THE PARADIGM OF THE PERPHERY IN NATIVE NORTH AMERICA

HONORS THESIS

Presented to the Honors Committee of Texas State University-San Marcos in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for Graduation in the University Honors Program

by

Christopher Bolfing

San Marcos, Texas May 2010

THE PARADIGM OF THE PERPHERY IN NATIVE NORTH AMERICA

	Thesis Supervisor:
	F. Kent Reilly, III, Ph.D. Department of Anthropology
	Second Reader:
	Audrey McKinney, Ph.D. Department of Philosophy
Approved:	

COPYRIGHT

by

Christopher Bolfing

2010

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my grandfather, who first turned me to the path of spirituality and balance with the natural world around us. His spirit still lives in those he loved.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge Dr. F. Kent Reilly, III for his extensive help on this project. He provided a sounding board for ideas, edited my work multiple times, and kept me from giving up with his confidence in my abilities. His expertise, enthusiasm, and willingness to explore new ideas and avenues of thought are an inspiration. I cannot thank him enough for providing the opportunities for me to meet and work with both Native Americans and the scholarly experts in the field of Native North American archaeology and iconography.

I would like to acknowledge Dr. Audrey McKinney for her help as a second reader on this thesis. She helped me edit my work, especially the philosophical aspects of this multi-disciplinary thesis. She also provided a metaphorical shoulder to lean on when criticism of my interdisciplinary approach seemed too much to bear. She has also demonstrated a willingness to help her students succeed that has acted as a life-preserver throughout my studies at Texas State.

I would like to thank my family, my friends, and my girlfriend for being patient with my lack of inter-personal

skills while I undertook this thesis. Their constant support and encouragement helped provide the motivation to continue and complete this project. I cannot thank them enough for being there for me, even when I may not have been there for them.

Finally, I would like to the thank the members of the White Earth Square Grounds for welcoming me so warmly. With you all, I feel as if I have finally found a true home. Fourfold thanks to Emv, Mekko, the Heleshaya (and his assistants), and most especially the Fire for welcoming me.

Mvto, mvto, mvto, mvto!

This manuscript was submitted on May 13, 2010.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF	FIGURESix
ABSTRAC:	r xi
INTRODUC	TION 1
	PART I - How can we know about what we see?
CHAPTER	1 - PHILOSOPHY 8
	On Cosmogony and the Phenomenology of Cosmology: The Formulation and Explication of Subconscious Cultural Paradigms
	Cosmology and Circular Time: The Context of the Placement of the World in the Greater Southeast
	2 - THEORY AND METHOD 25
	Tradition and Sacred Knowledge Center and Periphery
	Urbanization, Core Hegemony, and Interaction Spheres
	PART II - What is it that we see?
CHAPTER	3 - CAHOKIA
CHAPTER	4 - MOUNDVILLE
	Geographical and Cultural Aspects of Moundville Temporal Aspects of Moundville
CHAPTER	5 - THE LAMAR AREA
	Geographical Aspects of the Area The Etowah and Lake Jackson Interaction Sphere Cultural Sequences in the Area

PART III - What can we learn about what we see?

CHAPTER 6 - INTERPRETATION
Contextualizing the Relevant Data: Medium
Shell: Engraved shell & the Delineation of Sacred Space
Copper: Repoussé plates & Categorization by
Aspects
Stone: Understanding Power through Aspects
Contextualizing the Relevant Data: Symbolism The Natural and Political Environment
Warfare, Ritual, and Elite Validation
CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS
Where does this bring us?
Model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery"
Where do we go from here?
REFERENCES AND WORKS CITED 113
VITA

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1 - Hypothetical cosmological model (drawn by author)	18
1.2 - Cox Mound Style Shell Gorget with "looped square" from the Castalian Springs site in Tennessee, AD 1000-140 (from Townsend and Sharp, 2004: 208)	
1.3 - Traditional Cherokee "medicine wheel" and a three dimensional rendition of the "medicine wheel" along a vertical axis (drawn by author)	22
3.1 Site Map of Cahokia (Brown, 2004:112)	39
3.2 - Map of the American Bottom area of the Mississippi Valley (Brown, 2004: 112)	40
4.1 - Map of the Moundville site (from Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 3)	49
4.2 - Map of the Moundville Chiefdom on the Black Warrior River (from Welch, 1998: 137)	
4.3 - Ceramic phases and developmental stages for the Moundville Chiefdom (from Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 8)	53
4.4 - "Rattlesnake Disc", Moundville (from Moore, 1996: 34)	5 6
4.5 - Diagram of a Chickasaw camp square. The ranking of house groups is shown in the margin and the cross-in-circ motif represents a council fire (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 5)	
4.6 - Settlement changes at Moundville from Early Moundville I through Moundville IV. Occupied mounds are black. (from Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a:14)	60
5.1 - The Lamar Area (from Williams and Shapiro, 1990:	63

Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of Natural History, Washington D.C. Catalogue Numbers 110 (Left) and 111 (Right). (from Townsend and Sharp, eds., 2004: 150,
157)
5.3 - Plan Map of the Etowah site (King, 2007: 108)
5.4 - Etowah site Phase Sequence (King, 2007: 117)
5.5 - Ethnic Areas in Northern Florida, showing the location of the Lake Jackson site (Williams and Shapiro, 1990: 179)
6.1 - Shell cup fragments from Spiro, OK (on loan from the Museum of Fine Arts Houston to the Houston Museum of Natural Science, HMNS Loan 32.1998.04 (left) and HMNS Loan 32.1998.08 (right), photos by author)
6.2 - Burial 7 from the Warren Wilson site in North Carolina, excavations by Bennie Keel. Left: Close-up of the Burial showing the interred shell (Dickens, 1976: 157). Right: Close-up of the columella shell beads and small conch shell shown on the left (Dickens, 1976: 159)
6.3 - Basketry Fragment with Copper, Spiro, OK, AD 1200-1350, (from the A.T. McDannald Collection, Houston Museum of Natural Science, No. HMNS 1750, photo by author)
6.4 - Engraved Shell Gorget (AD 1250-1350) depicting an anthropomorphic figure wielding a "baton" and a trophy head, found in Tennessee at the Castalian Springs site (from Townsend and Sharp, eds., 2004: 190)
6.5 - Copper Repoussé headdress elements from the Lake Jackson site in northern Florida, depicting the "baton" with cross motif (from King, ed., 2007: 143)
7.1 - Six-phase Ideological Model of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as it pertains to the movement of symbolism and ideology within the environment (diagram by author)

ABSTRACT

The "Paradigm of the Periphery" is an analytical model that allows for interpretation of how symbolism and sacred traditions spread from their original inception points. When these traditions and ideologies disappear in urbanized core centers, such as Cahokia, Moundville, Etowah, and Lake Jackson of the Greater Southeast, they can continue in the periphery of the society and outlive the core center itself. This thesis will explore the philosophical concept of subconscious cultural paradigms that establish limits to the interpretation of perceptions through the socialization process. The use of these paradigms of thought allows the data from the use of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" model to be contextualized within a specific cultural schema.

INTRODUCTION

Paradigms of Thought and Paradigms as Analytical Models

This thesis will explore the explanatory power of the application of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" to the interactions amongst the cultural groups of the Greater Southeast in the relationships between core centers and peripheral areas of culture. The "Paradigm of the Periphery" is a model of cultural survival. It states that often when ideas, symbolism, religious ideology, or political forms disappear at the point of their inception, they continue to survive in the peripheral areas of the society (Reilly, personal communication, February 2010). The Greater Southeast is the area of prehistoric North America that stretched from the Atlantic coast of Florida to eastern Oklahoma and from the coast of the Gulf of Mexico to Illinois. The interactions amongst cultural groups of this extended cultural area are exhibited through shared sacred traditions and symbolism. The perseverance of these sacred traditions and symbolism illustrates how the

"Paradigm of the Periphery" can function as a model of cultural survival.

Analyzing data under the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Greater Southeast, however, needs the identification of a subconscious cultural paradigm that provides the means of constructing a valid interpretation of the cultural data available in the archaeological record. This underlying subconscious cultural paradigm is a model of thought that identifies how ideological constructs such as world-view and the methods of categorization of information shape the interpretation of perceptions. World-views, which make use of these subconscious cultural paradigms, function in a subconscious manner by establishing limitations to the possible interpretations of the perceptions of sense data received from the environment and society. As such, these paradigms provide a window into the minds of people bound by a particular cultural pattern. Establishing a cultural context for the analysis of data provides a relevant grounding for the use of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as an analytical model.

This thesis will use the subconscious cultural paradigms of modern peoples identified through historical accounts, mythology, and iconography. This will provide the foundations necessary to upstream from both modern and

historic people to the prehistoric people of the Greater Southeast. The upstreaming method is the process of using cultural information from more recent cultures to interpret data from older cultures. Upstreaming in this way establishes a cogent interpretation of the archaeological data situated within a cultural context of usage and meaning. As Søren Kierkegaard said, "life has to be lived forward, but can only be understood backward."

This essay will then identify how the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as a basic model functions in a geographical context in single site core centers, by using the examples of Cahokia in Illinois and Moundville in Alabama. These two sites were the largest core centers in the prehistoric Greater Southeast. In geographic core centers, there are environmental, political, and social factors that accompany the processes of urbanization and increased population. These processes provide the prerequisites for the inception of religious symbolism and rituals to create balance and harmony in the socially diverse core center (Emerson, 1997: 19-21). Cahokia and Moundville represent these inception points because they are the earliest evidence of the emergence of the symbolism and rituals that are characteristic of the Mississippian Period of the Greater Southeast.

The thesis will then broaden its scope of analysis by using more regionalized areas of the southeast, using the Lamar area as an example. In these regional areas, the "Paradigm of the Periphery" explains a purely ideological transmission of cultural information within the interactions of peoples on interregional bases. The ability of this paradigm to function as an analytical model for interpreting the rich archaeological data found in the Greater Southeast will be illustrated throughout.

I have divided this thesis into three parts. Part I will examine the concept of "How can we know about what it is we see?" by establishing a philosophical and theoretical foundation upon which an analysis of data can be formulated. Part I includes Chapters 1 and 2. The first section of Chapter 1 focuses on the formulation and explication of subconscious cultural paradigms that limit the interpretations of perceptions. The establishment of these limits of perception provides a way to delineate the data within a cultural context, thus situating the interpretations in a coherent model of how groups of people conceive of the world. The second section of Chapter 1 provides an explanation of the Creater Southeast,

including a brief description of how the concept of time functions in these cultures.

Chapter 2 sets forth important theoretical concepts used in this essay. It begins by explicating the concepts of tradition and sacred knowledge, major concepts used in the application of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as an analytical model. The concept and history of use of the center/periphery contradistinction follows, which provides a background to and support for the validity of the "Paradigm of the Periphery." The last section of Chapter 2 provides an explication of the processes involved in the creation, centralization, and expansion of urbanized core centers and the interregional trade and interaction networks of which they become part. These concepts are necessary to understand the social factors that contribute to the movement of peoples and, by proxy, the sacred knowledge and traditions of their society.

Part II will present the data on single site and regional cultural evaluations of population movement. It examines the fundamental question "What is it that we see?" Part II includes two major subsections. The first subsection, Chapters 3 and 4, examines the inception points of interregional symbolism and sacred traditions (Cahokia and Moundville). This section focuses on single site core

centers and the use of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in a geographical context. The second division, Chapter 5, examines a larger interregional area, demonstrating how the "Paradigm of the Periphery" can also function in an ideological context, in addition to the geographical context posited in the first section.

Part III examines the fundamental question "What can we learn about what we see?" and includes Chapters 6 and 7. The first section of Chapter 6 examines how archaeological evidence contextualized within a cultural framework can provide a glimpse into the political and social workings of a society. It will also elucidate the distinct method of categorization in use by the peoples of the Greater Southeast. The second section of Chapter 6 analyzes particular themes within the interregional symbolism of these peoples, contextualizing it within the cultural framework within which it arises. Chapter 7 contains the conclusions. It reviews the concepts postulated in the thesis, drafts a model of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Greater Southeast, and posits future areas of research where this analytical model could be useful.

Part I - How Can We Know About What We See?

CHAPTER 1 - PHILOSOPHY

On Cosmogony and the Phenomenology of Cosmology: The Formulation and Explication of Perception under Subconscious Cultural Paradigms

The processes of socialization and enculturation are necessary to the human condition (Berger and Luckman, 1967: 19-20, Berger, 1969: 3). They bring the essential environmental stimuli to provide the possibility of the development of language and the means for social interaction. However, because not all societies are identical, the socialization and enculturation of a person into a specific culture is determined by unique cultural traits. These traits are bound to the specific culture within which they are established.

Culture-bound traits function subconsciously in the establishment of distinct parameters to the interpretation of perceptions. These parameters are apparent in the fixation of dialects or accents exhibited in language, such as the inflections of a particular dialect or accent brought about by regionality. Regionality is the tendency of people to group together with those like themselves rather than intermingling and interspersing randomly

(Berger, 1969: 4-6, 106-108). The old saying "birds of a feather flock together" exemplifies this concept. Thus, people form together into a region that exhibits similar characteristic traits, which are generally subjectively unconscious, but are objectively observable, such as dialects. Without a certain amount of voice and linguistic training, a person's dialect, as learned through primary socialization in the earliest years of development, is subconsciously set as the person's norm or standard. This standard dialect then distinguishes other dialects as different from the person's own, rather than that person's dialect as different from another's dialect.

This fact demonstrates one of the parameters that is subconscious in both its function and its transmission concerning the formulation of language patterns. However, there exist other, more complicated and less easily explicated parameters within the subconscious of a socialized and enculturated individual, such as an overall world-view that encompasses cosmogony, cosmography, and cosmology. These parameters establish limits for the possible interpretations of perceptions within an individual consciousness.

Berger describes the processes of primary and secondary socialization to define how a society exists as

both a subjective and objective reality (Berger and Luckman, 1966: 129-147 and Berger 1967: 3-12). He states that because society exists as a collective subconscious agreement amongst the members of the society, it has a coercive effect on its constituency; in so much as it is impossible to return to a pre-socialized state after the socialization processes (ibid.). Primary socialization provides interaction knowledge to the enculturated person (i.e., a means for a person to function within a social atmosphere by providing the internalization of the existence of a generalized other). Secondary socialization provides institutional knowledge such as divisions of labor and gender roles of a society. Secondary socialization places the functional interacting being into an extant system of social interaction. The one-two punch of these two processes establishes culturally bound parameters in the form of subconscious paradigms within an individual and then places that individual into a system that is coherent with that paradigm.

The socialization of cosmology and cosmogony creates a subconscious paradigm that contextualizes the outside world within a framework that can include both natural and supernatural elements. The paradigm is an overarching concept that encompasses conceptions such as science and

religion, and provide a substantial contribution to the the establishment of world-views. These paradigms function subconsciously by managing the interpretations of sensate perceptions in a way that is below consciousness. Art, when placed within one of these cultural paradigms, then becomes an exemplification of the functioning of a subconscious cultural paradigm, and provides insight into the innerworkings of the society as a whole (Berger, 1972: 8-9 and Freeland, 2001: 58-59).

A cosmogony is the explanation for the creation and origins of existence as interpreted by a specific culture, which includes creation myths and the beliefs about the constituency of the universe. Thus, cosmogony is a creation belief about existence and the universe that incorporates the idea of existence as continuity. A particular creation belief, whether scientific or supernatural, establishes and maintains a concept of existence and provides a context or background to the idea of being. On the other hand, cosmology is an explanation for the world after creation, as established with the cosmogony. Cosmology includes the order and structure of the universe (i.e., cosmography), and the place of humans within this social construct.

Schrag posited a concept that overlaps with this subconscious cultural paradigm (Schrag, 1968: 120-124). His

world-ontology was an attempt at a theoretical reevaluation of ontology of finite reality that places being into a spatio-temporal gestalt unified by intentionality within a horizon form (Schrag, 1968: 120-124). This horizon form is the set of experiences that constitute an experienced-background and corresponds to the posited concept of subconscious cultural paradigms that limit the possible interpretations of perceptions. Schrag places the experiencer within a backdrop of experienced-background, maintaining that all meaning arises out of experience. Experience then functions within a system of phenomenal experience, field of experience (spatiality), and temporality of experience. He uses the concept of "intentionality" as the Husserlian directedness of consciousness towards an object, along with his horizonform to define the field in which the experience can have meaning to the experiencer.

I argue that Schrag's unified spatio-temporal gestaltist field, in which experience can be given meaning through the directedness of consciousness, has other constituent components beyond intentionality, time, and space that result directly from experiences within a social atmosphere. The subconscious cultural paradigms filter the perpetual cognizant moment of existence we define as

"being" in its most pure sense, as if through a lens established in early childhood by the socialization into a family group that participated in some type of social interaction with a larger society that has a shared subjectivity.

The interpretation of perceptions is synonymous to what Husserl referred to as the conception of an external object as something phenomenal, recognized in the consciousness of an individual (Husserl, 1962: 109-111, 246-250). Husserl argued that this underwent his process of phenomenological reduction and he could therefore be sure of it as the conception of an object of the directedness of consciousness (Husserl, 1962: 99-100, 155-158). However, the very interpretations of perceptions that Husserl believed indubitable are, in actuality, modeled within a paradigm that is both culture-bound and subconscious in both its expression and in its transmission, though it can be reflected upon, making it a part of consciousness.

THOUGHT EXPERIMENT: Suppose a person [A] who has lived in a desert all of his life and never been exposed to anyone who been outside this desert meets a man [B] who has traded with another man [C] who came from outside the desert and

spoke an entirely different language. Suppose now that the object of his trade was the lance-like head of a harpoon, used for hunting whales. What does the original man [A] see when he looks upon the object of which he has no comprehension of its origin, use, or even a word with which to call it, and even less of an idea of an ocean wherein these massive marine mammals called whales live?

This illustrates a problem with the reductionistic Husserlian approach, which demonstrates that when confronted with that which is foreign, you can become conscious of the limitations of the subconscious paradigm under which you have been enculturated. This places Husserl's phenomenological reduction as unfinished and thus, the identification of his philosophy as "assumptionless" was wrong. He had not reduced the phenomena to a pure state, as he claimed, that he could be "absolutely sure of" as there is the possibility of error in misinterpretation of the interpretation of perceptions of objects of the directedness of consciousness that fall outside of the subconscious paradigms of the society with which he was enculturated. That is, Husserl's epoché fails to account for the enculturation of children into a society. This enculturation through language, the use of tools to

accomplish tasks (as well as the comprehension of the tools and their names), or the other subconscious transmissions of enculturated data is expressed in the contextualizing of sense qualia within a specific paradigm of thought that exists in the socio-cultural environment.

The subconscious cultural paradigms function as "ready-at-hand" aspects of consciousness by shaping the possibilities of the interpretation of the immediate awareness of consciousness within a defined set of boundaries (Heidegger, 2008: 78-90). To become aware of the paradigm and bring it from ready-at-hand to "present-tohand", it still functions ready-at-hand, below the awareness of consciousness, by providing limits to the interpretation of itself within the directedness or "aboutness" of consciousness. It may seem illogical that we could be both aware and unaware of these subconscious cultural paradigms at the same time, but this is precisely the case as we cannot think about anything without those thoughts being filtered through these paradigms. It seems that it cannot be simply "being in the world", which provides a context to existence, but also "being in a world". The world that Heidegger describes needs a specific context of a society that is both distinct (as unique from other societies) and certain (in the context of

that which exists), in order to allow those capacities that are ready at hand to exist at all. Furthermore, those ready-at-hand skills are culture bound to that specific world and are not transmittable except through the processes of migration of thought within distinct subconscious cultural paradigms or in the cases of acculturation and enculturation of secondary cultures.

A world-view is necessarily dependent upon the interpretation of perception because it serves as a reference point for and background to the ways in which perceptions may have meaning applied to them. When a researcher is familiar with the world-views of a culture, the interpretations of cultural data can be limited to those existing within the cultural framework established via those world-views. This limiting process provides for better analyses of data, enabling a better understanding of the emic qualities of the culture that exist within such areas as politics, religion, art, and gender roles. Finally, for people who have lost much of their culture due to encroachment, relocation, and methods of acculturation, the learning of the cosmology and cosmogony of their people allows for a foundation for the construction of a cultural identity.

Cosmology and Circular Time: The Situatedness of the World in the Greater Southeast

The people of the Eastern Woodlands and Greater

Southeast conceived of the world as a multilayered entity.

While different cultural groups had different layers or

numbering, the standard cosmology separates the world into

three parts (see Figures 1.1 and 1.3, see also Lankford,

2007a: 8-38). These three divisions are the above world,

the beneath world, and here-in-the-center, which is the

middle-world where humans reside and is usually regarded as

a turtle residing in the cosmic ocean (fig. 1.1).

The day sky is conceived of as being housed in the above world or sky vault, which rotates to the beneath world with the transition to night (Swanton, 2000: 477-478 and Reilly, 2004: 127). Likewise, with the setting of the sun, the day succumbs to the darkness of night and the beneath world rotates up, becoming the night sky visible to humans. Further delineations of the separations and distinctions of space occur due to the overlapping natures of "this" world and the "spirit" world, which exists like a mirror image to the reality we perceive in "this" world (Swanton, 2000: 514-515). These two spheres of reality coincide in all areas of the natural order. This

those people with the proper medicines, rituals, or knowledge to access the spirit worlds by interfacing the natural and supernatural (Eliade, 1964: 298-300). For example, access to the above world could be achieved through the sacred fire, while access to the below world could be achieved by traveling up the ball-pole, atop which is a representation of a fish (see fig. 1.1)

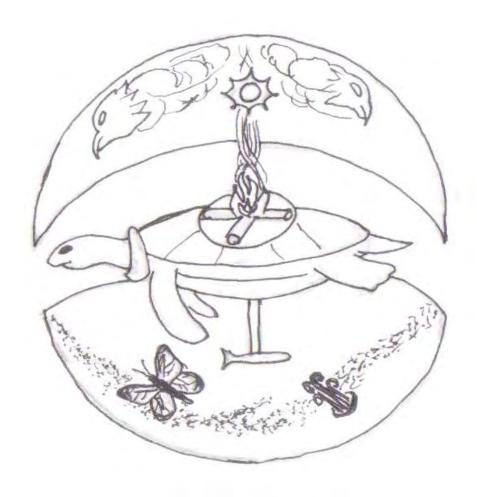


Fig. 1.1 - Hypothetical cosmological model (drawn by author)

Southeastern tribal groups such as the Cherokee and Myskoke conceived of the sky vault or above world as a stony plate secured to the middle world at the four corners with cords (Swanton, 2000: 477-481 and Reilly, 2004: 127). These cords are depicted in iconography by the looped square (fig. 1.2, see also Lankford, 2004: 207-217). The "above place" of the ancestors, accessible by traveling through the Milky Way after death, rested above this stony sky vault (Reilly, 2004: 125-137). The cords holding the above world to the middle world, usually represented as serpents referred to as "Grandfather," correspond to either the cardinal or semi-cardinal directions (see Lankford, 2007a: 8-38). Interestingly, the Mvskoke, Cherokee, and other southeastern tribes recognized an association with the semi-cardinal directions as masculine and the cardinal directions as feminine.

This division between the masculine and feminine reflects the social order of southeastern people, who were almost universally matrilineal. Understandably, in a matrilineal society in property was possessed and passed down through females, the most powerful directionality would be feminine. As will be explained, the most powerful directionality lies in the cardinal directions. In this dualistic separation of power is a deep-rooted sexual

metaphor played out in ritual, cosmology, and in the social interactions of the people. The basis of this metaphor is that men impregnate women, while women give birth in order to create new life.



Fig. 1.2 - Cox Mound Style Shell Gorget with "looped square" from the Castalian Springs site in Tennessee, AD 1000-1400 (from Townsend and Sharp, 2004: 208)

In matrilineal societies such as the Cherokee and Creeks in the Greater Southeast, the women own the ritual objects used in ritual ceremony. However, it is up to the men to use and manipulate them in the ritual ceremony, just as the man manipulates the womb to impregnate the woman, exhibiting this sexual metaphor in ritual. The feminine associations of the earth and moon and the masculine associations of the primordial waters and the sun exhibit this metaphor cosmologically (Chaudhuri and Chaudhuri, 2001: 18-19).

The matrilineal nature of the society itself evidences the sexual and dualistic distinction in the social context (Chaudhuri, 2001: 43-51, see also Perdue, 1998 and Mihesuah, 2003). Symbolically, the sexual duality and reciprocality further explains the cosmogram. The masculine ordinal directions are the location of the ties holding the sky vault, middle world, and below world together, just as men are the members of society that tie this world to the spirit world, above world, and beneath world through the use of ritual.

Culturally, color associations represent each cardinal direction and the aspect it represents (fig. 1.3, see also Mooney, 1982:342-343 and Swanton, 2000: 477-478). Black represents death and lies to the west. West is where the

sun descends, bringing upon night, and is the place where souls enter the Milky Way on their journey to the afterlife by jumping through the opening created by the movement of the sky vault (see Mooney 1982: 255-256). Red, usually a powerful warfare color, represents the east as the place where the sun ends night, as if through battle. However, as blood is a major part of the rituals of the southeast, providing sustenance for and a connection to the gods, red has ceremonial and ritualistic connections, exemplified by the fact that east is the direction from which new souls emerge on their journey to be reborn.

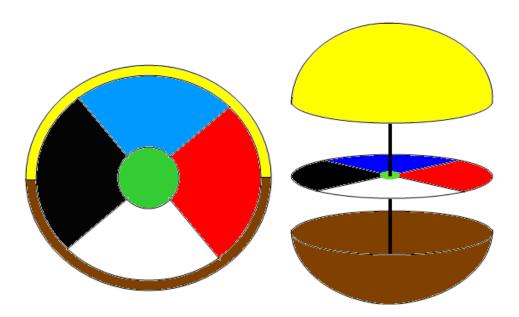


Fig. 1.3 - Traditional Cherokee "medicine wheel" and a three dimensional rendition of along a vertical axis (drawing by author)

To the south, the color association is white, a color representing peace, warmth, and comfort. The contradistinction placed to the north is associated with the color blue to elicit the meaning of coldness, sorrow, and pain. Evident by this layout of the cardinal directions and the associated color symbolism is a distinct system of opposing associations, which form a system of inherent duality. This dualistic system modeled itself after the most basic and necessary differences in sex that provide the basis for the continuation of life for the human species (Chaudhuri and Chaudhuri, 2001: 23-27, 44-46).

The Cherokee cosmogram, or "medicine wheel" (fig. 1.3), adds yet another dualistic representation to the level of complication in the cosmological representation. This cosmogram places brown at the bottom, with an association to the earth and the underworld, and yellow atop, representing the sky, sun, and above world. The green in the center represents the living world or here-in-the-center, also called the middle-world. Thus, the Cherokee cosmogram provides a visual example that easily accompanies cosmological stories. Taking the traditional representation of the cosmogram and rendering it three-dimensional by using a multiple-horizons technique to create a vanishing

point provides perspective and depth to the cosmogram (Reilly, 2004 and Reilly, 2007: 41-42).

Time, in the world-system of the peoples of the Greater Southeast, is a system of cyclical or circular time. In this system, the distant future is also the distant past. The reincarnation, which functions more as a recycling of souls with a family or clan group likely plays an intrinsic part in this view, which plays out in social traditions as well (Reilly personal communication, October 2008). The people of these social traditions consider seven generations into the future when making decisions, a much different system than the two or three generations that the western tradition emphasizes (Lyons, 1984: 91-93). This may also have its constituent counterpart in the more individualistic nature of the western "family" as opposed to the more communal nature of the native "family."

CHAPTER 2 - THEORY AND METHOD

Tradition and Sacred Knowledge

The archaeological evidence of the Greater Southeast provides a glimpse of the sacred traditions at work in an interregional religious system, identified as the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, or SECC (Waring and Holder, 1945). Of the SECC, Adam King writes: "the SECC has the potential to help us explore exchange, ranking systems, style, workshops and craft production, the meaning and function of art, religion, and the intersection of all of these with social structure, politics, and power in all Mississippian societies" (King, 2007c: 258). This supports the idea that archaeology must provide an informative view of the archaeological culture rather than simply a view of the archaeology alone (Willey and Philips, 1953).

Edward Shils argues that symbols and traditions exist in a realm of their own, separate from physical artifacts or the processes of creation of those artifacts (Shils, 1981: 89-91). However, while a gap exists between physical artifacts and ideological symbolism, objects associated

with rituals and traditions always bear a connection to the ideological constructs of the society, closely linking material evidence to ritual and social practices (Kristiansen, 1987: 78-79). Using a comprehension of the symbolism of the Greater Southeast to establish a working subconscious cultural paradigm with which to interpret both symbolism and physical artifacts allows a bridging of the gap between physical evidence and ideological symbolism, and more clearly illuminates further interpretations of existing data.

The passage of sacred tradition through generations is generally linear, incorporating a desire to learn both new information and information already known by others (Shils, 1975: 186-189 and 1981: 91-94). It is difficult to define the scope and depth of "tradition" that will satisfactorily cover all cases of the term (Shils 1975: 189, 1981: 12-15, and Pieper, 2008: 20-22). However, in the context of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Greater Southeast, "tradition" is generally a set of ritual and ceremonial activities, myths, symbolism and iconography, and architectural constructions such as mounds and mortuary centers (Reilly, 2004 and Emerson, 1997: 36-41). These traditions developed within the ideological construct of an existing religious system, and under the posited model of

the "Paradigm of the Periphery," passed from the core centers of their inception to suburban and rural peripheral sites in outlying areas (Kristiansen, 1987: 74-85). The inception of these traditions satisfied certain needs within the core, and after migrating to the periphery, they could outlive those original reasons for their creation or coalescence within that core.

It is important to note that the culture of Native Americans is drastically different from that of Western Europeans (the ethnicity of most scholars of the Greater Southeast). Tönnies makes the contradistinction between Gesellschaft cultures like the European tradition with emphasis on the individual and small, nucleated families and Gemeinschaft cultures like the Native Americans with emphasis on the larger community (Tönnies, 1940).

The distinction between family-oriented and communityoriented societies falls under the differences of the
subconscious cultural paradigms of the cultures. In a
similar manner, the sacred traditions, myths, and rituals
accommodate both recognized personal and social imperatives
and the social and psychological pressures of the society
(Kroeber, 1996). This accommodation occurs because of
sociality and environmental pressures, the same pressures

affecting the formulation of their subconscious cultural paradigms.

Centers and Peripheries

The concept of centers and peripheries used as an analytical model is not new. Jackson Braider, a folklorist, when interviewed on National Public Radio ("Letters:

Deconstructing Nursery Rhymes", December 11, 2005), gave a description of the "Paradigm of the Periphery," which is known as the "paradox of the periphery" to folklorists.

Using the nursery rhyme "Rub-a-Dub-Dub" as an example, he explained: "The similarity... between the American variant of "Rub-a-Dub-Dub" and... the oldest version of the rhyme is something we folklorists call the paradox of the periphery. Like ripples on a lake, the disseminated piece of folklore at the edge is the truest reproduction of what was originally uttered at the center, the point of origin."

Braider describes how the nursery rhyme began in England with a specific cultural meaning and accompanied the migration of people to America. As told amongst the Americans, the original meaning was retained, while in England the meaning had changed. This change mimicked the changes that occurred in the cultural and societal interactions of England in the intervening centuries. Thus,

the story that moved farther away from the place of its inception was actually the original, while the version that stayed in England changed to fulfill a different cultural purpose.

Later in the interview, Braider makes use of an example from linguistics to explicate this model of cultural survival. He discusses how people moving from England into the Appalachians brought their language along with them. Through the same process that maintained the older version of "Rub-a-Dub-Dub," the English spoken in the 17th and 18th century in England has been maintained in the isolated valleys of the Appalachians.

Social theorists have used the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the field of economics to evaluate the exploitative aspects of a core center, focusing on the movement of raw materials from periphery to core and the extension of core areas to maintain control of the producing peripheries (Wallerstein, 1979, and Rowlands 1987: 2-5). Wallerstein proposed the center/periphery model in his World System Theory using the concept of a semiperiphery to account for suburban areas and the periphery as the core-exploited rural areas, with the cores as the urbanized centers of a society (Wallerstein, 1979). Taking this economic model to the Mississippian Greater Southeast,

the rural periphery areas are the perfect locale for the preservation of sacred knowledge and traditions after the fall of the core center. This is because of the successfulness of rural lifestyles in mostly performing labor involved in subsistence and food collection. These activities allow for a means of self-sustenance without the dependence upon a more complex division of labor.

In The Constitution of Society, Edward Shils argues the following regarding core centers:

"The central zone is not, as such, a spatially located phenomenon... The center, or central zone, is a phenomenon of the realm of values and beliefs. It is the center of the order of symbols, of values and beliefs, which govern the society... The central zone partakes of the nature of the sacred (Shils, 1972: 93)."

This interpretation of the center, within the center/periphery model at work in the "Paradigm of the Periphery," overlaps with the concept of urbanized core centers. Geertz points out how these centers, functioning as "concentrated loci of serious acts," provide the conditions for charismatic leaders to arise in both the physical or political realm and the religious or ritual realm of society (Geertz, 1977). Peebles and Kus posit how

these charismatic leaders, in chiefdoms, redistribute exotics within the polity by allowing specialized access to ritual objects to lesser elites (Peebles and Kus, 1977).

They also control the trade of these objects between foreign elites to strengthen ties within interregional trade networks called Prestige Good Networks (LeDoux, 2009: 9-10 and King, 2003).

Emerson's analysis of the manifestations of political and ideological power demonstrates how the archaeological evidence from sites in the Greater Southeast provides a means of identifying core centers (Emerson, 1997: 36-41). The overlapping nature of the political and ideological manifestations reaffirms the aspect of the larger, greatersoutheastern subconscious cultural paradigm in which the physical and metaphysical are indistinguishable from each other. Such overlapping manifestations of power provide a means of establishing a given site (such as Cahokia, Moundville, etc.), as a cult center. Cult centers are the centralized conglomeration of distinct cult institutions, which are defined by Wallace in Religion: An Anthropological View as "a set of rituals all having the same general goal, all explicitly rationalized by a set of similar or related beliefs, and all supported by the same social group" (Wallace, 1966:75).

Cult centers are nodes of ritual intensification within an existing system of interlocking core centers (Reilly, personal communication). A cult system is exhibited through the art, symbolism, architecture, site layout, distribution of local goods in surrounding areas, and presence of exotics that are imported to and distributed from the core center. The overlapping nature of the symbolism, burial styles, and ceramics of cult centers has been the means of identifying a "cult" in the Greater Southeast, the SECC, which constitutes the religious system of the larger area (see Williams, ed. 1977, Krieger 1945, Waring and Holder 1945, Ford and Willey 1941). The similarities and differences in the styles indicative of this religious system also reflect the political and sociological pressures of population movement. For example, the differences between the SECC symbolism and Crystal River symbolism are used as evidence of a non-Mississippian presence or influence in Florida (Willey, 1948).

Urbanization, Core Hegemony, and the Model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery"

Urbanization is the formation of cities within a society, developing an area into a cultural core of that society. This includes the influx of population, which

initially occurs in a more random and dispersed arrangement and functions opportunistically in the environmental landscape. The populations then move towards a homogenized and interacting population, working together to exploit the environmental landscape. This cooperation provides sustenance and surplus to the increasing population of a society. When this cooperation grows to interaction on a regional level, it satisfies the definition of an interaction sphere posited by Joseph Caldwell (in his contribution to the annual meetings of the American Anthropological Association and the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1961 and 1962; see Hall, 1997: 155-156 and Binford, 1965).

Through the process of urbanization, a significant rise in the specialization of production occurs. Although art predates urbanized cores in any culture, a society's ability to provide surplus inherently connects to the ability to dedicate one's life to something such as shell carving or copper working, which is certainly not a job for the lay artist. In a multi-regional area such as the Mississippian Greater Southeast, the developing urban cores served as hubs to the interregional trade networks (Kelly, 1991). These centers form close ties to each other, since the accumulation and redistribution of exotics validates

the power of the local elites (Peebles and Kus, 1977).

These ties, in turn, form a pattern of core hegemony in which the core center puts pressures on its surrounding areas, thereby intensifying production, and serving simultaneously as the society's ritual core (Emerson, 1997, Gramsci, 1971, and Shils, 1972).

As the lesser elites gain access to the prestige or ritual goods, they in turn strengthen the hegemonic influence of the core area (see Emerson, 1997). However, as the processes of urbanization continue, the population of the core center begins to decline, especially when the elites of an area come into tension with the increasing power of lesser elites. The lesser elites then leave and form minor centers or rural nodes, causing the decline in population of the core center.

These minor centers or rural nodes have been the focus of studies in both the Mississippian Southeast and in Mesoamerica. In these areas, they form intermediaries between household clusters and major ceremonial centers (see Iannone, 2004: 273-286 and Driver and Garber, 2004: 287-304, Emerson 1997, Bullard 1960, and Willey 1956). The rise of these lesser peripheral centers entails the dispersion of sacred traditions and rituals from the areas of their establishment in core centers, to the smaller and

more self-sufficient peripheral areas. This pattern of movement forms the basic model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Greater Southeast.

It is important to note that the symbolism spread via lesser elites with specialized access to sacred knowledge and traditions that initially formed to satisfy the needs of the highly stratified core centers. In these core centers, the elites controlled the core center itself; moderating ritual, ceremony, and trade, and allowing the lesser elites specialized access to exotic and ritual goods. Thus, the symbolism used in the less stratified, more rural periphery will not necessarily hold an identical meaning to the original after its migration. This disjunction in meaning results from the ability of rural areas to be more self-sufficient with a smaller population, due to relatively less specialization within the society. This causes the focus of ritual and the use of ritual symbolism therein, to change in meaning with the altered political and economical structure of the society because these realms are a major focus of ritual in general.

Working under a distinct subconscious cultural paradigm, however, allows for analysis of the peripheral symbolism, and its likely counterpart in ceremonial ritual. Having this analysis available allows for an account of the

superficial change in meaning that occurs during the migration of symbolism and sacred knowledge discussed above. As argued, the change in politics and economics of a society does not necessarily alter the subconscious cultural paradigm under which politics, economics, symbolism, and sacred knowledge are constructed.

Additionally, by using a society's subconscious cultural paradigm to evaluate the archaeological and iconographic evidence under the "Paradigm of the Periphery," researchers can further their understanding of environmental, political, cultural, and sociological pressures placed upon these social groups.

PART II - What is it that we see?

CHAPTER 3 - CAHOKIA

Geographical and Cultural Aspects of Cahokia

The site of Cahokia (fig. 3.1) was the largest polity in the Mississippian cultural area. It was located in the American bottom, which is the area surrounding the Mississippi River in southwestern Illinois and eastern Missouri (fig. 3.2). The location of the site on a major river system, and the confluence of the river's flood plain with the region's uplands provided a diverse environmental ecosystem for the residents of the area to exploit.

The slow-permeability of the area's soils increased the tendency for flooding in the American Bottom. However, the presence of several environmental sub-zones indicates that there was growth of both wet and dry plants in the area (Emerson and Jackson, 1984: 1-5). Thus, the Mississippi Valley around Cahokia created the diverse vegetations that are exploitable in the "garden style agriculture" of the area, an intensified horticultural subsistence system (Scarry and Scarry, 2005).

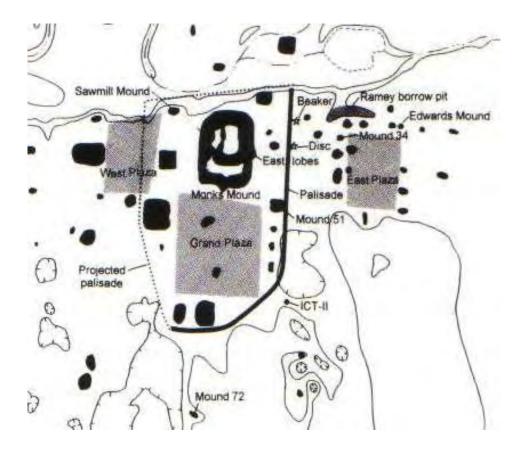


Fig 3.1 - Site Map of Cahokia (Brown, 2004: 112)

The 1977 agreement with the Illinois Department of
Transportation to mitigate the archaeological resources
within the construction parameters of Federal Aid
Interstate 270 (FAI-270) provided the means for extensive
archaeological excavations of the Cahokian area (Emerson
and Jackson, 1984: 1-14). The findings of these
excavations and other research in the area, illuminates the
role Cahokia played in the interregional trade network of

the Greater Southeast (Emerson and Jackson, 1984 and Kelly, 1991).

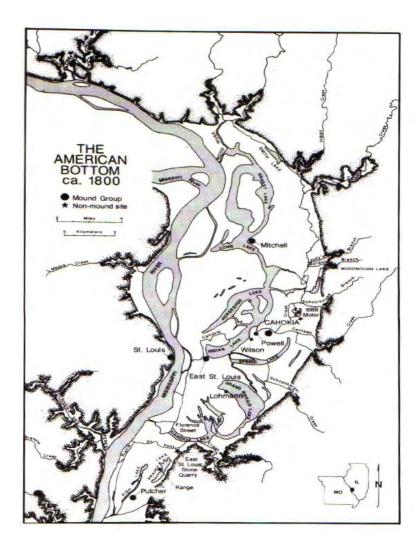


Fig. 3.2 - Map of the American Bottom area of the Mississippi Valley (from Brown, 2004: 112)

The extensive distribution of copper from Michigan in the Greater Southeast and the existing connections of Cahokia to that area support the view of Cahokia as an interregional gateway for trade (Hall, 1991 and Kelly,

1991). The caches of engraved and unfinished Busycon shells at the site, which are also found in the archaeological record of other major centers such as Spiro, also provides supporting evidence of Cahokia's role as a hub for interregional trade (Brown, 1996). Scholars have postulated the Cahokian cultural connections to the Osage and Omaha tribes by connecting ideological and cultural evidence such myths and symbolism, to physical archaeological evidence, such as ceramic types and styles (Kehoe, 2007). Intensive interaction with the Oneota to the north, the Creeks to the south, and the Caddoan areas in the Spiro area has also been posited citing similar data (Brown, 1996 and Hall, 1991).

Temporal Aspects of Cahokia

The Emergent Mississippian (AD 800-1050) and Mississippian Periods (AD 1050-1350), each subdivided into distinct phases, divide the chronology of the Cahokian area (Kelly et al., 2007: 57-87, Hall, 1991: 3-34 and Emerson 1997: 46-54). During the Fairmount or Edelhart Phase (AD 900/925-1050) of the late Emergent Mississippian Period, the Cahokian area had strong southeastern ties and developed as a regional hub for the redistribution of exotic goods to other areas in the central and southeastern

United States (Hall, 1991: 3-34 and Trubitt, 2000). The initial construction of the centrally located Monk's Mound began at the site in this period also (fig. 3.1; Hall, 1991: 3-34). The emergence of Cahokia as a ritual center marked the end of this phase around AD 1050, and the beginning of the Mississippian Period (Kelly, et al. 2007, a la Pauketat, 1993).

Four phases constitute the Mississippian Period, the Lohman Phase (AD 1050-1100), Stirling Phase (AD 1100-1200), Moorehead Phase (AD 1200-1275), and Sand Prairie Phase (AD 1275-1350) (Hall, 1991: 3-34). During the Mississippian Period, Cahokian interaction with the Caddoan area to the south, and the Oneota in the northern Mississippian area increases (Hall, 1991: 3-34 and Kelly et all, 2007).

Oneota culture began around AD 1100 in the upper
Mississippian area and further developed with interaction
with Cahokia, which is traceable through the spread of
Ramey Incised and Powell Plain ceramic pottery, among
others, in the Cahokia area and the Upper Mississippi
(Hall, 1991: 3-34, Kelly, 1991: 61-80 and Green and Rodell,
1994). Hall also shows how the Ramey Incised symbolism
exhibits ties to the greater southeastern ideological
system (Hall, 1991: 3-34). Ramey Incised pottery is simply
Powell Plain with incised designs that are associated with

the ritual and symbolic paraphernalia of Mississippian society (Emerson, 1989: 63-65). This ritual association connects the Cahokian ideology to a specific subconscious cultural paradigm that allows analysis of the data to be limited to a specific set of interpretations (Hall, 1991: 3-34). Thus, Cahokia became an interregional gateway center for the larger trade networks of the Greater Southeast as well as a burgeoning cult center within the Mississippian religious system (Kelly, 1991: 61-80).

The Lohman Phase (AD 1050-1100) at Cahokia marks the beginning of the Mississippian Period at the site of Cahokia and is synonymous to the Lindhorst Phase in the surrounding American Bottom (Kelly, et al., 2007). As I have shown, the transition to the Mississippian Period in the Moundville Chiefdom, during this phase at Cahokia, dispersed Woodland villages transitioned to Mississippian farmsteads, which indicates a transition to a maize-based "garden agriculture" (Emerson, 1997, Pauketat, 2003, and Scarry and Scarry, 2005). This transition provides evidence of the growing population of the Cahokia and American Bottom area and the intensification of local production, which provide the prerequisites for the rise of a major ritual and political center. Cahokia had undergone the beginnings of becoming a ritual center with the

construction of Monk's Mound in the preceding Phase (Kelly, 1991 and Hall, 1991: 3-34). However, with a shift to maize agriculture, the population of the area could grow and provide the means for specialization and the production of a surplus for the constituency of the polity.

The influx of interregional Mississippian symbolism saw Cahokia develop into a major cult center in the interacting religious system of the Greater Southeast. This development is evidenced by the construction of more earthen pyramids, a central plaza, and the development of the site under a planned layout, probably as a diagrammatic ceremonial center, similar to Moundville (Pauketat, 2003 and Knight, 1998: 44-62). The high population of Cahokia during the Lohman Phase, resulting from a large influx of population to the core center, indicates that this phase was the time of the urbanization of Cahokia (Pauketat, 2003).

The subsequent Stirling Phase (AD 1100-1200) described by Hall as the climax of Cahokia, demonstrates evidence of regional conglomeration of the Greater Cahokian polity (Hall, 1991). This conglomeration is indicated by the rise of both high and low status individuals in the core center, as well as the regional development of related ritual sites with mound constructions and areas of ritual and ceremonial

importance (Trubitt, 2000, Emerson, 1997: 81-149, and Pauketat, 2003). The rise of these outlying ritual sites indicates the same movement of populations from the core to suburban sites in the Cahokian interaction sphere as seen at Moundville. This movement indicates the grouping of specialized craft production at specific outlying locales (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b). This would have given individuals with similar occupations, and perhaps statuses, a greater control over their individual groups by removing themselves from the core area. This is in line with archaeological evidence from outlying areas to the north of Cahokia, in which Cahokian residents during the Stirling Phase migrated away from the urban core, a pattern that continued to the Sand Prairie Phase and beyond (Conner, 1985: 215-219).

The Cahokian core area was highly stratified and probably multi-ethnic because of the strong ties to the southeast, the Caddoan areas to the south, and the Oneota of the Upper Mississippi to the north (Trubitt, 2000 and Hall, 1991: 3-34). This multi-ethnicity would have provided challenges to the ruling elite's control of the site, which reduced endemic warfare and strife. The rise of suburban and rural nodes is a result of these challenges, providing groups with the ability to focus more on their own needs

and desires, rather than being part of the core itself (Harris, 1943: 1-13).

These peripheral groups already existed in the same religious system and functioned under the same subconscious cultural paradigm as the Cahokian core. They would have taken the ritual symbolism and sacred traditions in use at Cahokia to their new rural ceremonial nodes. This movement to peripheral areas follows under the proposed "Paradigm of the Periphery" pattern of migration of sacred tradition and symbolism from core areas to suburban and rural peripheries. Emerson discusses some examples of these suburban and rural ceremonial nodes as "rural cults", which exhibit characteristics such as mortuary onstruction practices, ceremonial architectural construction (such as mounds and temples), sweathouses, and/or ritual fire pits used in ceremonial rituals such as the Green Corn Busk (Emerson, 1997: 225-248). The Green Corn Busk is a yearly ceremony of renewal celebrated around the time of the summer solstice (Swanton, 2000).

The Moorehead Phase (AD 1200-1275) seems to be a time of transition between the preceding Stirling Phase and subsequent Sand Prairie phase, evidenced by the similarities in the ceramic seriation of the site (Hall, 1991). Ramey incised and Powell Plain ceramics were

entrenched in the Cahokian area until this phase, in which they disappear, replaced with cord-marked shell tempered ceramics (Emerson, 1997: 52-53). Continued urbanization of the site during this phase and the evidence of decreases in population, suggests that this is a time of elite takeover of the site along with the continuation of Cahokia as a major interregional core center in the Greater Southeast (Emerson, 1997: 52 a la Fowler, 1972: 89 and Pauketat, 2003).

The Sand Prairie Phase (AD 1275-1350) was a time of little activity at Cahokia. This Phase provides the first evidence of ritual mortuary practices associated with the core occurring in peripheral outlying sites (Emerson, 1997: 53-54). This change in mortuary practices demonstrates the migration of symbolism, ideology, and sacred traditions that developed in the urbanized core to peripheral rural or suburban sites and locales. This movement constitutes the initial pattern of the "Paradigm of the Periphery."

CHAPTER 4 - MOUNDVILLE

Geographical Aspects of Moundville

The Mississippian site of Moundville (fig. 4.1) was situated upon the south bank of Black Warrior River in western-central Alabama, in what is now Tuscaloosa and Hale counties (fig. 4.2). This is a distinct area of the southeast, because it is the regional confluence of the coastal plains, piedmont, and the southern end of the Appalachian uplift (Hudson, 1976: 14-22). In size, only the chiefdom of Cahokia surpassed Moundville's core (Steponaitis and Knight, 2004).

At the site, representational art on ceramics, copper, stone, and shell display the symbolism of the religious system used throughout the Greater Southeast (Steponaitis and Knight, 2004). Most of this art, such as Moundville Engraved and Carthage Incised pottery, was initially associated within an elite context, though it expanded throughout the Moundville polity (Steponaitis, 2009: 99-100, Steponaitis and Knight, 2004, and Knight, 2007). This supports the movement of ritual symbolism and sacred

traditions from the core center to the peripheral areas that circumscribe it.

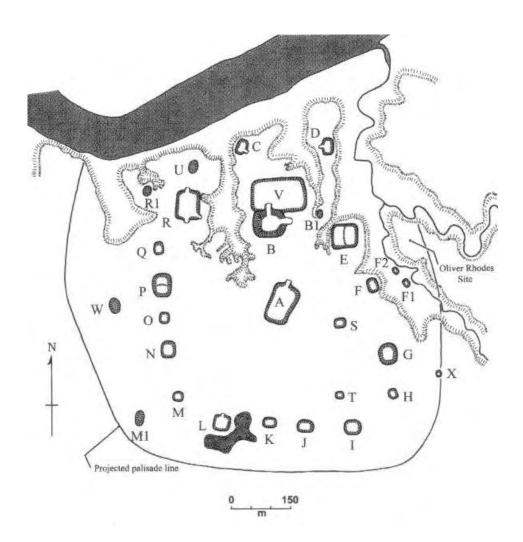


Fig. 4.1 - Map of the Moundville site (from Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 3)

Temporal Aspects of Moundville

Chronologies (see fig. 4.2) distinguish four distinct Mississippian ceramic phases (Moundville I, II, III, and

IV) from Moundville's organization to collapse, or approximately AD 1050-1650 (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). These periods follow the West Jefferson Phase (ca. AD 900-1050) during which an intensification of local production begins laying the foundations necessary for the core center to arise. The West Jefferson phase is the late Woodland Period predecessor to what would become a major Mississippian core center (ibid.).

Knight and Steponaitis (1998b: 1-25) also posit five developmental stages for the Moundville Chiefdom (fig. 4.3). These developmental stages begin in the West Jefferson Phase with an intensification of local production and proceeds to initial centralization (ca. AD 1050-1200), regional consolidation (ca. AD 1200-1300), the entrenched paramountcy (ca. AD 1300-1450), and finally the collapse and reorganization of the site(ca. AD 1450-1650). These developmental stages differentiate the occupational phases established by the ceramic chronology into early and late within the first three phases of the Moundville site (Moundville I, II, and III).

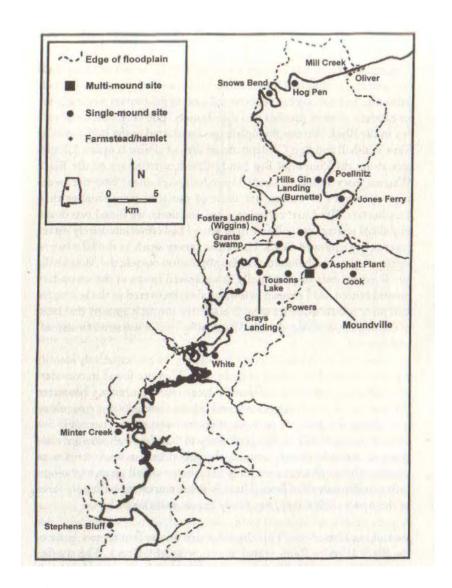


Fig. 4.2 - Map of the Moundville Chiefdom on the Black Warrior River (from Welch, 1998: 137)

In the West Jefferson Phase (ca. AD 900-1050), problems caused by the increasing populations in the river-valleys were common in the Moundville area, such as warfare due to competition for resources between communities (see Carneiro, 1970). The West Jefferson Phase is also notable

in the development of the later core center because of the craft production of shell items. These items were probably used for trade as well as in ritual or for status and prestige within the communities (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). These circumstances allow for the perfect conditions for an urban center to emerge. There was already an intensification of resources to provide food and trade opportunities to the larger population, and a readily available source of wealth from those trade opportunities by the exploitation of the local shell production.

As previously mentioned, the location of the core center is strategically situated at the confluence of between three and five environmental ecotones, providing an easily exploitable site for the centralization of the surrounding areas (Peebles, 1971: 68-91). As the core center emerges, a reduction in the endemic warfare occurs as the core subsumes the surrounding rural areas. This expansion demonstrates an intensification of agricultural production of corn (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). The high percentage of corn kernels in ratio to other food sources in the periphery areas and core center provides evidence of the intensification of maize-based "garden agriculture" (Scarry and Scarry, 2005: 259-274).

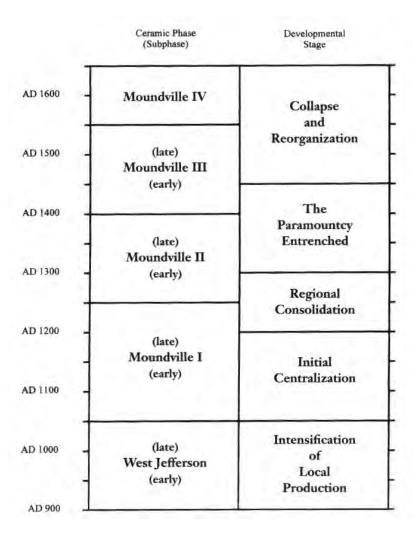


Fig. 4.3 - Ceramic phases and developmental stages for the

Moundville Chiefdom (from Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 8)

The transition from individual groups competing for horticultural space and hunting grounds to a shared exploitation of the environment begins the early Moundville I Phase coinciding with the "initial centralization"

developmental stage (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). This period of transition was quite rapid. At approximately AD 1000, the presence of corn in the archaeological record of this area was insignificant, yet by AD 1100, the agricultural production of corn served as the major food source for the Moundville population (Steponaitis and Knight, 2004: 197-181).

The construction of mounds at the site supports the hypothesis of its use as a central node of authority for the accumulation and distribution of elite goods.

Undoubtedly, these goods were used to validate the power of local aspiring elites (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). In addition to exotics, interregional symbolism on local media, specifically stone, denotes the increasing influence of local elites in an expanding interaction sphere. One on the most notable examples of this local stonework is the "Rattlesnake Disc" (fig. 4.4), a stone disc that was likely used as a smudge stone and functioned within the context of ceremonial activity and in sacred bundles (Reilly, personal communication, February 2009).

In Moundville's Economy, stone palettes such as the "Rattlesnake Disc" are described as "paint palettes" in the examination of the presence of exotics at Moundville and the distribution of local craft productions throughout the

southeast (Welch, 1991). The petaloid motif or notches around the outside of the disc and the hand and eye symbol in the center likely functioned as celestial locatives (Reilly, 2007, and Lankford, 2007b). Due to the ritual significance of these objects, and their distribution within the Greater Southeast, these stone palettes likely served the additional role of being a local contribution to the interregional ideological and religious network typically identified as the SECC (Waring and Holder, 1945).

During the period of approximately AD 1200-1250, coinciding with the late Moundville I Phase, Moundville became a localized paramountcy (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). This paramountcy was in place during the development of the multi-mound, urbanized core center that provided a hub for the larger, regional interaction network (ibid.). In addition, the center developed the necessary social controls for a society to function successfully (Berger, 1963: 66-69).

The layout of the site coincides with the stratification of house groups in a Chickasaw camp square (fig. 4.5), which Knight proposes as part of his evidence of the Moundville site being constructed as a diagrammatic ceremonial center (Knight, 1998: 44-62). The Chickasaw camp square was arranged around a central fire based upon the

social hierarchy (ibid.). This arrangement around a central plaza area is also seen in Creek square grounds as well as in the arrangement of domestic structures and town houses (Sawyer, 2009: 170-171).



Fig. 4.4 - "Rattlesnake Disc", Moundville (from Moore, 1996: 34)

Proposed as a sociogram, this site layout would also serve as a delineation of sacred space, with the central

mound (Mound A, see fig. 4.1) the likely focus of ritual (Knight, 1998: 44-62). This fact allows for the establishment of a type of socio-cosmological map that provides illumination of the subconscious cultural paradigms under which the people of this area constructed their world-view. The blending of an urban core center, local power and prestige, and a ritual/metaphysical layout of the site demonstrates a common theme in Native America: the physical and metaphysical, political and ritual, are indistinguishable within the subconscious cultural paradigm of these peoples.

The early Moundville II Phase incorporates the height of the "regional consolidation" developmental stage that began in the late Moundville I Phase (see fig. 4.6). The evidence of the end of this phase, which marked the transition to the late Moundville II Phase, is indirect evidence from burials in the mounds, like the inclusion of ritual or prestige grave goods in varying amounts presumably indicative of social status (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). Based on available evidence, a sharp decrease in middens occurred during this time, which may indicate little or no permanent residence in the core itself (ibid.).

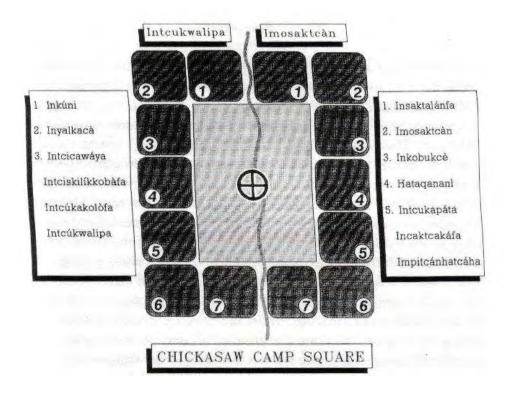


Fig. 4.5 - Diagram of a Chickasaw camp square; the ranking of house groups is shown in the margin, the cross-in-circle motif represents a council fire (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998a: 55).

With the paramountcy established, the elites would have taken over the entire core center itself, while the residential population of non-elites moved out to suburban single-mound peripheral sites around the core center, in the Black Warrior River floodplain (see fig. 4.2). This population movement is similar to the urbanization and suburban development that occurred in North America in the

late 19th and early 20th century. At that time, suburban areas provided a better residential location than the core centers. In the suburban areas, the lesser variation of the social hierarchy allowed the residents more likelihood of having a firmer control over their community (Harris, 1943: 1-13).

The fall of the paramountcy and the beginning of the abandonment of the mounds around AD 1400-1450 marks the beginning of the fall of the Moundville Chiefdom (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25). During the late Moundville III phase, when the core was mostly unoccupied, outlying sites in the Moundville Chiefdom such as the White site had their highest levels of occupation (Welch, 1991: 48-52). These developing peripheral mound sites probably served as nodes to the Moundville administrative network (Beck, 2003). There is a presence of Moundville III ceramics, palettes, and other identifiable items with ideological and economic ties to the core center in these peripheral sites, as well as the construction of ritual areas (Welch, 1991: 48-52). The ritual nature of archaeological and iconographic evidence equates to the movement of lesser elites, who had specialized access to ritual knowledge and objects in the center, to these smaller mound sites, taking the symbolism and ideology with them. Such ideological

movement is an identifiable characteristic of the "Paradigm of the Periphery."

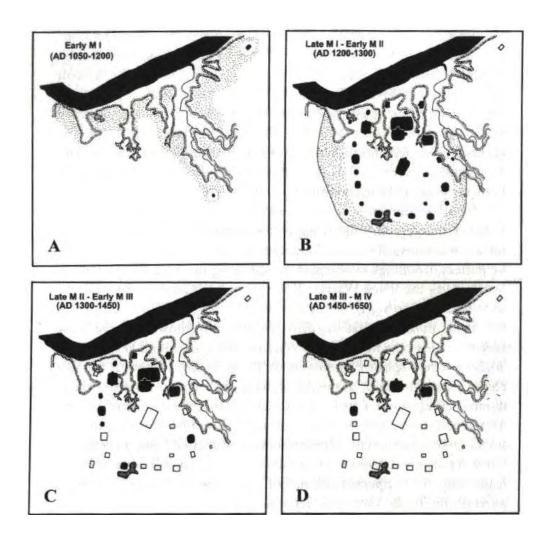


Fig. 4.6 - Settlement changes at Moundville from

Early Moundville I through Moundville IV.

Occupied mounds are black. (from Knight and

Steponaitis, 1998a: 14)

In the late Moundville III phase, Moundville arose as a regional ritual necropolis with only a small residential

population of caretaker elites (Pauketat and Emerson, 1997 and Steponaitis, 1998). Scholars interpret this variation in the residency of the core center within a "cycling" behavior of continuous rises and falls in populations due to inherent political instability (Cobb, 2003 and Anderson, 1994). However, political instability is not fully able to account for the rise of integrated peripheral mound sites still connected to a central ritual mortuary site. It seems more likely that the cyclical patterns seen in the occupation of core centers is not due to political instability, but rather, is an ideal example of the patterns of core hegemony functioning under the "Paradigm of the Periphery". This hypothesis suggests that the failing core center did not entail the end of the symbolism and ritual/sacred knowledge associated with the Moundville cult node. We see the pattern of knowledge and sacred traditions moving from the core center to the peripheral areas, where their transmission is able to outlast the failing core itself.

CHAPTER 5 - THE LAMAR AREA

Geographical Aspects of the Area

The Lamar area (fig. 5.1), as defined in Lamar

Archaeology, was constituted by a variety of interacting

chiefdoms that rose and fell within the Mississippian

Period (Williams and Shapiro, 1990: 5 and Anderson, 1990:

187-213). The Lamar area was also the location of two major

Mississippian core centers, Etowah and Lake Jackson.

In the case of Moundville and Cahokia, competition for space along the confluence of exploitable environmental zones forced populations together along the major river in the regional area. In the Lamar area however, competition for space was not restricted to a singular river valley, and could expand out along the extensive riverine system by settling in the river basins (Anderson, 1994: 260-263). Thus, the intensification of production and the rise of charismatic leaders that helped other Mississippian core centers to emerge early were unnecessary in this area (Knight and Steponaitis, 1998b: 1-25 and Anderson, 1994: 260-263). It remained unnecessary until the populations of

the Area were much higher than that of other centralizing Mississippian centers.

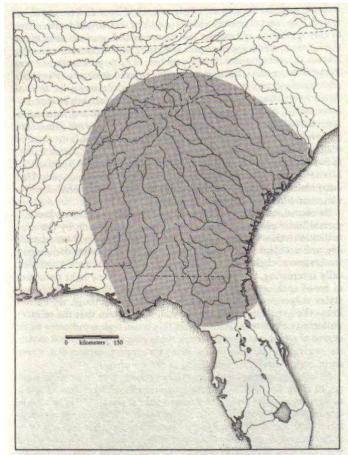


Fig. 5.1 - The Lamar Area (from Williams and Shapiro, 1990: 5)

William Bartram, in his *Travels*, described the Georgia coastal swamps created by the convergence of the numerous rivers, which provides an important factor in determining the challenges of this geographical area (Slaughter, 1996: 49-52). The soil of the swamps is that of dark black humus,

which is extremely rich in nutrients so long as it remains saturated with water. When this soil dries out, however, it becomes so dense that it kills the plants that are growing there. Thus, if a major climatic event caused an extended drought in the area, the results would have been catastrophic for any large, integrated population.

In areas such as this, the shade provided by tree growth is essential in maintaining the swampy atmosphere, keeping the soil moist by preventing evaporation. Consequently, if denudation occurred in the area by the clearing of trees for fuel, architectural constructions, or more agricultural land for rising populations, the land would fail to render sufficient sustenance for those increased populations. However, with the population groups spaced out across these swampy river basins, the environment is able to sustain smaller populations much more profitably. These smaller groups then begin to form alliances or engage in warfare as populations increase to provide the necessary surplus to feed increasing populations within the confines of the population-limiting environment of the Lamar Area. This creates the social interactions and initial centralization needed to form minor centers. These minor centers served as hubs for

intra-regional trade that emulate the functionality of the larger Mississippian centers.

In political systems that make strong use of hegemonic techniques, relying heavily on the peripheral areas for production of sustenance, these smaller areas effectively provide surplus to minor centers through tribute. These minor centers then form associations and alliances, providing the foundation for the centralization that occurs with the emergence of a major center. Thus, over time, major centers such as Etowah and Lake Jackson, among others, emerge by subsuming the minor centers that had formed under the population-limiting effects of the natural environment. These minor centers exhibited a higher level of complexity and integration in relation to the larger core centers that formed in other areas, such as Moundville and Cahokia. This may provide evidence to the relatively longer habitation of the Etowah area and the strong perseverance of the sacred traditions and symbolism of the tribes of this area (King, 2004: 151-165).

Several sites along the Tennessee River in southeastern Tennessee, such as the site of Hiwassee Island, are important to the conceptualization of regional interactions in the Lamar area specifically and Greater Southeast in general. This is due to the frequency of

engraved shell, mostly in the form of Hightower and Lick Creek style shell gorgets (Sullivan, 2007: 88-106 and Marceaux and Dye, 2007). These provide evidence of the extent of distribution of prestige trade items and ritual symbolism. The dating of these gorgets and their corrected sequencing places the distribution to approximately AD 1200, rather late in the Mississippian sequence when compared to Moundville or Cahokia (Brain and Philips, 1996 and Hally, 2007: 185-231). On the regional scale, this temporal period overlapped with the Savannah Phases, distinguished as Early Savannah (AD 1200-1250) and Late Savannah (AD 1250-1375). The Lamar Phases followed these Phases (LeDoux, 2009). The Early Lamar ranged from AD 1375-1475 and the Late Lamar ranged from AD 1475-1550 (King, 2003 and 2004).

The late emergence of Mississippian connections in the lower Tennessee Valley coincides with the rise of numerous Mississippian centers in other parts of the Lamar Area. For example, the Savannah River is located in eastern Georgia and western South Carolina, and forms the eastern boundary of the Lamar area. The first centers in the Savannah River Valley emerged around AD 1100-1150, and by AD 1250, seven to nine centers arranged in four clusters were in use along the river (Anderson, 1994: 235-239). These evolved over the

next century into two major multi-mound centers.

Accompanying the rise of these multi-mound centers is evidence of elite impoverishment at the smaller centers in the area, seen in the reduction in the quantities of prestige grave goods over time (Anderson, 1994: 311-313).

However, while this area arises as a major Mississippian region rather late in the scheme of the "SECC," there is evidence of a very long history of occupation. For example, Stallings Island in eastern Georgia is the site of some of the earliest pottery in the Greater Southeast, sometime before 3500 B.P. (Sassaman et al., 2006 and Fairbanks, 1942).

The presence of intricately designed copper repoussé plates in the Lamar area is another major diagnostic tool in unveiling the spread of regional symbolism and ideology of the Greater Southeast. The Rogan Plates from Etowah (fig. 5.2), discovered by John Rogan, depict a winged anthropomorphic figure and are among the most well known examples of these plates (Scarry, 2007: 134-150). Other scholars have discovered plates throughout the Lamar area with the highest concentrations in the core centers of Etowah and Lake Jackson (Scarry, 2007: 134-150 and Larson, 1971). With strong connections to the Classic Braden style indicative of the Cahokian area, Brown has postulated that

most of the plates were likely made in Cahokia, and then dispersed throughout the Greater Southeast (Brown, 2007a: 56-106).



Fig. 5.2 - The Rogan Plates from Etowah, excavated by John Rogan. Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of Natural History, Washington D.C. Catalogue Numbers 110 (Left) and 111 (Right). (from Townsend and Sharp, eds., 2004: 150, 157)

The Etowah and Lake Jackson Interaction Sphere

Etowah, in northwest Georgia, was a chiefdom capital with multiple mounds and evidence of elite burials

(Moorehead, 1927). The site, situated upon the Etowah River in Bartow County, Georgia, consisted of six mounds on slightly over fifty-four acres enclosed within a palisade (fig 5.3 and King, 2004: 151-165). According to scholars, Etowah first reached chiefdom level organization around AD 1000 (King, 2003 and 2007b: 129-132). After a short period of abandonment around AD 1200-1250, the site was repopulated, and reemerged as a major Mississippian center (King, 2004: 153). The reoccupation of Etowah begins the Wilbanks Phases at the Etowah site (fig 5.4, Ledoux, 2009 and King, 2003). The Early Wilbanks ranged from AD 1250-1325 and the Late Wilbanks ranged from AD 1325-1375 (King 2003). The Wilbanks Phases coincided with the Late Savannah Phase in the regional temporal scale and was followed by the Lamar Phases (King, 2003 and 2004).

The major Mississippian center of Etowah persisted for several hundred years, maintaining an important place within the Mississippian landscape. This position resulted from connections to the larger, interregional trade and exchange networks the made use of the exotic goods, symbolism, and sacred traditions characteristic of the Mississippian religious system. Evidence of warfare at the site provides evidence that while this site maintained an important place in the landscape, the cultural group

occupying it changed several times (King, 2004: 151-165). This shows how the site functioned as a core center both geographically and ideologically. The site had a shared importance among the diverse cultural groups of the area that were under tenuous social pressures created by the competition for space and the migration of peoples throughout the environment.

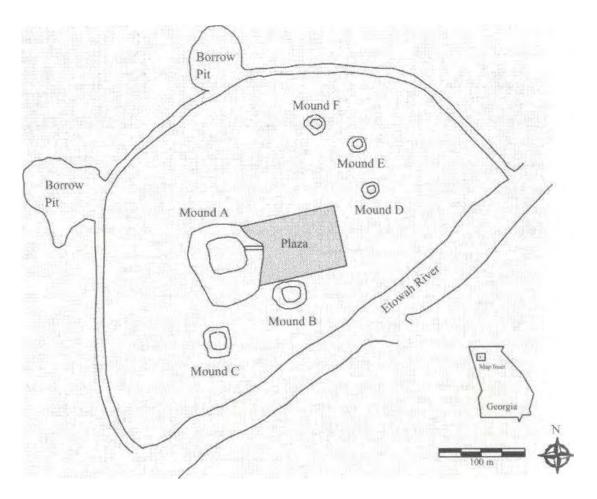


Fig. 5.3 - Plan Map of the Etowah site (King, 2007: 108)

Scholars have posited the multi-mound site of Lake

Jackson, in northwest Florida, as Etowah's sister-site due
to the distribution of and overlapping symbolism depicted
upon ideo-technic objects such as copper repoussé plates
and shell gorgets (Scarry, 2007:134-150). The site was
situated on the southern edge of Lake Jackson, northnorthwest of Tallahassee in Leon County, Florida. The
settlement patterning of the Lake Jackson area however, was
different from other emerging major centers.

Date	Period	Regional Period Designation	Phase
A.D. 1475–1550	Late Mississippian	Lamar	Brewster
A.D. 1375-1475	Late Mississippian	Lamar	Unoccupied
A.D. 1325-1375	Middle Mississippian	Savannah	Late Wilbanks
A.D. 1250-1325	Middle Mississippian	Savannah	Early Wilbanks
A.D. 1200-1250	Middle Mississippian	Savannah	Unoccupied
A.D. 1100-1200	Early Mississippian	Etowah	Late Etowah
A.D. 1000-1100	Early Mississippian	Etowah	Early Etowah

Fig. 5.4 - Etowah site Phase Sequence (King, 2007: 117)

Settlement at the Lake Jackson site ranges from approximately AD 1000-1500 (LeDoux, 2009). It is separated into Lake Jackson I (AD 1000-1150), Early Lake Jackson II (AD 1150-1250), Late Lake Jackson II (AD 1250-1400), and

Lake Jackson III (AD 1400-1500). The Apalachee Phase occurred after the fifteenth century, and was named after an association with the cultural group and complex Apalachee Chiefdom, which inhabited the area at that time (fig. 5.5, McEwan, 2000b, and Scarry, 1994).

At Lake Jackson, small farmsteads were associated with smaller single-mound centers, while the larger farmsteads centralized around multiple mound centers (LeDoux, 2009: 46-48). This pattern is closer to that of more developed and established Mississippian Chiefdoms (Peebles and Kus 1977: 433-435). This coincides with evidence of the arrival of Fort Walton occupation and the migration of Mississippian peoples to this area of northern Florida (see Payne, 1996 and Scarry, 1984). It seems plausible that the arrival of Mississippian peoples into the area accounts for the emergence of the Mississippian Chiefdom pattern in the area, especially when overlain with the nature of the swampy, population-limiting environment discussed previously. Thus, it is more probable that Mississippian people brought their culture to the area, rather than the peoples of the area adopting a rather late Mississippian cultural pattern.

This movement of Mississippian people into the area also evidences the geographic nature of the "Paradigm of

the Periphery." The emergence of late Mississippian patterns of habitation in the area, without the necessary precursors to this complex development demonstrates that people who had knowledge of the sacred traditions and symbolism that was initially created in the core centers of Moundville and Cahokia had migrated to the periphery, eventually arriving in the northern Florida area near Lake Jackson.

The connections between Etowah and Lake Jackson do not necessarily indicate a shared identity of the two polities. The previously discussed Moundville and Cahokia areas maintained an influence over the surrounding areas either by direct control or by supplying the peripheral areas with lesser elites, sacred traditions and knowledge, and the use and distribution of exotics and ritual objects. This is not characteristic of the Lamar area. In the Lamar area, individual groups seem to have developed throughout the landscape, and while there is evidence of trade and interaction, the archaeological evidence indicate a time of strife and warfare as well (Dye, 2009: 7-17).

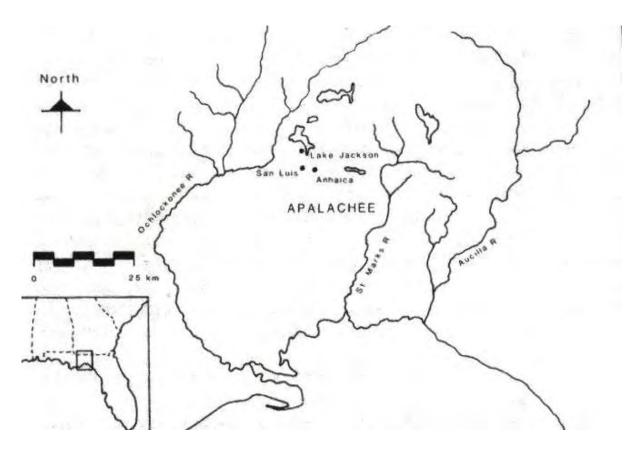


Fig. 5.5 - Ethnic Areas in Northern Florida, showing the location of the Lake Jackson site (Williams and Shapiro, 1990: 179)

The Green Corn Busk, celebrated as the Mvskoke New Year, is a time of renewal in which the wrongdoings of the past year can be forgiven and forgotten (Williams, ed. 1977: 51). The Mvskokvlke (the term for the Mvskoke people, see Martin and Mauldin, 2000) tell that the Green Corn Busk originated so that the peoples of this region could interact peacefully, without constant warfare (Dan Penton, personal communication, June 2009). Dan Penton is the

heles-haya, or maker of medicine, for the White Earth
Square Grounds of the Muscogee Nation of northern Florida.
The prolific nature of warfare iconography in the Lamar
area, like weapons and trophy heads, provides evidence to
the violent interactions that occurred in the region. It is
important to account for this systemic warfare when
analyzing the spread of symbolism and ideology through
trade and peaceful interactions because it provides a more
rounded and clarified context to the interpretations of the
people of the Greater Southeast.

Cultural Sequences in the Area

As would be expected with the environmental factors that limit the emergence of large-scale societies, the Lamar area was quite culturally diverse. The largest numbers of cultural groups in this area were those that would later constitute the Creek Confederacy in the protohistoric and historical periods. Swanton discussed the exhausting number of different polities associated with these tribal groups in his ethnographic work (Swanton 1946/1979: 81-219). Scholars have postulated the political organization of a confederacy as a way to maintain a successful social organization after the disintegration of large-scale chiefdoms (Galloway, 1994: 393-420). After the

European Invasion, which began with the Spanish Entrada, the tribes of this area were fracturing from within.

However, because of the dissolution of the chiefdoms, significant outside influences such as diseases likely acted as a catalyst to this process.

The Lamar area is roughly divisible into groups based on similarities in language, archaeological remains, and modern ethnologies. In *Indian Tribes of the Greater Southeast*, the divisions are postulated as follows (McEwan, 2000a). The northernmost group in this area are the Cherokee, whose southernmost towns are situated in southern Tennessee and northern Georgia (Schroedl, 2000: 204-241).

The Upper Creeks, who spoke Mvskoke, resided south of the Cherokee, and bordered the lands of the Lower Creeks, or Mikasuki/Hitchiti speakers, to the south (Waselkov and Smith, 2000: 242-264 and Worth, 2000: 265-298). The latter group existed on much more congenial terms with the Cherokee to the north, while the Upper Creeks historically were at a constant state of conflict with their Iroquoian neighbors to the north. The name "Cherokee" provides some evidence of this division, since it translates roughly to the derogative title "those cave people" (Mooney, 1975: 3-4). However, the Cherokee name for their selves was Ani'yvwiyv, which translates to "the true people," a common

self-naming practice of nearly every other cultural group in the southeast. The likely cause of this animosity is the migration of the Cherokee into the area, forcibly pushing the Mvskoke speaking Upper Creeks south as populations increased.

Jim Knight has used the concept of core and periphery in interpreting the formation of the culturally diverse "Creek Confederacy" in the lands of the Upper Creeks (Hudson and Tesser, eds., 1994: 373-392). He discusses how minor Mvskoke speaking centers functioned as cores, while non-Mvskoke speaking towns represented the periphery. The fact that Mvskoke was the lingua franca, or trade language, used to communicate in the interregional trade network and the language used in ritual supports this hypothesis (Reilly, personal communication, February 2010). This hypothesis further suggests that these linguistic connections created differences in the importance of towns based upon their constituent residency (i.e., Mvskokespeakers for the Upper Creeks and Hitchiti-speakers for the Lower Creeks). This differentiation follows with the postulated model of how the minor centers formed in the river basins, expanding out and eventually merging to form major centers through alliance or war.

The Timucua of the southern Georgia and northern

Florida area were another Lamar area group, comprised of
numerous interacting chiefdoms with a shared culture

(Milanich, 2000: 1-25). A number of smaller cultural groups
also resided in this expansive region, including the

Appalachee of northwest Florida, the Guale and Yuchi of the
southeastern Lamar area, and the Coosa of the northwestern
Lamar area. This is a fractured summary, however. Other

linguistic groups were also in this area, such as the
Algonkian speaking Shawnee (Hudson, 1976: 23). The Shawnee
moved north as the Upper and Lower Creeks began to relocate
due to the continuing influx of Iroquoian tribes such as
the Cherokee into the Greater Southeast.

In the northern part of the Lamar area lie several cultural areas of the South Appalachians. These areas include the Appalachian Summit along the Georgia,

Tennessee, South Carolina, and North Carolina borders.

Similar to the rest of the Lamar area, this region consisted of numerous cultural groups. The proliferation of Mississippian artifacts throughout the region, however, demonstrates the extensive interactions between this area and other Greater Southeastern regions. Shell-tempered cord-marked ceramics (discussed in Chapter 3) provide the most frequent and easily recognizable Mississippian tie to

this region. Scholars posited the origin of this ceramic complex as having accompanied the expansion of the "Mississippian frontier" (Keel, 1976: 218). Shell gorgets are another of the easily identifiable Mississippian ties (see Brain and Philips, 1996). One important and distinctive feature of this diverse cultural spread lies in the movement of Iroquoian tribes from the Northeast into this region, displacing the cultural groups there as discussed previously.

The migration of Iroquoian tribes, in particular the Cherokee, into the Greater Southeast was a process of both violent and non-violent interaction. The displacement of peoples that occurred in the area, discussed previously, supports the violent interactions, while a cultural blending that occurred supports the non-violent interactions. The ballgame is an example of this blending process (see Hudson, 1976: 408-421). Throughout the Pre-Columbian North American landscape the rules of the ballgame and the style of play is quite similar. However, some key differences allow scholars to assemble an analysis of cultural change exhibited in the ballgame. Players in the southeastern tribes use two sticks, cradling the ball so that the player may throw it either to pass or to strike the ball-pole for points. In the northeastern Iroquoian and

Algonkian tribes, only one stick is used, which has a larger net area than southeastern equivalent. This directly evidences a blending of cultures because the Iroquoian Cherokee adopted cultural traditions of their southern neighbors in the ballgame by using two sticks.

Major centers in this northern region of the Lamar area are nearly all identifiable Cherokee towns, though the evidence of these towns provided by notables such as William Bartram is from the eighteenth century (Slaughter, 1996). There exists little early historical evidence of this area beyond scanty descriptions and stories passed along to early Spanish historians by the natives. This lack of information causes the known fracturing of tribal groups that occurred after the Entrada to obscure much of the Spanish historical accounts of these lesser-documented areas. Thus, the archaeology becomes an intrinsic aspect of analysis in these areas.

An example is the ballgame, discussed previously.

While the game had several variations in play, it was nevertheless present in a majority of the Greater

Southeast. The earliest evidence of the ballgame was at Cahokia, as previously discussed, and by tracing the presence of ballgame related artifacts and symbolism, it

expanded out to peripheral areas as per the model that the "Paradigm of the Periphery" provides.

The patterns of movement of cultural groups throughout the landscape, interacting with and against each other, provide necessary data to the interpretation of this area within the confines of an analytical model like the "Paradigm of the Periphery". The identified patterns make apparent the differences between the Lamar area and other Mississippian areas or core centers. The formation of confederacies within these cultural groups and the temporally longer existence of the core centers in this area in relation to other areas of the Greater Southeast are likely interrelated, and must be a component in the cultural factoring posited under the "Paradigm of the Periphery."

The blending of culture that occurs through societal interaction in the Lamar area, such as the adoption of the Green Corn Ceremony and the changes to the ballgame, provides a firm grounding for the assumption that the individual autonomy of a tribal group was not sufficient to prevent the migration of culturally embedded data such as ritual or symbolism. This also allows for the supposition that the pressures of outsider groups in a regional context as diverse as the Lamar area assisted the continuation of

core centers by providing more stringent barriers to the diffusion of people from core centers into peripheral areas, the pattern seen at other major Mississippian core centers such as Cahokia and Moundville. Thus, in the Lamar area, the model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery" is not geographical in nature; rather, it is ideological and thus spreads culturally. This supposition agrees with the idea postulated by Shils, which defined the center as being culturally, rather than geographically, situated (Shils, 1972: 93). The model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Lamar area is the adoption of sacred traditions associated with an interregional religious system and trade network. This allows for an interpretation of interregional symbolism beyond the original meaning applied to it by those who partook in its inception at early major Mississippian core centers like Cahokia and Moundville.

PART III - What can we learn about what we see?

CHAPTER 6 - INTERPRETATION

Contextualizing the Relevant Data: Medium

The representation of interregional symbolic ideology carried by goods, both local and exotic, is the main source of interpretable data about the movements of people and ideology throughout the prehistoric southeast. The archaeological context of these objects and the symbolism depicted upon them allow for analysis within a subconscious cultural paradigm to establish a cultural context. The "Paradigm of the Periphery" then provides a model for the interpretation of the movement of these items and ideology within the environment.

Three distinct categories of objects provide examples of the delineation of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" in the Greater Southeast. Shell gorgets and engraved shell comprise the first, copper objects the second, stone objects and implements the third. The distribution of these objects, the symbolism depicted upon them, and their cultural context is analytically useful in understanding this data.

Shell: Engraved Shell & the Delineation of Sacred Space

There is widespread distribution of shell gorgets and engraved shell in the Greater Southeast (Reilly and Garber, eds. 2007, Brain and Philips, 1996). This includes locations in the areas around Cahokia and American Bottom, Spiro, Missouri, Moundville and the Black Warrior River, the Lamar area, the Tennessee Valley, and in the South Appalachians (Emerson 1997, Brown 1996, MacCurdy 1913, Moore 1996 and 2001, Hally 2007, Marceaux and Dye 2007, Sullivan 2007, Moore 2002, Holmes 1883, Dickens 1976, and Keel 1976). Finding such a widespread diffusion of shell gorgets in the Greater Southeast demonstrates a shared cultural production of ideo-technic items and the dispersal of both regional and interregional symbolism (Binford, 1962 and Brown, 2007b). The symbolism on these gorgets exhibit characteristics of shell engravings from as far away as Spiro, Oklahoma (Brown, 1996, see fig. 6.1).

These items exist within a shared subconscious cultural paradigm, as exhibited in their shared symbolism, stylistic qualities, and manner of production that is characteristic of the SECC. In particular, the styles found on these gorgets are identifiable as the Braden and Craig styles found throughout the southeast (Waring and Holder, 1945). The shell engravings compiled in the exhaustive six

volume series by Philips and Brown, Pre-Columbian Shell Engravings at the Craig Mound at Spiro, Oklahoma, best exemplify these styles, though, as mentioned, the myriad cultural groups throughout the Greater Southeast shared the motifs and styles found at Spiro (Philips and Brown, 1975-1982).



Fig. 6.1 - Shell cup fragments from Spiro, OK (on loan from the Museum of Fine Arts Houston to the Houston Museum of Natural Science, HMNS Loan 32.1998.04 (left) and HMNS Loan 32.1998.08 (right), photos by author)

Scholars have long studied shell gorgets within a Mississippian context. These engraved shell discs were chest adornments, but still held significance within ritual. MacCurdy discusses shell gorgets from Missouri, and their similarities to those found by earlier scholars such as C.B. Moore and William H. Holmes (MacCurdy, 1913 and Holmes, 1883).

At Spiro, Braden style engraved cups (see fig. 6.1) were recycled into Craig style gorgets. This indicates that Braden was an exotic style, and that Craig was the more localized style of the Spiro area (Brown, 2007b). The large caches of Busycon shells at Cahokia, the same used for the shell engravings, demonstrates the movement of these shells between interacting core areas. This is because the shells are marine, meaning that they had traveled a significant distance to arrive at Cahokia, strengthening the evidence for interregional core hegemony over peripheral areas (Emerson, 1997). The dispersals of these objects in peripheral mound sites relays the pattern of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" by moving from the production areas in the core center to the secondary or peripheral sites.

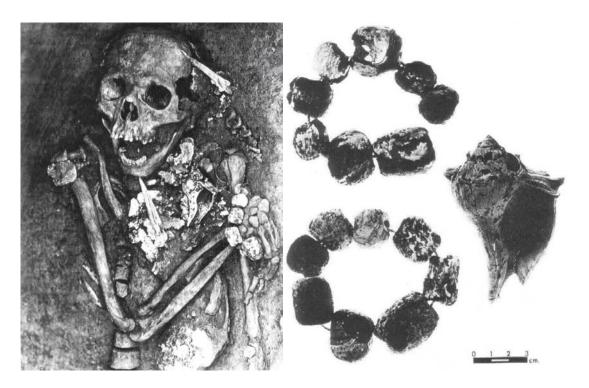


Fig. 6.2 - Burial 7 from the Warren Wilson site in North Carolina, excavations by Bennie Keel. Left: Close-up of the Burial showing the interred shell (Dickens, 1976: 157). Right: Close-up of the columella shell beads and small conch shell shown on the left (Dickens, 1976: 159).

Shell in and of itself was obviously an important item for both spiritual and sociological reasons. The widespread distribution of these engraved and carved shell goods, as well as columella beads, pins, and ear ornamentation (see fig. 6.2), provides evidence of the intrinsically important nature of shell (Keel, 1976: 151-153). In modern Creek ritual, shell delineates sacred space (Dan Penton, personal communication, June 2009). This manner of use explicates

one aspect of shell within the subconscious cultural paradigm of the southeastern peoples, an association with the sacred. This entails that not only were the prestigious shell goods, such as gorgets and engraved cups, fully entrenched in the ritual and ceremonial aspects of the culture, all shell was.

Copper: Repoussé Plates and Categorization by Aspects

Copper as a medium for ritual objects in the Americas is an ancient practice. The Old Copper culture of the prehistoric northeast United States, for example, made socio-technic items of copper, found interred in burials (see Binford, 1962). The source of this copper is the Great Lakes area (ibid.). The presence of copper at major core centers in the Greater Southeast, ergo, entails that it traveled great distances to reach its destination. The provenience of copper in the archaeological record, in mounds and elite burials, indicates that copper was reserved for elite individuals (Kelly, 1991: 61-80).

The difficulty in obtaining quantities of this material and amount of energy needed for working it likely account for the elite status of copper objects. As lesser elites gained access to ritual objects and knowledge, the use of these elite copper objects would have accompanied

their growth in status. As these lesser elites then moved out to peripheral areas, they took along some of these objects and the knowledge of their use and meanings. This movement of lesser elites follows along with the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as a model of cultural survival, with certain symbolism and traditions surviving outside of the core areas of their inception. Thus, by using the "Paradigm of the Periphery" it is determinable that the traditions associated with the use of copper in the core centers survived and likely continued all the way to modern native peoples.

Modern rituals in Creek tribes still use copper, which serves as a barrier between things of this world and things of the other worlds or spirit world (Dan Penton, personal communication, June 2009). The depth of entrenchment within a ritual setting suggests that the metal held a similar context in the past. The archaeological context of repoussé copper plates, such as the Rogan Plates mentioned in Chapter 5, strengthens this idea. Archaeologists have often discovered these copper plates on or about the chest or head of interred individuals or wrapped in basketry or matting (Moore, 1996, 2001, 2002 and Larson, 1971). Having these copper plates interred around the chest or head is similar to the modern use of copper in ritual mentioned

above, and the overarching subconscious cultural paradigm of the southeast.



Fig. 6.3 - Basketry Fragment with Copper, Spiro, OK, AD

1200-1350, (from the A.T. McDannald Collection, Houston

Museum of Natural Science, No. HMNS 1750, photo by author)

Basket or matting remnants with copper fragments (fig. 6.3) preserved by the copper salts were found at many different sites throughout the Greater Southeast (Moore, 2001: 342-343). These baskets were likely the containers

for sacred objects used in ritual and overlap with the depictions of such baskets on figurines in the southeast, such as the Keller figurine and the Westbrook Figurine (Emerson and Jackson, 1994: 259-261 and Reilly, 2004: 124-137).

The symbolism depicted on objects made of copper have common characteristics with that depicted on shell. The overlapping nature of the symbolism found on the chosen media creates shared symbolic spheres for the use of shell or copper. Both copper and shell were exotic trade goods and, as discussed, likely used in ritual ceremonies in a similar manner as in the present. Thus, we can safely assume an aspectual overlap between the two that allows for a blending of meaning within the subconscious cultural paradigm at work, specifically, an association with the sacred. This is important because categorization in the Greater Southeastern subconscious cultural paradigm is different from the categorization commonly employed in the western European subconscious cultural paradigm.

In the scientific tradition of thinkers such as Linnaeus, the western European tradition of categorization is that of categorization by characteristics, grouping things by observable or distinguishable traits. In the Greater Southeast, the categorization is through aspect,

thus, grouping things by traits that exhibit similar aspects. An example from the Mvskoke language, the word lane, serves to illustrate this difference. The word lane translates to green, yellow, and brown (Martin and Mauldin, 2000: 70, Dan Penton, personal communication, November 2009).

This grouping of colors would seem confusing under the Linnaean tradition, which identifies these three colors as separate and distinct. However, considering that the shared aspect is the yearly cycle of plants (green in spring and summer, then turning yellow in the fall, and brown in winter), this method of grouping becomes more understandable. The societies of the prehistoric southeast were highly reliant upon the land, weather, and the seasons for sustenance, shelter, and heat. Thus, the distinctive changes that occur in the environment throughout the year necessarily had an inherent importance in helping these people interact with their environment more successfully.

The inherent importance of an association with the yearly cycle of plants further increases in a culture that makes use of animism as an intrinsic feature of the interpretation of perceptions under the specific subconscious cultural paradigm of that society. This yearly cycle is also representative of the duality of nature, with

summer connoted as female and winter as masculine. The Berry Busk in early spring is the transition time to the feminine time of the year, while the Harvest Busk in autumn is the transition to the male time of year. These connections between male/female duality, the transition of the seasons, and the ritual calendar illustrate the categorization through aspect rather than characteristics.

In the case of copper, or cvto-lane in Mvskoke (roughly translating to metal that is yellow, green, or brown), the lane aspect rests in its ability to change colors, from shiny and reflective to its blue-green oxidized state. This ties copper to the intrinsic aspectual duality of nature in the southeastern subconscious cultural paradigm (i.e., the sun and moon, male and female, summer and winter, night and day). The bluish oxidized state (which occurs when copper is buried, linking it to Mother Earth) represents the female aspects such as the feminine moon, while the polished reflective state represents the masculine aspects such as Grandfather Sun (Chaudhuri and Chaudhuri, 2001: 52-55; Dan Penton, personal communication, November 2009).

This provides evidence of yet another complication in the process of interpreting the underlying meanings of perceptions within an aspectual categorization. Every thing

can exhibit multiple aspects, and the specific context of a thing's aspect can alter its meaning within the perceptual parameters of a subconscious cultural paradigm. This provides a series of possible interpretations to the meaning of symbols, craft goods, and the natural environment.

Another Mvskoke linguistic example, the Mvskoke term pak-pvke, defined as ocean foam, cotton, suds, bubbles, and also blossoms, may help further explicate this type of aspectual categorization (Martin and Mauldin, 2000: 96-97). In ritual, pak-pvke, in the aspect of ocean foam, holds yet another, symbolic meaning of semen (Dan Penton, personal communication, June 2009). This also harkens back to the intrinsic duality of nature, by applying a masculine aspect to the ocean, while retaining the feminine, life-giving aspect to the earth. The defining of the foam of the passv as pak-pvke in ritual symbolically represents this duality. Passy is the warrior's medicine made from Button Snakeroot (Eryngium yuccifolium). In making this medicine, the heleshaya (maker of medicine, the ritual ceremonial leader) creates the foam by the use of a blowing tube, which he then adds to the fire mound in metaphorical copulation. This creates a multi-layer set of overlapping meanings in which the heles-haya creates the white foam in the

masculine medicine using his metaphorical penis (the blowing tube), and then impregnates the feminine, life-giving aspect of the fire mound. The fire mound has a feminine aspect as a life-giver because the sacred fire, a living entity in the belief system, is born from the fire mound during the Green Corn Ceremony.

Stone: Understanding Power through Aspects

The third example of a medium with a utility value in the "Paradigm of the Periphery" is stone. This includes stone palettes, figurines, socio-technic objects (e.g., monolithic axes), ear spools, and lithic tools. presence of ideological symbolism on stone palettes and used in the creation of figurines such as those found near Cahokia, as discussed previously, contributes greatly to the breadth of symbolism recognized stylistically throughout the Greater Southeast. The socio-technic objects and ear spools do not necessarily display symbolic representations, yet they are, in and of themselves, physical examples of icons found depicted in the symbolism of the Greater Southeast. The lithic tools are a valuable analytical tool due the style of manufacture which varies between regions, and because the type of stone used in its manufacture. When people constructed the tools with locally acquired stone, the inherent value of the tool would have invariably been different than if that stone was an exotic.

The type of stone used can also be indicative of different aspects within the categorization of the world in use within the Greater Southeast. This may have connections to the availability of certain stone types, such as prismatic blades manufactured from obsidian. These are a rare type of formation in the volcanic glass infused with colors visible in the shiny black surface. However, it may also have other, cultural connections that could potentially be determined through linguistic studies.

Another way of examining the richness of meaning applied to different objects would be to cross-examine the stone types used in the construction of different objects. For example, steatite (i.e., soapstone) was a choice medium in the construction of numerous objects such as bowls and ear spools, however whether this is due to an aspectual or symbolic reason or simply the easily worked nature of the stone is undetermined. When these soapstone objects were combined with other media, such as in copper lined ear spools, the symbolic meaning is somewhat clarified. While likely indicative of social status in some way, ear spools also served in a similar way to copper within ritual by acting as barrier for sacred knowledge and power, keeping

the bad out and the good in (Dan Penton, personal communication, June, 2009). When these ear spools had copper linings or coverings (such as those found in the burials at the Kolomoki Mounds, see Sears, 1953), the strength of their power increased significantly. This is because it is an addition of similar aspects, not a combination of different aspects. Combining different aspects broadens the gamut of the power of an object, while combining similar aspects increases the objects inherent power.

Stone also demonstrates other aspectual connotations within the societies of the Greater Southeast. Due to the location of stone within or of the earth, the connections to the earth are apparent. However, stones that are extricated from the earth would also have an aspectual connection to the beneath world or spirit world, and the movement of energy between the different realms that constitute the multivalent world. In this manner, the importance of color symbolism distinguishable through the colors or luster of the stones increases (e.g., the black color of obsidian, along with its reflective nature, present many aspectual connections to the beneath world, the mirror-like spirit world, and to the dead).

Contextualizing the Relevant Data: Symbolism

The Natural Environment and the Political Environment

Elites of the Mississippian Period used symbolism that took manifestations of power represented in the natural environment and used it as a method of displaying political power, due to the overlap of these two categories within their subconscious paradigm. Representations, either wholly or in pars-pro-toto representations, of birds, serpents, and spiders are a means of associating an aspect of these creatures with the community and validating the elite power therein. All three of these creatures manifest multiple aspects.

The bird, as a flyer, represents travel between the world around us and the above world. The serpent represents travel between the world around us and the beneath world. However, the nature of the cosmology, cosmography, and cosmogony of these people incorporates the opposite aspect to both up and down depending on context because the above world and beneath world reverse their respective positions depending on the time of day. As previously stated, during the day, the above world is up, while the beneath world is down, however, at night, the above world rotates down as the beneath world becomes the night sky. Therefore, birds can also represent travel to the beneath world (where one

finds the entrance to the "path of souls"), just as serpents can also depict travel to the above world, depending on whether the use of such is performed during the day or the night. This transitory meaning to ritual symbolism exhibits the aspectual categorization discussed previously, and provides a larger range of interpretations to the ritual and political power claimed by the elites who make use of, or made use of, particular symbolism.

The spider is a particularly interesting figure to represent in ritual symbolism. The Cherokee mythology relating to the first fire involves the little water spider retrieving an ember from a burning tree on an island, after the failure of all other attempts (see Mooney, 1982: 240-242). The spider was rewarded and remembered by Cherokee forever after in their baskets, which were representative of the web-basket woven by the spider to carry the ember across the water in the time before. A weaver created the initial skeleton of the basket in such a way that it looked like a spider with eight legs. The use of such symbolism provided a ritual and cosmological association to mundane items such as baskets. This, in turn, provided validation for the profuse connections between the social-political environment and the natural environment.

Warfare, Ritual, and Elite Validation

Warfare symbolism is a common theme in the southeastern symbolic complex, including death motifs, skull and trophy head representations, and weapon depictions. However, even as this symbolism may indicate times of systemic warfare as previously discussed, many of the themes overlap with the symbolism of ritual. The "baton" or "mace" icon for example, is a representation of a weapon, possibly a club or atlatl (Waring and Holder, 1945 and Hall, 1997: 111-115). War clubs were powerful warfare symbols, indicating military prowess or success(Dye, 2009: 159). These images are depicted on various media, including copper repoussé headdress ornamentation at the Lake Jackson site (fig. 6.5). This warfare imagery is also found on engraved shell items such as gorgets (see fig. 6.4) and shell cups (Scarry, 2007: 134-150). However, it also likely held another meaning as a depiction of a sacred rattle.

Rattles used in modern ritual simultaneously serve as functioning cosmograms; a connection that likely dates back to Mississippian beliefs systems (Dan Penton, personal communication, November 2009). There is a rounded center representing the middle world, a handle serving as the beneath world, and an upper section symbolically

representing the sky vault and "above place" of the ancestors. The representations of the "baton" icon also have this layout, suggesting a cosmological interpretation to the symbol.



Fig. 6.4 - Engraved Shell Gorget depicting a figure wielding a "baton" and trophy head, from the Castalian Springs site, Tennessee, AD 1250-1350 (from Townsend and Sharp, eds., 2004: 190)

As a cosmological symbol, ritual rattles hold an intrinsic meaning associated with the masculine, because ritual falls within the male domain of society. Weapons, too, fall within the masculine domain because of their association with warfare. Thus, both weapons and rattles are powerful symbols in the ritual realm of society in the Greater Southeast.

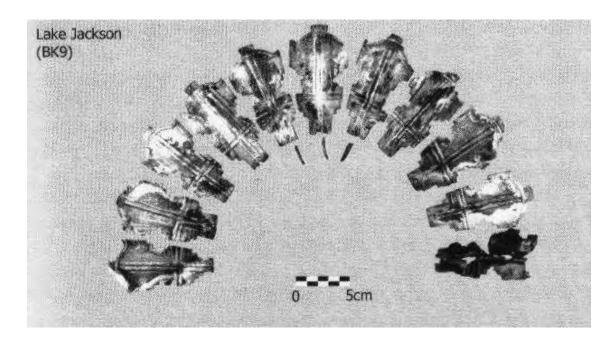


Fig. 6.5 - Copper Repoussé headdress elements from the Lake Jackson site in northern Florida, depicting the "baton" with cross motif (from King, ed., 2007: 143)

In addition to the layout of the "baton" icon, other iconographic elements associated with this particular

symbol provide cosmological associations as well. The cross motif, for example, is commonly depicted on these "batons" (see fig. 6.5). This motif is symbolically indicative of the four directions constituting the "middle world," as well as the sacred fire, which has a similar layout.

The leaders and elites who make use of such symbolism are claiming an aspect of the power of the symbolism as an aspect of themselves. In doing so, they are validating their elite status in the society. In An Archaeology of the Soul, Hall describes how the atlatl is associated with cosmograms in Mesoamerican cultures, which, if taken as the meaning of the "baton" icon, provides further evidence for a cosmological interpretation of this symbol (Hall, 1997: 113-115). Thus, the fact that these symbolic representations of both peace and war were widespread throughout the Greater Southeast further supports the inherent connection between the cosmological and ritual symbolism and warfare iconography within the Mississippian societies(Dye, 2009: 175-177.

CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS

Where does this bring us?

The contextualization of the data performed in Chapter 6 provides an example of how a new interpretation of the archaeological data can give deeper and more meaningful insight into those cultures that left those remains.

Filtering the data through the subconscious cultural paradigms of the culture limits superfluous interpretations of the people who left those remains. The data then provides an enlightening view of the progress of a society within the larger interregional network bound together by their shared subconscious cultural paradigms, sacred knowledge and traditions, and use of ritual and ceremonial imagery and symbolism.

A richer understanding of the cultures of these networks occurs when we are able to determine the ritual importance of certain items or imagery in a larger cultural context and compare this imagery with data sets that provide information on changes in habitation and climate. Data sets such as ceramic seriation or chronologies, radiometric-

carbon chronological data, settlement patterns, and both site and structural stratification profiles can then provide a means to analyze the state of progress of specific sites in relation to the larger interacting regions. Comparing this state of progress to the inception points of distinctive symbolism into a specific area allows for an interpretation of the regional developments and the patterns of movement of the peoples within the environment because of social or political pressures. The use of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as an analytical model for the migration of symbolism and sacred traditions provides coherency to these social and political pressures both from internal and external factors.

The Model of the Paradigm of the Periphery

This thesis has postulated the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as an analytical model of cultural survival.

The thesis reviewed examples of the distribution and movement of interregional symbolism indicative of a shared religious system throughout the environment. Furthermore, this essay has set the foundations for this model to be used in more focused and in-depth analyses of the available data in the Greater Southeast.

As previously discussed, the "Paradigm of the Periphery" functions in two ways. When the "Paradigm of the Periphery" functions geographically, it traces the movement of symbolism and sacred traditions from the point of their inception at major core centers to peripheral areas where they provide the means for the cultural survival of these symbols and traditions. When functioning ideologically, the paradigm traces symbolism and traditions transmitted culturally from the original bearers to peripheral culture groups who maintain and, in turn, pass the symbols and traditions on to other groups through interaction and trade.

The "Paradigm of the Periphery" functions as ideological model for the movement of symbolism and sacred traditions or rituals throughout the environment (see fig. 7.1). It begins with charismatic individuals gaining influence and power (fig. 7.1 - Phase 1). These elites then gain influence over other areas of the environment, making use of these areas as horticultural or subsistence areas. This increase in subsistence areas provides a surplus, which allows the population of the area to increase. As population increases, the power of the elites increases (fig. 7.1 - Phase 2). This provides the prerequisites for centralization to occur, which marks the

beginning of hegemonic techniques in which areas provide tribute to the core to take part in the ritual and political power associated with the elites of the core center (fig. 7.1 - Phase 3). As populations increased, the elites separated into ruling elite and a lesser elite, which assisted in performing and leading the rituals involved in satiating the increased needs of a socially complex and diverse core center.

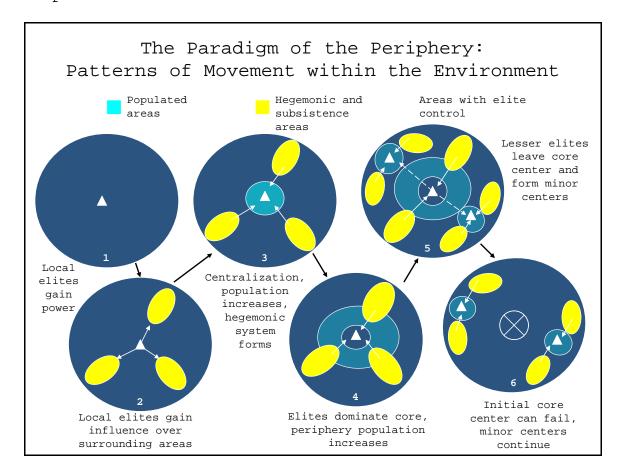


Fig. 7.1 - Six-phase Ideological Model of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" as it pertains to the movement of symbolism and ideology within the environment (diagram by author)

As the population of the core center increase, the need for increased ritual space also increases. To satisfy this need for increased ritual space, mound construction increases in both the size of mounds and the number of mounds. The elites maintain their residence in this central area because they are the epicenter of both ritual and political power in a system that does not disentangle these two concepts. The non-elite population that had previously inhabited this central area is forced to migrate to the periphery of the culture, while the center itself became an enlarged ritual and political space (fig. 7.1 - Phase 4).

This initial migration sows the seeds for the lesser elites to leave the core center and establish minor centers of their own within the existing hegemonic system (fig. 7.1 - Phase 5). The lesser elites of these newly formed minor centers pay tribute to the elites of the major core center in exchange for access to sacred rituals, knowledge, and items, interregional trade networks, and likely the bloodlines of the elites through marriage alliances. With these minor centers functioning successfully, the initial core center can fail without causing the failure of the secondary minor centers (fig. 7.1 - Phase 6). Thus, the symbolism and ideology of the original core can outlast the

core center itself by migrating to the periphery of the society.

Where do we go from here?

The proposed analytical model of the "Paradigm of the Periphery" established using the evidence from the Greater Southeast can provide a means of explicating the larger interaction network of the pre-Columbian societies of North America, such as the connections between the Greater Southeast and the Southwest, the Northeast, and Midwest. This would allow for a more global view of the areas and an extrapolation of the extent of both the social interaction within and between all of these areas, and the interactions of these areas with other areas. This would include the connections between Mesoamerica and the Southwest, known from the spread of teocinte/maize and the presence of turquoise from the Southwest in Mesoamerica.

The "Paradigm of the Periphery" can also serve as an analytical tool in assessing the languages of the southeast, taking into account the changes in dialects and allowing for a better comprehension of the originating language, or mother language, and the effects of outside influence upon the language, such as the creolization of languages. For example, researchers could analyze and

compare differences between Cherokee dialects (the eastern dialect of North Carolina and the Oklahoma dialect), comparing this to the changes in material culture represented in the archaeological record. Further studies could analyze linguistic differences between cultures, comparing the changes seen to the archaeological and iconographic evidence to compare the dialectical change to the incorporation or adoption of foreign or exotic goods or symbolism.

Taking the model for the "Paradigm of the Periphery" established in the Greater Southeast to an analysis of the interaction spheres of Mesoamerica might provide a better understanding of the migration of sacred traditions within that landscape, and illuminate the complexities of interaction in place in the Pre-Columbian Americas. Better illumination of the research on the presence of exotics such as Mayan ceramics at Teotihuacán, and the interregional obsidian trade from Teotihuacán and other regions can be achieved by using the "Paradigm of the Periphery" (see Clayton 2005, Santley 2004, Spence 1996, Charlton 1978, Moholy-Nagy 1984 and 1999). Furthermore, a more illuminative analysis of the layout, temporal changes, and urbanization of Mesoamerican core centers as part of interregional trade networks of both goods and ideology is

achievable (see Maudsley 1883, Millon 1960, 1964, and 1970, Haviland 1970, Coe 1962, West 1965, Arnold and Ford 1980, Sanders and Webster 1988, Moholy-Nagy 1997, and Hirth, 2000a and 2000b).

Additionally, scholars can use the "Paradigm of the Periphery" to evaluate the changes and developments of a culture after the introduction or influence of secondary cultures such as happened after the European Invasion of the Americas. This will involve using the primary subconscious cultural paradigm of the culture to interpret the influx of symbolism from a secondary culture. This allows for an account of the occurrences of additions, amalgamation, absorption, and fusion of traditions and symbolism that occurs when there is a conflict within the religious system in place at the time (Shils, 1981: 273-280). Such a study would provide a way to approach the changes in the religious practices of the native peoples of the Greater Southeast after the Trail of Tears. The possibility lies therein of recapturing sacred traditions and knowledge thought lost by the tragedies associated with the forced relocations of native peoples.

REFERENCES AND WORKS CITED

- Anderson, David G.
 - 1990 "Stability and Change in Chiefdom-Level Societies: An Examination of Mississippian Political Evolution on the South Atlantic Slope" Lamar Archaeology, Mississippian Chiefdoms in the Deep South. Williams, Mark and Shapiro, Gary, editors, 187-213. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
 - 1994 The Savannah River Chiefdoms, Political Change in the Late Prehistoric Southeast. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, Al.
- Arnold, Jeanne E and Ford, Anabel.
 - 1980 "A Statistical Examination of Settlement Patterns at Tikal, Guatemala" American Antiquity, Vol. 45, No. 4, pp. 713-726. Society for American Archaeology
- Ben-David, Joseph and Clark, Terry Nichols, editors.
 1977 Culture and Its Creators, Essays in Honor of
 Edward Shils. University of Chicago Press,
 Chicago, IL.
- Beck, Robin A., Jr.
 - 2003 "Consolidation and Hierarchy: Chiefdom Variability in the Mississippian Southeast" American Antiquity, Vol. 68, No. 4, pp. 641-661. Society for American Archaeology.
- Berger, John
 - 1972 Ways of Seeing. Penguin Putnam, Inc. New York, NY.
- Berger, Peter L. and Luckman, Thomas.
 - 1967 The Social Construction of Reality, A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge. Anchor Books, a division of Random House Publishing, New York, NY

Berger, Peter L.

- 1963 Introduction to Sociology, A Humanistic Perspective. Anchor Books, a division of Random House Publishing, New York, NY.
- 1969 The Sacred Canopy, Elements of a Sociological Theory of Religion. Anchor Books, a division of Random House Publishing, New York, NY.

Binford, Lewis R.

- 1962 "Archaeology as Anthropology" American Antiquity, Vol. 28, No. 2, pp. 217-225. Society for American Archaeology, Salt Lake City, UT.
- 1965 "Archaeological Systematics and the Study of Culture Process" American Antiquity, Vol. 31, No. 2, Part 1, pp. 203-210. Society for American Archaeology
- Brain, J. P. and Philips, P.
 - 1996 Shell Gorgets: Styles of the Late Prehistoric and Protohistoric Southeast. Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Brown, James A.

- 1996 The Spiro Ceremonial Center: The Archaeology of the Arkansas Valley Caddoan Culture in Eastern Oklahoma, Volumes 1 and 2. Memoirs of the Museum of Anthropology, Number 29, Vol. 1: 1-292, Vol. 2: 293-752. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI.
- 2004 "The Cahokia Expression: Creating Court and Cult" Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of the Ancient Midwest and South. Townsend, Richard F. and Sharp, Robert V., editors, 105-124. Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- 2007a "On the Identity of the Birdman within Mississippian Period Art and Iconography" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 56-106. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.

- 2007b "Sequencing the Braden Style within Mississippian Period Art and Iconography" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 213-245. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.
- Bullard, William R., Jr.
 - 1960 "Maya Settlement Pattern in Northeastern Peten, Guatemala" American Antiquity, Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 355-372. Society for American Archaeology
- Carneiro, Robert L.
 - 1970 "A Theory of the Origin of the State" Science, New Series, Vol. 169, No. 3947, pp. 733-738. American Association for the Advancement of Science
- Charlton, Thomas H.
 - 1978 "Teotihuacán, Tepeapulco, and Obsidian Exploitation" Science, New Series, Vol. 200, No. 4347, pp. 1227-1236. American Association for the Advancement of Science
- Chaudhuri, Jean and Chaudhuri, Joyotpaul.
 - 2001 A Sacred Path, The Way of the Muscogee Creeks.

 UCLA American Indian Studies Center, Regents of
 the University of California, Los Angeles, CA.
- Clayton, Sarah C.
 - 2005 "Interregional Relationships in Mesoamerica: Interpreting Maya Ceramics at Teotihuacán" Latin American Antiquity, Vol. 16, No. 4, pp. 427-448. Society for American Archaeology.
- Cobb, Charles R.
 - 2003 "Mississippian Chiefdoms: How Complex?" Annual Review of Anthropology, Vol. 32, pp. 63-84.
 Annual Reviews.
- Coe, William R.
 - 1962 "A Summary of Excavation and Research at Tikal, Guatemala: 1956-61" American Antiquity, Vol. 27, No. 4, pp. 479-507. Society for American Archaeology

Conner, Michael D.

1985 "The Hill Creek Homestead, and the Late Mississippian Settlement in the Lower Illinois Valley" Center for American Archaeology, Kampsville Archaeological Center, Research Series, Volume 1. Kampsville, IL.

Cowgill, George L.

1997 "State and Society at Teotihuacan, Mexico" Annual Review of Anthropology, Vol. 26, pp. 129-161.
Annual Reviews.

De Beauvoir, Simone.

1976 The Ethics of Ambiguity. Citadel Press, Kensington Publishing Corp., New York, NY.

Dickens, Roy S., Jr.

1976 Cherokee Prehistory, The Pisgah Phase in the Appalachian Summit Region. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, TN.

Dickens, Roy S., Jr. and Ward, H. Trawick, editors.

1985 Structure and Process in Southeastern
Archaeology. University of Alabama Press,
Tuscaloosa, AL.

Driver, W. David and Garber, James F.

2004 "The Emergence of Minor Centers in the Zones between Seats of Power" The Ancient Maya of the Belize Valley, Half a Century of Archaeological Research. Garber, James F., editor, 287-304. University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Dye, David H.

2009 War Paths, Peace Paths: An Archaeology of Cooperation and Conflict in Native Eastern North America. AltaMira Press, Lanham, MD.

Eastman, Jane M. and Rodning, Christopher B.
2001 Archaeological Studies of Gender in the
Southeastern United States. University Press of
Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Eliade, Mircea

1964 Shamanism: Archaic Techniques of Ecstasy.
Translated by Willard R. Trask. Princeton
University Press. Princeton, NJ.

- Emerson, Thomas E.
 - 1989 "Water, Serpents, and the Underworld: An Exploration into Cahokian Symbolism" The Southeastern Ceremonial Complex: Artifacts and Analysis, The Cottonlandia Conference. Galloway, Patricia, editor, 45-92. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE
 - 1997 Cahokia and the Archaeology of Power. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Emerson, Thomas E. and Jackson, Douglass K.

 1984 "The BBB Motor Site (11-Ms-595)" American Bottom
 Archaeology, FAI-270 Site Reports, Volume 6.
 University of Illinois Press, Chicago, IL.
- Emerson, Thomas E. and Lewis, R. Barry, editors.

 1991 Cahokia and the Hinterlands, Middle Mississippian

 Cultures of the Midwest. University of Illinois

 Press, Chicago, IL.
- Ethridge, Robbie and Hudson, Charles, editors.

 2002 The Transformation of the Southeastern Indians,

 1540-1760. University Press of Mississippi,

 Jackson, MS.
- Fairbanks, Charles H.
 - 1942 "The Taxonomic Position of Stalling's Island, Georgia" American Antiquity, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 223-231. Society for American Archaeology
- Freeland, Cynthia
 - 2001 But is it art? An Introduction to Art Theory.
 Oxford University Press, Inc. New York, NY.
- Ford, J. A. and Willey, Gordon R.
 - 1941 "An Interpretation of the Prehistory of the Eastern United States" American Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 43, No. 3, Part 1, pp. 325 -363. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the American Anthropological Association
- Fowler, M. L.
 - 1972 The Cahokia Site: Summary and Conclusions. Paper presented at the 37th Annual Meeting of the Society for American Archaeology, Bal Harbour.

Galloway, Patricia

- 1989 The Southeastern Ceremonial Complex: Artifacts and Analysis, The Cottonlandia Conference.
 University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE
- 1994 "Confederacy as a Solution to Chiefdom Dissolution: Historical Evidence in the Choctaw Case" Forgotten Centuries: Indians and Europeans in the American South, 1521-1704. Hudson, Charles and Tesser, Carmen Chaves, editors, 393-420. University of Georgia Press, Athens, GA.

Garber, James F., editor.

2004 The Ancient Maya of the Belize Valley, Half a Century of Archaeological Research. University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Geertz, Clifford

1977 "Centers, Kings, and Charisma: Reflections on the Symbolics of Power" Culture and Its Creators, Essays in Honor of Edward Shils. Ben-David, Joseph and Clark, Terry Nichols, editors, 150-171. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.

Gramsci, Antonio

1971 Selections from the Prison Notebooks of Antonio Gramsci. Translated by Q. Hoare and G. Smith. International Publishers, New York, NY.

Green, William and Rodell, Roland L.

1994 "The Mississippian Presence and Cahokia Interaction at Trempealeau, Wisconsin" American Antiquity, Vol. 59, No. 2, pp. 334-359. Society for American Archaeology.

Hall, Robert L.

- 1991 "Cahokia Identity and Interaction Models of Cahokia" Cahokia and the Hinterlands, Middle Mississippian Cultures of the Midwest. Emerson, Thomas E. and Lewis, R. Barry, editors, 3-34. University of Illinois Press, Chicago, IL.
- 1997 An Archaeology of the Soul: North American Indian Belief and Ritual. University of Illinois Press, Chicago, IL.

Hally, David J.

2007 "Mississippian Shell Gorgets in Regional Perspective" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 185-231. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

Harris, Chauncy D.

1943 "Suburbs" The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 49, No. 1, pp. 1-13. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.

Haviland, William A

1970 "Tikal, Guatemala and Mesoamerican Urbanism" World Archaeology, Vol. 2, No. 2, Urban Archaeology, pp. 186-198. Taylor & Francis, Ltd.

Heidegger, Martin.

2008 Being and Time. Harper Collins Publishers, New York, NY.

Hirth, Kenneth

2000a Ancient Urbanism at Xochicalco: The Evolution and Organization of a Pre-Hispanic Society.

Archaeological Research at Xochicalco, Vol. 1,
University of Utah Press, Salt Lake City, UT

2000b The Xochicalco Mapping Project. Kenneth Hirth, ed. Archaeological Research at Xochicalco, Vol. 2, University of Utah Press, Salt Lake City, UT

Holmes, William H.

1883 "Art in Shell of the Ancient Americans." Second Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, 1880-81, pp. 179-305.

Hudson, Charles

1976 The Southeastern Indians. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, TN.

Hudson, Charles and Tesser, Carmen Chaves, eds.

1994 Forgotten Centuries: Indians and Europeans in the American South, 1521-1704. University of Georgia Press, Athens, GA.

Husserl, Edmund.

1962 Ideas: General Introduction to Pure
Phenomenology. Gibson, W. R. Boyce, translator.
Collier Books, Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc. New
York, NY.

Keel, Bennie C.

1976 Cherokee Archaeology, A Study of the Appalachian Summit. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, TN.

Kehoe, Alice Beck

2007 "Osage Texts and Cahokia Data" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 246-262. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.

Kelly, John E.

1991 "Cahokia and its Role as a Gateway Center in Interregional Exchange" Cahokia and the Hinterlands, Middle Mississippian Cultures of the Midwest. Emerson, Thomas E. and Lewis, R. Barry, editors, 61-80. University of Illinois Press, Chicago, IL.

Kelly, John E.; Brown, James A.; Hamlin, Jenna M.; Kelly, Lucretia S.; Kozuch, Laura; Parker, Kathryn; and Van Nest, Julieann.

2007 "Mound 34: The Context for the Early Evidence of the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex at Cahokia" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. King, Adam, editor, 57-87. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

King, Adam

- 2003 "Over a Century of Explorations at Etowah."

 Journal of Archaeological Research, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 279 306. Springer Netherlands
- 2004 "Power and the Sacred: Mound C and the Etowah Chiefdom" Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of the Ancient Midwest and South.

 Townsend, Richard F. and Sharp, Robert V., editors, 151-165. Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, IL.

- 2007a Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- 2007b "Mound C and the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex in the History of the Etowah Site" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 107-133. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- 2007c "Whither SECC?" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 251-258. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Knight, Vernon James Knight, Jr.
 - 1998 "Moundville as a Diagrammatic Ceremonial Center" Archaeology of the Moundville Chiefdom. Knight, Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P., editors, 44-62. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.
 - 2007 "An Assessment of Moundville Engraved "Cult"
 Designs from Potsherds" Southeastern Ceremonial
 Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. King,
 Adam, editor, 151-164. University of Alabama
 Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Knight, Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P.
 1998a Archaeology of the Moundville Chiefdom. Knight,
 Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P.,
 editors.Smithsonian Institution Press,
 Washington, D.C.
 - 1998b "A New History of Moundville" Archaeology of the Moundville Chiefdom. Knight, Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P., editors. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.

Krieger, Alex D.

1945 "An Inquiry into Supposed Mexican Influence on a Prehistoric "Cult" in the Southern United States" American Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 47, No. 4, pp. 483-515. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the American Anthropological Association

Kristiansen, Kristian

1987 "Center and Periphery in Bronze Age Scandinavia" Centre and Periphery in the Ancient World.

Rowlands, Michael; Larsen, M.; and Kristiansen,
K., eds., 74-86. Cambridge University Press,
Cambridge, Great Britain.

Kroeber, Karl

1996 "Unaesthetic Imaginings: Native American Myth as Speech Genre" Boundary 2, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp. 171-197. Duke University Press

Lankford, George E.

- 2004 "World on a String: Some Cosmological Components of the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex" Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of the Ancient Midwest and South. Townsend, Richard F. and Sharp, Robert V., editors, 207-218. Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- 2007a "Some Cosmological Motifs in the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 8-38. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.
- 2007b "The Great Serpent in Eastern North America" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms:
 Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography.
 Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 107-135. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.

LeDoux, Spencer Curtis.

2009 Embodying the Sacred: Temporal Changes in the Cosmological Function of Art and Symbolism in the Mississippian Period, AD 1250-1400. Honors Thesis, Texas State University - San Marcos, University Honors Program, San Marcos, TX.

Lyons, Oren

1984 "Our Mother Earth" Parabola 7, no. 1.

MacCurdy, George Grant

1913 "Shell Gorgets from Missouri" American
Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 15, No. 3, pp.
395-414. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the
American Anthropological Association.

Marceaux, Shawn and Dye, David H.

2007 "Hightower Anthropomorphic Marine Shell Gorgets and Duck River Sword-Form Flint Bifaces: Middle Mississippian Ritual Regalia in the Southern Appalachians" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 165-184. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

Martin, Jack B. and Mauldin, Margaret McKane
2000 A Dictionary of Creek/Muskogee, with notes on the
Florida and Oklahoma Seminole dialects of Creek.
University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE

Maudslay, A. P.

1883 "Explorations in Guatemala, and Examination of the Newly-Discovered Indian Ruins of Quiriguá, Tikal, and the Usumacinta" Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Record of Geography, New Monthly Series, Vol. 5, No. 4, pp. 185-204. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of The Royal Geographical Society (with the Institute of British Geographers).

McEwan, Bonnie G., ed.

2000a Indians of the Greater Southeast: Historical Archaeology and Ethnohistory. University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

2000b "The Apalachee Indians of Northwest Florida"

Indians of the Greater Southeast: Historical

Archaeology and Ethnohistory. McEwan, Bonnie G.,
editor, 57-84. University Press of Florida,
Gainesville, FL.

Merleau-Ponty, Maurice.

1962 Phenomenology of Perception. Translated by Routelage and Kegan Paul. Routlege Press, New York, NY.

- Mihesuah, Devon Abbott
 - 2003 Indigenous American Women: Decolonization, Empowerment, Activism. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE.
- Milanich, Jerald T.
 - 2000 "The Timicua Indians of Northern Florida and Southern Georgia" Indians of the Greater Southeast: Historical Archaeology and Ethnohistory. McEwan, Bonnie G., editor, 1-25. University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.
- Milanich, Jerald T. and Hudson, Charles.
 - 1993 Hernando De Soto and the Indians of Florida. Florida Museum of Natural History, University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Millon, Rene.

- 1960 "The Beginnings of Teotihuacan" American
 Antiquity, Vol. 26, No. 1, pp. 1-10. Society for
 American Archaeology.
- 1964 "The Teotihuacan Mapping Project" American Antiquity, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 345-352. Society for American Archaeology.
- 1970 "Teotihuacán: Completion of Map of Giant Ancient City in the Valley of Mexico" Science, New Series, Vol. 170, No. 3962, pp. 1077-1082.

 American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Moholy-Nagy, Hattula.

- 1997 "Middens, Construction Fill, and Offerings:
 Evidence for the Organization of Classic Period
 Craft Production at Tikal, Guatemala" Journal of
 Field Archaeology, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 293-313.
 Boston University.
- 1999 "Mexican Obsidian at Tikal, Guatemala" Latin American Antiquity, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 300-313. Society for American Archaeology
- Moholy-Nagy, Hattula; Asaro, Frank; and Stross, Fred H.
 1984 "Tikal Obsidian: Sources and Typology" American
 Antiquity, Vol. 49, No. 1, pp. 104-117. Society
 for American Archaeology.

Mooney, James

- 1975 Historical Sketch of the Cherokee. Smithsonian Institution Press, Chicago, IL.
- 1982 Myths of the Cherokee and Sacred Formulas of the Cherokees. Reproduction of 19th and 7th Annual Reports of the B.A.E. Charles and Randy Elder-Booksellers, Nashville, TN in collaboration with Cherokee Heritage Books, Cherokee, N.C.

Moore, Clarence Bloomfield

- 1996 The Moundville Expeditions of Clarence Bloomfield Moore. Edited by Vernon James Knight, Jr. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- 2001 The Southern and Central Alabama Expeditions of Clarence Bloomfield Moore. Edited by Craig T. Sheldon, Jr. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- 2002 The Tennessee, Green, and Lower Ohio Rivers
 Expeditions of Clarence Bloomfield Moore. Edited
 by Richard R. Polhemus. University of Alabama
 Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

Moorehead, Warren K.

1927 "Exploration of the Etowah Mounds" Science, New Series, Vol. 65, No. 1677, p. 185. American Association for the Advancement of Science

Patterson-Rudolph, Carol

1997 On the Trail of Spiderwoman: Petroglyphs,
Pictographs, and Myths of the Southwest. Ancient
City Press, Santa Fe, NM.

Pauketat, Timothy R.

- 1993 "Big Bang in the Bottom: Political Consolidation and Mississippianism at Cahokia." Paper presented at the 58th Annual Meeting of the Society for American Archaeology, St. Louis.
- 2003 "Resettled Farmers and the Making of a Mississippian Polity" American Antiquity, Vol. 68, No. 1, pp. 39-66. Society for American Archaeology.

- Pauketat, Timothy R. and Emerson, Thomas E.
 - 1997 Cahokia: Domination and Ideology in the Mississippian World. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE.

Payne, Claudine

1994 Mississippian Capitals: An Archaeological Investigation of Pre-Columbian Political Structure. Ph.D. Dissertation. University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Peebles, Christopher S.

- 1971 "Moundville and Surrounding Sites: Some Structural Considerations of Mortuary Practices II" Memoirs of the Society for American Archaeology, No. 25, Approaches to the Social Dimensions of Mortuary Practices, pp. 68-91. Society for American Archaeology.
- Peebles, Christopher S. and Kus, Susan M.

 1977 "Some Archaeological Correlates of Ranked
 Societies." American Antiquity, Vol. 42, No. 3,
 Essays on Archaeological Problems, pp. 421-448.
 Society for American Archaeology.

Perdue, Theda

1998 Cherokee Women: Gender and Culture Change, 1700-1835. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, NE.

Philips, Philip and Brown, James A.

- 1975 Pre-Columbian Shell Engravings from the Craig
 Mound at Spiro, Oklahoma. Vol. 1-3. Peabody
 Museum Press, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- 1979 Pre-Columbian Shell Engravings from the Craig Mound at Spiro, Oklahoma. Vol. 4. Peabody Museum Press, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- 1980 Pre-Columbian Shell Engravings from the Craig Mound at Spiro, Oklahoma. Vol. 5. Peabody Museum Press, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- 1982 Pre-Columbian Shell Engravings from the Craig Mound at Spiro, Oklahoma. Vol. 6. Peabody Museum Press, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Phillips, Philip and Willey, Gordon R.

1953 "Method and Theory in American Archeology: An Operational Basis for Culture-Historical Integration" American Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 55, No. 5, Part 1, pp. 615-633. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the American Anthropological Association.

Pieper, Josef.

2008 Tradition, Concept and Claim. Translated from the original German by E. Christian Kopff. ISI Books, Wilmington, DE.

Pluckhahn, Thomas J. and Ethridge, Robbie.
2006 Light on the Path. University of Alabama Press,
Tuscaloosa, AL.

Reilly, F. Kent, III

- 2004 "People of Earth, People of Sky: Visualizing the Sacred in Native American Art of the Mississippian Period" Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of the Ancient Midwest and South. Townsend, Richard F. and Sharp, Robert V., editors, 125-138. Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- 2007 "The Petaloid Motif: A Celestial Symbolic Locative in the Shell Art of Spiro" Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors, 8-38. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.
- Reilly, F. Kent, III. and Garber, James F., editors 2007 Ancient Objects and Sacred Realms: Interpretations of Mississippian Iconography. University of Texas Press, Austin, TX.

Rowlands, Michael

1987 "Centre and Periphery: A Review of a Concept"

Centre and Periphery in the Ancient World.

Rowlands, Michael; Larsen, M.; and Kristiansen,

K., eds., 1-12. Cambridge University Press,

Cambridge, Great Britain.

- Rowlands, Michael; Larsen, M.; and Kristiansen, K., eds. 1987 Centre and Periphery in the Ancient World. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, Great Britain.
- Sanders, William T. and Webster, David.

 1988 "The Mesoamerican Urban Tradition" American

 Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 90, No. 3, pp.
 521-546. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the

 American Anthropological Association.
- Santley, Robert S.

 2004 "What Was Teotihuacan Doing in the Maya Region?"

 Journal of Anthropological Research, Vol. 60, No.
 3, pp. 379-396. University of New Mexico.
- Sassaman, Kenneth E., Blessing, M. E., and Randall, A. R. 2006 "Stallings Island Revisited: New Evidence for Occupational History, Community Pattern, and Subsistence Technology" American Antiquity, Vol. 71, No. 3, pp. 539-565. Society for American Archaeology
- Sawyer, Johann Albert
 2009 The Mississippian Period Crib Theme: Context,
 Chronology, and Iconography. Master's Thesis Texas State University, San Marcos, Texas.
- Scarry, John F.

 1984 Fort Walton Development: Mississippian Chiefdoms
 in the Lower Southeast. Ph.D. Dissertation. Case
 Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
 - 1994 "The Appalachian Chiefdom: A Mississippian Society on the Fringe of the Mississippian World" Forgotten Centuries: Indians and Europeans in the American South, 1521-1704. Hudson, Charles and Tesser, Carmen Chaves, editors, 156-178. University of Georgia Press, Athens, GA.
 - 2007 "Connections Between the Etowah and Lake Jackson Chiefdoms: Patterns in the Iconographic and Material Evidence" Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology, Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 134-150. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

- Scarry, C. Margaret and Scarry, John F.
 - 2005 "Native American 'Garden Agriculture' in Southeastern North America" World Archaeology, Vol. 37, No. 2, Garden Agriculture, pp. 259-274. Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Schrag, Calvin O.
 - 1968 "Re-thinking Metaphysics" Heidegger and the Quest for Truth. 106-125. Manfred S. Frings, editor.

 Quadrangle Books, Inc., Chicago, IL.
- Schroedl, Gerald F.
 - 2000 "Cherokee Ethnohistory and Archaeology from 1540 to 1838" Indians of the Greater Southeast:

 Historical Archaeology and Ethnohistory. McEwan,
 Bonnie G., editor, 204-241. University Press of
 Florida, Gainesville, FL.
- Sears, William H.
 - 1953 "Kolomoki Burial Mounds and the Weeden Island Mortuary Complex" American Antiquity, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 223-229. Society for American Archaeology.
- Shils, Edward.
 - 1975 Center and Periphery, Essays in Macrosociology. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.
 - 1981 Tradition. University of Chicago Press, Chicago,
 - 1982 The Constitution of Society. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.
- Slaughter, Thomas P., ed.
 - 1996 William Bartram: Travels and Other Writings.
 Literary Classics of the United States, Inc. New
 York, NY.
- Spence, Michael W.
 - 1996 "Commodity or Gift: Teotihuacan Obsidian in the Maya Region" Latin American Antiquity, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 21-39. Society for American Archaeology.

- Steponaitis, Vincas P.
 - 1998 "Population Trends at Moundville" Archaeology of the Moundville Chiefdom. Knight, Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P., editors, 26-43.

 Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.
 - 2009 Ceramics, Chronology, and Community Patterns: An Archaeological Study at Moundville. University of Alabama Press. Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Steponaitis, Vincas P. and Knight, Vernon James.
 - 2004 "Moundville Art in Historical and Social Context"

 Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of
 the Ancient Midwest and South. Richard F.

 Townsend and Robert V. Sharp, 2004, editors, 167181. Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, IL.
- Sullivan, Lynne P.
 - 2007 "Shell Gorgets, Time, and the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex in Southeastern Tennessee"

 Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, Chronology,
 Content, Context. Edited by Adam King, 88-106.
 University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Swanton, John R.
 - 1946/1976 Indians of the Southeastern United States.

 Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American
 Ethnology, Bulletin 137. Smithsonian Institution
 Press, Washington, D.C.
 - 2000 Creek Religion and Medicine. University of Nebraska Press. Lincoln, NE.
- Tönnies, Ferdinand.
 - 1940 Fundamental Concepts of Sociology (Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft). Translated and Supplemented by Charles P. Loomis. American Sociology Series, American Book Company, New York, NY: 31-275.
- Townsend, Richard F. and Sharp, Robert V., editors.

 2004 Hero, Hawk, and Open Hand, American Indian Art of
 the Ancient Midwest and South. Art Institute of

Chicago, Chicago, IL.

Trubitt, Mary Beth D.

2000 "Mound Building and Prestige Goods Exchange: Changing Strategies in the Cahokia Chiefdom" American Antiquity, Vol. 65, No. 4, pp. 669-690. Society for American Archaeology.

Wallace, Anthony F.C

1966 Religion: An Anthropological View. Second Printing. Random House, Inc. New York, NY.

Wallerstein, Immanuel.

1979 The Capitalist World Economy. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Warms, Richard, Garber, James, and McGee, Jon, eds. 2004 Sacred Realms, Essays in Religion, Belief, and Society. Oxford University Press, New York, NY.

Waselkov, Gregory A. and Smith, Marvin T.

2000 "Upper Creek Archaeology" Indians of the Greater Southeast, Historical Archaeology and Ethnohistory. McEwan, Bonnie G., editor, 242-264. University Press of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Welch, Paul D.

1991 Moundville's Economy. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.

1998 "Outlying Sites within the Moundville Chiefdom" Archaeology of the Moundville Chiefdom. Knight, Vernon J., Jr. and Steponaitis, Vincas P., editors, 133-166. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C.

West, Michael

1965 "Transition from Preclassic to Classic at Teotihuacan" American Antiquity, Vol. 31, No. 2, Part 1, pp. 193-202. Society for American Archaeology.

Willey, Gordon R.

1956 "The Structure of Ancient Maya Society: Evidence from the Southern Lowlands" American
Anthropologist, New Series, Vol. 58, No. 5, pp.
777-782. Blackwell Publishing on behalf of the American Anthropological Association.

- 1948 "A Prototype for the Southern Cult" American Antiquity, Vol. 13, No. 4, pp. 328-330. Society for American Archaeology
- 1945 "The Weeden Island Culture: A Preliminary Definition" American Antiquity, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 225-254. Society for American Archaeology
- Williams, Mark and Shapiro, Gary.
 - 1990 Lamar Archaeology, Mississippian Chiefdoms in the Deep South. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, AL.
- Williams, Stephen, ed.
 - 1977 The Waring Papers: The Collected Works of Antonio J. Waring, Jr. Revised Edition. Published by the Peabody Museum, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Worth, John E.
 - 2000 "The Lower Creeks: Origins and Early History"

 Indians of the Greater Southeast: Historical

 Archaeology and Ethnohistory. McEwan, Bonnie G.,
 editor, 265-298. University Press of Florida,
 Gainesville, FL.

VITA

Christopher Bolfing graduated from Columbia High
School in West Columbia, Texas in May of 2001 and then left
for Marine Corps basic training. He was discharged due to
injuries two weeks before the tragedies of September 11,
and decided to go to college. He attended Brazosport
Community College in Clute, Texas, receiving his Associate
of Arts in May of 2005. In August of 2005, Christopher
began attending Texas State University with a double major
in Philosophy and Anthropology, and double minors in
Psychology and Sociology.

Christopher will continue with graduate studies in
Anthropology under F. Kent Reilly, III, where he will study
archaeology, iconography, and Native American studies.
Christopher has field experience in this country and in
Belize, where he worked at the Maya site of Cahal Pech.
Christopher is an Eagle Scout, and a Vigil Honor Member of
the Order of the Arrow. Christopher Bolfing is of mixed
Cherokee descent and is excited to work with and continue
learning about his fellow Native American peoples.