EDUIN ZEHNER:

CHURCH GROWTH

AND CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE

LEADERSHIP:

THREE EXAMPLES FROM

THE THAI CHURCH

CHURCH GROWTH AND CULTURALLY APPROPRIATE LEADERS HIP: THREE EXAMPLES FROM THE THAT CHURCH

by

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See A REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE, inside.

A REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE

This paper is meant to be complete in itself, but it is also a stepping stone in an ongoing learning experience that should lead to the completion of my Ph.D. dissertation in late 1988. Much of the data and analysis reported hern is likely to reappear in that report.

Therefore, I request your assistance in correcting and/
or amplifying data, and in sugresting improvements and
pointing out weak points in the analysis. Any and all
contributions will be greatly appreciated, even if they
are not directly incorporated or responded to.

Responses from Thai church leaders and from missionaries would be especially appreciated. Even a mere correction of a date, name, or figure could be useful in the future.

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CULTURALLY A PROPRIATE LEADERSHIP AND CHURCH GROWTH: THREE EXAMPLES FROM THE THAI CHURCH

INTRODUCTION

"the [three-self] criteria of 'self-governing, self-supporting, and self-propagating' are not necessarily diagnostic of an indigenous movement." (1979:32) Not only do churches develop indigeneity independent of formal programs, but the three-self concept itself is a projection "of our American value systems into the idealization of the church, (in) that they are in their very nature Western concepts based upon Western ideas of individualism and power." (1979:35) When the church does become truly indigenous, suggests Smalley, "often missionaries do not like the product." (1979:36)

Recent church history includes many examples of strong growing Christian movements that have structured their leadership patterns along indigenous lines. Prime examples include Pentecostal churches in Latin America. (Vaughn 1984: and Johnson 209-260; Wagner 1973; Read and Monternoseo, 1969), and churches in Korea (cf. Cho 1979:145) and Singapore (Hinton 1985), all of whom have developed systems guided by authoritative leaders which mirror the patterns used in secular society. Other examples include the various Independent Churches

in Africa, whose charismatic leaders operate a somewhat different system uniquely appropriate to the peoples of that continent (Ray 1976:193-217; Turner 1967; Barrett 1968). By contrast, the fast-growing Methodist and Baptist sects on the early American frontier seemed to have leadership structures more in line with the egalitarian demogratic ideals of their socio=cultural context (Sweet ???).

It could be suggested, in fact, that culturally appropriate leadership patterns such as these should be expected in roost instances where the church is growing, whether the patterns* development is planned or merely fortuitous.

While a particular leadership pattern in itself cannot generate growth, effective leaders in any culture can be expected to operate within the expectations which the members of that society hold for the behavior of their leaders. Otherwise they would not be able to gather and retain followers. Thus, culturally appropriate leadership patterns should be a necessary (but probably not sufficient) condition for sustained church growth in any society.

This paper contains case studies of three individuals who had a special impact on the history of the Thai church. One was an American missionary, while the other two are Thai. One is widely honored as one of the forefathers of the Thai church, while the other two remain surrouned by controversy. All three started new movements, attracted foreign attention and assistance, and, most important, were effective in drawing around themselves a core of loyal people committed to

them and their work. In these studies we will note how the leadership styles rf each fit the cultural expectations of his day, and how that fit contributed to his effectiveness.

hundred years of cultural change in a modernizing society.

To lay the groundwork, then, we look first to the anthropological literature for general patterns of leader-client relations in Thai society. Then for each leader we will note his more specific cultural context, outline his accomplishments, and analyze the leadership patterns that made him effective in that context. In the summary we will note some other organizations that seem to be building similar factors into their work in Thailand. The leader-oriented structures that we will see emerging have great potential for building periods of growth, but we will 800 that they can generate their own conflicts as well.

The three leaders studied include:

(1) Dr. Daniel McGilvary

Dr. McGilvary opened the first station of the Laos (North Thailand) Mission of the American Presbyterians in Chiengmai in April 1867. At his death in 1911, the Lao Presbytery numbered nearly 5000 members, or more than 80% of all the Protestants in Siam. Here we examine the period of the Presbytery's most rapid growth (measured by percen-

tage increase of total baptized members over previous year), extending from 1877 to 1895.

(2) Rev. Boonmark Gittisarn

Boonmark began as an evangelist, then became Pastor of the Second Presbyterian Church in Bangkok, and an officer of the Church of Christ in Thailand from its formal establishment in 1934 until his resignation in 1948. He then founded a new local congregation, astarted a loose association of "free" Thai churches, and swill later helped spearhead the introduction of Pentecostal teaching into mainline Thai churches. Still later he attempted to bring his independent association into the United Pentecostal ("Jesus Only")

Church, and became a UPC leader for a time before disappearing from the Thai leadership scene in his final days. Here we are interested in Boonmark's activities until the early 1960s, when he became involved with the UPC.

(3) Rev. Dr.

pr. founded the Hope of Bangkok Church in 1981 as a base from which to develop a new nationwide indigenous church-planting force. Thailand Bible Seminary opened on church premises in 1985, and the first daughter church was planted that same year. By October 1987 schurches claimed a nationwide membership approaching 3500. The combined average attendance of the congregations

totaled over 1500, including some 1000 in Bangkok alone. Hope of Bangkok, the flagship church, became the largest single Protestant congregation in Thailand in just its first five years.

The leader-centric structures that each of these three men operated in the periods studied fit Thai cultural norms for leadership, and have great potential for channeling spurts of growth in any particular leader's organization. As we will see later, such leadership patterns may also have limitations when it comes to institutionalizing personal charisma in enduring organizations, and it seems that effective leaders in such systems tend to generate some of the fiercest opposition among their closest peers. Nevertheless, the cultural expectations that made these men effective should not be ignored, and Christian leaders in Thailand who learn from their example should benefit thereby.

CLIENTELE STRUCTURES IN THAI SOCIETY

Lucien M. Hanks (1968) has pictured Thai social strucas a series of unintegrated chains linked together at their
head. An individual in society, say, a peasant farmer in his
village, tends to be oriented less towards egalitarian
relations with other farmers than towards hierarchical
relations with his social unequals. As a result, cobpera-

tive action by Villagers in, say, improving local irrigation, is most easily accomplished by the intervention of mutual superiors. Chains of these hierarchical personal relations extend throughout society. Each link in the chain is a dyadic relationship between a patron and his client. Chains tend not to Gooperate with each other except as a result of relations between the patrons at the tops of the chains.

Hanks chain metaphor is one way of describing the patron-client systems patterning personal relations in Thai society. Such systems, common in moderniaing peasant societies (Wolf 1966a; 1966b), are described in the sociological literature as comprising

a network of hierarchically linked face-to-face dyadic relationships between people who are unequal in status, wealth, and influence. These relationships are solidified in large part through continuing flows downward of material and other benefits, in return for deference and services. (Devo 1978?69)

It is the exchange of goods, services, and favors on a personalized basis that keeps the system running, although nothing in the exchange is explicitly formalized. A patron may provide his client jobs, connections with government officials, access to special personal opporunities, gifts, and the marks of status that allow the inferior to strengthen his position with his own followers. All is provided on the basis of friendship, as a demonstration of the superior's personal magnanimity. The inferior may respond with his own gifts and favors, but he is rarely able to fully repay his patron's generosity.

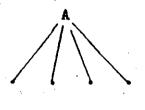
Akin Rabibhadana noted how these exchanges of personal

favors cemented the patron-client bonds among nakleng (informal powerbrokers) in a Bangkok slum (1975a). At the beginning of Akin's study, two major clientele groups dominated the slum's power structure. Each leader held his followers to himself with an ongoing stream of favors they could not repay, thereby building a moral debt of bunkhun (a trait of meritorious magnanimity possessed by the giver) which receivers felt morally bound to repay by fidelity, loyal support, and other sacrifices. In Akin's slum, each leader avoided accepting favors from the other, to avoid developing the inferior's sense of moral obligation to the other. In fact, it was the acceptance of auch a favor that (temporarily) united the two groups under a single leader, when his superior contacts outside the slum enabled him to provide a service not otherwise available to his courterpart. The leader performing the favor thereby gained a superior relationship to what had been an opposing clique, by coopting its leader as a subordinate (See Figure I.).

The one-to-one patron-client dyads underlying such systems are marked by a fundamental impermanence. Hanks and Phillips note (1960:642) that the personal links constantly change and require "continuous validation" through the patron's responsiveness to his inferfors' needs. The superior helps cement the relationship with downward flows of material and other services, while the inferior preserves

FIGURE I

EXPANDING CLIENTELE BY CO-OBTING A LEADER
(hased on Akin 1975a)



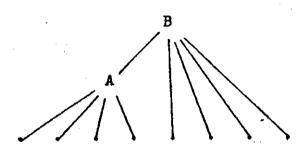


B performs a

favor that A

cannot repay





access to his benefactor through deference, personal services without charge (or at reduced charge) to the patron and other members of his entourage, and a responsiveness to the superior's wishes that Hanks and Phillips term "obedient service." (Hanks and Phillips 1960:654; Deyo 1978:69)

In a 1983 study in Central New York (van Esterik and Zehner 1983) it was found that Lao refugees there had established new clientele systems to manage adjustment to the host community. Yet as the fieldworkers mapped out the exchanges of goods and services which flowed along these clientele networks, we noticed that the participants themselves rarely if ever thought in terms of quid pro quo exchanges among themselves. When I naively asked a dominant regional patron what if anything he received in return from those he helped, he said he received nothing. He was al-

ways the generous giver, he said. Most members of his clique shared th?t perception, eagerly seeking his advice, and material assistance. On the other hand, a once subordia.te leader beginning to distance himself accused this patron of favoritism towards friends and relatives, and refused to participate in a community-wide project being organized by friends of the major patron.

Thus, although the assumptions along which relationships were structured were not explicitly voiced, yet they guided the way in which one one related to various friends, with each manipulating the system to maximize personal advantage. For example, we saw patrons attempting to create a public

image of equal accessibility to all potential clients, while privately favoring only the most loyal and dependable. Clients, for their part, often sought to maximize independence by approaching several different patrons for services, even while maintaining a primary relationship with a single patron.

While all of these relationships are negotiated individually, the links function collectively as the basis of group action. Hanks (1975) suggests analyzing the resulting action structures as "entourages" and "circles." The entourage he describes as "the face-to-face group of a man and his clients." It is based on the prowess of the leader at its center, and survives only as long as he can continue providing advantage for his clients. Because the entourage is based on personal relationships, the weakening of the patron's personal position in society brings a regrouping of the entourage members around other leaders (1975:200-201), although entourages reinforced by factors such as kinship or a leader's personal charisma can sometimes survive extended periods of material adversity (see, for example, Hanks and Phillips 1960:642).

The circle, suggests Hanks, consists of the central entourage plus the personal entourages and contacts of each of its subordinate members. This circle constitutes the total group of people who would respond to a command or request from the center. To illustrate the potential responsiveness of these loosely-structured circles, when the

former Supreme Commander of the Armed Forces recently returned unannounced from an overseas visit, hundreds were on hand to greet him at the airport with signs, gifts, and other expressions of support, even though many of them had never met the General personally. Their availability on such short notice illustrates the efficiency with which the entourage-and-circle system can mobilize resources by means of clients calling on clients, who call on the ir own clients.

A number of scholars have suggested that clientele systems even shape the informal functioning of complex bureaucracies such as the national government administration. Organizational control is exercised through networks of personal affiliation cemented through gifts and service, with allocations of downward-flowing benefits subject to the control of patrons at various levels. The effect is that the individuals with greatest influence on a unit's work

may not necessarily, the ones immediately superior to it on formal organizational charts (cf. Deyo 1978:69; Hanks 1975; Neher and Biahya 1984). Deyo found clientel1st concepts shaping the growth of organizational structures in large buninesses, as well. Large-scale business firms with Thai management tended to grow "by a process of structural fission, by which units or firms grown too large divide into two or more new segments, each comprising a boss and his personal followers." (1974:117) Hanks might refer to these newly

marked by the same exchanges of generosity and personalized flexibility in exchange for deference and shows of respect as are found in informal entourages. While acknowledging the authority of his superior and desiring his praise, attention, and moral support, the subordinate nevertheless prefers to avoid restructurings that would weaken his. relational.position between management and workgroup (Klausner 1983:226).

Needless to say, an entourage has difficulty cooperating with other entourages of equivalent status and influence. Since services and work relationships normally flow along hierarchical lines, it can be difficult for those at the same level to initiate joint action. The reason: "It is difficult for an equal to give anything of value to an equal po to command his 'respect.' Indeed, he stands as a potential competitor for favors." (Hanks and Phillips 1960:642) Therefore, the most effective way to gain cooperation of an individual at or. above One's own social or organizational position is to work upwards through your own patron's contacts to a level at which negotiation can be made to your own advantage, with the effects flowing back downwards through the other's patrons or superiors. Should the other be inferior to you, on the other hand, you may save time ard trouble by discreetly including the individual in your own network of friends. 3

The above sketch outlines the social context of our three case studies. Let us look briefly at their **place in**Thei church history as well.

GROWTH POINTS IN THAI CHURCH HISTORY

Some 160 years of Protestant missionary work in Thailand has produced only some 100,000 (at most) church members scattered among more than 50 church groups, organizations, denominations, and fellowsnips. They still represent less than two tenths of one percent of the population. With a sizable portion (at least 20%) of the Protestant community drawn from hilltribes, Chinese, and foreigners (cf. Smith 1982), missionaries are still said to have failed to penetrate the Theravada Buddhism of the majority ethnic Thai. Thus, Thai church history might be expected to have few highlights, yet there are a number of key growth points to be found.

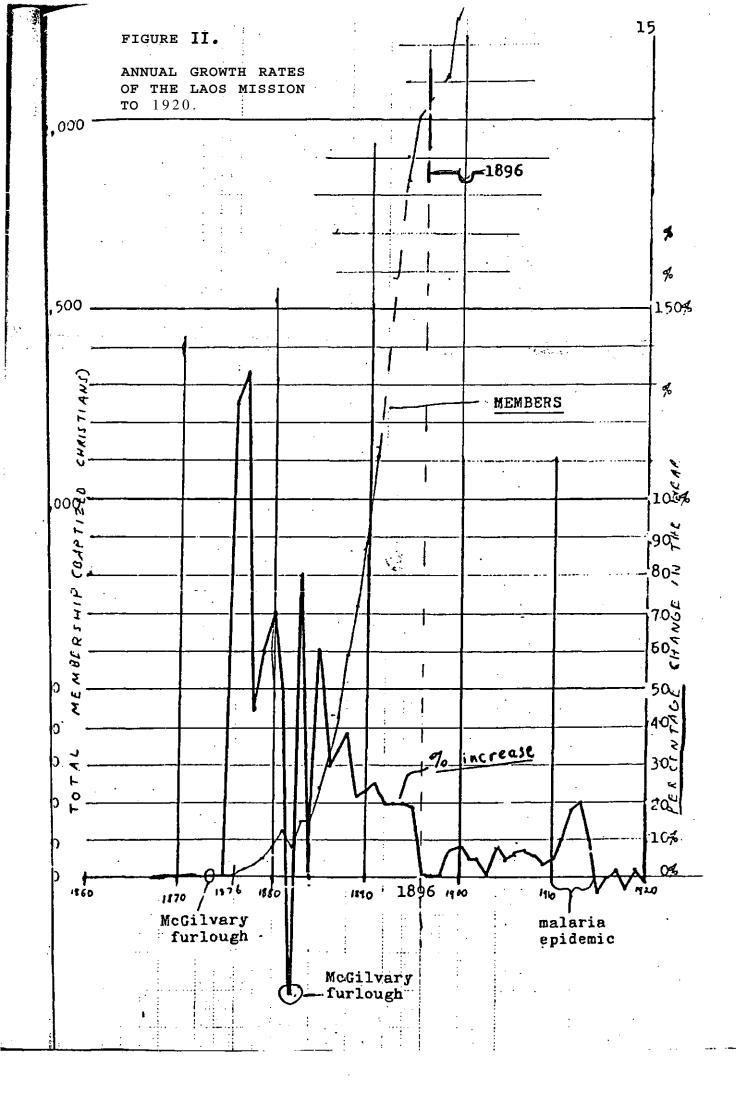
Protestant missionaries have been in Thailand since 1828, but the first decades saw few lasting conversions.

In 1870, after a collective 42 years of work, the Protestant churches could boast only 115 baptized members between them—35 in Presbyterian churches in Bangkok, Petchburi, and Chiengmai, and 70 in a Chinese church started by the Baptists in Bangkok (Smith 1982: 45,52). Over the next 47 years the Presbyterians grew to some 8000 members nationwide, with 84% coming from work in Northern Thailand led by Dr. Daniel McGilvary (Smith 1982:92).

The North Carolina born and bred McGilvary, with a Doctor of Divinity degree from Princeton Theological Seminary, arrived in Thailand in 1858 at the age of 30. He married Dan Beach Bradley's daughter in 1860, 4 and the next year opened a new mission station among Lao (Northern Thai) who had migrated south to Petchburi. In 1864 he took a brief survey trip to Chiengmai, and in 1867 opened the first station of the Laos Mission of the Presbyterian Church in that city.

In just over two years McGilvary and his colleague Jonathan Wilson had baptized seven converts, and sensed openness among many more contacts, including some members in the court of the Prince. Chiengmai Prince Kawilorot brought things to a halt in 1869, however, when he executed two of the new Christians for allegedly failing-to respond to a corvee work summons in time. The action isolated the missionaries to the point that they found it difficult to even hire mission employees for some time.

and 11 more in each of the next two years. From 1876 to 1895, with the exception of just two years (in one of which McGilvary was on furlough) baptized membership increased by 20% or more each year. Seven of those years saw increases of 40% or more. This growth occured despite a scattering of converts in groups sometimes several days journey from each other, and a small missionary force which never had



even as many as ten missionaries on the field until the late 1880s. When it is considered that transfer growth was completely impossible on this pioneer field, McGilvary's accomplishment was truly remarkable. Not until recent decades have similar growth rates been achieved in Thailand, and those who have achieved them in recent years have often been able to develop local leaders who had been converted and trained by others.

McGilvary is the subject of our first case study.

In 1896, as the fast-growing foreign staff reached 34, church growth in the North suddenly slowed. For the next 14 years, growth ranged between 1% and 8% in each year.

(See Figure II) A malaria epidemic beginning in 1911 boosted growth for four years (raising membership from 4000 to nearly 7000), but the Northern church then settled into

a period of negative real growth. The **church** nationwide was doing little better. Although the newly united national **Presbytery had** 8000 members in 1920, it grew to **only** 9000[†] on **the** eve of the Second World War (Smith 1982:148). During the same period the population of **Thailand** would have grown by nearly 50%. The one bright spot leading up to the War was a series of evangelistic Crusades featuring Chinese **evangelist**. John Sung, which **Church** of Christ **in Thailand** (CCT) General Secretary Boonmark **Kittisarn organized** over the opposition -of the mission. **Sung's** crusades and their

aftermath produced a 15% jump in CCT membership in just two years (Prasith 1984:84).

After the disruptions of World War Two, including heavy pressures on Christians in rural areas and in government service to become Buddhists, CCT membership was estimated at around 8000 in 1945 (Smith 1982:213,217). It jumped to 11,756 members in 1947, and 13,422 in 1950, when growth slowed again. The CCT increased to roughly 18,000 members in 1960, 22,000 in 1970, and 30,000 in 1978 (Smith 1982: 219,228). CCT officials estimate total membership at 33,000 as of 1986. (See Figure III.)

A significant aspect of the CCT'S post-war growth spurt was that much of the underlying activity was organized and conducted by the Thai leaders themselves, not by the returning missionaries. A key organizer in these post-war revivals was the same Rev. Boonmark who had arranged John Sung's pre-war crusades. At the end of World War Two, Boonmark organized evangelistic crusades in 50 churches in the North, at which some 2000 converts are reported to (Smit1982: 213-218) have responded. Increasing friction with the returned missionaries led to Boonmark's resignation in 1948 from his position as CCT General Secretary and from the pastorate of the Second Presbyterian Church in Bangkok. He immediately b gan a new independent congregation, and continued arranging evangelistic meetings both inside and outside the CCT. In the late 1950s he pulled some of his personal connections

churches crossing denominational lines that had some of the marks of an embryo Thai-style denomination. In this same period, he became a channel for the first major movement of Pentecostal teaching into established Thai churches. Although in the early 1960s he lost many of his Thai supporters when joining with missimaries of the United Pentecostal Church (whose practice of rebaptizing in the name of Jesus Only offended many), he is nevertheless reported to have built a Thai UPC of nearly 1000 member: before decline set in around 1967 (Smith 1984:252,254).

Boonmark is the subject of our second case study.

The trickle of new mission organizations entering

Thailand became a flood after World War Two. While some

of these missions joined their work with the CCT, most

remained independent. By 1978 roughly half of the 59,000

Protestants in Thailand were in non-CCT churches (see

Figure III). Two striking features of this new stream

of growth, especially in the last decade or two, the

significance of increased independent Thai church planting,

and the growing prominence of the Pentecostals.

In a 1985 survey (Pairoj 1985), 43\$ of the 81 Bangkok churches responding said they had been started because of the vision or burden of an individual or group. Another 15% had been started by a Thai or Chinese mother church.

Only 28% said they had been started by missionaries (Pairoj 1985:5-8). The survey showed further that over 50% of the Bangkok churches responding had been started since 1975.

Survey researchers noted privately that the majority of

these mostly **small** new churches had probably been **started** by Thai.

were Pentecostal, with the other three serorting in 1985 were Pentecostal, with the other three sering numbered among Thailand's oldest congregations. All four were started within the past two decades, and they feature some of Thailand's most dynamic Christian leaders. The Chai Samarn Church, flagship congregation of the Full Gospel Fellowship Churches of Thailand, of grew under Pastor Nirut Chankorn's leadership from 35 members in 1972 to 160 in 1973, 500 in 1978, and 780 in 1982 (Smith 1982:252). Official baptized members totaled 1200 by October , with an average of, 800 attending Sunday services. Many of the 35 churches in the Full Gospel Fellowship Foundation had been started by Chai Samarn personnel, or developed with their assistance.

Wirachai Kowae's Rom Yen church is the largest congregation of the Christian Fellowship of Thailand, associated with the American Assemblies of God (AOG). In the mid-1970s, the AOG had just 50 members nationwide in six churches. But by 1982, Wirachai's Ekkamai church in Bangkok

had already grown to 240 members (Smith 1982:252). The church moved to Larger quarters on Soi Rom Yen that same year (taking the name Rom Yen Church), and started its own home missions Organization. Official membership of the Rom Yen Church in October 1987 was roughly 500, with average Sunday attendance of over 300. Rom Yen's mission organization claimed 12 daughter churches, part of a total of 41 (how he come associated with AOG's work.

In 1979, Rev. Wan Petchsongkhram, a Baptist evangelist, lapastor, and former Baptist Seminary President, gathered a group of Thai leaders around himself to found an independent, self-funded Pentecostal movement. His new Rom Klao Church had over 100 attending Sunday services within the first two months, and became the first large Pentecostal church in Bangkok without a formal relationship with a foreign mission. Rom Klao has grown in eight years to claim an official membership of 1000. It is unofficially reported to average 350-400 in Sunday services, and to have roughly half a dozen daughter churches in the provinces.

The newest of the large independent Pentecostal churches,

Rev. Dr.

S Hope of Bangkok Church,

is at once the largest, fastest-growing, and most controversial Protestant church in Thailand. Starting with just

17 individuals attending its initial service in September

1981, Hope of Bangkok grew to an unofficial average of

roughly 1000 in Sunday services, and an official membership

of 2500 by October 1987. Both figures were the largest in the nation for a single congregation. Nine daughter churches in the provinces accounted for nearly 1000 additional members, and two of them were said to be the largest congregations in their respective regions. Church leadership announced a goal of 20 additional congregations for 1988, as they worked toward an overall objective of 685 churches (one for each district in Thailand) by the year 2000.

Though widely accused of "stealing" its members from other growth churches, a different underlying/dynamic is revealed in (1985:19,52)

Pairoj's reurvey of Bangkok churches./With a starting aver: g attendance of only 280, Hope of Bangkok accounted for some 45% of all the conversions in the city in 1984 (it claimed 1500 encuirers), to grow by some 50%. Hope of Bangkok has its members organized and motivated for argressive evangelism, follow-up, and tenching with an intensity that is not quite matched anywhere else, and it seems to be, getting results.

is the **subject** of our third case study.

Gittisarn, and for special attpntion. As we analyze the work and leadership patterns of each, we will first noie the key developments in Thai society for that period, then the achievements of that particular leader, and how his leadership patterns fit the socio-cultural expectations of his day to enables effective work.

MCGILVARY - THE EXEMPLARY PATRON Socio-Cultural Context

McGilvary worked during a. time of great changes in Northern Thailand's social and political structure. In 1867, when he moved to Chiengmai, the local prince had nearly absolute authority within his own domains, although he had to pay a triennial tribute in person to the Siamese King in Bangkok (cf. McGilvary 1912:56). Patron-client responsibilities in those days were one-on-one relationships registered and enforced by law. It was through the patronclient system that armies were raised, public works constructed, and government rowenues collected. Each local patron was duty-bound to respond to the manpower needs of his superior, while acting as the local authority and protector of his clients. Each individual was required to be registered as the client of a specific patron, and his registration could be changed only with permission from superior authorities.

By time of McGilvary's death in. 1911, however, the North had been thoroughly integrated into the modernizing Siamese bureaucratic polity. The Chiengmai princes no longer ruled, not even in name. The corvee system of mobilizing labor for government construction projects had been abolished, removing one of the last legal props from the traditional clientele system. The traditional subsistence economy was becoming monetized, and an increasing range of

commodity taxes which were levied in Bangkok and collected by Bangkok-appointed tax-farmers served to make the traditional patron intermediaries relatively impotent to assist their clients (Tanabe 1984:93ff).

There were changes in the religious and cultural realms as well. The local monastic systems would have begun to be integrated and subordinated to the monastic networks centering on Bangkok. In 1910 the Sangha Act of 1902 would be a plied in Northern Thailand, fully integrating the region's monastic practice into the uniform national system (Tambiah 1976:238-241). New secular schools began competing with the monasteries as educational centers, and Siamese (central Thai) began replacing Northern Thai as the language of government and education.

These changes must have seemed very sudden. In 1867, McGilvary could still describe the Chiengmai prince Kawilorot as "virtually sovereign monarch within his own dominions" (McGilvary 1912:56), and in 1869 the prince had felt
strong enough to pressure the missionaries despite a Siamese
Royal Commissioner's urging of tolerance (McGilvary 1912:
118-129). But in 1874 a new Royal Commissioner accompanied
by a troop detachment took up permanent residence at the
Chiengmai court, and soon the Commissioner was raised further in rank and began taking increased administrative
responsibilities awny from local officials (Tanabe 1984:92).
In 1906 the Provincial Reorganization Act was applied to

Northern Thailand, effedtively standardizing loca.l administration on the central Thai model and ensuring greater responsiveness to directives from Bangkok (Tambiah 1976:240).

Through the 1870s and 1880s, Bangkok levied taxes on an increasing number of commodities, and the central administration farmed out collection rights to the highest bidder, usually Chinese. By the 1890s social and economic dislocations in the North were sufficient to produce local disturbances such as the Phaya Phap rebellion just northeast of Chiengmai city in 1889-90 (Tanabe 1984:93ff). Clearly, the old local powers were weakening as the new power to the south made itself increasingly felt in some very untraditional ways.

since McGilvary had come from the south and had personal connections based in Bangkok, he and the Presbyterian missionaries were uniquely positioned to benefit from the changing power structure in the North. He already spoke central Thai (Siamese), and to many Lao he represented ah opportunity to learn this increasingly important language. He also represented the vanguard of a new system of secular science and education, independent of the monasteries and respected by the Central Thai leadership. Although the first mission school would not open until 1979, and aimed imitially at educated the children of Christians (swanson 1984:37-38; McGilvary 1912:177-178), yet from the begin ing of the mission McGilvary leavened discussions of religion with Western geography, astronomy, and medicine, and his accurate prediction of a solar eclipse appears to have been

the key event leading to his first convert (McGilvary 1912: 96-99).

More important, although McGilvary had come to Chiengmai with the permission of the local prince, ${f it}$ soon became clear that in times of difficulty he could call on more powerful patrons to the south. By 1870 Bangkok was fully aware **of** the dangers that foreign powers **pos::d** to its independence. She had just lost her Cambodian vassal to the French. Burma had lost the rest of her coastline to the British, and the Vietnamese Empire had French troops occupying key points on her territory. Siamese attempts to enforce her traditional vassal arrangements over southern Malay princes had already run afoul of the very different British concepts of territorial political organization, and now foreign logging interests based in British Burma were making contacts both with Bangkok and directly with Chiengmai to obtain logging concessions in the North. Bangkok would have been anxious to avoid any pretexts for foreign interference in Chiengmai or elsewhere, by demonstrating that its rule truly extended to the North, and by providing effective protection to foreign enterprises there. Thus, when missionaries complained in 1869 that the local Prince had "murdared" two Christians, a Royal Commissioner soon appeared in Chiengmai to investigate.

When the **first** permanent Royal Commissioner arrived in Chiengmai five years later, McGilvary appears to have main-

tained close personal contact. In 1878, when a dispute arose with a Lac patron over a client accused of witchcraft whom he had earlier placed under McGilvary* s protection, McGilvary said he was willing to have the case tried only before the Commissioner. McGilvary was sure to lose before a Lao court, he thought (due to the nature of the case), but sure to win before the Commissioner. The Lao patron did not press the case (McGilvary 1912:205-206). Also in 1878, a dispute arose over plans for the first Christian wedding, when a family patriarch demarded payment of the traditional spirit fee before he would allow the marriage to be declared legal. Anticipating that the local princes might side with a protest from this man, McGilvary had attempted to use his Siamese connections from the beginning, but the Commissioner said he had not been given authority to interfere in affairs at the local level. When the prince in Chiengmai held against the marriage. saying that nobody but the King himself could overturn his! decision, McGilvary appealed with the Commissioner's encouragement. The Commissioner himself was already planning from Bungkok.

to request increased local authority. Not only did he end courage McGilvary to appeal, but he advised on its wording, and made an official report of his own favoring McGilvary.

Thus, when the US Consul formally presented McGilvary's appeal in Bangkok, he was informed that the King had already decided in the missionaries' favor. The enlarged powers

granted the Northern Commissioner that year included the authority to procleim religious toleration in all the Northern territories (McGilvary 1912:207-217). It would be years before such an edict could be effectively enforced, and later Commissioners did not always favor the missionaries (Swanson 1984:29). Yet incidents such as these made it clear that the missionaries had access to a patron superior to any other in the North, and more powerful than any. Lao prince. Therefore, although Lao Christians remained under their formal obligations to Lao patrone, they had in McGilvary a new informal patron of potentially superior influence, and possessing the resummes to give them some limited protections.

McGilvary had still further resources to enhance his local status. Though lacking formal medical training, his supply of medicines," texts, and knowledge of Yaccination techniques quickly gained him a reputation for his ability to cure widespread local diseases such as malaria. The addition of certified doctors to the missionary force in the midlerous further enhanced his reputation. In addition, he displayed his financial resources in the construction of a large mission compound, complete with such novelties as a medical clinic and an organ for church services. He possessed the resources to employ increasing numbers of locals, and had ample access to still-rare Siamese language literature (much of it Christian) which he made available

to his regular visitors.

In short, McGilvary had established himself as a new patron in Chiengmai, capable of competing with the local-patrons on at least equal terms. It is quite possible, suggests Swanson, that the Chiengmai prince's opposition to the missionaries in the early days stemmed from political motives as much as it did from religious dnes (1984: 12ff). The convert seemed to act as if he had a new master, and his, hesitant response to certain commands (e.g. work on Sundays) made his loyalty suspect. The Prince may not have exagerrated when he told McGilvary that he considered the Christians to have been in revolt, for on an issue such as Sunday labor the foreigner's word seemed to carry as much weight as his cwa. In the terms of the traditional polity this could be considered a sign of where one's allegience truly lay. Thus, as McGilvary drew a growing circle of

friends and **follwers** around himself, traditional patrons would have become understandably concerned about the strength of the new extra-legal ties being developed between the missionary and his clients.

Growth of the Work

In any event, McGilvary faced down the errly opposition and isolation, took a furlough on which he recruited a doctor and more funds, established himself securely in a relationship with the new Commissioner in Chienemai, and began developing preaching contacts outside the city.

His work began to grow.

Newcomer Dr. Cheeks had begun a hospital in 1875 which doubled as a center for teaching literacy in Siamese (central Thai), and in 1876 some of the patients began becoming Christians. That year nine individuals joined the four surviving church members (Swanson 1984:25). The next year official membership rose from 9 to 21. By 1880, some Thai converts returning to their homes in the country were drawing around themselves the cores of three new churches several days apart in Chiengmai and Lampang provinces, and the core of a fourth in Tak. That year a few relatively untrained Thai leaders, working almost completely independently, won 43 new members from January to September (when the yearly membership count was normally recorded), and 30 more between September and the following January, thus nearly tripling the church's membership in a single year (Smith 1982:73). By 1881, the church of four baptized Christians had grown to 123 in four provinces, with four organized churches.

Overall growth paused in 1881-82, as McGilvzry went on furlougn, the founder of the Lampang Church was jailed, and contact with the embryo church in Tak seems to h ve been lost. But on McGilvary's return, strong growth resumed.

Although no new churches were formally established until 1888, yet local Thai leaders (and sometimes interested ncn-Christians) were building a number of rural chapels.

At least three of these were dedicated in 1885 alone (Swanson 1984:35-36). Growth was steady throughout the period.

Smith reports that there were recorded accessions to membership in every month from October 1884 to at least 1891 (1982:93), by which time total membership exceeded 1,000 throughout the North.

The remarkable thing about this growth was that it was fueled by local Thais, with the missionaries rarely present on the spot. More missionaries had joined the base in Chiengmai, but Swanson shows that the force in action remained essentially the one man McGilvary:

The situation in late 1885 was typical of the period: of the twelve missionaries on the field, two had withdrawn to engage in private business, two left the field because of illness, and two more were too ill to work. Of the remaining six, the four women were engaged in educational or translation work. Only McGilvary and Dr. S.C. Peoples, newly arrived, were both healthy and able to work with the churches, but Peoples s >ent nearly all of his time supervising mission construction Cat a new station in Lampang. That left McGilvary. (1984:34)

The highly mobile McGilvary kept busy, traveling throughout the north to administer baptisms, dedicate chapels, and survey potential church sites, and he appears to have had a remarkably attractive personal touch. Yet he incressingly counted on Thai personnel to do even this work. Nan Ta, for example, spent two weeks instructing Karen converts in Long Koom around 1885 (Swanson 1984:35), and was sent to conduct his own survey of church planting possibilities in the Chiengrai area in 1886 (Swanson 1886:37). Nevertheless, McGilvary himself refused to slow down. Kenneth Wells (1958:69)

reports that the 58 year old pioneer made his third extended tour of outlying districts in 1886, and made annual trips thereafter almost until his death in 1911.

As the missionary froce grew from 12 in 1888 to 33 in 1895, the newcomers copied McGilvary's pattern, taking tours of their own into the countryside. Other mission projects surouted as well. Mission schools were established in Lamphun in 1888, and in Lampang in 1690. New mission stations were opened in most of the provinces, giving them resident missionaries for the first time. William Clifton Dodd opened a leadership training school in 1889 that began producing what many considered solid candidates for pastoral ordination.

By 1895, there were roughly 2000 baptized Christians in 14 formally constituted churches scattered over five provinces. The mission boasted 33 missionaries, 11 ordained Thai pastors and evangelists, schools, clinics, Sonday schools, a printing press, and more. For the first time, McGilvary's evangelistic and teaching tours were being backed up by a resident missionary force established in most of the provincial centers, and by a new force of young missionaries eager to travel. No longer was the mission a one-man show. At last it would seem that the mission had all the ingredients needed for redoubled and sustained success.

Paradoxically, growth in the 1890s slowed dramatically.

The 20-25% annual growth of the first half of the decade, while still strong, was nevertheless a drop from the vigorous rates of previous years. Membership growth stopped almost completely in 1896-98, before resuming at still slower rates averaging around 5.5% per year. This might still seem a respectable rate of growth, since it doubled fieldwide membership by 1910. Perhaps it was simply unrealistic to expect the exciting growth rates of the early years to continue.

Perhaps. Yet the social forces underlying the earlier receptivity to Christianity had, if anything, intensified. The disintegration of the local traditional po:er structure had continued, economic conditions of the average farmer and low-level leader were not improving. The mission's position and resources for playing the role of patron had increased, and they were in a position to provide an even wider range of personal services in a greater number of locations. Furthermore, the mission had formally organized the Lao Presbytery in the mid-1880s, and on paper at least, there were more trained Thai-Lao lenders in positions of formal authority in 1895 than ever before. Clearly, the mission's failures came just when it seemed to be poised on the threshold of success. When we look past the marks of organizational growth, however, we can see that in that very success were the roots of failure. From the Thai Christian leader's point of view, something strange was happening to the friendly face of the mission.

Leadership Style

McGilvary had played the patron role well. He had combined the exalted statuses of teacher, healer, exemplary patron, and religious man all rolled into one. He did not hesitate to consult his own "patrons" in the form of the Bangkok authorities and to use the threat of such contact to gain advantage in a crisis. More important, he had a keen sense of obligations and empathy toward his clients. Due to their status and resources, most missionaries in this period would have been perceived as potential patrons by Thai, but few seem to have played the role as well as Mc~/Gilvary.

Thai converts seem to have been able to establish direct person-to-person ties with McGilvary. His home was constantly open to visitors, who might even stay overnight. He responded to-requests to visit converts' villages, especially when his "clients" faced personal crises. He attempted to help converts solve problems, even to the point of bringing hes personal contacts to bear to protect clients from pressures brought by their formal leaders, as in the 1878 cases of the wedding and the man accused of witchcraft noted above.

Furthermore, McGilvary brought converts directly into the work of the inner core of the mission, effectively making them pert of his personal entourage. In 1876, Nan Inta was ordained the first Thai ruling elder of the Chiengmai church,

even though on the eve of its expansion the church still had only five members. That summer McGilvary took him along on an extended evangelistic tour of four provinces. According to McGilvary, Nan Inta often led the way in witness, in discussions of religion, and even in the debunking of local spirit legends (1912:170-179), although it was usually McGilvary's white face and supply of quinine that attracted the initial interest. Three years later in.1879, Nan Ta, a former protege of the late Prince Kawilorot, appeared on McGilvary's doorstep, claiming to have fled the persecution nine gears earlier after studying Christianity as a monk. McGilvary accepted his account of conversion, employed him as a teacher, and soon began placing him in positions of responsibility as well.

The converts appear to have had McCilvary's full support in developing new groups of converts into churches under their own leadership. The Bethlehem Church southeast of Chiengmai began through Nan Inta's efforts in his own and nearby villages. Most of the initial 17 adult members there came from two extended families. John Wilson baptized ten adults and eight children there in May 1880, and the newly established congregation naturally elected Nan Inta as elder two months later.

In Lampang, Chao Phya Sihanot had been gathering a group of his own converts for two years, while maintaining close contacts with McGilvary. At Sihanot's request,

McGilvary visited Lampang in October 1889, baptized five adults, and established a new church with Sihanot as elder. Since one of the Lampang princes had already threatened a potential convert, McGilvary tried to strengthen Sihanot's position by reading the 1878 Edict of Toleration to the Prince (Smith 1982:73; Swanson 1984:31). Not that it seems to have helped, as Sihanot himself was jailed a year later on charges of indebtedness that the Christians read as a cover for religious opposition (Swanson 1984:31).

In Mae Dok Daeng, it was Nan Suwan who laid the foundation for a church that had 16 adult members the day after its establishment on 25 December 1880, with Wilson officiating (Swanson 1984:32-33). Nan Suwan himself was no longer in the area, having been resettled in the forced repopulation of Chieng Saen city. The new Chiang Saen governor was a friend of McGilvary, and had asked for a doctor to help fight the epidemics that usually struck new settlements. No missionaries were available, so McGilvary supplied Nan Suwan with some quinine "which gave him the name of doctor," (McGilvary 1912:203) and the man gained not only respect, but also a second group of converts which. McGilvary formally organized as the Chiang Saen church in 1888.

In sum, McGilvary made himself available for consultation and assistance, acted in such a way **as** to preserve and even enhance the status of those Thai leaders who worked with **him**, and seems to have preferred working through local

leaders to working around them. He showed loyalty towards his clients through such actions as personal efforts in 1883 to gain Chao Phya Sihanot's release from a Lampang prison (Swanson 1984:35). McGilvary's respect for the natural competence of the Thai leaders caused him to operate the . structures of church power in such a way as to enhance the local leadership's position and gain them respect. In effect, Mc ilvary had created a Thai-style system of en:ourage and circle (Hanks 1975). The entourage was composed of McGilvary, the handful of missionaries, and the most influential converts. His circle extended that entour = == through the groups of converts that the more influential Thai leaders had collected around themselves. New church leaders in this period were selected by election and ordained by missionaries, of course, but since the founders of local groups were always the ones elected to leadership, the form of selection, though foreign, appears to h ve made little difference in practice. The church structure, while theoretically following American organizational patterns, yet retained the face-to-face personal quality expected in Thai patterns of clienteleship.

This personal quality began to disappear, however, as the missimary force grew. The expanded core of missionaries in effect interposed itself between the local.

That leaders and their patron McGilvary. In effect, the new foreigners displaced That from his innermost entourage,

although not even McGilvary would have read the situation in those terms. Furthermore, because of the relatively egalitarian democratic processes by which the mission conducted its day-to-day business, McGilvary no longer dominated sufficiently to produce the policy exceptions and modifications that a traditional patron would have produced at will in his organization. As a consequence, the mission that was once almost an extension of McGilvary's personality, now to the Thai point of view must have seemed to suffer from an identity crisis, with the resulting mission policies being an unpredictable synthesis of the Views of McGilvary, Collins, Irwin, Taylor, and others. The policies themselves seemed subject to capricious changes as different individuals' views gained dominance, and it became increasingly clear that McGilvary himself either would not or could not call the chots any longer when he disagreed with a policy in his own mission.

All of this became obvious in a cluster of internal disputes that came to a head in 1895. Issues included the future and purpose of Thai leadership training, the source and amount of pay for Thai pestors and evangelists, and the degree to which all the Thai churches should undertake their own financial self-support. The issues seem to have been perceived as either/or oppositions by much of the mission, but McGilvary's instincts made him ride the fence. He personally visited churches to urge increased financial support

of their own postors, while opposing overly sharp cuts in the mission s own pay to Thai ministers. He supported moves to increase the number of ordained Thai ministers, and desired continued training efforts along the same lines (Swanson 1984:95-97; McGilvary 1912:377-381). Had the mission been run on the Thai pattern, McGilvary's prestige as founder and senior member could well have caused his views to prevail, but in an American mission his voice was but one among many. Thus, the mission **slashed** funding in one year to try to enforce Thai church self-support, and abandoned the self-support idea altogether the next year. Similarly, it ordained a record number of Thai pastors one year, and abandoned the entire pastoral training program the next year. While many missionaries would later claim ${\color{blue} \mathbf{t}} {\color{blue} \mathbf{t}}$ the moves for self-support and a Thai pastorate had been proved failures, the sudden shift in policy seems more likely to be due to the return of influential missionaries <code>Dodd</code> and Collins from furlough (Swanson 1984:96). The two were known to prefer a slower approach to advancing Thai leaders, and Swanson's reading of the missionaries' correspondance suggests that the two dominated the meetings at. which policies were reversed (1984:98).

As for the Thai leaders, who seem to have been left out of the policy discussions altogether, they had become numerous enough in the presbytery meeting of 1895 to pass a resolution over the negative votes of the missionaries calling for increased salaries for all the Thai pastors while removing from the churches the responsibility to pay

any of them. While some of the churches were already willing to pay their own pastors, they all objected to being forced by the mission to do so (Swanson 1984:95-98). Since the presbytery clearly had no power to force the mission to pay the newly legislated salaries, the resolution appears to have been a protest against the barriers that had been unwittingly erected to exclude the Thai from the center of mission power even as they were being given increased responsibilities at its peripheries.

For their own part, the missionaries were probably unaware of any changes in their methods. They were merely developing a church and mission organization on the pattern that seemed to them to be natural and logical. Their churches at home had always been organized this way, and by all appearances the Thai church had been organized in the same way from its beginning. The effect of organizational growth on the American pattern, however, was to depersonalize the missionary-local leader relationships that McGilvary had developed, removing thereby the personal traditional channels by which Thai leaders had gained access to the center of mission power and resources. Rules were no longer being set by the familiar leader. Instead they were being produced by some mysterious process amongst all these strange new foreigners who had come to help him. And in 1895 tound that even the united voice of all the Thai churches : was not enough to produce the old kind of responsiveness.

new missionaries do not seem to have shared McGilvary's high opinion of the Thai leaders' abilities. For example, William H. Dodd, who started the theological training school in 1889, did not expect to be able to turn his Thai students into pastors. Working from Dodd's correspondence, Swanson notes:

The purpose of the Training School as defined by Dodd was to train evangelistic assistants for the mission-aries. Dodd felt that it would take a long time before the school could train enough evangelists to meet the needs of the mission. He also believed that it would be even longer before the mission could trust those evangelists on their own without mission supervision. He did admit that the students could make good evangelists as long as they remained under missionary supervision (1984:82).

In effect, Dodd planned to train Thai leaders, then put them in the sort of work that would both keep them from exercising initiative, and keep them from developing any potential clientele bases. Without realizing it, he had declared a major shift in mission policy and structure.

Dodd had been in Thailand not quite four years when he made his assessment of the potential of Thai leaders. McGilvary, by contrast, had originally built his work with relatively unsupervised local leaders. When McGilvary had first proposed a leader program back in 1884, he says clearly that he intended it to produce at least semi-independent Thai ministers. According to McGilvary, the

"far too formidable and too foreign apparatus," and "with rules and regulations better suited to American conditions

31010 in too like of the school, they stay so a

than to those of the Lao churches" (1912:259-260)./ Ignoring / McGilvary's precedent, or possibly learning the wrong lessons from it, Dodd managed to run his new training school for four years without producing any graduates whom he considered qualified for ordination. Even from furlough in the USA, he advised the mission against ordaining any Thai, even though a number of his graduates had already proven themselves, in McGilvary's opinion, in evangelism and church work (1912:377-378). Robert Irwin, who headed the school in Dodd's absence, thought his students so competent that he put the, second year class to work teaching the first year class (Swanson 1984:82). 14 Like McGilvary, he was pleased with the school's graduates, and in 1893-4 the Presbytery ordained eight new ministers, "at least five of whom," suggests Swanson, "proved to be from good to outstanding " (1984:101). But when Dodd returned from furlough, his views deminated future policy on Thai leaders. His faction produced the sudden policy shifts in the 1895 Presbytery meetings, his training school ceased to function in 1896, and there were no more ordinations for many years. The opinion that "experience has **shown** that there are no Lao men as yet competent to be made pastors" (quoted in Swanson 1984:99) soon dominated the mission. Even the Lao Presbytery ceased

to function in any meaningful way until revived with reduced missionary participation and a lesser role in 1908, and the establishment of mission stations in every province was already effectively elbowing aside the Thai leadership from their traditional position between the mission chief and the local congregation.

Thus, as the mission expanded, missionaries displaced local Thai leaders from their place in the patron's entourage, demoted their place in the local congregation, and increasingly ignored their personal needs and interests as leaders to an extent that McGilvary would never have done. Although both Swanson and Smith have blamed the mission's preoccupation with hospitals and schools for producing a weak church (Swanson says the missionaries should have been doing more "pastoral" work, while Smith wants them doing more pioneer church planting), it could well be, the missionaries' preoccupation with institutional work was what made it possible for the Lao church to continue growing at all, by keeping the missionaries too busy to interfere even more with the local Thai leadership structures along which

Socio-Cultural Context

Like McGilvary, Boonmark ministered in a time of great changes. By 1920 Northern Thailand had been sufficiently integrated with the Center for the Presbyterian Mission to unite the Thai Presbyteries of the two regions. In 1932 a coup organized by palace officials ended the absolute monarchy and ushered in a series of governments in parliamentary form usually backed and sometimes controlled by military factions. A new Thai nationalism was developed in the early twentieth century partly through the efforts of the monarch of the Sixth Reign, King Vajiravudh. It included Buddhism as an element of the new national identity, with the three institutions slogan of Chāt, Sātsanā, Phramahā-

kasat (Nation, Religion, King). Nationalistic pressures on the foreigners and Christians increased in the decade lending up to World War Two, and reached a peak under the Japanese occupation. The Japanese seem to have suspected Christians of being Fifth Columnists for the Americans, and the pressures on Christians to recant sometimes became quite physical.

Bangkok grew in **importance** as a commercial and administrative center throughout this period, and more and more of its **canals** were turned **into** roads. Western influences on Thai culture were increased through the expanding secular

education system, translated Western literature, a shift in the government bureacracy from a personal-formal basi3 of government towards a more functional-legal basis, and even through the developing of a Western-style Thai nationalism. There was even a period in which it was required by law to wear Western clothing in Bangkok.

The nation's development continued after World War Two, and it is in the period of the 1950s that the series of community studies began on which the traditional scholarly picture of Thai rural society is based, and from which I draw for my description of Thai clienteleship structures. While legally-enforced patron-client obligations no longer existed, the informal clientele systems were still so strong at all/evels of government and society that Western social scientists were using the clienteleship model to explain such diverse matters as government corruption, the ability of bureaucracies with haphazard record-keeping systems to efficiently accomplish their ends, the formation and regrouping of coup groups and business conglomerates, and the sometimes dizzying changes in scope, function, and name of government Ministries on the flimsiest administrative justifications (Hanks 1968, 1975; Skinner 1958; "anks and Phillips 1960; Riggs 1967). The 1950s seem to have been the period in which Hanks* "entourage and circle" concept was most appropriate to the analysis of Thai social structure. In a society where/personal relations were usually more important than ideological dogma, we should not be surprised to find effective church leaders for whom the same was true.

The Man and His Work

(NOTE: Background for much of the following information, especially for the late 1940s and the 1950s, comes from an interview with Rev. Charan Ratanabutr and his wife, Phirun, on October 1987. Phirun is one of Rev. Boonmark's daughters. Rev. Charan. is Chairman of the Evangelical Fellowship of Thailand (EFT), and pastor of the independent Bangkok Church, which Boonmark founded. He and his wife also work in the administration of the Gittikoon Wittaya School, founded by Boonmark's wife. I remain responsible, of course, for any errors in the analysis.)

Boonmark Gittisarn was born in a Buddhist family and converted to Christianityat the age of 17 while a student at the Presbyterians' Bangkok Christian College.

He. Joined the ministry, becoming active as an evangelist, pastor, and Presbytery leader. In 1934, at the age of 37, he became the first Assistant General Secretary of the newly formed Church of Christ..in Thailand (CCT), becoming the organization's first Thai General Secretary four years later. Not only did he hold the most influential administrative position in the Thai church, but by the start of World War Two he was also pastor of the Second Church in Bangkok, which today remains the largest Thai-language congregation in the CCT. 17

In 1934 the Thai church sppears not to have been anxious to declare its independence from the mission. The CCT's official history notes a letter to the mission from Rev. Pluang

Suthikham, who would soon be the CCT's first Moderator, noting widespread fears of the consequences of the expected end of the mission's aid to the church. Rev. Pluang also noted that because of the Thai sense of obligation to 9how faithful respect towards benevolent individuals of superior status (phumī phrakhum), the leaders of an independent church could be corceived by their own people as ungrateful traitors to the mission (Prasith 1984:70).

The mission went ahead in **setting** up the formally independent CCT in 1934, but the missionaries continued to dominate the fledgeling organization. Missionaries pointed out proper meeting procedures throughout the first (1934) and second (1937) national assemblies, they continued to be the trainers in most aspects of the work, and it was the mission that drafted the church's first Five Year Plan for adoption in 1937 (Prasith 1984:82). Although the mission noted that it had exercised no influence over the official resolutions of the first national assembly, the CCT's official historian points out that the other forms of influence were considerable. The very format of the assembly meetings had been set by the missionaries, and the CCT was supported and bound by agreements with and aid from the American church which sent the missionaries. Furthermore, traditional Thai attitudes of deference and respect caused thee to bend to the advice and expectations of superiors, thereby giving the missionaries great influence without their needing to

draft resolutions or cast votes (Prasith 1984:79).

Within a year of taking over as General Secretary, $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Boonmark} \end{tabular} brought this atmosphere of peaceful deferential \\ \begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{cooperation} \end{tabular} with the mission to a sudden end.$

Three straight years of declining membership at the foundation of the CCT shrank the church from 9,421 members in 1934 to 8,408 in 1937. This sparked no little concern among mission and church leaders. In response, the Five Year Plan for church growth was put into action in 1938 with the first of two major revival campaigns, at both of which Chinese evangelist John Sung was apparently the main speaker. Dr. Sung, whose revivals were already making an impact in Chinese churches throughout Southeast Asia, first came to Thailand at the personal invitation of the Maitrichit Chinese Church in Bangkok. His twice-daily meetings in the monthlong Crusade are reported to have drawn crowds peaking at

800-1500 by the end (Prasith 1984:83; Smith 1982:195; Blanford 1975:34).

Towards the end of that same year some Thai leaders and missionaries favorable to Dr. Sung's theology and style of evangelism sought to invite him for a second series of meetings, this time under CCT sponsorship. They were strongly opposed by a group within the mission who considered Dr. Sung a threat to church unity. They saw him as abrasive and divisive in approach, disagreed with the way he used Scripture to support his fundamentalist revivalist views, and

emotional preaching, pressure for conversions, anointing with oil for healing, and loud praying (Prasith 1984:83).

Moreover, there was disagreement with Sung over points of doctrine, almost certainly including a pressure on CCT members who had been baptized as infants to make a new adult decision to be "born again." The mission claimed that Sung caused "confusion" among the Christians with his teachings (Prasith 1984:83). Dr. Sung's critics within the mission appear to have spoken louder than his friends, and Prssith notes that their influence and arguments were what produced the CCT Executive Board's refusal to sanction Dr. Sung's return (1984:83,87).

There was only one dissenting vote on the Board -- that of General Secretary Boonmark Gittisarn. In another day, that might have been the end of the debate, but Boonmark was not one to run away from controversy, and he had a few tools at his command. With them he took on the mission on his own terms and won a victory of sorts.

As General Secretary (Lekhāthikān), Boonmark held the chief administrative power in the CCT, and he used it. Ignoring the Executive Board's decision, he invited Dr. Sung to preach in his own Second Church in 1939. The meetings again drew large crowds, converts, and attention, together with growing support for Boonmark's faction within the CCT. Boonmark later got the Executive Board's decision

overturned (Prasith appears to say that this was a retroactive move legalizing Boonmark's actions, but is not clear on the timing), and he cent.letters to District and church leaders in the provinces opening the way for Dr. Sung to

preach there as well (Prasith 1984:83):

Boonmark) continued to gain strength as church leaders were impressed by the influx of converts and the new motivation of lay members for evangelism that, according to the official historian, caused nationwide membership to grow 15% in just two years (from 8,413 in 1938 to 9,712 in 1940) (Prasith 1984:84). Dr. Sung tended to follow up his crusades with the organization of lay witness bands independent of formal denominational structures. In Thailand these bands carried their own flag and emphasized their independence with the name "Free Volunteer Evangelists' Bands" (Kong asa prakat isara) (Prasith 1984:85). Critics said they caused laymen to overlook the importance of the church, a point that made little difference to Boonmark, since all the converts went into the CCT and increased his base of support.

The Crusades were followed up further with series' of lay seminars, including a 12-day Bible Training session in Bangkok along the lines taught by Sung. Impressed by the success of this session, the Thai leaders sought to establish their own Bible Trai, ing School independent of the mission's Thailand Theological Seminary in Chiengmai, for the latter had been perceived throughout aft a center of

opposition to Dr. Sung's work in Thailand. The initial proposal of nor hern Thai leaders allied to Boonmark to open a new school in the same building as the TTS seemed harmless enough, although the proposal of pro-Sung missionary Loren S. Hanna as the new : echool's director made the purpose clear. When at the urging of TTS's Director the Mission turned down the request to start such a school, the same group of leaders, newly armed with the CCT's official sanctioning of Sung's crusades, followed up with a formal request for the removal of Rev. N. O. Elder (sp?) from the Directorship of the Seminary, on the grounds that he had consistently opposed the various initiatives associated with Dr. Sung. They finally won a victory of sorts when their candidate for Pastor of the First Church in Chiengmai won election over a graduate of the Thailand Theological Seminary whom Rev. Elder actively supported. Complaining that the whole course of events threstened to make his Seminary superfluous, Elder had threatened to close it down entirely if his candidate lost the vote for Pastor. He followed through on his word at the end of 1940, resigning together with the two principal Thai instructors. They were not replaced until the Seminary reopened in 1949 (Prasith 1984: 85 - 87).

In just over two years, then, Boonmark had greatly strengthened the CCT's Thai leadership vis-a-vis the mission's leaders. From a group whose executives had been

uncertain of their own relevance to the church, 20 and who had docilely followed the leading of the Mission, Boonmark had used Dr. Sung's visits to mold an informal group of leaders within the church who could marshal popular support, organize for evangelism and teaching, and even muscle an opposing missionary out of his position of influence.

While they failed to gain a new Bible School under their own direction, 21 they had gained support of pastors in the key churches, and gathered sufficient strength by the third National Christian Council meeting of 1940 to reverse the Executive Board's 1938 decision to bar Dr. Sung from the Thai churches (Prasith 1984:87). More important, the experience had molded together a group of leaders who would help Boonmark hold the church together through World War Two. 23

The Japanese occupation beginning December 1941 brought the removal of the missionaries together with all forms of assistance, financial and otherwise, from overseas. The CCT itself, though having a registered Foundation, still lacked proper government registration for its church offices, and it suffered periods of church closings, brief imprisonments of pastors, and other forms of government pressure on its members. Short on funds, and never having been given effective control of related mission institutions such as hospitals and schools,

the Church was unable to pursue regular programming other than the visitation of churches to encourage the members to remain steadfast in their **faith**, being led by Rev. Boonmark **Kittisarn**, the General-Secretary, and others who were eager to pursue this work. For the most part they were the same ones who had favored the ways of Dr. Sung. (Prasith 1984:92-93, my translation)

In 1943 Boonmark gained the first official government documentation ever recognizing the CCT as a religious body, with offices at the Second Church in Bangkok, where he pastored. That same year he convened the fourth National Assembly of the CCT, also at the Second Church. Towards the end of the war he stirred churches across the nation to mobilize volunteer bands for evangelism, and with the end of Japanese occupation in 1945 the ongoing series of Thailed revival meetings he had been organizing began producing solid growth once again. Despite the years of Japanese oppression, the CCT grew from its pre-war membership of 9,712 to a new high of 11,756 by 1947 (Smith 1982:213,217). (See Figure III, p. 17)

Returning missionaries were not entirely pleased with what Boonmark had done, however. Matters such as the installation of a new immersion-style baptistry in the Second Church during the war brought renewed accusations from missionaries that Boonmark was "destroying" the teachings of the church. Though elected to a fourth straight term as General Secretary to start in 1947, friction with the mission continued to mount. The CCT's historian suggests that much of the problem stemmed from dashed expectations that the re-

turned missionaries would grant the Thai a free hand to continue running the church as they had during the War. The conflicts touched on potential splits between progressive and fundamentalist missionaries within the Presbyterian mission as well, with the former perceived as still aligned against Boonmark, who was expressing his frustration in a Beries of letters, tracts, and articles. In "What Modernism Has Done to Presbyterian Missions in Siam," for example, he accused the returning missionaries of having destroyed the unity that the Thai church had experienced under his leadership during the war. The Presbyterians should withdraw all their modernist . (liberal) missionaries, he said and replace them with fundamentalists to do pioneer church planting work. "If you do not do as I Say," he continues, "your people here will Have to fight with us, and we will struggle to the last shred of strength, to lead all the churches out from under your empire. These churches are not yours. . . they are ours . . " (retranslated from quotation in Prasith 1984:117)

Boonmark had won his fight before the war, but this time he lost. In the face of increasing pressure from leaders of the mission, he resigned in 1948 from the CCT's Board, resigned his pastorate of the Second Church, and began an independent congregation of his own associated with the fundamentalist International Council of Christian Churches (ICC)²⁴ (Prasith 1984:117). A number of other leaders left

the CCT at the same time, including Prasok Chaiyarat (who had served as CCT's Moderator during the War, and would later found the Tiensang Church in Bangkok, which became a member of CCT once again), and Suk Pongsnoi, who in 1970 would become the first Chairman of the Evangelical Fellowship of Thailand (EFT) (Charan 1987).

thai krungthep) first met at the Thailand Bible Society, then at his wife's Gittikhun Wittaya School, eventually growing to a membership of some 200. Yet he continued to concentrate more on the national level. He remained active in evangelistic and colportage work, maintaining his personal contacts with leaders both within and outside the CCT. Through those contacts he continued to create channels for Thai and foreign evangelists to preach in local churches.

In the late 1950s he began pulling those contacts together in a flurry of new activity. Sometime in this period he established the Sahaphan Kritsachak Thai, an ambiguously named organization that could equally well mean "Thai Rederation of Churches" or "Association of Free (Independent) Churches." Charan says it was supposed to mean the latter. A number of churches who joined Boonmark's Sahaphan added the word "thai" (meaning "fr.ee") to their names for a time.

There Was an almost intentional ambiguity in the way

Boonmark built his <u>Sahaphan</u>. According to Charan, the churches

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churches remained in the CCT, at least in theory, as did

CMA churches remain in the CMA. Charan's own Bangkok Church

has never officially dropped the word "thai" from its name-
although it has been allowed to fall into disuse, it can be

mentioned from time to time as convenient. The phenomenon

of churches simultaneously declaring themselves both inde
pendents and denominational members, though confusing to

American minds, makes perfect sense to a rising local leader

thinking in clientelist terms. Even in the mid-1980s I have

come across cases of strong denominational pastors and

local churches who for all intents and purposes have made

themselves independent, while continuing to cite their

denominational ties from time to time. Furthermore, the Sahaphan itself had such an unstructured beginning that Charan, who for a time held the position of General Secretary, seems unable to specify a founding date. All he knows is that when he returned in 1959 from five years of study in the United States, the Sahaphan already existed, and Boonmark made him General Secretary. Not that Charan had much to do in this presumably administrative position, since Boonmark used his personal influence and contacts to do much of the organizational work himself. All we can establish for certain, then, is that in 1959 the Sahaphan had a name, an office, an official staff of at least one, and regular membership meetings conducted by Boonmark. We

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can also be certain that the growth of the <u>Sahaphan</u> to this point would have had little if any negative effect on the membership statistics of existing denominations, because the churches and leaders clustering around Boonmark were not yet severing their old ties.

Also during this period, Pentecostal evangelist T.L. ?6

Osborne began holding meetings in Bangkok. Smith (1982: 252) suggests these meetings occured in the early 1960s, but Charan and Phirun remember it as the late 1950s. Shaffer (1974:32) dates Osborne's first Bangkok Crusade in 1956, and Charan reports that the events associated with Osborne and the Pentecostals had begun before his own return from studies in the USA in 1959. Whatever the date, Phirun remembers that Osborne, who was used to drawing large Crowds, wanted to use the rogal parade grounds (Sanām Luang) in central Bangkok for a Crusade. When permission was not granted, Boonmark invited Osborne to conduct a seven-day series of meetings in his own church. He also assisted in the arranging

of meetings in some of the provinces.

Beginning in 1962 (Shaffer-1974:46); American Don Price joined the Pentecostal work in Thailand. He worked closely both with Osborne and with Finnish Pentecostals such as Verna Raassina, whose preaching had challenged him to leave an assistant pastorate in the US to become 8 missionary. Shaffer (1974:45,47) credits Price with starting the Pentecostal Thai Gospel Press, and Phirun credits him both with

starting the Bible School in **Muu** Baan **Sethakit** (still associated with Finnish Pentecostal work), and with planting a number of churches. He also provided the funds **for** the

present building of Boonmark's Bangkok Church. Osborne was forced to leave Thailand, Boonmark continued to work and travel with Price (Phirun 1987), and Smith (1982:252) reports that on one of these trips Boonmark sparked a major reaction by speaking in tongues. It seems. unlikely that this event would have occured so late, however, for Charan reports that the rising Pentecostal impact on established churches was already becoming an issue in 1959, especially among churches associated with **Boonmark.** Although Pentecostal missionaries had already been in Thailand for just over a decade, says Charan, they had done strictly pioneer church-planting up to the late 1950s, and there had been no movement of Pentecostal teaching across denominational lines. But in the late 1950s the Pentecostal/charismatic movement suddenly became an issue in Thailand. It seems to have spread particularly among the Sahaphan churches associated with Boonmark, becoming so strong that some who disagreed with the trend began to disassociate themselves. Others, such as the Chinese Tiensang Church and some groups in the provinces, became Pentecostal at the leadership level while staying in the CCT. Still others joined new churches associated with Pentecostal groups such as the Finns. As

a result, this period saw some of the growth among the Finnish Pentecostals in their stepped-up evangelistic efforts, and not a little criticism from non-Pentecostal leaders (although more significant numerical growth was to come a decade later (Smith Elect. 254), with apparently little controversy).

About this time Boonmark received an invitation to

speak in Pentecostal churches in Finland. He continued on to the USA, where he linked up with William Cole of the United Pentecostal Church (UPC). The UPC seems to have had a unitarian view of the Godhead, and offended many by incisting on rebaptism of new members in the name of Jesus Only. Cole's dogmatic approach and the aggressive manner in which he sought to build a UPC organization in Thailand caused some Thai critics, such as Phirun, to suspect that Cole thought those with different beliefs on these matters were not really Christian. Price, whom Smith says had been a UPC member earlier, warned Boonmark against working with Cole, but Boonmark invited him to Thailand anyway, and sought to help him build his organization. In a meeting of his Sahaphan. he announced he was disbanding the association, and urged its members to work with Cole. Those who did formed a . Maw. Sahaphan, this time denominational in structure, and committed to UPC distinctives, at least in theory. Most refused to join, including Boonmark's own Bangkok church, where leadership was passing to his son-in-law. Now well into his 60s, Boonmark began to rebuild for a second time, supported by periodic visits from Cole. From this point, churches **and** leaders joining with Boonmark would have been more likely to make clean breaks with their former denominations.

Smith (1982:252) charges that "considerable financial inducements were offered by the missionaries" to gain church workers from the CMA, CCT, and elsewhere. This remains a charge commonly leveled at Pentecostals gaining leaders from elsewhere, especially in the provinces. A failure to list. cases and amounts offered makes it difficult to evaluate the charges of UPC's opponents. While it is true that mission groups enforcing strict self-support policies in their Thai churches would have been vulnerable to the advances of competing missions who did not (in rural churches, this usually meant that church leaders had to find outside work to support themselves), Smith's charge is most certainly an exaggeration. His own account suggests that a more significant factor in UPC's growth was the presence of the dynamic leaders Boonmark (whose role he overlooks) and Cole. Significantly, many of the leaders and churches initially joining the UPC seem have come from the same sources as the members of Roonmark's earlier Sahaphan. Furtherwore, a list of individuals whom Charan said became involved includes a number who remain prominent in Pentecostal work today, which suggests that their primary motive in joi ing Boonmark at this point could scarcely have been mercenary. There was a commitment involved here, although I suspect

that the **commitment** was more to the **UPC's** lender than to the **distinctives** of UPC doctrine.

The Boonmark-led UPC saw quick initial growth. Smith suggests that there were as many as 1000 members nationwide by 1967-8. Since part of the initial start-up was a formalizing of Boonmark's personal contacts, it is impossible to 'now how much of UPC's growth came through transfer, and how much through conversion. It is known that the group pursued aggressive evangelism, as one of the complaints of UPC's critics is that it used "exciting speakers" (certainly some of the evangelists in Boonmark's core group) to entice their members into new churches. Whatever the UPC's peak size may have been (the information on UPC in the Thailand entry of Barrett (1982) is completely in error), it began to decline when Boonmark left the leadership in the late 1969s. 30 Cole must have found the going rough without Boonmark's presence and contacts, and he left for the USA for the last time a few years later. Today there are said to be only a few hundred members remaining in UPC churches, mostly in Northern Thailand. 31

Leadership Style

It is interesting to speculate what might have happened had the Presbyterian missionaries left Boonmark a freer hand after World War Two. Would he have pressured the entire CCT towards a more Baptist/fundamentalist stance? Or would he merely have moved it towards the semi-pluralistic

structure that it today exhibits? 32 Boonmark was hardly a dogmatic ideologue, as can be seen in his ongoing drift among mission associations, shifting easily among groups that sometimes considered themselves to be diametrically opposed on some major issues. He furthermore seems not to have been **overly** concerned with the building and maintenance of formal denominational structures, as can be seen from his activities in the late 1940s end early 1950s, and from the looseness of his original Sahaphan in the late 1950s. As a pastor, he seemed to spend much of his time preaching and arranging crusades outside of Bangkok rather than building programs in his own congregation. Throughout his life, it would seem, Boonmark remained an evangelist at heart. Much of his organizing activity, even when an officer of the CCT, was aimed at generating evangelism, through his own preaching, through the organizing and motivation of lay witness bands, through Thai-led revival and evangelistic meetings, and through making the arrangements that made it possible for foreign evangelists to work in Thai churches.

Yet it would be a mistake to perceive Boonmark as an evangelist in the American mold, for over the years he built a considerable personal following, much of which stayed with him even through the controversies of the late 1950s and early 1960s. It was a following that provided audiences, but whose effects went beyond that. It enabled him to use John Sung's 1939 Crusade and its aftermath to

battle the **Presbyterian** mission on almost equal terms for the **leadership** of his denomination, the first time a Thai had ever exercised so much power in the **Thai church**, or at least dared to **use** it in such a way. Furthermore, his ability to wield **that** personal influence **across denominational** lines after **1948 indicates** a leadership pattern which, although different from **the** one the missionaries were trying to instill in their people, could be highly effective at **times**.

We can make the best sense of Boonmark's activities by seeing him acting throughout in ways consistent with his role as an entourage leader. Almost heedless of formal denominational structures, he acted throughout to maintain and build his entourage and its circle of influence. He did not necessaril, need his own organization to be effective; in fact, Hanks (1968) suggests that his entourage may have been most effective when its key members were scattered through the organizations of others. Maintaining such an entourage requires some sort of patronage capital not available through normal organizational channels - some good, service, honor, or other benefit that the patron can dependably provide his clients. Boonmark's clients wer3 pastors and church leaders. Their main desires would have been for converts, larger congregations, and services that would have made them more effective as leaders among their people. This is precisely what Boonmark gave them, by acting as evangelist, organizer,

and as extra-denominational point of access to foreign evangelists and expertise.

Although he had considerable personal ability as a speaker and motivator of the churches lay members, Boonmark developed his position partly by acting as the intermediary (and often the translator) between the foreign evangelist and the local congregation. Each desired the other, but lacked the resources to make the contact. A single Thai congregation, with just a handful of members, could scarcely attract an American evangelist to travel thousands of miles to preach in its church, no matter how dedicated the foreigner might be. Outside evangelists, for their part, would have had difficulty gaining access to churches in a denominational association without the assistance of pre-existing contacts with people inside. By means of his personal network, Boonmark provided a valued service to both, demonstrating his effectiveness as a leader in the process.

In this way we can understand some of **Boonmark's** seemingly erratic dealings with foreigners. Each represented a source of power, a bit of patronage **which** could be used to **streng**—then a personal following, and which followers could use to improve their own local positions. It is hardly surprising that a missionary opponent accused Boonmark of using **John**Sung to gain popularity (Prasith 1984:88). Nor is it surprising that as a denominational leader **he** ignored criticism of the formal independence of **Sung's** lay witness bands, for

they would have been expected to **retain** a sense of loyalty to the man who brought Sung to **Thailand.** In **fact, Bonnark** and friends were able to use the lay witness band **concept** as **a** key tool with which to rebuild the CCT after World War Two (cf. Smith 1982:217). Even after leaving the **CCT,** Boonmark retained **access** to a **porsonal** entourage scattered on in congregations **throughout** the country, and his **associations** with foreign evangelists again in the 1950s strengthened his hand. For his clients, Boonmark could produce the **evangelists**; for the evangelists, he could provide audiences. And nobody, it seemed, could subordinate **Boonmark** to their own plans against his will. It was classic behavior of a master of the informal clienteleship systems of his day.

- THE ORGANIZATION OF CHARISMA

Socio-Cultural Context

It is an open question how much Thai leadership systems have changed in recent years. Hanks (1968) suggested that he saw little change since his researches of the early 1950s, and recent studies of Thai pelitics continue to pay close attention to the formation and structure of clientele groups (eg. Morell and Chai-anan 1981; Chai-anan 1982; Neher and Bidhya 1984). But newer forces have also been at work. As Skinner had predicted (1958, 1964), assimilation of Thailand's large Chinese minority continues apace, but the acquisition of Thai language and customs has been accompanied by a preservation of many deep-structure aspects of Chinese culture in the younger generations. This has been especially true in the urban areas where those with Chinese. parentage have concentrated, and could well be reflected in matters such as the residence of newlyweds, eating .habits, and the like. Modernization has spurred the rise of p new urban middle class, composed largely of individuals with a considerable Chinese background. Western influences remain strong, especially through popular music, 33 education, 34

and business. The past few decades have seen the rise of large-scale corporations, which tend to exhibit the forms of Western bureaucratic structure while being operated according to local cultural norms (cf. Deyo 1974; 1978). The emerging relational norms of the urbanized, educated

synthesis of traditional Thai, Chinese, and Western influences. Hanks' classic concept of "The Corporation and the Entourage," presented as a contrast between American and Thai styles of organization, might better be rewritten today to reflect an emerging synthesis.

Deyo outlines how both Chinese and Thai leaders in

Thailand have adapted organizational habits to the structures of large growing corporations:

With organizational growth, Chinese patriarchy aprears to have given way to substantial operational delegation to first-line work supervisors, but with the safeguard of tight centralized personnel and financial controls exercised through strong staff departments.

By contrast, Thai firms have remained markedly clientelist. Hierarchical control is based on close supervision and diffuse though formal authority relations between clerks and department heads. • • The close linkage in a clientelist system between decision-making power and control over the allocation of benefits minimizes both the delegation of responsibility to supervisors and the organizational consolidation of personnel control in specialized personnel departments. In general, the continued vitality of reward-based dyadic oatron-client relations at the department level has been dependent upon a continuing process of organizational segmentation.

Several of the managers in the Thai firms conplained of an inability to introduce cross-departmental policy coordination or even uniform personnel practices; and cross-departmental transfers or promotions were viewed with suspicion. To the extent organizational coordination is successful, it depends heavily either on clientelist relations among managers themselves or on consensus and bargaining in executive committee meetings. (1978:71)

Thus we see both fhai and Chinese **leaders** adapting their own leadership patterns to the new context of the Western-

style industrial bureaucracies. The complaints of the Thai managers **rey481** the same underlying structures as Hanks had observed earlier both in the village and **in** the government bureaucracy.

Deyo did his rescarch in 1972, and concentrated on some of the largest corporations then existing, each having been built through **several** decades of organizational growth. As we move to examining a new generation of leadership in an organization started just six years ago by the thoroughly assimilated grandson of Chinese immigrants, we can expect to see even more mixing of Thai and Chinese influences under the Western organizational veneer. , We will find a form of clientelist exchange at work here. as well, but it is channeled by a more rigid sense of organization, with the whole smothered by the mass of paperwork needed to give the patriarchal bureaucratic leader a sense of control at all levels. It is an entwining of corporate, patriarchalist, and clientelist structures, all expressed in the language of a We3tern-style Pentecostal leader, but with some very contemporary Thai This is the structure of Dr. meanings. 's Hope of Bangkok Church.

The Man and His Work

In 1973 a former AFS student and Colombo Scholarship holder was converted to Christianity during his first year

of undergraduate studies at Monash University in Melbourne, Australia. Though converted and discipled by non-Pentecostals, he experienced a powerful baptism of the Spirit not long thereafter and joined himself in fellowship with Pentecostal Christians. Thoroughly dedicated, he became an Assistant Pastor and leader of the Asian ministry at Waverly Christian Fellowship in Melbourne, started the Monash Full Gospel Fellowship among university students on campus, studied Greek, and took courses at four different Bible training institutes (one at the graduate level), while managing to complete his Ph.D. in Economics on schedule. A voracious reader, skilled speaker and organizer, a creative thinker with an eye for detail, and a hard-driving worker determined to win souls and produce church-planters, he made a great impression on his fellow-students. Comments a Malaysian church leader who studied with him, "Compared to we were mere grasshoppers."

While still a student in Australia, was being given access to church and conference platforms in Australia, New Zealand, and Southeast Asia. His detailed grasp of Scripture and Biblical teaching issues was said by church leaders to be unusual for an Asian. He became especially popular in speaking engagements in Full Gospel Business

Men's Fellowship International, and in Pentecostal churches. He was becoming known for gifts of prophecy, healing, words of knowledge, and especially for his gift for expository teaching of Scripture.

had felt a vision to plant churches in his homeland.

He returned to Thailand in 1981 with his Ph.D., became instructor in Economics at Kasetsart University, and sought a base to start his new ministry.

has suggested that he first surveyed other Bangkok Churches with a view to possibly joining their work ("It was even worse than I thought," he says, feeling that the Pentecostal churches then were especially weak in teaching). More often, he presents the public impression that his declared objective to independently plant 685 churches throughout Thailand by 2000. AD came to him whole as hie burden in 1976.

By August 1981, he had sparked some interest in his project, and early that month OMF missionary Dr. Henry Briedenthal, 36 Dr. , his wife , and two of his wife's sisters began weekly prayer meetings. A lecture room became available on the ninth floor of the Bangkok Christian Hospital, and on 6 September 1981 the Hope of Bangkok Church held its first worship service. That same week Dr. turned 27 years old.

There were 17 attending that first Sunday. Church publicity normally classes them as mostly "observers."

In a lighter moment has said that they were mostly missionary friends, strangers to him, that Dr. Henry had dragged along to encourage him. One of those friends was Alan Ellard, then assigned to the staff of OMF Publishers.

Alan, who himself had not yet had the Pentecostal experience of speaking in tongues, reports being less than overwhelmed by much of that first service (says the guitarist couldn't even find the right key, and of course no one was used to his way of doing things), but he was thoroughly impressed with the quality of the sermon. He was one of the ones who stayed. In fact, four of the church's first 13 members were OMF missionaries, causing some OMF personnel to get the mistaken impression that their mission had started the church. There was another who stayed - Hope of Bangekok's first convert. It was the first of a string of weekly conversions that as I have been able to document, has been broken only once (and for only one Sunday) in more than six years.

Very quickly

s church developed a reputation

for intensive teaching and intensive use of members' time.

In its early months, according to two of the first members,

a Sunday would begin with Dr. Henry and Dr.

Sunday School classes for over an hour. Then came a worship

service running well over two hours, including a full hour

devoted to

s sermon. An invitation was given

every Sunday, and every Sunday there were converts. Lunch

together was followed by another terching session. It is

said that some came for the teaching sessions while continuing to worship at other churches, but it is not known how

many did so.

louder, they were moved seven floors downstairs to the hospital's chapel. Within a year worship services were averaging over a hundred, with activities lasting most of the day. Home cell groups had been started, as well as Friday night prayer sessions which often lasted most of the night. The Pastor also began special teaching sessions for a selected group of leaders in the church, and continued accepting speaking engagements both in Thailand and overseas during breaks in his University teaching schedule.

The new church took as its motto, "The highest praise, the deepest preaching, the greatest love." It sew itself as a new model church that would spark nation-wide revival amorg all the Thai churches. Its own goal to plant 685 churches in Thailand by the year 2000 AD became known to members simply as "the Vision," cited endlessly, prayed for ceaselessly, even sung about. That the vision required equalling the combined results of the previous 150 years of Protestant work in Thailand was no deterrent, for the Vision had come from God, and its achievement would be a demonstration of his latter-day power and glory. seems to have been open from the start about his desires to attract as many good people as possible to help lead in accomplishing the Vision, but criticism on this point did not immediately develop. It could have been because was working to screen his members ("If you aren't prepared to work hard,

you would be better off attending somewhere else," prospective members were told), or because the movement was still small enough for its ambitions to be overlooked.

By the Church's Second Anniversary in 1983 there was an average of 175 attending, and a surge of growth was underway. To accomodate the growing congregation, the church moved Sunday meetings to the Crystal Ballroom of the Sheraton Hotel on Surawongse Road for a year, then to still larger quarters at the 1000-sest Oscar TheatEe on New Petchburi Road, where it has been since November 1984. Visitors continued responding to the invitation every Sunday; in the three years I have been involved there has only been one Sunday that I did not observe a response.

When I first attended services at the end of August 1984, Sunday attendance was already topping 350. Friday night leadership training sessions, for which members filled out ap:lications and paid to attend, had over 100 students doing collateral reading, memorizing verses, and taking exams. In an attempt to instill discipline, fines were imposed for tardiness, absence, and failure to recite the week's memory verses if called on. Over a half hour or prayer in the leadership training sessions being considered insufficient for building a nationwide movement, the Friday night prayer meetings continued. Cell gr.ups had multiplied, and were organized city-wide under seven pairs of district leaders.

A year later, in September 1985, there was average

Sunday attendance of 600, four new Assistant Pastors developed almost entirely within the church (one of them had converted through Hope of Bangkok's ministry), and trained and supervised leadership in place for most of the city's 24 administrative districts, divided under the leadership of the four assistant pastors. In June 1985 the church had begun the Thailand Theological Seminary, which in its first two years would put some 300 students through a four-month Leadership Training Course, and register nearly 100 in longer-term courses. (Under belated pressure from the CCT, which claimed prior ownership of the name, the school's title was changed to Thailand Bible Seminary at the end of the yar). A daughter church had opened in Phayao in June. Several missionaries left their previous associations and work to join the church staff. Notices on Hope of Bangkok's growth began appearing in overseas publications. So many foreigners sought chances to preach in Hope of Bangkok that begged off on some requests by noting that there were hardly any slots left for him to preach. It was one of his cost successful years.

with the model church role in mind, took a stance of strict financial self-support of church activities in its carly years. He preached that the time had come for the Thai church to rise to its own responsibilities in church growth, finance, and mission. When foreign churches and organizations offered funds to pay the remainder of

the **scholarship** bond that kept him tied to the university, he turred them down. It was not until May 1985 that a Malaysian evangelist challenged the church to pay the 500,000 baht (US 30,000 dollar) bond in a one-time offering of cash and pledges claimed to be the largest to **thrt** point in Thai church history. It was not until starting the Bible school **that** the church appealed to foreign **sources** for one-time assistance (but only with no strings), and **not** until raising funds for **land** would start preaching that the church must be "humble enough to receive."

In late 1985 the church was known for its cell group sy:tem, its concentrated teaching of lay leaders, and for helping spearhead a new Western-influenced style of worship that has already become common in Thai Pentecostal churches. Hope of Bangkok had the most thorough and pleasant greeting system in the city. Its follow-up was persistent, and effective at incorporating converts with any degree of sericus-**'S** vision and the confidence ness. The sheer size of with which it was proclaimed continued to impress and attract. So did the church's emphasis on prayer, healing, and on the gifts of the Scirit. Converts were known for their witnessing, and for inviting non-Christian friends to church. Whether through concentrated peer pressure, effective witness, or the effect $\mathbf{6f}$ experiencing the corporate worship experience for the first time (it was now led by a skilled and sensitive team of musicians), most first-time visitors Came, to respond to the evangelistic invitations in church and cells & Hope of Bangkok was averaging 20-30 first-time decisions

per So unusual were these numbers that an independent survey discovered that Hope of Bangkok's figure of 1,500 decisions accounted for nearly half of the recorded conversions in the city in 1984 (Pairote 1985:52).

850 attending, making Hope of Bangkok the largest single

Congregation in the nation. It had four daughter churches,

a Beminary student body of .1,50, and a paid church staff of

over 40, including people from all walks of life. Equipped

with a Ph.D. of his own,

had been able to attract

a core of highly educated followers. He himself continued

to be one of the church's chief selling points. Considered

a model speaker and teacher, an unusually insightful coun
selor, and with especially impressive gifts of faith, healing,

and: organization, he drew such respect that he warned in his

1985 Christmas Crusade that he was not in fact a miracle

herler with acquired powers, but that any other Christien

could pray and see the same results.

But as some of it stemmed from traditional fears towards

Pentecostals and their teachings. Some critics disliked the worship, with its loud praying, contemporary rhythms, mass praying in tongues, and even dancing. Others, usually foreigners, criticized the church's structure and worship forms for being "too American."

was suspected of building his church with foreign financing, even though he had in

fact turned down several offers of outside financial assistance. More telling criticisms had to do with the level of authority that the leaders sought to exercise over the members of the church, fears that by 1984 were already being fueled by a number of widely circulating stories. 38 was also accused of seeking to grow at the expense of other church groups, and it is this accusation that Has brought him by far the most trouble from other Christians leaders, in public criticism, organizational opposition, pressure on individual members, even attempts to block or hamper ministry initiatives. has tried to protect himself by wrapping his plans in ever greater secrecy, and has refused to respond to the criticisms in ways that would retard the push forward in evangelism and church planting.

The criticism seemed to come to a head in 1985 with

the beginning of church planting and the opening of the

Bible School, and it has increased in intensity since. By
early 1986 the CCT published warnings in its denominational

magazine and was circulating a letter among leaders attempting
to keep members from participating in evangelistic crusades

ferturing as speaker (they feared that any of the

Crusades could be a cover for the opening of a new church
including some of their former members). In the 1986 annual

meeting of the Evangelical Fellowship of Thailand (EFT),
which includes most non-CCT churches and organizations

including Hope of Bangkok, at the time), an amendment

was passed giving the executive Board power to move on its own authority against member organizations "causing disunity." Within half a year proceedings hed begun, and by January 1987 it was publicly announced that Hope of Bangkok had been suspended from membership. The published conditions for reinstatement seemed to require the prior approval of local pastors before Hope of Bangkok could begin a new church, a public statement forbidding members to invite other Christians to any of Hope of Bangkok's activities, and prior arproval of an individual's former pastor before he would be permitted to transfer membership to Hope of Bangkok. The depth of sentiment in favor of reigning in in that early **1986** meeting is illustrated by moves of the Bangkok churches to set up a committee, which, among other things, seems to have been expected to develop standardized membership procedures for

all the churches. It is shown further by a suggestion of the southern churches that there should be a moratorium on church planting in any district which already contains a church (see 1986 minutes, in Thai, in the meeting document for the 1987 Annual Meeting).

Suspension from EFT seemed to have few tangible effect ed other than increased difficulty procuring visas for associat missionaries, but the intangibles from the sustained and smazingly vitriolic public attacks on scharacter and the strain from the months of conflict must have been

tremendous. Nevertheless, continued to push forward. With Sunday attendence nearing 1,000, he mounted a 34 million baht (US \$1.3 million) fund drive to purchase land for a new complex including a 10,000 capacity auditorium. The drive raised nearly a third of the amount in the three months in which it was given priority. Five tore churches were opened or affiliated from May to October 1987, and teams were in place to begin more. A determined effort to build membership doubled the official figure from 1,250 to 2,500 in less than a year.41 and the church received extensive favorable coverage in 1987 in popular chrismatic magazines such as People of Destiny in the USA (Loftness 1987) and Renewal in Britain (England 1987). remained in high and rising demand as a speaker overseas. In 1987 he spoke at churches, Bible Schools, missions consultations, and leadership conventions in Singapore, Indonesia, Taiwan, USA, Finland, and Israel.

In what could well be a prelude to his long-anticipated
initiation of international missionary activity, he was
reported to be advising Finnish churches on growth strategy, and
interviewed for Norwegian radio.

Lendership Patterns

paradox. No leader in Thai church history has **ever**. built such rapid growth, trained so many leaders so quickly and **well**,

or developed such a high and steady rate of incoming converts. Neither has anyone ever inspired such strong opposition from his fellow Christian leaders. This is not the place to analyze all the factors and incidents contributing to this paradox. The often heard suggestion that the opposition springs from jealousy cannot be supported, as there are real grievances on all sides that are not being dealt with. The fact that they are not even being discussed, or rather, the manner in which they have been fought over, reminds us of our discussions above of the difficulty of achieving cooperation among equals. In what follows I will suggest that whatever the specific roots of the disputes, they were perhaps an inevitable result of the manner in which growth has occured - generated by a rather understandable fear of the implications for one's own work of the rise of this unusually effective Thai system of church leadership.

The analysis that follows is not intended as a **critique** (nor as an of the content of the conte

The analysis notes four key elements at work:

(1) A Central Store of Charisma

Sociologist Max Weber has defined "charisma" as

a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with **supernatural**, superhuman, or at **least** specifically **exceptional** powers or qualities (1968: I, 241).

He **suggested** that it was this quality which gave key leaders the power to influence, change, and shape the dispositions and actions of followers and **OI** bureaucratic systems.

Weber ouflined three polar ideal types of the grounds on which a leadership might be legitimated: (1) rational grounds, where a leader's authority stems from his followers' belief in the legality of the set of rules under which he was elevated to a position of command. In other words, his authority is accepted because he was properly appointed, elected, or otherwise selected for leadership. (2) traditional grounds, based on the way things have always been done.

- (3) charismatic grounds, resting on devotion to an individual's charisma and acceptance of the norms and patterns ordained by him (Weber 1968:215). It is important to note that authority, by this definition, is a quality ascribed t?
- leaders by their followers. The polar types **outline/means**by which that authority might come to be ascribed. Once as-

scribed, however, authority or the charisma on which it is based becomes in effect an objective good that can be controlled and manipulated by a leader or leadership structure within the bounds of a society's cultural expectations. Thus, an especially effective leader's charisma can be objectified, routinized, and distributed through institutional structures such as bureaucracies, appointments, and rules, and through potent religious objects such as amulets, images, and relics (cf. Tambiah 1984: 335).

"Charisma," thus understood, corresponds somewhat with the Thai concept of barami. According to Morell and Chaianan, a leader who has barami "can command respect, loyalty, and sacrifice from others." Since it is believed by most That to be a product of an individual's accumulation of merit in past or present lives, "a person with barami is not only powerful but also well-liked, even loved and respected by most people." (1981:33) /Christians would reject the notion that their leader's barami had been produced by the merit of a previous life, but a similar concept can. be seen in the rassumption that barami is a mark of holiness or Godliness, and a sign of God's special calling and dispensing of authority to a leader. Thus, Buddhists and Christians agree in the assumption that one has barami because he de-Herein lies one of the reasons for serves to possess it. leader-centric organizations in Thai society, for such a

concept creates a bias both for charismatic types of authority, and for legitimating rational and traditional authorities

(e.g. royalty) on charismatic grounds.

that a great central store of charisma/barami is a key good that enables to operate his clientele system.

When the leader's charisma is objectified and regularized in a bureaucratic church organization, the effect is the creation of rational-based authority for lower-level leaders — an authority that rests with then only so long as they remain submissive to the full system of charismatic author—ity centering on the superior.

But how does that central store of charisma cone to be accumulated? What is it that causes people to ascribe such supernatural, or at least superhuman, authority and ability to an individual? The foundations of supernatural include many which are familiar to students of dynamically growing churches and religious movements. He is a man of unusual personal ability. His detailed knowledge of scripture and his ability to express his views more articulately than almost anyone else in terms relevant to the hearer gives him a great advantage as a religious leader. The clear, organized presentation of his thought, and the innovativeness and success of his church organization links well with the repeated assertions — direct and indirect — that and his church point the way to a new era of progress for the Thai church as a whole.

is not merely an exceptionally able man. The supernatural truly does seem to infuse his work. When people come to him with a request for prayer, they expect an answer with confidence. Although preaches endlessly that anyone with faith may see God answer prayer, yet the answers just seem to come a bit faster when is the one doing the praying. Each of the leaders has a story of his. own of a personal disagreement with when the pastor's judgement later proved right despite what they had thought was a weight of evidence for the contrary conclusion ("How did he know that?" they wonder). Even his amazing drive may be credited to the supernatural ("I wondered how he could work so hard and not wear out, " said one leader. "until I realized that the strength must come from God.") The existence of these as a base for leqitimacy is in no way in-•B assumption that all of his consistent with subordinates should be seeking and achieving the Same (since God is the **source**, the power is therefore available to any Christian leader of sufficient faith, purity, and what might be called deservingness). Since none of them ever do, however, their sense of their perception is somehow **eloser.to** God and able to hear that His voice with greater certainty and clarity.

The membership's collective memory is reinforced by numerous stories, circulated spontaneously outside official channels, illustrating spontaneously outside exemplary

leader, Spirit-led counselor, preacher, and healer, who consciously strives to remain humble. They include stories proaching on a city bus, getting on his knees to be the first to sweep a floor at a retreat, selling his car to ride the bus to work in a fundraising effort. They include his 5AM appointments to disciple a new convert who had no other time available, 6 AM hospital visits before starting Sunday services, and his habit of initiating the wais at the door (an action normally expected to be done by the social inferior). Many have witnessed blind people seeing ard-the lame walking at healing crusades, and have seen specific healing announced in advance as words of knowledge from the pulpit. has a preaching style so effective that it is a rare listener who remains unmoved, and the message is delivered with such conviction that the listener cannot doubt the existence of his source of faith (in other words, can preach on almost anything, 🦠 and a sure side-effect is that the hearer becomes strongly persusded of the existence of God, simply because himself is so thoroughly and obviously convinced). Reported to have read the entire Bible cover to cover eight times in just his **first** year as a Christian, has developed a knack for relating Bible passages to current life problems, and for citing the little details of scripture that no one else had noticed. All of life becomes suffused with an interpretive scheme developed by the leader and grounded thoroughly in a profusion of scripture references and principles said to be based on scripture. He has developed a total system in which religious authority can be applied to individuals to work social change. As Geertz has observed:

It is this placing of proximate acts in ultimate contexts that makes religion, frequently at least, socially so powerful. It alters, often radically, the whole landscape presented to common sense, alters it in such a way that the moods and rotivations induced by religious practice seem themselves supremely practical, the only sensible ones to adopt given the way things 'really' are (1973:122).

All of this is don: in the service of God, of course, not of . A first-time visitor to Hope of Bangkok experiences an intensive two hour participatory discourse in music, speech, and group prayer on the existence, power and authority of God, Yet the effect is a: generation and replenishment of ascribed Charisma collected in the central store. This in itself is not unique to Thailand. Similar processes could probably be noted in any churches featuring strong, charismatic leaders. The manner in which this store of charisma is applied to build and regulate a growing organization, however, follows some key cultural themes.

(2) Bureaucratized Patriarchalism

Patriarchal patterns of organization can be found both in traditional Thai government bureaucracies, composed of a chief and officials dependent on him, and in the traditional Chinese family business. As Deyo demonstrated above, they are seen with greater clarity in the latter.

as a grandson of Chinese immigrants to Thailand who does not spec; the ancestral language (though he is said to understand it), has been socialized in a synthesis of the Thai and Chinese cultural worlds, with a heavy dose of Westernization (gained in at least nine years of overseas residence) added for good measure. Because he was raised in a Chinese family (even though the parents must have been fairly well assimilated), we can expect the organizational instincts built in by that upbringing to reflect some Chinese patterns. Furthermore, Skinner has demonstrated (1957,1958) that many of the most successful Chinese have traditionally been coopted into the Thai elite, with assimilated Chinese constituting a sizable proportion of the more influential strata of this century.

of civil servants in <code>aarlier years/.</code> Thus, with a church <code>leader</code> ship <code>whose</code> core is composed primarily of young, acculturated Thai-Chinese and highly educated elite and semi-elite Thai, we should be surprised if Hope of <code>Bangkok's</code> leadership patterns did not reflect some of the norms of Chinese organizational behavior.

As founder, chief administrator, and source and arbiter of all authority in the church, is the functional equivalent of the traditional Chinese patriarch atop the family business. As Deyo (1978) noted in his. study of large-scale Chinese-run organizations, financial matters are handled through a staff function where the details can be kept

privately among a few individuals, with no intent of revealing the details to line personnel. Vital statistics of all sorts, including weekly attendance, are treated in a similar manner. Personnel decisions (such as selection of volunteer co-workers and of cell leaders) may be handled by line personnel who recruit their own volunteers, but on higher levels, selections are usually made or approved directly from the top. Not only can individual assignments to organization the entire organization's structure may be redrawn in just a few hours' discussion among ranking leaders -- as recently happened twice in just a six month span of time.

A great deal of paper is generated in efforts to maintain maximum control at the top. There are attendance records on individuals, and individual cell reports on offerings, on follow-up visits, on three-month cell projections, on individual cell plans, individual work charts, and more, although church-wide collection of much of this data is almost invariably incomplete. Budget and, funding requests require wading through such a dizzying array of forms and rules understood in their entirety by only a handful of individuals that much of the financial decision-making process appears to occur outside the formal system. There is almost an obsession for recording and keeping records—of sermons, speeches, bulletins, meeting records, member files, visitor and decision cards — which is faintly reminiscent of

the chronicle traditions of Chinese Emperors. Here again the system seems to overwhelm its personnel. A researcher attempting in 1985 to double-check the church's claim of 1,500 converts the previous year was told that none of the records could be located any more. In another case, a leader claimed that a months -long delay in the church's redefining of membership procedures had been caused by an inability to locate any copies of the church constitution. Whether or not this was true, it was clearly considered believable. The intent of all this paper, at least in theory, is to give structure to the organization while giving the leaders the tools for effective organizational control. All of the data generated each week is to be summarized upwards, to give higher level leaders grounds on which to evaluate progress and base decisions. And the detailed system of report forms, even when incompletely enforced, permits spot-check quizzing and correction by top leadership of personnel at any level of.the organization.

As data flows upwards, policies flow downwards. The working definition of the Thai word nayobai ("policy"), whether in government or business, appears to be "an announced intention by the leader regarding future organizational practice." At. Hope of Bangkok, such policy may be announced orally in a meeting, or dispensed in the form of brief notes, often with minimal to no explanation, from the desk of the leader. It is the responsibility of lower level personnel, to

convert intention into program, subject to approval and correction by the leader.

As we might expect, requests for cooperation rarely flow laterally to organizational equals. The word ruamme ("cooperate") in Thai normally carries the connotation of putting oneself at the disposal of another, or under his orders. Thus, unless an individual or unit requesting cooperation from another can establish his own superiority or invoke the sanction of an individual superior to the other, the attempt to initiate joint action is almost certain to fail. A common response such an organizational context is either to take unilateral action within a work unit, or to continue with the status quo until higher leadership notices a problem itself and initiates action. At Hope of Bangkok and some other Thai organizations this tendancy is encouraged by statements to the effect that whatever one's complaint or suggestion, the leadership has surely thought of it already. Disagreements between units attempting to cooperate can in theory be ironed out by referring the dispute upwards to a point where new policy covering both units can be set, a policy move that not infrequently involves redrawing the lines of authority between to "clarify responsibilities."

the units. Alternatively, units, whose cooperation may be needed on a project may be ordered to send representatives to a meeting of a coordinating committee whose decisions (sometimes set: in advance by the coordinator) may be final

on one's ability to work the informal system of relations, just as it would in the Chinese family business, or in the informal clientele systems within government bureaucracies. However, since rank and authority in the organization tends to reflect degree of access and approval by higher levels over the long run, and because of the bureaucratic ethic of the formal channel, end runs can be risky, easily interpreted as a grab for non-legitimate power and as such a threat to the head of the system.

(3) Patron-Client Exchanges

The primary good used in building system is his central store of barami/charisma. We noted erlier that patron-client exchanges in Thai society are built on a non-formalized system of dyadic exchange, with relatively scarce and controllable resources flowing down-wards from a superior in exchange for less scarce resources flowing upwards from a collection of inferior individuals. The scarce resources on which McGilvary's System was buil! included quinine, Siamese language instruction, access to the increasingly important power center of Bangkok, and a personal charisma of his own (note, for example, that the missionaries were thought uniquely immune to the powers of local spirits. McGilvary (1912:205-206) provides an illustrative instance). Boonmark's resource was crowd-rousing

evangelists, especially foreign ones, and an extensive network of personal contacts. 's chief resource is his own charisma. It is offered in the form of assistance to aspiring churches and leaders through teaching materials, leadership training, centrally scheduled speakers and musicians, and organizational advice, all serving to enhance a leader's effectiveness in his local setting. Yet the conditions for receiving this assistance are such that the charisma itself becomes the basis for and medium of exchange. For example, a member joining a daughter church 's vision, not that of the local does so to join leader. When joining a church or cell, the newcomer is likely to attach his primary loyalty to the head of the system and express it $\mbox{by submissiveness}$ and cooperation with the local representative of the chief, whether that representative be an assistant pastor, cell leader, or administrative coordinator. Thus, the good offered by subordinates in exchange for charisma is submission (in the sense of immediate and unquestioning responsiveness to the orders and requests of the superior) and loyalty (expressed b " deference, availability, and personal sacrifice for the leader and his goals) - the same exchange on which the traditional Thai government administration had been built (cf. Akin 1969, 1975)

The charisma flowing downwards enhances the status of

they can give advice with greater confidence (because it follows themes and examples set by a leader in whom one has confidence), and others become more willing to join with them, to share in the borrowed glow of the center. A member becomes bound to the local cell, for example, not because of the local cell leader's personal ability and experience (which in some cases may be nearly non-existent), but rather because of the attractiveness of the powerful things happening at the center. As a result, individuals who may not have been able to lead in ministry on their own can be elevated fairly quickly to positions of authority and equipped with the borrowed charisma needed to keep their groups of followers attached and motivated.

In exchange for this borrowed legitimacy, subordinate leaders respond upwards with vocal expressions of support for the leader and the whole of his policies, attendance at meetings whenever called, provision of requested data to the extent possible, acquiescence: to policies even when they are not understood (and sometimes when they are suspected of being counterproductive, as well), occasional undemanding requests for assistance and advice, and willingness to subordinate personal plans to the sometimes unexpected redirection of the group's activities from the top. The subordinate leader is to organize his followers to respond to organizational needs and directives, and the

organisation in exchange gives him^{ϵ} the authority and effectiveness needed to do that work more effectively.

complex of, relationship-building, teaching with heavy emphasis on sacrifice and authority, and group activities.

Moreover, in the mind of the subordinate, he is not merely building an organization or obeying a leader, but he is building the Kingdom of God. He is not gaining converts, but rather bringing people salvation and a new life. This fact is likely to be far more salient to him than the details of organization. So in his mind, he is not bargaining for power and position, but rather seeking something that will enable him to serve fa** better and help more people find new life. That something just happens to be the complex associated with

those who are sufficiently worthy and of **a** proper attitude. In this situation, the leader and subordinate respond in ways that seem natural and proper to them, in accordance with cultural **norme.** The reader should not confuse the formal analysis of those **norms** with with the actors' own conceptions of what they are doing and why.

Nevertheless, a result of these clientele exchanges, being combined as they are with the forms and expectations of a patriarchal bureaucracy, an emulation of the center at all levels of the organization. The tendancy of provincial rulers in the traditional Thai polity to duplicate

the forms and administrative arrangements of the royal center (Tambiah 1976:135ff) is at Hope of Langkok developed towards its logical conclusion with a conscious push for conformity within. There is assumed to be ${f a}$ strength in having everybody "believe the same" (mi khwam chua thi khlai khlai kan), in having all the churches teach exactly the same cell lessons exactly the S:me way, in having church administrations run on the same patterns. Cell leaders attempt to model themselves on the one who taught them, to the point of using the same teaching examples to make a point. At Hope of Chiengmai, foreign observers have remarked that the local leadership are running a somewhat rougher s style (that the Chiengmai copy of the Bangkok pastor's name is also is pure coincidence). "Guide to the Church" books recently produced by Hope of Chiangmai and Hope of Pitsanuloke churches not only copied their format from Hope of Bangkok's original "Guide," but lifted several pages word-for-word complete with artwork. In a Daughter Church exhibition at Hope of Bangkok's Sixth Anniversary Celebration, most churches praised their "assistant pastors" for the same identical qualities - perseverence, sacrifice, unity with 's vision.

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Such displays of unity have their price, of course.

Creativity in such a system is of little value except at the top. Early warning systems of personality conflicts Sometimes fail to function. Subordinates with their own idea3

leaders at the cell level and up may (isappear from the system without warning, and without ever having expressed the point of grievance. Systemic lack of downward responsiveness to upward communications, if allowed to develop too far, can impede the efforts to generate an impressive outward image. On the other hand, systems such as this one are almost a norm in Thailand, complete with theiremphasis on conformity. It seems natural and proper to many participants. And all things considered, the system of "organized charisma" that producing/growth so far.

(4) Master-Student Relationship

Just north of Bangkok is a new style Buddhist mon'stery that is drawing thousands of lay devotees to i's highly publicized weekend meditation sessions. A visiting observer will note that the most prominently displayed photographs at this monastery are of the monk, now deceased, who "discovered" the method of meditation taught there. That discovery is in itself insufficient to explain the honor accorded the photographs. More important is that this monastic teacher personally instructed the founding abbott in the methods he now teaches.

Tercher-student relationships in Thailand are marked by a respect lasting throughout life. One can never fully

repay the debt of gratitude to the master who has trained one for life and work. Even if the student may later outshine his instructor in position and fame, he should never cease to display the greatest respect for him. The mesterstudent relationship, like so many in Thailand, is a hierarchical one of superior and inferior, marked by formalized symbols of deference, precedence, submissiveness, and respect.

while pictures of Bangkok, 42 the attitude of the respectful student remains evident. "My people submit to me,"
suggests , "because I submit to my pastor." Though
his pastor has been in Bangkok only three times in four
years, and has publicly said that he considers himself
completely unqualified to tell a Thai how to run a Thai
church, Thai members do not seem to consider

statement incongruous. The reason is that the "submission"
here means the respect of a student for his master, a
respect that continues to express towards this
man through a variety of means.

"respect" is significant. "Submit" is the word required
by the system of church governance that both he and his
former pastor teaches. Yet while the Australian seems not
to consider his writ of authority to extend into

submission towards his teacher, just as he expects his own

spiritual students to extend them to himself. The resulting implicit linking of the Western concept of pastoral authority with the Thai concepts of the teacher-student relationship and of the teacher's authority in the area of his expertise, reinforces the structure of organized charisma at Hope of Bangkok. As the teacher is assumed to have progressed farther in his field than any of his students, so also are the church leaders and pastor assumed to have gone farther in spiritual matters than those they teach. He who is the teacher of teachers has progressed farthest of all.

preaching carries himself as a teacher among students. He personally designed many of the courses taught at his Bible School. The offering of a "once in a lifetime (maybe) opportunity" to join a discipleship course taught personally by drew hundreds of applicants. Christian leaders joining the movement regularly cite the clarity and personal usefulness of steachings as one of the reasons for their interest. , clearly, is a teacher of teachers.

Why the Negative Reactions?

There is an implicit assumption **in** the Thai concept of teacher that the only way to emulate his success is to sit humbly and submissively at **his** feet as **student.** When the teacher is a denominational leader and the students

are churches and leaders, such concepts become the stuff

([interchurch conflict. Any move to expose potential students to the charisma of the leader may be perceived as a hostile act. It makes no difference that it is the student who always makes the formal offer to establish a relationship, for such has always been the norm of both teacher-student and patron-client relationships.

when we understand these concepts, that they did at first seem less likely to be overreacting. The careful reader may have noticed that when the EFT began proceedings against, he had opened only two daughter churches. When Hope of Bangkok's expulsion from EFT was publicly announced, it had so far planted a total of just four churches. While some controversy swirled around each of the oases, in itself it hardly seemed sufficient grounds for a major split. Yet such was the pattern of the growing rift, that Hope of Bangkok seems to have anticipated opposition in each of the cases, and in one case took steps in advance to make it more difficult for opponents to block a planned church opening.

It would appear, therefore, that the new churches and affilludes of control and affilludes of control and affilludes of control and already been formed. Quite simply, many Thai church leaders are frightened by the structure, strength, and potency of as charismatic leader is possibly invulnerable to attempts to establish control or responsiveness from outside, and they

recognize him as a competitor for their own leaders and base of support. The more prospers, the more precarious their own position becomes, even if makes no direct or intentional move against them. At least, such is the assumption, one which is reinforced by remembered cases of individuals who have left their churches to go

Familiar with the rhetoric of hierarchical relations, some may take

some may take

some refusal to play the part of deferential inferior as declaration of intent to become superior and master -- fears in no way alleviated by

self-proclaimed role of apostle to Thailand, nor by his declared hope of making his church the source of nationwide revival.

Thai leaders furthermore see as a competitor for **SCARCE** resources of members and manpower - a competitor possessing in his own charisma an advantage the others do not have. The average leader, aware that he cannot 'S image, charisma, and ability, fears losing match the bulk of his members, and possibly his entire church. As a result of such fears the amount of transfer growth S churches, while certainly greater than the official figures, 43 has been wildly exaggerated by persistent rumors. According to one such story, preached by invitation at a camp organized by one of Bangkok's largest churches, and half the youth group almost immediately transferred to Hope of Bangkok. This particular story can be easily disproved (if the evidence has not disappeared),

and Thai Christians are too loyal to their churches to in say event be so easily persuaded to switch/(in apparent cases to the contrary, a move was usually contemplated long before opportunity presented itself). The story bears witness nevertheless to the amount of sheer charismatic potency that srivals assume him to possess.

Given current cultural norms, it is not clear whether current rifts can soon be healed. An acceptance by of the traditional-rational claims to authority of existing Thai church structures could well destroy the charisma-based authority system that he himself operates. On the other hand, official recognition of work and methods would seem to other clientele-oriented leaders in the Thai church to be an open invitation to to dominate their own work or, failing that, to take away their members. To this point, the pressures seem to have brought only an increased determination to press ahead, to counter the criticisms with more hard work and growth. As far as I am aware, has never openly answered his critics in public, although the well-informed can sometimes detect hidden meanings in speeches, and leaders from the cell level up are sometimes informed of the official position, to keep them from being/overly discouraged by criticism that they lose faith in their leader. This is not political posturing, for

sincerely believes that in **obedience to** God and as a **suffering** disciple of thrist he should not answer his critics. Besides, the only way to stop the criticism, he suggests, **is** to get even bigger. In a society where equals are rivals and superiors are to be respected, he may have a point — but only if former rivals can be persuaded to see him as a source of assistance who does not threaten their freedom or livelihood. That may prove, difficult to do.

CONCLUSION

We have looked at the work of three outstanding leaders in Thai church history. We have seen each of them working according to the local culture's standards of leadership, particularly in the operation of the traditional clienteleship systems. While each had a certain personal charisma, his skill in channeling that charisma in culturally available channels, however unintentional, was also a key to his effectiveness.

There are other examples we could have cited to show culturally appropriate leadership being applied. For example, Jim Gustafson of the Evangelical Covenant Church has established a center at Udorn which within a decade has come to claim roughly 20 "mother churches" and several dozen mostly rural "daughter Churches" in the Northeast.

Like McGilvary and , he operates a strongly central-

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and program services such as music and drama flowing continually to the peripheries. A system of daughter churches spawning daughter churches has sparked sometimes spontaneous growth, while intermediate-level leaders are granted a number of freedoms such as independent voting at EFT meetings, choosing of church meeting Aays, and the like. It is rumored that some of the new churches are really already existing groups of rural Christians. If so, their adoption of ftiis new,/dependable patron should not be surprising. Jim, an American raised in Laos, partly preplanned his approach to mission work in Thailand in his M.A. thesis in Missiology at Fuller Theological Seminary (Gustafson 1970), and has further adapted his system to Thai culture as he has worked.

ized system with the master teacher at the core and with

Ron Maddox, an Assemblies of God missionary, starts churches by holding healing Crusades in the provinces. He says he sometimes takes promising leaders converted in one village and puts them in charge of a church he is planting in another village, while continuing periodic contact and training from his base in Bangkok. Assuming this accurately describes his activities, we could say that Ron operates a clientele syst. In that enhances the local leader's status among his people first through the borrowed charisma of the Crusade, then through a variety of goods and services

provided from the **center.** Moving the leader to a new **village allows** him to rise quickly from his former status to be

accepted easily as a leader of converts.

The Pentecostal Assemblies of Canada and the Assemblies of God have both been blessed by associations with strong Thai pastors in Bangkok churches who have nationwide influence. Both missions have taken the wise stance of providing financial and programming assistance while leaving their pastors a very free hand to develop their work. Pastors Nirut and Wiradhai both write books, plant churches, organize Crusades and camps, and are building personal organizations for leadership and growth. While both are theoretically mere individuals in their respective denominations, they are dominant figures, and the denominational structures are sufficiently loose as to give local leaders room to work.

The growth patterns of a number of groups still deserve study. These include the Christian and Missionary Alliance (CMA) from 1946-1960, the Seventh Day Adventists from 1945 to the present, Worldwide Evangelization Crusade (WEC) from 1960 to the present, Southern Baptists (Thailand Baptist Mission) from 1952 to the late 1960s, and Overseas Missionary Fellowship (OMF) from 1953 to the mid-1970s. According to the figures and charts in Smith (1982), all of these groups showed at least 10% annual growth in work among ethnic Thai for the period (although the early Southern Baptist Work seems to have included a strong Chinese focus). It is

not known what role leadership patterns may have ployed in the growth of these groups.

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In any event, it should be remembered that leadership structures are but one growth factor among many, and that cultural appropriateness is hypothesized as merely a neces-(not sufficient) growth. In other words, where strong growth is found, we expect some culturally approapriate patterns to be operating, but do not expect them to be sufficient to explain the growth. Other factors will be working to generate the growth that is **channeled**. along these systems. 🎜 case a powerful personal charisma, For example, in ritual structure, and a teaching system aimed at thoroughly reshaping world view and behavior are more significant in generating a_steady influx of converts and incorporating Thinare the leadership pufferns. them into the Christian community. It should be remembered as well that leadership patterns are patterns of **behavior**; not of ideology or conscious intent. We have shown in a couple of instances that conscious motivation was quite different from the exchange seen in the underlying pattern. It could be suggested, in fact, that the continuing operation of a clientele system depends on its exchanges not being perceived as exchanges. Thus, researchers attempting to analyze leadership patterns should ba. careful to distinguish intent from reality, and it may be difficult for to get a "suf icient distance from their subject to analyze their own work.

But what, then, of Smalley's suggestion at the start of

this paper that "often missionaries do not like the product of true indigeneity in church governance? (1979:35-36)

What is the record for Thailand? Although some of the cases mentioned in the conclusion have gained respect and interest, that interest tends to focus more on their forms (e.g. Jim Gustafson's use of Thai-style church music) than on the relational patterns of their leadership. Our three main case studies support Smalley's challenge further.

We saw that McGilvary's attitudes and Telational patterns were discontinued by successors such as Dodd. Boonmark had a decade-long running battle with his own mission and lost. Missionaries have been more guarded in their criticisms of than some Thai leaders have, but many also express strong ambivalence about him.

Part of the problem is that culturally appropriate leadership structures are not so easily seen and learned as the more formalized patterns of culture. such as how to greet, where to touch, and where not to point your feet.

The foreigner is first warned of relational norms by that unpleasant suspicion that something undefinable is guing amiss. If by some accident he acts appropriately, he may continue and prosper without knowing why, and look elsewhere for ways to indigenize. One far too easily confuses the forms of indigeneity with its substance, because the forms are.

more easily observed. Yet the most indigenous of organizations may paradoxically be that which at first glance appears most foreign.

The problem was put well in an internal document written by a veteran missionary who had recently joined Hope of Bangkok's staff. Missionaries are likely to experience more severe cultural adjustment problems at Hope of Bangkok than they would elsewhere, he noted. In most missions, the forms of the work ere relatively Thai, while the organization in which the missionary works is run in a Western style. But at Hope of Bangkok, the forms are western, while the structures of administration are completely Thai.

It catches you by surprise, he said.

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- 1. Missionary sources from this period apply the term I to all the various Thai-related lowland cultures ran across northern and northeastern Thailand, and exten into Laos, the Burmese Shan States, and into souther Yunnan. The Northern Thai culture centered on Chieng where McGilvary worked, differed in a number of ways from the northeastern cultures today known as Lao an Thai-Lao, including the distinctive historical tradi of the Lannathai Kingdom, and its own distinctive sc: Nevertheless, following the usage of that day, I will use the terms Lao and Northern Thai interchangably whreferring to McGilvary's work.
- 2. This patron later gained official government support his activities in the form of a Mutual Aid Society (sfunded), with himself as the salaried Director. The State had little idea of the Social statement this main the refugee community, of course.
- 3. My own ineptness at operating in clientelist systems resulted in some extended periods of conflict with ir dividuals who considered themselves of superior statt in .a. Thai volunteer organization in which I was set Those who perceived themselves of inferior status, or other hand, tended to respond with relative warmth to what I had thought was a consistent approach to both groups (I could not yet distinguish them from each other, of course).
- 4. Bradley's contributions in medicine, printing, and jo nalism make him the best known Protestant missionary Thailand. Although he gained few converts himself, hi reputation and his personal contacts with the elite a royalty helped pave the way for later missionaries su as his son-in-law McGilvary. For more on Bradley, see Lord (1969) and Bradley (1981).
- 5. Those growth rates are calculated from the membership figures listed in Swanson (1984:170).
- 6. My figures on the number of missionaries on the field are estimated from the listings in Chatichai (1984: 43-52).
- 7. In other words, the rate of increase in membership was slower than the natural increase of the population.
- 8. Boonmark served 14 years as the top Thai administrator in the CCT. prior to his resignation in 1948.
 From 1934-1937 he was officially assistant to Mrs.
 Bertha Blount McFarland, the American missionary

who served as the first General Secretary. Boonmark was General Secretary with Bertha as assistant in the next term leading up to World War Two, after which the assistant's position was discontinued (Prasith 1984:173). Smith's description of Boonmark's position in CCT as Moderator (1982:213-218) appears to be an error. It is an understandable one, since the General Secretary had the Chief administrative position, and thus the greatest practical influence on church affairs.

- 9. The median average Sunday attendance of responding churches was less than 40 (Pairoj 1985:7-8).
- 10. Chai Samarn Church is associated with the Pentecostal Assemblies of Canada (PAOC). Many foreign visitors know it better by the sign on Soi 6 (Chai Samarn), Sukhumwit Road identifying it as the "Full Gospel Church."
- 11. It is not uncommon for Thai churches to have memberships exceeding attendance. In some cases membership is more than double attendance. An estimate of the number of Christians actually to be found in church on a given Sunday in Bangkok has yet to be compiled.
- 12. He was converted through the work of Southern Baptist missionaries, who began work in Thailand shortly after World War Two (cf. Snith 1982:222). The Southern Baptists are known in Thailand as the Thailand Baptist Mission, registered independently of both the CCT and the Evangelical Fellowship of Thailand. They are not to be confused with the Thailand Baptist Missionary Fellowship, which is composed of American Baptist missionaries working mostly with CCT churches.
- 13. The **Presbyterian** system appears to have divided members among **organized** northern Thai churches on a territorial basis. Thus, the Chiengmai Church, defined as such by the existence of an officially ordained board of ruling elders, included members scattered throughout the province, most of whom could rarely afford the several days trip to the urban center. Chapels within a church's more distant territories compensated by providing local centers for worship and social contact and **support**, even though the Presbytery would not yet officially ordain elders.
- 14 Dr. would use a similar strategy some 90 years later in his Thailand Bible Seminary, with great effect.

- 15. Though some modern interpreters suggest the "religion in the formula means loyalty to the religion of one's own choosing, King Vajiravudh's own statements seemed to draw a clear distinction between "Thai" Buddhism and "foreign" religions such as Christianity (cf. Prasith 1984:49-50; Smith 1982:175-176).
- 16. It was originally known as the Church of Christ in Si as the nation's name had not yet been changed to **Thailand.**
- 17. It is outranked, according to the latent available figures, by the predominantly Chinese Maitrichit and Saphan Luang churches, both in Bangkck and also membe of the CCT.
- 18. By comparison, there were a total of only 756 church members in all of Thailand in 1935 (Bill Smith, Thail Baptist Mission, personal communication). The crowds quoted for Sung are suspiciously large, however. The 500 capacity (at most) auditorium of Boonmark's Bangk Church was said to be the largest when constructed over a decade after World War Two, although Blanford claims that title for the auditorium of the Saphan Luang Church, completed 1954, with a claimed capacit of 1000 (1975:42). Blanford notes that Maitrichit's auditorium, completed in 1935, seats only 400. This was producedly the site of Sung's first Thailand Crusa(1975:34)
- 19. Other accounts of Sung's work can be found in Lyall (1961) and in Smith (1982:195-197). Prasith's treatment of John Sung's Thailand visits and their sftermath (1984: 82-88) is by far the best, and deserves translation into English.
- 20. In 1937 Mrs. Withayakhom (Bertha Blount McFarland) wro that 99.5% of the Thai Christians had neither knowledge nor interest in the workings of the new church governance structures (Prasith 1984:70). Note Rev. Pluang's comments above on p. 47.
- 21. It is significant that the proposed school was to be headed by a missionary supporter of Sung rather than by a Thai. The move was not **anti-foreign**, but rather an attempt to give the Thai **leadership** control over **in** way in which its next generation would be trained.

- 22. This action effectively legalized all that Boonmark had done over the previous two years.
- 23. Prasith (1984) appears to give this group exclusive credit for keeping the church alive and active through the war.
- 24. Boonmark had had previous contact with ICC's founder, Dr. Carl McIntyre, translating for him when he had spoken in Thailand earlier. It is possible that these contacts influenced Boonmark in such as way as to increase the heat of his conflicts.
- 25. In one recent case, denominational leaders started a rival church of their own within a few blocks of an existing pastor whose successes and adoption of Pentecostal teaching had made him nearly immune to denominational controls.
- 26. Shaffer (1974:32) spells his name "Osborn," while Smith (1982:252) opts for "Osborne." I do not know which is correct, because all the other citations I have heard have been oral.
- 27. In Trang, Osborne's meetings led to the conversion of a Chinese woman whose daughter would later marry the future Rev. Dr.
- 28. Charan claims it could seat 500, making it the largest Thai church in the city at the time. Although Blanford (1975:42) claims a larger capacity for the Sanam Luang church completed in 1954, this was still almost exclusively a Chinese-language church at the time. Boonmark, incidentally, seems to have never pastored a "Chinese church," despite the claims of Smith (1982: 252).
- 29. Along this line, it is significant that one of the advantages the Pentecostals are accused of having used to gain members is "good speakers."
- 30. Not exactly a voluntary move, several have suggested privately that this was caused by a personal indiscretion on Boonmark's part.
- 31. Boonmark died in May 1987, some 90 years old.

 The UPC is still reported to have head offices in Bangkok.

 It is reportedly led by Rev. Chaiyong, who had been one of Boonmark's lieutenants. The UPC never joined the EFT, and so is no longer listed in any Christian Directory.

 I have so far failed to contact UPC at its most recent number.

- 32. Two of CCT's districts today are organized in line with Baptist doctrine and governance structures. There are also missionaries from Anglican, Disciples, and Lutheran bodies as well. Furthermore, several CCT congregations are known to be charismatic, some apparently having been so since the days of Boonmark's initial involvement with the Pentecostal movement.
- 33. The strength of this influence and its associated values led One Thai anthropologist to joke privately that Thai youth today known "disco culture" better than they know Thai culture.
- 34. In a gross example, a textbook required at the main Open University for a recent course on Thai Iscal government devoted a major portion of its pages to discussion of American county government. The professor, naturally, had done his M.A. studies in California.
- 35. Fluency in English, preferably with **some** foreign education, is considered essential to get better-paying jobs.
- 36. Dr. Henry Briedenthal had been a driving force in the establishment of Bangkok Bible College in 1970, and was himself widely respected as a Bible teacher.
- 37. While Pairoj does not mention Hope of Bangkok by name in the report, he has confirmed in person that this was in fact the church referred to.
- 38. The stories I personally attempted to verify at the time tended to contain just enough accurate information to enable one to identify the characters and/or the event sparking the rumor. The rest had usually been greatly distorted by guesswork and intent to defame.
- 39. Hope of Bangkok did not join EFT until late 1984. Even then, church leadership would have preferred official registration with the government as a separate religious foundation, in hopes of minimizing outside interference. in internal affairs.
- 40. KC's name was included, report dly with his reluctance, on this committee. It does not sem to have functioned, however.

- 41. The reader may have noticed that membership grew much faster than attendance over this period. Nevertheless, the rising membership indicates the large number becoming Christians and becoming initially involved in cell groups over the period, eince converts tended not to sign up for membership until having attended a few weeks. Thus, the nationwide problem of retantion of converts remains a problem even at Hope of Bangkok (cf. Johnstone (1986:406) on the nationwide "backsliding" problem. Smith's criticism of the CCT's and CMA's retention rates (1982:158, 233-235) could probably have applied to all groups, had figures been made available and examined.).
- 42. Church leaders would certainly want to avoid the religious veneration that such "images" tend to attract in Thailand.
- 43. Officially reported figures based on a random sample in mid-rebruary based on the data from 1820 membership applications, showed that 81% of applicants had become Christians at Hope of Bangkok, and only 11% said that they had ever been members elsewhere. The church's new membership drive had already inflated the lists with applicants who failed to become permanently active, however. If we assume (and the evidence does not exist to prove this) that most of the Christians transferring from elsewhere remained active, then from the above figures we could estimate the percentage in church on a given Sunday who transferred from elsewhere as high as 30-35%. This is slightly lower than an estimate I made in late 1985 on the basis of a complete survey of 700 membership forms. A high number of incomplete membership forms makes both figures of questionable value, however.

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