



A male icon carved from a spiny oyster shell 500 years ago was excavated on Copiapó. Shell was believed to invoke the ocean, source of all water, to bring rain.

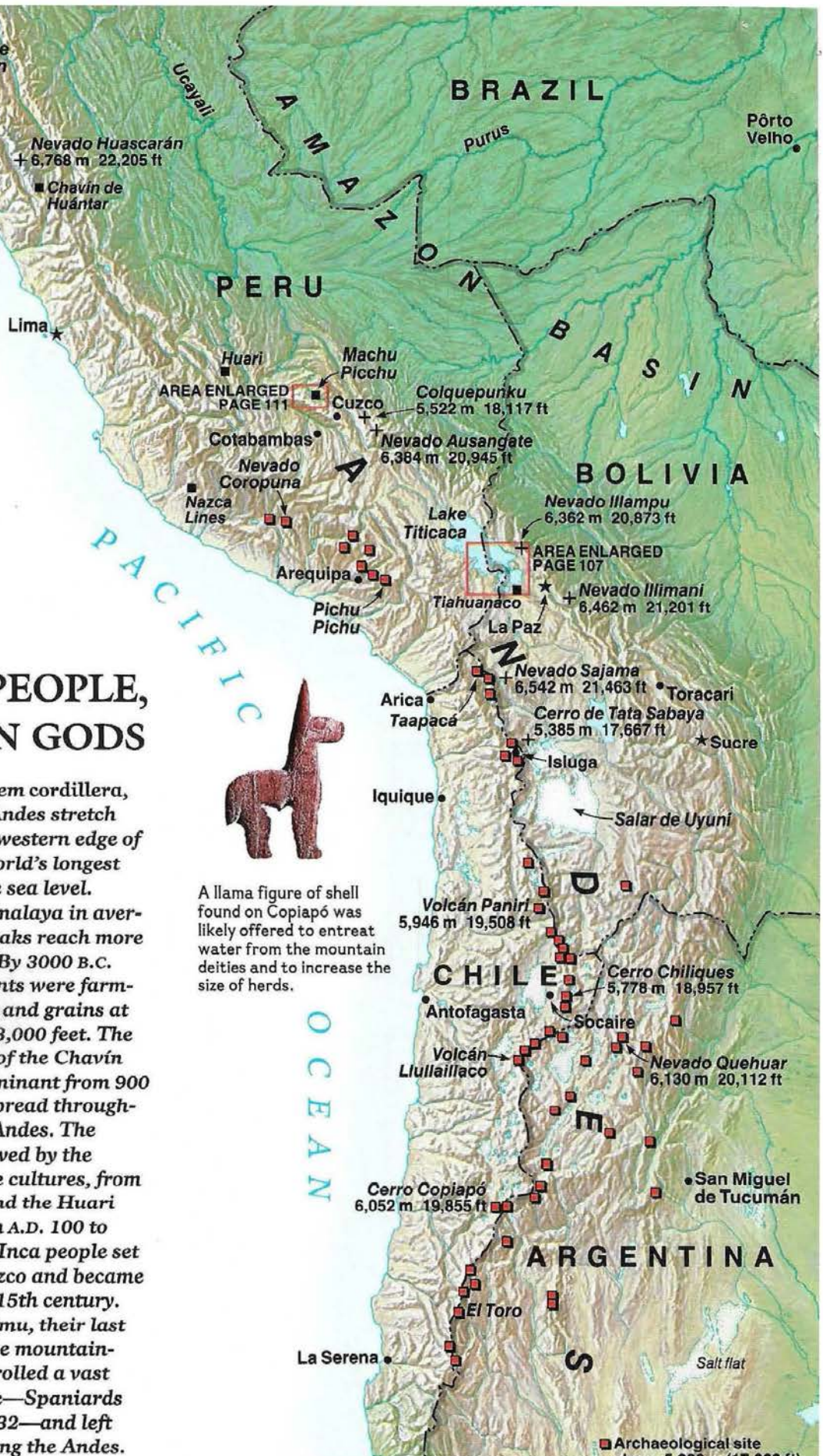
ANDEAN PEOPLE, MOUNTAIN GODS

The Spanish called them cordillera, or knotted rope. The Andes stretch 4,700 miles along the western edge of South America, the world's longest mountain chain above sea level. Second only to the Himalaya in average height, Andean peaks reach more than 22,000 feet. By 3000 B.C.

early inhabitants were farming tubers and grains at nearly 13,000 feet. The influence of the Chavín culture, dominant from 900 to 200 B.C., spread throughout the central Andes. The Chavín was followed by the Nazca and Moche cultures, from 200 B.C. to A.D. 600, and the Huari and Tiahuanaco, from A.D. 100 to 1000. About 1200 the Inca people set up their capital at Cuzco and became dominant by the mid-15th century. They defeated the Chimú, their last rival, in the 1470s. The mountain-worshiping Inca controlled a vast but short-lived empire—Spaniards conquered them in 1532—and left offerings on peaks along the Andes.



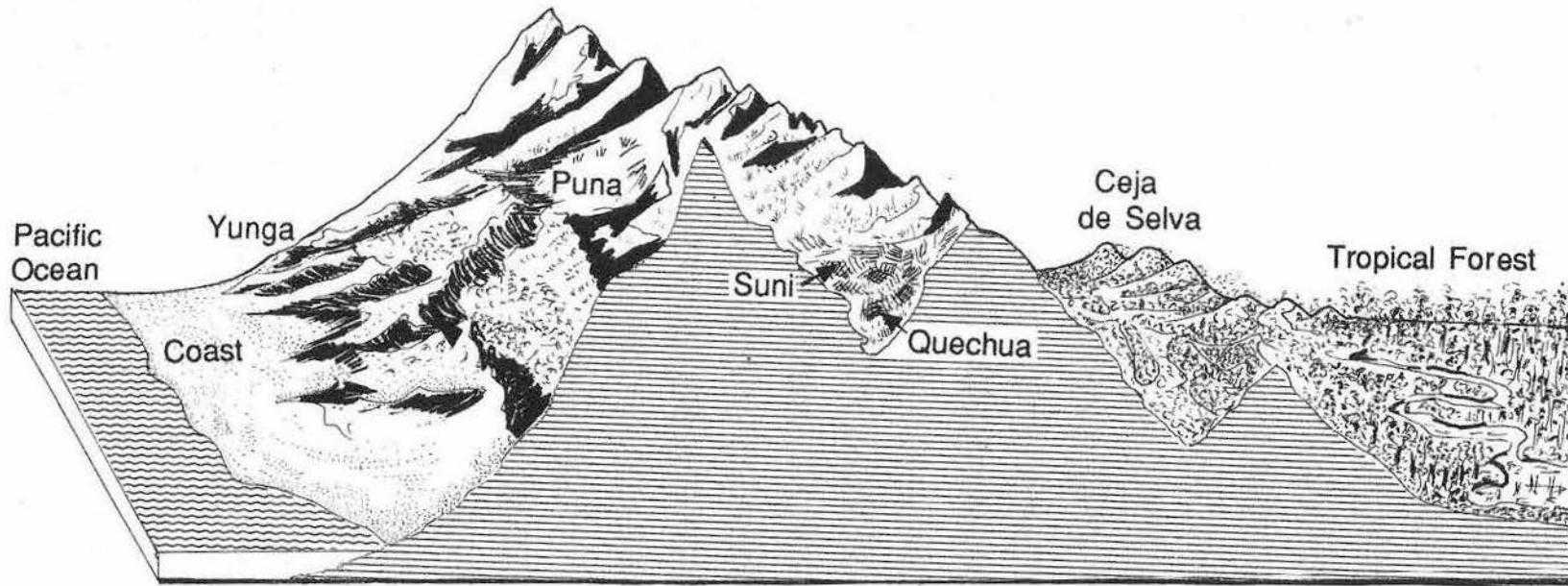
A llama figure of shell found on Copiapó was likely offered to entreat water from the mountain deities and to increase the size of herds.





MAP 1. Map of Peru with sites mentioned in text. Prepared by Jeffrey Splitstoser.

Ritual Sacrifice in Ancient Peru, ed. benson and cook (2003), p. xiii.



Schematic diagram illustrating the position of the major life zones in the central Andes.

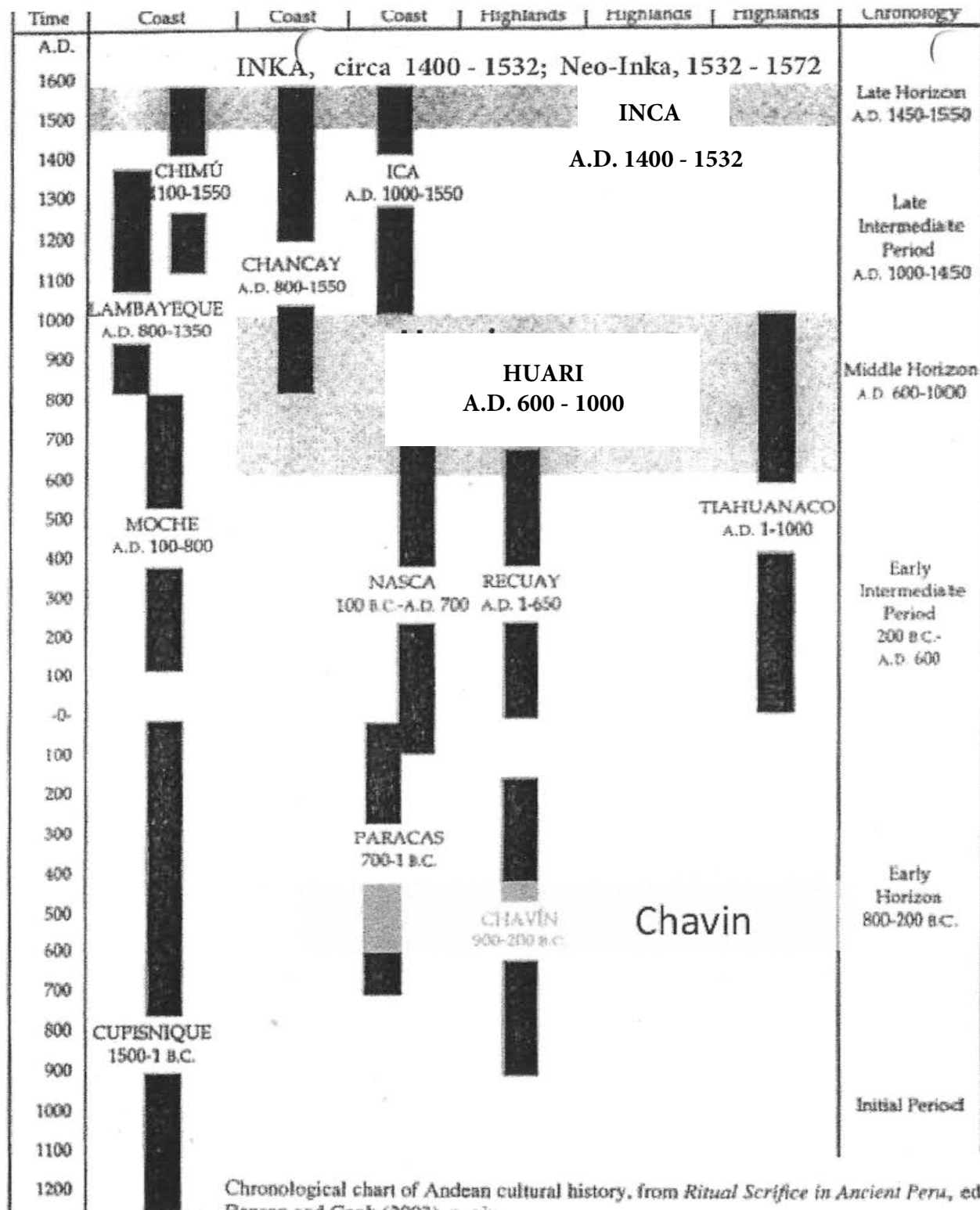
ARCHAEOLOGICAL CULTURAL PERIODS IN PERU

Era	Dates	Periods	Northern Coast	Central Coast	Southern Coast	Northern Highlands			Cultural Development (Especially applicable to the North Coast)
							Central Highlands	Southern Highlands	
CLIMATIC	A.D. 1532	Colonial	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	The Spanish under Pizarro conquer the Inca empire; the Colonial Period begins
	A.D. 1440	Imperialist	Inca	Inca	Inca	Inca	Inca	Inca	The Incas rise to power, conquer all others, and establish a military empire
	A.D. 1000	Urbanist	Chimú	Chimú black-on-white	Inca	Late Huamachuco	Early Inca	Colla	Local autonomy with large population centres were a characteristic feature in some area. Clear-cut regional styles in ceramics
FLORESCENT	A.D. 600	Expansionist	Epigonal	Tiahuanaco 'Epigonal'	Nasca Wari	Wilkawain	Wari	Decadent Tiahuanaco	Apparently a period starting with conquest and political or social unification, breaking down into one of disruption or decadence
	A.D. 200	Flourescent	Moché Late Gallinazo	Interlocking Early Lima	Nasca	Recuay		Tiahuanaco	Handicraft reaches its apogee, as do engineering, architecture, and other social features
DEVELOPMENTAL	300 B.C.	Experimental	Early Gallinazo Salinar	Chimú white-on-red	Paracas Necropolis	Huaras	Chanapata	Early Tiahuanaco Paracas Chiripa	Many new techniques indicate a very dynamic period
	850 B.C.	Cultist	Cupisnique Late Guadape	Early Andén Supp. Cerro Sechin	Paracas Cavernas Ocucaje	Chavín Kotosh			Cultural progress continues. Certain elements common to almost all regions suggest a widespread religious cult—that of Chavín
	1250 B.C.	Formative	Early Guadape			Early Kotosh			Corn and pottery are introduced. Great technical progress is made in all crafts
INCIPIENT	4000 B.C.	Early Agricultural	Huaca Prieta	Asia					Simple agriculture, combined with fishing, hunting, and wild-plant-food gathering
	9000 B.C.	Pre-agricultural		Loetas		Lauricocha			Hunting, fishing, and wild-plant-food gathering

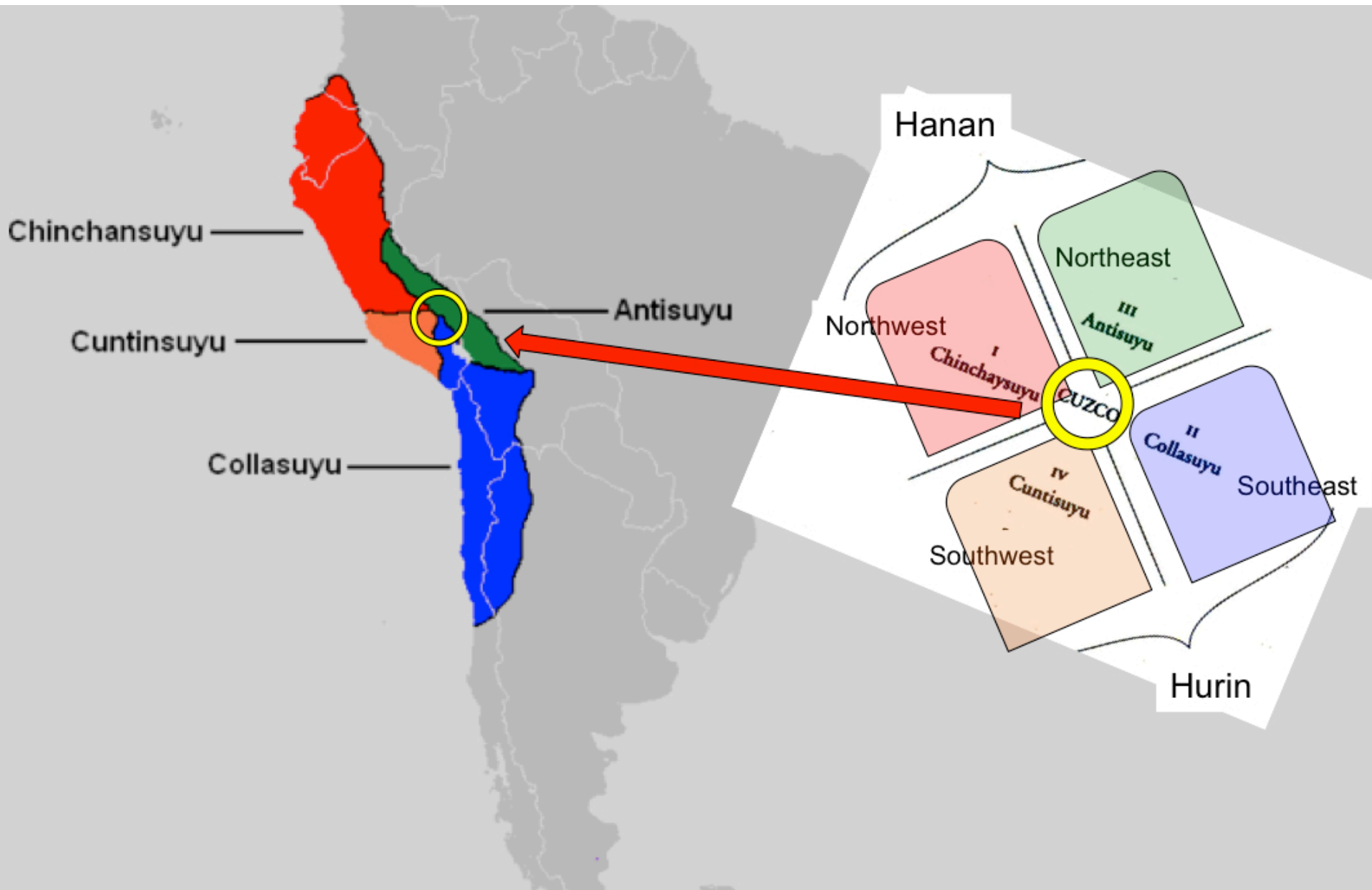
Late Horizon
Inca
1400- 1532

Middle Horizon
Huari/ Tiwanaku
600 - 1000

Early Horizon
Chavin
900 – 200 BC



Inca Civilization: Tawantinsuyu, the Land of the Four Quarters



Tawantinsuyu: The Land of the Four Quarters.

Inca Road system



Panakas

The basic social institution of the Incas is the *allyu*. An *ayllu* is a group of families that descended from a common ancestor, united by culture and religion, in addition to the agricultural work, livestock and fishing of the same territory. The *ayllu* concept transcended into the nobility, so that the royal kinship would establish a lineage, called *panaka* or royal house. A *panaca* was a kinship lineage formed by all the descendants of a monarch, a Sapa Inka, excluding from it the son who would succeed in his reign.

Thus, the family of each Sapa Inka formed a royal lineage, which actually became a cult, with his descendants (except for his heir) maintaining and revering that respective Sapa Inka and his *mallki* or mummy, and his properties and his political alliances, in perpetuity.

The heir (Auqui or crown prince) of the Sapa Inka was not part of the panaka because the latter, after he became emperor, would have to garner new estates and wealth, and form his own *panaka*.

Each *panaka* owned several holdings across the realm, including palaces in Cusco, and royal estates in the surrounding territory.

The panakas, in chronological order:

Cusco Hurin moiety:

- 1st the royal house of Manco Capac
- 2nd the royal house of his son Sinchi Roca
- 3rd the royal house of his son Lloque Yupanqui
- 4th the royal house of his son Mayta Capac
- 5th the royal house of his son Capac Yupanqui
- 6th ? Designated heir not installed, after the *hanan* moiety intervened against the designated heir....

Cusco Hanan moiety:

- 7th the royal house Capac Yupanqui's son Inca Roca, the designated heir's half-brother
- 8th the royal house of his son Yahuar Huacac
- 9th the royal house of his son, Viracocha Inka (c. 1410 - 1438)
- 10th the royal house of his son Pachacuti Yupanki (c. 1438- 1471)
- 11th the royal house of his son Tupac Inca Yupanqui (c. 1471- 1493)
- 12th the royal house of his son Huayna Capac (1493 – 1527)

Then, either a dual monarchy and/or a civil war between Huascar (1527- 1532, killed by Atahualpa) in the south, and Atahualpa (1532- 1533, killed by Pizarro) in the north. In 1532, the *panaca* system was decisively interrupted by the Spanish incursion. To be continued

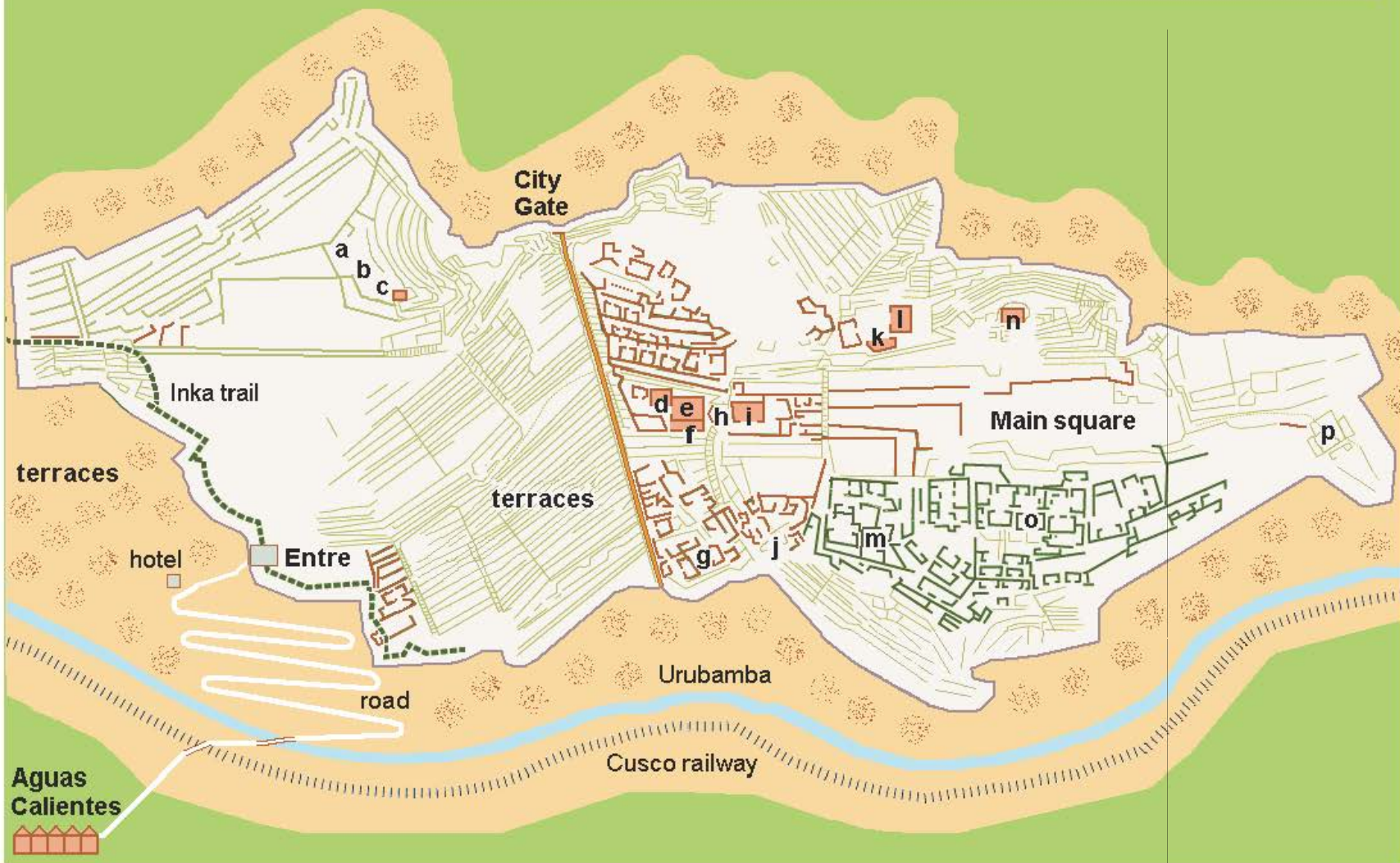
Quechua Glossary

George Scheper

<i>aclla</i>	“chosen women”
<i>acllahuasi</i>	house of the “chosen women”
<i>aryballo</i>	ceramic storage jar
<i>ayllu</i>	kinship/ lineage group
<i>camayok</i>	skilled laborer or artisan
<i>ceques</i>	ritual lines radiating out from Cusco to various huacas
<i>chasqui</i>	Inca runners
<i>chicha</i>	maize beer
<i>coricancha</i>	Temple of the Sun in Cusco
<i>hanan/ hurin</i>	moiety or duality principle: <i>hanan</i> =upper, male, right; <i>hurin</i> =lower, female, left
<i>huaca</i>	any sacred place or object
<i>huairona [wayrona]</i>	three-sided rectangular building with one side open
<i>inti</i>	sun
<i>intihuatana</i>	“hitching post of the sun”
<i>inti wasi</i>	festival of winter solstice [June 21]
<i>kallanca</i>	banqueting hall
<i>kancha [cancha]</i>	rectangular residential structure
<i>kero [quero]</i>	ritual wooden drinking vessel – usually in pairs
<i>kuraka</i>	community leader or elder
<i>mita</i>	labor tax [similar to corvée]
<i>mitima</i>	relocated workers
<i>panaca</i>	royal Inca allyu [corporate kinship unit]
<i>qolqa [colka]</i>	storehouse
<i>quipu</i>	knotted string used for recording information
<i>quipucomayoc</i>	Inca “accountant”
<i>Sapa Inka</i>	“Unique Inka,” title of Inca ruler
<i>tambo</i>	official way station along an Inca road
<i>Tahuantinsuyu</i>	“Land of the 4 Quarters,” the Inca Empire:
<i>Cinchaysuyu</i>	northwest quadrant
<i>Antisuyu</i>	northeast quadrant
<i>Collasuyu</i>	southeast quadrant
<i>Cuntisuyu</i>	southwest quadrant
<i>tocapu</i>	geometric designs in square units used esp. on elite tunic [uncu]
<i>tupu</i>	stickpin for woman’s cloak
<i>uncu</i>	woven tunic

Machu Picchu (Peru)

a Cemetery	e Sun Temple	i Royal Palace	m Industrial zone
b Funerary Rock	f Royal Tomb	j Prison area	n Intihuatana
c House of Guards	g Noble Houses	k 3 Windows Temple	o Factory houses
d Ñusta's bedroom	h Ritual fountain	l Main Temple	p Sacred Rock



ANDEAN WORLDS: New Directions in Scholarship and Teaching:

by George Scheper and Laraine Fletcher

Andean studies today have reached a ‘tipping point,’ not only because exciting new excavations, discoveries and documents are constantly being reported, but because the current generation of scholars are working with new methodologies, new paradigms and new kinds of sources that are dramatically shaping the kinds of questions being asked and the kinds of models and answers being proposed. As archaeologist Steve Bourget of the University of Texas at Austin put it recently, with reference to his work at a Moche site, “This is only the beginning. We’re entering a new era; we are now where the Mayanists were 20 years ago”; and recently two Peruvian archaeologists called for a crucial “Interamerican Dialogue” toward collaboration on shaping the future of the rapidly burgeoning and transforming field of Andean Studies.¹

The field of Andean studies has changed so dramatically in the past generation that it is difficult to summarize within a brief compass, but a substantial review of research occurs in the Introduction to the volume on *South America* in the new *Cambridge History of the Native Peoples of the Americas* (1999), the first such comprehensive reference volume since the *Handbook of South American Indians* of 1946. In this introductory essay, editors Frank Salomon and Stuart Schwartz survey and analyze the new Andean scholarship, emphasizing not so much the accumulation of new data as the introduction of new paradigms. In particular, following the suggestions of earlier Andeanists, such as John Murra, they call for study of new sources of documentation that emphasize indigenous peoples’ agency and their own reported or self-documented ideas about their present and past worlds, sources that supplement “histories of Indians” with “Indian histories” -- without romanticizing or exoticizing some imagined “pure” pre-contact culture and its presumed “authentic” continuities (2-5).

The key question for Andeanists has been, in the absence of a known system of indigenous writing, such as the Maya are now understood to have possessed, where to find such indigenous-centered “texts.” We have, of course, accounts of indigenous Andean culture, myth/history and oral tradition as reported in colonial era Spanish chronicles and writings of missionary friars such as Bernabé Cobo, but in these texts the data are filtered through the various

¹ Bourget, cited in Popson, *Archaeology*, March/April 2002: 35; Castillo Butters and Mujica Barreda, “Peruvian Archaeology: Crisis or Development?” *SAA Bulletin*, 13.3.

agendas of the colonizing, evangelizing writers. We also have colonial era chronicles by such Andean mestizo writers as Joan de Santa Cruz Pachacuti Yamqui, Garcilaso de la Vega, and Guaman Poma de Ayala – each of whom has a very distinct point of view. For instance, Garcilaso, of Inka descent, presents a highly favorable account of Inka history and culture, whereas Guaman Poma, a non-Inka Andean Christian, holds up an image of a primordial Andean Christian world to be cleansed of what he considers the corruptions of both the Inka and the Spanish. The uniquely valuable Quechua language document, the Huarochirí Manuscript (c. 1608), offers a more localized version of Andean myth/history in its own language. In addition, there are whole other genres of written material just beginning to be accessed: litigations, secular and ecclesiastical court testimonies and other emic, native-centered documents. With regard to mining this new material, Salomon argues, “The task remains almost as incomplete after the quincentennial as it was before. But the nature of the job becomes clearer” (89). Like the new *Cambridge History*, our Institute hopes to “emphasize research that allows us to see how the indigenous peoples of South America conceived of their social universe in terms of personhood, identity, gender, freedom, obligation, and constraint at different historical moments and under varying conditions” (4), and to make the fruits of this new generation of Andean scholarship available to the humanities classroom. Institute seminars will take participant fellows into the thick of this new research.

In addition to these written texts, Andean scholars are actively pursuing the possibilities that textual information is encoded in other sorts of Andean artifacts. Art historian Rebecca Stone-Miller, for instance, has suggested how we can “read” an Inka wall: “Practical, beautiful, organic, geometric, standardized, individual, reproducible, elitist, technologically simple, and incomparably elegant, the wall epitomizes Inka aesthetics. *It can also be seen as a social statement: divergent people were enjoined to interlock, adjust, and resettle into a dynamic whole by pooling their varying forms, smoothing their ethnic edges, and holding together with no visible means to face the hostile environment.*” (*Art of the Andes*, 2002: 193, emphasis ours). This, of course, remains a semiotic reading of an essentially aniconic artifact. But Moche fine-line ceramics, with their very detailed images of narrative or at least ritual scenes, offer the possibility of being read somewhat in the manner of Maya codex-style vases. Such attempts to read Moche ceramics have been given a huge boost by the excavations in 1987 by Walter Alva of the Moche

tombs of Sipán, which have provided material remains of the ceremonial gear and dress depicted in the ceramics.

In the case of textiles, many scholars are working on possible decipherment of the *tokapus*, the small squares containing a variety of heraldic-like geometric designs, which constitute the whole surface pattern of the highest status Inka tunics, such as the magnificent example at Dumbarton Oaks. Most intriguing of all, as holding out the possibility that we may yet find and decipher an Andean writing system, are the *kipus*, the abacus-like knotted strings whose use for record keeping by the Inka is well attested in colonial writings and depicted by Guaman Poma. Recent scholarship has shown that the *kipus* are not just mnemonic devices but contain many more kinds of information than enumeration, perhaps even narrative history. Recently, Gary Urton has made the case in *Signs of the Inka Khipu* (2003) for, as his subtitle says, “binary coding in the Andean knotted-string records.” Urton leaves open the question for future research whether this binary coding represents “a full-fledged writing system, capable of signing values from phonograms to logograms, as well as ideas, mythemes, and other general conventional values,” or whether it represents another, not yet well defined system of record keeping (161). In any case, Andean research has reached an exciting new threshold.

George L. Scheper (Ph.D., Princeton)
 Director, Odyssey Program, Johns Hopkins University
gscheper@jhu.edu

Laraine A. Fletcher, Ph.D.
 Professor emerita, Anthropology
 Adelphi University
fletcher@adelphi.edu

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by George Scheper

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