臺勢教會 The Taiwanese Making of the Canada Presbyterian Mission

Mark A. Dodge

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Acknowledgements

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My advisor, Kristen Stapleton, deserves the most credit in guiding me along the way of this project. She inherited me as a student when my prior advisor, Roger Des Forges, retired. Stapleton took me on despite my many weaknesses and checked every source I found and reread every word I wrote at least five times as she guided me toward the completion of this project. Mark Nathan, Yan Liu, and Sasha Pack all contributed significant comments and guidance, and Chen Chirong offered expert guidance in the location and translation of Taiwanese sources. Roger Des Forges, who returned from retirement to sit on my committee emeritus, was the first professor to believe in me, and stuck with me until the very end.

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A Note on the Romanization of Chinese

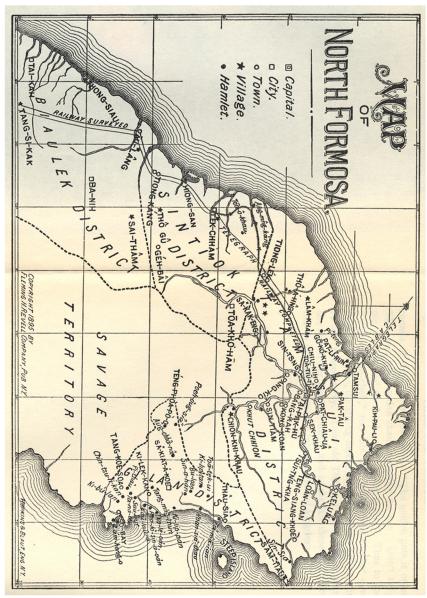
Chinese is a very difficult language, and one that is particularly difficult to transliterate into the Latin alphabet. This is further complicated by the fact that every region of China has its own local dialect with its own distinctive pronunciation. In 1958 the Communist government of China introduced Hanyu Pinyin—a standardized system for writing Chinese in Latin letters that was meant to be universal, and is learned by most students of Chinese today. In 1958, however, Taiwan was considered the Republic of China, still at war with People's Republic of China, and therefore did not adopt the PRC's universal new system, opting instead to continue to use a nineteenth-century standard known as the Wade-Giles system. Before 1892, when Herbert Giles published the system that he and Francis Wade developed, there was no universal standard for spelling Chinese in transliteration, and the same word was often spelled differently by different people depending upon the regional dialect that the writer was familiar with.

In Taiwan, where Herbert Giles spent several years developing his transliteration scheme not far from the Canada Presbyterian Mission, most English speakers used a system of transliteration known as Pe-oe-ji. Pe-oe-ji was developed by missionaries from the English Presbyterian Church and was based on the Amoy dialect, also known as Hokkien. About the same time that Giles was collaborating with Wade to develop a more universal standard for writing Chinese, the Japanese acquired Taiwan subsequent to the first Sino-Japanese war. The Japanese called this Taiwanese dialect Fukkien or Fukkienese, and transliterated Chinese character based on their own standard, and the Japanese pronunciation of those characters. In short, this means that every word used in nineteenth-century Taiwan has at least three and sometimes as many as five or six variant spellings that were in common use at that time, and two variant spellings that are upheld as "standard" today.

When I began this work, I intended to avoid this confusion by spelling every word precisely the way I found it spelled in my sources, but soon found this to be untenable, especially when my sources disagreed. Wherever possible I have opted to be true to the Canada Presbyterian Mission that I am writing about and use the original Pe-oe-ji spellings for proper names and common terms. The first time I introduce each term, and again in the index, I include in parentheses after the word both the Chinese character and the contemporary pinyin spelling. In some cases, the Pe-oe-ji spelling for otherwise common words is so distinctive that I could not in good conscious use it. I felt, for example, that Beng (明, Ming) would be unduly confusing to most readers. On

the other hand, since it was used so many times in the work, I opted to keep the Pe-oe-ji term Chheng (清, Qing) which is not spelled much different than the Wade-Giles "Ch'hing" and looks to be pronounced similarly.

For people and places whose names were never, to my knowledge (or in my sources), recorded in Pe-oe-ji, I kept the prevailing transliteration from the literature. In many cases this meant using Wade-Giles transliterations that are standard in Taiwan today, but there are some Hanyu Pinyin transliterations as well. In each case I have done my best to provide multiple transliterations to promote disambiguation, but there are some names for which I still have not been (and may never be) able to locate the original characters. My hope is that the great many names that I have been able to identify, in conjunction with the appendices previously published by Louise Gamble and Chen Kuan-chou will provide help future researchers to accurately identify many of the people and places written about by the Canada Presbyterian Church.



 $\label{eq:Figure 1.1.} \textbf{Map of the North Formosa Mission reprinted with permission of the Canada Presbyterian Church.}$

Introduction: The Miracle Mission

I first came across George Leslie Mackay while studying the rise of the Spanish silver trade in the "early-modern" Pacific in a footnote in an article about a small Spanish fort, Forte San Domingo, in Tamsui (淡水, Danshui), Taiwan. As it turned out, Mackay's birthplace, Embro, Ontario, was only an hour's drive from Buffalo where I was doing my graduate work at the time, so I decided to look into him further. Soon after, I met Michael Stainton of the Canada Mackay Committee, an important cultural and political advocate for the Taiwanese community in Canada. Stainton introduced me to several of Mackay's living descendants, and to a vibrant religious community that reveres Mackay almost as a Saint.

As a student of comparative coloniality, I was intellectually unprepared to find a British Imperialist so popular among the people he helped to colonize. I immediately dismissed this positive image, choosing to believe it was merely the imaginary of a small group of religious expatriates, hardly representative of the Taiwanese people in general. The history of imperialism, after all, offers an abundance of examples of imperialists who, because of the political and economic alliances they forged, were beloved by one group of colonized people and simultaneously despised by others. Those who had benefitted from Mackay's had certainly left their imprint on the historical narrative of his mission, but I was sure that there were other people who had been disenfranchised, dispossessed, or abused in Colonial Taiwan who had a different untold perspective of the Presbyterian missionary. But my suspicions were not confirmed. The deeper I studied Mackay, the more I realized that he truly was as beloved as the standard narrative claimed. The prevailing image of Mackay throughout Taiwan continues to be overwhelmingly positive—even amongst non-Christians.1

Mackay's positive image was even more surprising, in light of Ryan Dunch's assertion that over the past three-quarters of a century the historiography of Christian missiology has increasingly adopted the pejorative trope of "cultural imperialism" to describe the interactions of missionaries and the people they attempted to convert. "Missionaries," Dunch claims, "are routinely portrayed in both literature and scholarship as narrow-minded chauvinists whose presence and preaching destroyed indigenous cultures and opened the way for the extension of colonial rule." While there remains some prejudice against Christianity as a foreign religion in Taiwan today, and a general

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atmosphere of distrust for anything considered to be too "western," there are also seven larger-than-life statues of George Leslie Mackay scattered about Taiwan. In addition, a dozen or more museum and historical gardens have been built in his honor, and three hospitals are named after him. Unlike the oft-attacked effigies of Chiang Kai-shek (蔣介石, Jiang Jieshi) that adorn the island, nobody has defaced any of the statues of Mackay. The question that initially piqued my interest in this line of research was how did this Canadian missionary become so popular among the Taiwanese people he colonized?

Mackay's life accomplishments were impressive. A bright young man from a Scottish farming community in the borderland region of Zorra County, Ontario, Mackay pledged his life to missionary work at a young age, and found his way to Tamsui Taiwan with little more than a trunk full of books and a few Christian pamphlets translated into Chinese. He had spent a few months studying Chinese on his own with books he had acquired at Knox College in Toronto, and at Edinburgh in Scotland, but could not hold a basic conversation in Chinese when he was left alone with a single "helper" to plant his mission in Northern Taiwan. After nearly six months of travelling, he arrived in the northern port of Tamsui, a mere fishing village of only a few hundred souls, which he chose specifically because no other Christian worker had been there before him.

With limited resources and no significant outside support, he proceeded to build 60 mission stations, Taiwan's first "western"-style hospital, a theological college, and Taiwan's first school for girls. At the time of his death in 1901, an incomplete census conducted by his successor, William Gauld, enumerated 2,617 baptized Taiwanese, 59 native preachers, 41 registered elders, and 57 deacons. The size of the Christian community that Mackay founded leads most scholars of his mission to agree that he was one of the most successful missionaries of the nineteenth century.

Some have argued that Taiwan was a particularly hospitable environment for the building of Christian missions. In some respects I will provide new evidence that supports these arguments by arguing for the existence of an exceptional class of disenfranchised elites in Chheng (清, Qing) Taiwan who had as much to gain from embracing Christianity as mainland elites hoped to gain by banning it. But building a Protestant mission in Taiwan was, by no means, an easy undertaking. The language was difficult and non-uniform. The Taiwanese were more than a little xenophobic, and rock- and dung- throwing and physical attacks were not uncommon reactions to foreigners. In the inland mountains, interpersonal violence was a regular affair, as indigenous tribes fought a guerrilla war against Han Chinese encroachment, regularly killing settlers and taking their heads as prizes. The Chheng, in return, sponsored regular pogroms to destroy villages and exterminate their inhabitants.

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Disease was also endemic to the island. Malaria, cholera, encephalitis, leprosy, tuberculosis, and influenza were all common. Nearly every year of the twentynine that Mackay kept diaries for during his mission to Taiwan noted at least one epidemic that spread through the country and took a toll in human life. Mackay, himself, was incapacitated due to illness forty-two times during the first eighteen years of his mission—three of these times for a month or more, nearly dying on at least two separate occasions. Interestingly, in the last twelve years of his mission he was sick only three more times before he began to experience the symptoms of the throat cancer that he died of in 1901.⁵

Over the thirty years of his career in Taiwan, eight colleagues joined Mackay from Canada, but all but the last two, William and Mary Gauld, did not make it in the harsh environs of Taiwan. Two died of illness, two lost children to illness and three of the four others left amid accusations of incompetence, driven out by locals who did not want them there. The Gaulds, who survived George Leslie Mackay and became the *de facto* heads of the Canada Presbyterian Mission when he died, were also the subjects of scathing indictments drafted by the Taiwanese members of the mission. Mary Gauld, too, eventually left Taiwan with her children, never to return. The experiences of Mackay's Canadian "helpers," I hope, will illustrate that while Taiwan might have been particularly receptive to Christian proselytization, proselytizing there was not a safe nor easy venture. Even amongst missionaries who worked entirely in Taiwan, Mackay's work stands out as exceptional.

Hamish Ion says the Mackay mission must be judged as "phenomenally successful" by any standard. "Any standard," of course, being a reference to the quantifiable victories noted from Gauld's reports above—the sixty mission stations, hospital, college, girls' school and three thousand baptized converts he left behind. In comparison, David Livingstone, the famed missionary whose work in Africa was one of the inspirations for Mackay's "native mission," baptized only one convert in his lifetime. The China Inland Mission, co-founded by Mackay's childhood idol, William Chalmers Burns and Hudson Taylor, which became the central body in the strategic evangelization of Chheng China, had 89 more missionaries than the Canada Presbyterian Mission in 1886 and had been established fifteen years earlier, but could claim only 186 more communicants than Mackay and his two colleagues boasted.

According to Jane Hunter, missionary activity on the mainland was "largely unsuccessful." It took ten years of proselytizing in Foochow (福州, Fuzhou) before missionaries could claim their first convert, and by 1860 the fifty missionaries in that city could boast only sixty-six converts between them.⁸ Even Matteo Ricci, the first Jesuit missionary to China, whose work was so respected by the Chinese that the Chheng Emperor later expelled all Christian missionaries who did not agree to follow Ricci's teachings, "conceded that

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despite his efforts, 'the number of baptized individuals was not what was desired.'" After nearly fifty years of work by dozens of missionaries in several of China's largest cities, the Jesuits had fewer than two thousand Chinese communicants—far fewer than Mackay managed in just thirty years, mostly alone, in the rural wilderness of Northern Taiwan. As Rohrer put it, [by 1900] "there were some 3000 Protestant missionaries labouring in China, yielding a mere 30-40 Chinese Christians for each foreign missionary. Without any question, then, the response to Mackay's efforts in Taiwan was remarkably favourable." And still, few scholars have made any serious attempt to study the underlying reasons for that success, or the legacy it has had for the people of Taiwan.

Scholars who have analyzed other Christian missions in East Asia have come up with several different hypotheses about the conditions that led to mission success. Some, like Alvyn Austin, have suggested that the personal genius of individual missionaries and the strategies they chose were the keys to their success. ¹¹ Liam Brockey, in studying Jesuit missions in China during the sixteenth- and seventeenth- centuries, also appears to suggest that the skills and training of individual missionaries was the main ingredient for their early successes. Matteo Ricci's astounding intellectual and linguistic abilities, for example, allowed him to command the respect of Ming (明, Ming) intelligentsia despite having very little structural or outside economic support to rely on. ¹²

Ricci donned the robes of a Confucian scholar and attempted to utilize the strategy of proselytizing the nobility that his predecessors, Francis Xavier, Comte de Torres, and Juan Fernandez had developed with such success in Japan fifty years earlier. In Japan, these early Jesuits were able to convert entire communities by proving their intellectual value to the individual daimyo. In the first 50 years of the Jesuit mission to Japan, a few dozen missionaries had converted as many as three-hundred-thousand Japanese to Catholicism. But these successes were short-lived. Toyotomi Hideyoshi began executing and expelling Jesuits in 1597, and his successor, Tokugawa Ieyasu outlawed Christianity entirely in 1614, leading to mass executions of those who refused to repent the faith.¹³

Ricci never achieved the level of mass conversion that the Jesuit Mission in Japan enjoyed during its "Christian Century," but his thought and writing were so esteemed that when the Kang-hsi Emperor (康熙, Kangxi) decided to follow the Japanese example and expel Christian missionaries from China, he made special provisions allowing those that followed the rules of Ricci to remain. ¹⁴ Brockey concludes that the Jesuits' lack of political (and by this he primarily means military) support was the difference that limited the success of early Catholic missions in comparison to nineteenth-century Protestant ventures. [In China,] "The Jesuits could not summon a European army to

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force a change of heart among those who rebuked them or denied the veracity of their theological arguments... Had European soldiers and settlers rather than other missionaries joined them, perhaps their spiritual legacy would have been as enduring in China as it was in other lands where they established missions."¹⁵

Chung-Shin Park, concurs with Brockey in the importance of politics to the success of Christian missions. In his analysis of Protestant success in Korea, he concluded that specific local political conditions were the primary factor in missionary success.

Underlying the remarkable growth of the new religion from the West was a new spirit of reform amidst feelings of frustration with the encroachment of Japan and, later, a desire to regain independence from Japanese colonial rule. After the liberation from Japan in 1945, church growth accelerated. This was achieved in a pro-Western, pro-Christian atmosphere created by secular political forces. Following the Korean War, along with the social and political unrest accompanying rapid economic growth and urbanization in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, the congregations continued to grow. ¹⁶

While Park's analysis of Protestant endeavors in Korea extends much further into the twentieth century than this study of the Canada Presbyterian Mission in Taiwan, I will argue that similar anti-imperial political sentiments to those Park finds behind the adoption of "western" religion in Korea also played an important role in Northern Taiwan. Ironically, in these contested colonial spaces, Protestantism was associated with nationalist movements rather than foreign colonial designs.

James Rohrer also contends that the political climate in Taiwan was a critical, and over-looked factor, in the success of the Canada Presbyterian Mission. According to Rohrer,

It is clear that conversion occurs more often in societies experiencing cultural strains than in stable societies. New religions take root and grow most readily in societies which are being strongly impacted by foreign cultures, in which social controls are weak and inadequate to provide individuals with security, and in which traditional sources of authority fail to satisfactorily meet the felt needs of individuals who are undergoing crisis. A partial list of factors associated with conversion includes wars and other forms of foreign aggression; dislocations caused by rapid economic change; epidemic disease; and political revolution. Converts are also more likely to be people who lack stable personal

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