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The Hunt Institute for Botanical Documentation, a research division of Carnegie Mellon University, specializes in the history of botany and all aspects of plant science and serves the international scientific community through research and documentation. To this end, the Institute acquires and maintains authoritative collections of books, plant images, manuscripts, portraits and data files, and provides publications and other modes of information service. The Institute meets the reference needs of botanists, biologists, historians, conservationists, librarians, bibliographers and the public at large, especially those concerned with any aspect of the North American flora.

Hunt Institute was dedicated in 1961 as the Rachel McMasters Miller Hunt Botanical Library, an international center for bibliographical research and service in the interests of botany and horticulture, as well as a center for the study of all aspects of the history of the plant sciences. By 1971 the Library's activities had so diversified that the name was changed to Hunt Institute for Botanical Documentation. Growth in collections and research projects led to the establishment of four programmatic departments: Archives, Art, Bibliography and the Library.

H. Allman-Lewis.

Casilla 39 Cochabamba Bolivia

April, 26, 1930.

The Secretary, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. E.E.U.U.

Dear Sir:

Farming in Cochabamba Valley

Unfortunately no experimental stations have been started in this country and consequently farmers here are behind the times and are loth to make any changes.

The object of the present is to ask for help, which I can assure you will be greatly appreciated.

There are probably districts in the U. S. where conditions approximate to those obtained here, hence the help can be extended by sending bulletins covering crops and methods of cultivation and other suggestions likely to be applicable here.

Please advise cost of all pamphlets sent so that I can repay you or, if you prefer, address them to me care of the Banco Central, Cochabamba, to be withdrawn against payment of their value.

To enable you to do this, I append a description of this district, viz:-

Part of the district lies between 55 & 67 degrees W longitude and between 17 & 18 degrees S latitude.

Altitude above sea 8200 1.

Rainy season falls in the summer months. Rains begin at beginning of November and last till end of March or first ten days of April. January & February are normally the wettest months. An average yearly rainfall would be in the region of 24 inches. Both the beginning and ending of the rains are erratic from year to year as also their distribution, but far more rain falls in January & February than in all the other months.

The other months of the year are almost entirely without any rainfell whatever.

A very large proportion of all the rainfall occurs as heavy downpours during thunderstorms and consequently first floods everything and then runs off. This, however is not always the case.

Owing to the altitude there is a large daily variation of temperature but not so marked a variation between winter & summer. In winter the shade temperature at midday will be about 18 degrees centigrade and in summer about 21 or 22. In June and July there will be hoarfrost every morning and some mornings an eight of an inch of ice may be found on stagnant water, this will disappear at nine oclock.

Evaporation is great owing to the altitude.

Nights are always cool. In July and August there are high winds.

In the valley bottom irrigation is available and some sections can have fertile river silt run onto them. In the irrigated districts the principal crops are, in order of importance, Maize, alfalfa, potatoes, broad beans.

The first sowing of maize begins on September 23nd, when a dark seed, called "milcaparu", is sown till the end of the month, and on till the middle of October when a lighter coloured seed called "concebida" is sown. After the third week in October a bright yellow seed called "aisuma" is sown. This last seed is the most prelific but lighter in weight than milcaparu.

The huilcaparu will be sown on the damper and colder land.

The maize harvest is begun by cutting the maize and standing it in clumps in May. In June the cobs are removed after drying in the clumps. The stalks are fed to cattle.

The land is then irrigated and ploughed by oxen with American Pony & Blue Jay ploughs taking a cut of about 4". One man and one yoke of oxen to each plough. It is then cross ploughed with the native plough, which is merely a pointed beam shod with an iron point; this however, penetrates deeper than the American ploughs.

The land then lies open to the sun and air till the different sowing times approach, when it is again irrigated, ploughed a cross ploughed as above and then sown, in my case, with a doublerow maize planter, rows 32" apart and grains at about 6". After planting irrigation is withheld as long as possible and if it can be avoided altogether, so much the better as if continuous rains then follow the crop will be ruined.

But as this time is one of blazing sun day after day it is sometimes a difficult point to decide as a large proportion of the plants may dry up altogether in the meantime.

From the beginning of May till the end of October there will be cloudless skies most days, whereas in summer it is mostly cloudy with occasional clear spells.

On un-irrigated land, here called "temporal", a small a quick growing white maize called "uchuquillo" is grown as also wheat and barley; this land naturally lies at somewhat higher elevations round 9000'. Wheat does well, but is of poor quality lacking in gluten.

Everybody is growing maize on the irrigated land and consequently it has a bad market, whereas there is great demand for wheat of which there is a shortage.

It would therefore be good business to grow wheat on the lower lying irrigated land, but everyone says it cannot be grown successfully, alleging that the crop will be spoilt with "polvillo". They say this results when cold mists come down at night, which is a rare occurrence, happening only once or twice in a season.

Seed. Now therefore; - Can you suggest a wheat seed that would be successful under these conditions for growing in the irrigated section at 8200' altitude?

If so please kindly ask some first class dealer to be kind enough to write me quotations for the finest seed of the kind available. Then by cabling him I can secure seed in time for this years sowing in December or whatever other time you suggest.

Please also kindly send instructions as to preparation, sowing etc of this wheat.

I would also like the same dealer to quote for any other seed for other crops you may suggest as suitable and also for clover which I see you recommend to be ploughed under as green manure say every four years.

Alfalfa does very well here giving six or seven cuts if properly irrigated.

As regards maize, I believe the amount of the crops could be greatly increased and would request you to advise me as to your recommendations for similar conditions and especially the manner in which a farmer can better his own seed by selection, mentioning also what implements are most desirable for planting and cultivation of maize.

I am short of labour and intend to purchase probably a Diesel tractor as herosene tractors, owing to the altitude, lose 25% of their power and consequently have to do all work in first speed with consequent high cost of fuel consumption. A supercharging diesel engine will get over this trouble, as well as using a low priced fuel.

Hence implements that will interest me will be those that can be handled by 20 effective brake H.P.

Malaria. There are, occasionally, a few cases of malarial fever in these parts, called locally "terciana".

It would be a great benefit therefore to all who live in these parts if the anopheles mosquito could be eliminated.

Under irrigation conditions it is practically impossible to avoid altogether stagmant water, no matter what care is employed by onesself as the Indian population cannot be brought to realize the importance of the matter.

I read, in a local paper, some weeks ago that an American investigator had made the wonderful discovery that a certain mosquito, a native I believe of Hawaii, was found to prey on and exterminate all other kinds of mosquitoes, including the dreaded anopheles, whilst being itself inocuous.

If this is so and this mosquite is now available I would request you to kindly inform me where I can obtain a few families with the view of introducing them to this district.

I need not add that no business will be made of them, but if one could be the means of eliminating terciana from any district that would be it's own reward and the thanks of everyone would be greatfully given to the discoverer of the new species of mosquito.

I have, I fear, taken up much of your time but you may be sure that the help you give will be appreciated by me and the results may be of benefit to the whole district.

Being an alfalfa district cattle could be bred if an expert market were available as other surrounding districts are also suitable, but for this I fear a "frigorifico" would be indispensable.

I am, Dear Sir, Yours faithfully,

H. Allman-Lewis.

Bemente, du hatupa Cachaba, su chumal. Compared

Cachay. According to Arona the name of the trans-

verse ridges or furrows that were made in cultivating the steep slopes. Holguin does not give this, but defines cachca as anything rough. See huachu.

Calmir, see quihuani.

Calala. Defined by Holguin as a mixture of potatoes and barley meal used as a travel ration. Presumably made also with maize, unless the word is recent.

Callchay. The hervest, callchani, "I reap
corn" (Markhami, callchay bacha, the heavent season,
(Holquin)

Camayoe. an office the guardian
of a public stocknise, camans to measone

Camcha "must be pronauvced with m, because

with n it means a

great yard on the ward

of a city."

(Garcillasso de la Vega,

Hakl. v. 45 p. 357) Jgg.

Camcha, or cancha. Maize toasted or parched.

Cobo gives cancha, and Arona states that this is the form used at Lima, with anca as the corresponding word at Arequipa. Aln the interior valleys in the region of Ollantaytambo the word is hancea. Cancha blanca, a name for pop-corn, called in Spanish palomitas or confitesara. According to Ruiz and Pavon (1:47) the name camcha is also applied to parched seeds of milium nigricans, "maiz de Guinea." Karsten (1:39) gives the name canchi in connection with Metteninsia edulis, the seeds of which are an important article of food in the Cordillera de Santa Marta, Colombia.

Cancu. See zancu.

AThe Cuzzo form of the word is rendered hank'a with cancha and hamea in Ayacucho, hank'a with cancha and hamea in Ayacucho, camcha camcha and ancassa in Junin, camcha camcha jamppi toncco in Aymara. in ancarh jamppi toncco in Aymara. Isarcillesso any, the camcha" suip

Maize (Peru) Huaris.

The huaris, or "great ones," were the ancestors of the aristocrats of a tribe, and were regarded as specially favourable toward agricultural effort, possibly because the land had at one time belonged to them personally. They were sometimes alluded to as the "gods of strength," and were sacrificed to by libations of chicha. Ancestors in general were deeply revered, and had an agricultural significance, in that considerable tracts of land were tilled in order that they might be supplied with suitable food and drink offerings. As the number of ancestors increased more and more land was brought into cultivation, and the hapless people had their toil added to immeasurably by these constant demands upon them.

"The Myths of Mexico and Peru," - Lewis Spence, 1913. p. 296.

Sug. ari , eto names for chiefs among the Polynesias

Maize (Peru) Saramama.

Spirits which were supposed to be instrumental in forcing the growth of the maize or other plants were the mamas. We find a similar conception among many Brazilian tribes today, so that the idea appears to have been a widely accepted one in South American countries. The Peruvians called such agencies "mothers," adding to the generic name that of the plant or herb with which they were specially associ-Thus assumama was the potato-mother, quinuamama the quinuamother, saramama the maize-mother, and cocamama the mother of the cocashrub. Of these the saramama was naturally the most important, governing as it did the principal source of the food-supply of the community. Sometimes an image of the <u>saramama</u> was carved in stone, in the shape of an ear of maize. The <u>saramama</u> was also worshipped in the form of a doll, or huantay-sars, made out of stalks of maize, renewed at each harvest, much as the idols of the great corn-mother of Mexico were manufactured at each harvest-season. After having been mile, the image was watched over for three nights, and then sacrifice was done to it. The priest or medicine-man of the tribe would then inquire of it whether or not it was capable of existing until that time in the next year. If its spirit replied in the affirmative it was permitted to remain where it was until the following harvest. If not it was removed, burnt, and another figure took its place, to which similar questions were put.

"The Myths of Mexico and Peru," - Lewis Spence, 1913 - p. 295.

Maize (Peru) Huaca, Ccompa.

Whatever was sacred, of sacred origin, or of the nature of a relic the Peruvians designated a huaca, from the root huacan, to howl, native worship invariably taking the form of a kind of howl, or weird, dirge-like wailing. All objects of reverence were known as huacas, although those of a higher class were also alluded to as viracochas. The Peruvians had, naturally, many forms of huaca, the most popular of which were those of the fetish class which could be carried about by These were usually stones or pebbles, many of which the individual. were carved and painted, and some made to represent human beings. llama and the ear of maize were perhaps the most usual forms of these sacred objects. Some of them had an agricultural significance. order that irrigation might proceed favourably a huaca was placed at intervals, in proximity to the acequias, or irrigation canals, which was supposed to prevent them leaking or otherwise failing to supply a sufficiency of moisture to the parched maize-fields. Huacas of this sort were known as coompas, and were regarded as deities of great importance, as the food-supply of the community was thought to be wholly dependent upon their assistance. Other huagas of a similar kind were called chickies and huancas, and these presided over the fortunes of the maize, and ensured that a sufficient supply of rain should be forthcoming. Great numbers of these agricultural fetishes were destroyed by the zealous commissary Hernandez de Avendaño.

"The Myths of Mexico and Peru," Lewis Spence, 1913 - p. 294.

Maize (Peru).

The essentially agricultural character of the ancient Peruvian religion is shown by the garden of gold that was a part of the chief sun temple at Cuzco.

"One of the most remarkable monuments of the Peruvian civilisation was the Coricancha (Town of Gold) at Cuzco, the principal fane of the sun-god. Its inner and outer walls were covered with plates of pure gold. Situated upon an eminence eighty feet high, the temple looked down upon gardens filled, according to the conquering Spaniards, with treasures of gold and silver. The animals, insects, the very trees, say the chroniclers, were of the precious metals, as were the spades, hoes, and other implements employed for keeping the ground in cultivation. Through the pleasances rippled the river Huatenay. Such was the glittering Intipampa (Field of the Sun). That the story is true, at least in part, is proved by the traveller Squier, who speaks of having seen in several houses in Cuzco sheets of gold preserved as relics which came from the Temple of the Sun. These, he says, were scarcely as thick as paper, and were stripped off the walls of the Coricancha by the exultant Spanish soldiery."

"The Myths of Mexico and Peru," Lewis Spence, 1913. p. 261.

Wild Wheat Forms in Persia and Palestine.

considered as the next step toward a better understanding of the orign and development of the domesticated forms of wheat. Aaronsohn's discovery of
the wild wheat in Palestine has been followed very
promptly by the finding of, or a closely related plant
in Persia, as reported in Germany by Schultz almost
simultaneously with the publication of a further account
of the Palestine wild wheat in the United States. This
account was based on studies made in Palestine in 1910
season in which the Persian wild wheat was collected.

Cook, O. F. Wild Wheat in Palestine, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Bureau of Plant Industry Bulletin No. 274, Sent to press, issued April 3, 1913.

Schulz, A., Weer eine neue spontane
Eutrificumform: Triticum dicoccoides Kcke. forma
Straubiana, Berichte der Deutschen Botanischen
Gesellschaft, 31:226-230, Pl.X. Sent to press April
17, 1913. Issued May 29, 1913.

Though it may not be possible to accept any of the wild forms thus far discovered as the represent direct ancestors of the cultivated wheats, it seems impossible to doubt that they are much nearer to the domesticated forms than any of the wild grasses previously known.

The interest attaching to the new wild forms remains almost the same, whether they be considered as ancestors standing behind the domesticated forms or as a parallel series of collateral relatives. In either case the wild plants afford the best indications that wex now have regarding the primitive characters and habits of the domesticated forms.

It was to be expected that any new contribution of fact to a question so old and so much controverted as that of the orign of wheat would be accepted with caution, not to say suspicion. Some writers like ----- have been charitable enough to suppose that Aaronsohn's claim, like so many others, rested on the finding of some domesticated wheat that had been scattered accidently or escaped from cultivation. In other words they are ready to assume, in spite of all the technical evidence, that Aaronsohn's wild wheat is only a form of

Momesticated wheat that happened to be found growing under conditions that allowed it to be mistaken for a wild plant. To me who were the importance of Another way to obscure the importance of Aaronsohn's discovery of the Palestine wild wheat is to include it in the same class with the several other wild species of Triticum and Aegilops that has been put forward by previous writers as ancestors of the cultivated wheats, but subsequently rejected. This course is followed by Schulz in connection with his announcement of the finding of another form of wild wheat in Persia. In attempting to distinguish the Persian plant from the wild wheat of Palestine, Schulz proposes, in effect, to dismiss Aaronsohn's wild wheat

for consideration on the assumption that it is a hybrid between an Asiatic form of Triticum aegilopoides (Link) and Triticum dicoccoides Koenicke, which is said to have

been discovered by Kotschy in 1855.

Kotschy's relation tomthe subject seems to have consisted in the accidental inclusion of a spikelet of the wild wheat in a specimen of wild barley. which seem to show that he had the plant before him. but failed to "discover" it, even to the extent of collecting a specimen. Moernicke, it is true, recognized Kotschy's as representing a new form of Triticum and finally named it as a variety of einkorn (Triticum monococcum var. dicoccdides), the matter was left in abeyance for many years, probably because of uncertainty of the orign of Kotschy's fragment, until Aaronsohn's persistant search was rewarded by the recognition of the plant in nature. The historical fact that the x varietal name dicoccoides belongs, according to the strict rules of taxonomy to the spikelet that Koernicke found in Kotschy's specimen of wild barley should not be allowed to mislead us regarding the hature of Aaronsohn's discovery.

It is not inconceivable that the wild wheat discovered by Aaronsohn may not have commcided absolutely with the form previously represented by the fragment in Koernicke's herbarium.

For Aaronsohn ascertained not only the existance of a wild wheat plant in Palestine, but also called attention to the wealth of forms. It is this polymorphic character that gives the plant its chief claim to our attention as a possible progenitor of our domesticated wheats, or of new forms of cereals that may be developed from it.

A plant without faexibility of form would be a very unpromising canidate, either as an ancestor of existing varieties of cereals or as a progenitor of new types.

Thus Schulz's assumption of the hybrid nature of Aaronsohn's wild wheat is misleading in two ways, first in the asserting on improved and apparently improbable relationship with einkorn, and second in disregarding the actual wealth of forms represented in the Palestine wild wheat.

Schulz's remarks that the hybrid seems to be locally more abundant than Triticum dicocoides only makes the gratuitious nature of his assumption the more apparent. Two wild species of plants that occupied the same area and producing hybrids more abundant than the parent forms would not be two species but would have fused long since into homogenous unity. It is a fact, now well recognized among students of geographical distribution of animals and plants, that species capable of free interbreeding do not occupy the same areas. Either geographical isolation or some other barrier of structure, habits, or season of breeding is necessary to the differentiation of natural specific groups of species in nature.

Some of the difficulties that stand in the way of a better appreciation of the discovery of the wild wheat may be ascribed to the very artificial classifications which have been used as the basis of the study of the cereals. It is easy to understand that a mind sufficiently grounded in the use of the highly conventional characters that are used for distinguishing species among the domesticated types of wheat would feel it necessary to reject and explain away as hybrids or otherwise, the wide range of characters manifested by the wild wheat. Indeed, it is only as we are willing to recognize the plant as something apart from and independent of the traditions of cereal classification that it becomes possible to get a better perspective of the general biôogical significance of a truly wild relative of our cultivated wheats.

Koerniche persisted to the last in treating the Palestine wheat as a more taxonomic appendage to one of the cultivated wheats, at first of the einkom wheat(Triticum monococum) and afterward of the emmer wheat(Triticum dicoccum), the second reference resulting in the absurdly tautological combination Triticum dicoccum dicoccoides.

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It was for this reason that it seemed best to recommend, that the Palestine wild plant be accorded an independent status, at least provisionally, until its affinities with the domestic types of wheat can be more definitely determined. The suggestion was, therefore, that Koerniche's varietal name dicoccoides be left to find its place in the existing conventional system of classification with the domesticated wheats, and that the new polymorphic species of wild wheat made known by Aaronsolm's explorations be admitted to a normal outdoor status under a new specific name Triticum hermonis,.

One point in the geographical distribution of the species was definitely fixed by taking as the type of the species specimens collected at the upper limit of the plant on the slopes of Mount Hermon itself above the village of Arny. The form of the spikelets in <u>Priticum</u> hermonis is shown in a photograph reproduced in natural size as place IX of Bulletin 274, Burben of Plant Industry. Whether this Mount Hermon form of the wild wheat coincides with that figured by Schulz as representing his "forma Kotschyana" may be difficult or impossible to determine from the characters used by Schulz in distinguishing the Syrian wild wheat from the Persian are extremely variable, even among the plants that grow in the same locality. But in view of its earlier publication the name hermonis would have precedence over Kotschyana as a general specific or subspecific designation of the Palestine wild wheat, in distinction from that of wother regions.

But without going outside of Palestine there are many local forms or subspecies that may be found worthy of separate naming, if an adequate study can be made. Two other forms of wild wheat illustrated in the same publication are widely different from Triticum hermonis as to be worthy of separate designation either as species or subspecies. Plate VIII shows the spikelets of a form found near Khan Jubb Yusef, northeast of the Sea of Tiberias.

This form which may be known as <u>Triticum</u> tiberiamum differs from <u>Triticum hermonis</u> in having the spikelets much broader and more compact, the outer empty glumes as longer than the inner fertile glumes and densely covered with long hair, the awns relatively short robust and equal, and the glumes of the third flower projecting only slightly between the awns. Most of the spikelets of <u>Triticum tiberiamum</u> contain two fully developed kernels, which occurs only rarely in <u>Triticum hermonis</u> and other forms with narrow spikelets and unequal awns.

Plate XIV and figure 2 of Plate XV, show another radically different form, with spikelets broader and more rounded at the sides than in <u>Triticum tiberiamum</u>, but the outer glumes shorter than the inner and not clothed with hair. The awns are much longer and more slender, and are more widely separate and arcuate at base.

The third flower is well developed and the glumes are prominent between the bases of the awns. All of the normal spikelets except the last contain two fully developed seeds, and sometimes a third seed, when the middle flowers of the spikelet are perfect. The large size of the seed, is the most notable characteristic of this form, which is about twice as large as in other forms. The size and shape of the seeds are illustrated in text figure No.10 on P.46 of the same bulletin. Figures 5,8,9, and 11 illustrate other features of the ame same large-seeded form, which may be known as Triticum megnum.

To Great Durestigations Dorsell 9-18-1914

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From Bombay, India. Presented by Mr. Henry D. Baker,
American Consul, who secured it from Mr. Frank
Harrison, Bombay. Received September 11, 1914.

"Seeds of wild Kathiawar wheat, which is supposed to be the original parent of all wheats in the world, from the district of Kathiawar, on the west coast of India, north of Bombay, and in the Bombay Presidency." (Baker.)

"This wheat grows wild in Kathiawar, a very dry tract on the west coast of India, north of Bombay. It is said all wheats in existence can be traced back to this stock and that it spreads from India westward via Chaldea (Messopotamia) and Egypt, thousands of years ago, Natives who eat this wheat. declare it is more palatable and has a better food value than any of the modern varieties grown in India. It has great drought resisting properties and should do well in the arid tracts of the Southern States of America. Natives collect this wheat in the jungle, and separate it from the straw by treading, i.e. cattle are made to walk over it in a circle until the grain is separated from the straw. They then pass the grain through Hand Querns in order or get rid of the chaff or husk, which is very thick, we find however, that ab Engelberg Rice Huller, as manufactured by the Syracuse Firm, will hull it in a most satisfactory manner." (Harrison)

Champus In Ecuador a kind of fruit

jelly made from moti of white maise

gentud with starch of white sweet politices of the start of parties of the start paint of the or naranjilla, the or total that a small print borne is a man in class of parties of the start of parties of the start of parties of produced in a small native shrub, produced in a small native shrub, possibly a species of Solanum? (cf. Monor parties of solanum? (cf. Monor parties of solanum).

Soin thanklam Vocab

Chala, or chhalla. Dry stalks and leaves of maize, corn-fodder, harvested in bundles and used extensively in Peru. Given by Arona as the original of chala, now considered as a Spanish word. The form challa is credited to Cuzco in the Vocabulario, chala in Ayacucho, Junin and Ancash, uiru in Aymara. An apparently related term is chacla, rushes or rods for thatch, cornstalks being used sometimes. (Refer to Cuatemala name tassjo? meaning dry meat?).

Champs or chhamps, see taclla and treti.
Champs ou sup
Champs Ground into coarse grains. (Holguin)

Also chamks chamks, anything half ground or merely broken.

Chamksni, to break in grinding, but the same word means to clear a field of stones.

Chanca. Maize gods of clay (Markham, vacab.)
Chapu. Meal cooked with broth. Chapuni, to kneed

and moisten meal. (Holguin)

Chaquilpa, see taclla.

Chaquitaclla, see taclla.

Chaque, or sarachaque. Meshed maize, the kernels scaked in water and then mashed, said to improve the flavor.

Canni Nocat to Cause "Half green many stalks but to dry for foother.

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Chi huylts Paste of maine with bitter and cheese, cooked in a wrapping of work work cooked, for Palm Sunday - (Holguin Payne gives it a Mexican word o probably Otomi. (See Payne, Vocab., Vol. I.)

Checchi, or chhechi. Roasted maize ears, but has other meanings. Chhecchini, To toast or roast the ear of maize. Harshberger says that cherchi "signifies roasted maize".

(Refers? to Brinton Am. Race, 205) Not in Markham (or Holguin.)

The word resembles charqui, dried meat which may be cognate see with chaqui, foot or leg.

Chequipe. A polite or honorific name for chiche

that is being drunk. "Vamos a tomar checuipa", An expression

chicke in relation to chicke. Holguin has no such word in Possibly related to chekaypi meaning at the Ophulloi. See chulloi. opposite, or at the right

hand of one.

Chichs. See accs. There is a Quichus word chichs, meaning sandals with thick soles, not the beverage made of maize. Cobo pointed out that chichs was not a Peruvian name, and supposed that it came from Santo Domingo, but it does not seem to have been recorded by the early writers on the West Indies. It was adopted as the general Spanish name for the fermented drinks found in use among the natives of America.

Cobo refers to chichs made of occ, yuca, quinua, and molle in Peru, of algarrobo in Argentina, of strawberries, in Chili, widdledow attacked the discharate made of barley in firm, as male as the many of pine-apples, in Colombia, and of magney, in Mexico. See

also chequipa, jora, vinaru, and mucou.

Ranchi

(Vocab.) of counchi a chicha zu

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Chila. In the district of Cuzco and Ollantaytambo a name for hard maize or flint corn, equivalent to muru or muruchu, but chila the name of the hardest. The word closes not appear in Holanin and man not have been recorded before but is given in Molaning as meaning hard or brittle , but though interest in the contract of the contract

- duro, quetradiza (mitto 388), not when

Chillpi. Husk of green maize that is dried for making meal. The word may be related to chullpi, the Quichua name for sweet-corn, which presumably would be used for drying, but this is practiced very little in the region of Cuzco and Ollantaytambo. Chillpini, Rusking the maize ear, pulling the husks apart. The word for husking the dry ears at the end of the season is tipini. See cocope,

Chochocca. Ripe maize dried after being boiled.

Markham writes "chochoca", and defines "Maize toasted and afterwards frozen". Holguin has chuchuka, "Maize cooked and dried in the sun, is like rice." Cobo gives purheles transcously, gives this sense for the word tocopa which Holguin applies of dried potatoes. The Vocabulario gives chochocca as the Josmy

Chocla or chucilla. A small temporary hut in a choja, maize-field, chosa or chosita in Spanish, affording shelter and sleeping quarters for the watchman who is always stationed when the corn is husked in the field, away from the house.

(used in cuzeo and ayacucho, chuchuca in Junio, chuchuga in ancash, and mutti in aymara.

Megalithic Agricultural Terraces in Peru.

Peru. This is evident from the number of plants that were cultivated, the extensive irrigation works, the straightening of rivers, and building of artificial lands in the valleys, as well as by the terracing of the slopes of the mountains. The megalithic or cyclopean terraces are faced with huge blocks of stone, not reduced to regular shapes but fitted together with a perfection that appears incredible when described and amazing when seen.

been supposed that these remarkable structures were built to
serve merely as defensive walls or fortifications, but there are
several considerations that destroy confidence in this tradition—
al view. That some of the megalithic terraces were used for defensive purposes at the time of the conquest is as easy to believe
as that other terraces built of smaller stones were used in the
same way when occasion offered. There is nothing to indicate

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special military advantages for the megalithic terraces, nothing to show that defensive motives governed the building of any of the terraces. Some of the ancient frontiers are marked by walls built in defensive situations, in narrow passes or even carried across rather broad valleys. Indeed, walls seem to be very much better than terraces for the purposes of primitive warfare, as well as much easier to build. But the megalithic structures were already very old. On account of their peculiar workmanship these structures are referred by archaeologists to a pre-Inca age, a period long before the conquest. Many things might have been forgotten, such as the very extensive terracing and construction of artificial lands in the eastern valleys. This appears to have been done in the megalithic period, and finds little or no mention in the Spanish historians(?).

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That the megalithic terraces, including those of the finest workmanship, were built for agricultural purposes is shown by the nature and arrangement of the earth that was filled in behind the retaining walls. While the lower strate were of clay or of coarse rubble, the surface was covered with a thick layer of fine agricultural soil.

Another meason for looking upon the terraces as intended for agricultural purposes is that of the locations in which they were placed, that is, on slopes with the best expesure to the north, where the maximum of heat could be secured. In a country where bright sunshine every day is the rule, reflection of the light and heat from the stones in the daytime and the retention of heat to be radiated at night, undoubtedly would have very favorable effects upon the growth of plants at the high altitudes where all of the megalithic terraces are located.

Sacsahuana (Sarmiento, Mark. trans., 104, ftnote) "This great plain to the north-west of Cusco, called Xaquixanuana, and Sacsahuana; is now known f as Surita. Most of the early writers call it Sacsahuana. Sarmiento always places the word Caquia before the name. Capuchini is to provide, calling the contraction of the contraction puchic a purveyor. Hence Capuquey means "my goods, abbreviated to Caquey, 'my px property.' The meaning is 'my estate of Xaquixahuana.'"

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of 999. rather for betcher!

Endently does not refer to Sacsahuaman, the forties. For this, and Amminto, marks trans, p. 152

SACSAHUAMAN AN ARBORETUM?

Although husman has been defined as "fort" (? in Markham?) this seems to have been done on the strength of the name Sacsahuaman itself, as meaning "old fort". The usual name for fort or stronghold is pucara. The Holguin dictionary not only fails to give huaman as meaning fort but says: "Sacsahuaman pucara, nom. The great Castle which the Inca had constructed for the security of the Capital of the Empire. Kusko," battlements formed of veritable boulders (rocas?) the heights? (almenas) which it crowns have holes and tubes which (internan) enter the interior of crest made into the fortress. With what object did they carry the air to the interior of the hill? The savents may answer". Of the origin or meaning of the name nothing is stated directly, but a theory is implied in the next word "sacsayhuaman, nom. Aguila real." But this seems to be inventing a meaning for sacsa to go with huaman, for there is nothing to show that sacsa or sacsay has any such meaning as royal in any other connection. But with the other interpretation of the nature of the structure such violent assumptions are necessary to account for the name. If instead of huaman meaning falacon we consider huamac, meaning novel, rare, or foreign, and instead of sacsa meaning "torn, ragged, worn-out, second-hand," the word secha meaning tree or plant be considered, such a name as Sachahuemac becomes possible, with a meaning that is attached by us to botanical garden or conservatory.

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another etymological possibility even more direct is suggested by a A word heard in the lower valley of the Urubamba, but not found in any of the dictionaries that were consulted. This is huambal or huamal the letter b usually not being recognized as present in Quichua, though admitted by Holguin in a few words, such as huallimbu, a kind of bread, and saballani, to split the points of the leaves of Furcrae for extracting the fiber. The meaning of huambal or huamal is a seedbed or nursery for young plants, from which they are set out in the fields.

In view of what for other reasons now appears to have been the use of the fort, the name <u>Sachahuamal</u> would have been altogether appropriate, meaning a tree nursery or arboretum, a place where trees could be planted and carried through the tender seedling stages, an arboretum as we say.

With this view of the matter we are ready to consider the possible significance of a scrap of history handed down by a native writer. Salcamayhua, that the Inca Uira-ccocha, the builder of Sacsahuaman, "neglected all warlike pursuits," but employed himself chiefly in the building of houses and the planting of trees.

The Cyclopean Tenaces barming of Pera. Pera. agriculture was a highly developed and in ancient Peru. The intensive development of the art of agriculture this is shown not only by the building of evident from the number in ancient, peru is shown most strikingly in the building of of plants that were sultivated, the construction of irregation works the megalithic terraces, which must have required an engrmous shoughdaning channels through the mountains, the traighten amount of labor, as well as great skill in masonry and engingaines, and building leveling and laying down of artificual lands valleys, regular and laid without mortar, are fitted together with a that appears inesedible when described and amazing when seen. degree of perfection attained by no other primitive people. torracing The purpose of these remarkable structures has been misunder-A as well as stood. W From the Spanish conquest to the present time they 4 the it has been considered as defensive walls or fortifications, to a view appears unt is action becomes untenable The nature and of the Indeed, it is not certain that they were being used for other motech than defe sive purposes at the time of the conquest, since no plopes of the is plan to believe whomeh it is plain that they could not have reference to another use has been detected in the writings mountains my though of the numerous Spenish historians. But the megalithic structures were already very old on account of their peculiar workmanship the megalithic structures are referred by archaeologists to a pre-Inca age, a period long before the conquest. Many things might have been forgotten, such a's the very extensive terracing and construction of artificial lands in the eastern valleys. This appears to have been done in the megalithic period, and finds little or no mention in the The Engelstean or megalithic megalithic or Cyclipean represent the are faced with huge Spanish historians(?).

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marge word copied mahamaes. Orthing thomas, depressions or fits, for planting marge or other crops in stryand regions, and refer districts de along the especially along The coast, where moist soil could be form could be found underneath the dry sand, the the fire district to cobo. gor descrites there of chilca and Villacuri as Jamous in his day The former cline to be sea The letter at a distance four or hote leegues inland. Pieces It he were hose plants with he maire of this were hose plants with he maire of the lease putilizer, was a provide injury from alkalis of the way arrows injury from alkalis. water dressing of the leas quarango leaves was applied in unt Institute for Botanica Door

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muchen gardens Artifical depressions or pits, in Spanish hoyas, for planting maize or other crops in arid districts, especially along the coast, where most soil could be found underneath the dry sand. Cobo describes those of Chilca and Villacuri as famous in his day, the former close to the sea, the letter four or five leagues inland. Pieces of small fish were planted with the maize at Chilca, and in other places leaves of the guarango tree were used for fertilizer. As a means of avoiding injury from alkali a dressing of these guarango leaves was applied every two or three years. The depressions varied greatly in shape and size, some being round or square, and many of those firm 100 to 200 paces across, but most of them long and narrow, one noted by Cobo as extending for half a league. Sometimes the larger ones were divided by ridges of sand, which was piled up around the borders as a fence or barrier to keep out intruders. Some of the excavations were two estades in depth, but others less. The wond is not found in the Quichue dictionaries and oney belong to fine have been derived for the languages & som one to consider tribes det are conquered by the Incas.

(From Payne's History of the New World, vol. 2, pp. 547-48)

"The stage of progress represented by the Inca people is probably too remote, and our knowledge of it too imperfect, to permit of our estimating it with any approach to accuracy; but no one can follow the authorities without being convinced that the degrading despotism of Peru reacted with fatal certainty on the characters of those who exercised it, and that the Apu-Ccapac-Incas were by habit and policy brutal and sanguinary tyrants. Compared with them the cannibal chiefs of Anahuac appear almost in the light of polished and civilised rulers. In general aspect the culture of Peru was of a lower grade than that of Mexico. The Quichus-Aymara stock, if not absolutely inferior in mental capacity to the Nahuatlacan, was inferior to the latter in mental cultivation. Probably its advancement was of more recent date: its success in domesticating the llama rendered material welfare independent of renewed effort; in the colder climate of the Peruvian plateau the brain was perhaps more sluggish, and the comparatively monotonous aspect of nature communicated to it a fainter stimulus. The most conspicuous

(Comparison of Mexico and Peru, Payne -- 2)

deficiencies in Peruvian progress, when compared with the Nahuatlacan, are the absence of any continuous reckoning of the divisions of time, although denary arithmetic was highly cultivated, and the solstices were regularly observed as indications of the recurring seasons; the want of any application of imitative art to other purposes than the decoration of pottery and the fabrication of rude solid figures of men and animals: and an intense materialism in religion, which adopted nearly all natural things as objects of veneration, although it recognised spirits as unseen causes of natural phenomena, and admitted a first cause or general creator, whom the current opinion placed on a higher footing than the greatest of all natural huacas, the Sun. The ingenious time-reckoning of the Mexicans, their elaborate pinturas, and the conventional symbolism which their pictographic system was gradually developing -a symbolism which promised, at some distant date, to produce a true syllabary -- were intellectual achievements to which Peruvian advancement affords no parallel. Yet when the compar-

(Comparison of Mexico and Peru, Payne -- 3)

atively recent origin of Peruvish culture is borne in mind. it might plausibly be contended that there is little, after all, to choose between the two. Thanks to the llama and paco, and to the great abundance of both animals in their wild state, the peruvians were free from the organised cannibalism which is the great reproach of Mexico. Their theology, though it demanded human sacrifices, was simpler and more rational. Under far greater geographical difficulties, they established a stable government over a vaster territory than that subject to the dominant pueblos of Mexico: and its organisation, considered either from the military or the administrative point of view, was more complete, and probably not less efficient, than that devised by the Nahuatlaca, although it fell to pieces more quickly, as will appear in our next Book, before the Spanish invaders."

(End of extract)

(Marshberger, Maise: A Botanical and Meconomic Study, in Contributions from the Botan, Lab., Univ. of Pa., Vol. 1, Phila., 1897)

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CORN - (Oulture among the Paez Indians).

About Palm Sunday (Domingo de Ramos), i. e. sometimes between March 15th and April
15th, is the date set for corn seeding. In the old Paez calendar, the moon which
falls within that period was called txind-ate, that is, mes de sementers or seeding moon.

The seeds have been selected from the previous crop, and kept on the ears, protected by the husks. No attention is paid to the separation of the several varieties; it is even asserted that the crop is fuller and more abundant when care is taken to mix together all varieties. Maiz de año and maiz temorano however, are not sown at the same time. It is a curius fact that the maiz de año, which takes more time to ripen its ears, is sown after the short seasoned variety.

The field, unless a new one, has been prepared by pulling out the remains of the preceeding crop and the weeds, and burning them. Sowing is mooperative, i.e. the owner of a field invites his neighbors and friends to help, egpecting to return the invitation. Armed with sharp pointed sticks and provided with a mochila of seed, they start in a line from the foot of the piece of land to be planted, with just enough space between them to have free movements. Thus they progress rapidly up

hill, making holes at 40 to 50cm. distance and putting from six to ten kernels in each hole, that is covered by a stroke of the foct.

When the short seasoned maize is apout 40cm. high, it gets a thorough weeding after which the yearly yellow, <u>capio</u> (soft corn) and <u>chulpe</u> (sweet corn) are planted between lines, as are also beans, <u>majicanos</u>, <u>zapallos</u>, etc. After that, the field is left alone until there is something to pick.

The short season corn ripens in about six months and is harvested about August, the larger part of the crop being eaten fresh. The año, capic and chulpe need about 300 days to complete their season, i.e. they are ready to pick about Christmas. A A second regular crop of the short seasoned variety is planted in September and picked up in February.

After each crop, the field is left alone for one or two years.

CORN

Varieties

"The variety cultivated at Buga (Cauca), produces enormous ears, with compressed, white and translucent kernels, and covered with deep purple husks. It is a precious variety worth the while being introduced in Europe".

Ed. André, Tour du Monde, 1879, 1, p. 128.

CORN - (General characteristics of varieties, etc.).

In Colombia, maize is cultivated from sea-level up to about 2500m. - The varieties of the Flint group called <u>maiz de ano</u> and <u>maiz temprano</u>, are planted over the whole altitudinal range, with probable variations in characters, length of season, etc. which have not yet been thoroughly investigated.

Capic, a Soft Corn, and chulps, the native Sweet Corn, are mountain varieties and it is said that when planted in the tierra calients they grow viciously but give only imperfect ears. They also are long seasoned, 300 days being the average length of time between planting and harvesting.

The <u>maiz de ano</u> has higher stems (about 20 nodes or 5 to 6 m.) than the <u>maiz tem-</u>prano and has almost always adventicious roots up to the seventh node and eyen higher. It gives one or two ears in poor location and up to five ears in very rich soil. The first, or highest ear, appears on the sixteenth, fifteenth or fourteenth node. it is scarcely necessary the say that it is called <u>maiz de ano</u> on account of its long season.

The sulphur yellow variety is characterized by the purple coloring of its stems, sheaths and tassels, the latter being much darker, The cobs are also purple, or

purplish.

The yearly white is slender, pale green with purplish tinges on stems and sheaths. Tassels green, more or less tinged with purple. Silk purplish. It generally bears only two ears, the uppermost developing first.

All observed varieties are protrandrous. None of them have suckers.

Sometimes the husks of the short seasoned varieties develop small stiff leaves, about 15cm. long and more or less perpendicular to the ear.

According to the natives, there is no exterior difference between the gapig and chulpe varieties.

In the kernels of each group, temprano, ano, chulpe and capio, all variations of color, viz. white, yellow, bluish, purple and black, are found, and, in consequence of the continous mixing of varieties, it is difficult to meet with a purely bred ear

One of the most interesting varieties of maize met with in the Southwestern part of Colombia is the <u>Chocosito</u>, or Choco small corn, raised on the Pacific coast, some distance north and south of Buenaventura.

That region is charakterized climatically by the very large amount of its rainfall, distributed all year over, to the detriment of agriculture. In the section vi-

sited by me, the soil once ridden from its vegetation becomes practically a swamp, and is soon covered with <u>Bleocharis</u> and a very few other species belonging to the same vegetation type. No agriculture, in the usual signification of the word, would be practicable, except on the gravelly permeable banks of the rivers.

In the forest, on account of the larger evaporation, the soil is relatively dry, and keeps so while protected against the direct agaess of the rainwater. For that reason, the natives plant their corn in the forest and under the trees, after having made away with the underbrush.

The seed is sown broadcast and very thick, for many kernels will rot, and others be destroyed by birds and small rodents, before germinating. Then the trees are felled on the plantation, that is left to itself until harvesting time.

The few plants that succeed in their hard fight for life develop long, slender, crocked, vine-like stems, that find their way through, and are supported by, the layer of brush formed by the dead branches of the trees. Strage to say, that maize is exceedingly prolific, giving from 2 to 5 smal (22-rowed ears, densely covered with diminute kernels of the Flint type.

I obtained sunly two varieties, both of Flint Chocosito, but was told that there also a chocosito of the <u>capio</u>, or Soft Corn type.

CORN. (Origin of Maize).

In the Cauca Valley there is a tradition according to which the flint Corn varieties were imported from North. Two kinds, which however I could not obtain, are called respectively <u>Yucatan</u> and <u>Cubs</u>, and are said to have been imported from these last countries about two hundred years ago.

As far as I know, all South American native varieties of corn belong to the Soft and the Sweet Corn groups.

GORN - (Protection of crop against birds and large animals).

The Paez Indians build on high poles in the middle of their corn fields small

watch-huts, in which children spend their days, once at a time, during the last ripening period of the crop. Now and then their shouts are heard or the gye is attracted by their waving obd rags at the end of a long pole, to scare away the flocks of parriquits that lay siege to the grain. At an earlier stage, the same hut is used by the elder men as a lookout from which they easily discover and shoot the deer that are so fond of the green maize.

Another contrivance for the same purpose is the <u>waska</u>, long cable made of vines tied end to end. One extremity of the cable is tied to some tree or post across the field, while the other is at the house near by on the opposite side.

The cable is lowered so as to permit a general



shaking of the maize stems. Other times the cable is suspended higher, and old rags, bunches of grass, or other scare-orws are hanging from it. Now and then durring day-time the women in the house give a few lively shakes to the cable, shouting at the same time to the top of their voices.

Protective characters.

CORN. (Color protection against weevils)

On a "Capio morado" ear (Co 24), with about 40% of the kernels bored by weevils, none of the 28 white kernels scattered among the purple ones were attacked, and most of the reddish purple, i.e. lighter purplish colored kernels, were also sparred. The question now is whether color has any value as to protecting corn against the attacks of weevils.

CORN. ("Aco", a kind of Corn Meal)

Aco is a very fine ground corp meal, to which there are added sugar, cinnamon, and small portions of wheat, <u>cebada</u>, and <u>lentejas</u> flour. The Indians and mixed arrieros and peasants of Southern Cauca (Pasto, Telembi, etc) use it as staple-food in their travels, mixing it with water or <u>chicha</u>. It is said to be of agreeable flavour and very nutritious.

CORN. - ("Muti", or "Mote", a kind of Corn gruel).

Muti is a Kechua word applied to a meal prepared with the black corn. This is boiled whole, going thus through a kind of wet popping, then peeled and made into gruel.

CORN - Uses among the Paez Indians

To prepare mass or dough, the corn is put in water to soak until it is quite soft. Then it is easily separated from the shell and ready to be used for several meals. Although the water is generally renovated every day, the mass is rotten in a very short time.

When mote is prepared, i. e. when it is desired to simply shell the kernels without causing their disgregation, ashes are used. The well peeled kernels are thoroughly washed, and then lightly boiled in water. This is the mote:

The water used to wash the shelled corn is whitish on account of the suspended starch. It is collected in shallow recipients and left to repose. The very fine starch thus obtained is made into pap for the younger children, or gruel for sick people. The remaining water, which still contains some glutinous substance, is left to ferment and is drunk .under the names of birimbi or aunche.

A special group of deities called M Centeotl presided over the agriculture of Mexico, each of whom personified one or other of the various aspects of the maize-plant. The chief goddesss of maize. however, was Chicomecohuatl (Seven-serpent), her name being an allusion to the fertilising power of water, which element the Mexicans symbolised by the expant serpent. As Xilonen she typified the xilote, or green ear of the maize. But it is probable that Chicomecohuatl was the creation of an older race, and that the Nahua new-comers adopted or brought with them another growth-spirit, the "Earthmother," Teteoinnen (Mother of the Gods), or Tocitzin (Our Grandmother). This goddess had a son, Centeotl, a male maize-spirit. Sometimes the mother sixs was also known as Centectl, the generic name for the entire group, and this fact has led to some confusion in the minds of Americanists. But this does not mean that Chicomecohuatl was by any means neglected. Her spring festival, held on April 5, was known as Hueytozostli (The Great Watch), and was accompanied by a general fast, when the dwellings of the Mexicans were decorated with bulrushes which had been sprinkled with blood drawn from the extremities of the inmates. The statues of the little tepitoton (household gods) were also decorated. The worshippers then proceeded to the maize-fields, where they pulled the tender stalks of the growing maize and, having decorated them with flowers, placed them in the calpulli (the common house of the village). A mock combat then took place before the altar of Chicomecohuatl. The girls of the village presented the goddess with bundles of maize of the previous seasons harvesting. later restoring them to the granaries in order that they might be utilised for seed for the coming year. Chicomecohuatl was always repre-

munity then approached the <u>teocalli</u> (pyramid of sacrifice), and, its summit reached, the victim was stripped to a nude condition, the priest plunged a knife of flint into her bosom, and, tearing out the still palpitating heart, offered it up to Chicomecohuatl. In this manner the venerable goddess, weary with the labours of inducing growth in the maize-plant, was supposed to be revivified and refreshed. Hence the name Xalaquia, which signifies "She who is clothed with the Sand." Until the death of the victim it was not lawful to partake of the new corn.

The general appearance of Chicomecohuatl was none too pleasing.

Her image rests in the National Museum in Mexico, and is girdled with

snakes. On the underside the xx symbolic frog is carved." Thexxwerigen

The Offering to Centectl

During her last hours the victim sacrificed at the Kalaquia wore a ritual dress made from the fibres of the aloe, and with this garment the maize-god Centeotl was clothed. Pobed in this he temporarily represented the earth-goddess, so that he might receive her sacrifice. The blood of victims was offered up to him in a vessel decorated with that brilliant and artistic featherwork which excited such admiration in the breasts of the commoisseurs and aesthetes of the Europe of the sixteenth century. Upon partaking of this blood-offering the deity emitted a groan so intense and terrifying that it has been left on record that such Spaniards as were present became panic-stricken. This ceremony was followed by another, the niticapolom (tasting of the soil), which consisted in raising a little earth on one finger to the mouth and eating it. "

sented among the household defities of the Mexicans, and on the occasion of her festival the family placed before the ix image a basket of provisions surmounted by a cooked fx frog, bearing on its back a piece of cornstalk stuffed with punded maize and vegetables. This frog was symbolic of Chalchihuitlique, xix wife of Tlaloc, the rain-god, who assisted Chicomecohuatl in providing a bountiful harvest. In order that the soil might further penefit, a frog, the symbol of water, was sacrificed, so that its vitality should recuperate that of the weary and much-burdance earth.

The Sacrifice of the Dancer

A more important festival of Chicomecohuntl, however, was the Xalaquia, which lasted from June 28 to July 14, commencing when the maize plant had attained its full growth. The warm of the pueblo (village) were their hair unbound, and shook and tossed it so tut that by sympathetic magic the maize might take the hint and grow corresspondingly long. Chian pinolli was consumed in immense quantities, and maize-porridge was eaten. Hilarious dances were nightly performed in the teopen (temple), the central figure in which was the Xalaquia, a female captive or slave, with face painted red and yellow to represent the colours of the maize-plant. She had previously undergone a long course of dameingximathe training in the dancing-school, and now, all unaware of the horrible fate awaiting her, she danced and pirouetted gaily among the rest. Thou Throughout the duration of the festival she denced, and on its expiring night she was accompanied in the dence by the women of the community, who circled round her, chanting the deeds of Chicomecohuatl. When daybreak appeared the company was / joined by the chiefs and headmen, who, along with the exhausted and half-fainting victim, denced the solemn death-dence. The entire com-



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Maiz. (Vivian .Peru.-146-)

The finest maize of the world is grown in Peru.

It is an indigenous product cultivated in all parts of the country up to a heigh of 11,500. ft.,

Three and occasionally four crops are reaped annually. The finest equality is grown in Cuzco, where the grains are of the size of large beans.

Maize.

The Indians of Alta Vera Paz have numerous varieties of corn and separate names for some of them, words which have no other signification. Others are named "yellow corn", "black corn", etc.

Guat. 1904, No.2, p. 195.

Maize.

Maize is evidently a permanent crop in the vicinity of San

Pedro Carcha and Coban. About San Pedro is an almost continuous

corn-field, and probably has been for many generations. The location

of such centers of population depends no doubt among primitive peoples

on the special productive power of the soil. It is doubtful if

these fields are burned about Carcha. They are all about the

houses which would make burning difficult, and are extensively

fenced to keep out cattle.

Guat. 1904, No.2, p.277.

CULTURAL POINTS TO BE NOTED IN THE FIELD.

Altitude. Nature of land used (forest. 1, 2, of 3 year) growth)

Nature of soil. Distribution and amount of rainfall. Date and
season of planting. Date and season of harvesting. Preparation
of the ground. How planted? i.e. hills, rows, level or elevated.

Distance. Number of kernels per hill. Number of stalks allowed
to stand. Is seed pure or mixed either accidentally or intentionally. Prevalence of drought or heavy rains during growing season.

Prevalence of high winds. Grown in connection with other crops?

Method of gathering? How stored? Purpose for which it is
particularly adapted. Enemies or diseases.

Corn-.

About Cajabon is a "black corn with slender dark purple stalks. Said to stand the rain better than other varieties and hence planted in rainy season.

Secanquim-Cajabon, 24, April 1904.

Guat. 1904, No.1. p. 119.

Zea.

The yield of corn about Secanquim is expected to be about 1 fanega (100 pounds) per cuerda about 1/9 of an acre. The yield of the variety grown on the lowland at Las Tanjas near Panzos is greater, and the corn a larger variety, according to Mr. Bird .

April 7, 1905. Sekacuite.

Guatemala, 1905. No. 1. p. 64.

If ear is formed by suppression of branches of tassel, the condition found in Zea ramosa must be taken as intermediate.... metaphanic variation, but this does not explain apparent absence of central spike. An embryonic abortion of the central spike that was to form the ear might result in forcing out of branches lower down, perhaps this might be brought to experimental proof.

Selection of corn for long seeds has limits in drying out capacity, unless special precautions for artificial drying are used. Peruvian corn suffers much in this way.

Making the rows very close maybe undesirable. Ears look better but drying out is likly to be hindered. The space element is not very important, in comparison with having the corn come through in good condition.

3ea may

The truth is that the white man's methods and the white man's variety of corn are alike unsuited to the southern conditions.



Milo bad crop, being discarded by careful farmers; stays in land. Injures subsequent crops. Chinese corn should be tested, judging from behavior at San Antonio.

Shiprock, 9-11,13, p. 20.

Bea many

Navajo one facter of greater efficiency in making more use of lower leaves, which do not function much in ordinary tall growing late varieties, where lower leaves die or are hidden below dense shade before the crop season is reached. Thus most of the assimulation of food materials for the crop must be done by upper leaves instead of by those near the ground, in ordinary tall kinds of corn. But the Navajo corn also has the upper leaves larger than in ordinary kinds and thus save samething in the building of one or two extra joints that bear only small leaves at the top of the stalk in ordinary kinds of corn.

Shiprock, 9-11-13, p. 20.

Ber Mays

Navajo corn with tassels apparently adapted for shedding pollen from dry period of time. Strong control axis with crowded flowers like hairy Mexican. Also tassels only partly exserted, probably protecting lower flowers through long period.

Ber mays

Leaves have band of smooth tissue at base covering the node. Corresponds to the pulvinus as specialized portion of leaf. Sometimes colored red when sheath is not.

Lines of chlorophyll from sheath proper disappear, when this zone is reached. Outer surface not ribbed, as on sheath above, but more strongly ribbed on the inside. Sometimes hairy?

Zea mays

_ vd

Special characters of Navajo corn. Very long central spike of tassel, (up to 47 cm.). Very long upper leaf. Very large broad leaves in proportion to size of plant and size of leaves maintained nearer to top of plant.

Variety must be considered as extremely efficient if production be considered in relation to size of plants, which is very low and compact and able to grow in very close formation. Suckers abundantly even when hills are only 2 feet apart in rows 4 feet apart.

All degrees of redness on sheath leaves, husks stalks and tassels Ear saved: Kernels dark red and cob earstalk very large. In one plant veins of pulvinus dark red but sheaths, stalks and tassels green. Plant stiff and rather tall. Only one sucker. Husks red at base. Such a feature might be useful as distructive varietal character. Endless diversity of stature foliage and ear characters shows that any number of distinct strains might be developed.

Another color peculiarity. Large band of deep red on outer margin of pulvinus not confined to veins. Midrib also tinged with red and husks pink. Rather tall single stalk plant, no suckers. Ear with only slight trace? of pericarp color. Aleurone much varied. (Ear saved. C. F. Collins measurements).

Reddist plants, with sheaths, midribs and husks dark red, seem to be inferior and infertile.

Greatest possible diversity in earliness or relative maturity at this date (Sept. 10). Many plants with all ears mature and husks, while next hills will have all the ears still green. Important to have uniformity in this respect in

and worm injuries which are much worse on the late maturing ear, though ripe ears are also suffering. Plants grow close and keep air moist.

One object to secure materials for testing inheritance of various characters, earliness, lateness, color texture, etc. not necessarily the same as in other types. Indications of dominant white Aleurone. Some ears with very little trace of blue, where many neighboring plants largely blue. 3 ca many (Chinese)

Apparently good crop at San Antonio. Many naked small ears on sucjers, some with tassels and some without. When grown close together like sorghum each stalk matures small ear. Yield must be considerable. For early cutting and shedding like sorghum might be useful crop in dry climate. Many plants still alive.

3ea mayo Corn (Indians)

Indio, Cal. insert p.46

Within a few years native culture of corn at Palm Springs and around Indio has been abandoned.

General paper on this subject desirable to open subject of utilization of native varieties already well adapted to special conditions in some parts of southwestern states. Corn grown in tropical America under much greater range of natural conditions. Indian corn culture of New Mexico and Arizona affords another striking illustration of wide range of adaptation possible for the corn plant. Illustrate adaptive characters by tropical cultures and examples of adaptation. System of culture of Indians should be outlined, and advantages in securing pollination, protection against wind etc.. especially in early stages of growth.

High efficiency of this type of corn to be recognized, in smaller size of vegetative parts in comparison with the ear. Also adaptation of adverse conditions, in that ears are formed even though plants are kept very small. Reduces transpiration and thus subject to less danger from drought. Competition of plants in early stages may mean greater tendency to fruitfulness as in cotton, and to earliness.

Bee many

Sacaton, Ariz. 10-4-13, p. 57

Planted by woman following the plow and dropping the corn in the furrow. Hence often one stalk in a place a foot or two apart. But now customary to plow all the land planted to corn. But also said to plant whole handfuls in hills. Mr. Hudson has noticed no red ears in Pima corn. Mostly white and yellow, sometimes dark dull blue.

Tassels very varied often 6 in exsertion, often more.

Often few branches (2-3) often many (10)12). Central spike
not so much enlarged as in Navajo and Hopi etc. Often not
much exceed branches. Well grown plants 5-8 ft. high, occasionally higher. Occasional plants with dull reddish
leaves and sheaths, but ears yellow and white.

Pimas do not clean their corn fields from weeds. Land is irrigated, plowed and planted, then harvested. Take only 40-45 days to make the crop. Most of the stalks do not sucker but when suckers do occur they are usually short and bear grain in the tassel or small terminal ear cultural tassel. Lack of sucking tendency perhaps most striking difference from the North American type. Slenderness of stalks, even at base of plant correlated with small size of ear also striking difference from northern types.

Corn (Pime)

Sacaton, Ariz. 10-4-13, p. 56

Rather slender narrow leaved type, taller than Hopi, etc. and with smaller ears, borne higher up. Hudson has noticed that it can be planted much deeper than eastern corn.

Deep planting may be secret of system of planting in July, to get away from high temperatures that seem to interfere with late planted corn in the East. Hence long mesocotyl to be expected in Pima corn as male.

Hudson considers Mexican June corn planted late as the best best corn for Sacaton. Pima corn has only small ears . much smaller than Hopi, Zuni and Navajo.

Hudson would like to get some of the small Brownsville corn with the long husks. Birds and worms the serious menace to corn here. Pima corn extensively eaten by birds. Eat it all up as in place seen at Sacaton.

Hudson anxious to undertake corn experiments to to any extra, practical problem to improve corn production in Indianlands in Gila Valley.

Example of metaphanic variation. Infloresences of both sexes branched.

Zea Mays (Cuzco)

"I have to report that the Cuzco corn did not mature any seed, in fact, did not silk. The plants grew very large and tall but did not tassel until the middle of September"

(Extract from letter from Miss Lulu Berry, R. 6, Vinton, Iowa, under date of December 8, 1917. Miss Berry's letter referred to "Cereal Investigation", December 17, 1917.

scabbed. It growes vpon cames or reedes; every one bears one or two mazorcas, to the which the graine is fastened, and although the graine be bigge, yet finde they great store thereof, so as in some mazorcas I have told seven hundred graines. They must plant it with the hand one by one, and not very think thicke; it requires a hote and moist ground, and growes in great aboundance in many places of the Indies. It is not strange in those countries to gether 300 Fanegas or measures for one sowen. There is difference of Mays as there is of wheat, one is great and very nourishing, another small and drie, which they call Moroche.* The

greene leaves and stalks of Mays is a good foode for their mules and horses, and it serves them for straw when it is dried; the graine is of more nourishment for horses then barley; and therefore, in those countries, they use to water their horses before they eate, for if they shoulds drinke after, they would swell as when they eat wheat. Mays is the Indians bread, the which they commonly este boiled in the graine hote, and they call it Moti,*

water. So antimes they eate it baked. There is some Mays round and bigge, as that of Lucanas, which the Spaniards eate roated as axislizians mast and a delicate meat, and it hath a better taste then toasted beans. There is another kinde of eating it more pleasant, which is, to grinde the Mays, and to make small cakes Hunt Institute for Botanical Documentation

^{*} Muruchu is "hard" in Quichua.

^{*}Mutti, boiled maize.

of the flower,, the which they put in the fire, and then bring them hote to the table. In some places they call them Arepas. They also make also round bowles of this paste, and so trimme them that they continue long, eating it as a dainty dish.

The Indians also make a certaine kinde of paste of this flour mixt with sugar, a kind of biscuits which they call melindres. . . . The Spaniards and Indians eate this Mays boyled and roasted for daintinesse, when it is tender in the grape like milke; they putte it into the pot, and make sauces that are good to eate. The buds of Mays are very fatte, and serve insteade of butter and cyle; so as this Mays at the Indies serves both for men and beasts, for bread, wine, and cile. For this reason the Vicercy Don Francisco de Toledo saide, that Peru hadde two things rich, and of great norishment, which were Mays, and the cattell of the countrey. In truth, he had reason, for these two things did serve them as a thousand.

I will aske sooner than I can answer it, whence Mays was first carried to the Indies, and why do they call this profitable graine in Italie, Turkie graine? for in trueth I do not finde that the Antients make any mention of this graine, though that millet (that Plinie writes to come from the Indies into Italie, tenne yeares before he didde write it) hath some resemblance anto Mays, for that it is a graine, as he saies, that growes in reede, and covers it selfewith the leafe, and hath the toppe like haires, being very fertile; all which things agree not with millet. To conclude, God hath imparted to ev'ry region what is needefull. To this continent he hath given wheate, which is the chiefe nourishment of man; and to the Indians he hath given Mays, which hath the second place to wheate, for the nourishment of men and beasts."

Zea mays (Quichua maize words) -2- SS Almirante, 8-27-15, p. 618.

in the Vilcanote Valley the water is salty. Also in the lower valleys as at Ollantaytambo the water is not considered good and the use of chicha is considered desirable on this account. Might easily precipitate undesirable compounds from the water.

A few cornfields along river below Guayaquil, and more on hillsides behind the city.

com is raised - cold lacific cont of fulle for cold to be lands

The vocabulary of a plant shows in general how important the plant is, the estimation in which it is held, or the uses to which it is put. The more people handle it and the more things they do with it the more names are likely to be developed. Some words ought to be included in maize vocabulary that are also applied to other plants, such as choose. May have been chiefly maize at first, if corn were cultivated before the Andean root crops were undertaken. Ricardo says chucjcha for the corn silks, parhuay? for the tassels. From his point of view the use of chicha has relation to the nature of the water supply. Also the supply of maize. Very little chicha used at his native place Santa Rosa.

Water considered good there with many springs of fresh water. But

Here Payne suggests that "the herdsmen of the Collao" may have derived their first supplies of maize "from the tribes to the east, and that they founded colonies in the eastern valleys in order to grow maize. Payne has two centers of maize - culture in Central America and Paraguay. Reports also p. 361 tradition of introduction of maize among Indians "southward of Quito". In the language of the Muyscas of New Granada maize was known by its Guarani name (aba). Considered as indication of drivation from tribes who had migrated northward. Payne would connect all the maize-growing regions of South America into one group with its center in Paraguay. But why Paraguay? No center of domestication there?

Predominance of cassava and other root-crops in West
Indies would indicate that maize followed instead of preceding in
that quarter. Traditions of coming if maize general in northern
Mexico would be against origin there or in adjacent region.
Enormously developed Peruvian vocabulary and primitive methods of
using may be taken as indication of long possession if not of
fundamental character for Peruvian agriculture. Important to trace
Peruvian maize vocabulary further south. Potato claimed to be of
southern origin. This also important to verify. Payne (History
1:356) takes it as absolutely proven that maize came from Mexico.
Payne refers to tradition of introduction of maize among the Mayas.
Also refers p. (358) to "tunicated maize of Paraguay" Also p. 360.

Maize (Losta, Hist. Inds., 1:228 et seq.)

"... and forasmuch as plants were chiefly created for the nourishment of man, and that the chiefe (whereof he takes his nourishment) is bread, it shall be good to shew what bread the Indians vse, and whereon they live for want thereof. They have, as we have heere, a proper name, whereby they note and significe bread, which at Peru they call tanta, * and in other places by antitanta is the Quichus for bread.

other name. But the qualitie and substance of the bread the Indians was differs much from ours; for we finde not that they had any kinds of wheat or barly, nor any other kinds of grain which they ase in Europe to make bread withall; insteade whereof they vsed other kindes of grains and rootes, amanut amongst the which Mays holds the first place, and with reason. In Castile they call it Indian wheat, and in Italia they call it Turkey grains. And even as wheat is the most common graine for the vse of man in the regions of the old world, which are Europe, Asia, Affrike, so, in the new found worlde, the most common graine is Mays, the whoch is found almost in all the kingdomes of the West Indies, as at Peru, New Spaine, in the new kingdome of Granada, in Gautimals, in Chile, and in the Tierra Firme. I do not finde that in old time, in the Ilands of Barlovente, as Cuba, Santo Domingo, Iamaica, and S. Juan, [Puerto Rico] that they vsed Mays. Now they use more the Yuca and Casavi, whereof we will presently intreate. I do not thinkethat this Mays is any thing inferiour to our wheat in strength nor substance, but it is more hote and grosse, and engenders more bloud, whereupon they that have not bin accustomed

Zea Mays (names) Venezuela.

Conuco in Venezuela - chacra. Chicura in Venezuela - pointed stick used in planting corn or cotton. Zea Mey

Mesa, Ariz. Oct. 7-13, p.59

Midsummer and later plants of Pima corn at Sacaton gives roasting ears in 40 or 45 days from seed. Earlier plantings take more time. Late plantings now about 1 ft. high. Expected to tive roasting ears in two or three weeks.

Marshall says tassels earlier than Sta Ana and Sta Rosa corn. Ears mildew in the fall after weather is cold.

Introduction to Peruvian corn paper note maize and potatoes the most important acquisitions to human welfare resulting from discovery of America, but not fully appreciated or utilized as yet. Not sure that we have best varieties or use them the right way. Maize used in tropical American countries in ways unknown to us, and raised under wider range of natural conditions for tropical lowlands and arctic table lands.

Cuzco corn represents another distinct type as different from other corns as they are from each other. Not flint, dent, sweet or popcorn. More like some of the corn cultivated by the Indians but not adopted by us - Tuscaroras? Grown instead of sweet corn. Is Colden Bantam a sweet or a starch corn? But Cuzco is of very soft texture of a mealy starch. Use as a vegetable not as a cereal in our sense. We consider maize as a substitute for Old World cereals. Cuzco still less like these, except in being more like wheat in being starchy.

Compare kernals of Cuzco with some recognized variety perhaps same as in Geographic Magazine - size, weight, specific
gravity, texture softest of starch corns? Easily crushed by the
teeth. Not so hard as a dry chestnut, and of pleasant flavor.
Better than Spanish or Japanese chestnuts? Large kernals mean
less waste in pericarp. Texture of pericarp less firm, so that
causes no difficulty in eating. Represents another vegetable,
but one that can be kept dry. Might be compared with lima
beans, but liable to prove more generally acceptable, if found
possible to grow it.

Specialization of leaves of pistillate inflorescence shared with teosinte, but teosinte not specialized to same extent. In florescences not monoecious, though the flowers are. How is this condition described? Perhaps photos of teosinte should be introduced to show how distinct corn is.

Refer to Zea tumeata as supposed primitive type, but probably abnormal. Not well adapted to servive - certainly not in moist climate. Parallel case? in <u>Triteum polenicum</u>. Teosinte much more branched. Branches not shortened, that is the primary, but the secondary? What is branching habit of teosinte?

Santa hose Peru has large heavy ears, with rather deep kernels. Second generation planting has most of the plants very large, but bearing one or two ears. The number of leaves is too large to be considered as normal and the plants are probably abnormal in size, but their behavior appears better than the Cuzco type, at least in the present year which is considered abnormally warm.

With such examples as the above in mind it does not appear that the problem of acclimatization is essentially different from cotton, some types being much better adapted than others, and some altogether refractory. The behavior of hybrids also appears essentially similar, with the possible exception of the lint characters which show more deterioration in the later generations, whereas in corn the seed characters are mostly considered.

Tepic corn from Mexico has very large seeds, next largest to Cuzco. Also a soft starchy corn. But ears much larger than Cuzco. In fact Cuzco produced only very small abnormal ears in season of 1917.

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Maize (China).

J. Gonzales de Mendoza's History of the Great and Mighty Kingdon of China.

An English version was published in 1853 by the Hakluyt Society.

Mendoza, an Augustine monk, had himself never been in China. He
depends mainly upon the accounts furnished by Martin de Herrada,
a monk of the same order, who had been taken, in 1575, by a

Spanish ship from Manila to the Chinese port of Ts'uan chou fu
(prov.of Fu kien), where he was allowed to spend three months.

The vegetable productions observed there by him were Chestnuts,
large Melons, a kind of plum called leechias (Nephelium Litchi)
of an excellent gallant taste. Of cereals cultivated there he
notices, besides Wheat, Barley, Millet, "the plant called Maize,
which constitutes the principal food of the Indians in Mexico".

This latter statement, made at so early a date, has a peculiar
interest for us, for Maize is not indigenous to China and has
been introduced to that country since the discovery of America.

Tea (China).

Joannis Petri Maffei. Bergamatis, e Soc. Jesu, Historiarum Indicarum Libri XVI. 1589. Florentiae.

#

Caeterum ex herba quadam expressus liquor admodum salutaris, nomine <u>Chia</u> calidus hauritur, ut apud Japonios: cujus maxime beneficio, pituitam, gravedinem, lippitudinem nesciunt; vitamque bene longam, sine ullo terme languore traducunt". Here we find, it

seems, the earliest mention made by European writers of Tea Hunt Institute for Botanical Documentation (Cha in Chinese).

Trigault. De Christiana Expeditione apud Sinas suscepta ab Soc. Jesu. Ex P. Matthaei Micci commentariis. 1615.

#

There is in China a shrub the leaves of which are boiled into a famous beverage much used by the Chinese, Japanese and other nations conterminous to China. They call it <u>Gia</u>. Its use among the Chinese does not seem to be of very old date; for in their most ancient books no hieroglyphic character is found to designate the cia. The leaves are gathered in spring and dried in the shade. They drink this decoction almost continually. (Tea. Compare above Maffeus).

History of European Botanical Discoveries in China. Eretschneider. Vol. 1. 1898. p. 10.

ones. The leaves are about a foot and a half broad and four feet long among the leaves there arises a stem producing a hundred or more small plantains, or twenty-five or upwards of large ones. This is a tender tree; it does not yield fruit more than once, and requires a year; from the roots other plants shoot up; if the fruit is ripe they pluck it, but if not they cut the tree down, and by putting it into a hot place the fruit soon ripens and becomes yellow; the s in is t ick as the blade of a knife, the rest is all pulp; in flavor they incline to sweet

Benzoni, New world, Hakluyt, p. 86-88. 1565.

The growing season of corn comes as we all know during our warm summer months, when as a result of our longer days the air and the soil even in our states, become more heated than in the tropics themselves, and more continuously. There may be intervals of coel weather of course, but during these the corn makes little or no growth. and if the temperature goes too low the plants are killed. It may be that some varieties can stand more cold than others, but of this we have not begun to take account. The all-important practical point is that the corn shell take the fullest possible advantage of the heat and bring its crop to maturity as early as possible or within the period set by our short summer of the norther states. In the south the requirements are very different and altogether more like the tropical lowlands. Earliness is still desirable, of course, but there is no such acute necessity as in the north, and the intervals of cold which may be of use to a variety of corn bred for centuries in the arid elevated regions of Mexico may be altogether lacking so that the plants may suffer from the tropical decline of many of our temperate species.

Guatemala, 1905. No. 3. p. 398.

Zea mays

Mr. Knowles states that sweet corn in La Paz has very fine flavor.

Maize.

Corn fields killed by slight frost that did not injure potatoes or habas, in the valley above Sicuani.

Zea

Killing of corn-fields by frosts that do not injure the potatoes or the habas marks this crop as being of tropical or subtropical origin and as definitely limited to localities that have a warm season long enough to mature the seed. The valley above Sicuani, about half way to Aguas Calientes marked the limit of corn cultivation in this district. Corn fields now dead that were slive and fresh a few days ago.

Zea mays

Perhaps worth while to publish a collection of Quichua maize words, showing nature of their acquaintance with the plant. Better to arrange them alphabetically for ease of reference.

Zea

Excellent corn fields at all stages of development between Callao and Lima. Willows pollerded only common tree along roads and fields.

Zes MANS

Corn at all stages about Lina, as in March.

SS Limari, 8-23-15, p. 606.

Zea mays

Cob called coronta at Lima, marlo and maslo not known.

Agriophyllum gobicum. (Cereal) (China)

Agriophyllum gobicum, Bunge. This salsolaceous plant, called sulkher by the Mongols, is of great importance to the inhabitants of Ala shan and may be called, without exaggeration "the gift of the desert". It occurs also in Ordos, in the eastern part of the Central Gobi and in Tsaidam, but is nowhere cultivated. It is an annual prickly saline plant, which grows on the bare sand, generally near the borders of sandy wastes devoid of vegetation. It has very long roots, attains a height of 2, rarely 3 f., blossoms in August and in September produces small seeds yielding an agreeable and nutritious food. The crop of sulkher is best after a rainy summer. In a drought it withers and then the Mongols of Ala shan fare badly the whole year round. To obtain the seeds the Mongols gather the plant and thrash it on the bare clay, patches of which often occur in the midst of the sands. The seeds are first roasted over a slow fire, then pounded in a mortar, when they produce a very palatable flour, which is boiled in tea. The sulkher plant serves as excellent food for domestic animals: horses, camels and sheep are all very fond of it. The numerous sand grouse (Syrrhaptes), which in winter pass from the north to Ala shan, feed upon the sulkher. Prz.I, 157,373; III, 441,442 (the plant figured); IV. 364. The traveller sent seeds to the Bot. Garden St. Petersburg. They germinated, the plant formed leaves, but then withered.

History of European Botanical Discoveries in China. Bretschneider.

Potentilla. (Root crop).

Potentilla anserina, Lin. is a common plant in the mountains of Kan su and on the Upper Huang ho where it is called djuma and supplies edible tubers, which are dug up by the Chinese and Tanguts in autumn and spring. These tubers are washed, dried, and then boiled in water, and eaten with butter, salt or rice. They taste something like beans or young potatoes. Przewalski and his travelling companions found the djuma very palatable. The blind rats (Siphneus) and the ear-pheasant (Crossoptilon auritum) feed on these tubers. Frz. I, 234, III, 344,362.

History of European Botanical Discoveries in China. Bretschneider. Vol. 2, 1898, p. 991.

Stachys tuberifera. (Root crop) (China)

There is a species of Stachys much cultivated in M. China. and especially near Peking for its small edible tubers, which the Chinese call kan lu. After having in vain attempted to introduce this useful vegetable into cultivation in Europe - the tender tubers always got rotten during the voyage through the tropics - I finally succeeded, in 1882, in transmitting to the Societe d'acclim., laris, a package of these tubers, among which 5 or 6 seemed to show vitality. Mr. A. Paillieux, the energetic Vice-President of the Society then took up the cultivation of this interest. ing plant, and in the spring of 1882 first planted the surviving tubers in the garden of his estate "Crosnes" near Villeneuve St. Georges. He was successful, and a number of tubers have been produced, he transplanted them in 1883, when each plant again yielded 300 tubers. After this unexpected success, Paillieux began to grow the plant on a large scale, and a few years later provided the Paris market with these relishable tubers, which he made known under the name of "Crosnes". Their culture is of the easiest, the plant growing without much attention and being very prolific. It was soon found to be a real acquisition as a vegetable, and is now extensively grown, not only in France. but also in England, Germany, North America.

The tubers, consisting of nodes marked by buds or eyes, are borne at the ends of underground branches or stolons, exactly as in the potato. In their appearance they resemble somewhat a turbinated small shell. The cultivated paant very seldom produces flowers. The original wild plant, which is common near Peking

and flowers, never produces tubers.

The tubers of St. tuberifera are highly nutritious. They contain 8 times as much nitrogen as a potato of the same weight, and a large quantity of a corbohydrate called Galactan, which is more digestible than starch, being allied to dextrin (Gard. & For. 1897, 70).

History of European Botanical Discoveries in China. Bretschneider. Vol. 2, 1898, p. 1059.

Sage. (China and Japan).

I may observe that in Valmont de Bomare's "Dictionaire d'Hist.nat.", 1791, article 'Sauge', a curious statement referring to the Dutch Tea trade is found. We read there (source of information not given) that our common sage (Salvia officinalis) is highly valued by the Chinese and Japanese and that the Dutch use (or used) to gather this plant in South Europe and take it to the Chinese, accepting in return the Chinese Tea. For one chest of sage they received from two to three chests of Green Tea. I have in vain tried to find a corroboration for this statement elsewhere.

History of European Botanical Discoveries in China. Bretschneider. Vol. 1. 1898. p. 25

maire (Celabes) The To ala wood men live in cases in which are frequent in in which the wild and freet. covered mountains of amontjong are wich, plant a little maige, are monogamons, do not lie, can count only one, etc. local rajah, to who detained some members of the considers tribe for his inspection. Considers very primitive savages-Sarasin, Pr 7. "New Revie in

See planting of margin anny toffer trube - Ea printing tribe about the while and the street of the continue to What was the engine of the maige?]

Tientsins.

Wine.

"Since I have treated of the making of bread, I ought also to descirbe their making of wine, especially that from making.

The molandaie, taking a quantity of grain that seems to them sufficient for the wine (or chichia) intended to be made, and having ground it, they put it into water in some large jars, and the women who are charged with the operation, taking a little of the grain, and having remarred it somewhat tender in a pipkin, hand it over to some other women, whose office it is to put it into their mouths and gradually chew it; then with an effort they almost cough it out upon a leaf or platter and throw it into the vase with the other mixture, for otherwise this wine, or rather this beverage, would have no strength. It is then b i boiled for three or four hours, after which it is taken off the fire and left togotok, when it is poured through a cloth, and is esteemed good in proportion as it intoxicates, in the same way as if people drank real wine.

They also make wines of other kinds, of honey, of fruits, and of roots, but these do not intoxicate as the first does. They shev a great many plants that produce a sert of wild grapes, and their berries are like the slo es that grow among thorns, with black skins; but from the stone being large and surrounded by pulp, they do not make wine of them. There are a me trees that produce olives, but smelling horribly and tasting worse. And they have other fruits in abundance, such as hour, olantains, pines, guarave (guavas), mamei (mammee apples), and guanavana (sour-sops); the hour are like (Canary) plums, with a large stone and little fruit; when ripe they are yellow. Its tree is large, the leaves small and taste a cid. The plantain is a fruit much longer than it is broad, and the little ones (bananas) are much better than the lage

Planted March 10. On June 8 no sign of tassels, but other corns had all bloomed. Tassels not developed on June 30; many others dead. On July 18 tassels emerging; still coming July 31.
All still alive, but now suffering badly from drought. This is No.
M13. M9 produced tassels a littler earlier. Other types of corn mostly dead. All living forms inferior in drought-resistance.

South difference in shell to stand up Some volutions all file down Benton he note. 19465. Zea mays, 10-ozs.of red corn.

Specimen seeds of each of the above sent Merbarium.

In the same shipment were received in addition to the above, 3 lots of Richms sp., 5 worm-eaten seeds and specimen of rubber labeled "Yebe del Ucayaly, Loreto, Peru"; a few worm-eaten seeds of "Saplum verum"; 6-ozs.of dead Cacae seeds; and 5-ozs.of dead coffee herries. The seeds were sent to the Seed Herbarium and the specimen of rubber placed in the specimen file.

19457 to 19465.



From Moyobomba, Peru. Received thru Er. Serafin Filomeno, Moyember 12, 1906, by mail.

19457. (Undetermined) Rubber.

"Mazaranduba, cultivated rubber" 25 seeds.

19458. (Undetermined). Rubber.

"Monisoba, cultivated rubber". 43 seeds.

19459. (Undetermined). Hubber.

"Yebs de Caballo Cocha, from Loreto". 6 seeds. Loe specimen file for specimen of rubber made from this plant.

19460. (Undetermined).

lubber.

"Yebe de Balsapuerto".

6 seeds.

Specimen of rubber on file in specimen file.

19461. (Undetermined).

Rubber.

"Locke Caspi. Wild rubber discovered by S.Filemeno". 60 smell seeds.

19462. (Undetermined).

Disham.

"Guta Moyohombi, not very abundant in resin; discovered by S.Pilomena". 60 small seeds.

19463. Cossypium sp.

Conton.

Brown fibered cotton. 6-oxs.seed. Specimen of fiber sent Dr. Webber.

19464. Gossypium sp.,

Cotton.

White fibered actton. 6-eds.seed. Specimen of fiber sent Dr. Webber.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,

Or-W

OFFICE OF SEED AND PLANT INTRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

PORDISM EXPLORATIONS.

Washington, D. C.,

December 19, 1906.

Mr. O. F. Cook,

Bionomic Investigations.

Department of Agriculture.

Dear Mr. Cook:

I am sending you herewith a copy of our inventory cards for Nos. 19457 to 19465, rubber, cotton and corn seeds from Peru.

If you desire any of these seeds for your experiments, we will be glad to place them in your hands. I can send you samples if you desire to see them. I would also be glad to show you the specimen of rubber which we have on file here.

Very truly yours,

Agricultural Explorer in Charge of Foreign Explorations.

B c.

Ethnology.

Eduarbitaceae. Look up use of seeds of melon and other cucurbits among Indians and Chinese. Were these plants not first domesticated as cereals? Cf. Chinese seed melons with African kiffic seed. Are there American cucurbits grown only for seed? Candy made of squash(?) seed in Guatemala.

One of the factors is the weariness of life that appears in all highly developed civilizations. Life becomes so complicated - makes so many demands, and yet leaves so few opportunities of conscious enjoyment of life or exercise of normal instincts that people tend to break away and follow one or another of the lines that seem to lead back to a simpler and more satisfying existence. Hence the rural tendency is found in its most scute form in the largest centers of population—the very citadel of civilization is anxious to escape back to the rural state of its fathers or grandfathers.

Higher Education in The Frofice. an unsolved problem. need of education in the field sent to Europe or U.S. & menty exotic growth and out of sympathy with home conditions and limitations of twhile with but daugh of the oppor but under adring ciroumstances the usuall or poor equipment of facilities and instructors institutions of Froprice countries fortune little of promise either to the individual or to the community.

Political askeds of education in Political or other countries which it is desired to culture assimilate to higher standards of culture and government.

Maise. Trus Prespo?

That Turkish corn has come to us Europeans from America is without doubt; at the same time the Asiatic offshoot of this plant has been noticed quite recently (by Bonafous), and Siebold mentions the picture of Maize kernels on certain primeval Japanese emblems or coats-of-arms, while Aug. de St. Hilaire thinks that the variety which ripens in 40 days, which was cultivated in the Missions of Paraguay, the fatherland of the Guaranis, was there endemic.

Martius, Erhnographie und Sprachenkunde Amerikas, Vol.1, p.19 (?)

mary

CORN.

A very slender variety with dark purple feliage was planted by the Indians in times of scarcity because it will grew quicker than other sorts in rainy seasons when other varieties will produce little or nothing. It can hardly be inferred, however, that the dark color of this variety has anything to de with its adaptation to the rainy season, for Frefessor Pittier finds that in Mexico the corn varieties of the dry uplands also have purple foliage.

