrase: "Thai Airways loves you as much as the sky." ("การบินไทยรักคุณเท่าฟ้า") Two phrases:

No.	Characteristics of slogan writing	Examples of writing
	or two, with rhyme and rhythm to make it easy to remember.	"Love democracy—go vote." ("รักประชาธิปไตย ต้องไปเลือกตั้ง") Three phrases: "Drugs are dangerous—users die, sellers go to jail." ("ยาบ้าอันตราย คนเสพถึงตาย คนขายติดคุก") Four phrases: "Polluted air, shortened life; only trees can prevent and remedy." ("อากาศเป็นพิษ ชีวิตจะสั้น ต้นไม้เท่านั้น ทั้งกันทั้งแก้")
3	Writing with complete, clear, and unambiguous meaning. Have only one main message or goal that is immediately understandable without confusion.	"Worth every minute, watch Channel 3 color TV." ("คุ้มค่าทุกนาที ดูทีวีสีช่องสาม") "No alcohol during Buddhist Lent." ("งดเหล้า เข้าพรรษา") "A beautiful land, by our hands." ("บ้านเมืองสวย ด้วยมือเรา") "Drive fast, stay right; drive slow, stay left." ("ขับเร็วชิดขวา ขับช้าชิดซ้าย")
4	Writing wording with rhyme, wordplay, repetition, repeated sound, and consonance, with appropriate rhythm for euphony and easy remembering.	"Work is money, money is work, bringing happiness." ("งานคือเงิน เงินคืองาน บันดาลสุข") "Losing your way wastes time; losing yourself to drugs wastes your future." ("หลงทางเสียเวลา หลงติดยาเสียอนาคต")
5	Product advertising slogans should contain the product name.	"Gotta fizz, gotta dare, gotta Coke!" ("ต้องซ่า ต้องกล้า ต้องโค้กซิ") "Sharp: stepping ahead into the future." ("ชาร์ป ก้าวล้ำไปในอนาคต") "Wearing Pan brings joy." ("สวมแพน แสนเพลิน") "Nong Pho

No.	Characteristics of slogan writing	Examples of writing
		fresh milk—pure cow's milk." ("นมสดหนองโพ นมโคแท้แท้")
6	Writing with consistent word rhythm or dividing words into equal phrases.	"Don't drink and drive; don't drive and call; don't call and hold." ("เมาไม่ขับ ขับไม่โทร โทรไม่ถือ") "Love the King, care for our children, unite against drugs." ("รักในหลวง ห่วงลูกหลาน ร่วมกันต้าน ยาเสพติด")

The principles of good advertising must capture the attention of the target group, stimulate curiosity and the desire to experience the product, build confidence in the product, stimulate the desire to own it, and persuade the audience to act according to the set goal. The use of language in writing advertising copy varies in character, so the writer must study clearly in order to use advertising language appropriately—so that the target group develops the desire to use the product or service.

Components of Writing Advertising Copy

Writing advertising copy for a product requires knowledge of the components of writing, which stimulate the target group's interest and build a positive image of the product. The producer must have social responsibility and must not present anything contrary to ethics. The advertising copy should consist of the headline, sub-headline, benefit explanation, proof of extraordinary claims, additional benefits, and ending. Natthanant Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]), Nantaporn Adirekchotikul (2547 [2004]), Nuttreeya Phonphanit

(2550 [2007]), Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]), Rungrat Chaisamret (2550 [2007]), and Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]) have proposed the components of writing advertising copy, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Components of Writing Advertising Copy

No.	Components of advertising copy	Examples of writing
1	Headline. Writing that catches the reader's eye and interest because it is the most prominent part. The headline should use short, concise wording, possibly with rhyme, and must excite the reader's interest and be memorable.	Build a home—cheap, worthwhile, economical. (สร้างบ้าน ถูกคุ้ม ประหยัด)
2	Sub-headline. To get the reader to continue reading, the first sentence should be a sub-headline—text continuing from the headline so that reading further makes the topic clearer. If the headline does not state the product name, the sub-headline must include it and provide additional details.	Launching economical homes with Super Khum Plus and Budget Sut Khum house designs. (เปิดตัวบ้านแบบประหยัดกับแบบบ้าน ซูเปอร์คุ้มพลัส และบัดเจตสุดคุ้ม)
3	Benefit explanation. Writing that explains the quality or excellence of the product. This step must explain clearly to the reader what benefits the product provides, what is	Starting at only 10,300 baht per square meter, with 100 more house designs at special prices, plus many additional privileges. Great value for those wanting to build a home on a small

No.	Components of advertising copy	Examples of writing
	interesting about it, and what its special features are.	budget—build with Compact Home. (เริ่มต้นเพียงตารางเมตรละ 10,300 บาท พร้อมแบบบ้านอีก 100 แบบ ในราคาแบบพิเศษ รับสิทธิพิเศษอีกมากมาย งานนี้คุ้มค่ามากสำหรับผู้สร้างบ้านที่ต้องการใช้งบน้อย ๆ สร้างบ้านกับคอมแพคโฮม)
4	Proof of extraordinary claims. Writing to confirm or certify, which may be a report from research and testing, manufacturing experience, an offer to try the product oneself, or referencing names of past users to prove the quality as claimed.	Home-building guaranteed by ISO 2008. (รับประกันการสร้างบ้านจาก ISO 2008)
5	Additional benefits or product details. Writing additional information about other benefits to be received—such as quality guarantee, methods of use, free gifts, price, discounts, etc.	Free Index kitchenware set; if booking within the event, receive a free Galaxy Tab 2. (แถมฟรีชุดเครื่องครัว Index หากจองภายในงานรับฟรี Galaxy Tab2)
6	Ending of the advertisement. Writing intended to stimulate readers to act, by suggesting various methods—such as suggesting they decide to buy, where they can buy, or how to request more details and samples. The ending should give the company or shop name, contact address, and	Today and tomorrow, 27–28 July, cheap, worthwhile, good, at the Si Phraya head office. Tel. 0-2636-1511-2. (2 วันนี้ 27-28 ก.ค. ถูก คุ้ม ดี ที่สำนักงานใหญ่สี่พระยา โทร. 0-2636-1511-2)

No.	Components of advertising copy	Examples of writing
	various rapid and convenient contact channels.	

Writing each type of advertising does not necessarily include all six components, but those that usually cannot be omitted are the headline, benefit explanation, and ending. The writing order may also be rearranged. The reason some products have advertising copy without all six components is that some products do not need much explanation because they are already well known. In addition, the strategy of creating advertising work is the step of producing quality advertising by drawing on knowledge, reasoning, and imagination to create novelty in the advertising. The creator must consider the components of creative advertising work: main headline, sub-headline, body copy, captions, slogan, last line, brand name, image, choice of typeface, choice of colors, size, and logo (Seri Wongmontha, 2546 [2003]).

Problems in Writing Advertising Copy and Methods of Correction

Writing advertising copy must consider the structure to be presented from beginning to end. The content should emphasize the points to be communicated to the target group, without unnecessary description or circumlocution. The text must be truthful and credible; do not write beyond the truth. Wording should be easy to remember and should make the target group think of the advertised product accurately. The closing should leave a strong impression. All of the above are matters the writer must consider when writing advertising copy in order to avoid problems with

the wording. Natthanan Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]), Nantaporn Adirekchotikul (2547 [2004]), Nuttreeya Phonphanit (2550 [2007]), Phitphloen Sanguanphong (2540 [1997]), Rungrat Chaisamret (2550 [2007]), and Sunthorn Worahan (2548 [2005]) have addressed problems in advertising wording and methods of solving them, which the author has synthesized and summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Problems in Writing Advertising Copy and Methods of Correction

Problems in writing advertising copy	Methods of correction
1. The target group cannot interpret the meaning, perhaps because words unfamiliar to the target group are used.	1. Study the target group clearly to understand their level of receptivity—what level of complexity they can understand.
2. The target group interprets the meaning in a different direction from what is intended.	2. Try to use wording that is easily understandable, not complex, and full of good creativity—wording that does not lead to bad interpretations.
3. The wording may give rise to misunderstanding—seeming to disparage, demean, or fail to respect personal rights.	3. The use of group-specific language sometimes cannot be avoided, but it should be minimized—use language that follows established conventions.
4. The wording may be ambiguous or have double meanings. In reality, advertisers may have intended only entertainment and amusement, but the meaning could be interpreted as indecent.	4. For wording that invites buying, it should not invite everyone to buy, but should invite only those who truly need it as suitable buyers.
5. The wording creates group-specific terms. Linguists often say that advertisers	

Problems in writing advertising copy	Methods of correction
like to undermine the correct use of the Thai language.	
6. The wording should invite buying; at times this is criticized as causing the behavior "low income but high taste."	

Writing advertising copy must introduce the product to the reader, either by presenting the product's properties truthfully or by stimulating the reader's imagination. Advertising language should emphasize one or several characteristics, such as: a promise of what benefits the product will provide; the most important benefit the reader will receive; matters of the product that interest the reader; and text that the reader wants to keep reading. As for claims, there should be stories or events that make the advertisement credible. Wording should be specific, clear, concise, vivid, accurate, appropriate, and convenient to read and understand.

Public Relations

Public relations succeeds when based on good and effective communication, with planning, defined objectives, and actual implementation according to the appropriate plan. Public relations is communication between an organization and the public, in order to inform, clarify, and create correct understanding regarding opinions, attitudes, and values; build a name and a good image; foster and maintain good relations; leading to support and cooperation from the target group (Nantaporn

Adirekchotikul, 2547 [2004]; Rungrat Chaisamret, 2550 [2007]; and Laksana Satawethin, 2542 [1999]).

Public relations should demonstrate distinctiveness, provide entertainment, and select media for dissemination suitable to the work and the target group. Setting public-relations objectives requires sufficient and accurate information, persons who can supply details to the mass media, an appropriate plan, sincerity, and constant attention to mass media that can disseminate news from the agency to the public. Natthanan Sirijaroen (2548 [2005]) stated the objectives of public relations: to inform and create understanding through dissemination; to gain public acceptance by citing positive examples; to prevent misunderstanding through explanation, clarification, and citing credible sources; to build a positive image and stimulate agreement, without bragging or false advertising; to build good relations with feelings of attachment and participation; and to support marketing activities to promote products or services to be accepted and desired by consumers through various dissemination methods. Saowanee Sikkhabandit (2540 [1997]) categorized public relations as follows:

1. Internal public relations: aimed at building relationships within the organization—between members and the organization, and among members themselves—to foster morale in work. When an organization is large, communication may not reach everyone and may lack efficiency, possibly leading to conflicts, misunderstandings, or distortions of reality. Within the organization there must therefore be public relations through consultative meetings, circulars, newsletters, and opportunities for members to express opinions in various forms.

2. External public relations: building friendship and good relations with persons or other organizations outside, so they understand the work, scope of duties, and responsibilities of one's own organization. Public relations can be done through documents, publications, or other media—introducing, clarifying, and disseminating work as occasion permits.

Public relations is the heart of building understanding, faith, trust, acceptance, prevention of misunderstandings that cause damage, and creation of a positive image for the agency. Public relations should disseminate information, news, and policies both inside and outside the agency, generating pride and loyalty among members and surveying public opinion regarding the agency.

Code of Ethics of Advertising Practitioners

Every profession must have a code of ethics for practitioners to use as a guideline for proper and appropriate conduct. The Advertising Association of Thailand has stated that advertising practitioners must demonstrate responsibility to society as a whole and not take actions that negatively affect other persons. Nittaya Jitraktham (2550 [2007]) discussed the fundamental principles of practicing the advertising profession: every advertisement must be lawful, honorable, honest, and truthful. Advertising should not conflict with good morals and social order. Creating advertising should be done with awareness of social responsibility under the principles of fair competition generally accepted in business. Advertising must not cause the public to feel uncertain. Beyond the fundamental principles, the details of practicing the advertising profession should also be considered, as follows:

1. Practice the profession with honesty according to professional principles, and within the provisions of the law.
2. Do not take any action that may bring disgrace to the dignity of the profession.
3. Have responsibility to society and do not cause damage to good ethics and culture.
4. Do not produce advertising that insults race, religion, beliefs, or things revered by the general public.
5. Do not produce advertising that causes misunderstanding on essential matters concerning products, services, performances, etc., or boasts of properties beyond the truth, so as to mislead viewers or listeners.
6. Do not produce advertising using superstition or omens as a persuasive device.
7. Do not produce advertising by imitating trademarks, slogans, or important text from others' advertisements, causing viewers or listeners to misunderstand or be confused about another's products, services, or performances.
8. Do not produce advertising using statistical terms, research results, or scientific reports inappropriately or misleadingly, when the product does not actually possess the claimed properties.
9. Do not produce advertising referring to persons or institutions that do not actually exist or did not actually use the product or service or witness the performance.
10. Do not produce advertising that may endanger children or minors physically or mentally, or cause them to lose their sense of right and wrong, or exploit their inexperience as a persuasive device inappropriately.

When writing advertising copy, the writer should consider the ethics of practitioners, the fundamental principles of practicing the advertising profession, and the practical details of professional advertising, because incorrect practice may constitute a legal offense.

Conclusion

Advertising is the use of language to disseminate, inform, and announce to large numbers of people about products or services in order to stimulate demand, build trust, and create a positive image for the organization. To be effective, advertising must be planned continuously. Writing advertising copy must attract attention, generate interest, create desire, and prompt action. Before writing, one should consider the product, the customer, the form of advertising, psychological principles, and the language used. Writing advertising copy consists of the headline, sub-headline, benefit explanation, proof of extraordinary claims, additional benefits or product details, and ending. Language should be clear and able to create understanding, straightforward, credible, and easy to remember. Major problems in writing advertising copy include: the target group cannot interpret the meaning, or interprets it in a different direction; the wording is disparaging, demeaning, ambiguous, or has double meanings. In addition, advertising that is creatively disseminated to the public should consider the ethics of advertising practitioners.

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Business Structure in Thailand and Community Self-Reliance: A Critical Analysis and Policy Recommendations

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Abstract

This article is a conceptual and narrative literature analysis that rigorously analyzes the correlation between company structure in Thailand and the policy of community self-reliance. The objectives are threefold: to research capitalist economic systems, to examine collective organizational structures, and to evaluate family enterprises as micro-level entrepreneurial

units. The review utilizes political economy, organizational theory, family business research, and entrepreneurship literature. The results demonstrate that Thailand's business framework is significantly influenced by household and family-owned firms, which advantageously possess concentrated ownership, adaptable decision-making, and immediate entrepreneurial motivations. Conversely, collective-based models such as cooperatives, community enterprises, and OTOP promote social inclusion and local engagement but frequently encounter challenges in governance, incentives, market adaptability, and scalability. The comparative research indicates that community self-reliance policy should not depend exclusively on communal ownership models but should also enhance household-level entrepreneurship via financial resources, business training, market access, and institutional support. The paper reframes homes and family enterprises as significant components of community economic growth. This study mostly relies on secondary literature and conceptual analysis, lacking actual empirical testing or field-based evidence, which should be addressed in future research.

Keywords: Business Structure, Community, Self-Reliance, Critical Analysis, Policy, Recommendations

Introduction

The structure of business is a crucial determinant of economic development, especially in emerging nations where small and medium-sized firms (SMEs) are the foundation of employment, output, and revenue generation (Harvie, 2010; Yoshino & Taghizadeh-Hesary, 2016). In Thailand, numerous prosperous organizations are structured around familial and

household ownership, mirroring a wider Asian trend where family-controlled firms significantly contribute to corporate expansion and economic stability (Carney & Child, 2013; Claessens et al., 2000).

Thai public policy has historically advocated for community self-reliance via collective structures, including cooperatives, community enterprises, and the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) initiative. These policies seek to diminish inequality, enhance local engagement, and foster social cohesion (Birchall, 2011; Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). Despite their social value, such policies frequently encounter practical challenges, including ambiguous accountability, inadequate incentive frameworks, protracted decision-making, restricted financial access, and obstacles in competing within market-driven economic systems (Hansmann, 1996; Cook & Burrell, 2009; Ortmann & King, 2007).

This establishes a considerable research void. Current discourse frequently highlights the normative significance of community self-reliance, although it tends to overlook the economic efficacy of communal organizational structures within Thailand's capitalist and market-oriented environment. The function of household and family enterprises as practical components of community economic development remains little examined.

This article intends to: (1) analyze the structure of business units in Thailand within a capitalist economic framework; (2) evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of collective organizational forms employed in community self-reliance policies; and (3) assess the viability of family enterprises as micro-level entrepreneurial entities for sustainable local economic development. The report additionally recommends policies at the federal,

regional, and local levels to enhance household-based entrepreneurship while preserving the social advantages of community-focused growth.

Review Literature

This study employs an interdisciplinary analytical framework based on political economy, organizational theory, and entrepreneurship studies to analyze the structure of business units in Thailand. The framework incorporates three fundamental conceptual pillars: (1) capitalist economic systems, (2) collective organizational forms, and (3) family enterprises as micro-level entrepreneurial entities. These ideas establish a foundation for critically evaluating the congruence between economic realities and policy strategies for community self-reliance.

1. Capitalist Economic Structure

Capitalism is defined as an economic system marked by private ownership of production means, market coordination, competition, and profit maximization (Hansmann, 1996; North, 1990). In capitalist systems, companies function as independent entities that react to price signals, manage resources effectively, and seek innovation to maintain competitive advantage (Porter, 1985; Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012).

The literature underscores that effective markets rely on institutional quality, property rights, and entrepreneurial incentives, which collectively promote capital accumulation and sustained economic growth (North, 1990; Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012). In this setting, company success is frequently linked to well-defined ownership structures, accountability systems, and robust incentives for efficiency and innovation (Williamson, 1985).

Empirical research indicates that capitalist organizational structures, especially privately owned enterprises, exhibit enhanced adaptability and performance in dynamic contexts owing to their ability for swift decision-making and strategic flexibility (Djankov et al., 2003; La Porta et al., 1999). These attributes are especially pertinent in emerging nations, where institutional limitations compel enterprises to depend significantly on internal governance and entrepreneurial initiative.

2. Collective-Based Model

Unlike capitalist institutions, collective-based models prioritize shared ownership, democratic governance, and equal distribution of rewards among participants. These approaches are generally exemplified in entities such as cooperatives, community enterprises, and mutual associations (Birchall, 2011; Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). The theoretical basis of these models focuses on mitigating market failures, diminishing inequality, and fostering social cohesiveness via collective action (Ostrom, 1990).

Community-based firms are typically regarded as hybrid organizations that aim to achieve both economic and social goals, reconciling efficiency with inclusivity (Ebrahim et al., 2014). They are especially pertinent in rural and marginalized settings, where access to finance and markets is constrained, and collective action can augment bargaining power and resource mobilization (Peredo & Chrisman, 2006).

A significant corpus of scholarship underscores the structural limits inherent in communal governance. This encompasses inefficiencies in decision-making, free-rider issues, inadequate incentive frameworks, and challenges in operational scalability (Hansmann, 1996; Cook & Burrell, 2009). The dispersion of ownership may diminish responsibility and impede

strategic responsiveness, especially in competitive market contexts (Ortmann & King, 2007). Consequently, although collective-based models can significantly contribute to social development, their efficacy as principal catalysts of economic growth is still debated.

3. Family Business

Family enterprises are a predominant organizational structure worldwide, especially in Asia and other developing economies (Claessens et al., 2000; Carney & Child, 2013). A family firm is typically characterized as an enterprise whose ownership and administration are governed by family members, frequently spanning several generations (Chrisman et al., 2012).

The literature delineates certain unique attributes that facilitate the success of family enterprises. These encompass long-term orientation, a robust commitment to continuity, and the amalgamation of familial and economic resources (Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2005). Family enterprises benefit from elevated levels of trust, social capital, and tacit knowledge, which bolster organizational coherence and diminish transaction costs (Gedajlovic et al., 2012).

Furthermore, family enterprises typically demonstrate enhanced adaptability and expedited decision-making relative to collective organizations, allowing them to react more efficiently to market fluctuations (Carney, 2005). Their governance frameworks typically correlate ownership with control, therefore enhancing responsibility and entrepreneurial motivation (La Porta et al., 1999).

A recent study underscores the significance of family enterprises in promoting resilience and sustainability, especially under volatile economic conditions. Their capacity to equilibrate economic and non-economic

objectives enables them to seek long-term value creation while preserving adaptability (Chrisman et al., 2012; Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2005).

Synthesis of the Framework

Collectively, these three conceptual frameworks establish a foundation for examining the structural dynamics of business units in Thailand. Capitalist models concentrate efficiency, competition, and profit motives; collective models focus on equity and social cohesion but encounter governance difficulties; whereas family enterprises have a hybrid structure that merges private ownership with intrinsic social capital. This framework facilitates a rigorous analysis of the alignment between policy strategies that emphasize collective organization and the structural attributes of successful business units, as well as the potential of household-level enterprises to provide a more feasible route for sustainable economic development.

Conceptual Framework

This research employs a conceptual framework based on political economy, organizational theory, family business theory, and entrepreneurship studies to analyze the correlation between business structure in Thailand and community self-reliance. The framework comprises three primary analytical variables: (1) capitalist economic systems, (2) collective organizational structures, and (3) family enterprises as micro-level entrepreneurial organizations. These factors are utilized to rigorously examine the impact of various organizational structures on the efficacy of

community self-reliance policies and to develop policy suggestions suitable for Thailand's socio-economic environment.

The independent variable is business structure, delineated by two distinct organizational forms: capitalist economic systems, defined by private ownership, market competition, entrepreneurial incentives, and profit-driven decision-making; and collective organizational forms, exemplified by cooperatives, community enterprises, and analogous entities that prioritize shared ownership, democratic governance, and collective advantages (Hansmann, 1996; Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). Diverse organizational structures are anticipated to influence organizational performance through variations in governance, incentives, responsibility, and flexibility in response to market conditions (North, 1990; Williamson, 1985).

The intervening variable is critical analysis, which assesses how governance structures, ownership concentration, entrepreneurial incentives, decision-making efficiency, and market responsiveness mediate the relationship between corporate structure and developmental results. This analytical feature facilitates a thorough evaluation of the advantages and disadvantages of market-oriented versus collective organizational models within the Thai institutional framework.

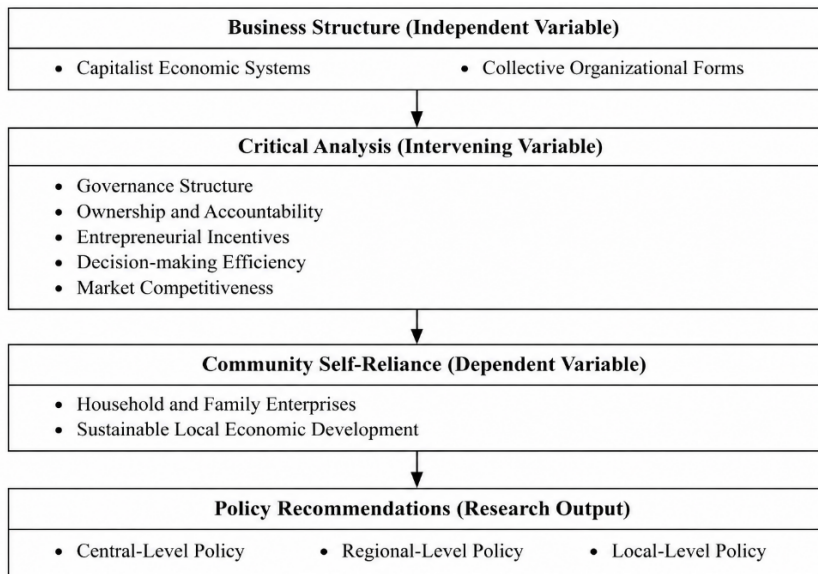
The dependent variable is community self-reliance, which is defined as the ability of households and communities to foster sustainable economic development via productive business endeavors. The research posits that family enterprises serve as a significant micro-level entrepreneurial mechanism linking business structure to community self-sufficiency, as they integrate concentrated ownership, adaptable

governance, accumulated social capital, and long-term investment motivations (Chrisman et al., 2012; Gedajlovic et al., 2012).

Consequently, policy recommendations represent the practical outcome of the study based on this conceptual relationship. The recommendations stem from a comparative analysis of various business structures and suggest strategies to enhance household-based entrepreneurship while preserving the social roles of community organizations through suitable policies at the central, regional, and local levels.

Figure 1

Conceptual relationship



Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized a qualitative research methodology, incorporating documentary investigation, a narrative literature review, and comparative conceptual analysis. The study synthesized and critically analyzed existing academic literature to investigate the relationship between business structure in Thailand and community self-reliance, rather than gathering original empirical data. The investigation concentrated on discerning the advantages and drawbacks of alternative organizational models and their consequences for public policy.

Data Sources

The research utilized solely secondary data sourced from peer-reviewed journal articles, academic texts, governmental publications, and reports from international organizations pertaining to business structure, family enterprises, entrepreneurship, community enterprises, cooperatives, small and medium-sized enterprises, and community self-sufficiency. Priority was accorded to robust theoretical and empirical research related to Thailand and other emerging economies to ensure contextual relevance and comparative insights.

Data Analysis

The gathered literature was examined through comparative conceptual analysis. The analysis was conducted in four phases. Initially, pertinent ideas and empirical evidence were categorized into three primary conceptual domains: capitalist economic systems, collective organizational

structures, and family enterprises as micro-level entrepreneurial organizations. Secondly, the similarities and contrasts among these organizational types were rigorously analyzed concerning governance structure, ownership, entrepreneurial incentives, decision-making efficiency, and market competitiveness. The data were analyzed in relation to Thailand's corporate framework and community self-reliance policies to discern areas of alignment and discrepancy between policy assumptions and organizational realities. The analytical findings were ultimately combined to formulate policy suggestions at the federal, regional, and local levels.

Scope and Limitation

This study relies exclusively on documentary evidence and conceptual analysis, with its results drawn from existing literature rather than original field data. Thus, the results ought to be regarded as analytical statements rather than causal empirical data. Future research utilizing qualitative fieldwork or quantitative analysis is advised to corroborate and expand upon the results articulated in this article.

Results

1. Structure of Business Units in Thailand

Thailand's business framework can be characterized as a hybrid system, wherein a substantial SME sector coexists alongside highly concentrated major business conglomerates. One of its most remarkable structural characteristics is the persistent prominence of family-based ownership and control, particularly among the nation's most prosperous enterprises. Research on Thai corporate groups indicates that numerous

prominent and significant economic entities are governed by familial clans, with familial connections remaining profoundly integrated in ownership, board structure, and executive leadership. Bertrand et al. (2008) illustrate that ownership and control in Thailand are predominantly structured around familial frameworks, based on data from 93 of the top Thai business families. Similarly, Suehiro and Wailerssak (2004) and Yabushita and Suehiro (2014) demonstrate that substantial Thai conglomerates continue to be predominantly family-oriented despite modernizing governance and internationalizing activities.

This pattern indicates that Thailand's business system is not merely a dichotomy of "small local enterprises" vs "modern corporations." It is a system wherein numerous large corporations developed from smaller family or household operations and subsequently grew via sustained capital accumulation, diversification, and intergenerational continuity. The Thai situation aligns with broader findings from Asia indicating that concentrated ownership and familial control are prevalent organizational structures in environments where family networks, internal capital distribution, and relational governance are significant. Claessens et al. (2000) and La Porta et al. (1999) demonstrate that ownership concentration is a salient characteristic of corporate frameworks in numerous Asian and emerging-market nations, with family-controlled enterprises holding a notably significant position. In Thailand, this phenomenon is particularly evident in corporate conglomerates where familial ties influence both formal power and informal collaboration.

A second significant characteristic of Thailand's economic framework is that management is intimately linked to familial networks. Thai

family enterprises often maintain strategic decision-making within the family, despite the introduction of professional managers at subordinate or mid-level positions within the organization. Bertrand et al. (2008) demonstrate that the sons of founders have particularly significant roles in ownership and board participation, especially following the succession of the founder. Suehiro and Wailardsak (2004) contend that Thai family enterprises endure not solely as ownership entities, but as governance frameworks where familial authority, loyalty, and succession planning are paramount. Recent studies by Sitthipongpanich and Polsiri (2015) and Boonlert-U-Thai and Sen (2019) affirm that familial engagement persistently influences firm-level results in Thailand, encompassing governance quality, management incentives, and financial reporting quality. The data suggest that "kinship management" in Thailand is not merely a traditional vestige; instead, it constitutes a persistent organizational rationale.

A third identifying factor is sustained capital accumulation and ongoing corporate expansion. Thai family enterprises and family-managed company conglomerates have frequently expanded by reinvesting profits, diversifying into both related and unrelated industries, and maintaining ownership throughout generations. Yabushita and Suehiro (2014) elucidate the methods by which Thai family business groups navigate pivotal transition phases via organizational adaptation while maintaining familial authority. The ability to expand amidst ongoing ownership concentration suggests that family businesses in Thailand are not solely small-scale enterprises; they may also serve as the basis for substantial and diversified conglomerates. Somboonvechakarn et al. (2022) demonstrate in their examination of Thai family SMEs that intergenerational continuity relies on the effective transfer

of tacit knowledge, business values, and innovation-driven competencies. Collectively, these studies indicate that family businesses in Thailand operate as both a means of survival and a conduit for long-term wealth growth.

The Thai company structure is characterized as "mixed," comprising big family businesses alongside a substantial number of SMEs, many of which encounter challenges related to productivity, funding, and capabilities. Charoenrat et al. (2013), Charoenrat and Harvie (2014), and Charoenrat and Harvie (2017) demonstrate that Thai manufacturing SMEs hold significant economic importance yet frequently display low technical efficiency and encounter considerable obstacles in rivalry, innovation, and market advancement. This does not diminish the significance of family businesses; instead, it emphasizes that the household or family firm constitutes the fundamental organizational unit, whereas effective scaling relies on the unit's ability to amass capital, enhance capabilities, and strategically adapt over time. Thailand's company structure exhibits a blend of scale and sectoral diversity, however it is characterized by a consistent organizational logic: the family or household serves as the core from which business expansion typically originates.

The structural factors elucidate why successful business units in Thailand frequently exhibit three interconnected attributes. Initially, they typically demonstrate distinct ownership. Concentrated ownership diminishes uncertainty over power and control, enabling owners to internalize risks and returns. The Thai evidence regarding ownership concentration and company value underscores the significance of well-defined control rights, while simultaneously cautioning that these

advantages may be undermined by expropriation risks in the presence of inadequate governance quality (Connelly et al., 2012; Sitthipongpanich & Polsiri, 2015). Secondly, prosperous companies frequently gain from swift decision-making. Due to the concentration of authority, family-controlled enterprises can react more swiftly to disruptions, opportunities, and succession requirements. Third, they are significantly influenced by profit motives. Family enterprises, being privately managed entities, possess direct motivations to safeguard wealth, enhance returns, and guarantee long-term sustainability. These characteristics align with extensive family business research that highlights the strategic implications of ownership concentration, the preservation of socioemotional wealth, and a long-term perspective (Anderson & Reeb, 2003; Berrone et al., 2012; Chrisman et al., 2012; Gedajlovic et al., 2012).

The organizational framework of business units in Thailand indicates a definitive analytical result. The economy encompasses several organizational structures, although the most resilient and prosperous commercial entities are often those established on familial or household roots, supported by concentrated ownership, kinship governance, and long-term capital accumulation. This does not suggest that every family business is efficient or that all collective entities are unsuccessful. It indicates that community economic development programs should be based on the genuine institutional logic of Thai commercial organizations. If Thailand's most prosperous enterprises typically arise from family-oriented units within a market-driven framework, then policies designed to bolster community self-sufficiency should prioritize enhancing the productive capabilities of

individual households and family businesses as scalable micro-level entities, rather than emphasizing collective ownership as a primary objective.

2. Critique of Community Self-Reliance Policies

Thailand's public policies have historically prioritized the enhancement of community self-sufficiency via collective organizational structures, including cooperatives, community enterprises, and the One Tambon One Product (OTOP) initiative. These efforts are based on the normative aim of enhancing grassroots economies, diminishing inequality, and promoting social cohesion. They conceptually correlate with collaborative development approaches that prioritize shared ownership, reciprocal benefit, and participatory governance (Birchall, 2011; Peredo & Chrisman, 2006). Although these policies are well-intentioned and socially beneficial, an increasing amount of data indicates that their efficacy in producing sustainable economic results is constrained by structural, incentive-related, and market-based limitations.

1.1. Structural Constraints

A significant constraint of collective-based organizations resides in their governance framework. Cooperative and community companies generally depend on democratic decision-making processes, which, although inclusive, may result in inefficiencies and delays in strategic decision-making (Hansmann, 1996; Cook & Burrell, 2009). The distribution of power among members frequently leads to coordination issues and hinders organizational responsiveness, especially in competitive market contexts where agility and adaptability are essential (Ortmann & King, 2007).

Furthermore, communal ownership frameworks sometimes generate uncertainty around accountability. The widespread distribution of

ownership and control complicates the obvious assignment of responsibility for organizational performance. This may undermine managerial discipline and diminish the efficacy of internal monitoring systems (Hansmann, 1996). Empirical studies on cooperatives and collective companies have frequently identified governance concerns, such as leadership instability, inadequate rule enforcement, and difficulties in aligning member interests (Bijman et al., 2013).

1.2. Weak Economic Incentives

A second significant problem pertains to the incentive framework inside collective groups. In contrast to privately owned companies, where returns are directly linked to individual investment and performance, communal organizations typically allocate benefits more equitably among members. This fosters equity but may diminish individual willingness to exert effort or engage in innovation (Cook & Iliopoulos, 2000).

This phenomena is intricately linked to the traditional "free-rider problem," wherein people are motivated to exploit communal resources without commensurate contribution (Olson, 1965). Within the realm of community enterprises, this may result in insufficient investment, diminished productivity, and constrained innovative potential. Research indicates that in the absence of robust incentive structures, collective companies face challenges in maintaining long-term competitiveness and growth (Hansmann, 1996; Cook & Burrell, 2009).

The lack of explicit profit-driven incentives may constrain entrepreneurial activity. The research on entrepreneurship underscores that innovation and risk-taking are motivated by anticipated profits (Baumol, 1990; Bruton et al., 2013). When such incentives are weakened,

organizational performance may be jeopardized, especially in contexts necessitating ongoing adaptation and innovation.

1.3. Misalignment with Market Mechanisms

A third significant obstacle is the discord between collective-based models and market-oriented economic systems. In capitalist economies, companies are anticipated to compete based on efficiency, innovation, cost control, and responsiveness to consumer demand (Porter, 1985). Nonetheless, some community-based firms lack the adaptability and resources required to function well under these circumstances.

Empirical research indicates that collaborative enterprises frequently encounter limitations in capital acquisition, technology adoption, and operational scale (Ortmann & King, 2007; Bijman et al., 2013). Furthermore, their governance frameworks may constrain their capacity to swiftly react to market signals, thereby diminishing competitiveness in comparison to privately owned enterprises.

Research on SME development indicates that successful enterprises typically necessitate robust entrepreneurial leadership, strategic decision-making, and efficient resource mobilization—qualities more frequently linked to privately controlled firms than to collective organizations (Carney, 2005; Gedajlovic et al., 2012). Consequently, communal firms may be restricted to small-scale, low-productivity endeavors, thereby constraining their impact on overall economic development.

3. Critical Implication

Collectively, these structural, incentive, and market-related limits indicate that policies fostering community self-reliance via collective organizational structures may not completely correspond with the reality of

a market-oriented economic system. Although these policies are significant for social development and inclusiveness, their ability to foster sustainable economic growth and competitiveness is constrained.

Consequently, the notion of "community self-reliance" may devolve into mere policy rhetoric rather than an economically viable strategy if it fails to sufficiently integrate market principles, entrepreneurial incentives, and organizational efficiency. An enhanced strategy may necessitate reevaluating the equilibrium between communal activity and individual entrepreneurial capability, especially by fortifying household-level business units that function within market-driven frameworks.

Table 1

Comparison of Community Self-Reliance Models and Market-Oriented Firms in Thailand

Dimension	Collective / Community-Based Organizations	Privately Owned / Market-Oriented Firms
Governance	Democratic, participatory	Centralized decision-making;
Structure	decision-making; inclusive but often slow and inefficient	faster, more flexible, and responsive
Accountability	Diffused responsibility; unclear accountability; risk of weak monitoring	Clear ownership; strong accountability and managerial discipline
Decision-Making	Prone to delays and	Quick strategic decisions;
Efficiency	coordination problems among members	adaptable to market changes
Incentive System	Equal or shared benefits; weaker link between effort and reward	Strong profit-driven incentives tied to performance

Dimension	Collective / Community-Based Organizations	Privately Owned / Market-Oriented Firms
Motivation & Productivity	Risk of free-rider problem; lower individual motivation	High motivation due to direct rewards and competition
Innovation & Entrepreneurship	Limited innovation due to weak incentives and risk-taking	Encourages innovation and entrepreneurship through profit motives
Access to Resources	Limited access to capital, technology, and scaling opportunities	Better access to finance, technology, and expansion capabilities
Market Competitiveness	Less responsive to market signals; often less competitive	Highly competitive; driven by efficiency, cost control, and demand
Organizational Scale	Often small-scale and low productivity	Capable of scaling and achieving higher productivity
Social Impact	Promotes equity, inclusion, and community cohesion	Focuses more on efficiency and profit, less on social equity
Economic Sustainability	Constrained by structural and incentive limitations	More sustainable in competitive market environments

4. Policy Recommendations

This paper contends that policy strategies promoting community self-reliance in Thailand should transition from a primary focus on collective organizational structures to enhancing household-level entrepreneurial capabilities. Considering that prosperous business units in Thailand

frequently originate from family-run firms inside market-driven frameworks, policy measures should prioritize empowering households to operate as competitive micro-enterprises. This section suggests a multi-tiered policy framework that includes central, regional, and local governance levels.

4.1. Central-Level Policy

At the national level, policy reforms must prioritize the establishment of a conducive environment for micro-entrepreneurship and the development of small-scale private enterprises. The literature constantly emphasizes the significance of institutional quality, regulatory efficiency, and financial accessibility in promoting entrepreneurial activity (Acs et al., 2014; Djankov et al., 2003).

Firstly, the government should actively foster micro-entrepreneurship by enhancing entrepreneurship education, lowering entrance obstacles, and streamlining business formalization. Micro-entrepreneurship is essential for alleviating poverty and fostering inclusive economic growth, especially in developing nations (Bruton et al., 2013; Welter et al., 2017).

Secondly, regulatory frameworks ought to be simplified to diminish bureaucratic intricacy and compliance expenditures. Overregulation can hinder business establishment and restrict firm expansion, particularly for small and home-based firms (Djankov et al., 2002). Streamlined licensing processes, digitized governmental services, and transparent regulatory frameworks are crucial for enhancing the business climate.

Third, policies ought to improve direct financial access for households, especially via microfinance, credit guarantees, and inclusive financial institutions. Capital access continues to be a significant limitation

for small businesses, and financial inclusion is recognized as a crucial factor in entrepreneurial success (Beck et al., 2007; Demirgüç-Kunt et al., 2018). Targeted financial support systems ought to prioritize productive investment above short-term consumption.

4.2. Regional-Level Policy

Policy interventions at the regional level should concentrate on establishing institutional support mechanisms and market connections that facilitate the scaling and competitive viability of family companies.

A primary strategy is the establishment of Household Business Development Centers that provide training, business consulting, mentoring, and technical assistance tailored to micro-entrepreneurs. Such support institutions strengthen entrepreneurial capabilities by facilitating knowledge transfer, improving access to business networks, and promoting innovation within local entrepreneurial ecosystems (Stam, 2015). In addition, connecting household enterprises with regional value chains and market networks enhances learning opportunities, resource mobilization, and business competitiveness (Gereffi et al., 2005).

Furthermore, regional strategies ought to enhance market networks and value chain integration. Market access is a crucial factor in company success, and companies integrated inside networks generally exhibit superior performance owing to enhanced information exchange and resource availability (Porter, 1998; Gereffi et al., 2005). Regional governments can enhance links between small producers and larger enterprises, while also advocating for digital platforms to broaden market access.

Additionally, cluster-based development techniques can be utilized to improve competitiveness by promoting spatial concentration and

collaboration among interconnected enterprises (Porter, 1998). Unlike conventional cluster policies that prioritize communal production, these methods should focus on enhancing the capabilities of individual enterprises inside networks rather than on collective ownership frameworks.

4.3. Local-Level Policy

At the municipal level, policy ought to specifically address households as the primary unit of economic activity by endorsing the principle of “One Household, One Business.” This methodology acknowledges the household as a micro-enterprise capable of income generation, capital accumulation, and contribution to local economic growth. Local governments ought to focus capacity building in marketing, financial management, and business operations, as these competencies are essential for the sustainability and expansion of small firms (Lussier & Halabi, 2010). Training programs must be pragmatic, contextually relevant, and accessible to many demographics, including women and informal laborers.

Moreover, local authorities can enhance entrepreneurial ecosystems by promoting collaboration among households, local organizations, and private sector entities. Entrepreneurial ecosystems increase creativity, resource mobilization, and firm success by fostering supportive conditions for business development (Stam, 2015).

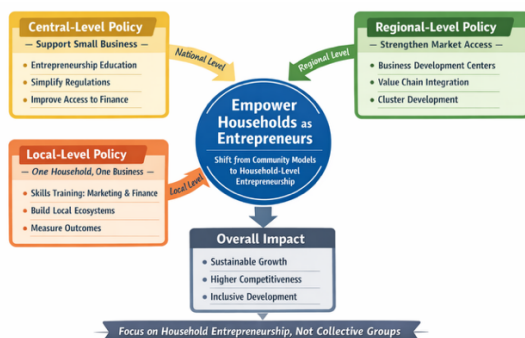
Local strategies must transcend mere symbolic or programmatic interventions and concentrate on quantifiable outcomes, like firm survival rates, income growth, and enhancements in productivity. This necessitates the establishment of monitoring and evaluation systems to measure the actual economic impact of policy actions.

5. Policy Implications

The suggested policy framework prioritizes a transition from collective development models to market-oriented, household-focused entrepreneurship. Although collective organizations may persist in a supplementary capacity for social development, they ought not to serve as the principal engine for economic progress. By enhancing the capability of individual households to function as entrepreneurial entities, policymakers can more effectively synchronize development objectives with the structural realities of Thailand's economic sector. This method is more likely to produce sustainable economic results, improve competitiveness, and foster inclusive growth within a capitalist economic system.

Figure 2

Empower Households as Entrepreneurs



Conclusion

This study has analyzed the organizational framework of business units in Thailand and critically evaluated the efficacy of community self-reliance strategies. The results indicate that the most successful and resilient

business entities in Thailand are mostly founded on household and family companies, functioning within a market-driven capitalist economy. These firms gain advantages from concentrated ownership, well-defined governance structures, robust profit incentives, and the potential for swift decision-making—elements that are well acknowledged in the research as critical determinants of company performance and long-term viability.

Conversely, policies that advocate for community self-reliance via collective organizational structures—such as cooperatives, community enterprises, and OTOP initiatives—are based on concepts of shared ownership and social equality. Although these methods may enhance social inclusion and community cohesiveness, the analysis reveals that they frequently encounter structural inefficiencies, inadequate incentive mechanisms, and restricted adaptability in competitive market contexts. Their ability to produce continuous economic growth and competitiveness is limited.

The disparity between policy formulation and economic actuality underscores a significant concern in development strategy. In a capitalist economy, characterized by market rivalry, innovation, and efficiency, corporate success is more probable when organizational structures connect ownership with control and incentives with performance. Empirical research from Thailand and other emerging markets continuously demonstrates that family-controlled enterprises and micro-enterprises are crucial in stimulating economic activity and resilience.

This paper contends that the dominant narrative of "community self-reliance" may become a policy framework disconnected from economic realities if it fails to sufficiently integrate market mechanisms and

entrepreneurial incentives. Policymakers should reevaluate the significance of the household as a fundamental economic unit, prioritizing its enhancement as a micro-enterprise over collective organizational models.

Redirecting policy focus towards household-level entrepreneurship presents a more feasible and enduring avenue for economic development. This approach is consistent with current studies on entrepreneurship and SME development, highlighting the significance of individual initiative, institutional support, and resource accessibility in promoting inclusive growth. By enabling households to participate in market-oriented economic activities, governments can enhance productivity, foster innovation, and facilitate sustainable wealth generation.

In conclusion, the evidence indicates that successful economic development plans in Thailand should transcend symbolic or ideologically motivated models of community self-reliance and instead embrace a pragmatic approach rooted in the structural reality of the economy. Advocating for household-based business units as the cornerstone of community development not only mirrors empirical success patterns but also establishes a more resilient basis for sustained and inclusive economic growth.

Discussion

The findings reveal that Thailand's business framework features both capitalist firms and collective organizational structures; yet, family businesses prevail as the primary organizational unit driving successful business growth. This study corroborates other research indicating that family ownership offers superior governance, centralized decision-making

power, and a long-term strategic focus compared to dispersed ownership models (Anderson & Reeb, 2003; Chrisman et al., 2012). Similarly, Gedajlovic et al. (2012) contended that the integration of familial engagement, social capital, and sustained commitment bolsters organizational resilience in uncertain institutional contexts. This study expands these viewpoints by proposing that family companies be regarded not merely as business entities but also as essential economic units that can enhance community self-sufficiency within Thailand's market economy.

The analysis indicates that Thailand's community self-reliance policy predominantly focuses on collective organizational structures, such as cooperatives, community enterprises, and OTOP. Although these strategies greatly enhance social inclusion, local engagement, and fair resource allocation, their economic efficacy is frequently hindered by governance intricacies, insufficient accountability, and restricted entrepreneurial motivation. These findings align with Hansmann (1996), who contended that collective ownership often faces governance inefficiencies due to the widespread dispersion of ownership and control. Cook and Burrell (2009) similarly illustrated that cooperative organizations encounter governance issues across their organizational life cycle, especially in sustaining incentives and strategic responsiveness. Ortmann and King (2007) additionally indicated that agricultural cooperatives frequently encounter challenges in capital accumulation, managerial adaptability, and responsiveness to competitive markets. Consequently, while collective groups are significant for community development, they should not be considered the exclusive institutional tool for fostering sustainable economic growth.

An additional significant discovery pertains to the function of entrepreneurial incentives. This study contends that business structures with concentrated ownership foster greater incentives for innovation, investment, and long-term competitiveness compared to communal organizations. This interpretation aligns with Baumol (1990), who underscored that profitable entrepreneurship is highly contingent upon suitable incentive systems. Similarly, Bruton et al. (2013) posited that entrepreneurship serves as a potent method for alleviating poverty, as entrepreneurial endeavors foster innovation, employment, and productivity. From this viewpoint, household and family enterprises establish a more immediate link between personal endeavor and financial gain, therefore fostering entrepreneurial activity that enhances local economic development.

The research further illustrates that governance structure is an essential factor connecting corporate structure to organizational performance. Family firms typically consolidate ownership, administration, and accountability under a single organizational entity, thus enabling expedited decision-making and strategic adaptability. This discovery aligns with Williamson's (1985) transaction cost theory, which underscores the significance of governance structures in mitigating organizational inefficiencies. This aligns with La Porta et al. (1999), who discovered that concentrated ownership is a prevalent institutional trait among numerous Asian firms, especially in contexts where formal institutions are rather weak. Thus, the efficacy of Thailand's corporate entities seems contingent not solely on organizational size but also on governance structures that harmonize ownership, managerial accountability, and entrepreneurial motivations.

While the current findings support household-based entrepreneurship as an economically effective organizational form, they should not be construed as a dismissal of collective organizations entirely. Community companies, cooperatives, and other collective entities significantly contribute to enhancing social cohesion, mitigating inequality, and broadening possibilities for marginalized communities. Ebrahim et al. (2014) said that hybrid companies generate social value by reconciling commercial and social goals, whereas Peredo and Chrisman (2006) proposed that community-based enterprises are suitable when collective action is essential to address market shortcomings. Consequently, instead of supplanting collective organizations, policy ought to amalgamate market-driven entrepreneurship with community-oriented institutions to attain both economic competitiveness and social inclusion.

The results possess significant policy ramifications. Current community self-reliance policies in Thailand have often emphasized group production over individual entrepreneurial capacity at the home level. Entrepreneurship research demonstrates that institutional quality, financial inclusion, and the development of business capabilities are critical factors influencing enterprise growth (Acs et al., 2014; Beck et al., 2007; Demirgüç-Kunt et al., 2018). Consequently, policies ought to progressively bolster household and family enterprises via entrepreneurship education, streamlined business regulations, financial accessibility, digital market engagement, and institutional assistance, while preserving the auxiliary social roles of community organizations. This integrated approach would more effectively match Thailand's development strategy with the structural attributes of its business sector.

This study ultimately contributes to theory by synthesizing political economy, family business theory, and entrepreneurship studies into a cohesive conceptual framework for comprehending community self-reliance. The study suggests that homes and family enterprises serve as the primary micro-level entrepreneurial units linking company structure to sustainable local economic growth, rather than merely considering community development through collective organizational structures. However, as this research is based on documentary data and conceptual analysis, its conclusions must be evaluated with caution. Future empirical investigations utilizing firm-level datasets, comparative case studies, or longitudinal analyses would be beneficial for assessing the hypothesized conceptual linkages and their relevance across various institutional contexts.

Recommendations

1. Policy Recommendations

Policymakers ought to implement a balanced development strategy that integrates the social benefits of collective organizations with the economic merits of household and family companies. Policy priorities must encompass enhancing access to finance, entrepreneurship education, business advisory services, digital competencies, and market connections to fortify household-based micro-enterprises, while preserving the supportive function of community organizations in fostering social inclusion.

2. Theoretical Implications

This paper proposes that community self-reliance be reevaluated through the lens of company organization and entrepreneurship. Future

theoretical frameworks must amalgamate political economy, institutional economics, and family business theory to elucidate the impact of ownership, governance, and entrepreneurial incentives on sustainable community development in market-oriented economies.

3. Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should validate the proposed conceptual framework with empirical evidence. Conducting firm-level quantitative studies, comparative analyses of family businesses and community enterprises, and cross-national research in Southeast Asia is recommended to examine the influence of differing institutional frameworks on company success and community self-sufficiency. Qualitative studies investigating entrepreneurial behavior, familial governance, and local institutional dynamics should improve understanding of household-based enterprise development.

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Family Accommodation for Families of Hospitalized Children: A Gap in Public Service Provision in Thailand

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Abstract

This academic article examines the institutional gap in public service provision for family accommodation for families of hospitalized children in Thailand. Drawing on Public Service-Dominant Logic (PSDL), Family-Centered Care (FCC), and collaborative governance, the article uses qualitative documentary and comparative literature analysis to examine family accommodation through four dimensions: accessibility, service integration, resource and stakeholder management, and health equity. The analysis draws on academic literature, policy documents, and institutional information from Thailand and Singapore. The findings indicate that although Thailand has made substantial progress in universal health coverage and access to medical treatment, family accommodation remains unevenly available and insufficiently integrated into the formal healthcare and social support system. Existing provision depends substantially on hospital initiatives, nonprofit organizations, and charitable partnerships, resulting in variations in accessibility, coordination, and continuity. The Singapore case demonstrates how hospital-linked referral, organizational partnerships, and coordinated service delivery can reduce practical barriers to family

participation in pediatric care. The article argues that Thailand's central challenge is not simply a lack of accommodation facilities but limited institutional integration of family support within the broader health and social service system. It therefore proposes a National Family Accommodation Support System (NFASS) to establish common standards, coordinated referral mechanisms, sustainable financing, and equity-oriented monitoring. The proposed framework aims to reposition family accommodation from a fragmented or charity-dependent service toward a coordinated component of Thailand's public service ecosystem.

Keywords: Public Service-Dominant Logic, Family-Centered Care, Health Governance, Integrated Care, Health Equity

Introduction

Principles and Rationale

Families of children with severe or chronic illnesses requiring prolonged medical treatment often face challenges beyond clinical care, including financial strain, psychosocial stress, employment disruption, and difficulties maintaining everyday family life. These challenges can be particularly significant when families must travel from rural or geographically distant areas to tertiary hospitals or specialized pediatric centers. Access to appropriate accommodation near healthcare facilities can therefore help parents remain involved in their child's treatment and caregiving. Previous research has associated suitable family accommodation with reduced parental stress, greater parental involvement, and more positive healthcare experiences (Franck et al., 2013).

This issue is closely connected to Family-Centered Care (FCC), which recognizes families as active partners in children's healthcare rather than passive recipients of professional services. FCC emphasizes respect for family preferences, information sharing, participation in decision-making, and collaboration between families and healthcare professionals (Shields, 2015). From this perspective, practical resources that enable parents to remain physically close to hospitalized children can be understood as supportive conditions for meaningful family participation in care.

Thailand has made substantial progress in expanding access to healthcare through Universal Health Coverage (UHC). However, access to medical treatment does not necessarily eliminate the practical and social barriers experienced by families during prolonged pediatric treatment. Families may continue to face accommodation, transportation, food, and income-related burdens, particularly when specialized pediatric services are concentrated in tertiary hospitals. Although UHC reforms have strengthened healthcare access and financial protection, accommodation for caregivers accompanying children receiving specialized treatment remains less clearly institutionalized within national health-service arrangements (National Health Security Office [NHSO], 2022a, 2022b).

Family accommodation should therefore be considered within the broader relationship between healthcare and social support. When accommodation, transportation, psychosocial assistance, and healthcare services are administered through separate institutional arrangements, families may bear substantial coordination and indirect costs even when medical treatment itself is financially protected. The issue is consequently

not only whether accommodation facilities exist, but also how supportive services are designed, coordinated, and experienced by families.

From a public administration perspective, family accommodation represents a service need that crosses organizational and sectoral boundaries. Public Service-Dominant Logic (PSDL) views public services as relational processes in which public value emerges through interactions among service users, public organizations, and other actors within a broader service ecosystem (Osborne et al., 2012, 2016). Collaborative governance similarly emphasizes coordinated action among public agencies, private organizations, civil society, and citizens in addressing complex public problems (Emerson et al., 2012). These perspectives are relevant because family accommodation cannot be effectively addressed by healthcare institutions alone.

Against this background, this article examines the institutional and public service gaps surrounding family accommodation for families of hospitalized children in Thailand. It focuses on four dimensions: accessibility, service integration, resource and stakeholder management, and health equity. The article also compares Thailand with Singapore to identify institutional approaches that may inform a more coordinated and family-centered public service system.

Analytical Framework

This article adopts PSDL as its primary analytical perspective. PSDL conceptualizes public services as relational and networked processes in which value is created through interactions among service users, public organizations, and other actors within a wider service ecosystem (Osborne

et al., 2016). This perspective allows family accommodation to be examined not as an isolated welfare facility but as part of a broader public service system supporting children and families.

FCC provides the complementary healthcare perspective. It establishes the importance of family participation in pediatric care and supports the interpretation of accommodation as an enabling condition for sustained parental involvement rather than simply a charitable benefit (Shields, 2015). Collaborative governance further provides a lens for examining how responsibilities, resources, and decision-making can be coordinated among government agencies, healthcare providers, nonprofit organizations, private-sector actors, and families (Emerson et al., 2012).

Based on these perspectives, the analysis examines family accommodation through four dimensions:

1. Accessibility – the extent to which families can obtain safe, appropriate, affordable, and geographically accessible accommodation without excessive financial or administrative barriers.

2. Service Integration – the extent to which accommodation is connected with healthcare, social welfare, referral, and other relevant support services across organizational boundaries.

3. Resource and Stakeholder Management – the institutional arrangements for mobilizing and coordinating financial, human, organizational, and partnership resources among relevant stakeholders.

4. Health Equity – the extent to which accommodation support reduces disparities among families facing different socioeconomic, geographical, and other circumstances.

Together, these dimensions provide the basis for examining Thailand's current arrangements and comparing them with the Singapore case. PSDL establishes the public service ecosystem perspective, FCC addresses the family and healthcare dimension, and collaborative governance provides a framework for examining inter-organizational coordination. The four dimensions operationalize these perspectives for the comparative analysis.

Literature Review

1. Family-Centered Care, Integrated Care, and Health Equity

Family-Centered Care (FCC) recognizes families as active partners in pediatric healthcare rather than passive recipients of information and services. Its core principles include respect and dignity, information sharing, participation, and collaboration between families and healthcare professionals. Recent evidence suggests that FCC interventions can improve parental participation, knowledge, and well-being while reducing parental stress and anxiety, although evidence regarding child-level outcomes remains mixed (Hodgson et al., 2024).

FCC also has implications beyond clinical interactions. Families require practical and environmental conditions that enable them to remain involved in their child's care. For families who live far from specialized or tertiary hospitals, accommodation near the hospital can reduce practical barriers to continuous participation. Previous research indicates that accommodation arrangements influence parents' experiences during pediatric hospitalization and their ability to remain near their children (Franck et al., 2013). Family accommodation can therefore be understood as

supportive infrastructure that enables the implementation of FCC rather than merely as a supplementary welfare service.

The needs of families of hospitalized children also extend beyond medical treatment to transportation, accommodation, financial security, employment, and psychosocial support. These challenges are particularly significant when specialized pediatric services are concentrated in tertiary hospitals. Literature on integrated care emphasizes the importance of coordinating medical and non-medical services for children with complex healthcare needs. Ghotane et al. (2024), for example, found that coordinated care interventions may improve care processes for children and young people with special healthcare needs, although the evidence remains heterogeneous.

The issue is also closely related to health equity. Equal entitlement to medical treatment does not necessarily result in equal capacity to access or benefit from that treatment. Families with limited financial resources or those living far from tertiary hospitals may face greater accommodation and transportation burdens. Research on child health equity similarly emphasizes the influence of social and structural conditions on children's healthcare experiences (Thornton & Yang, 2023; Van Cleave et al., 2022). Family accommodation can therefore be positioned at the intersection of healthcare access, integrated care, and health equity by reducing practical barriers to sustained family participation in treatment.

2. Public Service Ecosystems, Collaborative Governance, and Co- production

From a public administration perspective, family accommodation can be understood through Public Service-Dominant Logic (PSDL) and the

concept of the public service ecosystem. Osborne et al. (2012) conceptualize public services as relational and interorganizational processes through which value is created through interactions among providers, users, and other stakeholders. More recent work emphasizes that public value emerges across interconnected institutional and service arrangements rather than within individual organizations alone (Osborne et al., 2022).

This perspective is particularly relevant to family accommodation because families experience healthcare through multiple interconnected services. Hospital treatment, health financing, accommodation, transportation, and social support may involve different organizations, yet families experience them as part of a single treatment journey. When these services are poorly connected, coordination costs may be transferred to families themselves. Family accommodation can therefore be conceptualized as part of the broader public service ecosystem rather than as an isolated welfare facility.

The interorganizational nature of family accommodation also requires collaborative governance. Emerson et al. (2012) describe collaborative governance as processes through which public agencies and actors from private and civil society sectors work across institutional boundaries to address problems that cannot be effectively resolved by a single organization. Family accommodation may similarly require cooperation among hospitals, government agencies, nonprofit organizations, private-sector partners, and families.

Co-production complements this perspective by emphasizing the active contribution of service users to public service delivery (Osborne et al., 2016). Parents and caregivers possess direct knowledge of the practical

barriers associated with prolonged hospitalization and can therefore contribute to needs assessment, service design, accessibility standards, and evaluation. Co-production extends the principle of family participation from the clinical setting to the design and delivery of supportive public services.

Together, PSDL, collaborative governance, and co-production provide a public administration perspective for examining how family accommodation can move from fragmented initiatives toward a more coordinated and user-centered service system.

3. Policy Gap

The literature establishes that family participation is an important component of pediatric healthcare and that practical support can facilitate the implementation of Family-Centered Care. It also demonstrates the importance of integrated care, health equity, public service ecosystems, collaborative governance, and co-production. However, several gaps remain.

First, existing studies of family accommodation have largely focused on family experiences, parental stress, and psychosocial outcomes, with less attention to the institutional and governance arrangements through which accommodation services are organized and financed.

Second, research on integrated pediatric care has emphasized coordination of healthcare and social services, while the role of accommodation as supportive infrastructure has received comparatively limited attention.

Third, public administration concepts such as collaborative governance and public service ecosystems have rarely been applied specifically to family accommodation for families of hospitalized children.

Within Thailand, evidence is particularly limited regarding whether family accommodation has been incorporated into formal public service structures, how responsibilities are distributed among relevant public agencies, and how existing hospital–nonprofit arrangements affect accessibility and equity. These gaps justify examining family accommodation as a public service governance issue rather than solely as a charitable or healthcare support issue.

Accordingly, this article applies PSDL, FCC, collaborative governance, and co-production to examine family accommodation through four analytical dimensions: accessibility, service integration, resource and stakeholder management, and health equity. These dimensions provide the basis for comparing Thailand with the Singapore case and identifying institutional and policy gaps.

Public Service Systems in Thailand Related to Pediatric Patients and Their Families

1. Health and Social Welfare Institutional Context

Thailand has made substantial progress in expanding access to healthcare through Universal Health Coverage (UHC). The National Health Security Act B.E. 2545 (2002) established the National Health Security Office (NHSO) and the National Health Security Fund as key mechanisms for financing healthcare services under the Universal Coverage Scheme. The Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) is primarily responsible for public health policy and the organization and delivery of health services, while the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (MSDHS) has responsibilities

related to social welfare, social protection, and family and community development.

This institutional division is relevant to family accommodation for children receiving prolonged or specialized treatment. Accommodation is not solely a medical service; it also involves temporary housing, family welfare, financial vulnerability, and social support. Families may therefore require assistance that extends across the mandates of healthcare and social welfare institutions. However, family accommodation has not been clearly established as a distinct and standardized national service within either system.

The institutional context consequently creates a potential policy gap. Although Thailand has mechanisms for financing medical treatment and providing social welfare assistance, there is limited institutional provision specifically designed to address the accommodation needs of caregivers who must remain near hospitalized children.

2. Health Financing and Practical Access to Care

Thailand's UHC system has substantially reduced financial barriers to medical treatment. More recent reforms, including the NHSO's "OP Anywhere" policy, have also sought to reduce administrative and geographical barriers to accessing primary healthcare by allowing eligible beneficiaries to receive services from participating health facilities without being restricted to their registered hospital (NHSO, 2022a, 2022b).

Nevertheless, access to healthcare involves more than the ability to obtain medical treatment. Families accompanying children who require specialized or prolonged treatment may still face indirect costs, including

transportation, accommodation, food, and loss of income. These burdens can be particularly significant when specialized pediatric services are concentrated in tertiary hospitals and families must travel from other provinces.

Family accommodation therefore represents an interface between healthcare access and social support. Although medical treatment may be financially protected through UHC, the practical conditions required for families to remain near the hospital are not uniformly incorporated into the same public service framework. This creates a distinction between formal access to healthcare and the practical capacity to sustain participation in care.

3. Existing Family Accommodation and Institutional Coordination

Family accommodation services are available in Thailand through a combination of hospital initiatives, nonprofit organizations, and charitable partnerships. These arrangements demonstrate that accommodation can be provided through collaboration between healthcare institutions and non-state organizations. However, provision remains largely institution- and partnership-dependent rather than established as a standardized national service. Availability, capacity, eligibility criteria, and referral arrangements may therefore differ across locations and institutions.

Family accommodation also illustrates the broader challenge of coordinating services across administrative boundaries. Healthcare institutions may be responsible for medical treatment, while social welfare agencies address socioeconomic vulnerability and nonprofit organizations provide accommodation or complementary support. Although these actors

may address different aspects of the same family experience, they can operate through separate administrative and funding arrangements.

At the service-delivery level, the absence of a dedicated national coordination mechanism means that families may need to navigate different organizations to identify available accommodation and related support. The key issue is therefore not simply whether individual organizations provide accommodation, but whether they are connected through clear responsibilities, referral mechanisms, financing arrangements, and shared service standards. This distinction provides the basis for examining the institutional gap in the following sections.

International Public Service Systems Supporting Families of Pediatric Patients

International experiences demonstrate that family accommodation can be organized as part of a broader family-centered and integrated healthcare system. Rather than treating accommodation solely as charitable assistance, some models connect hospitals, nonprofit organizations, and other stakeholders to reduce practical barriers to family participation in children's care.

Singapore provides a relevant comparative example of hospital-linked family accommodation within the Southeast Asian context. At National University Hospital (NUH), Ronald McDonald House Charities Singapore (RMHC Singapore) operates accommodation for families of seriously ill children receiving treatment at the hospital. The Ronald McDonald House provides bedrooms and shared facilities and allows eligible families to stay at no cost while their child is receiving treatment. Access is

connected to the hospital through a referral process, creating a direct operational link between clinical care and family accommodation.

The Singapore model also includes Family Rooms within the hospital, providing parents and caregivers with spaces to rest, eat, shower, and remain close to hospitalized children. The collaboration between NUH and RMHC Singapore demonstrates how healthcare institutions and nonprofit organizations can combine their respective resources to support family-centered care.

Several institutional features of this model are particularly relevant to Thailand. First, accommodation is located close to pediatric services, reducing geographical and logistical barriers. Second, families access accommodation through the healthcare system rather than being required to identify services independently. Third, responsibilities are distributed across organizational actors, with the hospital providing the clinical setting and RMHC contributing accommodation and related resources. Fourth, practical caregiver support is incorporated alongside medical treatment.

The Singapore case also demonstrates that effective family accommodation does not necessarily require direct government ownership or operation of every facility. A nonprofit organization can provide accommodation through donations and partnerships while healthcare institutions provide referral and coordination. From a Public Service-Dominant Logic perspective, this represents a service ecosystem in which different actors contribute complementary resources and capabilities to create value for children and families (Osborne et al., 2021). It also reflects collaborative governance because service delivery depends on cooperation between healthcare and nonprofit organizations (Emerson et al., 2012).

The relevance of the Singapore model to Thailand therefore lies not in direct replication but in the institutional principles it demonstrates: hospital-linked referral, physical proximity to pediatric services, defined eligibility, organizational partnership, and coordinated responsibility for family support. Thailand could adapt these principles through a national framework that establishes common standards, referral mechanisms, financing principles, and accountability while allowing hospitals, nonprofit organizations, local governments, and private-sector partners to contribute service capacity.

Comparative Analysis of Family Accommodation Services: Thailand and Singapore

To examine the institutional implications of family accommodation, this article compares Thailand with Singapore across four dimensions: accessibility, service integration, resource and stakeholder management, and health equity. Singapore is selected as the principal comparative case because it provides a hospital-linked accommodation model within the Southeast Asian context. The comparison focuses on institutional arrangements rather than ranking the two countries' healthcare systems.

1. Accessibility

In Thailand, family accommodation is available through selected hospitals, nonprofit organizations, and charitable initiatives, but access is not standardized across the healthcare system. Availability may therefore depend on geographical location, hospital capacity, eligibility criteria, and external partnerships. Families who cannot access accommodation may

need to arrange lodging independently, creating additional financial and logistical burdens.

In Singapore, hospital-linked family accommodation provides a more direct connection between accommodation and pediatric healthcare. The arrangement reduces both the physical distance between families and hospitals and the informational burden of locating accommodation independently.

The comparison suggests that accessibility should not be measured solely by the number of accommodation places available. It also depends on proximity, affordability, eligibility, and the ease with which families can enter the service system.

2. Service Integration

A key institutional difference concerns the relationship between accommodation and healthcare delivery. In Thailand, accommodation services may operate alongside pediatric healthcare through hospital initiatives or external organizations, but the connection between clinical referral and accommodation is not consistently standardized. Families may therefore need to identify and arrange supportive services separately from their medical treatment.

The Singapore model demonstrates how accommodation can be more closely connected to pediatric healthcare through hospital referral and coordination. Importantly, integration does not require common ownership. A nonprofit organization can provide accommodation while the healthcare institution performs referral and coordination functions.

The comparison therefore indicates that service integration depends less on organizational ownership than on whether different services are connected around the family's treatment journey.

3. Resource and Stakeholder Management

Thailand's existing arrangements demonstrate the value of nonprofit and charitable contributions, but reliance on individual organizations and donations may contribute to differences in capacity and continuity across locations.

Singapore illustrates a structured partnership between a healthcare institution and a nonprofit organization. NUH provides the clinical and institutional setting, while RMHC Singapore contributes accommodation facilities and related resources. This division allows different actors to contribute according to their institutional capacities.

Such an arrangement is consistent with collaborative governance and co-production, in which public and non-state actors contribute complementary resources to address a shared public problem (Emerson et al., 2012; McMullin, 2021). For Thailand, the implication is not to replace nonprofit participation with government provision, but to establish a framework defining responsibilities, minimum standards, financing principles, and accountability.

4. Health Equity

Thailand's UHC system has substantially expanded equitable access to medical treatment. However, families who travel long distances to obtain specialized pediatric services may continue to face indirect costs related to

accommodation, transportation, food, and caregiving. These burdens may have greater consequences for families with limited financial resources.

Hospital-linked accommodation can reduce part of this inequality by lowering the financial and logistical burden of remaining near the child. The Singapore model illustrates how accommodation can function as a practical mechanism for reducing non-medical barriers to continued family participation in care.

The comparison does not suggest that Singapore has eliminated health inequalities. Rather, it demonstrates that institutional design can influence families' practical capacity to benefit from healthcare services. For Thailand, this highlights the importance of incorporating geographical and socioeconomic vulnerability into eligibility and resource-allocation mechanisms for family accommodation.

Analytical Summary

The comparison indicates that the principal difference between the Thai and Singaporean arrangements is not simply the availability of accommodation, but the degree to which accommodation is institutionally connected to healthcare, supported by coordinated stakeholders, and designed around families' practical needs.

Thailand already has relevant actors and examples of family accommodation, particularly through hospitals and nonprofit organizations. The principal policy gap is therefore the absence of a consistent framework connecting these resources through shared standards, referral mechanisms, financing arrangements, and accountability.

The Singapore case suggests that Thailand could strengthen existing arrangements without adopting a single-provider model. A national framework could establish common standards and coordination mechanisms while allowing hospitals, nonprofit organizations, local governments, and private-sector partners to participate according to their respective capacities. Such an approach is consistent with Public Service-Dominant Logic, collaborative governance, and co-production, in which public value is generated through coordinated contributions across a service ecosystem (Emerson et al., 2012; Osborne et al., 2021).

Public Service Delivery Gaps in Thailand: A Public Administration Perspective

The central gap in family accommodation provision in Thailand is not simply the limited availability of accommodation facilities. Rather, it reflects an institutional gap in connecting healthcare, social welfare, and family support within a coherent public service arrangement. From a public administration perspective, the issue concerns the allocation of responsibilities, coordination across organizational boundaries, resource governance, and the capacity of public institutions to respond to a service need that crosses conventional administrative sectors.

1. Fragmented Institutional Mandates

Family accommodation lies at the intersection of healthcare and social welfare. The Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) is primarily responsible for health policy, public health administration, and healthcare service systems, while the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security

(MSDHS) has responsibilities related to social welfare, social protection, and assistance to vulnerable groups.

This division is institutionally understandable because the two ministries have different policy mandates. However, family accommodation does not fit neatly within either sector. It supports continuity of healthcare while also addressing temporary housing, family welfare, financial vulnerability, and caregiving needs.

The absence of a clearly designated institutional responsibility for coordinating family accommodation at the national level can therefore create a boundary problem. Multiple agencies may have relevant responsibilities, but no single actor has an overarching mandate to ensure that accommodation support is consistently available, coordinated, and connected to pediatric healthcare.

2. Limited Operational Integration

Thailand has mechanisms for intersectoral cooperation in health and social policy, but broad policy coordination does not necessarily translate into integration at the point of service delivery.

For families of hospitalized children, medical treatment may be provided through the health system, while accommodation and social assistance may be provided through separate organizations. Without standardized referral pathways, shared eligibility mechanisms, or clearly assigned coordination responsibilities, families may have to navigate these services themselves.

This creates a distinction between organizational coordination and service integration. The existence of multiple organizations does not

automatically produce an integrated service from the user's perspective. Collaborative governance requires mechanisms through which participating actors coordinate responsibilities, resources, and decisions around shared objectives (Emerson et al., 2012).

Family accommodation therefore illustrates a broader public administration challenge: services may exist within different administrative structures without being sufficiently connected around the needs of the same service users.

3. Budgetary and Resource Governance

A further gap concerns the institutional allocation of public resources. Thailand's health financing arrangements have primarily been designed to support medical services and financial protection, while accommodation for caregivers has not been consistently established as a standardized component of pediatric healthcare provision.

This creates a distinction between medical entitlement and practical access to care. A child may have formal access to treatment under UHC, while the family may lack the financial resources necessary to remain near the hospital during prolonged treatment.

The policy issue is not necessarily that government must directly finance and operate every accommodation facility. Rather, there needs to be a clear institutional mechanism for determining responsibility, allocating resources, establishing minimum standards, and coordinating contributions from government and non-state actors. Such an approach is consistent with public service co-production, in which public agencies, service providers,

citizens, and other stakeholders contribute complementary resources to create public value (McMullin, 2021).

4. Administrative Burden and Coordination Costs

Institutional separation can generate administrative burdens for families. When healthcare, accommodation, welfare assistance, and other forms of support are administered separately, families may need to identify services, determine eligibility, provide information, and coordinate assistance across organizations.

These burdens are particularly important during prolonged pediatric hospitalization because caregivers are simultaneously managing medical decisions, transportation, employment disruption, financial pressures, and emotional stress.

From a Public Service-Dominant Logic perspective, public service quality should be considered from the perspective of the overall service experience rather than the performance of individual organizations alone (Osborne et al., 2012). The key issue is therefore whether the interfaces between organizations enable families to navigate the service system effectively.

5. Implications for Health Equity

The institutional gap also has implications for health equity. Families with greater financial resources may be able to compensate for limited public accommodation by renting nearby housing, paying transportation costs, or arranging alternative caregiving support. Families with fewer resources or those traveling from distant areas have fewer alternatives.

Consequently, universal coverage of medical treatment does not necessarily guarantee equal capacity to sustain participation in treatment. Geographic and socioeconomic differences can influence whether families are able to remain near their hospitalized children.

Family accommodation can therefore be understood as an equity-supporting public service. Its role is not simply to provide convenience but to reduce practical barriers that disproportionately affect families with fewer resources and greater geographic burdens.

Synthesis

The analysis identifies three interconnected governance gaps: unclear cross-sectoral responsibility, limited operational integration, and the absence of a stable resource and coordination mechanism. These gaps help explain why family accommodation remains unevenly institutionalized despite Thailand's extensive healthcare infrastructure.

The policy challenge is therefore not simply to increase the number of accommodation facilities. It is to establish an institutional framework that connects healthcare and social welfare responsibilities, defines minimum standards, creates referral and coordination mechanisms, and enables government and non-state actors to contribute resources within a coherent public service system.

Such an approach would reposition family accommodation from an ad hoc or charity-dependent arrangement toward a coordinated component of the public service ecosystem. This is consistent with Public Service-Dominant Logic and collaborative governance, which emphasize public value creation through relationships among government, service providers,

civil society, and service users rather than through isolated organizational provision (Emerson et al., 2012; Osborne et al., 2021).

Policy Recommendations and Institutional Reform Directions

The preceding analysis indicates that family accommodation for families of hospitalized children should be repositioned from a largely charitable or institution-specific service toward a coordinated component of Thailand's public service system. The proposed reforms focus on institutional responsibility, service integration, sustainable financing, and collaborative governance rather than requiring direct government ownership of all accommodation facilities.

1. Establish Family Accommodation as a Component of Continuity of Care

Family accommodation should be formally recognized as a supportive component of pediatric continuity of care, particularly for children requiring prolonged or specialized treatment at tertiary hospitals. The Ministry of Public Health (MOPH), together with the National Health Security Office (NHSO), should establish minimum standards covering accessibility, safety, eligibility, referral procedures, and service quality.

Such recognition would provide an institutional basis for integrating accommodation support into existing healthcare and social support arrangements without necessarily requiring immediate universal coverage as a healthcare benefit.

2. Develop an Intersectoral Coordination Mechanism

A formal coordination mechanism should connect the MOPH, NHSO, Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (MSDHS), local administrative organizations, hospitals, and relevant nonprofit organizations. Its functions should include policy coordination, referral pathways, service standards, and resource planning.

At the operational level, tertiary hospitals could serve as coordination points. Healthcare professionals could identify families requiring accommodation, while designated personnel coordinate available facilities and related social assistance. This would reduce the administrative burden on families and strengthen continuity between clinical and social support.

Such an arrangement reflects collaborative governance by establishing structured cooperation among actors with different institutional responsibilities (Emerson et al., 2012).

3. Establish Sustainable and Flexible Financing

A sustainable financing mechanism should combine public funding with contributions from nonprofit organizations, private-sector partners, and philanthropic actors. Public resources should provide a stable foundation for minimum service standards, while non-state contributions can expand capacity and provide complementary services.

Resource allocation should consider pediatric referral patterns, accommodation demand, geographic distance, and socioeconomic vulnerability. This would allow resources to be directed toward areas where accommodation barriers are greatest.

This approach would preserve the contribution of charitable organizations while reducing dependence on donations as the primary basis for essential family support.

4. Integrate Referral, Information, and Service Coordination

A standardized referral mechanism should connect families identified by pediatric hospitals with available accommodation services. Families should not be required to independently search for facilities or repeatedly provide the same information to different organizations.

A national or regional information system could provide information on facility location, eligibility criteria, available capacity, referral status, and related social support. Such a mechanism would reduce information and administrative barriers while allowing service providers to coordinate capacity more effectively.

From a Public Service-Dominant Logic perspective, shared information and coordination mechanisms can strengthen the public service ecosystem by connecting different actors and resources around users' needs (Osborne et al., 2013).

5. Embed Equity and Family-Centered Care in Service Standards

National standards should incorporate equity and Family-Centered Care principles. Priority should be given to families facing substantial geographic distance, financial hardship, prolonged hospitalization, or other circumstances that limit their ability to remain near their child.

Evaluation should extend beyond the number of accommodation places provided. Potential indicators include:

- proportion of eligible families successfully accessing accommodation;
- waiting time for accommodation;
- continuity of accommodation during prolonged treatment;
- geographic distribution of accommodation services;
- family satisfaction and perceived burden; and
- parents' ability to participate in their child's care.

These indicators would shift evaluation from service output alone toward family experience, equity, and continuity of care.

6. Develop a National Family Accommodation Support System (NFASS)

Based on the preceding analysis, this article proposes a National Family Accommodation Support System (NFASS) as a long-term institutional framework for integrating family accommodation into Thailand's public service system.

NFASS would not require the government to directly operate all accommodation facilities. Instead, it would establish a coordinated governance structure in which public agencies define national policy, minimum standards, eligibility and equity requirements; hospitals identify families in need and coordinate referrals; and nonprofit organizations, local governments, private-sector partners, and philanthropic actors contribute accommodation capacity and complementary resources.

The system would integrate four core components: (1) national standards and eligibility criteria, (2) coordinated referral and information mechanisms, (3) sustainable and mixed-source financing, and (4) equity-oriented monitoring and evaluation. Families should also participate in

service design and evaluation so that their experiences inform continuous improvement.

NFASS therefore represents a shift from fragmented accommodation provision toward a coordinated public service ecosystem based on collaborative governance, co-production, Family-Centered Care, and Public Service-Dominant Logic (Emerson et al., 2012; Osborne et al., 2021).

Conclusion

This article examined the institutional gap in family accommodation for families of hospitalized children in Thailand through the perspectives of Public Service-Dominant Logic (PSDL), Family-Centered Care (FCC), and collaborative governance. The analysis indicates that Thailand has made substantial progress in ensuring access to medical treatment through universal health coverage, but supportive services that enable families to remain close to children during prolonged treatment have not been systematically integrated into the broader healthcare and social support system.

The central finding is that the challenge is not simply a shortage of accommodation facilities. Rather, it reflects a public service governance gap involving fragmented institutional responsibilities, limited service integration, and the absence of stable mechanisms for coordinating resources across healthcare, social welfare, and non-state actors. The comparison with Singapore further demonstrates that family accommodation can be connected to pediatric healthcare through hospital-based referral, organizational partnerships, and coordinated service delivery without requiring government ownership of every facility.

Theoretically, the case demonstrates the value of applying PSDL and collaborative governance to a healthcare-related social support issue. Family accommodation can be understood as part of a public service ecosystem in which public value is co-created through interactions among government agencies, healthcare providers, nonprofit organizations, private actors, and families. FCC further emphasizes that families should be recognized as active partners in children's care and in the design of supportive services.

From a policy perspective, the proposed National Family Accommodation Support System (NFASS) provides a framework for establishing minimum standards, coordinated referral mechanisms, sustainable financing, shared information systems, and equity-oriented monitoring. The proposed model does not seek to replace existing charitable initiatives but to connect them within a more coherent public service framework.

Ultimately, recognizing family accommodation as a component of public service delivery rather than merely a charitable intervention could strengthen family participation in pediatric care, reduce disparities associated with geographic and socioeconomic barriers, and contribute to a more integrated and family-centered healthcare system in Thailand.

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Strategic Collaboration Guidelines between Private Universities and Industry Partners (Chambers of Commerce and Industry Councils) for Establishing Effective Scholarship Funds to Enhance Student Potential in Thai Higher Education

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Abstract

Background and Aim: University–industry collaboration is increasingly important for human capital development and the alignment of higher education with labor market needs. However, structured mechanisms for establishing and managing scholarship funds through collaboration between private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations in Thailand remain insufficiently developed. This study aimed to examine the factors influencing student potential enhancement and to develop evidence-based guidelines for establishing and managing strategic scholarship funds through university–industry collaboration.

Materials and Methods: This study employed a Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design (QUAN → qual). In the quantitative

phase, data were collected from 342 respondents and analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to examine the relationships among collaboration-related factors and student potential enhancement. Based on the quantitative findings, a subsequent qualitative phase was conducted through 20 in-depth interviews with relevant stakeholders. The qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis to explain and extend the significant quantitative findings. The two phases were integrated during interpretation to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms underlying strategic scholarship fund collaboration.

Results: The quantitative findings showed that collaboration structure, resource mobilization mechanisms, governance and transparency systems, and monitoring and evaluation frameworks had significant positive effects on student potential enhancement, with the model explaining 63% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.63$). Among these factors, collaboration structure demonstrated the strongest effect. The subsequent qualitative findings helped explain this result by indicating that effective scholarship programs require clearly defined roles and responsibilities among participating organizations, coordinated resource mobilization, transparent governance processes, and continuous monitoring. In addition, matching fund mechanisms were identified as an important mechanism for strengthening shared commitment and resource sustainability, while employment-oriented key performance indicators (KPIs) helped align scholarship objectives with labor market needs. These qualitative findings complemented and expanded the quantitative results by clarifying how

collaborative governance and resource mechanisms can contribute to the sustainability and strategic alignment of scholarship programs.

Conclusion: The integrated findings indicate that sustainable strategic scholarship funds require more than financial support alone; they depend on structured collaboration, coordinated resource mobilization, transparent governance, and labor market-oriented monitoring and evaluation. The findings provide an evidence-based framework for private higher education institutions and industry representative organizations to strengthen the management of collaborative scholarship funds and enhance their contribution to student potential development and sustainable human capital development in Thailand.

Keywords: university–industry collaboration, strategic scholarship funds, student potential enhancement, mixed methods, sequential explanatory design, human capital development

Introduction

In the context of rapid economic, technological, and demographic transformation, higher education institutions are increasingly expected to contribute not only to academic development but also to the preparation of human capital for changing labor market requirements. (Adewolu Ogwo, 2024). In Thailand, this challenge is particularly relevant because the labor market continues to experience structural problems related to skill and educational mismatches. (Worapongpat, 2023). The National Economic and Social Development Council (NESDC) has reported that labor mismatch remains an important constraint on Thailand’s economic potential, with overeducation among workers with bachelor’s degrees or higher showing an

increasing trend. Similarly, the Bank of Thailand has identified shortages of workers with relevant skills and skill mismatch between workers and labor market requirements as continuing structural challenges for the Thai labor market. These conditions increase the importance of mechanisms that connect higher education, financial support, and industry requirements in the development of employable graduates.

Within the Thai higher education system, private higher education institutions constitute an important component of the national higher education sector. Official statistics of the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation (MHESI) provide institution-level and student-level data for private higher education institutions, indicating the continuing scale and diversity of the sector. (Arranz, et. al., 2022). Unlike public institutions that receive substantial public financial support, private higher education institutions generally operate under greater reliance on tuition and institutional revenue. (Worapongpat, 2025). This creates a practical need for additional mechanisms to mobilize external resources to support students and strengthen educational quality. The financial dimension of access to higher education is also supported by evidence from the Equitable Education Fund (EEF), which reported that financial constraints remain an important barrier to university participation and continuation, including tuition, living expenses, and other education-related costs. Thus, scholarship funding should not be considered solely as a form of student financial assistance but also as a potential mechanism for widening educational opportunity and developing human capital.

At the same time, evidence from Thailand demonstrates that collaboration between educational institutions and private-sector

organizations can be organized around both financial support and workforce development. (Bich, 2025). For example, the Thai Chamber of Commerce and the EEF have supported collaborative scholarship and workforce-development initiatives that connect educational institutions, employers, curriculum development, student selection, financial support, work-based learning, and subsequent employment. (Worapongpat, et. al., 2025). One such initiative provided scholarships to vocational students while involving participating enterprises in curriculum alignment, student development, workplace training, and employment pathways. More recently, the Thai Chamber of Commerce has continued to emphasize private-sector participation in education and human-capital development. These developments demonstrate that industry-linked educational funding and workforce-development partnerships are feasible within the Thai context.

However, the existing evidence also indicates an important distinction between general university-industry collaboration and a structured strategic scholarship fund jointly governed by a private higher education institution and a national industry representative organization. (Cao, 2024) The Thai Chamber of Commerce represents a nationwide business network and provides channels for business, funding, and education-related cooperation, while the Federation of Thai Industries represents industrial sectors and enterprises and undertakes cooperation related to industrial development. (Worapongpat, 2026). Nevertheless, publicly documented initiatives identified in the Thai context tend to emphasize education access, vocational workforce development, curriculum alignment, work-based learning, or individual scholarship arrangements rather than a systematic model specifying how a strategic scholarship fund

should be jointly established, financed, governed, monitored, evaluated, and aligned with graduate employment outcomes. This issue represents a specific research and operational gap. Existing university–industry collaboration literature provides theoretical explanations of interactions among universities, industry, and government, including the Triple Helix perspective (Foomo, 2019). Previous studies have also discussed university–industry linkages as mechanisms for reducing educational and labor-market mismatch. Evidence from Thailand indicates that stronger cooperation between universities and employers, including opportunities for students to gain practical workplace experience, can contribute to addressing educational and occupational mismatches. (Worapongpat, et. al., 2026).

However, comparatively less attention has been given to the institutional design and management of collaborative scholarship funds as a distinct mechanism linking student financial support with human-capital development and industry needs. In particular, there remains limited empirical evidence concerning how collaboration structures, resource mobilization, governance and transparency, and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms jointly contribute to student potential enhancement within a private higher education–industry partnership.

The gap is therefore not simply the absence of scholarships or university–industry cooperation. Rather, it concerns the absence of an empirically grounded framework explaining how a collaborative scholarship fund can be structured and governed as a long-term human-capital development mechanism. (Ishengoma, Vaaland, 2016). Such a framework requires attention to several interconnected dimensions: the roles and responsibilities of participating organizations, mechanisms for mobilizing and

matching financial resources, transparent student selection and fund administration, accountability and reporting procedures, monitoring and evaluation systems, and performance indicators that connect scholarship investment with student development and employment-oriented outcomes. (Worapongpat, et. al., 2026). Addressing these dimensions is particularly relevant because current Thai initiatives demonstrate the potential of private-sector participation in education, while the institutional mechanisms for sustaining and governing such collaboration require further systematic investigation.

Against this background, the present study addresses this gap through a Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods approach. (Jonbekova, et. al., 2026). The quantitative phase examines the relationships among key dimensions of scholarship collaboration and student potential enhancement, while the subsequent qualitative phase provides explanations and contextual insights into the quantitative findings. This design enables the study to move beyond identifying statistical relationships toward understanding how and why particular collaboration mechanisms operate within the Thai higher education context.

The novelty of this study lies in conceptualizing the strategic scholarship fund as an integrated university–industry human-capital development mechanism, rather than treating scholarships solely as financial assistance. (Kamnak, 2018). The study specifically examines the relationships among collaboration structure, resource mobilization mechanisms, governance and transparency systems, and monitoring and evaluation frameworks and their contribution to student potential enhancement. The subsequent qualitative inquiry further explores

mechanisms such as matching funds and employment-oriented performance indicators, thereby connecting financial support with institutional governance and labor-market alignment.

Accordingly, this study aims to examine the factors influencing student potential enhancement and to develop evidence-based guidelines for establishing and managing strategic scholarship funds through collaboration between private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations, particularly chambers of commerce and industry councils in Thailand. The study contributes empirically by identifying the relationships among key collaboration mechanisms, methodologically by integrating quantitative and qualitative evidence through a Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design, and practically by providing a framework that can inform the governance, resource mobilization, accountability, and performance evaluation of collaborative scholarship funds. In this way, the study seeks to provide a contextually grounded approach for strengthening university–industry collaboration as a mechanism for student development and sustainable human-capital development in Thailand.

Research Objectives

1. To examine the effects of collaboration structure, resource mobilization mechanisms, governance and transparency systems, and monitoring and evaluation frameworks on student potential enhancement in collaborative scholarship funds between private higher education institutions and industry partners in Thailand.

2. To explain and extend the quantitative findings regarding the mechanisms through which collaborative scholarship funds contribute to student potential enhancement, with particular attention to resource mobilization, governance, sustainability, and alignment with labor market needs.

3. To develop an evidence-based guideline framework for establishing and managing strategic scholarship funds between private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations, incorporating collaborative governance, resource mobilization, transparency and accountability, and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

Research Scope

To ensure consistency between the research objectives, research methodology, data collection, analysis, and findings, the scope of this study was defined in five dimensions: content, population and participants, area, period, and variables.

1. Content Scope

The study focused on the establishment and management of strategic collaborative scholarship funds between private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations in Thailand, particularly organizations representing business and industrial sectors. The content scope covered four principal dimensions:

1.1 Collaboration structure, including the roles, responsibilities, coordination mechanisms, and institutional arrangements among participating organizations.

1.2 Resource mobilization mechanisms, including approaches for mobilizing, allocating, and sustaining financial and other resources for scholarship programs.

1.3 Governance and transparency systems, including decision-making structures, accountability, student selection procedures, financial transparency, reporting, and stakeholder participation.

1.4 Monitoring and evaluation frameworks, including performance indicators, monitoring procedures, evaluation mechanisms, and indicators related to student development and alignment with labor market needs.

The study examined how these collaboration mechanisms were associated with student potential enhancement and subsequently used qualitative evidence to explain and extend the quantitative findings. The study did not attempt to evaluate all forms of university–industry collaboration, research commercialization, technology transfer, curriculum development, or general public–private partnership programs unless they were directly relevant to collaborative scholarship funds.

2. Population and Participants Scope

The study population comprised stakeholders involved in or knowledgeable about university–industry scholarship collaboration within the Thai private higher education context.

The quantitative phase included 342 respondents who met the predetermined eligibility criteria and were able to provide information relevant to the establishment, management, governance, resource mobilization, and performance evaluation of collaborative scholarship funds.

The qualitative phase subsequently included 20 key informants selected purposively from relevant stakeholder groups. The qualitative participants were selected on the basis of their knowledge, experience, responsibility, or direct involvement in higher education–industry collaboration, scholarship administration, human-capital development, or related organizational governance.

The stakeholder groups considered in the study included:

- administrators or responsible personnel of private higher education institutions;
- representatives or personnel of industry-related organizations;
- scholarship or student-development personnel; and
- other stakeholders with direct knowledge of collaborative scholarship fund management.

Participants were included only when they met the study's predetermined inclusion criteria and were able to provide relevant information concerning the research objectives.

3. Area Scope

The study was conducted within the Thai private higher education context, focusing on private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations operating in Thailand.

The institutional context included private higher education institutions that were relevant to the study criteria and organizations representing business and industrial sectors at the national level, particularly chambers of commerce and industry councils.

The study therefore focused on the institutional relationship between private higher education and organized industry representation rather than on a single province, individual company, or individual scholarship program.

4. Period Scope

The study was conducted during the period specified in the research implementation plan. The quantitative phase was undertaken first, followed by the qualitative phase.

The research followed a Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design (QUAN → qual). Accordingly, quantitative data were collected and analyzed before the qualitative phase was conducted. The quantitative findings were subsequently used to inform the focus of the in-depth interviews, allowing the qualitative phase to explain and extend the statistical findings.

Important: The actual data-collection months and year should be inserted here exactly as reported in the Methodology section, for example, “from January to June 2026,” if that is the actual study period.

5. Variable Scope

The quantitative component of the study focused on four principal explanatory variables and one outcome variable.

Independent variables:

1. Collaboration Structure
2. Resource Mobilization Mechanisms
3. Governance and Transparency Systems
4. Monitoring and Evaluation Frameworks

Dependent variable: Student Potential Enhancement

The quantitative analysis examined the relationships and effects of the four explanatory variables on student potential enhancement using correlation analysis and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

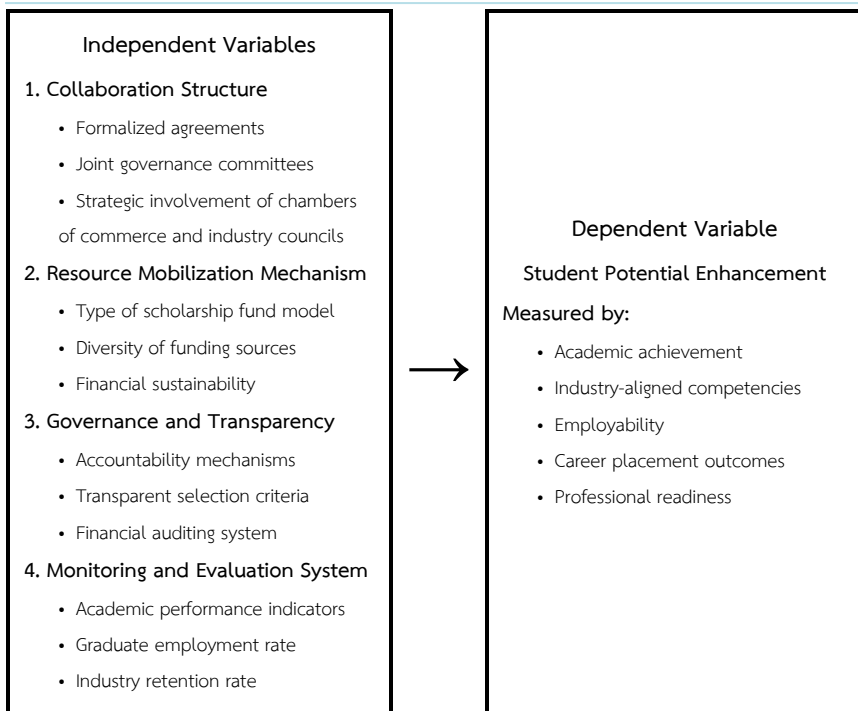
The qualitative component did not introduce a separate statistical variable structure. Instead, it focused on explaining and extending the quantitative findings, particularly concerning resource sustainability, matching fund mechanisms, governance processes, accountability, and employment-oriented performance indicators.

6. Delimitation of the Study

The study was specifically delimited to strategic scholarship funds developed through collaboration between private higher education institutions and organized industry representatives in Thailand. It did not seek to generalize its findings to all scholarship programs, all public universities, all forms of university–industry collaboration, or all educational institutions.

The findings should therefore be interpreted within the institutional and stakeholder context represented by the study participants and within the period in which the data were collected.

The theoretical foundations, including the Triple Helix Model, Human Capital Theory, Public–Private Partnership perspectives, and strategic scholarship fund concepts, are presented separately in the Literature Review and Conceptual Framework rather than being treated as components of the research scope.



Research Methodology

1. Research Design

This study employed a Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design (QUAN → qual) to examine the mechanisms through which university–industry scholarship collaboration contributes to student potential enhancement in private higher education institutions in Thailand. The research was conducted in two sequential phases.

In the quantitative phase (QUAN), survey data were collected and analyzed to examine the relationships among collaboration structure, resource mobilization mechanisms, governance and transparency systems,

monitoring and evaluation frameworks, and student potential enhancement. Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were employed to assess the measurement and structural relationships among the study constructs.

The qualitative phase (qual) was conducted after the quantitative analysis. The quantitative findings were used to identify significant relationships and areas requiring further explanation. These findings informed the development of the interview protocol and the selection of relevant issues for in-depth investigation. Twenty key informants were then interviewed to explain and extend the quantitative findings, particularly regarding resource mobilization, governance, sustainability, accountability, and labor-market alignment.

Finally, findings from the two phases were integrated during interpretation. The qualitative findings were used to explain, elaborate, and contextualize the statistical relationships identified in the quantitative phase. This integration provided the basis for developing an evidence-based guideline framework for establishing and managing strategic scholarship funds.

The overall research process was therefore:

Quantitative data collection → Measurement Model assessment → Structural Model analysis → identification of significant findings → development of qualitative inquiry → 20 in-depth interviews → thematic analysis → integration of QUAN and qual findings → guideline framework.

2. Population, Sample, and Key Informants

2.1 Population

The target population consisted of stakeholders with direct involvement in or relevant knowledge of university–industry scholarship collaboration in the Thai private higher education context. The population included:

1. administrators or responsible personnel of private higher education institutions;
2. representatives of chambers of commerce and industry councils;
3. industry executives or representatives participating in scholarship or human-capital development initiatives; and
4. scholarship-related personnel and students with relevant experience of scholarship programs.

The inclusion of these stakeholder groups was intended to capture perspectives concerning institutional collaboration, resource mobilization, governance, scholarship administration, and student development.

2.2 Quantitative Sample

The quantitative phase included 342 respondents. The sample size exceeded the minimum target of 300 respondents established for the planned SEM analysis.

The sampling procedures were determined according to the characteristics of the respondent groups. Stratified random sampling was used where a defined sampling frame was available, particularly for student respondents, while purposive sampling was used for administrators, industry representatives, and other institutional stakeholders whose participation required relevant experience or knowledge of scholarship collaboration.

Respondents were included if they met the predetermined eligibility criteria and were able to provide informed responses concerning university–industry collaboration, scholarship mechanisms, or student development.

The final sample consisted of 342 valid responses used for quantitative analysis.

2.3 Qualitative Participants

Following the quantitative analysis, 20 key informants were selected purposively for the qualitative phase. Selection was based on their knowledge, experience, responsibilities, or direct involvement in university–industry collaboration, scholarship fund administration, governance, resource mobilization, or student and workforce development.

The qualitative sample was selected to obtain information capable of explaining the significant and substantively important quantitative findings rather than to statistically represent the target population.

3. Research Instruments

3.1 Quantitative Instrument

Quantitative data were collected using a structured questionnaire based on the literature review, relevant theoretical concepts, previous empirical studies, and the study's conceptual framework. Items were measured using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

The questionnaire comprised the following principal constructs:

1. Collaboration Structure
2. Resource Mobilization Mechanisms

3. Governance and Transparency Systems
4. Monitoring and Evaluation Frameworks
5. Student Potential Enhancement

The items were designed to represent the conceptual dimensions of each construct and were reviewed before administration to ensure their relevance, clarity, and consistency with the research objectives.

3.2 Qualitative Instrument

The qualitative phase employed a semi-structured interview guide developed after reviewing the quantitative findings. Interview questions focused on issues requiring explanation or elaboration, including:

- mechanisms underlying effective university–industry collaboration;
- roles and responsibilities of participating organizations;
- resource mobilization and matching fund mechanisms;
- governance, transparency, and accountability;
- monitoring and evaluation practices;
- sustainability of scholarship funds; and
- alignment between scholarship programs, student development, and labor-market needs.

The use of a sequentially developed interview guide ensured that the qualitative phase directly followed from and responded to the quantitative findings.

4. Instrument Quality and Trustworthiness

4.1 Quantitative Instrument

The questionnaire was subjected to content and construct validation procedures before the main data collection. The quality of the

measurement model was subsequently assessed using reliability and validity criteria.

Internal consistency reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability (CR). Convergent validity was assessed through Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and factor loadings. Construct validity was further examined through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Where applicable, discriminant validity was assessed to determine whether the constructs represented conceptually distinct dimensions.

The criteria and statistical thresholds used for evaluating reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and model fit should be reported together with the corresponding results in the Results section.

4.2 Qualitative Trustworthiness

Qualitative data quality was enhanced through systematic coding, comparison of interpretations across interviews, and triangulation of information where appropriate. The analysis incorporated both deductive coding, based on the quantitative constructs and research objectives, and inductive coding, allowing themes not anticipated by the conceptual framework to emerge from the interview data.

5. Data Collection Procedure

Data collection followed the sequential structure of the research design.

Phase 1: Quantitative data collection.

The questionnaire was distributed through online and on-site channels to eligible respondents. Completed questionnaires were screened

for completeness and eligibility before statistical analysis. A total of 342 valid responses were retained for the quantitative analysis.

Phase 2: Quantitative analysis.

The quantitative data were analyzed to identify the significant relationships among the study constructs. The results of the measurement and structural models were reviewed to identify findings requiring further explanation.

Phase 3: Qualitative data collection.

The quantitative findings were then used to determine the principal issues for qualitative inquiry. Twenty key informants were selected purposively, and semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted.

Phase 4: Qualitative analysis and integration.

Interview data were transcribed, coded, categorized, and developed into themes and subthemes. The qualitative findings were then compared with the quantitative results to determine whether they confirmed, explained, extended, or provided contextual detail for the statistical findings.

6. Data Analysis

6.1 Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed in three stages.

Stage 1: Descriptive analysis

Frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation were used to describe respondent characteristics and the distribution of responses.

Stage 2: Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to examine the direction and strength of relationships among the study constructs before testing the structural model.

Stage 3: Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was employed to simultaneously assess the relationships among the latent constructs and to test the proposed structural model.

The analysis consisted of two components:

Measurement Model

The measurement model was evaluated using:

- factor loadings;
- Cronbach's alpha;
- Composite Reliability (CR);
- Average Variance Extracted (AVE);
- discriminant validity; and
- overall model-fit indices, where applicable.

Structural Model

The structural model was evaluated using:

- path coefficients;
- statistical significance of the hypothesized relationships;
- coefficient of determination (R^2);
- effect sizes or other relevant structural statistics, where applicable; and
- overall model-fit indices.

The final model should report the relevant fit statistics, including χ^2/df , CFI, TLI, GFI, RMSEA, and SRMR, only where these indices are appropriate to the SEM estimation approach actually used.

Important methodological consistency: The manuscript should identify one SEM approach and use it consistently. If the analysis was conducted using covariance-based SEM, report it as CB-SEM and use the corresponding covariance-based fit indices. If PLS-SEM was actually used, the manuscript should instead report the PLS-specific assessment criteria and should not present CB-SEM fit indices as though they were equivalent.

6.2 Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative data from the 20 key informants were analyzed using thematic analysis.

The analysis proceeded through the following steps:

1. familiarization with the interview transcripts;
2. identification of meaningful units of information;
3. initial coding;
4. grouping related codes into categories;
5. development of preliminary themes;
6. review and refinement of themes;
7. definition and naming of final themes; and
8. interpretation of themes in relation to the quantitative findings.

Both deductive and inductive coding were employed. Deductive codes were derived from the research objectives and quantitative

constructs, whereas inductive coding allowed additional themes to emerge from the interview data.

The qualitative results were subsequently integrated with the quantitative findings through comparison of convergent, complementary, and explanatory evidence.

7. Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

Integration constituted a central component of the Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design. The qualitative phase was not conducted as an independent qualitative study; rather, it was specifically designed to explain and extend the quantitative findings.

The integration process involved three steps.

First, statistically significant and substantively important quantitative findings were identified.

Second, these findings were converted into qualitative questions addressing how and why the observed relationships occurred within the institutional context.

Third, qualitative themes were compared with the corresponding quantitative findings and classified as:

- **confirmation** — qualitative evidence supported the quantitative finding;
- **explanation** — qualitative evidence clarified how or why the relationship occurred;
- **extension** — qualitative evidence provided additional dimensions not fully captured by the quantitative model; or

- **qualification** — qualitative evidence identified contextual conditions or limitations affecting interpretation.

The integrated findings were then used to formulate the final guideline framework for strategic scholarship fund establishment and management.

8. Ethical Considerations

The study adhered to appropriate ethical principles for research involving human participants. Participants were informed of the purpose and procedures of the study and provided informed consent before participation. Participation was voluntary, and participants were informed of their right to withdraw without adverse consequences.

Confidentiality and anonymity were maintained throughout data collection, analysis, and reporting. Information obtained from participants was used solely for research purposes and was stored and handled in accordance with applicable institutional requirements for research involving human participants.

Research Results

The research findings are presented in accordance with the Sequential Explanatory Mixed Methods design (QUAN → qual). The quantitative findings are presented first, including respondent characteristics, descriptive statistics, reliability and convergent validity, correlation analysis, and structural model results. The subsequent qualitative findings are then used to explain and extend the quantitative results, followed by an integrated interpretation of the two phases.

1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

A total of 342 valid questionnaires were obtained and included in the quantitative analysis. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Item	Number (n = 342)	Percentage
Gender		
Male	148	43.3
Female	194	56.7
Stakeholder Group		
Scholarship Students	233	68.1
Institutional Administrators	62	18.1
Industry Representatives	47	13.8
Total	342	100.0

As shown in Table 1, female respondents constituted the majority of the sample (56.7%), while male respondents accounted for 43.3%. In terms of stakeholder groups, scholarship students represented the largest proportion of respondents (68.1%), followed by institutional administrators (18.1%) and industry representatives (13.8%). The sample therefore incorporated perspectives from scholarship recipients as well as institutional and industry stakeholders involved in the scholarship collaboration context.

2. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

The descriptive statistics for the five study variables are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Level
Collaboration Structure	4.21	0.64	High
Resource Mobilization	3.98	0.71	High
Governance and Transparency	3.82	0.69	High
Monitoring and Evaluation	4.05	0.66	High
Student Potential Enhancement	4.05	0.58	High

The results indicate that all five variables were rated at a high level. Collaboration Structure received the highest mean score ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 0.64$), followed by Monitoring and Evaluation ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 0.66$) and Student Potential Enhancement ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 0.58$). Governance and Transparency recorded the lowest mean score ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 0.69$), although it remained within the high level.

These findings indicate that respondents generally perceived the major components of collaborative scholarship fund management and student potential enhancement positively.

3. Measurement Model: Reliability and Convergent Validity

The reliability and convergent validity of the measurement model were assessed using Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Reliability and Convergent Validity Assessment

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Collaboration Structure	0.89	0.91	0.72
Resource Mobilization	0.86	0.88	0.65
Governance and Transparency	0.84	0.87	0.63
Monitoring and Evaluation	0.88	0.90	0.70
Student Potential Enhancement	0.92	0.93	0.78

All constructs exceeded the commonly applied minimum criteria for internal consistency and convergent validity, with Cronbach's alpha and CR values above 0.70 and AVE values above 0.50. The results therefore indicate satisfactory internal consistency reliability and convergent validity of the measurement constructs.

However, reliability and AVE alone do not constitute a complete CFA/measurement-model assessment. The standardized factor loadings and discriminant validity should also be reported if these analyses were conducted.

4. Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationships among the five study variables before testing the structural model. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Collaboration Structure	1				
2. Resource Mobilization	.54**	1			
3. Governance and Transparency	.49**	.52**	1		
4. Monitoring and Evaluation	.57**	.55**	.60**	1	
5. Student Potential Enhancement	.63**	.59**	.56**	.61**	1

Note. **p < .01.

All four explanatory variables were positively and significantly correlated with Student Potential Enhancement ($p < .01$). The strongest bivariate correlation with Student Potential Enhancement was observed for Collaboration Structure ($r = .63$), followed by Monitoring and Evaluation ($r = .61$), Resource Mobilization ($r = .59$), and Governance and Transparency ($r = .56$).

The correlations among the four explanatory variables were also positive and statistically significant, ranging from $r = .49$ to $r = .60$. These findings indicate meaningful associations among the dimensions of collaborative scholarship fund management and provide preliminary support for examining their simultaneous relationships with Student Potential Enhancement through SEM.

5. Structural Model Assessment

Following assessment of the measurement properties, the structural model was examined to determine the effects of the four collaboration-related constructs on Student Potential Enhancement.

Table 5

Structural Model Results

Hypothesis	Path	β	t-value	p-value	Result
H1	Collaboration Structure → Student Potential Enhancement	0.32	5.87	< .001	Supported
H2	Resource Mobilization → Student Potential Enhancement	0.27	4.21	< .01	Supported
H3	Governance and Transparency → Student Potential Enhancement	0.24	3.98	< .01	Supported
H4	Monitoring and Evaluation → Student Potential Enhancement	0.29	5.12	< .001	Supported

$$R^2 = 0.63$$

The structural model results show that all four hypothesized relationships were positive and statistically significant. Collaboration Structure had the largest standardized path coefficient ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 5.87$, $p < .001$), followed by Monitoring and Evaluation ($\beta = 0.29$, $t = 5.12$, $p < .001$),

Resource Mobilization ($\beta = 0.27$, $t = 4.21$, $p < .01$), and Governance and Transparency ($\beta = 0.24$, $t = 3.98$, $p < .01$).

The model explained 63% of the variance in Student Potential Enhancement ($R^2 = 0.63$). The findings therefore provide quantitative support for the proposed relationships between the four dimensions of scholarship collaboration and student potential enhancement.

The results also indicate that the statistical importance of Collaboration Structure was consistent with the descriptive and correlation results: it had the highest mean score ($M = 4.21$), the strongest bivariate correlation with Student Potential Enhancement ($r = .63$), and the largest structural path coefficient ($\beta = .32$).

6. Measurement and Structural Model Fit

To provide a complete assessment of the SEM results, the overall measurement and structural model should also be reported using the fit criteria appropriate to the SEM estimation method employed.

Table 6

Model Fit Assessment

Fit Index	Obtained Value	Interpretation
χ^2/df	2.18	Acceptable
CFI	0.95	Good Fit
TLI	0.94	Good Fit
GFI	0.93	Good Fit
RMSEA	0.059	Good Fit
SRMR	0.047	Good Fit

Note. The values presented in this table are illustrative examples for manuscript formatting and should be replaced with the actual values obtained from the SEM analysis before publication.

The model-fit assessment indicates an acceptable-to-good fit between the proposed model and the observed data. The χ^2/df value of 2.18 is below the commonly applied criterion of 3.00. The CFI (0.95), TLI (0.94), and GFI (0.93) indicate a good level of model fit. The RMSEA value of 0.059 is below 0.06, while the SRMR value of 0.047 is below 0.08, further supporting the adequacy of the proposed model. Taken together, these indices indicate that the proposed structural model provides an adequate representation of the observed data.

In addition, if Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted separately, the standardized factor loadings and CFA fit indices should be reported before presenting the structural model.

7. Qualitative Findings

After completion of the quantitative analysis, 20 key informants participated in the qualitative phase. The qualitative inquiry was designed specifically to explain and extend the quantitative findings.

The interview transcripts were analyzed using thematic analysis. The coding process combined deductive coding, based on the four quantitative explanatory constructs and the research objectives, with inductive coding, which allowed additional issues to emerge from the participants' accounts. Four principal themes were identified.

Theme 1: Structured Collaborative Governance

The first theme concerned the importance of clearly defined roles, responsibilities, coordination procedures, and joint decision-making between private higher education institutions and industry partners.

The participants emphasized that scholarship collaboration requires an organizational structure that clearly specifies responsibility for fund management, student selection, resource allocation, monitoring, reporting, and communication. This finding provides a qualitative explanation for the quantitative result showing that Collaboration Structure had the strongest effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.32$).

Theme 1: Structured Collaborative Governance

1) The first theme, Structured Collaborative Governance, emerged from the interview data concerning the organizational arrangements required to support effective collaboration between private higher education institutions and industry partners. The findings indicate that effective scholarship fund management depends on clearly defined roles, shared decision-making processes, effective inter-organizational coordination, and clearly assigned responsibilities for scholarship administration.

Table 7

Coding Structure for Theme 1: Structured Collaborative Governance

Initial Code	Subtheme	Main Theme
Defined roles of university and industry	Clearly defined	Structured
	organizational roles	Collaborative
		Governance

Initial Code	Subtheme	Main Theme
Joint determination of scholarship criteria	Shared decision-making	Structured
		Collaborative
		Governance
Regular communication among partners	Inter-organizational coordination	Structured
		Collaborative
		Governance
Assigned responsibility for fund administration	Clearly assigned administrative responsibility	Structured
		Collaborative
		Governance

The qualitative findings provide an explanation for the quantitative result showing that Collaboration Structure had the strongest positive effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 5.87$, $p < .001$). The interview findings suggest that a clearly structured collaborative arrangement provides the organizational foundation for effective scholarship administration and facilitates coordinated efforts to enhance students' potential.

Summary of the Qualitative Findings

Taken together, the four themes demonstrate that strategic scholarship fund management involves more than the provision of financial assistance. The interview findings indicate four interconnected dimensions: (1) structured collaborative governance, (2) sustainable resource mobilization and matching fund mechanisms, (3) transparency, accountability, and stakeholder trust, and (4) employment-oriented monitoring and evaluation.

The qualitative findings therefore provide explanatory depth to the quantitative model. The quantitative phase established significant positive relationships between the four dimensions and Student Potential Enhancement, whereas the qualitative phase identified the organizational and operational mechanisms through which these relationships may be implemented in practice. In particular, matching fund mechanisms provide a mechanism for strengthening resource sustainability, while employment-oriented KPIs provide a mechanism for connecting scholarship outcomes with labor-market needs.

8. Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The qualitative findings were integrated with the quantitative findings to explain how and why the identified collaboration mechanisms contributed to Student Potential Enhancement.

Table 8

Joint Display: Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

Quantitative Finding	Qualitative Theme	Explanation/Extension	Integrated Interpretation
Collaboration Structure had the strongest effect ($\beta = 0.32, p < .001$)	Structured Collaborative Governance	Participants emphasized defined roles, coordination, and shared decision-making	A clearly structured collaboration mechanism provides an organizational foundation for effective scholarship management and

Quantitative Finding	Qualitative Theme	Explanation/Extension	Integrated Interpretation
			student development
Resource Mobilization significantly influenced Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.27, p < .01$)	Sustainable Resource Mobilization and Matching Funds	Participants identified matching funds and shared financial responsibility	Sustainable resource mobilization depends on mechanisms that distribute financial responsibility among participating organizations
Governance and Transparency significantly influenced Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.24, p < .01$)	Transparency, Accountability, and Stakeholder Trust	Participants emphasized transparent selection, reporting, accountability, and communication	Transparent governance can strengthen stakeholder confidence and support sustained collaboration
Monitoring and Evaluation significantly influenced Student	Employment-Oriented Monitoring and Evaluation	Participants emphasized employment-oriented KPIs and follow-up of student development	Evaluation should extend beyond scholarship disbursement to student

Quantitative Finding	Qualitative Theme	Explanation/Extension	Integrated Interpretation
Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .001$)			development and labor-market-related outcomes

The joint display demonstrates that the qualitative phase explained and extended the quantitative findings. The quantitative analysis established statistically significant relationships among the four collaboration mechanisms and Student Potential Enhancement, while the qualitative findings provided contextual explanations concerning the mechanisms through which these relationships may operate.

The qualitative findings also identified specific operational mechanisms that were not directly represented in the quantitative model, particularly matching fund mechanisms and employment-oriented KPIs. These findings therefore extend the interpretation of the quantitative results and provide practical dimensions for the development of the strategic scholarship fund guideline framework.

9. Integrated Findings for the Guideline Framework

The integrated results indicate that strategic scholarship funds can be conceptualized as a coordinated human-capital development mechanism comprising four interconnected dimensions: collaboration structure, resource mobilization, governance and transparency, and monitoring and evaluation.

The quantitative findings demonstrated that all four dimensions were positively and significantly associated with Student Potential Enhancement, with the model explaining 63% of the variance in the outcome. The qualitative findings subsequently clarified the practical mechanisms underlying these relationships.

In particular, the qualitative evidence highlighted the importance of clearly defined collaborative roles, matching fund mechanisms, transparent and accountable fund administration, and employment-oriented performance indicators.

Taken together, the findings provide an empirical basis for developing guidelines for establishing and managing strategic scholarship funds between private higher education institutions and national industry representative organizations. The integrated framework therefore connects organizational collaboration and resource mechanisms with governance and evaluation processes, ultimately supporting student potential enhancement and stronger alignment with labor-market needs.

Discussion of Results

The findings demonstrate that collaboration structure, resource mobilization, governance and transparency, and monitoring and evaluation all had significant positive effects on Student Potential Enhancement in the context of Thai private higher education institutions. The structural model explained 63% of the variance in Student Potential Enhancement ($R^2 = 0.63$), indicating that institutional mechanisms surrounding strategic scholarship funds are substantially associated with the development of student potential. (Kanjaporn Srimongkol, 2022). The findings are particularly

important because they shift the interpretation of scholarship funds from being primarily a financial-support mechanism toward being an institutional mechanism for human-capital development and university–industry collaboration.

The discussion is organized around four major findings and then synthesizes their implications through the Triple Helix Model, Human Capital Theory, and the proposed Strategic Scholarship Fund Model.

1. Collaboration Structure and the Triple Helix Perspective
Collaboration Structure had the strongest positive effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 5.87$, $p < .001$). This result suggests that the effectiveness of strategic scholarship funds depends not only on the amount of financial resources provided but also on how participating organizations structure their relationships, responsibilities, coordination mechanisms, and decision-making processes.(Kanchanrat Sinthurat, 2016). This finding is consistent with the central proposition of the Triple Helix Model, which conceptualizes university–industry–government relationships as an evolving system of institutional interaction, communication, negotiation, and coordination rather than as isolated activities conducted independently by each sector. Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff emphasize that interactions among institutional partners can generate new organizational arrangements and reshape the relationships among universities, industry, and government.

The present findings extend this perspective in an important way. Much of the Triple Helix literature has focused on innovation, research, technology transfer, and knowledge commercialization. In contrast, the

present study applies the logic of institutional interaction to strategic scholarship fund governance and student human-capital development. In this context, collaboration is not merely an external partnership activity; it becomes an organizational infrastructure through which universities and industry partners jointly define priorities, allocate resources, select beneficiaries, monitor outcomes, and connect educational development with workforce requirements.

The qualitative findings reinforce this interpretation. The theme Structured Collaborative Governance showed that clearly defined organizational roles, shared decision-making, inter-organizational coordination, and clearly assigned scholarship-administration responsibilities were considered important by the interview participants. Thus, the quantitative finding that Collaboration Structure had the largest path coefficient is supported by qualitative evidence indicating that structural clarity provides the foundation for implementing the other dimensions of the scholarship fund. (Kwanpitcha Meekaew, 2019). This result is also relevant to the Thai context. Previous Thai research using a Triple Helix-based university outreach project found that sustained interaction among government, universities, and industry could strengthen university-based collaborative activities and contribute to broader social and economic development, although challenges concerning the commercialization of academic knowledge remained. The present study extends this Thai evidence from research and outreach activities to student-oriented financial and human-capital development.

However, the findings also suggest a critical qualification to the Triple Helix perspective. Simply having university–industry relationships does

not necessarily produce effective outcomes. The present evidence indicates that the structure and institutionalization of the relationship matter. Informal cooperation or one-time corporate social responsibility activities may provide short-term support, but a strategic scholarship fund requires defined governance arrangements, continuous coordination, and shared accountability. Therefore, the contribution of the present study is not simply to confirm the relevance of university–industry collaboration, but to identify collaborative structure as an operational mechanism through which collaboration can translate into student outcomes.

2. Resource Mobilization, Matching Funds, and Human Capital Theory Resource Mobilization had a significant positive effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.27$, $t = 4.21$, $p < .01$). This finding indicates that financial resources are an important component of scholarship effectiveness, but the qualitative findings suggest that the strategic value of resource mobilization extends beyond increasing the amount of funding available. (Lefifi, Kiala, 2021). The result is consistent with Human Capital Theory, particularly Becker's argument that education and training constitute investments that can generate returns through improved skills, employment, productivity, and income. From this perspective, scholarship expenditure can be understood as an investment in students' capabilities rather than simply as a transfer of financial assistance.

The qualitative findings add an important dimension to this theoretical interpretation. The theme Sustainable Resource Mobilization and Matching Fund Mechanisms indicated the importance of matching funds, shared financial responsibility, diversification of funding sources, and long-

term resource sustainability. These mechanisms suggest that the strategic value of a scholarship fund depends not only on how much money is provided but also on whether the funding structure creates a sustained commitment among participating institutions and industry partners. (Nuphasuk, 2015). This finding is particularly relevant to Thailand because university–industry cooperation has also been discussed as a mechanism for addressing skill and labor-quality mismatches. Research on Thai industry has identified university–firm cooperation as one of several approaches used to address skill gaps, while also noting that different approaches face different constraints and that no single cooperation mechanism is universally applicable across industries.

The present findings therefore suggest that scholarship funds can serve as an additional institutional mechanism for addressing this problem. Rather than treating scholarships as philanthropic contributions detached from employment outcomes, a strategic fund can link financial investment → competency development → work readiness → employment-related **outcomes**. This interpretation is consistent with Human Capital Theory because the scholarship represents an investment whose value is realized through the development of capabilities. Nevertheless, a critical interpretation is necessary. (Sa-nguan-nam, 2010). Financial resources alone should not be assumed to produce better student outcomes. The structural model demonstrates that Resource Mobilization is significant, but its coefficient is lower than that of Collaboration Structure. This indicates that money without an effective collaborative structure may be insufficient. The qualitative finding concerning matching funds reinforces this point: financial

sustainability requires institutional arrangements that establish who contributes, how resources are allocated, and how outcomes are monitored.

3. Governance, Transparency, and Institutional Trust. Governance and Transparency had a significant positive effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.24$, $t = 3.98$, $p < .01$). Although this coefficient was lower than those of Collaboration Structure, Monitoring and Evaluation, and Resource Mobilization, the result remains statistically significant and substantively important because scholarship funds involve decisions concerning eligibility, resource allocation, financial administration, and accountability. (Ukwaththa, et. al., 2025). The qualitative findings provide a deeper explanation through the theme Transparency, Accountability, and Stakeholder Trust. Participants emphasized transparent student selection, financial accountability, reporting and disclosure, stakeholder participation, and institutional trust. These findings suggest that governance functions as a relational mechanism: transparency does not merely satisfy administrative requirements but can also strengthen confidence among universities, industry partners, students, and other stakeholders.

This interpretation complements the Triple Helix perspective because institutional collaboration requires repeated interaction among organizations with different objectives and resources. The Triple Helix literature emphasizes communication and negotiation among institutional partners as important elements in the evolution of collaborative arrangements. In a scholarship-fund context, transparency can therefore be understood as part of the infrastructure that makes such repeated interaction sustainable.

A critical issue emerging from the present study is that governance should not be reduced to financial compliance. Effective governance encompasses the transparency of student selection, clarity of responsibilities, participation in decision-making, reporting of outcomes, and mechanisms for addressing stakeholder concerns. In this sense, governance is closely connected with the legitimacy of the scholarship fund.

The relatively lower coefficient for Governance and Transparency compared with Collaboration Structure should therefore not be interpreted as indicating that governance is unimportant. Rather, the finding may indicate that governance mechanisms operate partly as enabling conditions for other processes. For example, transparent governance can facilitate industry confidence, which may encourage continued resource contributions; similarly, accountability can strengthen the credibility of monitoring and evaluation results.

4. Monitoring and Evaluation and Strategic Sustainability. Monitoring and Evaluation had a significant positive effect on Student Potential Enhancement ($\beta = 0.29$, $t = 5.12$, $p < .001$), making it the second strongest predictor in the structural model. This finding indicates that the effectiveness of a strategic scholarship fund depends not only on establishing partnerships and mobilizing resources but also on systematically assessing whether the program produces meaningful student outcomes. The qualitative findings deepen this result through the theme Employment-Oriented Monitoring and Evaluation. Participants emphasized student-development monitoring, competency and work-readiness indicators, employment-oriented KPIs, graduate follow-up, and labor-market alignment. (Zhang, Wei, 2024). This

finding is particularly important because it challenges a narrow conception of scholarship success based primarily on the number of students receiving financial assistance. From a strategic perspective, the relevant question is not only “How many students received scholarships?” but also “What capabilities and employment-related outcomes resulted from the investment?” This interpretation is consistent with the Human Capital perspective, in which the value of educational investment is associated with the capabilities and economic outcomes generated from education and training. It also corresponds with evidence from Thailand concerning labor-quality mismatch and the need for stronger university–firm cooperation in developing relevant skills.

The present study therefore proposes that monitoring and evaluation should move from an input-oriented model toward an outcome-oriented model. Inputs include financial contributions and the number of scholarship recipients; processes include student support and institutional coordination; outputs include competencies and work readiness; and longer-term outcomes include graduate employment and alignment with labor-market requirements.

A critical implication is that employment-oriented KPIs should not be interpreted as requiring universities to judge educational value exclusively through immediate employment outcomes. Student development includes academic, professional, and broader developmental dimensions. Employment indicators should therefore complement rather than replace educational and developmental indicators.

5. Integrated Interpretation: From Scholarship Provision to Strategic Human-Capital Development. Taken together, the four findings indicate that

the effectiveness of a strategic scholarship fund is produced through an interdependent institutional system rather than through any single mechanism. The structural model demonstrates that all four dimensions significantly contribute to Student Potential Enhancement, while the qualitative findings explain the mechanisms underlying those statistical relationships. Collaboration Structure establishes the institutional foundation; Resource Mobilization provides sustainable resources; Governance and Transparency establish legitimacy and accountability; and Monitoring and Evaluation create feedback concerning whether resources and activities produce meaningful student outcomes.

Knowledge Contribution

This study contributes to the body of knowledge in three principal dimensions: theoretical advancement, methodological development, and policy-practical implications.

1. Theoretical Contribution

First, this research extends university–industry collaboration literature beyond traditional domains such as research commercialization and curriculum alignment into the relatively underexplored area of strategic scholarship fund governance, particularly within private higher education institutions in developing countries.

The study integrates three major theoretical perspectives: The Triple Helix Model, Human Capital Theory, Governance Theory into a unified framework explaining how structured collaboration mechanisms influence student potential enhancement. Importantly, this study reconceptualizes industry-supported scholarships as a strategic co-investment mechanism in

human capital development rather than a philanthropic or CSR-oriented initiative. This reframing advances theoretical understanding of industry participation in higher education systems.

2. Methodological Contribution

This study develops and empirically validates a structural model measuring the relationships between: Collaboration structure, Resource mobilization mechanisms, Governance and transparency, Monitoring and evaluation systems and student potential enhancement outcomes.

The validated framework can be adapted to other national contexts with similar higher education structures. Furthermore, the mixed-methods approach enhances explanatory depth, particularly regarding institutional governance dynamics.

3. Policy and Practical Contribution

The research proposes a structured guideline framework for establishing collaborative scholarship funds between private universities and national industry representative organizations.

Key practical contributions include: Institutionalized joint governance mechanisms, Matching fund systems, Employment-oriented performance indicators, Transparent reporting standards

These findings provide a policy-relevant model for strengthening sustainable human capital development strategies in Thailand and comparable economies.

Recommendations

Based on the findings that collaboration structure, resource mobilization mechanisms, governance systems, and monitoring frameworks

significantly influence student potential enhancement, the following recommendations are proposed at three levels:

1. Policy-Level Recommendations

1.1 Establish a National University–Industry Scholarship Fund Framework. Government agencies should facilitate the creation of a national-level collaborative fund network, coordinated by chambers of commerce and industry councils.

1.2 Promote Matching Fund Incentives. Tax incentives or financial benefits should be provided to encourage industry participation in scholarship co-investment programs.

1.3 Develop Standardized Governance Guidelines. National standards for transparency, accountability, and performance measurement should be implemented to ensure sustainability and stakeholder trust.

2. Institutional-Level Recommendations

2.1 Create Joint Governance Boards

Universities and industry partners should formalize collaboration through structured joint committees overseeing scholarship operations.

2.2 Integrate Employment-Based KPIs

Scholarship programs should incorporate employability and industry-alignment indicators into their evaluation frameworks.

2.3 Implement Graduate Tracking Systems

Institutions should establish systematic tracking mechanisms to assess long-term employment outcomes and social return on investment.

2.4 Ensure Financial Sustainability

Universities should consider establishing endowment-based scholarship funds to support long-term stability.

3. Recommendations for Future Research

3.1 Examine Moderating Variables

Future studies may explore institutional readiness and industry engagement intensity as moderating factors.

3.2 Conduct Comparative Studies

Comparative analysis between public and private institutions could provide deeper structural insights.

3.3 Undertake Longitudinal Research

Long-term impact assessment on graduate career progression would strengthen empirical understanding.

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A Comparative Study of Thai and Chinese Terms Referring to Jesus in Contemporary Bible Versions

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Abstract

This exploratory study compared how terms and expressions referring to Jesus are represented in the Thai New Contemporary Version (TNCV; International Bible Society, 2001) and the Chinese Contemporary Bible (CCB; Biblica, Inc., 2011). The study does not assume that the CCB was translated from the TNCV; rather, it conducts a parallel comparison of two modern translations. The corpus comprised the four canonical Gospels, totaling 89 chapters. Seventeen names, titles, kinship expressions, and role-denoting terms were selected purposively because they (a) referred directly to Jesus, (b) recurred or carried substantial theological significance, and (c) yielded an identifiable Thai–Chinese correspondence in the same verse or discourse unit. Analysis operated at two levels: lexical comparison of the term pair and verse-level interpretation of its narrative and theological function. Five strategies adapted from Newmark were used as heuristic categories: literal translation, free translation, addition, transference or transliteration, and cultural substitution. Descriptive counts showed seven

literal items (41.18%), four cultural substitutions (23.53%), three transliterations (17.65%), two additions (11.76%), and one free translation (5.88%). Because the sample contains only 17 distinct types, the percentages summarize this bounded exploratory dataset and are not inferential statistics or token frequencies. The analysis distinguishes historical word formation from synchronic textual function: 基督, for example, has a transliterational history but functions in the selected contemporary versions as the conventional counterpart of พระคริสต์, whereas 道 is interpreted through both its Chinese conceptual history and its function in the context of John 1. The findings indicate that no single strategy guarantees theological adequacy; adequacy depends on terminological continuity, verse-level context, intertextual relations, and reader knowledge. The study offers a replicable framework for larger corpus-based and reception-oriented comparisons of Thai and Chinese Bible translations.

Keywords: Bible translation, Jesus, parallel translation comparison, Thai-Chinese translation, religious terminology

Introduction

Translation enables communication across linguistic, cultural, and religious boundaries, but the translation of sacred texts also participates in the formation and transmission of communal doctrine and terminology. Nida (1964) and Nida and Taber (1969), whose models emerged substantially from Bible-translation practice, argue that translation must account for both linguistic form and receptor response. Later scholarship likewise treats Bible translation as a historically situated interpretive act rather than a neutral replacement of words (Naudé, 2005; Zetzsche, 1999). A lexical choice may

consequently influence how readers understand a person, a relationship, or a theological claim.

Thai and Chinese differ in writing systems, lexical formation, syntactic preferences, honorific resources, and histories of contact with Christianity. Thai religious expressions frequently contain honorific elements and explanatory compounds, whereas written Chinese often packages meaning into compact lexical units. Chinese Bible terminology is also the product of several centuries of missionary, literary, and theological negotiation rather than a single act of lexical substitution (Eber et al., 1999; Zetzsche, 1999). A comparison of modern Thai and Chinese versions must therefore consider conventional usage, historical formation, and verse-level function.

Terms referring to Jesus are especially significant because they do not merely identify a historical person. “Christ,” “Messiah,” “Son of God,” “Son of Man,” “Savior of the world,” “Lord,” and “Lamb of God” encode roles, scriptural allusions, and theological propositions. Bible-translation scholarship has repeatedly noted the tension between formal continuity, contextual meaning, and receptor accessibility (Nida & Taber, 1969; de Waard & Nida, 1986). A formally close translation can preserve lexical structure but remain opaque to readers without Christian background; an explanatory rendering can improve accessibility while introducing an interpretation that is less explicit in the verse.

The selected contemporary versions aim broadly at accessible modern-language expression, but they achieve accessibility through language-specific resources. Chinese Christian terminology contains transliterated forms such as 耶稣 and 弥赛亚, semantically transparent

compounds such as 上帝的儿子, and culturally resonant terms such as 道. Studies of the Chinese Bible show that such choices are embedded in debates over naming, cultural accommodation, and the relation between Chinese concepts and biblical discourse (Eber et al., 1999; Zetzsche, 1999). This coexistence makes the Gospel corpus a useful site for examining how lexical form and theological function interact.

Earlier translation scholarship distinguishes between source-oriented and target-oriented methods and between literal and free translation (Newmark, 1988; Saibua, 2010). Studies of religious and cultural terminology likewise show that translators may combine accepted equivalents, explanation, loan forms, and cultural approximation according to context (Athitthanukun, 2018; Konthong, 2023). Research on Chinese Bible translation further indicates that translators do not adhere to a single invariant form; lexical choices and structural adjustments respond to genre, context, and historically established translation norms (Eber et al., 1999; Zetzsche, 1999).

Despite this growing literature, focused comparison of Thai expressions referring to Jesus and their Chinese counterparts remains limited. Existing studies more commonly examine English–Thai Christian vocabulary, Chinese Christian terminology, or culture-specific words in literary texts. A Thai–Chinese comparison can reveal how two Asian-language contemporary versions mediate Christian terminology and how culturally established Chinese forms correspond to Thai honorific and descriptive expressions.

Accordingly, this study analyzes names, titles, and descriptions referring directly to Jesus in the four Gospels. It compares the TNCV and CCB

as parallel target texts and does not claim a historical source-to-relay relationship between the two versions. Indirect translation research emphasizes that a relay claim concerns translation genealogy and must be supported by evidence about mediating texts (Ringmar, 2007; Rosa et al., 2017; Washbourne, 2013). The direction “Thai–Chinese” in this article therefore describes the researchers’ comparative procedure, not the production history of the CCB.

Research Objectives

The objective was to explore how terms and expressions referring to Jesus correspond across the TNCV and CCB at lexical and verse levels by applying five translation-strategy categories as descriptive heuristics.

Research Scope

The study was delimited to the four canonical Gospels. The parallel target texts were the Thai New Contemporary Version (TNCV) and the Chinese Contemporary Bible (CCB), comprising 89 chapters: Matthew 28, Mark 16, Luke 24, and John 21. Names, titles, kinship expressions, role labels, and metaphorical designations directly referring to Jesus were included. General references to God, disciples, prophets, or other persons were excluded unless they formed part of an expression identifying Jesus.

The analytic unit was a distinct Thai–Chinese term pair, not every occurrence token. A candidate was retained when it (1) referred directly to Jesus; (2) functioned as a name, title, kinship expression, role designation, or salient theological metaphor; (3) occurred in corresponding verse or discourse contexts in both versions; and (4) was either recurrent or

theologically salient within the Gospels. Variant surface forms that realized the same relation were grouped, whereas forms that changed the identifying information or dominant translation operation were separated. These criteria produced 17 types. The sample is therefore purposive and exploratory. Percentages describe only the distribution of these 17 types and are neither inferential statistics nor occurrence frequencies.

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

Newmark's (1988) model distinguishes methods oriented toward the source text from those oriented toward the target reader and identifies procedures such as literal translation, transference, cultural equivalence, and explanatory adjustment. Nida and Taber (1969) and de Waard and Nida (1986) similarly emphasize that biblical meaning must be examined within linguistic and communicative context. Empirical studies have applied comparable categories to Christian vocabulary (Athitthanukun, 2018; Konthong, 2023), culture-specific translation (Baker, 2018), and the choice between phonetic and semantic translation in Chinese terminology (Zhu, 2020). The present study operationalized five categories observable in the bounded Thai–Chinese corpus: literal translation, free translation, addition, transference or transliteration, and cultural substitution.

Literal translation was coded when the Thai and Chinese forms preserved the principal semantic components and grammatical relation without substantial explication. Free translation was coded when the proposition or discourse function was retained through a noticeably restructured expression. Addition required an overt Chinese identifying or explanatory component absent from the paired Thai form in the selected

verse. Transference or transliteration was assigned when phonological continuity, rather than lexical meaning, motivated the conventional Chinese form. Cultural substitution was assigned when an established Chinese word supplied a culturally available conceptual entry point for the Thai religious expression. These definitions draw on Newmark (1988), Baker (2018), and studies of phonetic and semantic naming in Chinese translation (Zhu, 2020). The categories are heuristic rather than ontologically exclusive. Following descriptive translation studies, classification focuses on the function of the form in the observed target texts while retaining evidence about its history and context (Toury, 2012). Thus, a term may receive two descriptions at different analytic levels. 基督 is historically a phonographic formation associated with the transmission of “Christ,” but synchronically it functions as the conventional Chinese counterpart of พระคริสต์. 道 is an established Chinese Christian term in John 1 while simultaneously activating Chinese philosophical associations. The results report the dominant synchronic operation, and the interpretation records historical or cultural complexity separately.

The framework assumes that strategy choice is shaped by three interacting factors. First, linguistic form determines whether an expression can be compositionally mapped into Chinese. Second, theological function determines how much doctrinal precision or intertextual continuity is required. Third, target-cultural accessibility determines whether an established Chinese term, an explanatory element, or a phonological form will be comprehensible and acceptable. The observed Chinese rendering is the outcome of these interacting constraints.

Figure 1

Conceptual framework for the comparative analysis

Input	Analytic process	Output
Thai TNCV terms and Gospel context	Pair with CCB form; examine lexical meaning, textual context, and theological role	Strategy classification
Chinese CCB terms and Chinese–Thai dictionary evidence	Compare source–target semantic components and cultural associations	Interpretive explanation
17 distinct term pairs	Count items in five categories and calculate percentages	Distribution and implications

Research Methodology

1. Research Design

This research employed an exploratory qualitative documentary design with descriptive counts. Parallel-text comparison was conducted at two levels: (1) the lexical level, where corresponding Thai and Chinese forms were aligned, and (2) the verse or discourse level, where narrative role, speaker, addressee, and theological function were examined. Translation research commonly combines aligned textual data with contextual interpretation rather than treating isolated dictionary meanings as sufficient evidence (Baker, 2018; Toury, 2012). Counts were used only to summarize the bounded set of lexical types. No inferential claims, population estimates, or experimental claims about reader comprehension were made.

2. Sources of Data

Primary data were drawn from the TNCV and CCB. The four Gospels were selected because they contain a concentrated range of names and

titles referring to Jesus. A modern Chinese–Thai dictionary was used to check ordinary Chinese meanings, while historical and translation scholarship was used to avoid interpreting phonographic characters as if their individual dictionary meanings explained the Christian term (Eber et al., 1999; Zetzsche, 1999).

3. Research Instrument

The research instrument was a structured coding table developed by the researchers. Each record contained: (1) Gospel and verse; (2) Thai form; (3) Chinese form; (4) speaker and discourse context; (5) lexical-semantic relation; (6) theological or narrative function; (7) dominant strategy; (8) historical-formation note; and (9) justification and competing classification. Separating “dominant strategy” from “historical formation” was essential for contested items such as 基督. The table also required an explicit distinction between textual evidence and researcher interpretation.

4. Data Collection

Data collection proceeded in five stages. First, all 89 chapters were screened for Thai forms directly naming, titling, characterizing, or addressing Jesus. Second, each candidate was aligned with the corresponding CCB verse. Third, duplicate occurrences were consolidated only when form, referent, and dominant operation remained stable; changes in identifying information or strategy were retained separately. Fourth, each item was tested against the four inclusion criteria stated in the scope. Fifth, the coding table was completed through verse-level reading of both versions. The procedure yielded 17 distinct types. Because the dataset was not exhaustive at token level and no saturation claim was made, the study is explicitly presented as exploratory.

5. Data Analysis

Analysis first recorded observable textual facts: the aligned Thai and Chinese forms, added or omitted components, syntactic relation, and verse setting. The researchers then interpreted the likely translation operation and theological consequence. Where more than one label was plausible, the dominant synchronic function determined the reported category and the alternative was documented in the analytic note. Counts were calculated as $P = (f/n) \times 100$, where $n = 17$ lexical types. These percentages are descriptive labels for the sample and do not compensate for its small size. The principal evidence remains qualitative analysis of the aligned verse contexts.

The design does not establish a relay relationship. A relay or indirect translation claim would require historical evidence that one version was produced through a mediating translation (Ringmar, 2007; Rosa et al., 2017; Washbourne, 2013). Here, TNCV and CCB are treated as parallel modern translations. The design also does not establish how all Chinese readers interpret the terms, whether one strategy is universally superior, or how the same forms behave in other versions. Finally, the 17-type sample and single-research-team coding restrict generalizability and reliability; the study should be read as hypothesis-generating rather than conclusive.

Research Results

1. Overall Distribution of Translation Strategies

Textual observation showed 17 distinct Thai–Chinese correspondences meeting the inclusion criteria. Under the operational definitions, seven were coded as literal translation (41.18%), four as cultural substitution (23.53%), three as transference or transliteration (17.65%), two

as addition (11.76%), and one as free translation (5.88%). These are descriptive type counts. The interpretation that follows examines why a category was selected, which competing category was possible, and what each solution preserves or risks losing.

Table 2

Distribution of translation strategies (n = 17 term pairs)

Translation strategy	Number of terms	Percentage
Literal translation	7	41.18
Free translation	1	5.88
Addition	2	11.76
Transference / transliteration	3	17.65
Cultural substitution	4	23.53
Total	17	100.00

1.1 Literal Translation

Seven forms were categorized as literal translation at the synchronic correspondence level: 基督, 耶稣基督, 人子, 大卫的后裔, 儿子 or 子, 上帝的儿子, and 犹太人的王 or 犹太人之王. The observable fact is that the paired modern versions use conventional terms or constructions that preserve the identifying relation found in the verse. The interpretive claim is that these forms function as literal or conventional semantic counterparts in the selected corpus; this claim does not deny that some terms arose through earlier phonographic transmission.

The rendering 人子 is compositionally concise: 人 denotes “human/person” and 子 denotes “son.” In passages such as John 1:51 and Matthew 16:27, the expression functions not merely as a kinship phrase but

as a self-designation associated with human condition, authority, suffering, and eschatological glory. The Chinese form preserves the compact title and allows its theological meaning to accumulate through Gospel context rather than through added explanation.

The pair พระบุตรของพระเจ้า–上帝的儿子 similarly retains the relation between God and the Son. The Chinese possessive marker 的 explicitly links 上帝 and 儿子. This form is semantically transparent, yet its doctrinal interpretation cannot be reduced to biological kinship. The translation succeeds lexically because it preserves the relationship stated in the text; theological context is still necessary to prevent an overly physical interpretation.

大卫的后裔 renders the Thai “son/descendant of David” by making genealogical descent explicit through 后裔. The shift from the narrower everyday sense of “son” to “descendant” is compatible with the messianic claim that Jesus belongs to David’s lineage. It therefore preserves the intended referential relation more clearly than a mechanically literal kinship noun might do in Chinese. 犹太人的王 and 犹太人之王 likewise retain the royal title “King of the Jews,” using two conventional possessive constructions.

基督 requires a two-level classification. Historically, its Chinese formation belongs to the transmission history of the title “Christ” and cannot be explained by combining the ordinary meanings of 基 and 督. Chinese Bible history cautions against character-by-character theological etymologies for established phonographic religious terms (Eber et al., 1999; Zetzsche, 1999). Synchronically, however, 基督 is the conventional Chinese title paired with Thai พระคริสต์ in the selected verses; no new explanatory material is

added. It is therefore coded as a conventional literal equivalent for the present comparison, with “historical transliteration” recorded as a secondary descriptor. The limitation is that readers unfamiliar with Christian convention cannot recover the underlying sense “the anointed one” from 基督 alone.

1.2 Free Translation

The single free-translation item was 世人的救主 in John 4:42, corresponding to the Thai title “Savior of the world.” Textually, 世人 specifies the people of the world as beneficiaries, while 救主 profiles the saving Lord. The interpretation is that the Chinese construction foregrounds the universal human scope of salvation rather than reproducing the Thai structure mechanically. Its advantage is clarity; its limitation is that the Chinese expression places greater emphasis on human beneficiaries than the broader Thai expression “the world.”

The low proportion of free translation does not imply that communicative considerations are absent elsewhere. It indicates only that, among the 17 selected terms, few required a wholesale re-expression of the lexical pattern. Many other forms could use conventional Chinese equivalents or compositional constructions. Free translation becomes more necessary when a direct structure would sound unnatural or fail to express the intended scope.

1.3 Addition

Two items were categorized as addition: 拿撒勒人耶稣 (“Jesus the Nazarene/Jesus of Nazareth”) and 大卫的后裔耶稣 (“Jesus, descendant of David”). In these forms, the proper name 耶稣 is combined with a geographic or genealogical identifier. The added element makes reference more explicit

and activates a relevant narrative or theological association for the Chinese reader.

拿撒勒人耶稣 identifies Jesus through Nazareth. In contexts where the Thai passage presents the name or a shorter designation, the Chinese form provides an identifying phrase that distinguishes the referent and connects him with a known place. 大卫的后裔耶稣 similarly foregrounds Davidic descent. The addition does not merely lengthen the expression; it guides interpretation by specifying which aspect of Jesus' identity is salient in the immediate episode.

Addition is useful when the target text benefits from referential clarity, but it must remain controlled. An explanatory element can help readers understand a place, role, or scriptural allusion, yet it can also introduce an interpretive emphasis. The two cases in this corpus remain closely tied to information already supported by the Gospel narrative.

1.4 Transference or Transliteration

Three forms were classified as transference or transliteration: 耶稣 (Jesus), 弥赛亚 (Messiah), and 以马内利 (Immanuel). These terms primarily preserve the sound and identity of proper names or inherited religious words rather than translating their lexical content into ordinary Chinese. Once conventionalized, such forms operate as stable members of Chinese Christian vocabulary.

耶稣 is the standard Chinese name for Jesus and provides unambiguous personal reference throughout the Gospels. Its effectiveness depends on convention rather than on the independent meanings of the characters 耶 and 稣. Character-by-character semantic interpretation would therefore be misleading. 弥赛亚 similarly maintains the recognizable identity

of “Messiah”; in passages such as John 1:41, the text may also relate the term to 基督, enabling readers to connect the inherited name with an established title. 以马内利 preserves “Immanuel,” whose meaning—“God with us”—is supplied by scriptural context.

Transliteration protects historical and intertextual identity, particularly for proper names. Its principal limitation is opacity: readers cannot necessarily infer meaning from sound alone. The Gospel text, parallel title, footnote, or explanatory clause may therefore be necessary when the meaning of the name is relevant to the argument.

1.5 Cultural Substitution

Four items were classified as cultural substitution: 羔羊 (lamb), 道 (Word/Logos), 老师 (teacher/master), and 主 (Lord). Each employs an established Chinese word that is readily interpretable within Chinese linguistic culture while assuming a specialized Christian function in context. 羔羊 denotes a lamb and is used in the expression “Lamb of God.” In the Gospel context, the term evokes sacrifice, innocence, and salvation. Chinese readers can understand the animal image directly, but its full force depends on biblical sacrificial symbolism. The translation therefore links a familiar lexical image to a specifically Christian theological network.

道 is the most culturally layered example. The observable correspondence in John 1 is the Thai expression พระวาจา or its equivalent in the selected edition and the Chinese term 道. Historically and culturally, 道 carries associations of way, principle, order, and ultimate reality in Chinese traditions. The interpretation is that this established Chinese Bible term offers a conceptual entry point, but it is not a complete equivalence. The surrounding text attributes pre-existence, creation, relation to God, and

incarnation to 道. The strategy's advantage is conceptual resonance; its limitation is the possibility that readers import Daoist or classical meanings not licensed by the passage. The verse context, not the isolated character, must control interpretation.

老师 is an ordinary Chinese term for teacher. When disciples address Jesus in contexts where Thai uses a respectful teacher-title, 老师 makes the social relationship immediately accessible. It emphasizes instruction and discipleship without requiring a foreign religious label. 主, meaning lord, master, or sovereign, similarly draws on a familiar term of authority and possession. In Christian discourse it becomes a major title expressing reverence, divine authority, and allegiance.

Cultural substitution thus improves immediacy but carries interpretive risk. Familiar words may activate target-cultural associations that only partially overlap with the source concept. Successful use depends on repeated textual framing that progressively specifies the intended Christian meaning.

1.6 Summary of the Seventeen Terms

Table 3

Classification of the 17 Thai–Chinese term pairs

Thai referent or gloss	Chinese form	Dominant strategy
Christ	基督	Literal conventional equivalent
Jesus Christ	耶稣基督	Literal conventional equivalent
Son of Man	人子	Literal

Thai referent or gloss	Chinese form	Dominant strategy
Son/descendant of David	大卫的后裔	Literal
Son	儿子 / 子	Literal
Son of God	上帝的儿子	Literal
King of the Jews	犹太人的王 / 犹太人之王	Literal
Savior of the world	世人的救主	Free
Jesus of Nazareth	拿撒勒人耶稣	Addition
Jesus, Son of David	大卫的后裔耶稣	Addition
Jesus	耶稣	Transliteration
Messiah	弥赛亚	Transliteration
Immanuel	以马内利	Transliteration
Lamb	羔羊	Cultural substitution
Word	道	Cultural substitution
Teacher / Master	老师	Cultural substitution
Lord	主	Cultural substitution

Discussion of Results

The predominance of literal translation supports the view that sacred-text translation often prioritizes terminological stability and semantic traceability. Names and titles recur across passages and participate in doctrinal interpretation; consistent equivalents allow readers to recognize these links. Literal translation is particularly effective when Chinese can reproduce the relevant semantic relation through compact compounds or possessive constructions, as in 人子 and 上帝的儿子. The result is consistent with research showing frequent use of direct translation for religious or

culture-bound terms when a recognized equivalent is available (Athitthanukun, 2018; Konthong, 2023).

Nevertheless, the combined proportion of non-literal strategies was 58.82%. This finding demonstrates that formal correspondence alone cannot account for the corpus. Proper names require transliteration, culturally embedded concepts invite established Chinese vocabulary, and some contexts benefit from clarification or reformulation. Translation of religious terminology is therefore not a binary choice between fidelity and adaptation. It is a series of local decisions about which aspect of meaning—sound, reference, semantic composition, doctrinal relation, or reader accessibility—must be foregrounded.

Transliteration performs a crucial identity-preserving function. 耶稣, 弥赛亚, and 以马内利 connect the Chinese text to a translingual religious tradition. They resist domestication at the lexical level and signal that the referents belong to a particular historical-scriptural world. This observation accords with Zhu (2020) discussion of the complementary strengths of semantic and phonetic translation. A sound-based form is especially useful for proper names, but it often requires contextual support when the name itself bears a meaningful proposition.

The addition strategy illustrates explicitation. By combining 耶稣 with 拿撒勒人 or 大卫的后裔, the Chinese text identifies the referent and activates associations of locality or messianic lineage. Explicitation can reduce ambiguity and support readers who do not automatically connect a shorter name with its narrative significance. However, additions must be evaluated against the immediate verse and the broader textual tradition because added specificity can influence interpretation.

Cultural substitution reveals the deepest negotiation between textual fidelity and target-cultural meaning. 道 is an outstanding example because it is both economical and conceptually resonant. Its Chinese associations can make the Johannine opening intelligible in a culturally powerful way, but they can also encourage readings shaped by Daoist or classical philosophical discourse. The surrounding predicates—becoming flesh, dwelling among people, and manifesting grace and truth—are therefore essential in differentiating the Gospel’s use from other meanings of 道. Cultural accessibility is produced by the interaction of term and context, not by the isolated word alone.

The same principle applies to 老师, 主, and 羔羊. Each is understandable as ordinary Chinese, yet each acquires specialized force in the biblical discourse. 老师 marks a pedagogical relationship; 主 marks authority and devotion; 羔羊 links an ordinary animal image to sacrificial theology. These translations show that familiar target-language words can become technical religious vocabulary through repeated contextual use. Cultural substitution does not necessarily erase foreignness; rather, it creates a point of entry from which the text develops a new, specialized meaning.

The results also clarify the relationship between strategy and theology. A strategy does not by itself guarantee theological adequacy. Literal wording can still be misunderstood, transliteration can remain opaque, and cultural substitution can overactivate local associations. Adequacy arises from the term’s consistency, the verse-level context, intertextual relations, and readers’ background knowledge. Translators of sacred texts must therefore evaluate not only whether an equivalent is

linguistically acceptable but also how it participates in a larger system of titles and claims.

The findings partly support and partly refine Athitthanukun (2018). They support the claim that Christian terminology is shaped by established community convention: 基督 and 主 function effectively because they belong to a recognized Chinese Christian lexicon. The present study, however, shows that denominational comparison alone cannot explain terms such as 道, whose interpretive risk derives from wider Chinese conceptual history. In contrast with a purely equivalence-oriented account, the analysis therefore requires both ecclesial convention and target-cultural semantics.

The results agree with Konthong (2023) that accepted equivalents, literal translation, explanation, borrowing, and cultural approximation coexist in the translation of Christian vocabulary. The difference lies in direction and genre. Konthong examined English–Thai literary translation, where narrative mediation may permit broader paraphrase; the present Gospel comparison shows a stronger pressure toward terminological continuity. This difference helps explain why literal or conventional equivalents form the largest category here, although they do not constitute a majority of all 17 types.

The findings further demonstrate structural flexibility in Chinese Gospel translation. 大卫的后裔 and 世人的救主 show that Chinese may restructure grammatical relations to express lineage or the scope of salvation naturally. This flexibility also affects theological titles. Structural naturalness should nevertheless be evaluated against verse-level theological function because a clearer Chinese construction may place emphasis on one aspect

of a broader Thai expression; 世人, for example, foregrounds human beneficiaries within the meaning of “the world.”

The results also support Zhu (2020) regarding the complementary roles of phonetic and semantic translation. 耶稣, 弥赛亚, and 以马内利 preserve historical identity through sound, whereas 人子 and 上帝的儿子 make semantic relations visible. The present findings qualify any simple preference for one approach: transliteration is effective for stable proper names but opaque without explanation, while semantic translation is accessible but may activate unintended local associations. The contrast between 弥赛亚 and 道 illustrates why the choice must be term- and context-specific.

One methodological implication is that historical origin and synchronic function should be distinguished. 基督, for example, has a transliterational history, whereas the present comparison treats it as the conventional equivalent of พระคริสต์. Conversely, 耶稣 is clearly classified as transliteration because its primary function is to preserve a proper name through sound. Future studies could use a multi-layer coding scheme that records both historical formation and present translation function, thereby avoiding the pressure to reduce complex terms to one label.

A second implication concerns the unit of analysis. The present percentages are based on 17 distinct term pairs, not on all occurrences. Consequently, 41.18% means that seven of the selected lexical pairs were literal translations; it does not mean that 41.18% of every reference to Jesus in the four Gospels was translated literally. Token-level corpus analysis may produce a different distribution, especially because frequent items such as

耶穌 recur many times. Reporting the unit explicitly improves the interpretability and reproducibility of translation-strategy research.

The study is limited to one Thai version and one Chinese version, both contemporary translations. It does not compare denominational traditions, earlier Chinese Bible versions, regional Chinese varieties, or reader reception. Classification was interpretive and was not tested through inter-coder agreement. The findings should thus be read as a structured description of the selected corpus rather than a universal model of Thai–Chinese Bible translation. These limitations also point directly to productive extensions of the research.

Recommendations

The findings support four context-specific recommendations. First, use a stable conventional equivalent when a title recurs intertextually and the Chinese Christian form is established. Thus, 基督 should remain consistent for พระคริสต์, but glossaries or notes should explain “the anointed one” because the Chinese form does not disclose that meaning. Second, use transliteration for proper names whose historical identity is primary, as with 耶穌, 弥赛亚, and 以马内利; when the name’s meaning is exegetically relevant, pair it with an in-text explanation or note rather than replacing the name.

Third, use controlled addition only when the verse or immediate discourse licenses the identifying information. 拿撒勒人耶穌 is appropriate when geographic identification matters, and 大卫的后裔耶穌 is appropriate when Davidic lineage is foregrounded. Additions should not import a title absent from both the verse and its discourse context. Fourth, retain

culturally resonant forms such as 道, 主, 老师, and 羔羊 when they are established and contextually productive, but assess the risk of over-association. For 道 in John 1, surrounding predicates and explanatory notes should anchor the term in creation, incarnation, grace, and truth rather than leaving it to an unrestricted Daoist reading.

Future research should build a verse-aligned corpus containing multiple Thai and Chinese Bible versions. Researchers should record both type and token frequencies, examine variation across discourse contexts, and publish inclusion and coding rules. This design would test whether the present 17-type pattern remains stable when every occurrence and multiple translation traditions are included.

Reader-response research should compare terms with identifiable trade-offs. For example, comprehension and association tasks could test 基督 with and without an explanatory gloss, 弥赛亚 alongside 基督, and 道 against a more explicitly verbal rendering. Participants should be stratified by familiarity with Christianity and Chinese classical thought. Such a design would directly test the opacity and over-association risks identified in this study rather than assuming accessibility from textual form alone.

Finally, future studies should employ at least two coders, retain competing labels, and report an agreement coefficient before resolving disagreements. A two-layer code distinguishing historical formation from synchronic textual function should be mandatory for terms such as 基督 and 道. Historical claims about relay translation should be made only when paratexts, translators' statements, archives, or textual evidence identify a mediating version, in line with indirect-translation research (Ringmar, 2007; Rosa et al., 2017; Washbourne, 2013).

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