



MUSEO DE ARTE PRECOLOMBINO
Felipe **ORLANDO**





THE BENALMÁDENA MUSEUM

The Benalmádena Museum came about through an agreement between Benalmadena Town Council, who's Mayor was Mr. Enrique Bolín Pérez-Argemí, and Mr. Felipe Orlando García-Murciano, who was the owner of a collection of Pre-Columbian artefacts.

It was inaugurated on the 5th of May, 1970. A Ministerial Order allowed the museum to collect, keep and exhibit the objects found in the archaeological excavations carried out in the municipality, up until then it had been compulsory to deposit them in the Provincial Museum.

The constituent collection comprised of 130 Pre-Columbian pieces donated by Felipe Orlando, the Pre-Columbian Collection has been enlarged over the years to 700 objects from Mexico, Nicaragua, Ecuador, Costa Rica and Peru, though Town Council acquisitions as well as donations and lending still taking place today.

The Archaeological Collection, without a quantified number of pieces, was acquired from M. Jiménez Gómez, E. García Herrera and B. Fernández Canivell, and complemented with objects from the municipality archaeological excavation sites and other donations to approximately 300 pieces of Hispanic archaeology, which thanks to the continuing excavations is still growing in number.

MIDDLE AMERICA

In America there were **two core civilising areas: Middle America** or ancient Mexico and **the central Andes** or ancient Peru. In both areas the farming was developed and the populations became sedentary. Some hamlets became cities which were the political and religious centres of their areas, in which the trade was very intense. Some were more important than others and dominated large areas. They were urban societies with monumental architecture, structured in states with social classes with farming and ritual calendars. They were people of cultures with their own languages and customs, but all of them shared the same calendar, the same religious principles and similar social and political structures.

Between ancient Mexico and Peru there was the so called Intermediate Area, whose cultures were not ruled by a single civilisation principle, but were more or less influenced by the closest core civilisations. They were sophisticated farming cultures with more or less powerful caciques, but they were not urban states. There were three distinct sub-areas: Low Central America, the Northern Andes and the Caribbean.



North America, the Amazon area and the southern cone of South America were very sparsely populated areas of tribes and bands, sometimes nomadic, with elemental farming or just hunting and collecting.

MESOAMERICA. ANCIENT MEXICO

In **Middle America** corn crops were developed, and quickly expanded to South America. The corn was the base of the diet, as were beans, kidney beans and pumpkin. Other important foods were peppers and avocados. Some foods, such as tomatoes and cacao, were considered finer and reserved only for the elite. The cacao beans were used as coins.

Around the year 2500 B.C. started the **Pre-Classical period**. In this period the first permanent settlements with stable farming were set up. By the year 1,200 some hydraulic works were introduced in order to improve the crops.

The religious and political bases of Middle America were setup by the Olmec culture whose centre was located on the South coast of the Gulf of Mexico.

Under their influence and from the year 900 B.C., several small city states are developed, all of them with a ceremonial centre occupying a large area. The burials in Central Mexico are increasingly rich and small feminine figures of fertility are often found. Western Mexico, trading with Central and South America developed its own characteristics.

In the **Classical period** (200 – 900 A.D.), the great city of Teotihuacan dominated politically and commercially Middle America until its downfall in the year 600 A.D. The Mayan city states were in their heyday. This was a prosperous period which will be remembered in later chronicles. Places, big plazas, ball game playing fields, monumental temples with big stepped structures and, at the top, the deity worshipping place.

Through several centuries, successive invasions from Northern nomadic peoples destroyed the cities. The Mayan kingdoms collapsed due to causes still largely unknown. At the end of the **Post-Classical period** (900 – 1500 A.D.) a nomadic people, the Mexicans or Aztecs, settled down on the shores of a lake, nowadays dry, and founded the city of Tenochtitlan, today Mexico City, which grew until it dominated all surrounding cities creating the Aztec Empire.



THE PRETTY LADIES OF THE PRE-CLASSICAL PERIOD

In the Pre-Classical period, the Olmecs from the coast of the Gulf of Mexico started the Middle American civilisation. Their influence reached the hamlets of the central Mexican high plateau which were enriched by the trade and the new farming techniques making the population grow.

The tradition of rich burials started with offerings of figurines of all kind of characters (shamans, ball players, acrobats...) and various vases, some in the shape of people or animals.

Tlatilco (1500 to 500 B.C.), in the centre of Mexico was the main focus, followed by Chupícuaro (500 B.C. to 200 A.D.), in Western Mexico which developed its own style within the same cultural tradition.

The female figurines stand out, they are representations of naked women with wide hips and marked with secondary sexual attributes, with a more or less bulged abdomen and always with elaborated hair styles and dresses and numerous decorations which were probably painted.

The simplification of the shapes contrasts with the detail used in some of the elements which should characterise the figurine, such as the hair dressing and style, the necklaces and the adornments on the legs and arms. The volumes usually are schematic and delicate.

On some figures we can see the intentional cranial deformity, possible scaring or tattoos or even the mutilation of teeth, something characteristic of the coast of the Gulf.

Full of grace and beauty, and each one different from the rest, they are known as the pretty ladies and they usually associated to fertility.

The tradition of the figurines started around the year 1500 and lasted until the Spanish conquest. The first figurines were solid, individually moulded and the adornments carefully set with clay tablets and punch designs.

Over the years, by the end of the Pre-Classical period they started making figurines of larger sizes, which could not be solid to avoid cracking during the firing process. This was the beginning of hollow figurines and the sculptural vases.



However the production of small and medium figurines continued throughout Middle America until the end. These figurines were mainly solid and some had a whistle incorporated into them.

Sometimes deities from the Aztec times are recognizable, because they did not change much over the centuries. Others seem to represent people of a high status or their companions. They could serve as offerings in sanctuaries or form part of the burial objects.

BURIAL OBJECTS FROM THE WESTERN MEXICO TOMBS

Around the year 1500 B.C. along the Pacific Ocean coast, the Western Mexican peoples started to develop, particularly in the present states of Colima, Nayarit, Jalisco, and Guerrero, each one of them with their own characteristic features.

They were peculiar cultures, because throughout their history they were dedicated to an intensive trade with the people from South America, connecting both worlds. Probably they were who introduced corn to South America and we know they brought the use of metal from Peru to Mexico, first gold and silver and in Aztec times, bronze. So, until the year 600 A.D. they hardly followed the Middle American civilisation patterns. In the last pre-Hispanic centuries they formed the Tarasco kingdom which maintained its independency from the Aztecs.

Something characteristic about them were their tombs, similar to the ones found in the Northern Andes, they had a long chimney which ended up in a lateral chamber where the bodies and their offerings rested. The burial objects were rich and used to include numerous sculptural vases and figures which could represent scenes from the daily ritual life.

The silent dog, bred to eat and provide warmth, was also the dead person's companion in their journey to the sub-world.

MUSIC AND INSTRUMENTS

Some of the most frequent ceramic instruments of all America were the ocarinas and the whistles of varied shapes: Animals, plants, humans or even musical instruments. The birds are the most common. There have also been found ceramic flutes.

The whistling vases (they have a whistle incorporated into them so they whistle when the fluid moves) are characteristic of ancient Peru and Ecuador. The peoples of Western Mexico introduced them into Middle America, although they



were rare in this area. In ancient Mexico vases with rattling legs are common, associated to the god of rain and thunder. Bracelets for the wrists and ankles and other adornments sometimes had little rattles and bells which could join in with the musical instruments.

Stringed instruments were unknown to them, so percussion was very important: Different kinds of rattles (associated to the shamans and the rain) and drums. The flutes, simple and composed ones were also very important.

In ancient Mexico, and especially in the West, acrobats, musicians and dancers plays were very popular.

THE HEIGHT OF THE CLASSICAL PERIOD

The Classical period (200 to 900) was the height of the Middle American civilisation and it was remembered as a mythical golden age which others tried to imitate afterwards. These are the years of the big city states and kingdoms, dominated and influenced by the powerful city of Teotihuacan, close to where the current Mexican capital city is now. This was the best time for the Mayan culture.

Farming techniques improved and the population grew. The trade and manufacturing developed. The Middle American calendar became consolidated as well as the hieroglyphic writing on which the ritual calendars, the most powerful kings and the most significant historical events were written.

The main deities, which in each culture had different names, characteristics and local invocations, were now common amongst the Middle American peoples and continued being so, with few variants, until the Aztec times and later the Spanish conquest. There are still present numerous features of the ancient cult today.

THE GULF OF MEXICO

The coast of the Gulf of Mexico was the home to the Remojadas culture and later El Tajin (600 to 900), which are renowned for their temples and the art associated with the ritual ball game. This game, which was known a long time ago, represents the journey of the sun through the sky symbolising the cycle of death, harvest, birth and life which needs death to access a new life.

The figures, male and female, usually represent deities and characters. Sometimes they show cranial deformation, sanded down teeth and some exhibit the characteristic smile that can only be seen in this area. From here it is also characteristic the use of tar, which has maintained indelible on the painted decorations.



THE POST-CLASSICAL PERIOD AND THE AZTECS

Throughout the Post-Classical period (900 to 1500) several invasions of the Barbarian from the North destroyed the cities and became integrated into the Middle American civilisation. From the year 900 to the year 1,200 the cities rivalled for the hegemony: Cholula, producer of notable polychromatic ceramics which were fashionable throughout the whole period and Tule which maintained dominance throughout the first centuries.

From 1300 the Aztecs, who had settled in what is now the centre of Mexico capital city, started expanding to the nearby cities, today districts of the vast city. At the time of the Spanish conquest they dominated a large part of Middle America, although the Tarasco Empire on the West and the nearby Tlaxcala remained independent.

BELIEFS

The Aztecs accepted the ancient Middle American deities and introduced some modifications. Their representations can be seen on the *fusayolas* or small thread counterweights when the thread twists and on the ends of the spindles. We can also see them in the stamps used for decoration even of the body.

The gods are represented through their hieroglyphic symbols acting as attributes which could be different according to what they wanted to express about the deity and depending on the god's complexity.

WEAPONS

The blades of knives and the heads of arrows and spears were made of obsidian; a volcanic stone from which they could make sharp points and edges.

They used to carve small blades from a core and embed them into wooden handles. This stone was an important trading item.



INTERMEDIATE AREA

After a long period of highly conservative small farming hamlets, the introduction of Mexican corn around the year 300 B.C. allowed an increase of the population and the emerging of small ceremonial centres which over the time grew up as they kept a stable trade with Middle America. Between the years 500 and 800 A.D. the influence of the ancient Mexican cultures was increasingly stronger, starting the tradition of polychromatic ceramics, the caciques grew in power and the society became hierarchical.

Around the year 900 A.D. the Chorotegas who came from Mexico, settled down on the Pacific coast of Nicaragua and in the Northeast of Costa Rica. Around the year 1200 the Nicaraos also settled in the same area. These Middle American people had a language which was a variant of the language spoken by the Aztecs. This was the best period for the area with a nearly urban complex society. Their rituals and religion were similar to those of the Middle Americans.

On the high plateau of Costa Rica lived the Huetares. Like the inhabitants of the Diquis Delta of Costa Rica, they were descendents of the oldest inhabitants their languages were related to the peoples of the North of South America. They were organised in chieftaincies with powerful caciques

In the centre and South of Costa Rica lived peoples of South American cultural tradition but with strong influences from Middle America. In final years the population grew thanks to the introduction of new farming techniques from their neighbours and tropical climate crops. There were powerful chieftaincies and caciques that used large quantities of ritual and funerary ceramics, sophisticated grinding stones, ceremonial tables and sculptures of warriors with trophy heads.

They extracted native gold from the rivers and made disc shaped golden pendants, shamans with crocodile, eagles with their wings open (related to the creation and power), and frogs (associated with fertility) masks.



NORTH ANDES (COLOMBIA AND ECUADOR)

In America the stockbreeding was of a secondary importance, as the continent lacked domesticable animals like the bovines, goats and sheep that the Old World had. They bred turkeys and dogs for food.

The copal burners are frequent. Copal is a fragrant resin used in religious and profane rituals. The burner comprised of a cup with a lid. Associated with the crocodile, usually they had a caiman at the end and spiky protuberances symbolising this reptile's scales. They were not painted, perhaps to better represent the skin of the crocodile's skin.

The Nicaraos introduced around the year 1200 Middle American motives such as the god Quetzalcóatl "the Feathered Serpent", the jaguar related to the Lord of the Night, the earth, fertility, and the chieftain's, the sorcerer's and the priest's power.

The Chorotega's decoration of the vases was a variant of the Mayan vases. From the year 900 it was frequent to find a schematic profile of a character with a big plume or his weapons: Arrows and shield.

The Chorotegas and the Nicaraos were Mexican peoples that settled on the coastal areas of the Pacific Ocean of Nicaragua and the Northeast of Costa Rica, in the Nicoya Peninsula.

They possessed advanced farming techniques; they were fishermen, sailors and possibly coastal traders who introduced their ceramics into the very centre of Mexico. They were structured around powerful chieftaincies which in the last period must have been large confederations of tribes or kingdoms.

The population growth and the economical prosperity made the ceramic production grow as well. The ceramic was usually used for burial objects, which depending on the deceased person could be delicate vases or more simple and schematic mass-produced ceramic, although holding in both cases polychromatic decorations. The three-legged vases were important, usually with rattles, with an emerging head of a jaguar or of other animals that must have been associated to the god of rain.



Decorations with stepped motives were common, related throughout America to the temple, overlaying platforms to eventually form the shape of a pyramid. There were other decorative motives: Arrows that must have been associated to the chief and the warriors; crocodiles related to the earth and the inland water and also related to the fertility; schematic feathers, highly valued in their society, used by warriors and other important people and an important trading item.

At the beginning, some coastal shell fishing and fishing hamlets lived in stable settlements and they had knowledge of ceramic making. The introduction of corn around the year 2800 B.C. allowed the hamlets to grow and some started having ceremonial monticules. From this Formative period (4000 – 500 B.C.) in the Ecuadorian coast the South coast of Colombia the trade with Western Mexico and the Pacific coast of Central America on the North and with coastal ancient Peru and The Andes on the South started. They traded *Spondylus princeps*, a red and pearly shell of the tropical seas used in ancient Peru for rituals and embellishment.

During the period of Regional Development or Sub-Andean the coastal estates became specialised in trading with a specific area of Middle America. This allowed each estate to produce objects with highly characteristic local shapes. They adopted the gold and silversmithing techniques from ancient Peru and introduced them into ancient Mexico. Later they started using copper and bronze. The main cultures were Tumaco-La Tolita from the coast of Ecuador and Colombia, Jama-Coaque, Bahía and Guangala from the coast of Ecuador and San Agustín, Quimbaya and Calima from Colombian inland.

In the last period of Regional Integration or Confederations (700 to 1550) the coastal estates became cities and, apart from Tumaco-la Tolita, they formed a league under the rule of the Manteño. The Andean caciques created confederations possibly at a national level. Along with these complex societies, some small estates and unknown tribes survived. Around the year 1475 the Incas conquered the Cañaris people's confederation and some other peoples from the Ecuadorian Andes.

The Valdivia figurines are some of the oldest ceramics of America (3200 to 1800 B.C.). Although ceramic is usually associated to sedentary and farming peoples, this was a culture of shell fishers and collectors; the plentiful natural resources of coastal Ecuador allowed a life relatively sedentary, although it seems they knew rudimentary farming techniques that were just starting in ancient Peru and Mexico.

Figurines are always solid and small, so they could be fired easily. Most of them are female figures with schematic but clearly marked features, and with the same simple hairstyle framing the face. They are usually found with one or two broken legs, probably intentionally. It is possible that they were related to fertility.

INTERMEDIATE AREA



Over the time, Ecuadorian people of the Andes developed cultures with very characteristic ceramics painted in negative, which represented caciques sitting down with the sacred coca leaf.

From ancient times the peoples of the Coast of Ecuador defined their role as traders and trading intermediaries between the two main areas, Middle America and central Andes. They became dedicated to fulfilling the ceremonial and sumptuary needs of their high cultured neighbours with prime materials that they obtained from other nearby peoples.

The intensive farming, draining swamps and using other specialised techniques, allowed them to grow in population, and improve production, trade and socioeconomic development. Black ceramics and the vases representing caciques and other important people are frequently found.

The ocarinas and whistles (flutes in the shape of vases with or without holes) are especially abundant in the cultures from Ecuador. They used to add a mouthpiece, or a resonance hollow and four holes in the case of the ocarinas, to any human, plant or animal figure.

The human figures are very characteristic and were at the same time ocarinas. They have a quena style mouthpiece (flat) at the back of the head, two holes for the fingers at the front and another two at the back. The ocarina figures; where the character is playing a panpipe with several tubes are common.



OLD PERU

Between the years 6000 and 4000 B.C. they started to grow plants such as various varieties of potatoes and to develop farming techniques. The population settled down in hamlets controlled by a ceremonial centre, such as Kotosh in the Andes of North Peru.

In the Ancient Horizon period (1000 to 300 B.C.) some centres, such as Chavin, became centres of power and expanded their influence to large areas. They spread farming innovations and the recent textile, ceramic and gold and silversmithing industries, and started to build large stone ceremonial buildings. The spread of new technologies was accompanied by a change in the religious beliefs which culturally unified the whole area of the central Andes and the religious and farming calendar was created.

During the Old Intermediate period (300 B.C. – 600 A.D.) a series of small kingdoms from the Peruvian desert coast started joining until they formed states with brilliant regional cultures. This is the time of the Moche culture on the North coast and the Nazca culture on the South coast. Large stepped temples of sun-dried bricks were built and the rulers built palaces and tombs with rich funerary objects such as dresses, red shell and gold adornments, ceramics, etc.

During the Medium Horizon, the city of Wari, on the Bolivian high plateau, underwent a military expansion and managed to control the old coastal kingdoms. They also started working bronze, thus creating new weapons.

During the Late Intermediate period (1000 – 1450 A.D.), with the downfall of the Wari Empire, the old coastal kingdoms re-emerged: the Chimu culture followed the Moche culture in creating the powerful kingdom of Chimor with the capital city in Chan-Chan. In the central coast was the Chancay culture with the great ceremonial centre of Pachacamac, where a famous oracle was. It kept its influence until after the Spanish conquest. In the South were the Ica and later the Chincha cultures.

Meanwhile a small emigrant people with a foreign language, the Incas, were taking over Cuzco and around the year 1438 they started a military expansion throughout the central Andes and the coast; overcame the Chimor kingdom, conquered the Ecuadorian Andes and the North of Chile. In 1532 Cuzco was taken over by the Spaniards.

From the year 200 B.C., on the coast to the North of Peru there were several successive kingdoms which expanded themselves, to the nearby valleys, as the entire coast of Peru is crossed by parallel rivers that start in the Andes and end up fertilising the coastal desert.



The Moche culture (100 B.C. to 700 A.D.) already had all the elements which we will observe in later cultures. They had sophisticated goldsmith

techniques and high quality ceramics: sculptural vases or representing scenes painted in ochre and beige colours, which were found in the rich burials of rulers and priests. In the valley of the River Moche, the pyramids of the Sun and the Moon, temples made from overlaying structures, are the most notable monuments.

The Wari Empire (600 to 1000 A.D.) had a short influence on the North coast. The Lambayeque or Sican culture, between the Rivers La Leche and Lambayeque, soon dominated a large part of the North coast until the nearby Chimu culture eventually overtook them. Both cultures continued the tradition of the sculptural vases, and made the black ceramics fashionable. This tradition continued, with some variants, in the North coast until after the Inca conquest.

Around the year 1100 the Chimu culture had taken control over the area. Originally from the Moche Valley and somehow continuing that culture, they dominated the entire centre and North coast. They reached a very high level of hydraulic and farm engineering, so they built irrigation channels crossing the deserts between the valleys and communicating and unifying the region. This road and farm planning was a reflection of the political centralisation of the Chimor kingdom, which also constructed fortifications built in strategic places and dependent on Chan-Chan, capital city of the Chimu kingdom.

The Incas conquered this kingdom around the year 1475 and moved the famous Chimu ceramists and smiths to their capital city of Cuzco.

On the South Peruvian coast, the Paracas culture (1000 to 200 B.C.) evolved into the Nasca culture. Their brightly coloured ceramics with intricate and complicated designs were mainly globular shapes and bowls. These vases are radically different to the realistic sculptural hardly-coloured vases from the North coast cultures. These differences between the North and South coast ceramics lasted, with some changes, throughout the Pre-Columbine era.

The decorations, less realistic than the North coast ones, are geometrical and with more or less stylised representations of motives such as a trophy head, an armed human figure, severed heads, a mask with jaguar whiskers and a sophisticated head dress covering the whole vase. The human figures could incorporate bird, sea animal features or be a mixture of these.

It was later when they made vases with human figures. They started from the traditional globular shapes, transformed the narrow neck of the vase into the head and painted the rest of features.



The Nasca society and those of the ancient Peruvian cultures were structured into rigid and varied social classes: A ruling nobility with the king at the top, warriors and priests, specialised artisans including engineers and architects, merchants, farmers, fishermen and slaves.

The richness of the clothing must have been impressive, from what we can see from cloth remains found with feathers, silver and gold work on the funerary offerings.

In the Andean mountains by the Lake Titicaca, nowadays Bolivia, the Tiwanaku culture developed, with an economy based on mountain farming and breeding llama and vicuña, which provided wool and meat.

Their expansion to the North of the mountain range reached the area of Ayacucho, a colony of the coastal kingdom of Nasca in the central mountains of Peru. The Andean economy was characterised by the need to control and if possible, take over the areas where the coastal products came from, the mountains items from the Andes and the articles from the jungles East of the Andes, from where the valuable feathers came and the coca leaves were grown.

From the spreading of both cultures, Tiahuanaco from the mountains and Nasca from the coast, emerged the city of Wari. These were times of military expansion (Medium Horizon, 600 to 1000 A.D.) which allowed the Wari to obtain and forcefully control the products from those three areas: The coast, the mountains and the jungle. This was a time of disintegration, insecurity and changes for the region.

It is at this time that the use of bronze started, the items would be exported to Middle America. The ceramics influenced by the Nascan ones are of simple shapes, not sculptural and with coloured decoration.

After the downfall of the Wari, the regional kingdoms flourished again, especially the coastal ones. From the year 1100 Ica-Chinca dominated the South coast as Nasca had been doing before. Although at the time the most important kingdom was the Chimu from the North coast.

The Ica-Chica vases continued to use simple shapes, the geometric decorations and the use of Nasca's colours, although using a reduced number of colours as we are now in times of monochrome mass produced ceramics to meet the high demand for them.



In the central coast, close to Lima, the ceremonial centre of Pachacamac, seat of a famous oracle, dominated the area from the year 600. Around the year 1100 it lost its political power, but it kept its previous prestige even under the Inca's ruling.

Other minor kingdoms, economically very active, survived in the central coast controlled by the Chimus, that was the case of the Chancay kingdom, close to Pachacamac, where they made important textile items and simple ceramics decorated with black lines over the beige and rugged surface of the vase.

From the last millennium B.C., farming became increasingly more intensive with its corresponding growth in population. They cultivated new non-fertile lands along the desert coast of Peru building networks of irrigation canals, which extended over the years, some of them are still in use. Especially in the mountains terraces were used for growing crops. Fertilisers such as guano, made of the sea birds excrements, and even small fish that they buried with the seeds were used. Like in the rest of America, they used the seed drill. Fishing and shell fishing were also very important activities.

Due to the lack of adequate animals to be domesticated, in America the stockbreeding was of a secondary importance and the Peruvian llama, alpaca and vicuña were virtually the only herds which existed. They were used for their wool, secondarily as food stock and very rarely as transport. They also domesticated guinea pigs.

Metallurgy started in the central Andes and from there it was exported towards the North. The search for minerals, the manufacturing of sumptuary and ritual objects and their trade formed an important economical base. Smelting was one the most used techniques.

First they worked gold, a metal associated to the sun deity, the day and the man; and later they worked silver, associated to the moon, the night and the woman. After that, they started using copper and around the year 1000, bronze, which was used for industrial purposes only in the last years of the Pre-Columbine period.

Ceramic was very important, as vast amounts were required for burials. At the beginning they were hand modelled and of outstanding quality, in the last centuries of production it was industrialised, joining two halves made in moulds.

They had an intensive trade of prime materials and manufactured items, usually sumptuary and ritual items such as textiles, metal adornments, shells and feathers.



Textiles had a special importance in the Andean world. They were used as power symbols and tributes, as funerary offerings and as valuable gifts from the kings to their subjects to whom they wanted to honour or from the subjects to the rulers whom they needed to favour.

They used, as in all America, low looms that had the far end staked into the ground and the other end attached around their waists, so that the extension of the weaved cloth could be limited. For large sized cloaks they used horizontal looms on the floor. They used cotton and wool and often they used a mixture of both, one for the inlaid yarn and another one for the warp.

They used other fibres such as human and bat hair. They had some astonishing cloths and dresses with feathers or gold sheets sewn on.

There was a great variety of textiles: In each region they used characteristic clothing and colours and patterns were used to indicate the clan and the rank of the wearer.

There was, however, some clothing that hardly changed at all: Men wore a loincloth made of a wide piece of cloth and a shirt like a poncho. Women wore a piece of cloth or a rolled up skirt and a blanket over their shoulders kept in place with a pin. The head dresses were very varied, though often they wore the sling wrapped around the forehead. The noble men wore for important occasions ear discs, so that their ears were dilated by the piercing, a visible mark of their rank.

The cult of the dead was one of the most important elements of the Andean religiosity. The burials had numerous and rich objects and annually offerings were made to the mummies of important ancestors and the clans' founders, who were considered and honoured as deities.

They saw the world as structured in three parts: The sub-world where the dead carried out an inverted life and where Viracocha Pachacamac, Lord of Life and Death, reigned, the world of the living on earth where the Inca and his wife Coya reigned; and the celestial world where the Sun and the Moon reigned. The Thunder and the Lightning communicated the sky with the earth.

The visible world, and also the family clans and all the society included the city of Cuzco were also divided into two halves: top and bottom. The top was associated to the male, the North and the heat (we are in the Southern hemisphere) and is superior than the bottom, associated to the female, the South and the cold. Top (*hanan*) and bottom (*hurin*) were in turn divided in two: East and West, one superior than the other.



The Andean ceremonial calendar, based on the moon and the sun and twelve months of variable length is more than four thousand years old and summarises the time, space and society classification system as it reflects the relationship between the seasons, the spatial or geographical regions and the groups of relatives.

The ceremonies related to the life cycle, the work of the farming year and the deities marked the ritual calendar. The festivities were celebrated every year at the same time, in the same place and with the same people.



THE CAVE OF THE BULL (PALEOLITHIC)

There is no evidence of human occupation of this area until the so-called Recent Solutrean period or Advanced Upper Palaeolithic period, some 18.000 years ago. It was at this time in the Quaternary period, when, due to the intense cold of the last glaciation (Würm), the *Homo sapiens sapiens* started spreading around the Bay of Malaga. The most common habitat of this species, whose subsistence economy consisted in hunting and collecting vegetables, were the caves, though it is possible they also lived in open air settlements thanks to the mild weather around that period. The presence of these humans in Benalmadena is linked to *Cueva del Toro*, sited on the *Monte Calamorro* at 500 metres above the sea level. From this place, looking South, there is a panoramic view of the coastline, so this cave would be a privileged place for a rupestral sanctuary.

The cave was discovered in 1969 by Giménez Gómez and studied by Javier Fortea in 1971. The paintings in this cave, with signs and lines, are distributed around a central theme in the shape of a headless bull.

THE CAVES LOS BOTIJOS UND LA ZORRERA (NEOLITHIC)

In the 5th millennium, during the Neolithic period, a substantial change in the population takes place, which affects the coastal and pre-coastal areas of the province of Malaga. There is an increase in population and an important development in farming and stockbreeding which leads to an increase in number of living spaces which still tend to be caves.

The best known caves from that period in our municipality are the *Botijos* and *La Zorrera* Caves, discovered in the 1960's in the *Serrezuela* and first studied by Dr. Navarrete and a little later by Carmen Olaria.

These caves, which probably are part of the same cave complex, continue for 200 m. An important collection of stone bracelets, necklace beads and abundant richly decorated ceramic, characteristic of the classical pottery from the Neolithic period in the South, was found inside.



THE PRERROMAN PERIOD

Around the year 1000 B.C. the communities settled on the coast of Malaga followed a lifestyle similar to those of the Copper Age. However it is the start of a general occupation of the stream valleys, near the coast that will be continuously populated until Roman times.

One of the most interesting settlements of the era is located half a kilometre away from the coastal line of Benalmadena, on top of a small hill called ***Cerro de la Era***. This settlement dates from around the 9th to the 8th century B.C. and must have overlooked an ancient inlet. The excavations carried out on the site revealed a round hut and several rooms with a flooring made of shells on which was found some handmade and turned vase fragments. Outside, close to these fragments, the remains of a domestic oven were found. This kind of building, where rooms were built around a central yard, is clearly of Phoenician tradition, and has been widely documented in the Western Mediterranean colonies.

The Roman conquest of the Iberian Peninsula started in 218 B.C. as a consequence of the Punic Wars. The Roman arrived in Hispania to fight against a powerful enemy, the Carthaginians; they used the Peninsula as a military and supplying base, but the Romans defeated them.

The conquest was slow and the Romanisation process advanced at different speeds depending on the region. The adaptation to the Roman lifestyle took 200 years. This meant a change of the way of life in many fundamental aspects: language, religion, trade... The Romanisation process would have been impossible without a good communication network between all parts of the Empire.

Under the Roman domination and following military criteria, Hispania was split into two provinces: Citerior y Ulterior. However, under Augustus' rule, 1st century A.D. the land was reorganised and split into three provinces: Terraconensis, Lusitania and Baetica. Finally, during Diocletianus' rule, the number of provinces grew adding two more to the previous existing three: Galaecia and Carthaginian.

THE ROMANISATION

During the Roman period, Malaga developed greatly. It was made into a confederate city and had special rules to govern it, the Lex Flavia Malacitana. The city maintained its special statute until the arrival of the barbarians in the 5th century A.D. Undoubtedly, the Roman era is the best known period in Benalmadena. From the 1st century A.D., fishing flourished and there were



numerous settlements along the entire coast. These settlements, whether isolated or integrated into villae, highlight the importance of the industrial development in this area.

a) Ceramics:

The most common material found in the archaeological excavations is ceramics, especially fragments of objects made using very simple techniques, sometimes with a rough appearance. That is why the collection of containers for the service, transporting and storing foods is called common ceramic.

There are also much finer ceramics called terra sigillata: it was de luxe crockery and its name is derived from the sigillum or stamp used to decorate the moulds for these pieces. Before being fired, these ceramics were immersed into depurated clay to acquire its reddish colour. The clay was put into a previously prepared mould, and firmly pressed against its walls to imprint all the detailed decorations. After that, the whole set was spun on a potter's wheel to finish off the inside. The first sigillatas were made in Italy and were called Italic or Areatian (from the Arezzo area) sigillatas; after those the Gallians (made in Gallia), the Hispanics (made in the Peninsula) and the African ones (from the North of Africa) emerged. Apart from the sigillatas, from the 1st century A.D onwards vitrified ceramics from the Italian Peninsula, Gallia and the Western Mediterranean were imported.

b) Benalroma

The excavations of this village, located on the coast too, started in the 1980's. The archaeological works revealed the remains of a villae which origins could date from the beginning of the 1st century A.D. After having studied the deposits, it was concluded that the great number of rooms, as well as the main fountain which crossed the landscaped area, were probably richly decorated with painted stuccos, parietal mosaics and marbles. From the 3rd century A.D., until the last quarter of the 4th century A.D. it was transformed for an industrial use. The remains of amphorae found in the village are a proof of the important economical activities related to the salt-curing industry and the production of garum. Apart from common ceramics there have been found fragments of campaniense C. Italic, Gallic and Hispanic terra sigillata.

The buildings of the village are made of rubblework mixed with mud, but in some areas there have been documented buildings alternating rubblework with sandstone ashlar which resemble the so well known building system opus africanum.



Along with the archaeological studies made on site, the recent excavations made in the nearby industrial complex "Los Molinillos" have been

vital to understand some aspects, such as the supply of ceramics made in the potter's workshops from the beginning of the 3rd century A.D., in which we can find pots imitating the African ones, and some amphorae with salt-curing purposes.

c) Economy and Trade:

C.1) The salt-curing industry and the garum y el garum:

Together with oil, salted fish and garum were the most commercialised foodstuffs in the Mediterranean during Roman times.

Along the entire coast, from Cadiz to the East of Spain, there were installations with salt-curing purposes. The salted fish was obtained by cleaning and cutting the fish, and then putting it into basins alternating layers of fish and salt. When the fish was ready it was put into amphorae to be exported.

The garum, so valued from the Phoenician times, became a customary food of the upper classes of the Roman court. It was a paste or a sauce made from the viscera from tuna fish, sturgeon, scomber fish and other species. It was made mixing small portions of fish with other pressed portions. The mixture was left in brine for one or two months. If the demand was bigger than the offer, it could be cured on the fire to accelerate its natural curing. During the Roman domination garum was one of the main exported products to Rome and, according to Plinius, it was more expensive than any liquor. It was exported by ship inside amphorae with a pointed base to stick them in the sand of the beach when loading and unloading them from the ships, making their handling easier. Garum was also used as a medicine and even as a natural cosmetic.

C.1) The oil:

We know that the Baetica province exported, even from Augustus' times, great quantities of wine, wheat and oil. The number of amphorae accumulated on the Testaccio Mount in Rome tells us that there was enough oil coming to Rome from Baetica to provide, during the first three centuries of our era, six litres of oil per person annually for one million inhabitants.

The process of extracting oil starts once the olives have been collected and transported to the village where they are first stored. Then, the pulp and the stones were separated and the pulp was softened. In the third phase, the olives were pressed in a press called torcularium; once all the oily liquid was extracted, it was put into basins and containers to be refined.



C.1) Daily Life and Cooking

In Roman times, cooks usually were slaves, so kitchens were not as important as nowadays. It did not have a clearly defined location. Usually it was just a small room with a hearth, a sink and probably shelves on the wall. The hearth used to be a masonry structure with an arched hole at the bottom, in which a fire was lighted and food cooked in pans and pots on top of tripods or grills.

There were some basic foods such as bread, wine, oil and honey and others such as salt, indispensable ones to make dishes and high cuisine delicacies. There is evidence of the use of bread in the 2nd century B.C. something made as a paste of water and flour, very similar to our porridge. The Romans knew of yeast (*fermentum*) and the bread started to be fermented from the 1st century A.D.

In the excavations of the Roman village in Benalmádena Costa a bread maker's stamp showing an eagle inside an oak leaf wreath was found. These stamps were used as bread moulds for family, religious and even official events.

1. LOS MOLINILLOS.

The findings of this archaeological excavation have provided an important source of information of historical knowledge of the Roman culture on the coast, especially in relation to the socioeconomic aspects.

In this place they were important industrial activities from the 1st century A.D. to at least the beginning of the 5th century A.D. when the oven was abandoned and the production of containers mainly to transport salted foods stopped. Thanks to the overlying structures, it has been possible to identify several phases of occupation, first producing oil and later salted foods.

The oil industry was an important activity for the village of Benalmadena Costa, from where probably the oil was exported in vast quantities to the harbour of Malaga in order to be distributed by sea through the Mediterranean, although it could even had been exported from the Torremuelle inlet itself, the only trade route of Benalmadena.

This oil, very famous in Baetica from the 1st century A.D. and widely used in the Mediterranean in the Antonines times, was elaborated in a "ara quadrata"



torcularium and a opus spicatum floor with at least two presses which poured the oily liquid into basins or labrum, of which there are no remains left. This general information about the oil production allows us to assume that the first industrial

activities of the whole coast of Benalmadena started with the first inhabitants of the village (only 530 m from the sea).

The construction and restructuring of the factory in the late Roman period was made in the same place as the oil torcularium, supposedly thanks to its great location and its vicinity to the Nea Stream which provided them with fresh water (needed for this kind of industrial activity).

This place stopped making containers at the end of the 4th century or beginning of the 5th century A.D., but it did not mean the area was totally abandoned, as the archaeological findings show the activity continued until at least the middle of the 7th century A.D.

We have archaeological evidence of some residential areas of a certain standing. The residential nature of some of the buildings could in some cases be related to the luxurious Italic villae a mare, which could probably mean the existence of nearby luxurious residential areas whose owners possibly belonged to the wealthy trade oligarchy.

1. Daily Life. Beliefs

Together with the main deities, the Romans worshipped secondary gods, of a private or domestic nature (lares and penates) whose images were kept in a lararium in the entrance of the houses representing the deceased relatives and the family's protectors respectively. In the most prosaic aspects, the Romans showed a superstitious nature in their efforts to bring good luck or to drive bad luck away.

In the archaeological sites of the Roman village of Benalmadena Costa, several objects related to fertility have been found. A terracotta figure representing a pregnant woman and a phallic bronze charm that would have been hung on the walls of the houses.

2. Funerary World

In Roman times the bodies used to be cremated, but from the end of the 1st century A.D. the inhumation became a common practice. If the family had enough money the ashes were put into a grave along with some objects. The less wealthy or poor people had a very simple funeral but there was always a procession accompanying the body to the burial place.



3. Cosmetics and Personal Embellishment

Cosmetics were very important for the Roman women's appearance. There were a vast variety of creams, perfumes and ointments sold in small ceramic, glass or alabaster pots.

The face make up was mixed on small plates or flat stones. The lipstick was obtained from ochre extracted from some lichens or molluscs. The eyeliner came from coal or from a dust made of antimony. The mirrors were a basic necessity and they were made of highly polished metal sheets, sometimes with a richly decorated back.

The glass ointment containers played a very important role in Roman cosmetics as they were made to keep perfumes, essences or ointments.

Women's hairstyle changed many times from the Republic to the Low Empire period. They were also different according to the social status and the age of the woman. During the Republic, the hairstyles were very simple but in Augustus's time they became more elaborated, often plating the hair before pinning it up on the back of the head. It was during the Flavius and Trajan times when women's hairstyle became more baroque. To keep their hair up they used pins, laces, back combs or needles made of bone or ivory.

4. The Lighting

The lucernae

To light houses, Romans used torches or oil lamps, made from a mould and could be of metal or ceramic. These little oil lamps were called lucernae and usually were decorated with mythological, religious or profane scenes. They had a deposit for the fuel, a pointed end with a hole on it for the wick and another orifice in the reservoir to improve the combustion.

2. VILLAGE OF TORREMUELLE.

Nowadays nothing remains of this village apart from a recovered mosaic with geometrical patterns. But some references of the settlement have lasted until today indicated by the existence of strong foundations, sauce basins and opus signinum floors with numerous ceramic fragments along the entire



perimeter. Recently the industrial area of the village has been found and excavated: A salting factory consisting of 19 signinum basins.

These industrial constructions, with evident typological relations to other sites found in Mauretania Tingitana, were placed by the Lugar Stream which most probably provided them with fresh water to clean the fish; they were also placed near the sea to get the prime materials, fish and salt, needed to macerate the food. The location was also in front a small natural port or inlet which could have facilitated loading and unloading the products coming to the area. This factory

probably part of a flourishing trade from the first centuries of the Empire, apart from supplying the village, exported the valuable product in amphorae made especially for this. The evidence seems to suggest that during the second half of the 1st century it went through some difficulties or was suddenly abandoned for unknown causes.

Roman architecture is the most astoundingly rich of all existing for the last five millenniums, so we still find it understandable and close to us. Rome built an important number of monuments and buildings throughout their Empire revolutionising the construction techniques, thanks to the generalised use of arches, vaults and domes.

Romans lived in various kinds of houses and blocks of flats, the building materials were:

- Stone. With the smallest pieces they built rubble work walls, either with irregular (*opus incertum*) or cut (*opus reticulatum y vitatum*) pieces. The middle size stones (*opus quadratum*), were used to build ashlar walls. Apart from stone, their taste for luxury and colour made extensive use of white, grey, green or pink marble imported from far away places.
- Wood. Was used for the roofs, windows and doors.
- Bricks. They made solid bricks and perfectly flat roof tiles (*tegulae*). The joint between every two roof tiles was covered by a semi-cylindrical tile (*imbrex*). Combining different shapes and direction of bricks, they made fired brick walls (*opus testaceum*) combined with stone (*opus mixtum*), and floors made of bricks laid in herringbone pattern (*opus spicatum*).
- Cement. The cement was called *opus cementicium* and as made from a mixture of stone, lime, sand and water.

Like in the modern times, they used scaffolding to access the buildings being built. The richest Romans could enjoy luxurious furniture and comfortable homes in which they used to have mosaics, wall paintings and marble.