<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>PALUGA, Myfel Joseph</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citation</td>
<td>東南アジア研究 (2009), 47(2): 227-229</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue Date</td>
<td>2009-09-30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URL</td>
<td><a href="http://hdl.handle.net/2433/108382">http://hdl.handle.net/2433/108382</a></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Departmental Bulletin Paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textversion</td>
<td>publisher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kyoto University
Heterarchy and 15th Century Calatagan

The last decade of the 20th century has brought out major archaeological studies on pre-state Philippine societies (usually in the Visayas areas), done mostly under the revitalized concept of “chiefdom” as a socio-political category and framed within the “prestige-goods economy” model. The publications and dissertation works of Junker (on Negros) [2000], Bacus (on Dumaguete) [1996] and Nishimura (on Cebu) [1988] all came out in the 1990s and have opened up important terms and themes for debate and discussion on the structures, patterns, and dynamics of societies in the Philippines from the 10th to 16th centuries. Such a period in Philippine history (or prehistory) is perhaps significant given the kind of social transformation that took place in many communities during this period: increasing social complexity and dynamics in the Philippines prior to the impact of Spanish colonization. This in turn, effected a new wave of social transformation to the polities that emerged in that period presently considered in this review, especially during the 1400s and 1500s. This period is also marked by the active and increasing role of external and internal trade in the archipelago and beyond. The present study on 15th century Calatagan (Batangas) in Barretto-Tesoro’s Identity and Reciprocity (IR) extends and engages the above-mentioned directions in Philippine archaeological research. As IR is consciously set on engaging the dominant themes of chiefdom studies so far — the status and strategies of the elites, the role of foreign trade, the rise of craft specialization, for example — its interpretations and readings invite comparison with preceding archaeological studies on central Philippines, especially that of Junker [2000]. The reader of IR might do well to revisit or reread such works which IR has set as its comparative backdrop. A careful study of these relatively recent works — with similar broad themes and period of focus — should result in a long-needed update of our Philippine prehistory narratives, especially as reflected in textbooks and references used by students at various levels of studies.

Themes, Arguments, Structure of the Book

Aside from presenting the most comprehensive study to date on prehistoric Calatagan, IR opens new approaches in studying the so-called chiefdom societies by analyzing mortuary data from several Calatagan sites and following several related lines of inquiry: (1) the response of the locals to expanding foreign trade, as indicated in burial patterns; (2) the dynamics of identity construction (both at the group and at the individual levels), as reflected in pottery styles; (3) the manifestation of cultural affiliation, status, and personal identities (sex, age) in burial objects; and (4) the indications of agentive decisions in the use of burial objects (p. 15). IR pictures Calatagan social relations from cross-sectional perspectives: elite/non-elite segments, gender lines, agegroups, households, and individuals with varying strategies for displaying identities and taking advantage of varying sources of power, both material and spiritual.

The two “spheres of activity” in Calatagan that IR focuses on are “pottery production and the construction of social identities” (p. 21). Among these lines of focus, the two interesting arguments in IR are: (1) that in contrast to the claimed patterns generated from other central Philippine sites, Calatagan local pottery production in the 15th century remained decentralized (distributed at the household level; non-specialized; probably done by women) and vibrant even in the context of foreign trade (represented by the large volume of foreign ceramics present in burial sites) (see chapter 4); and (2) such a decentralized context served as a condition for the play of varied and flexible identities (“multiple and fluid,” IR: chapter 6.3) among Calatagan individuals, especially in relation to their burial practices. The resulting social dynamics arising out of such decen-
tralized pottery production and the wide latitude of identity-making and ritual-based powers encourages to serve as IR’s basis for asserting that “although traditional elements of a complex and hierarchical society did not exist in Calataogan, it can be considered a complex society” (p. 159).

Of the ten chapters comprising the book, six chapters form the “core” of its major findings. These are chapter 4 (pottery types, sites, technical descriptions, production costs), chapter 5 (burials and mortuary objects: earthenware and foreign ceramics), chapter 6 (identities and agency), chapter 7 (cultural identity markers; distinction between offerings for the spirits and provisions for the dead), chapter 8 (personal identity and achievement markers), and chapter 9 (prestige markers). The careful presentation of these six chapters will be of great interest to those who want the “plain” empirical results (as usable “data”) of the study and the underlying innovative methods applied in it. As mentioned in the outline above, there are three identity markers distinguished in IR: (1) “cultural” markers (represented by the use of cooking pots and monochrome ceramics): which are unrestricted in use, widely distributed, and might be considered as the baseline for community identity; (2) “personal” markers (represented by the use of decorated pots): an achieved identity due to skills and abilities honed by one’s activities and routines; and (3) “prestige” markers (represented by the use of porcelain plates with sun and bird motifs): status-based identity maximized especially by the elites and their close companions. Students of Philippine prehistory, however, who are more into theories and frameworks will find interesting the discussions on “heterarchy” (as a model in approaching social dynamics), agency, and reciprocity in social relations (as described in chapters 2, 3 and 10).

Some impressions

There are three sequential points relative to IR’s theoretical drift that I would like to underline and comment on. Firstly, the interest of IR on “heterarchy” and “agency” perspectives — with their accompanying keywords: fluid identity, multiplicity of power, flexibility, decentralization, non-specialization, and multi-centered distribution — can sometimes feel to be pushed too much, such that while remarking early on in the text that ‘heterarchy complements rather than contradicts hierarchy’ (p. 20, emphasis mine), what seems to build up eventually is an emphasis on aspects of social practices that negate the “hard” structures of society. Note the following sequence of descriptions: ‘it is not strictly hierarchical,’ ‘status is not hereditary,’ ‘ritual is not controlled,’ ‘craft production is not standardized,’ ‘goods are not distributed from a center;’ ‘space is not partitioned,’ ‘social positions are not fixed’ (p. 155, emphasis mine; also, p. 36, underlines “a non-hierarchical perspective”), which, perhaps to sound simplistic, defines Calataogan as an exact reverse of Junker’s Tanjay (hierarchical settlements, hereditary status, craft standardization, spatially partitioned elite/non-elite residences).

The question, as one scholar who also used the heterarchy framework puts it, is simply to “assess whether archaeological evidence indicates the predominance of hierarchy or heterarchy” [O’Reilly 2000: 3, emphasis mine]. Secondly, it seems to me that this ‘pigeon-holing of societies in evolutionary stages’ (p. 36) — the ‘prevention’ of which is one reason why IR endorses the heterarchy approach — is not objectionable as such. At a coarse-grained level of description, to broaden the temporal scales, it is possible to see a pattern of transformation from a predominantly heterarchical to a strongly hierarchical society (cf. the case of a site in Thailand, as studied by O’Reilly [2000: 14]). As the evolutionary biologist Jared Diamond noted, presentation of evolutionary-stages framework is only used as a ‘useful shorthand to discuss human societies’ and ‘examples pigeonholed under the same stage are inevitably heterogeneous’ [Diamond 1999: 267]. What if, seen at a proper scale and sacrificing some details so as to see the broad patterns, the traditional typological sequence ‘tribe’ → ‘chieftdom’ does not really differ dangerously from the sequence (like in the case of a Thai site) of ‘heterarchy’ → ‘hierarchy’? Thirdly, the problem about heterarchy/hierarchy, perhaps ultimately, is
not just about empiricities but about constructing more refined concepts to help us imagine well the apt scenario for the data. In this case, Saitta and Keene [1990] have long criticized this intuitive tendency to think that hierarchical equates elitism. In their view, centralized leadership does not axiomatically mean the destruction of egalitarianism; neither should hierarchical organization be automatically read as an elitism of power.

Between IR’s heterarchic reading and the hierarchy-emphasizing views of most chiefdom-framed studies lies the still open space for a tighter description of the range, diversity, and dynamics of non-state prehistoric Philippine political systems.

(Myfel Joseph Paluga · Department of Social Sciences, CHSS, University of the Philippines, Mindanao)

References


