The Sound Tactics of Upper Putumayo Shamans

By

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A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Latin American Studies in the Graduate Division of the University of California, Berkeley

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Abstract

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In this thesis, I investigate the varied ways in which Upper Putumayo *taitas*, or shamans, understand and use sound in their ritual practice. *Taitas* perform sound laboriously for large periods of time and under strenuous circumstances during *tomas de yajé*, rituals that involve drinking *yajé*, a potent DMT-containing psychoactive brew made from local plant species. In this thesis I argue for the importance of understanding what *taitas* do – and shamanism in general – as a form of labor; in doing so, I propose a framework that permits theorizing the commodification of cultural practices that, although presently embedded in capital relations, still exist in imaginaries that place them in a distant pre-capitalist past.

Sound production is an essential, deliberate part of a *taita*’s labor, particularly in ritual practice. It matters for *taitas* because it is an integral part of how they define and identify themselves; *taitas* also perform sound as a way of distinguishing their ritual practice from that of other *taitas*. *Taitas* also use sound to key frames and define context in order to help participants make sense of what they experience during the sensorially demanding *tomas de yajé*; sound helps participants experience the *pintas* – visions, hallucinations – produced by *yajé* while simultaneously reminding them that they are participating in a *toma de yajé*, aiding them in remaining grounded to the ritual place that *taitas* construct. Through sound, *taitas* construct a place that is to a large degree independent of material constraints. *Taitas* are able to recreate it anywhere they go by indexing Amazonia sonically.

Finally, I argue for *cosmopolitan listening*, a way of listening that implies taking an ethical stance towards the human and non-human environments we encounter. Drawing from the particular case of *tomas de yajé*, I also raise broader questions about the ways in which non-verbal sound production constitutes a form of labor that can define place, context, and frames in more general situations, arguing for an understanding of sound as a way of not only negotiating with an environment, but oftentimes creating it.
a Las Bóvedas de Cartagena de Indias

y

a la memoria de Juan Delgado Delgado
The Sound Tactics of Upper Putumayo Shamans
Andrés García Molina

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Introduction

While walking along one of downtown Bogotá’s busiest streets I was struck by a graffiti mural painted on an outer wall of an apartment building. At the bottom of the mural there are two men dressed in suits lying on the floor, an image of a cityscape backlit by a full moon in the background. The men’s expressions are simultaneously of astonishment and painful strife; one of them is vomiting profusely while both seem to be having – and feeling – visions. Yellow rays of light are projecting from their eyes and chests onto the main portion of the mural. At the center of the men’s visions there is a taita, or an indigenous shaman, looking over and waving what seems to be a thick bundle of leaves. Surrounding the taita there is a bird, a jaguar, a gorilla, and a wolf, all of the animals with mouths wide open in fierce sound production. There are also plants around the taita and the animals. At the very top of the mural there is a title in capitalized white letters: Retorno al Origen, or “Return to the Origin.” At the bottom and in smaller print we read Sagrada resistencia, or “Sacred resistance.” The images on the wall are unquestionably about tomas de yajé.

Tomas de yajé are rituals that take place in rural and urban Colombia, during which yajé, a potent psychoactive brew also known as ayahuasca, is consumed under the guidance of taitas usually from the country’s Amazonian region.1 People assemble to drink yajé for reasons ranging from looking for healthcare and dealing with delicate health issues to searching for inspiration or guidance in the making of important decisions. Yajé, once only found amongst indigenous groups in certain parts of the Amazon, is becoming increasingly known in Colombian urban centers. More broadly, ayahuasca has become a global commodity. It can be found, purchased, and consumed in various places throughout Amazonia, with the city of Iquitos in Perú as the epicenter of the so-called ayahuasca tourism industry; it can also be found in cities across South America, North America, and Europe.2 It is also possible to order do-it-yourself kits online, casually, at websites like amazon.com. There are also syncretic ayahuasca religions, the Brazilian Santo Daime, União do Vegetal, and Barquinha being the most renowned worldwide, counting with thousands of members spread throughout various localities across the world.3

3 See, for example, Andrew Dawson, Santo Daime: A New World Religion (London ; New York: Bloomsbury Academic, 2013); Edward John Baptista das Neves Macrae, El Santo Daime Y La Espiritualidad Brasileña, 1. ed

4 A brief note on photography: I am including several photographs that are not referenced explicitly anywhere; the photographs, like the text, could stand independently of one another. It is my intention to provide a productive visual
In this thesis, my focus is on the sound tactics of Upper Putumayo shamans in Colombia. Taitas perform sound laboriously for large periods of time and under strenuous circumstances during tomas de yajé; taitas use sound to key different frames within a toma de yajé and to build a specific ritual place that is to a large degree independent of material constraints; in order to do so, taitas rely, to a large degree, on indexing the Amazon through sound. Within this specific ritual place, sound production becomes a fundamental part of the way taitas make a living by successfully guiding tomas de yajé, ensuring participants are able to make sense of what they experience. In this thesis I argue for the importance of understanding what taitas do – and shamanism in general – as a form of labor; I also explore the reasons for and ways in which sound production becomes an essential, deliberate part of a taita’s labor, particularly in ritual practice. Sound production matters for taitas because it is an integral part of how they define and identify themselves; taitas also perform sound as a way of distinguishing their ritual practice from that of other taitas. My approach stems from a serious engagement with understanding shamanism in terms of Marx’s conception of labor, discussed by David Graeber as “more or less identical with human creativity: it is the way human beings exercise their imaginative powers to create their worlds, their social ties as well as their physical environments.”

Drinking yajé is a physically and sensorially demanding experience that happens throughout an entire night: the taste of yajé is bitter and pungent and remains in the palate for several hours; the place where the ritual takes place is constantly perfumed with diverse penetrating herbs and fragrant resins; participants feel nausea and dizziness – vomiting and diarrhea are frequent side effects; participants receive visions often described as hallucinatory. The sounds performed by taitas, however, are repetitive and simple. My point of departure here stems from a basic property of yajé – it is a DMT-containing admixture prepared from the bark of the Banisteriopsis caapi vine and other plants, most frequently the leaves of chagruna (Psychotria viridis) or sometimes chagropanga (Diplopterys cabrerana). The most salient aspect of drinking yajé is the fact that it produces visions or hallucinations or reveals hidden aspects of reality, depending on whom you ask. There is a thin line between reality and fiction here, a point of contention I will not explore – instead, I favor referring to what those who drink yajé see and experience as pintas, the term taitas and yajé drinkers use.5 My enquiry starts with a deceptively simple question: why study music and sound in yajé rituals if the substance affects those who consume it regardless of their hearing faculties and abilities? Why bother about sound and music if yajé’s physical and mental effects rely – to a large degree - on the beverage’s chemical composition?

Some years before coming across the mural in Bogotá, I had participated in tomas de yajé in the town of Sibundoy, in the upper part of the Putumayo region of southern Colombia. During one toma, before the ritual had officially started, the taita was chatting informally with

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6 For a detailed article dealing with a similar conundrum, see Martin Holbraad, “Truth beyond Doubt: Ifá Oracles in Havana,” HAU: Journal of Ethnographic Theory 2, no. 1 (June 19, 2012): 81–109. Thanks to Ana María Ochoa for pointing me to this source. What Holbraad proposes for Ifá practitioners might be applicable to yajé practitioners. From the abstract: “Motivated ethnographically by Ifá practitioners’ claims that the truths their oracles issue are indubitable, I argue that from the viewpoint of commonplace conceptions of truth such an assumption can only be interpreted as absurd. To avoid such an imputation, the article is devoted to reconceptualizing what might count as truth in such an ethnographic instance.”
participants that had gathered at his house that night. He winked at a group of us and subtly gestured that we should pay attention to what he was about to do. From his altar he grabbed a small metallic object in the shape of a jaguar head and snuck behind a young man known to be a regular at this particular taita’s tomas. The taita blew into the jaguar head and produced a loud growl that, to everyone’s surprise, sounded like a real jaguar. The young man jumped, startled by what he had just heard behind him and turned around immediately. He met the taita’s face, which remained impassive and uncompromising for a few tense seconds. The taita’s expression grew increasingly serious as the young man looked more and more confused, almost scared. Shortly after, the taita’s blank stare broke out in incontrollable laughter. The young man and the whole room then joined in in playful banter.

The incident, apparently unremarkable, points to several of the arguments I will be developing throughout this thesis. For one, the taita’s use of humor before the beginning of the toma points to a kind of shamanism that cannot be understood narrowly in terms of rigid categories like sacrality and profanity. Rather, a definition of shamanism that makes room for someone like this playful, almost irreverent taita allows us to conceive of shamanism as a more quotidian activity, in brief, as a form of labor that depends more on real-time interactions and less on romantic images of shamans as ancient, mystical beings. Additionally, it reminds us that taitas deliberately dedicate significant energy to indexing the Amazon as a fundamental part of the way in which they conduct tomas de yajé. This brief moment of lighthearted exchange draws attention to the way sound production is imbricated in questions of social interaction, histories of exchange between different groups of people, and broader human-nature relationships. In a country like Colombia, what does it mean that a vast majority of the population imagines indigenous populations and, more generally, Amazonia, through the sounds and images associated to increasingly popular taitas that circulate nationally and internationally guiding tomas de yajé?

Sibundoy, Putumayo, Amazonia

The Valley of Sibundoy is located in the northern part of the Putumayo region of Colombia – the valley is the central part of what is known as the Upper Putumayo. At a height of 2,600 meters above sea level, it lies at an intermediate point between the Andes and the Amazon. There are four municipalities in the valley: Santiago, Colón, Sibundoy, and San Francisco. The majority of the population is either Kamsá or Inga. Although historically a Kamsá majority inhabited the valley, the Inga started settling there after the fall of the Incan empire. What for some centuries was disputed territory and ongoing rivalry between two groups has become peaceful coexistence since the beginning of the 20th century. Although both groups maintain distinct linguistic divisions, inter-marriage is common and the different municipalities often engage in communal festivities. The Valley of Sibundoy is particularly significant in Colombia because it has been a historical site of exchange between the Andean and Amazonian regions. It has commonly been known as “the gateway to the Amazon,” and the Capuchin missionaries established one of their biggest dioceses and centers of operations there in the early 1900s, maintaining sustained operations in the area for the greater part of the century.

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7 Throughout this thesis I will not name any taita directly.
8 For a detailed history and ethnography of the Kamsá and the Inga, see Carlos Ernesto Pinzón Castaño, Rosa Suárez P, and Gloria Garay A., Mundos en red: la cultura popular frente a los retos del siglo XXI (Univ. Nacional de Colombia, 2004).
Forty one percent of the Colombian territory is part of the Amazon, while less than two percent of the country’s population lives there. The region has been, historically, a strategic site of natural resource exploitation, and its difficult access and particular living conditions have continuously placed it as a remote and unknown, yet highly coveted, area. From colonial times, when the famous golden city of El Dorado was often hoped to be found at the river’s next bend, to the atrocious rubber plantation operations of La Casa Arana, the Amazon has excited the imagination of travelers, explorers, entrepreneurs, and governments alike. In present-day Colombia, the area is often thought of as one of the more thriving hiding spots of the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) and as a site of armed conflict between FARC guerrillas, the Colombian Army, and paramilitary groups.

Recognizing the region’s strategic political, military, natural, and economic significance, in this thesis I engage directly with some of the actors that have been historically considered less important: its indigenous inhabitants. I conducted fieldwork with taitas, community members, and visitors traveling amongst the Kamsá and the Inga in the Valley of Sibundoy for a period of two months in early 2012, and for three months in the summer of 2013. My first encounter with Upper Putumayo taitas and tomas de yajé happened in 2010.

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9 I conducted fieldwork at the Archivo de la Diócesis de Sibundoy; among other forms of documentation, there is a large, mostly unorganized collection of photographs taken by Capuchin missionaries. Some of the earliest are from the early 20th century and the oldest ones are from the 1970s. Several of these photographs were turned into postcards that were then circulated among the Capuchin missionary networks worldwide.
Demistifying Shamanism

Whenever I conversed about yajé in Colombia, I could tell most of the people I spoke with were quickly polarized. Some were ready to equate it with sorcery, qualifying yajé as a dangerous drug not to be tampered with, insisting that taitas are either malevolent, powerful sorcerers or deceitful, dangerous charlatans. Others, generally aligning with New Age discourse and tendencies, see yajé and taitas as sources of spirituality, sacred ancestral knowledge, healing, and communion with nature. The great majority of the accounts I recorded necessarily reduced encounters with yajé to either profound sacrality or to profanity of the most vulgar kind.

The graffiti mural in downtown Bogotá is helpful here to illustrate these ambivalent attitudes toward yajé and taitas. In the mural, it is unclear whether the men in black suits see in the taita an enemy to be feared or a helpful ally. Both of the men, however, are clearly in anguish. One of them is vomiting, but this vomiting could be understood as a kind of purging and cleansing. After all, a close look at the discharge reveals that in the green liquid expelled from the man’s mouth there are dollar signs. But why is it that this taita is surrounded by animals non-existent in the Amazon, namely a gorilla and a wolf? Retorno al Origen invites multiple interpretations. What is clear is that, following readings that are strict in their following of rigid categories easily renders taitas as caricatures, reifying an essentialization and exoticization of indigenous populations. Michael Taussig, for example, has argued that taitas’ perceived power in Colombia hinges on the fact that they have been historically perceived uncritically and simultaneously as beings of terror and healing. In this thesis, it is my intent to present a view of shamanism that is compatible with ideas of labor, a view that also rejects a long lineage of romanticizing, exoticizing, and essentializing taitas and more broadly, shamans and indigenous populations.

Sensorially dense, sensorially demanding

I situate my work along those who take the research about and through the senses seriously. Throughout this thesis, I will demonstrate that the aural is a crucial element of yajé rituals; engaging with sound production in tomas de yajé necessarily raises broader questions that are relevant to virtually any social situation.

Tomas de yajé are sensorially dense. Accounts of tomas de yajé vary widely among those who have participated in one, but the common thread that unites reports is the extraordinary amount of sensory stimuli that is experienced throughout the ritual. Most accounts of tomas de yajé admit, at some point, that it is very hard to be precise about what was experienced throughout the night. Descriptive accounts may range from the ethereal to the squalid, and all cases seem to necessarily resort to an extended use of poetic language. In focusing on sound as

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10 Taussig, Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man.
11 Michael Taussig writes, “[t]here is no ‘average’ yagé experience; that’s its whole point. Somewhere you have to take the bit between your teeth and depict yagé nights in terms of your own experience.” Ibid., 406.
12 Wade Davis, for example, paraphrases William Burroughs’ account from The Yagé Letters: “His numb body swathed in imaginary layers of cotton, his feet transformed into blocks of wood, his eyes lost in a blue haze of larval beings, this veteran of a thousand strange scenes had one cardinal thought: ‘All I want,’ he said to himself again and again, ‘is out of here.’” And another passage referring again to William Burroughs’ text: “Burroughs mentioned that one point he felt himself change into a black woman, then a black man, then a man and a woman at the same time, with everything writhing as in a Van Gogh painting.” Wade Davis, One River: Explorations and Discoveries in the Amazon Rain Forest (New York: Touchstone, 1997), 155. Davis also documents his own experience: “It was thirty minutes before I felt the first sensation, a numbness on the lips, and a warmth in my stomach that spread to my chest and shoulders even as a distinct chill moved down my waist and lower limbs. It was a surge of energy, part expectation, part enchantment. I Heard a distant humming, which I took for cicadas or tree frogs, until I realized that
an essential quality in *tomas de yajé*, I situate myself along a line of work that takes the senses and experience seriously in social situations.

In the introduction to the 2005 *Etnofoor* volume entitled “Senses,” Regina Bendix presents a case for a sensuous anthropology, highlighting the need for the development of a more holistically integrated approach to sensory dimensions in ethnography.\(^{13}\) Citing Michael Herzfeld, Bendix attributes the “relative dearth of anthropological work on the senses to the fact that anthropology, like all academic disciplines, is primarily a verbal activity”; she extends the argument by identifying the influence of the Enlightenment’s emphasis on the truth value of visual perception, discussing the prominence of logocentrism and “ocularcentrism” in the field as cause for the “neglect of culturally shaped sensory knowledge.”\(^{14}\) Scholars in other disciplines have also put forward this contention.\(^{15}\) Bendix, however, is equally concerned with pointing out that the argument is not “an effort at writing against ocularcentrism” or, as presented by David Howes, a revolt against “the linguistic turn, the textual revolution or discourse analysis.”\(^{16}\) Feld draws attention to the shortcomings of a “line of thinking [that] often reified a visual-auditory great divide.”\(^{17}\) Feld also cites Don Idhe’s critique in *Listening and Voice*, a critique “that pointed out the futility of countering the historical centrality of visualism in Western analytical discourses by simply erecting an antivisualism;” for Feld, a “reevaluation of sensory ratios must scrutinize how tendencies for sensory dominance always change contextually with bodily emplacement.”\(^{18}\) In a similar vein, even though this thesis focuses on the aural, the greater purpose is not one of hierarchical or mono-sensorial concerns. Rather, by thinking of the questions raised by a deep engagement with sound in *tomas de yajé*, I situate my efforts alongside Herzfeld’s quest for an “anthropology that is attuned, at once […] to both empirical and phenomenological concerns,” and alongside Feld’s call for work committed to the idea that “experiencing and knowing place – the idea of place as sensed, place as sensation – can proceed

the sound was vibrating beneath the surface of my skin. […] I shut my eyes, and the world inside my head began to spin and pulsate with warmth and a sensual glow that ran over a series of euphoric thoughts, words that stretched like shadows across my mind, paused, and then took form as diamonds and stars, colors rising from the periphery of consciousness and falling like demons and angels in a chaotic mix of dream and paranoia.” Ibíd., 192. Some excerpts from Michael Taussig’s account: “My body is distorting and I’m very frightened, limbs stretch out and become detached, my body no longer belongs to me, then it does. I am an octopus, I condense into smallness. […] Self-hate and paranoia is stimulated by horrible animals – pigs with queer snouts, slithering snakes gliding across one another, rodents with fish-fin wings. […] I feel the hateful situations of the past and the fear being expelled. I rejoin the group, calm, now floating on colors and wonderful sights.” Taussig, *Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man*, 141. I only cite Taussig and Davis here but insist that virtually any account of yajé experiences will necessarily resort to metaphor and creative description. For additional sources that include detailed descriptive accounts, see, for example: Shanon, *The Antipodes of the Mind*; Luis Eduardo Luna and Pablo Amaringo, *Ayahuasca Visions: The Religious Iconography of a Peruvian Shaman* (Berkeley, Calif.: North Atlantic Books, 1991); J. M. Fericgla, *Los Jíbaros, Cazadores de Sueños: Diario de Un Antropólogo Entre Los Shuar: Experimentos Con La Ayahuasca*, 1 ed (Barcelona: Integral-Oasis, 1994); Jimmy Weiskopf, *Yajé: The New Purgatory: Encounters with Ayahuasca*, 1st ed (Bogotá, D.C., Colombia: Villegas Editores, 2005).


\(^{14}\) Ibíd., 7.


\(^{16}\) Ibíd., 8.


\(^{18}\) Ibíd..
through a complex interplay of the auditory and the visual, as well as through other intersensory perceptual processes.” In 2005 Bendix could discuss a dearth of anthropological work in the senses, now we can aver that the past ten years have seen an increased amount of attention paid to the senses from a wide range of disciplines.

Sarah Pink calls into question the “idea of differentially sensing modalities attached to specific sense organs;” she argues for an interconnected understanding of sensory perception, citing neurologist Richard Cytowic, “the five senses do not travel along separate channels, but interact to a degree few scientists would have believed only a decade ago.” In the 2002 article, “A Critique of Visual Culture,” the art historian W.J.T. Mitchell argues that there are no “visual media” as such, rather, “all media are, from the standpoint of sensory modality, ‘mixed media.’” For Mitchell, images are “braided,” in that “one sensory channel or semiotic function is woven together with another more or less seamlessly.” Similarly, in the 2003 article “Visual essentialism and the object of visual culture,” the artist and scholar Mieke Bal states, “the act of looking is profoundly ‘impure’… [T]his impure quality is also … applicable to other sense-based activities: listening, reading, tasting, smelling. This impurity makes such activities mutually permeable, so that listening and reading can also have visuality to them.” One could argue then, from a sensory standpoint, that any activity has great aurality to it. Although I acknowledge the questioning of a transparent acceptance of the classic five senses, my aim here is less to discuss synaesthesia and more to argue for the importance of sound production and sound consumption in ritual as a way to engage broader sensory questions. Moreover, I will demonstrate that engaging the aural is a productive entry point into broader questions of expressive culture, ritual, imaginaries and representation, labor, and pragmatics.

19 Michael Herzfeld, Anthropology: Theoretical Practice in Culture and Society (Wiley, 2001); Feld and Basso, Senses of Place, 98.
23 Ibid., 162.
**Roadmap**

In this thesis, it is my intention to recast yajé shamans as laborers, as highly agentive individuals making livelihoods while being inevitably embedded in capital relations in present-day Colombia. The way taitas understand, use, and develop sound tactics to support their labor and lead tomas de yajé successfully is the focus of my study. In Chapter 2, *Yajé Shamanism, Labor, and Individual Practices*, I outline what tomas de yajé are and provide general information regarding tomas de yajé in Sibundoy. I argue that insisting on an understanding of shamanism through oppositional terms like sacred and profane, and insisting on an understanding of shamanism that casts it as necessarily pre-modern, pre-capitalist – romantic and bucolic – inevitably leads to essentializing. Shamans can provide crucial health services while they can also have a sense of humor and work hard to make a living and support their families without being sacrilegious or charlatans. All of these activities are not incompatible. Taitas use sound in their ritual practices deliberately, with specific reasons that go beyond simply providing musical accompaniment.

In Chapter 3, *Questions of Framing*, I draw from Erving Goffman’s frame analysis to argue that taitas use sound in tomas de yajé to help participants make sense of what they experience during tomas de yajé. I contend that taitas strive to make sure participants are indeed able to make sense of what they experience. Sound performed in specific ways by taitas allows participants to remember they are, indeed, at a toma de yajé, even if the effects of yajé can lead them to perceive utterly different realities. I conclude with a discussion of how the sound tactics of Upper Putumayo taitas become fundamental in keying frames and defining context in tomas de yajé.

In Chapter 4, *Questions of Place*, I argue that taitas use their ritual sonorous instruments in order to create a ritual place that is independent of physical constraints; place is understood sonically. The taitas’ instruments are highly portable and permit taitas to deliberately construct a ritual place inside their living rooms in the Upper Putumayo, but also while traveling in near-by villages in southern Colombia and locations as remote as Bogotá, the San Francisco Bay Area, or France. Taitas develop what I term sound signatures, that is, the specific and recognizable musical characteristics that define their playing, especially on the harmonica. I also argue that sound functions as a grounding, or anchoring, device. Taitas index the Amazon both verbally and non-verbally. Verbally, at the beginning of the ritual, they ‘bless’ the yajé to be drunk and ‘invoke’ the rainforest by reciting the name of plants, animals, and sometimes spirits that inhabit the Amazon. Non-verbally, they index the sounds of water, wind, and animals of the Amazon.

In the Conclusions section, I argue for cosmopolitan listening, a way of listening that implies taking an ethical stance towards the human and non-human environments we encounter. Drawing from the particular case of tomas de yajé, I also raise broader questions about the ways in which non-verbal sound can define place, context, and frames in more general situations, arguing for an understanding of sound as a way of not only ordering an environment, but oftentimes creating it.

Before continuing, I would like to return to the taita’s metallic jaguar head and to the jaguar portrayed in the Bogotá mural. One could say that the mural certainly represents the way taitas are imagined to be able to heal a money-obsessed Colombian – or more broadly, a global capitalist – society. One could also say it is little more than an exoticization, even an animalization, of taitas. It could certainly be both. Similarly, the episode with the playful taita and the jaguar growl could be interpreted as showing how taitas do not actually take rituals seriously; it could also illustrate how taitas can negotiate and interrogate, in complex ways,
expectations and ideas of what a taita should do and be like. Throughout this thesis, I will demonstrate how sound production is necessarily interrelated with questions and imaginaries of place, shamanism, ritual practice, and labor, sound production constituting a crucial part of the varied ways in which taitas work and make a living.
Chapter 2: Yajé Shamanism, Labor, and Individual Practices

In this chapter I will describe what tomas de yajé are, arguing that although no two shamans conduct tomas alike, tomas share the characteristic of being sensorially dense. My description will focus on the different sensory dimensions of drinking yajé and the different objects involved in tomas de yajé. In stating that no two shamans conduct tomas in the same way, I will also argue that throughout their lives, shamans develop individual ritual practices, that is, specific and highly personalized ways of conducting tomas. Through a case study, I also place a particular importance on understanding yajé shamanism in terms of labor, exploring an area often overlooked in academic discourse. Sound production matters to taitas because it is an essential part of the way they perform their labor. Sound production is also a way in which taitas define and differentiate their individual ritual practices and, ultimately, their identities. What kinds of research questions result from a serious engagement with Marx’s conception of labor – as discussed by David Graeber as “more or less identical with human creativity: it is the way human beings exercise their imaginative powers to create their worlds, their social ties as well as their physical environments” yet still embedded in relations of capital – when applied to shamanism?25

Individual Practices

In discussing what tomas de yajé are like, I will draw a picture of the elements generally common to the ritual. However, from the beginning, it is important to note that each individual taita develops individual practices throughout his lifetime, that is, highly personalized ways in which they conduct the ritual. These individual practices are a product of the taita’s particular experiences and preferences that, while particular and personal, also maintain a loose adherence to generally accepted ways of conducting tomas de yajé. It must be stressed that even the same taita will perform a toma de yajé somewhat differently every night.

In discussing the way ‘practice’ has been conceived from points of view ranging from philosophy (Wittgenstein, Dreyfus, Taylor) to social theory (Bourdieu, Giddens), cultural theory (Foucault, Lyotard), and science and technology studies (Rouse, Pickering), Schatzki asserts that a central core of theorizing practice is to conceive of practices as “embodied, materially mediated arrays of human activity centrally organized around shared practical understanding.”26 Schatzki, like others, has been concerned with interrogating “individual actions and their status as the building-blocks of social phenomena, and to transcend rigid action-structure oppositions.”27 Shove, Pantzar, and Watson pose the question: “How do practices emerge, exist and die?” They suggest that practices “emerge, persist, shift and disappear when connections between elements […] are made, sustained or broken.”28 The elements they refer to include materials – things, technologies, tangible physical entities, and so forth; competences – skill, know-how and technique; and meanings – symbolic meanings, ideas, and aspirations. Shove et al., aware that their formulation might be understood as a “reductive scheme,” contend that “this simple formulation is useful in that it provides us with a means of conceptualizing stability and

27 Ibid., 11.
change, and does so in a way that allows us to recognize the recursive relation between practice-as-performance and practice-as-entity.”

In entitling this thesis “The Sound Tactics of Upper Putumayo Shamans” I mean to emphasize the ways in which taitas deliberately use sound as a way of directing a toma de yajé and also the way in which sound tactics are a fundamental part of a taita’s labor. The Oxford English Dictionary defines a tactic as “[a]n action or strategy carefully planned to achieve a specific end” and technique as “[a] way of carrying out a particular task, especially the execution or performance of an artistic work or a scientific procedure.” I favor the usage of tactic over technique in describing how, why, and what it is that taitas do with sound – a tactic is carefully planned. By stressing the careful planning done by taitas, I am not implying that tomas de yajé are rehearsed and prescriptive. Rather, the “careful planning” refers instead, in this case, to a lifetime of learning and development of tactics that are employed by taitas to respond in real-time to situations that arise in tomas de yajé. The careful planning also includes the elements enlisted by Shove et al., that is, materials, competences, and meanings. In this way, my understanding of tactic is closely linked to that of individual practices. Taitas develop competences throughout their lifetimes in order to be able to respond in real time to the material conditions of a toma de yajé, e.g. the kind of room used, the distance from the yajé room to the bathroom, the acoustics of the place, lighting, the kinds of people present, and so forth. Arguably, what taitas do is to enable participants find their own meanings in a toma. The concept of sound tactic is also inextricably linked to questions of labor, as taitas perform sound in tomas de yajé for reasons beyond providing a musical background, light entertainment, or some kind of ambiance ornamentation. The performance of sound during a toma de yajé is not trivial; taitas sometimes play for consecutive hours during a time of physical discomfort, after having had little rest, and for reasons specific to the guidance of a particular toma on a particular night.

Due to practical reasons, this thesis does not follow closely the long process of apprenticeship that leads to someone becoming and being known as a taita – such a study would require long years of research during a boy’s growth and development and the varying periods of training and involvement with his master(s). My focus here is instead on the ways in which taitas – already established as such – use and continue to develop their sound tactics in their ritual practice. In this chapter I describe what a ‘generic’ toma de yajé might be like, and where appropriate, I discuss variants in taita’s individual practices. I also describe the different sonorous instruments taitas use and conclude with a case study on the questions that arise from considering yajé shamanism as a form of labor.

Sensorially dense, sensorially demanding
As developed in the introduction, drinking yajé is sensorially dense. It follows that it is sensorially demanding. In this section, I will present a general outline of the different parts of a toma de yajé in chronological order, paying particular attention to sensory stimuli and to the way taitas’ sound tactics and individual practices relate to the senses:

(1) Arrival and set-up: Tomas de yajé in the Upper Putumayo always take place at night, and are most often held at a specially designated room inside the taita’s house. While most

29 Ibid., 15.
taitas agree that yajé should be drunk at night, different taitas summon participants at different times. Some might say seven or eight in the evening, some might say ten, eleven, or even midnight. In any case, it is understood that although taitas tell participants they should arrive at a certain time, the drinking will not start immediately. There is a period of waiting for everyone to arrive that can be understood as a time for setting up and engaging in informal conversation.

During this phase, participants set up their sleeping arrangements – hammocks, mattresses, etc. – and speak amongst themselves. Usually participants introduce themselves to each other and the taita is often around, coming in and out of the room while engaging in conversation here and there. During this time, participants also talk to the taita if it is their first time drinking, or discuss in detail their reasons for attending the toma de yajé. Taitas may or may not have helpers or apprentices on any given night, although generally speaking, taitas tend to have at least one helper per toma. At this time the taita and his helpers are likely to be chopping wood to be used during the toma and bringing it inside the yajé room. The taita and his helpers also start ‘purifying’ the room with copal, a profoundly aromatic tree resin that is burnt in different kinds of chalices or thuribles. Different taitas, depending on the contact they might have had with other taitas and shamans from different cultures, might use incense or even salvia, a plant species that is not native to the area. Walking into a yajé room is almost always entering an immediately fragrant place.

(2) Signaling the beginning: Taitas have a way of indicating that the ritual will ‘officially’ start. This means that both participants, as a collectivity, and taita alike acknowledge that there is a frame shift. Informal chatting is no longer acceptable, and everyone in the room is silent, with the exception of the taita.

At some point between the set-up phase and the signaling, taitas and helpers will have changed into their ritual clothing. This involves wearing the traditional cusma - a thick and finely woven shawl; cascabeles - necklaces made of various beads, seeds, and animal teeth; and head decorations – some taitas wear a headpiece with colored feathers. Sometimes taitas will change into their ceremonial attire at the yajé room, as this changing of clothing is more of an adding of layers; sometimes they will leave and come back fully dressed. Taitas, once they are wearing their ceremonial clothing, will signal the beginning of the ritual verbally.

One taita is knowing for always explicitly saying, “vamos a comenzar.” At this point, taitas might give something like a small informational speech oriented mostly toward first-time participants. These speeches are almost always informal in tone and often interspersed with humorous commentary. Taitas might describe what the ritual is about, what to expect, what to do if the going gets tough, and so forth. Some taitas might limit themselves to telling participants where to find the bathroom. Some taitas are more oratorical while others are less inclined to give a long-winded introduction. In summary, the taita will signal in some way that it is time to start the ritual. Participants, in turn, will

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31 “Frames” and “framing” will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3: Questions of Framing.
32 I had several similar conversations with participants in Bogotá that seemed particularly bothered at discovering taitas don’t actually dress in cusmas, feathers and cascabeles on a regular basis.
33 “Let us begin.”
acknowledge the signal by remaining silent and seated in their respective places within the room, paying attention to the taita and his subsequent actions.

(3) **Summons, or the calling to the table:** Whether the taita has given an introductory talk or not, the moment in which he summons the first participant to the ritual table marks the clear beginning of what we could say is the drinking phase of the ritual. Before calling the first participant, taitas bless the recipient that holds the yajé by doing one, a combination, or all of the following:

a) blowing smoke onto the yajé from cigars or cigarettes
b) blowing their breath onto the yajé recipient
c) making the sign of the cross over it with their hands
d) playing the waira sacha
e) playing the harmonica
f) ‘conjuring’ it verbally – reciting words, often the names of plants and animals, that are meant to ‘activate’ yajé
g) singing
h) whistling

This initial blessing might be quick or fairly lengthy, lasting up to ten minutes or so, depending on the taita. After pouring the first participant’s dose – which will be served in recipients that can range from a gourd, an espresso cup, or even shot glasses – the taita will repeat the blessing operations he employed (from the a-f list above) on the participant’s dose before offering it to the participant and allowing them to drink it. Generally speaking, all of the men drink first, and then all of the women drink.34 In the moment after arriving to the table and before drinking, the taita might ask, in a low voice, why it is that the participant is drinking. The taita and the participant might then have a brief conversation.

The calling to the table phase can be understood as an introduction to the taitas’ basic sound repertoire. Before being summoned to drink, all participants will already have seen and heard most of the taitas’ sonorous instruments. The taste and smell of yajé – famously described by Wade Davis as “that of the entire jungle ground up and mixed with bile” – will almost certainly remain in the participant’s nose and palate for most, if not all of the night.35

(4) **Waiting for the onset:** After all participants have had a chance to drink yajé, the taita will start playing his sonorous instruments while participants sit down in silence. The taita might sing, play the harmonica, play the cascabeles, whistle, and/or play the waira sacha. Generally speaking, taitas favor playing the waira sacha during this time, and might do so for a few minutes or for a longer period of time over an hour. During the onset, most participants are still trying to get used to the taste and smell of yajé. Participants also start to feel dizzy, light-headed, and nauseous. The room is still fragrant, and the taita starts to change the illumination of the room. The lights – usually electric – are dimmed or turned

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34 The quantity served by the taita for each individual varies, see Sound and Power, 54-55.
Figure 3 - Altar in a yajé room, Vereda Tamabioy, Putumayo, 2013
off entirely, while candles that have been previously lit are placed around the taita’s table, altar, and sometimes throughout the room.

(5) **Onset:** My definition of onset assumes it begins on the moment in which a participant starts to receive pintas. It is difficult to state precisely how long the pintas last, or to identify discrete units within the ‘onset’ phase, as the effects of yajé on different individuals varies widely.

Generally speaking, participants and taitas agree that before the pinta starts, the body feels especially dizzy – the words generally used to describe this state are dizzy (mareado) or drunk (borracho). When taitas perceive participants are starting to feel ‘mareados’ they play the harmonica with remarkable vigor, attempting to stimulate the full onset of the pinta. The pinta phase might last from a few minutes to one or several hours. It is also frequent to vomit profusely or to have diarrhea before or during onset. In fact, it is highly unlikely to not vomit. Vomiting is a big part of the cleansing beliefs associated to drinking yajé. Vomiting is certainly encouraged and considered desirable. At this point, most participants, even if not experiencing pintas per se, are experiencing the wider range of yajé effects.

(6) **Second round:** Many taitas offer a second round of yajé to those participants who want to drink again – participants might want to repeat because they did not see pintas with their first dose, because they want to ‘refresh’ their pintas and add potency to them, or because although they did see pintas, the pintas went away and they want a new round of them. The taita will generally follow the same blessing and conjuring procedures he did during the first round of drinking yajé. Usually, the second round happens three to four hours into the ritual. It must be noted that participants can ask for more yajé at any point of the night, and it will be up to the taita’s discretion whether and how much a participant can drink again.

(7) **Waiting out the night:** Several hours into the toma, after participants have almost certainly all vomited, and onset is still going on, whether after one, two, or more rounds, participants might choose to sleep, remain lying down, or engage in conversation with other participants or the taita. Different taitas play different combinations of their sonorous instruments at their discretion, at varying intervals and volumes and for different reasons. Throughout the onset phase and throughout the night, the room will continue to be filled with copal smoke, the sounds of the taita, but also the sounds of other participants living the toma.

(8) **The cleansing frame:** Although it is understood that throughout the toma participants are being cleansed by both yajé and the taita, there is a moment in which healing takes place explicitly. This is called the limpieza, or cleansing. Depending on the taita, and depending on how many participants are present, cleansing may be done individually or collectively. If cleansing is done collectively, women and men are cleansed as separate groups.
Cleansing involves drawing out disease and as some shamans now say, negative energies, from a participant. Participants usually sit on chairs that are placed in the middle of the yajé room, either by themselves or lined up along with fellow participants. Taitas play the waira sacha around participants but also on their bodies, from head to toes. Some taita also rub stinging nettle all over the participants’ bodies. Taitas also sing, whistle, blow smoke, and play the harmonica all over the participant’s body. Taitas employ a great deal of energy in this part of the toma, as they are playing, dancing, and singing vigorously and moving rapidly around the participant.

Depending on the taita, the cleansing might take place when it is already light out, or before. The cleansing might lead to a resting period where participants and the taita himself sleep, or it might happen right before the toma’s conclusion.

(9) Conclusion: Different taitas end the toma in different ways. Most taitas let participants sleep indefinitely. Other taitas make sure to emphasize, after the limpieza, that a breakfast will be served and that the toma has ended. Some taitas might stay and sleep in the yajé room or they might go to another part of their house. Some taitas might favor having a communal breakfast during which people are encouraged to speak of their experiences and to ask questions.

The Yajé Room

Yajé is almost always consumed inside a specially designated room within the taita’s property. In the Upper Putumayo, tomas de yajé hardly ever take place outdoors or in public places, although special occasions might ensue having a toma in a more open place, like in the backyard of a community-owned building. When taitas lead a toma de yajé in their homes, they tend to always do it in the same place. In fact, yajé rooms are often decorated intentionally to reflect their being yajé rooms and not any other kind of room. Although in a later chapter I develop the idea that tomas de yajé are portable and ultimately independent of a particular material configuration, in this section I will describe the general characteristics of a yajé room in the Upper Putumayo.

Yajé rooms are sparsely furnished, as most of the space in the room will be designated for laying out mattresses, sleeping bags, or tying hammocks. The minimal requirements of a yajé room are for it to have one table, an altar, space for participants to sit down or lie down, and a bathroom within the room or reasonably nearby.

The yajé table is the place where the yajé is placed before the ritual starts. Often, it is also where the taita keeps some of his ritual implements, including tobacco, gourds, drinking utensils, and sonorous instruments. The yajé table is usually located at one end of the room, and it is the place where the taita stays during the toma, generally speaking. The table itself is nothing fancy or elaborate; often, modest wooden or plastic tables do. There is also nothing specific about the kinds of seats and chairs the taita keeps in the room. The table’s location, however, is significant in that it is the place from where taitas produce sound, and in a way, becomes what we could call

36 I often encountered some shamans that consciously employed New Age discourse and scientific discourse to talk about yajé. This is a research question I was not able to explore further. Taita Juan Agreda discusses his discovery of the term “DMT” when imprisoned in Texas after attempting to transport yajé through the Houston International Airport. See Brian T. Anderson, Beatriz Caiuby Labate, and Celina M. De Leon, “Healing with Yagé: An Interview with Taita Juan Bautista Agreda Chindoy,” in The Therapeutic Use of Ayahuasca, ed. Beatriz Caiuby Labate and Clancy Cavnar (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2014), 197–215, http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-642-40426-9_12.
a sonic radius throughout the toma, an aural-based center of grounding and gravity. Taitas do move around throughout the night to go to the bathroom or to talk to participants, but generally speaking, they will gravitate back to the table area.

Usually there is also an altar near the taita’s table. The altar most often features a wide range of images and statues. It is frequent to find statues and images of the Virgin Mary, various saints, and images of a crucified Jesus. Along these, it is also common to find plastic animals – usually those that inhabit ‘the jungle,’ broadly understood – artisan ornaments, candles, pieces of granite, quartz, and other minerals, the taita’s sonorous instruments, and all kinds of ointments, creams, and droppers full of various liquids. The altar is also where the taita might keep his cascabeles when he is not wearing them. The altar itself does not play an explicit role in the toma, but its position next to the table suggests it is important; at the very least, participants have to come near it when they approach the table.

The bathroom is an indispensable place in tomas de yajé, as most, if not all, participants will need to use it at some point of the night. Some taitas keep buckets handy inside the yajé room in case participants need to vomit immediately and cannot take a step outside to do so. Generally, participants can vomit in a few designated areas outside that are not pathways and are not necessarily toilets or sink; some taitas build trench-like openings where people can vomit without having to worry about aim or having to wait for their turn.

Yajé rooms also often have pictures of the taita with important figures of the local community, the taita in remote places, posters of conferences or meetings where the taita might have participated, and often portraits and photographs of the taita’s master(s). Some taitas also have images of jaguars and birds across the room, and one even has murals that were painted on his walls by some participants. Although part of the argument I make in this thesis is that the place most relevant to tomas de yajé is a place constructed, maintained, and performed through sound tactics, and one that is indeed highly portable and independent of a particular geographical location, the more permanent yajé rooms in taita’s houses are not negligible locations. Taitas believe their rooms are sedimented with the history of tomas that have been conducted there. Their altars, too, are cumulative in all senses of the word.

Who attends a yajé ritual and why

Who might attend a yajé ritual can vary drastically from one night to another. Oftentimes, the participants are mostly, but not exclusively, members of the indigenous communities of the valley (Inga and Kamsá); at times, other indigenous people from outside the valley might seek the taita’s services; other times, attendants could be a mix of locals, non-local indigenous people, non-indigenous Colombian nationals, and foreigners from near and far. The short answer is that shamans will allow almost anyone to drink yajé with them, as long as the participant understands basic information about what tomas de yajé are. In general, we can say people attend a yajé ritual for medical reasons, spiritual reasons, and for practical, non-medical reasons.

A good amount of the mestizo population in Sibundoy and neighboring areas often go to taitas when they feel that medical services at the local hospital – there is only one hospital in the town of Santiago that services the entire valley – are either unsuccessful, too expensive, or not worth the long waits. I even encountered mestizo locals that seemed generally unsympathetic and even untrusting of local indigenous culture but that, when it came to emergency healthy matters, had no qualms about taking their ill children to see a taita. Local indigenous groups see taitas for medical reasons, and going both to a taita and to a doctor at a hospital are not seen as mutually
exclusive or as particularly problematic. One of the taitas that I met claims to have cured cases of cancer, AIDS, and heroin addiction.

A more recent kind of participant has more abstract, spiritual reasons for attending a toma de yajé. These are participants on a self-discovery quest, and these participants usually come from major cities of Colombia, other countries of Latin America, or North America, Europe, and to a lesser degree some parts of Africa and Asia. Drinking yajé is seen by many as a rite of passage, as a kind of enigmatic experience through which a certain kind of traveler should go through. There is a growing number of so-called ‘ayahuasca tourists’ and travel operators that cater to this type of clientele. Many express their desire to “expand their consciousness” and experiment with substances on their ‘psychonautic’ journey.

Taitas also told me a wide range of stories about the different people that come to see them. One taita spoke of soccer players from Cali that had come to receive guidance, agility, and sportsmanship through drinking yajé. He told me they eventually became regular visitors and that they come a few days before important matches in the local league. A Kamsá artisan told me that she sometimes goes to see taitas when she needs to get new ideas for designs she will later implement in hand-woven bags, bracelets, cusmas, and tapestries. She also goes when she is planning to enter some of her artisan work into national contests. I was encouraged by some taitas to drink yajé in order to better think about this thesis project. Other participants came to taitas because they were soon getting married, moving, or embarking on a large-scale project.

It is generally recommended that before drinking yajé, one should tell the taita what it is one is looking for, be it overcoming childhood trauma, fighting cancer, or looking for guidance before embarking on a difficult endeavor. Taitas insist it is important to concentrate on something specific throughout the night, and that when one voices this goal, one is effectively asking yajé to grant something.

The widely reaching and relatively unbounded range of reasons people drink yajé is not incompatible with the idea that yajé is sacred. For a taita, a participant looking for a cure to a terminal disease or one trying to learn to love others more deeply is not superior to a participant looking for a job or a participant simply wanting to experience something new. Yet yajé is still presented and understood as ancestral knowledge, and as something to be treated with the utmost respect and gratitude.

I would like to insist on the idea that the sacrality of yajé is elastic by presenting one final account: one of the most prominent taitas of Sibundoy was very attached to a dog he had come to own, a particularly unruly and disobedient canine that had, in recent months, committed a series of minor crimes and was becoming unequivocally a public nuisance. This taita called onto two other prominent taitas to help him hold a toma de yajé to “calm the dog down.”37 I was told the toma was indeed helpful, and that it yielded an impeccable, exemplary hound. Nobody in the community seemed to question the taita or his intentions. A significant amount of people I interviewed outside of the community, including devout yajé drinkers and ayahuasca researchers, found the account irresponsible, if not outright sacrilegious. Traditionally, Western discourse – both New Age and academic – has understood shamanism very rigidly in terms of concepts like sacred and profane, or as necessarily involving supernatural interactions with gods and goddesses and the forces of nature. While I am not attempting to discount these interpretations, I am introducing the idea that shamanism is a form of labor with tangible and immediate – sometimes even banal – results, clients, patients, and beneficiaries. While for some yajé might be exclusively about abstract questions, for many, including taitas themselves and Kamsá and Inga

37 “Para amansar al perrito.”
Figure 4 - Taita Salvador Chindoy, photographed by Richard Evans Schultes, undated.

community members, drinking *yajé* is a means of making decisions and obtaining practical results for everyday problems and situations.

*The taitas’ sonorous instruments*

A major part of the way in which the *taitas* vary in their individual practices is in the ways they use their different sound instruments. The main instruments they utilize are the harmonica, the waira sacha, the cascabeles, and their singing. *Taitas* invariably use the waira sacha, wear the cascabeles, and sing; although the majority of *taitas* I interviewed play the harmonica during *tomas de yajé*, some spoke of how playing the harmonica is a more recent development. The waira sacha is by far the most ubiquitous sonorous instrument that *taitas* use. It looks like little more than a bundle of dry leaves tied at one end, but both *taitas*, participants in *tomas de yajé*, and community members understand it as an instrument of power. The species usually used is *Pariana stelonemma* and the name waira sacha, in Kichwa, means roughly ‘wind plant,’ waira meaning ‘wind, air,’ sacha meaning ‘forest, jungle, plant.’ The waira sacha is also known as shakapa in Perú and more generally in Spanish as ‘escoba,’ or broom, amongst indigenous *taitas* and mestizo healers in Colombia.39 All of the names suggest something about how the waira sacha is understood – the waira sacha is related to notions of wind, air, and cleansing. Although it is played as a percussive instrument and used sometimes to keep a steady rhythm when accompanying singing or harmonica playing, it is also understood as an instrument producing wind. It is also a healing implement that not only purifies the air inside a *yajé* room but one that also cleanses and expels sickness from a body. The waira sacha is also used to ‘bless’ *yajé* before it is drunk.

The cascabeles are necklaces made from various seeds, beads, and animal teeth that *taitas* wear around their necks. The cascabeles form part of the *taita*’s ceremonial attire but like the waira sacha, they are also instruments that help the *taita* keep time while performing on the harmonica or singing. The cascabeles also sound a moving *taita* inside a dark *yajé* room; the *taita* can be heard coming and going through the night, his presence made manifest by the sound of the cascabeles, reminding participants that they are not alone.

*Taitas* sing to ‘bless’ *yajé*. This ‘blessing’ is understood as both expressing gratitude towards the plant itself for the healing it will do, but also as ‘activating’ it within the *toma* and making it fit for consumption. In their singing, *taitas* also index the Amazon by reciting words like *tigrecito, selva, pinta*, and so forth.40 Blowing smoke, breath, and whistling are operations considered directly linked to singing.

Nobody I spoke with remembers who the first *taita* to use the harmonica in *tomas de yajé* is or was. There is photographic evidence of a *taita*, Taita Salvador Chindoy, clasping some plants and, among other things, a harmonica in a series of photographs taken by the botanist Richard Evans Schultes in Sibundoy.41 The question of the origin of the adoption of the harmonica does not seem like a question that is productively approached in terms of identifying

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40 Tiger (or “little” tiger, an affectionate diminutive), jungle (or rain-forest), pinta, etc.
41 None of the photographs in the publication are individually dated. Rather, the prologue tells us they were taken by Schultes sometime between 1941 and 1961. Richard Evans Schultes, *El Bejuco Del Alma: Los Médicos Tradicionales de La Amazonia Colombiana, Sus Plantas Y Sus Rituales*, 1. ed. en español (Santafé de Bogotá: Medellín : Santafé de Bogotá: Ediciones Uniandes ; Editorial Universidad de Antioquia ; Banco de la República, 1994), 59, 72–73.
specific dates or specific persons; attempts of establishing those questions would be, at best, a matter of speculation. On this point I have heard a wide range of theories:

(1) *La Guajira:* The Colombian musicologist, Egberto Bermúdez, has recently written about the history of the circulation of accordions in Colombia, tracing Caribbean Colombian ports, notably La Guajira, as the main points of entry of accordions into the Colombia territory. He also writes of the harmonica as an instrument that circulated along with the accordion, and one that was taken up in Colombia around the same time period (mid to late 19th century). In personal conversation, Bermúdez speculated about the harmonica trickling down and at some point getting to the Putumayo from La Guajira. At best, a distant entry point could be speculated about, but it seems difficult to discuss this particular history of circulation with much specificity.

(2) *La Casa Arana:* Conversations with other scholars of Colombian history led to hypothesizing that the harmonica could have reached the Putumayo from Ecuador, through the incursion of wire-tappers and other workers associated to rubber-extraction operations along the Colombia-Ecuador border. The notoriously atrocious history of the

Casa Arana has been the most documented. As far as I know, however, there is no mention of musical exchange, instrument circulation, and so forth in the literature.

(3) Another possibility is that the harmonica, along with other Western instruments, was introduced by the Capuchin priests in their various incursions to the Colombian territory. The Capuchins left a meticulous record of their mission in the Putumayo and other parts of the Colombian Amazon; the majority of these documents are now at an archive that is housed at the Diócesis de Sibundoy, including photographs numbering in the thousands and a vast number of volumes of written records dating from the early 20th century to the 1970s. Some of the photographs depict priests teaching local communities how to play Western instruments; I have not found any photographs that include harmonicas in them.

(4) A less glamorous theory is that rather than the product of an institutionalized or ongoing encounter, the harmonica first arrived in the Putumayo by chance encounter. A traveler, like Schultes himself, might have given one to a taita on a trip.

Rather than a question of who or when, I have found focusing on the ‘why,’ or reasons behind the appropriation of the harmonica, more productive. When we consider the harmonica along the other ritual instruments – the cascabeles, the waira sacha, singing – and more general ideas of smoke, wind, and breath in broader Amazonian ritual practice, it is not difficult to understand why the harmonica has been adopted as a ritual instrument in tomas de yajé.

Questions of labor, a case study

In this section I will put forward the idea that labor is a useful, necessary concept – although one not usually employed – for discussing regarding shamanism and shamanic practices. In an attempt to generate productive avenues of enquiry, and drawing from a particular case study from my fieldwork, I will present some of the generative questions that arise when


44 Garzón Chirivi discusses the exchanges between the Upper and Lower Putumayo and speculates that the harmonica arrived to the Upper Putumayo from such exchanges. Omar Alberto Garzón Chirivi, Rezar, soplar, cantar: etnografía de una lengua ritual (Editorial Abya Yala, 2004), 67.

45 Thanks to Prof. Lev Michael for pointing to a similar emphasis on teaching Western music by Jesuits in Maynas, Perú in the 17th century. As far as I know, the question of why missionaries in the Amazon seem to have been remarkably intent on transmitting musical practices remains unexplored.

Figure 6 – Upper Putumayo taita and son at home. Santiago, Putumayo
considering shamanism as labor. It is also my intention to frame my discussion of what taitas do in terms of labor.

One of the taitas I worked most closely with – Taita Alberto – lives in a small, dispersed village about twenty kilometers outside of the Sibundoy town center. It is only possible to get there walking or by taxi. From the village’s main road there are several small paths, only traversable by foot, that go deeper into clusters of houses. One must follow one such path for about three kilometers, through several fruit fields and cow pastures in order to get to Taita Alberto’s.

We were talking inside his living room when his cell phone rang. One of the taita’s friends in town, a wood craftsman, was calling to introduce Alex, a young Scottish man who had been asking in town about shamans conducting tomas de yajé that evening. Taita Alberto gave Alex instructions on how to arrive to his house, and settled on a price over the phone.

I will not describe the details of this specific toma here, but I would like to highlight what Alex told me in conversation the morning after. Although he was content with how the toma had been conducted – Alex had been drinking yajé regularly in the outskirts of Medellín, one Colombia’s largest cities several thousand kilometers away – he was unsatisfied at having been charged a fixed price ahead of time, regardless of what the quantity was itself. He had been looking for “the purer kind of taita” that does not request a specific amount of money but instead leaves it up to the participant to remunerate at free will – this could either mean the participant decides what monetary amount is appropriate, or that the participant can instead offer non-monetary compensation, in the form of agricultural goods or general supplies. He had heard some taitas operated this way, but thus far he had not found one that did. Similarly, a scholar in Bogotá had warned me of taitas that “are in it just for the money” and – although highly skeptical of the term ‘authentic’ – suggested “more sincere taitas” will not specify a predetermined monetary amount for their services but rather be content with whatever one wants to give them.

This is a fictitious name.
This case study will serve as a starting point for an investigation of shamanism as labor. How are ideas of ‘purity,’ ‘sincerity,’ and ‘authenticity’ complicated by monetary exchange with shamans? What are the assumptions under which non-indigenous participants and patients generally operate in their relationships with shamans? What does an engagement with theorizations of labor add to the way shamanism is understood in academic discourse? What kinds of research questions result from a serious engagement with Marx’s conception of labor – as discussed by David Graeber as “more or less identical with human creativity: it is the way human beings exercise their imaginative powers to create their worlds, their social ties as well as their physical environments” yet still embedded in relations of capital – when applied to shamanism?48

Definitions of shamanism: histories of expectations
Perhaps one of the most known and diffused definitions of shamanism comes from Mircea Eliade’s 1951 Le chamanisme et les techniques archaïques de l’extase, translated into English in 1964. Eliade proposes, in what he terms “the least hazardous” way, that shamanism is a “technique of religious ecstasy.”49 Although a detailed review of literature on shamanism is beyond the purview of this chapter, it is necessary to state few or none have theorized shamanism explicidy as a form of labor.50 Boekhoven posits that “the field of shamanism is largely informed by the values and concerns of the embracing society.”51 He elaborates:

To paraphrase Talal Asad, there cannot be a universal definition of shamanism, not only because the constituents of the phenomena that have been labelled shamanism are historically specific, but also because the definitions are historical products of discursive processes.52

Along similar terms, in Du Marxisme au Chamanisme (2011), Jean Paul Sarrazin examines the way Colombian middle and upper classes have constructed notions of indigenous

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50 Piers Vitebsky hints at an understanding of shamanism as labor but only in passing: “Shamans are at once doctors, priests, social workers and mystics. They have been called madmen or madwomen, were frequently persecuted throughout history, dismissed in the 1960s as a "desiccated" and "insipid" figment of the anthropologist's imagination, and are now so fashionable that they inspire both intense academic debate and the naming of pop groups. Shamans have probably attracted more diverse and conflicting opinions than any other kind of spiritual specialist. The shaman seems to be all things to all people.” Piers Vitebsky, Shamanism (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2001), 10; “The shaman's experience is never just a personal voyage of discovery, but also a service to the community. Through the ordeals of initiation, the shaman is enabled to empathize with the sufferings and needs of others. Being a shaman is probably, in fact, the oldest profession, covering the roles which in industrial societies are played separately by the doctor, psychotherapist, soldier, fortune-teller, priest and politician.” Ibid., 96. A recent publication that presents a detailed genealogy of the term’s usage, although not identifying concerns with labor, is: Jeroen W. Boekhoven, Genealogies of Shamanism: Struggles for Power, Charisma and Authority (Barkhuis, 2011). It is also telling that there is no entry on “labor” in comprehensive publications like Graham Harvey, Historical Dictionary of Shamanism, Historical Dictionaries of Religions, Philosophies, and Movements, no. 77 (Lanham, Md: Scarecrow Press, 2007); and the two volume Mariko Namba Walter and Eva Jane Neumann Fridman, eds., Shamanism: An Encyclopedia of World Beliefs, Practices, and Culture (Santa Barbara, Calif: ABC-CLIO, 2004).
51 Boekhoven, Genealogies of Shamanism, 309.
alterity based, to a large degree, on their particular perceptions of indigenous shamanism.\textsuperscript{53} Despite – for this discussion’s intents – its suggestive title, his discussion is less about proposing a labor-based understanding of shamanism and more about the influences of global discourses on local constructions of ethnicity and shamanism.

I contend that a great part of the power and allure of shamanism in Western thought has resided in its interpretation as completely other, and particularly, as free from engaging capitalist relationships. In Chakrabartian terms, shamanism is to this day firmly affixed and understood in terms of a type of History 2. In the words of Chakrabarty,

\begin{quote}
Elements of History 2, Marx says, are also “antecedents” of capital, in that capital “encounters them as antecedents,” but – and here follows the critical distinction I want to highlight – “not as antecedents established by itself, not as forms of its own life-process.”\textsuperscript{54}
\end{quote}

Robert Gregg discusses this distinction as follows:

\begin{quote}
History 1 is the story of capital becoming or making itself. This is not a teleological perspective that might propose that everything coming before capitalism is in a process of becoming capitalist. It is rather the process by which capital appropriates things that may or may not be its antecedents. It is about archive formation, the formation of a past that is retrospectively posited by capital, or, in short, the process of rewriting history so that it fits. History 2, by contrast, is resistance to 1, or life itself. For Marx, Chakrabarty suggests, capital can never be universal: “No global capital can ever represent the universal logic of capital, for any historically available form of capital is a provisional compromise made up of History 1 modified by somebody’s History 2s.”\textsuperscript{70} As such, Marx’s analysis can be as applicable to places where it has been considered irrelevant owing to particular economic conditions as to those places where it has long been applied (industrialized Europe).\textsuperscript{55}

Although Chakrabarty is concerned with contesting the default, uncritical acceptance of History 1, I would like to point out that romanticized versions of History 2s might be equally problematic. Pretending that History 2s do not ever change or intersect with History 1 can lead to facile generalizations. Alex the Scotsman’s disenchantment and the Bogotá scholar’s trepidations can be thus understood as a radical clinging to a conception of shamanism that is free from their own urban, neo-liberal, lived reality of History 1, “a past posited by capital itself as a precondition.”\textsuperscript{56} Where then would the power of a shaman lie if it were – as it veritably is, more often that not – entwined in that which their Western imagination is dramatically seeking to escape, that is, a History 1 in which nothing can exist outside of capitalist relations? Why is it so problematic to think of shamanism as a valid means of subsistence, as a respectable profession and source of means for an indigenous family? In this thesis, I also argue that part of the significance of the sound tactics lie in the fact that asserting that they are an essential part of a taita’s individual ritual practice certainly also means that they are crucial elements of the way in which taitas make a living.

\textsuperscript{56} Ibid.
Figure 8 - Upper Putumayo taita and apprentice after a toma de yajé, Vereda Tamabioy, Putumayo
Throughout *Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man*, Michael Taussig sustains the argument that the alleged savagery of the Indians, in the eyes of the colonialists, and the latter’s subsequent despising of the former in all their wildness and pagantry, is what ultimately has allowed indigenous populations in Colombia to be understood as possessing extraordinary healing powers and access to dimensions beyond daily, mundane strife.\(^57\) At the time the book was written – in the late 1980s – *yajé* shamanism was already gaining momentum in the Colombian territory as a well-known indigenous practice. It is surprising Taussig does not address explicitly, or with much detail, the commodification of *yajé* and the different ways *yajé* shamanism becomes a source of income. He does mention the way a Lower Putumayo shaman looked down on Upper Putumayo (specifically Sibundoy) shamans for engaging in commercial relations with their patients through shamanism.\(^58\) What complicates this shunning is that Upper Putumayo shamans have historically purchased the *yajé* they use in the Lower Putumayo – Lower Putumayo shamans have been willing to sell it to others who then re-sell it. I will take up this paradox in the following section. In short, the *yajé* shamanism case in Colombia demonstrates that shamanism is hardly ever an isolated activity that can depend entirely on one individual – shamanic practice, when understood as labor, necessarily involves multiple actors engaging in complex relations.

**Toward research questions**

In *Art Workers*, Julia Bryan-Wilson presents an overview of the way artists mobilized themselves as ‘art workers’ in response to the Vietnam War and its associated political turbulence. Citing Helen Molesworth, she states that “in the period following World War II, artists came to see themselves not as artists producing [in] a dreamworld but as workers in capitalist America.”\(^59\) What then, if Putumayo shamans are understood as workers in present-day neoliberal Colombia?

During my fieldwork, I observed different taitas had different opinions on what it means to be a taita and to what degree their being a taita was perceived as a vocation, a hobby, a calling, a responsibility, work, and so on. Although the conversations were never directly expressed in those terms, there were obvious discontinuities in the way each understood their shamanic practice. I noticed that some taitas, although few, are truly full-time taitas. Taita Alberto, for example, drinks *yajé* with participants, or often patients in his case, at least five days a week, sometimes seven.\(^60\) When I visited him, he had a teenager interned in his house, following a two-month treatment against an unspecified drug addiction. Other taitas make a habit of drinking *yajé* only once or twice a week, generally on Fridays and Saturdays, and the majority of their everyday life is dedicated to subsistence farming or artisan work. Kathi Weeks asserts, “[w]ho one becomes at work and in life are mutually constitutive. There is no position of exteriority in this sense; work is clearly part of life and life part of work.”\(^61\) If we take her statement seriously, what is the relationship between the everyday and ritual performance for taitas? How does a

\(^{57}\) Taussig, *Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man*.

\(^{58}\) Ibid., 255–258.


\(^{60}\) It is important to underscore the fact that drinking *yajé* is demanding: it requires taitas to remain awake all night long and to be able to respond to patients’ needs. It is not the case that taitas can simply stay in bed next morning.

taita like Alberto think about the times he is not conducting a ritual? In what ways are ‘work’ and ‘life’ separable and mutually constitutive?

Some taitas renounce living with the families for prolonged amounts of time in order to practice their labor. During my time in the Putumayo, I was not able to contact some taitas because they were out of town, visiting patients in nearby cities (within, say, a 200 kilometer radius), far-away cities in Colombia, and sometimes even abroad. Taitas move within certain established circuits in their labor: through their traveling, they extend their circuits and increase their possibilities for employment. Taitas do offer, following a Marxian definition, a commodity: “a thing that by its properties satisfies human wants of some sort or another.”

Returning to Chakrabarty’s discussion on the two types of histories, Alex the Scotsman, and the accusations of the Lower Putumayo taitas referenced in Taussig’s work: what if taitas are thought of as laborers? Going further, and drawing from Lazzarato’s argument that “labor produces not only commodities, but first and foremost it produces the capital relation,” what and how are the relations on which taitas embark on in exercising their profession?

Partial conclusions and more questions: the shaman as employer

A full-time taita like Alberto does not run a one-man operation. Following Marx, “[if] we take away the useful labour expended upon them [commodities], a material substratum is always left, which is furnished by Nature without the help of man.” Who supplies Taita Alberto with yajé? How much does he pay for it? How does the exchange take place? How is yajé transported? How does the taita earn money to purchase the yajé that will eventually lead to more income?

On the more mundane, but potentially insightful: who cleans the yajé bathrooms that are used during a yajé ritual? Who cooks the morning breakfasts that patients enjoy after the long nights of drinking yajé? Where do the eggs in the omelets come from? Who washes the dishes and cleans the table after everyone leaves? Who are the behind-the-scenes actors in yajé rituals? What are their relationships with the taita? Do they get paid? What greater roles and relationships, say of gender and power, are enacted through these exchanges?

It is possible to engage with shamans as laborers, and even as employers. Alex the Scotsman’s disenchantment with taitas being evidently inserted in capitalism is not entirely romantic: there are taitas that are outright charlatans. Several strands of yajé (or more commonly in this context), ayahuasca tourism have developed in the last decades, and yajé shamanism is certainly not a transparent endeavor.

Jean Langdon and Isabel Santana discuss the politics behind the recent adoption of ayahuasca ritual practices by the Guarani of Brazil, a group that has not before used the brew. They understand shamanisms as emerging in specific political and historical contexts:

64 Marx, *Karl Marx*, 464.
65 These tourism tendencies have even been documented by Time magazine: Otis, “Down the Amazon in Search of Ayahuasca.” See footnote 2 for a list of references that engage with ayahuasca tourism.
Shamans and shamanisms should be seen today as dialogical categories, often negotiated at the boundaries of local indigenous societies and their interfaces with national and global groups. Shamanisms today are phenomena that emerge dialogically based on interactions between the actors involved in their global revival—anthropologists, journalists, environmental organizations, healthcare professionals, indigenous peoples, and neo-shamanic groups, among others.

But what about their relationships with money, labor, and capital? How are shamans laborers and how are they employers? How are their working relationships and traveling circuits established? Who are the middle-men? Can taitas be understood, in the words of Matt Stahl, as “unfree masters” subject to payment by their patients (or clients) but also as “free-lancers,” their activities devoid of legal contracts? What does it mean that in 2000, an organization like UMIYAC (Unión de Médicos Indígenas Yajeceros de la Amazonía Colombiana) was organized through the Amazon Conservation Team’s efforts?

Admittedly, my discussion of labor raises questions and does not attempt to answer them. It is my intention to problematize, using Chakrabartyan terms, understandings of shamanism that necessarily cast it as perpetually in a state of ‘history 2,’ of tempering a long tradition of romantic fascination with figures that are sometimes simultaneously of terror and healing, oftentimes figures of romantic fascination and little else than poetic beings at the margins. Being a taita is no trivial matter; it is a seriously difficult profession. Waving a waira sacha for consecutive hours is tiring. Healing in tomas de yajé is more of a physical operation that requires a taita to move about, breath, and blow in a truly energetic kind of way. Someone like Taita Alberto drinks yajé most nights of the year; this means having an irregular sleep schedule, throwing up on a daily basis, and having serious responsibilities toward patients entrusting their lives on him. Taita Juan Bautista Agreda from Sibundoy has claimed to have cured cancer, AIDS, and heroin addictions. What does it mean then, that someone who makes these statements also claims to have done them, in a large part, with a harmonica?

68 One of the taitas that I worked closest with told me briefly about the endeavor: taitas that are affiliated gain a certain kind of reputation, as being certified and certainly “good” taitas. About the Amazon Conservation Team, an NGO based in Arlington, Virginia (USA), he said very little other than “they seemed to have good interests but they did not continue funding us.” Who gets to be in the Union? What are the Amazon Conservation Team’s interests? Is the state involved in any of this? What are the parameters used in certifying a taita’s “goodness”? Unfortunately, I was not able to further research the UMIYAC or the Amazon Conservation Team.
69 Anderson, Labate, and Leon, “Healing with Yagé.”
Chapter 3 – Questions of Framing

In this chapter I take Erving Goffman’s seminal Frame Analysis (1974) as a departure point to examine the varied ways in which Upper Putumayo taitas use sound to organize experience in tomas de yajé. Sharing Goffman’s preoccupation with answering the deceptively simple question, “what is it that is going on here?,” I borrow some of his concepts – namely framing and keying – in order to discuss how non-verbal sound produced by taitas helps participants make sense of their experiences. I contend that a big part of taitas’ labor consists on striving to make sure participants are indeed able to make sense of what they experience. I conclude with a discussion of the way the sound tactics of Upper Putumayo taitas become fundamental in keying frames and defining context in tomas de yajé.

Introduction

One of the central points I sustain throughout this thesis is that taitas deploy sound in specific ways in order to guide participants through the sensorially demanding experience of drinking yajé. Thinking in terms of frames and framing is one productive way of discussing taitas’ sound tactics in tomas de yajé, but more broadly, an important and useful way of engaging with sound in social situations. In doing so, I am introducing a type of engagement thus far absent at the intersection of sound studies and ritual studies.

Drinking yajé can make participants lose sense of their immediate surroundings. The general frame, “This is a yajé ritual” is often challenged by what can seem like more pressing concerns. For example, participants often report seeing their own death in the pintas. It is common for participants to feel transported elsewhere and to feel like they are in a completely different place, like riding a boat down a river or sitting on top of a building. This chapter concerns the way taitas use sound to remind participants of the most general and basic frame pertinent to drinking yajé, “This is a yajé ritual.” This helps participants to ground their experience while also allowing them to interpret it.

Framing

Gregory Bateson first proposed a definition of ‘frame’ in the essay “A Theory of Play and Fantasy,” in Steps to an Ecology of Mind (1972): “the first step in defining a psychological frame might be to say that it is (or delimits) a class or set of messages (or meaningful actions).” For Bateson, frames define a framework within which to construe subsequent activities. He elaborates: “A frame is metacommunicative. Any message, which either explicitly or implicitly defines a frame, ipso facto gives the receiver instructions or aids in his attempt to understand the messages included within the frame.” Bateson’s development of the term also includes a list of the “common uses and functions” of frames, including (1) the way they can exclude, “by including certain messages (or meaningful actions) within a frame, certain other messages are excluded”; (2) conversely, the way they can include, “by excluding certain messages (or meaningful actions) within a frame, certain other messages are included”; (3) and the way frames

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71 Garzón Chirivi claims that when the effects of yajé are at the peak of their intensity, the taitas’ songs “order and calm, and remind [participants] of their place in the world” (my translation). The original reads: “Cuando la borrachera del yagé está en su mayor intensidad, el canto ordena y tranquiliza, recuerda el lugar en el mundo.” Chirivi, Rezar, soplar, cantar, 130.
73 Ibid, 187.
relate to “premises.” By this latter point Bateson refers to the way frames indicate one “is not to use the same sort of thinking” when attending to one particular frame as when attending to others. He illustrates by referring to a picture frame that “tells the viewer” that thinking about the picture contained within the frame is different from thinking about the wallpaper coating the wall on which the picture frame is hung. I will return to these three functions when discussing drinking yajé.

Erving Goffman took up Bateson’s terminology and developed it considerably in Frame Analysis. In the words of Stef Slembrouck, and referring to the source in question, “[h]is [Goffman’s] writing strategy often resulted in an almost never-ending series of examples which function as subtle variations on a broad theme, rather than a straightforward conceptual exposition.” To put it briefly, Goffman’s book-length essay is an exercise in taxonomy that although meticulous is far from clear or conclusive. Goffman’s definition of frame is also elusive: “I assume that definitions of a situation are built up in accordance with principles of organization which govern events – at least social ones – and our subjective involvement in them; frame is the word I use to refer to such of these basic elements as I am able to identify.”

Thomas Scheff, citing Thomas König and drawing from a vast array of reviews and articles written about Frame Analysis – Scheff reminds us that the Social Science Citation Index contains more than 1,800 references to Goffman’s work – argues that “a close reading of the citations suggested that Goffman’s ideas have not fared well. Most of the responses have been of three kinds: paraphrase, harsh criticism, and adopting terms from frame analysis but ignoring or misconstruing Goffman’s approach.” For König, “frames are basic cognitive structures which guide the perception and representation of reality. On the whole, frames are not consciously manufactured but are unconsciously adopted in the course of communicative processes. On a very banal level, frames structure, which parts of reality become noticed.” König also presents a useful genealogy of the ‘frame’ concept:

Todd Gitlin has summarized these frame elements most eloquently in his widely quoted (e.g., Miller 1997: 367; Miller and Riechert 2001: 115) elaboration of the frame concept: "Frames are principles of selection, emphasis and presentation composed of little tacit theories about what exists, what happens, and what matters." (Gitlin 1980: 6) While it is hard to improve theoretically on this definition, the trouble starts, when it comes to the identification and measurement of frames. Precisely because frames consist of tacit rather than overt conjectures, notorious difficulties to empirically identify frames arise (Maher 2001: 84). The difficulty of measuring latent frames could partially explain the gradual theoretical shift towards a conceptualization of frames as being more actively adopted and manufactured. Particularly in media studies, it has become commonplace to treat the choice of frames as a more or less deliberate process. Entman’s famous definition of frames led the way. For Entman, “[t]o frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular

74 Ibid.
75 Stef Slembrouck, “Goffman’s Frame Analysis: a recent rejoinder,” in From Will to Well: Studies in Linguistics, ed. Slembrouck et al. (Gent: Academia Press, 2009), 381. Slembrouck also points to some of the more salient criticism directed to Goffman, most notoriously Verhoeven’s claim that Goffman’s work is “mainly concerned with trivialities and marginalities” and the public debate sparked by Denzin and Keller’s reading of frame analysis as “structuralist.”
76 Goffman, Frame Analysis, 10–11.
problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation.” (Entman 1993: 52) 

For Slembrouck, one important “unclarity” surrounding the concept of frame is “the relative centrality of non-verbal actional behavior in a conceptual understanding of frame (and footing), and how this ties in with a particular conception of the nature of social interaction.” In this chapter I am directly concerned with the use of non-verbal sound in yajé rituals. I am also following Entman’s definition, cited above, that stresses selection as a fundamental part of framing. My interpretation of framing in tomas de yajé also follow’s König’s statement that “frames are not consciously manufactured but are unconsciously adopted in the course of communicative processes” – the critical distinction I make is that taitas do use non-verbal sound to “consciously manufacture” the frames that will be, to a great degree, “unconsciously adopted” by participants in a toma de yajé.

“The labile nature of the frame”

Returning to Bateson briefly:

In the Andaman Islands, peace is concluded after each side has been given ceremonial freedom to strike the other. This example, however, also illustrates the labile nature of the frame ‘This is play,’ or ‘This is ritual.’ The discrimination between map and territory is always liable to break down, and the ritual blows of peace-making are always liable to be mistaken for the ‘real’ blows of combat.

Frame lability is perhaps one of the central characteristics of yajé rituals. From one moment to another, participants might find themselves experiencing an entirely different reality. As discussed in a previous chapter, taitas encourage participants to close their eyes and let go. It is often easy for participants to forget that other people are within the same room; it is also easy for them to forget who they are sitting or lying next to.

Bateson stresses that many times, a frame is consciously recognized and even “represented in vocabulary (‘play,’ ‘movie,’ ‘interview,’ ‘job,’ ‘language,’ etc.).” Other times, there might be no explicit verbal reference to it, and participants might not be conscious of it. This often happens in tomas de yajé. The onset time of the effects of the brew is unpredictable, as are the effects themselves. Although we can generalize in saying that the effects include dizziness, diarrhea, pintas, vomiting, etc., the time of onset and the content of the pintas are not predictable. A pinta might take a participant to a microcosmos located inside, say, the roof of the yajé room or even within the participant’s hand. Traveling further and further – microscopically, atomically – is one common description of what a pinta looks like. Others are more specific in saying that rather than penetrating deep into the stuff of objects, they instead traverse the Amazonian jungle either by foot, water, or air. One taita jokingly tells participants at the beginning of tomas to be especially careful about following a pinta too intensely while using the bathroom because this might delay access for others and bring about “unfortunate accidents.” He sometimes tells the story of someone who, thought lost by her companion, was then found to have been staring at – some would say traveling within – a toilet paper roll for over an hour while sitting on the toilet.

79 Ibid.
80 Ibid.
81 Bateson, Steps to an Ecology of Mind, 182.
82 Ibid., 186.
Within a *toma*, participants are in constant flux between their *yajé*-induced reality and their more immediate surroundings, that is, the *yajé* room and the fact that they are along others who have also consumed *yajé* under the guidance of a particular *taita*. A few hours after all participants have drunk *yajé*, the *taita* might call for those who want to drink a second time. Generally, one could say those who drink again are sufficiently embedded in the “This is a *yajé* ritual” frame, for they can get up from their seat, hammock, or mattress, understand the *taita* is offering a second round, accept the *taita’s* offer, and go back to where they previously were. A sign of experience as a *yajé* drinker is to be able to drink more than once and to remain calm at all times. However, even experienced apprentices that appear to maintain a general awareness of the basic frame can slip out of it and be completely transported to their *yajé*-induced frame. In one *toma*, I remember an apprentice who went from standing calmly to suddenly lying down on the floor, shrieking, and gesticulating in a way that suggested he was holding on to a tubular object with both his hands and arms. This lasted for about fifteen minutes; he later reported having been riding a giant anaconda across a swamp.

At this point, a clarification is necessary: I do not mean to imply that ‘letting go’ of the basic “This is a *yajé* ritual” frame is seen as negative. There is a paradox at the heart of the *yajé* experience: as I will illustrate in the following chapter, one of the reasons for which *taitas* play the harmonica is in order “to take participants away,” that is, to aid them in receiving *pintas*; however, *taitas* also play the harmonica “to bring them back” if and when they go too far. A certain willingness to “leave” the basic frame is necessary in order to take off, as it were, and have a vivid *pinta*. What *taitas* seem to value, however, is the ability to remember – even when interacting with, or at the very least, witnessing profoundly whatever the *pinta* brings about – the primacy of the basic “This is a *yajé* ritual” frame when the going gets rough. *Taitas* strive to assist participants in handling simultaneously at least two frames: (1) the basic “This is a *yajé* ritual” frame and (2) the *pinta* frame. In very practical terms this ability to maintain a kind of double-consciousness translates to minimizing health hazards that can happen, ranging from participants barring access to toilet facilities to participants passing out or even dying from a heart attack. It is not the case that *taitas* expect all drinkers to be experts in what we could call the control of their framing mechanisms or the management of a kind of double-consciousness of competing frames. Otherwise, an important reason for which *taitas* are seen as indispensable would disappear. *Taitas* use sound to reinforce the basic frame. *Taitas* value knowing one’s limits while maintaining an openness towards pushing them. *Taitas* often remind participants that if *pintas* get too intense, unpleasant, or outright scary, they should by all means ask for help.

Goffman writes about “the special vulnerabilities” to which frames can be subject.\(^3\) He discusses how something going on, from an individual’s point of view, might instead be in fact a joke, a dream, an accident, a deception, and so forth. He states that in his project, “attention will be directed to what it is about our sense of what is going on that makes it so vulnerable to the need for these various re-readings.”\(^4\) One principal value *taitas* espouse is that having a *pinta*, regardless of the nature of its content, is a learning experience, therapeutic. This can be interpreted as a post-facto framing that happens more verbally than musically, as in the case of using the harmonica and the waira sacha to remind participants of the basic frame.

**Keying**

Goffman defines keying as

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\(^3\) Goffman, *Frame Analysis*, 11.

\(^4\) Ibid.
the set of conventions by which a given activity, one already meaningful in terms of some primary framework, is transformed into something patterned on this activity but seen by the participants to be something quite else. The process of transcription can be called keying. A rough musical analogy is intended.85

For our case in hand, the musical analogy is indeed welcome. The movement within frames a taita effects, or as described previously, the reinforcement of the basic frame, can be understood as a way of guiding a yajé ritual through the keying of frames.

Experienced yajé drinkers and taitas claim they can control the nature of their pintas through sound. That is, in a way, by anticipating the pinta by providing a soundtrack that they deliberately play either on the harmonica or on the waira sacha. Here, I am less concerned in this personal effecting of keying, and more in the way a taita can key and indeed transpose someone else’s – a participant’s – frame.

Goffman sustains that “participants in the activity are meant to know and to openly acknowledge that a systematic alteration is involved, one that will radically reconstitute what it is for them that is going on.”86 Generally, in the case of the reinforcement of the basic frame keying I have referred to thus far, participants acknowledge this alteration by being, or at the very least appearing, less disturbed. Demeanor becomes a basic way of displaying the ability to handle framing mechanisms. It is important to emphasize it is not likely a taita would intervene when a participant seems to be laughing abundantly or dancing vigorously; intensity of reaction is not enough of a reason for suspecting a participant needs help. It is also important to emphasize that the particular sound tactic so far referred to as ‘reinforcing the basic frame’ does not necessarily imply a termination of the pinta. In Goffman’s words, “the systematic transformation that a particular keying introduces may alter only slightly the activity thus transformed, but it utterly changes what it is a participant would say was going on.”87 It is more of an attenuation of aspects in the pinta’s content that might be causing despair in a participant.

Another way to describe the keying of the basic frame is through Goffman’s discussion of what he terms out-of-frame activity:

Given a spate of activity that is framed in a particular way and that provides an official main focus of attention for ratified participants, it seems inevitable that other modes and lines of activity (including communication narrowly defined) will simultaneously occur in the same locale, segregated from what officially dominates, and will be treated, when treated at all, as something apart. In other words, participants pursue a line of activity – a story line – across a range of events that are treated as out of frame, subordinated in this particular way to what has come to be defined as the main action (emphasis added).88

Taitas are not interested in using sound as a way of coercing participants to live their yajé experience in a narrowly defined way. If we assume that a participant is experiencing intensely a pinta frame and thus interpreting the content of the pinta frame to be “the main action,” taitas would limit their intervention to making sure the participant is able to remember out-of-frame activity, even if such activity treated as “something apart.” In this example, out-of-frame activity refers to most of the content of the “This is a yajé ritual” frame, e.g. that other people are present in the yajé room, that there is a taita that can assist, and so forth.

85 Ibid., 43–44.
86 Ibid., 45.
87 Ibid.
88 Ibid., 201.
In addition to the keying *taitas* perform in order to remind participants of the basic “I am at a *yajé* ritual” frame, other uses of non-verbal sound for keying include:

(1) Playing the *waira sacha* at the beginning of the ritual to clean the room and to signal a frame of expectation. This playing of the *waira sacha* comes after the beginning of the ritual has been keyed verbally. One *taita* is known to explicitly say, “we are going to begin,” in order to draw an unquestionable separation from pre-ritual talk – general chatting, casual conversation, an informal ambiance – to a solemn and quiet frame. After all participants have drunk *yajé*, the lights are dimmed and the *taita* plays nothing but the *waira sacha* while the onset happens. It signals a quiet moment of introspective calmness, expectation, and concentration.

(2) Playing the *waira sacha* to help participants ‘concentrate.’ In a way, *taitas* can be understood to be giving participants a figural object to focus on, that is, the “This is a *yajé* ritual” frame. This type of keying is closely related to Goffman’s discussion of out-of-frame activity. *Taitas* often discuss how, when going to a *toma de yajé*, it is important that participants have a specific reason for drinking *yajé*, and that they keep focused throughout the ritual on that which they desire to attain by participating. It is common practice that participants tell the *taita* what it is they desire right after being summoned by the *taita* and before first drinking *yajé* at the altar. Goffman recognizes that during any event or “strip of activity,” participants can either attend to or disattend competing events, “disattend” referring to a “withdrawal of all attention and awareness;” he elaborates: “[t]his capacity of participants, this channel in the situation, covers a range of potentially distracting events, some a threat to appropriate involvement because they are immediately present, others a threat in spite of having their prime location elsewhere.”

Experiencing a *pinta* is not enough. *Taitas* insist that participants should face the *pinta* and maintain a dialogue with it based on the participant’s objectives and intentions. However, the unpredictability of the *pinta*, and the general state of the participant – dizzy, tired, light-headed – make it difficult for a participant to remain focused. Goffman provides another way to think about the relationship between the *pinta* frame and the basic frame:

> It has been suggested that during the occurrence of any activity framed in a particular way one is likely to find another flow of other activity that is systematically disattended and treated as out of frame, something not to be given any concern or attention. Drawing loosely on a particular imagery, it was said that the main track carrying the story line was associated with a disattend track, the two tracks playing simultaneously.

The point here, again is that the “disattend track” while a *pinta* is being experienced – that is, the basic information reminding a participant that they are indeed at a *yajé* ritual – should not be completely neglected. As already discussed, there are serious stakes of life and death during a *toma de yajé*. Additionally, *taitas* stress that while experiencing a *pinta*, participants should, as much as possible, be respectful of others’ experiences. By

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89 Ibid., 202.
90 Ibid., 210.
this they mean participants should try to remain as disattended to others as possible in order to allow fellow participants to concentrate.  

(3) Playing during varying intervals throughout the night to affect the pintas collectively. A taita might allow prolonged moments of silence ranging from 10 minutes to an hour; on the intervals during which a taita plays, the sounds vary in terms of volume, tempo, and pitch. Taitas report that through their practice they are able to determine how the group is doing and effect necessary changes. If it seems that the group needs to concentrate more, or the yajé needs to be further activated, the taita will play in a certain way – with more clearly defined rhythms and at faster tempi. If it seems the group needs evening out, the taita will play in a different way – dragging and softer. One taita is especially proud of a six-sided harmonica that was given to him by a participant after conducting a toma de yajé in New York City. He told me in a matter-of-fact tone, but also laughing, that his six-sided harmonica is especially appropriate for when he wants to change the toma’s key. It is hard to say precisely what frame is keyed by taitas when they attempt to affect pintas collectively. Rather, they attempt to modify the “This is a yajé ritual” frame by providing additional information that is embedded sonically. For example, slow and long phrases might suggest tranquility and calmness. Of all the keyings taitas perform, this particular one, affecting pintas collectively, proved the most challenging to research, talk, and write about.

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91 The way taitas regulate others’ sound production is discussed in Sound and Power, pp. 54-55.
92 “Facilito se le cambia el tono a la cosa.”
(4) Playing directly at and literally on participants while conducting what we could call the “cleansing” frame to heal and clean them. The tomas usually end with the taitas performing a cleansing of participants. Taitas will start playing the waira sacha directly on each of the participants’ bodies, from head to toes, focusing especially on playing around the participants’ head. The leaves of the instrument make contact with the skin and the sound of the leaves in what feels like stereo surround is decidedly different from hearing the waira sacha coming from one specific direction throughout the night. This change in proximity, volume, and contact is an integral part of keying the cleansing frame. Similarly, the taita sings during this time, and plays the harmonica at a very close distance from the participant.

Conclusions by way of context

It is difficult to discuss frames and framing without making reference to context. The two notions are deeply intertwined; as Duranti and Goodwin contend, context can be understood as “a frame that surrounds the event being examined and provides resources for its appropriate interpretation.”93 Although context is not something that can be given a “single, precise, technical definition,” in their view, this is “not a situation that requires a remedy.”94 The same has been said before about concepts like ‘frame’ and ‘keying.’ But using these concepts and examining the relationship between the yajé vision frame and what I have thus far termed “the

94 Ibid., 2.
more basic frame” (in the toma de yajé case) or, more broadly, “focal event and context” (using Duranti and Goodwin’s vocabulary) is of central relevance to one of the key issues that has emerged in contemporary studies of language and interaction: the use of background information to produce and understand action, and the question of how such background information is organized, recognized, invoked, and understood.95

Duranti and Goodwin refer to focal event as the “phenomenon being contextualized,” and state that the notion of context involves both a focal event and “a field of action within which that event is embedded.”96 What interests me here is the idea that taitas can strategically produce non-verbal sound with what might seem like banal instruments – the waira sacha, a bundle of leaves held together by a string or a rubber band, and the harmonica, commonly referred to as the poor man’s accordion, the accordion being the poor man’s orchestra – to dramatically shape the way participants in a toma de yajé make sense of the pintas they receive, images and motions that might be of astounding pulchritude, ineffable horror, and all in between. Duranti and Goodwin emphasize “the capacity of human beings to dynamically reshape the context that provides organization for their actions within the interaction itself;” they are also attuned to the way a strategic actor “can actively attempt to shape context in ways that further their own interests.”97 It is relevant here to note that one famous taita, while giving a talk about yajé in Bogotá, was told by an attendant that bringing the ritual to the city was disrespectful because it equated to taking it out of context. She believed that the ritual belonged in the “jungle.” The taita replied, “I am the context. I bring the context.”98

As Goffman would have it,

[i]n doings involving joint participation, there is to be found a stream of signs which is itself excluded from the content of the activity but which serves as a means of regulating it, bounding, articulating, and qualifying its various components and phases. One might speak here of directional signals and, by metaphorical extension, the track that contains them.99

I am here emphatically suggesting that non-verbal sound in yajé rituals is one means of regulating, bounding, articulating, and qualifying individual experiences throughout the night. Although I am here concerned with a narrowly defined set of sounds – those produced deliberately by the taita – it is necessary to also address the broader soundscape that occurs during tomas. For, as Duranti and Goodwin argue, context is best understood dynamically: context and talk (although for talk we could understand frame, focal action, etc.) stand “in a mutually reflexive relationship to each other, with talk, and the interpretive work it generates, shaping context as much as context shapes talk.”100 Following this line of thinking, one could ask, how is interpreting a yajé pinta different in a house in Bogotá, with its urban sounds, than it is in the deep Amazon, with its own distinct set of sounds? To what degree are the taitas’ sounds independent of all other sounds involved in a toma? In what ways does the retching of a fellow participant affect someone’s experience of a pinta and the ritual in general? In what ways can we

95 Ibid., 10.
96 Ibid., 3.
97 Ibid., 5–6.
98 “Yo soy el contexto. Yo traigo el contexto.” Chirivi, Rezar, soplar, cantar, 153.
99 Goffman, Frame Analysis, 238.
100 Duranti and Goodwin, Rethinking Context, 31.
say that singing and playing the harmonica, the waira sacha, and the harmonica constitutes labor for a taita?

More generally, in considering sound production as an essential part of a taita’s labor, I am also connecting the present discussion on frames, keying, and context to Steven Feld’s arguing for the “potential of acoustic knowing, of sounding as a condition of and for knowing, of sonic presence and awareness as potent shaping forces in how people make sense of experiences. Acoustemology means an exploration of sonic sensibilities, specifically of ways in which sound is central to making sense, to knowing, to experiential truth.”[^101] I also want to recall here Catherine Bell’s understanding of ritual that emphasizes the centrality of a participant’s body in a “specially constructed space” as “simultaneously defining (imposing) and experiencing (receiving) the values ordering the environment.”[^102] I propose a consideration of the audible that places it as one central value ordering the environment in ritual practice, of sound as a fundamental aspect of framing and contextualizing. In yajé rituals, taitas use sound as a way to define – or impose – values on the environment; sound becomes a central sensory modality that is experienced, or received, by participants in their attempts to grasp the meaning of a pinta.

[^101]: Feld and Basso, *Senses of Place*, 97.
Chapter 4: Questions of Place

In this chapter I argue that another fundamental part of taitas’ labor is to be able to construct a specific ritual place sonically – singing, playing the harmonica and the waira sacha, and sounding the cascabeles as they move throughout the room. I argue that in tomas de yajé, this specific place is one independent of material constraints or geographical location. Rather, I am proposing a sound-based definition of place. The taitas’ instruments are highly portable and permit taitas to deliberately construct a ritual place inside their living rooms in the Upper Putumayo, but also in nearby villages in southern Colombia and locations as remote as Bogotá, the San Francisco Bay Area, or France. In order to make sure a toma de yajé is successful – that is, one in which participants are able to make sense of what they experience – taitas not only guide the ritual through their own playing; they also monitor and control the sounds produced by participants during tomas de yajé.

In this chapter I will begin by tracing a genealogy of the ways ‘place’ has been theorized with regards to ritual in order to contextualize my proposal that Upper Putumayo taitas use sound to construct a ritual place. I also include a description the aesthetics of the sounds that taitas produce, followed by a discussion on how they come to learn how to play. Throughout their apprenticeship and subsequent practice, taitas develop what I term ‘sound signatures,’ that is, specific and recognizable musical characteristics that distinguish their playing, especially on the harmonica. Following the previous chapter’s discussion of keying and frames, I argue that sound grounds, or anchors participants to the place constructed by taitas in tomas de yajé. The two main operations taitas perform are seemingly paradoxical. On one hand, taitas say they play the harmonica in order “to send away” participants, allowing them to experience vivid pintas. On the other hand, playing the harmonica also helps taitas “to bring back” those participants that go “too far away.” Both ‘sending away’ and ‘bringing back’ are directly related to the way taitas value ‘concentration.’ They insist that participants should concentrate on something specific once they start experiencing pintas. This concentration – aided by the sounds produced by taitas – is what allows participants to experience vivid pintas with a specific purpose while allowing them to avoid going “too far away.”

My discussion of place as understood and performed by taitas is also intricately connected to notions of sound and authority; if there is indeed a place that is constructed sonically, it is possible that certain sounds may disrupt this place. Taitas exert authority through the control of sound production within the ritual.

Finally, I explore the ways taitas index the Amazon both verbally and non-verbally. Verbally, at the beginning of the ritual, they ‘bless’ the yajé to be drunk and ‘invoke’ the rainforest by reciting the name of plants, animals, and sometimes spirits that inhabit the Amazon. Non-verbally, the sounds produced by both the waira sacha and the harmonica imitate and index the rainforest. For taitas, a toma de yajé should index the Amazon, regardless of where the toma itself is actually conducted.

How place is understood in tomas de yajé

Taitas often emphasize the importance of staying within the confines of the room designated for the toma. Although it is understood that all present will most likely, at some point, need to use the bathroom and exit the room, taitas stress the necessity of returning to the yajé room as soon as possible. Taitas want to make sure all participants remain within their supervision. At the beginning of the ritual, this oversight means, literally, within the sense of sight: all participants must be visible to the taita, and the taita must be visible to all participants.
As the night progresses, the lights are turned off and illumination is provided by a few candles usually concentrated near the altar but sometimes scattered throughout the room. Most often, participants and taitas alike close their eyes throughout the night while yajé starts to settle – the first manifestations of this settling are feeling dizzy, cold, and eventually starting to receive pintas. In this new context of closed eyes and sparse illumination, oversight turns to mean within the audible radius of the taita’s sound production; conversations with both taitas and participants confirmed this point.

The sense of sight is, by far, the one most affected by yajé. Most phenomenological accounts of the experience place an emphasis on the nature of the visions received, and understandably so – most attempts to describe them end up admitting the visions’ ineffability. Arguably, yajé visions, or pintas, are beyond the taita’s control. What participants hear, however, is within the taita’s range of command. In this sense, the sounds produced by the taita throughout the night serve as a common denominator for those sharing an experience that would otherwise be highly individualized. Being co-present within the aural radius of the taita’s sound production brings an element of commonality to those going through starkly unique experiences. In this section, I will focus on this sound-based notion of place in tomas de yajé, tracing a genealogy of the way ‘place’ has been theorized with regards to ritual.

Scholars from disciplines as wide-ranging as philosophy, anthropology, geography, and ecology have theorized the notion of place extensively. Almost any publication that engages critically with the concept presents a detailed literature review of its intellectual lineage. The past two decades have seen a deeply engaged initiative towards theorizing landscape, place, and space, from the point of view of anthropology. In the words of Setha M. Low and Denise Lawrence-Zúñiga, “anthropologists are rethinking and reconceptualizing their understandings of culture in spatialized ways.” Steven Feld and Keith H. Basso write, in the introduction to Senses of Place: “we seek to move beyond facile generalizations about places being culturally constructed by describing specific ways in which places naturalize different worlds of sense.” If, following Catherine Bell’s definition, we accept that ritual at its simplest implies a body moving within a specially constructed place, “simultaneously defining (imposing) and experiencing (receiving) the values ordering the environment,” we necessarily face questions of how this place is indeed constructed, and what these negotiations – imposing and receiving – with, from, and against the environment might be.

The traditional approach ritual theorists have taken to understand ‘place’ in rituals has been to focus on the architectural. The literal construction of a physical space is a recurrent theme in Mircea Eliade’s work, particularly in his interpretation of Tjilpa myth: in discussing the existence of a sacred pole that for the Tjilpa delimits a sacred space, Eliade claims that “seldom

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103 The relationship between the harmonica – and sound, more broadly – and pintas is, in short, complicated. For some, it is causal, for others generative, and for others circular.

104 See, for example, Dragos Gheorghiu and George Nash, eds., Place as Material Culture: Objects, Geographies and the Construction of Time (Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Pub, 2013); Thomas F. Thornton and Sealaska Heritage Institute, Being and Place among the Tlingit, Culture, Place, and Nature (Seattle : Juneau [Alaska]: University of Washington Press ; In association with Sealaska Heritage Institute, 2008); Steven Feld and Keith H. Basso, Senses of Place, ed. Steven Feld and Keith H. Basso (School of American Research Press, 1997); Setha M. Low and Denise Lawrence-Zúñiga, eds., The Anthropology of Space and Place: Locating Culture, Blackwell Readers in Anthropology 4 (Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub, 2003); Eric Hirsch and Michael E. O’Hanlon, The Anthropology of Landscape: Perspectives on Place and Space (Clarendon Press, 1995).


Figure 11 - Altar in a yajé room, Vereda Tamabioy, Putumayo
do we find a more pathetic avowal that man cannot live without a ‘sacred center’ which permits him to ‘cosmicize’ space and to communicate with the transhuman world of heaven’; Eliade’s center is a “place established by its connection with cosmogony and by its opening toward a world that is superhuman.”

Jonathan Z. Smith presents an extension of the physical edifice onto a more generalizable place through liturgy. Smith discusses the construction of places literally, situating “building ideology along a continuum from the sphere of ‘nature’ to that of ‘culture.’” Some examples he presents are the aedes, “with its notion of fire, hearth, and home” standing somewhere between the natural and social; Indian temples, ideologically considered to have “grown” from a “seed”, standing at the organic end of the continuum; and Near Eastern temples associated with the opposite, constructivist end. Smith elaborates, stating that

a preliminary understanding of ritual and its relation to place is best illustrated by the case of built ritual environments – most especially, crafted constructions such as temples. When one enters a temple, one enters marked-off space (the usual example, the Greek temenos, derived from temno, ‘to cut’) in which, at least in principle, nothing is accidental; everything, at least potentially, demands attention.

For Smith, sacrality is above all, a category of emplacement. Smith moves on to discuss place more abstractly: “place is not best conceived as a particular location with an idiosyncratic physiognomy or as a uniquely individualistic node of sentiment, but rather as a social position within a hierarchical system”; he understands “place in the sense of social location, of genealogy, kinship, authority, superordination, and subordination.” Smith develops the idea that from a strict place-orientedness arose a temporal system of meaning built through liturgy: “through a concentration on the associative dimensions of place together with the syntagmatic dimensions of narrative, a system was formulated that could be replicated away from the place”; in his case study this “system” was liturgy.

Steven Feld writes, “as place is sensed, senses are placed; as places make sense, senses make place.” Drawing from years of fieldwork with the Kaluli, he defines acoustemology as “local conditions of sensation, knowledge, and imagination embodied in the culturally particular sense of place resounding.” Citing Henri Bergson and Edward Casey, Feld argues that “sensation, sensual presence, is still more than embodiment, more than perceptual figure-grounds, more than the potential for synesthesia; because motion can draw upon the kinesthetic interplay of tactile, sonic, and visual senses, emplacement always implicates the intertwined nature of sensual bodily presence and perceptual engagement.” Feld argues for the “potential of acoustic knowing, of sounding as a condition of and for knowing, of sonic presence and awareness as potent shaping forces in how people make sense of experiences. Acoustemology means an exploration of sonic sensibilities, specifically of ways in which sound is central to making sense, and how people make meaning of the world.”

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109 Ibid., 21-22.
110 Ibid.
111 Ibid., 103–104.
112 Ibid.
113 Smith, *To Take Place: Toward Theory in Ritual*, 44–46.
114 Ibid., 95.
116 Ibid.
117 Ibid., 93–94.
to knowing, to experiential truth.”

He concludes, “[a]costemology means that as a sensual space-time, the experience of place potentially can always be grounded in an acoustic dimension.” Following and expanding Feld’s discussion, I am proposing here something far more radical: while I agree that “the experience of place” always has a sonic component to it, I am instead suggesting that sound production can itself constitute a place, that is, as in the case of taitas from the Upper Putumayo, to create it.

I argue here that sound is the main way in which taitas construct their ritual place. Taitas are able to replicate the ritual place they have in their living rooms through their sound tactics. Place in this sense is understood as performed and as having a temporal dimension. I borrow here Thomas F. Thornton’s definition of place: “[a] place is a framed space that is meaningful to a person or a group over time.” Thornton then discusses how his definition requires entangling three main elements: time, space, and experience. Here I will focus on the temporal aspect of place-making in yajé rituals.

Just like a wheel that is set off rolling along a path eventually stops rolling due to friction, so happens with the place performed by taitas through sound. Friction in this sense refers to distractions in the yajé environment. It also refers to the fact that most often, taitas do not play all night long without ever stopping. Like everyone else, they might need to use the bathroom or step outside for a period of time. The idea I am introducing is that it is not enough for a taita to perform at the beginning of the ritual, or at a specifically strategic moment in time a few hours into the ritual: instead, sound is maintained throughout by the taitas. This has two important implications. First, just as it is possible to speak of a ‘sonic radius’ that delimits the ‘place’ in question, this place is also time-sensitive. This leads to the idea that the place constructed and its respective indices and framings have what we could call an expiration date. Taitas must continue the performance of place through their sonic practices. The second implication is that if this performance does exist, this place is malleable. In other words, the place constructed can be modified as the night progresses, according to what the taita perceives as necessary. This place can also be modified by any other sounds occurring in participants’ audible radius.

Throughout the night, taitas sing, play the harmonica, the waíra sacha, and the cascabeles on their necks. They also take breaks. There is no prescribed formula that tells taitas when they should or should not play. Instead, they make these calls intuitively. Even in the case described before, of taitas playing when participants look mareasos, the precise moment and duration of the taita’s performance will vary according to each toma. Taitas’ experience, combined with a real-time assessment of the place’s conditions and the participants’ reactions, informs them of the appropriateness of silence and the different kinds of sound layerings they can provide. When taitas move around the room, their presence is made audible because of the diverse rattles on their necks. When they are not playing or singing, participants can hear them as they approach and move farther away. This is a way to maintain the place that has already been initiated. Participants have reported that hearing the cascabeles approach, especially during times of hardship, reminds them that they are not alone.

The place constructed is not fixed. Different kinds of playing and singing can change the nature of the place strategically. Different rhythms, textures, tempi, and phrasings can drastically change the nature of the place. There is one particular taita that owns an antique six-sided

118 Ibid., 97.
119 Ibid.
120 Thomas F. Thornton, Being and Place among the Tlingit, Culture, Place, and Nature (Seattle : Juneau [Alaska]: University of Washington Press ; In association with Sealaska Heritage Institute, 2008), 10.
harmonica, each side tuned to a different key. This has become his harmonica of choice. The first reason he listed for it was that, literally, “con ésta se le puede cambiar el tono a la noche facilito” (With this one [harmonica], one can change the night’s tone [or key] very easily). His musical pun was not accidental. Taitas firmly believe in their instruments’ agency and power.

The aesthetics of the taitas’ sounds

If taitas are indeed able to construct sound-based places within which specific tomas de yajé will take place, it is necessary to address the aesthetics of these sounds. Alan Goldman, in The Aesthetic, admits that what is meant by ‘aesthetics’ is something that has broadened through time. Departing from a preliminary preoccupation with the nature of beauty, “[i]t now qualifies not only judgments or evaluations, but properties, attitudes, experience and pleasure or value as well, and its application is no longer restricted to beauty alone.”121 Along similar lines, in Sound and Sentiment, Steven Feld discusses how issues around aesthetics and expressive culture might best be engaged with not by asking if a certain group of people – in his case the Kaluli – “have” aesthetics “in an objective, reverifiable sense,” but instead by interrogating and describing the quality of experience that is felt by those involved in any event.122 He elaborates, citing Robert Plant Armstrong’s work (Wellspring, 1975; The Affective Presence, 1981), by stating that an adequate approach to culture “cannot be simply a reduction to functions and structures but must concern itself with experience;” he also insists on how an understanding of aesthetics is fundamentally based on multi-sensory perception.123 In the case of tomas de yajé in the Upper Putumayo, in stating that taitas create a specific sound-based place in order to conduct tomas de yajé successfully, I am arguing that the aesthetic qualities of the sounds they perform deeply influence the way participants experience tomas. My emphasis in thinking about the aesthetics of taitas’ sounds interrogates how formal characteristics relate to broader questions within tomas de yajé – in this chapter, these questions revolve around the creation of a ritual place, indexicality, emplacement, and displacement.

Mark DeBellis writes about three main ways in which music is traditionally said to be valued aesthetically. One line of thinking, referred to as expressionist, places emphasis on the expressive character of music – music is valued for how it makes listeners feel, “for its ability to evoke emotion in us.”124 Another line of thought, referred to as formalist, stresses the “cognitive grasp of musical properties and relationships such as repetition and contrast, formal structure (sonata, rondo, ABA form), motivistic relationships, harmonic structure, and so on, where such properties are understood to be non-referential.”125 A third one values music “iconically,” claiming that music is relevant insofar as it signifies something in the human world: music is understood as “an imitation or representation of, and thereby refer[ing] to, some aspect of the extramusical, ‘human’ world of emotions, character and ideas.”126 DeBellis discusses how many have illustrated ways in which these three values can overlap. For example, sounds that imitate, say, birds, could be valued iconically in terms of their accuracy in representing a particular species while simultaneously having formal value in terms of harmonic or rhythmic content.

123 Ibid.
125 Ibid.
126 Ibid.
Formally, the sounds taitas play can be described, generally speaking, as simple and repetitive. The waira-sacha is essentially a percussive instrument.\(^{127}\) For the average ear, it produces only one pitch. Taitas play it by waving the bundle of leaves in the air and varying the intensity and length of each individual stroke. The waving is usually rhythmically regular, and tempo variations are introduced by the taita throughout the night at will. Generally speaking, however, it is easy for a listener to ‘keep the beat’ to the sound of a waira-sacha. Listeners can expect a certain consistency from the taita’s playing. The sounds the taita plays on the harmonica are also repetitive and simple. Taitas usually play motifs – or what I term sonic signatures – that last from a single measure to two or three. Different taitas have a different repertoire of sound signatures – some have only one, and some may have two or three. Following DeBellis’ terminology and also the way Feld and Goldman suggest that engaging with aesthetics means more than taxonomizing, this chapter will also deal with the indexical and emotional features of taitas’ sounds during a toma de yajé.

**Sonic Signatures**

I interviewed several taitas about the way they come to learn their particular sonic signature(s). Invariably, they said “the plant” – yajé itself in a prepared, consumable state – “taught them to them.” Some said that at first they would do their best to imitate the way their master shaman played, and that slowly, through participating in tomas, yajé would guide them towards developing their own signatures. I was not able to get more precise details on this process of learning. However, this apparent vagueness – “the plant teaches you through time” – is, although not a focus of this thesis, something worthy of a separate discussion.\(^{128}\)

The most salient point about the taitas’ sonic signatures is that they are recognizable. This recognizability came to be relevant during my fieldwork experiences in two ways. On one hand, seasoned yajé drinkers and local community members were able to identify particular taitas based strictly on their sonic signature. It would be possible, then, for a habituated listener to know exactly who is playing the harmonica during a toma de yajé when the lights are turned off and effectively identify an individual and their associated power and prestige.\(^{129}\) Similarly, someone walking outside a taita’s home during a toma would be able to know whom the person or persons playing inside are or are not, based entirely on the sound signatures heard.

On the other hand, it could be argued that sound signatures bear no special significance for first-time participants that might not know that these so-called sound signatures exist or even that taitas play the harmonica, for that matter. A minimally attentive ear will, however, after a

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\(^{127}\) It must be noted, however, that etymologically, as pointed in a previous chapter, *waira sacha* can be translated as “wind plant” from Quechua.

\(^{128}\) The idea that “the plant teaches you” is never articulated with more detail or specificity by Upper Putumayo taitas; this raises questions about a particular way of believing in the plant’s power for those who persevere – trial, suffering, and overcoming being central values of the yajé experience – and also about knowledge through habituation: a common trope is that the plant teaches you through time. A common saying is that someone “ya se cree *taita* solo porque tomó yajé varias veces.” The transmission of knowledge from “the plant” seems to be a common trope across ayahuasca traditions. Prof. Lev Michael points to how iquitos make similar assertions about their individual ayahuasca songs; a similar idea exists in the way Santo Daime practitioners are said to “receive hymns” and Peruvian mestizo shamans learn songs and ways to treat and diagnose. See, for example, L E Luna, “The Concept of Plants as Teachers among Four Mestizo Shamans of Iquitos, Northeastern Peru,” *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 11, no. 2 (July 1984): 135–56; Beatriz Cauby Labate and Gustavo Pacheco, *Opening the Portals of Heaven: Brazilian Ayahuasca Music* (LIT Verlag Münster, 2011).

\(^{129}\) It is not uncommon for there to be more than one *taita* at a toma de yajé.
few minutes of listening to the sound signatures realize the content is repetitive and in many ways predictable. Even a participant that is not – and I use the term with reservations – musically inclined will, by the end of a toma, realize that sound signatures are cohesive, repetitive units: it was not uncommon for me to listen to participants humming sound signatures the morning after. In fact, some participants were able to hum – approximately – some of the sound signatures the taitas played. In the following sections, I will develop to a greater degree the significance of what might seem like a strictly formal feature of taitas’ sounds.

Sound as anchoring device

If during a toma de yajé a participant is indeed purposefully emplaced by the taita inside a sonically constructed place, it is also plausible that participants – for a wide variety of reasons – may leave this place, even if their bodies remain within the yajé room. In this chapter I will argue that taitas employ sound tactics to anchor or emplace individuals during a toma de yajé. In this section, I will develop the two operations Upper Putumayo taitas report as essential to their harmonica playing, namely, ‘llevar’ and ‘traer.’

*Llevar y traer*

Once ideas of emplacement and displacement have been introduced, it is possible to think of the yajé experience as one of movement, as one of oscillation and travel. It is not surprising that taitas and participants use words like exploration and discovery when referring to what they do while seeing pintas. Experiencing yajé can also be understood broadly as a full-fledged plunge into a liminal state. However, my understanding of liminality differs from the classic conceptualization famously formulated by Victor Turner. While Turner’s liminality celebrates the “betwixt and between”-ness of ritual experience and emphasizes the lack of emplacement and the high degree of indeterminacy lived during a ritual event, I propose that in order to
appreciate this separation from the apparent stability of ordinary, everyday experience, there
must be an anchoring device from which to draw contrasts and bridges between different kinds
of realities. In other words, my reading is far more conservative: I am problematizing a
traditional interpretation of ritual liminal states as radical departures from the quotidian in which
all is left behind and in which all is novel and unfixed, entirely unsettled. I would like to stress
that in order to draw meaning from a liminal experience, there has to be a minimal amount of
grounding. In the case of tomas de yajé, this grounding is sound-based.

The title of this section comes from a taita’s answer to the question: “Why do you play
the harmonica during a toma de yajé?” His most immediate answer was to the point: “To take
them away and to bring them back.” The metaphor is revealing of a persistent, overarching
idea of place and transit – both operations, taking away and bringing back, imply movement,
although it is understood participants drinking yajé will most likely be lying down on a
hammock or on a mattress on the floor.

A significant amount of yajé narratives emphasize access to remote places, alternate
dimensions, and the ability to cover wide distances with relative ease. Taitas often speak of
transforming into animals and then visiting those animals’ realms; during a yajé ritual,
explained taitas can leave their bodies and go through various transformations and beyond
various kinds of boundaries. This chapter will address how these two operations – llevar y traer –
relate to the place constructed by taitas and the idea of sound as an anchoring device; I will also
discuss several moments in the yajé ritual that require active participation by the taita – through
his sound tactics – in order to emplace or ground participants.

Llevar

‘Llevar’ is a difficult verb to translate as it can simultaneously mean, among other things,
the following: a) to carry along or to take with, in the sense of transporting something or
someone; b) to guide someone, as in a tour guide llevando someone through a city; c) to bring
about, as in an action resulting in or leading to a specific outcome or end.

All of the taitas that I interviewed reported that they use the harmonica to help
participants start receiving visions. Although participants attend tomas de yajé for a wide number
of reasons, the most immediate desired effect is indeed to receive the visions. In a way, receiving
them demonstrates unequivocally, to participants, that yajé is having an effect. Taitas perform at
different times throughout the night, but there is one specific time during which they perform to
carry out the ‘llevar’ operation. Taitas generally agree in saying they play the harmonica with a
particular vigor when they see participants are first starting to look “dizzy” (mareados). At this
moment, it is key to play so that participants will receive the full range of effects brought on by
yajé. It is a common belief that sound will stimulate the onset of visions.

Although the ‘llevar’ metaphor implies taking elsewhere, or displacing, I interpret this
‘taking away’ as a particular kind of grounding to the visions frame and as intersubjectively
acknowledging that participants are entering a state – or place – that could be called ‘yajé reality.’
‘Taking away’ means providing the bridge between the initial and most immediate effects of yajé

131 “Sirve para llevarlos y traerlos.”
132 “Estar mareado,” literally “to be dizzy” is a common phrase employed to describe this moment, roughly between
10 and 40 minutes after drinking yajé and before the onset of visions.
– a bitter taste in the mouth that does not go away easily, fluctuations in bodily temperature, nausea, dizziness – and what will become an ineffable experience.

The relationship between music and trance has been theorized extensively. As pointed by Richard Jankowsky, there exists a long genealogy of “musically deterministic hypotheses” on the relationship between music and trance.\textsuperscript{133} The argument, in short, has been that the right combination of notes can induce a state of trance in the right listener, be it through sensory overload, disturbances of the inner ear, or through transcendent, unqualifiable properties inherent to music. Such theories have been sustained by fanciful association and esoteric and mystical argumentation at best. Gilbert Rouget, in the 1980 study, \textit{La Musique et la transe: Esquisse d'une théorie générale des relations de la musique et de la possession}, was the first to question the relationship of causality thought to exist between music and trance and possession states. In the words of Jankowsky:

In his magisterial and meticulous consideration of the diversity of possession musics throughout the world, Rouget called attention to the paradoxical relationship between music and trance: while ritualized trance by and large cannot occur without music, there are no formal qualities (rhythms, modes, tempos, frequency, instrumentation, etc.) of music that appear necessary for trance. The missing variable in previous approaches, for Rouget, was culture, which conditions the way that trancers are socialized into modes of connecting music and trance. Different cultures have different ways of understanding both trance and music, as well as the principles underlying the relations between the two. While he imposed a sweeping structuralist typology […], [h]e did leave us with the invaluable insight that any relationship between music and trance is first and foremost culturally conditioned.\textsuperscript{134}

Following Rouget’s work, my research is not about searching for and revealing formal structures that allow a participant in a toma de yajé to receive visions or to enter in a sort of trance. Rather, during my fieldwork, I recorded accounts of how it is that both participants and taitas conceive the ‘llevar’ operation.

\textit{Traer} ‘To bring back,’ that is, to the place taitas construct, is the most common anchoring tactic taitas employ during tomas de yajé. The ‘to bring back’ operation occurs throughout the night, but can only happen if ‘llevar’ has already happened. Taitas will need to bring back, or anchor, those who have gone too far away.\textsuperscript{135} Going too far away can mean several things: in this section, I will provide specific examples of how taitas use their sound tactics to bring back participants that go too far away, including participants experiencing fear, detachment, or physical turbulence beyond what is considered normal within a yajé ritual.

The very first time I drank yajé was in December of 2011. I had read about the experience from both academic and informal sources. Accounts varied wildly from descriptions that emphasize pleasure and revelation as central values in the experience to those that describe drinking yajé as being essentially about fear, discomfort, and bodily trial. This variation seems to be the norm: there is no way to predict how the experience will unfold. Within a single night, a participant might experience both bliss and unforgiving darkness, in that particular order, in reverse order, or simultaneously. That first night, those going to the toma assembled outside a

\textsuperscript{135} In the words of a taita, “a los que se van demasiado lejos.”
store in a commercial area in southern Cali, the third largest city of Colombia. From there, we arranged transport to Jamundí, a small town located 23 kilometers south of Cali. While we waited, I started talking to Lorena, a young woman who was also going to drink yajé for the first time. She said she wanted to participate in the ritual because she felt stagnated; she did not feel particularly challenged by her work environment and she had grown tired of her social life. She also admitted that she felt curious about it, and that wanted to “see for herself what the experience was all about.” She did not appear anxious or nervous about the toma, and we continued speaking throughout the night.

Sometime around one in the morning, after most of us present in the toma were experiencing the effects of yajé – a close friend of mine reported, for example, that she had been convening and conversing with a palm tree and a large rock for what seemed to be several hours – Lorena started shouting intensely. She was standing at a staircase, looking and acting petrified: she believed she was not able to move. Or rather, that she should not move.

The toma was taking place at Nicolás’s house out in the countryside, a European IT professional who had been living in Colombia for over twenty years. He had been hosting tomas, at least once a month, for several years – to my knowledge, he is still holding them with a similar regularity. We had been instructed to stay within the confines of an outdoors clearing where people hung their hammocks and the taita’s helpers built a fire. The stairwell led to Nicolás’s home, and we were politely asked to avoid going up the stairs and into the house. The most immediate reason was out of basic respect for Nicolás’s private living area. The more significant reason was that we should all stay within the taita’s supervision – that is, in this particular context, within the radius of the taita’s sounds. For this reason we were also discouraged to wander around in the woods area surrounding the clearing.

For about five minutes, Lorena shrieked and cried. She had started going up the stairs, and after spending some time sitting on the stairwell, she started climbing down slowly, one step at a time. She reached one particular step that unleashed her emotional outburst. She declared that every further step she took downstairs made her fall deeper into hell; she described images of being in a dark abyss, and she felt like she was sinking deeper and deeper. She was also able to communicate that a few minutes earlier, she had been speaking with her parents, both long dead. She did not say what they spoke about, or under what circumstances.

Calming down Lorena took a lot of work from the taita. After seeing speaking and attempting to reason with her was not enough, he started playing the harmonica and the waira sacha. He elicited the help of his mother, known as La Abuela, who was also present in the toma. La Abuela also played the harmonica and the waira-sacha, and after some time – roughly ten minutes – the taita and La Abuela were able to calm her down and get her to come down the stairs. Next morning, Lorena reported feeling very happy and serene – it was almost as if she did not remember the intensity with which she expressed her discomfort. It is hard to state objectively whether it was indeed the way the taita and La Abuela played that led to her calming down and subsequent serenity. Less than being concerned with the effect of sound waves on neurological processes, my interest lies in the fact that, even in the absence of quantitative hard data pointing towards any particular direction, both participants and taitas share the belief that

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136 There are very few female taitas and almost all, if not all, of them are from the Lower Putumayo. They are usually known as “abuelas” or “mamas.” As rich as the general topic of gender and yajé is, it is not something I was able to address during my fieldwork. That one toma in 2011 is the only time I have spoken with a female taita. I do know of a couple more, but I was not able to find them this time around.
there is an inherent power that resides in the harmonica and the waira sacha that is activated when performed by taitas at a time of need.

Another instance of the use of sound as anchoring device involved Manuel, a teenager who had been interned at a taita’s house for a period of two months. During that time, Manuel and the taita drank yajé almost every night. Manuel was said to be fighting drug addiction – which kind of drug addiction was never specified. Manuel was a bit of a wildcard; during the day, he would oscillate between periods of exuberant sociality, often joking around in a very extroverted fashion, and moments of short-tempered rage. While drinking yajé, Manuel would become strikingly serene and introspective.

One night Manuel looked too calm. He was sitting on the floor, breathing, his eyes open, but his gaze decidedly unfocused, his stare blank. His mother, doña Lola, had been present for the past two nights. She became worried and summoned the taita. Manuel was completely unresponsive, although it could not be said that he had fainted or that he was asleep. The taita was calm and said that it was not uncommon for participants to look – or even get – lost. The taita played the harmonica and the waira sacha for Manuel and after about ten minutes, he became responsive again. The taita did not say much else – to him this was a routine operation. Manuel told me the next morning that sometimes yajé made him go places where all he felt like doing was sitting still for an indefinite amount of time. To him, the taita’s sounds invigorated him and gave him “energy.”

I was able to see the same taita perform the bringing back operation some weeks later, at the same place and in the same nonchalant fashion, with a young woman from Neiva, a city in southern Colombia. Her name was Barbarita, and she was there keeping her cousin Mario company. She had drunk yajé some years before, and she was not entirely sure she would drink again – no specific reasons were given. At the very last minute, she decided to do so. She spent most of the night lying down silently, going outside to throw up about once every two hours. She did not seem particularly agitated or bothered. She seemed sleepy more than anything else.

Sometime around five in the morning, her cousin went outside looking for her. Barbarita had taken too long at the bathroom and her cousin grew concerned. He found her surrounded by other participants inside the bathroom. Barbarita had apparently fallen asleep next to the toilet. She was being helped back on her feet when she collapsed on the ground and fainted. She was then taken to a chair and as the taita was approaching the scene, thick foam started emanating from her mouth. It is important to note that most of the participants started reacting with consternation. They were clearly disturbed and worried by the sight of Barbarita’s inert body, and it seemed like nobody wanted to intervene. Those around her immediately agreed that they should get the taita. In a characteristically tranquil fashion, the taita started playing the harmonica and the waira sacha in an attempt to calm Barbarita down and bring her back. Barbarita did not want to speak about it next morning. Mario reported that he did not feel comfortable sleeping after the incident and instead decided to stay up watching his cousin as she slept, occasionally checking to see if she was actually breathing. Mario explained that his attitude came not from skepticism towards the taita’s abilities but more because of what he felt was his own neglect of his cousin. He stated that had something happened once again, he would have certainly alerted the taita immediately.

137 Her explanation, later on, was that she was wearing a necklace with the design of a frog. She said that, like a frog, she had wanted to be somewhere cool and moist, “Como la ranita de mi collar.”
Taitas report that often, participants go too far away, and this can mean, among many possible interpretations, that they are either very scared of the content of the images they are seeing – as in the case of Lorena; absent or removed from the present – as in Manuel’s case; or reacting with an alarming physical intensity – like Barbarita. My research is less about measuring quantitatively the effect of particular sounds on a yajé-affected body and more about the way sound and instruments are understood to possess agency and efficacy within a ritual place.

**Sound and Power in Tomas de Yajé**

In this section I will elaborate on the idea that taitas are concerned with keeping the ritual place they construct well-maintained. In the last third of *Ritual Theory, Ritual Practice*, Catherine Bell offers a detailed review of the way ritual and power have been theorized, making questions of control, authority, belief, and ideology central to the discussion.\(^{138}\) She points to and challenges a long tradition of conceptualizing ritual and power that takes as an unquestioned departure point the notion that ritual functions as an instrument of social control. For Bell,

> ritualization, as a strategic mode of action effective within certain social orders, does not, in any useful understanding of the words, ‘control’ individuals or society. Yet ritualization is very much concerned with power. Closely involved with the objectification and legitimation of an ordering of power as an assumption of the way things really are, ritualization is a strategic arena for the embodiment of power relations. Hence, the relationship of ritualization and social control may be better approached in terms of how ritual activities constitute a specific embodiment and exercise of power.\(^{139}\)

Following Bell’s discussion, and taking some distance from some of the more salient points raised when discussing ritual in Amazonian and Andean societies – for example, claiming that ritual helps regulate balance between species – I want to draw attention to some of the ways in which a taita asserts his power during a toma de yajé. Taitas control variables in the toma de yajé environment, but my claim is not that by controlling certain elements of the experience they are indeed enacting forms of social control. Rather, taitas are asserting their power by allowing certain things to happen and by disallowing others to happen. I propose that the authority and power taitas exert in tomas de yajé is directly linked to maintaining the place they construct by minimizing any potentially negative influences or disturbances on the ritual place.

First of all, taitas decide who gets to drink at a toma de yajé. Although generally speaking taitas allow most people to drink, there are cases in which taitas might deny someone access to yajé. The most striking case of access denial is the general forbidding attitude taitas have towards menstruating women drinking yajé.\(^{140}\) Taitas hold the belief that women that are menstruating should not drink yajé, for their ‘energy’ level will be such that the ritual place would become overwhelmed to the point of ‘de-activating’ the yajé brew, rendering it ineffective for participants. Another interpretation given for the prohibition of menstruating women’s participation is that the visions unleashed by the combined potency of yajé and feminine reproductive faculties will be unbearable for those partaking in the ritual – some taitas claim the visions will be of an unendurably intense redness.\(^{141}\) Interestingly, there is one taita who holds yajé rituals strictly for menstruating women. Other taitas operate on a “don’t ask don’t tell”

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\(^{139}\) Ibid., 170.

\(^{140}\) The general topic of gender and yajé is virtually inexistent in academic discussion, but unfortunately one I did not focus on during my fieldwork.

\(^{141}\) “Uno solo ve todo bien rojito.”
policy when conducting rituals in large cities of Colombia. Taitas can also deny yajé to someone who looks clearly drunk, disturbed, or otherwise unstable.

Another way in which taitas exert power for place maintenance purposes is by controlling the dose of yajé that each person will drink. How taitas decide the appropriate quantity for each individual participant is something they did not discuss with much detail. At best, I could conclude that they ‘eyeball’ it – dosage is not as obvious as, say, smaller quantities for smaller people. However, taitas did stress that giving everybody the exact same quantity could potentially be disastrous. The source of their reasoning was not revealed but the purpose was – giving too much or too little yajé to somebody means potentially having an altered participant who in turn is likely to disturb the toma. One taita has several shot-glasses that he uses for administering yajé, some containing names of places he has visited and others containing humorous inscriptions like “this is the last one, for real.”

Sonically, one way the taita’s power is expressed is through the regulation of participants’ sound production. Although generally speaking, participants who ask the taita for permission to play during the ritual will be allowed to perform, taitas intervene when sonic production disturbs the place the taita has been zealously constructing. In a way similar to the menstruation example, many taitas are reported to be slacker about their ritual control when outside their communities.

Michael Taussig raises the question of how the decision of seeking indigenous shamans for healing purposes means at once placing taitas – and consequently indigenous communities – in a position of authority while also following a long genealogy of exoticization and essentialism: the paradox is that the same taita that can heal is also a terrifying savage. The discussion I pursue here is less about larger claims relating to the perceived power of taitas – within a nation, or even globally – and more about the immediacy of authority as power and its practical implications for the maintenance of a notion of ritual place that is desirable to a taita.

Sound and Indexicality

In addition to regulating sound production to maintain the place constructed for tomas de yajé, taitas are also concerned with producing sounds that index the Amazon.

Half-joking, a friend of mine once described one of the taita’s yajé rooms as looking like something halfway between improvised war-time medical ward and slumber party. The room was lined with two rows of mattresses, blankets, hammocks, and sleeping mats. Many considered themselves medical patients, while a smaller number was there for reasons not directly linked to health problems. In any case, the room’s arrangements did look improvised, and it was – if suddenly observed out of context – little else than a disparate group of people in comfortable nighttime clothing sleeping or lying down next to each other, some agonizing, some snoozing pleasantly. From that image alone, how could anyone think there is a connection between the room and the Amazon? Why would it matter if this connection existed, anyway?

Sound is used in tomas de yajé to index the Amazon rainforest. Taitas use sound to invoke its ambiance, its inhabitants, the rivers, the plants, in short, and as one taita put it, “its

142 “¡Éste es último, en serio!”
143 I heard this from what I call “yajé promoters” – a sort of middlemen that organize the bringing of taitas into the cities; promoters often – but not always – get a cut from the income derived from attendance costs. I did not ask taitas directly about their slackening in the major cities because at the time it was not a research question I had thought of.
144 Taussig, Shamanism, Colonialism, and the Wild Man.
essence.” The idea that a non-verbal sound may point to a specific object, place, person or situation is what I mean by ‘sound indexical.’  

Within a toma de yajé, taitas use sound to index notions related to Amazonia and some of the ideas most frequently associated to it. Generally speaking, taitas from the Upper Putumayo emphasize an understanding of the Amazon as a place full of life, power, and natural elements. Taitas in the Upper Putumayo often look at the Lower Putumayo region as the ‘true’ source of yajé and the yajé ritual. Upper Putumayo taitas have a deep respect for the taitas from the Lower Putumayo and often tell stories of how the great shaman masters come from the Lower Putumayo; almost all of the current Upper Putumayo taitas have studied at some point with a Lower Putumayo taita. For taitas, it is important that the ritual – even if taking place indoors – indexes the source of yajé. Even when far from the Lower Putumayo or any place that could be understood as ‘Amazonian’ – let’s say northern California or Belgium – taitas reinforce the importance of remembering the place of origin of yajé. The place taitas construct for a toma de yajé necessarily indexes the Amazon.

Taitas often speak of ‘conjuring’ and ‘activating’ yajé the moment immediately before participants drink it. Their singing often includes words like madrecita, selva, yajé, bosque, tigrecito – creating imagery pertaining to yajé’s origins. Taitas believe that while yajé is highly portable, it is important to activate it before the ritual begins. Similarly, taitas report that the waira-sacha is used to re-create the sounds of the jungle. It is the sound of wind, plants, leaves, rain, and running water, all compacted into a single performative act performed on a single instrument. Some taitas claim that the harmonic content of the harmonica adds layers of animal calls and bird song.

Several participants have reported that the sounds taitas perform do transport them to the Amazon. Others put in terms of feeling like the Amazon is brought into the yajé room. The particular architecture of the yajé room becomes irrelevant. Drinking yajé while listening to the sounds performed by the taita can be understood as a moment of communion with the Amazon. From this point of view, it is not surprising to find that taitas often decorate their ritual rooms.

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146 The question of how this specific location has been situated as as the cradle of shamanic power in the Colombian imaginary is complex and will not be adressed here. An introductory text can be found in María C. Ramírez de Jara., and Carlos E. Pinzón Castaño. “Sibundoy shamanism and popular culture in Colombia, in *Portals of Power: Shamanism in South America, ed. Jean Matteson Langdon et al. (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1992). See also María Clemencia Ramírez de Jara and Fernando Urrea Giraldo, “Dinámica etnohistórica sociodemográfica y presencia contemporánea del curanderismo Ingano-Kamsá en las ciudades colombianas,” September 19, 2013, http://bibliotecadigital.univalle.edu.co/handle/10893/5485.

147 See for example, João Pacheco de Oliveira, “Movilidad espacial e identitaria en el Putumayo,” in *Perspectivas Antropológicas Sobre La Amazonia Contemporánea*, ed. Margarita Cháves et al. (Bogotá, D.C., Colombia: Instituto Colombiano de Antropología e Historia: Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, 2010).
Figure 13 - Mural inside a taita's yajé room, Vereda Tamabioy, Putumayo
with images – posters, paintings – and figurines – usually plastic animals – of Amazonian flora and fauna. While traveling, however, taitas don’t carry these material elements of their altars with them.

When talking to several taitas and participants about the differences between Upper Putumayo and Lower Putumayo sonic practices, I could identify one prevailing theme, best summarized by a taita’s statement that “[l]a selva ya trae su armónica incorporada. Por eso los taitas del Bajo Putumayo no tienen que tocar tanto.” In this sense, the sounds performed by taitas can be understood to index the Amazon.

Conclusions

Tomas de yajé are fairly portable and mobile. Besides the taita’s and the participants’ willingness to engage in a toma, and the availability of yajé itself, there are few other conditions indispensable for the ritual to take place. Materially, there are no real requirements for a toma to happen. Taitas themselves are highly mobile. Not only do they perform rituals in their local communities and in neighboring ones but they often travel to cities in Colombia, sometimes as far as one or two days’ travel. Some taitas regularly travel to neighboring countries and even to cities in North America and Europe to officiate tomas de yajé.

When at their community, taitas hold tomas de yajé in their own homes, often indoors and at a living area dedicated almost exclusively to hosting rituals. These spaces are usually sparsely furnished – the room will later on be filled with mattresses, sleeping mats, and chairs for participants. The spaces always feature a highly personalized altar adorned with a wide range of ritual objects, including all the sound producing instruments the taita will employ during the ritual. Taitas also make use of a table, which is from where they summon each participant individually; after each participant has approached the table, the taita pours the appropriate dosage to be consumed into a small receptacle, blesses it, often by blowing smoke or breath into the cup, and offers it. When taitas travel, however, there is no reasonable way for them to transport the very specific yajé room they have constructed throughout their lives. In fact, taitas recognize the personal value they ascribe to their ritual space while admitting a yajé ritual does not depend on a particular architecture or edifice.

Sound is a way in which taitas not only construct their specific ritual place; sound is also a way of maintain and modifying it. Taitas also use sound to ‘llevar’ and ‘traer’ participants, that is, to send them away but also to bring them back to the place constructed sonically for tomas de yajé. Sound also indexes the Amazon rainforest and ideas of origin, nature, and power. Place- hood or place-ness is something constantly performed by the taita through the employment of sonic tactics. From this point of view, I offer one explanation for the appropriation of the harmonica by Upper Putumayo taitas. Taitas are highly mobile, and they officiate yajé rituals in a wide range of places. In the same month, they might hold a ritual at their home, at another community member’s living room, at a country house outside Bogotá or at an outdoors retreat in Switzerland. In all the cases listed, the harmonica and the waira-sacha, both small and portable,

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148 “The jungle comes with its built-in harmonica. That is why taitas in the Lower Putumayo don’t have to play as much.”

149 It must be noted that, similar to the way Upper Putumayo taitas believe Lower Putumayo taitas are closer to a more powerful type of yajé shamanism, Lower Putumayo taitas themselves would look somewhere else for a purer, more powerful source of yajé practice. The idea that there is always an older and stronger yajé origin seems like a recurrent trope in ayahuasca shamanic practice.
provide a convenient way to carry inside their pockets a way of constructing a place larger than any building.
Figure 14 - "Philharmonic Rehearsals," from the Archivo de la Diócesis de Sibundoy, Putumayo

Figure 15 - Graffiti in downtown Bogotá
Chapter 5: Conclusions

What first drew me to research sound in yajé rituals was the realization that a particular taita’s harmonica playing – a playing that I would now qualify as that specific taita’s ‘sonic signature’ – remained in my head for a long time after having first participated in a toma de yajé in 2010. Several months later, after having left Colombia and having taken some time to digest what I experienced in that toma, I was struck by how unusual the whole situation seemed. I could still hear the sounds an indigenous shaman from the Putumayo had played on, of all instruments, a harmonica, while conducting a toma de yajé in the city of Cali in southern Colombia. The shaman waved a bunch of leaves and played the harmonica while a disparate group of people groaned, vomited, crawled, and lay down on an improvised room composed of mattresses, sleeping bags, and hammocks. There was a candle-lit altar with framed images of saints, Jesus, the virgin Mary, and also rock sculptures of the Buddha, and an assortment of plastic animals – mostly jaguars and birds. Those present were a rich mix of Cali locals, including teachers, street vendors, artisans, musicians, and even a diplomat; indigenous Colombians, some from relatively nearby villages and some that had come all the way from the Putumayo to accompany the taita; Colombians from main urban centers like Bogotá, Medellín, or Barranquilla; and a couple of foreigners like myself. At the time, it was hard to understand how and why such a motley group of people had managed to assemble in a small house in the countryside for the purpose of drinking yajé. Even now, putting forward explanations is a challenging task.

The sounds also brought back to memory the conversations I had with the other participants who were at the toma, the large majority of them seasoned yajé drinkers. I was reminded of the wide array of stories told and conversations had, mostly revolving around expectations, fears, vulnerabilities, and hopes, on one hand, and ideas of spirituality, indigeneity, healing, rights and citizenship, colonial history, on the other. Before leaving Colombia, I had also visited the prominent Museo del Oro in Bogotá, the capital. The Museo del Oro contains one of the largest, if not the largest, collections of Amerindian goldwork in the world. To my surprise, the third and top floor of the museum was, and still is, curated around topics of shamanism and spirituality. This is not the place to discuss at length the history or the politics of representation at play in the Museo del Oro, owned by the Banco de la República, Colombia’s central bank, a rich research topic in and of itself. However, the point I want to make is that the different expositions in the museum raised similar questions about imaginaries, encounters with, and representations of indigeneity and alterity. One of the main panels in the third floor displays an image of a taita holding a harmonica. What happens in the intimacy of a toma de yajé is not so intimate in the end, taitas and tomas becoming more and more popular in present day Colombia, Amazonian nations, and increasingly, the Western world. What I mean by this is that speaking of a harmonica or a waira sacha played in a small countryside house is not an isolated event; I contend that these sounds are increasingly becoming crucial elements of imaginaries of Upper Putumayo taitas in Colombia, and more broadly, crucial elements of the way indigenous populations, in general, are imagined and represented in mainstream Colombia. It is also important here to recall the Retorno al Origen graffiti referenced in the introduction, with its waira sacha-waving taita in one of Colombia’s busiest streets. In this thesis, I have made a broad argument in favor of the aural as a significant entry point into large questions of expressive culture and sociality.

In the second chapter, Yajé Shamanism, Labor, and Individual Practices, I demonstrated that any consideration of shamanism that leaves out questions of labor necessarily leads to uninterrogated reifications, romanticizations, and essentializations; it has been my intention to
recast shamanism in terms of labor. By arguing that taitas’ sounds are inextricably linked to their individual practices, that is, the specific ways in which they choose to personalize the conduction of their rituals and distinguish themselves from other taitas, I am also suggesting that sound production and musical performance are fundamental parts of a taita’s labor. I also propose a framework for understanding yajé, or ayahuasca, in the context of capitalism. More broadly, it is a framework that allows us to engage with and theorize the commodification of cultural practices that, although embedded in capital relations, still exist in imaginaries that rigidly place them in, using Chakrabarty’s terms, History 2, as “antecedents of capital.”

In Chapter 3, Questions of Framing, I employed frame analysis as a way to theorize what sound does in tomas de yajé. Taitas’ laborious playing helps participants in a toma de yajé to manage a kind of double-consciousness; taitas are interested in making sure that participants are able to experience pintas – visions, hallucinations – while simultaneously remembering they are participating in a toma de yajé. More broadly, I raised questions at the intersection of ritual studies and sound studies in order to propose a way to engage with verbal and non-verbal sound in any social situation.

In Chapter 4, Questions of Place, I argue for a sound-based understanding of place in tomas de yajé. Many scholars have argued for the importance of paying attention to the sonic qualities of the places we encounter and inhabit; I propose that sound not only grounds or modifies our experience of places, but it can also create them. In tomas de yajé, taitas rely on their sonorous instruments to construct ritual places that are temporally and sonically bound. In this way, taitas can conduct tomas de yajé in any place of the world, paying particular attention to indexing the sounds of Amazonia throughout the ritual. Taitas also rely on using sound to ground, or anchor, participants in the place constructed during a toma de yajé.

Throughout this thesis I have demonstrated that the performance of sound is a crucial part of Upper Putumayo taitas’ labor. Performing sound is a way to modify and create a ritual place in ways mostly independent of material constraints; it is also a way in which taitas can ground participants in the place constructed. Sound also helps participants interpret what they experience during the sensorially demanding tomas de yajé. The taita’s waira sacha, cascabeles, and harmonica constitute the sonorous instruments that allow taitas to deploy sound tactics to conduct tomas de yajé successfully and make a living through their labor.

Toward cosmopolitan listening

As part of this conclusion section, I will risk introducing a new concept to the reader. My reasoning is that, although this is, for the most, a text-based thesis that will be read, it deals for the most with listening. Listening to the sounds of an Upper Putumayo taita was what initiated this project. In a way, it seems fair to conclude it with a discussion on the act of listening.

Several taitas that lead yajé rituals in their homes, catering to a mostly local clientele, are also embedded in national and international labor circuits. These shamans might travel to near-by villages and cities to perform yajé rituals. They might also lead rituals in major cities of Colombia and neighboring countries. Some travel regularly to Europe and North America as part of their shamanic labor. These shamans travel light; they pack a change of clothes, the yajé that will be consumed, and their ritual instruments. While in this thesis I have focused on yajé rituals conducted in the Upper Putumayo, I would like to explore here some questions involving Upper Putumayo taitas conducting yajé rituals elsewhere. What does it mean that traveling taitas, far

1 Chakrabarty, Provincializing Europe, 63.
from their local communities, claim they can invoke the Amazon rainforest through their playing and singing? What is required from a participant in the ritual to take this claim seriously and not dismiss it as little more than poetic speech? What is required from a shaman to make this claim, knowing a fair amount of the participants in a toma de yajé held in an international setting have never been to the Amazon? What is required of a researcher in order to engage critically with these questions? What kind of listening are we talking about here?

*From cosmopolitan reading to cosmopolitan listening*

In the essay, “Cosmopolitan Reading,” Anthony Kwame Appiah defines cosmopolitanism as “universalism plus difference.”\(^{151}\) In the same piece he claims that “we should attend to novels morally,” stressing a cosmopolitan way of reading that emphasizes

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“dialogue among differences.” What we find in a novel, for Appiah, derives from “an invitation to respond in imagination to narratively constructed situations.” He continues,

Cosmopolitan reading presupposes a world in which novels (and music and sculptures and other significant objects) travel between places where they are understood differently, because people are different and welcome to their difference. Cosmopolitan reading is *worthwhile* because there can be common conversations about these shared objects, the novel prominent among them. Cosmopolitan reading is *possible* because these conversations are possible. But what makes the conversations possible is [...] the capacity to follow a narrative and conjure a world.

The cosmopolitan listening I propose is not radically distinct from cosmopolitan reading. It is important to stress here that the move from reading to listening is not one of antagonism; by focusing on aural modalities I am not espousing the construction of an anti-visualism, be it of images or of printed words. What I am hoping to add is a way of expanding and nuancing Appiah’s engagement with novels “and music and sculptures and other significant objects.” These objects – in the case of listening – can range from a live performance experienced in situ to a major hit played throughout international radio stations; these objects can range from overhearing a conversation at a market to attending a public lecture or listening to a *taita* play the harmonica during a *toma de yajé*. Listening does not presuppose literacy, while it maintains “an invitation to respond in imagination to narratively constructed situations.” In any case, it admits that the act of listening is potentially “braided” in that “one sensory channel or semiotic function is woven together with another more or less seamlessly,” giving way to a broader sensory understanding of what Appiah’s “significant objects” might be. Cosmopolitan listening certainly maintains a moral attention.

Several authors pose cosmopolitanism as essentially an ethical stance, an “openness” to cultural difference and to a broader humanity beyond local, racial or national affiliations; it is also understood as a disposition of intellectual and aesthetic openness to people, places and experiences. In the words of Eduardo Mendieta, a review of the literature reveals that we can analyze cosmopolitanism as both an ‘epistemic’ and a ‘moral/ethical’ principle. As an epistemic attitude it challenges the monopoly of one worldview, and advocates epistemic humility and fallibilism. As an ethical/moral principle or guiding norm, it commands the mutual respect of humans and the solicitous moral regard for those who are our others.
It follows that cosmopolitan listening would be, conversely, an ethical stance.

**The second half of cosmopolitan listening**

Listening, like cosmopolitanism, has been theorized in various ways. Here, I would like to focus on two definitions that are key to the discussion at hand. Ana María Ochoa and Carolina Botero, drawing from David Novak, discuss listening “as ‘a historical relation of exchange’ that has been crucial for the development of musical genres and ideas of creativity and production”; they argue for understanding listening not only in the “moment of consumption” but also “behind the scenes” – they argue that an understanding of listening as site of exchange is crucial to engaging the productive and creative processes of music production.\(^\text{160}\) Ochoa and Botero elaborate, positing “listening as a locus of constitution of socio-political processes” and conceiving “listening as a practice of circulation in articulation with other practices that interface with it such as technologies of production (itself conceptualized as another mode of relation), labor practices and economic conditions of production and distribution.”\(^\text{161}\)

Krista Ratcliffe engages with a type of listening she calls “rhetorical listening.”\(^\text{162}\) She defines it as “a trope for interpretative invention and as a code of cross-cultural conduct . . . [which] signifies a stance of openness that a person may choose to assume in relation to any person, text, or culture.”\(^\text{163}\) She elaborates on what this openness implies; it is an ethical stance in which "a listener must be imagined with an agency that enables him or her to choose to act ethically, either by listening and/or by acting upon that listening…given this agency, listeners must be provided with a lexicon and tactics for listening and acting upon their listening.”\(^\text{164}\)

Both definitions of listening broaden our discussion of cosmopolitan listening. Ochoa emphasizes listening in a way that affords a valorization of social relations, with a keen inclusion of labor processes. Ratcliffe reaffirms listening as ethical stance, as one necessitating not only openness but also the willingness to make choices and act. Cosmopolitan listening is simultaneously a reminder of one’s agency and an invitation to use it.

**Cosmopolitan listening beyond the human**

So far, although the development of a concept of cosmopolitanism has covered fair ground, it remains exclusively a human endeavor. Far reaching as it is, from a larger-scale point of view it remains narrow. And this narrowness has called the attention of theorists and artists alike recently. Lucien Castaing-Taylor asserts, discussing what informs his cinematic endeavors: “I hope to continue to push for a cinema and an art that could be called post-human, one in which humanity is reduced to a more modest scale than that it occupies in most cinema and art, and which enmeshes us in the larger swath of nature of which we tend to forget we are but a tiny, if

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163 Ibid., 1.

164 Ibid., 76.
increasingly ruinous, part.” Jonathan Urry points to how “arguing that there is a substantive shift from the human to the post-human presupposes that there was really a previous era where the world was 'human' and principally constituted through disembodied and dematerialized cognition […]” he highlights how “the powers of 'humans' are always augmented by various material worlds, of clothing, tools, objects, paths, buildings and so on.” Both stances attest to a paradox at the heart of the post-human condition; the conversation is still very much in terms of what it means to be human, although the term 'post-human' could imply otherwise. And that is precisely the point: it means embracing a broader picture of humanity alongside the non-human worlds surrounding us. Castaing-Taylor stresses the larger natural world we form a part of; Urry focuses on the objects that surround us but that are and have been crucial for our development as species.

Eduardo Kohn discusses at length what he calls an “anthropology beyond the human.” Based on fieldwork among the Runa in Ecuador, he insists that “that which we take to be human (our souls, our minds, or our cultures)” currently dominates our thinking, effectively relegating “the realm of the others, the nonhumans (evacuated of animacy, agency, or enchantment)” to a secondary plane. Kohn also explains why he favors the “beyond” part of thinking “beyond the human:"

“Beyond,” as I deploy it, exceeds, at the same time that it is continuous with, its subject matter; an anthropology beyond the human is still about the human, even though and precisely because it looks to that which lies beyond it – a "beyond" that also sustains the human.

Kohn’s discussion on the “beyond” is a necessary component of an ethically grounded cosmopolitan listening that is also beyond the human.

In their review of “sounded anthropology,” Samuels et al. conclude provocatively, “configurations of sound have political implications for a public, which is always a cosmopolitan listening public.” And while I agree at a basic level with their proposition, it is important to include here a brief critique of their review. In the section “Ethnographies of sound and the soundscape,” they identify four types of ethnographies that favor soundscaping: “Recording the Rainforest,” “Recording Cosmopolitanism and Struggle,” “Studio Production and Listening Practices,” and “New Forms of Place in the Global Economy.” And while I understand the organizational necessity of categorization, they limit the scope of ‘cosmopolitanism’ to the metropolitan and to the explicitly political, reifying, in a way, the kind of culture/nature divide Kohn sets out to dismantle. I insist here on an ethical stance through a cosmopolitan listening beyond the human, one attuned to relations and exchange, aware of multiple levels of agency, and inclusive of the non-human.

166 John Urry, Mobilities (Cambridge, UK; Malden, MA: Polity, 2007), 44–45.
168 Ibid., 223.
169 Ibid., 225.
Tomás de yajé revisited

Cosmopolitan listening is one way to take on David Harvey’s provocative question, “what geographical, ecological, and anthropological knowledges would be required for any decent […] cosmopolitan project to succeed?” Cosmopolitan listening is one way to engage meaningfully, in the words of Steven Feld, with “lived interactions between humans and nonhumans, humans and environments;” it is also a way to approach a “convivial ethics of coeval and intertwined presence.” Listening cosmopolitanly to Tomás de yajé raises important questions of representation and imagination, questions that due to focus reasons are not explored at length in this monograph. Why is it, for example, that an overwhelming majority of the sounds involved in Tomás de yajé are produced by men? How are ideas of sound production and ritual control linked to broader questions of gender? What kind of stories are told through the circulation of instruments in and out of regions like the Upper Putumayo? Why are sounds and images of jaguars and ‘the jungle’ so persistent in Tomás de yajé? How does thinking about the harmonica, the waira sacha, and the cascabeles change if we understand them decisively as tools for working and as crucial instruments in taitas’ labor, and not as merely decorative pleasantries? How are these sounds represented in other locations, like the Museo del Oro in Bogotá?

In this thesis I have argued that sound allows taitas to create and define a specific place for ritual practice. Sound also allows participants to contextualize, frame, and interpret their

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171 David Harvey, Cosmopolitanism and the Geographies of Freedom (Columbia University Press, 2013), 76.
experiences. Sound is also a way to, as posed by Catherine Bell, define (or impose) and experience (or receive) values in an environment. Although my study case has been specific to tomas de yajé as conducted by Upper Putumayo taitas, similar questions regarding sound, place, context, and framing are applicable to a wide variety of everyday and extraordinary situations. Sound plays a crucial role in our experience of environments, and raises ethical questions of the way we imagine, engage, and interact with places, animals, humans, and environments near and far.
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