

Those who live like us: Autodemarcations and the co-becoming of Indigenous and *beiradeiros* on the Upper Tapajós River, Brazilian Amazonia

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Abstract:

This paper explores autodemarcations on the Tapajós River, Brazilian Amazonia, wherein a traditional community --- the *beiradeiros* (riverbank inhabitants) --- and the Indigenous Munduruku together mark the boundaries of their lands and remove invaders in their struggles for the recognition of territorial rights from the state. We approach autodemarcations on the Tapajós as a form of co-becoming: unseating colonial identities and generating mutual recognition within and between these two peoples (turning inwards) while also claiming rights from the state (turning outwards) in the face of expanding extractive frontiers. While legal recognition is well represented in the literature on Indigenous peoples' and traditional communities' struggles over land and counter-mapping, intersubjective recognition is an omission. Our contribution is to show the importance of the turn inward and contend that it is within this 'turn' that autodemarcations hold radical potential. Such possibility lies in challenging colonial categorizations through novel forms of relationality, namely "*wuyguybuḡun*," a Munduruku neologism meaning "those who live like us, plant like us, fish like us, but cannot hear like us" which began to be used by the Munduruku to refer to the *beiradeiros* during autodemarcations. We argue that what matters more than the physical boundary (autodemarcation), or the map (counter-mapping), is the emergent set of social relations: the co-becoming of two distinct peoples. Autodemarcation and other struggles for recognition of territorial and civil rights form part of larger acts of community resistance and popular political participation. They are grassroots democratic state-building processes that should be supported by state institutions.

Keywords:

recognition; counter-mapping; land rights; territory; indigeneity

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1 1. Introduction

2 The work is almost always done in silence. The dense vegetation opens up to the beat of slow, steady
3 steps. Including *beiradeiros*, Munduruku and other Indigenous people, chiefs, shamans and warriors,
4 thirty people trek the Amazonian rainforest. ‘*Beiradeiros*,’ meaning ‘riverine people,’ synonymous with
5 ‘*riberinhos*,’ is a term forest peoples from Xingu, Tapajós, and other Amazonian Rivers use to self-
6 identify (Almeida 1991). What visually distinguishes them from their Munduruku neighbours is the
7 *jenipapo* (*Genipa americana*, a fruit whose juice is used as black ink) painted on their bodies. They are
8 marked from the face down with geometric patterns that mimic a tortoise’s shell – a hero within
9 Munduruku stories that cleverly overcomes the strength of his enemies, the jaguar and the anaconda.
10 First in line is Chico Caititu, of the *beiradeiro* community of Montanha-Mangabal (MM), who at sixty-
11 eight years old is known as one of the best *mateiros* (woodsmen) in the region. He is followed by
12 Johnny, a young Munduruku operating a handheld GPS. Behind them walk thirteen other *beiradeiros*
13 and seventeen Munduruku. For six days this group marches through the forest, marking the borders of
14 the *beiradeiros*’ territory (Figure 1). On the Upper Tapajós River, as well as in other parts of the
15 Amazon and Brazil, these processes by which community members mark the boundaries of their
16 territories by opening up a trail through dense vegetation and along the way, identify and possibly
17 remove invaders such as loggers and land-grabbers, along with patrolling these lines and keeping them
18 open, form a set of actions regionally known as autodemarcations (Molina 2017; Garcia 2018). In the
19 Upper Tapajós region, the first autodemarcation was of MM territory in 2007.

20 As is common among Amazonian *ribeirinhos*, the *beiradeiro* inhabitation of MM dates to the
21 rubber boom of the second half of the 19th century. As a people, the *beiradeiros* were formed through
22 the violent occupation of Indigenous territories and their brutal incorporation into the rubber economy.
23 They adopted Indigenous knowledge(s) that allowed them to live in the forest when the latex trade
24 ceased (Torres 2008). The Munduruku, who call themselves Wuy Jugu (“we are people”), have long
25 inhabited the Tapajós Basin and speak a language of the Tupi linguistic family. They number around
26 14,000 in approximately 140 villages, mainly along the upper banks of the Tapajós River and its
27 tributaries. The Munduruku characterize themselves as a warrior people due to their history of war
28 expeditions across the region; their contemporary political discourses are often articulated in terms of
29 their warrior identity (Loures 2017).

30 Beginning in 2013, with mutual involvement in the occupation of the Belo Monte dam, the
31 alliance of these two groups marks an important transformation. From historic antagonists to allies, an
32 Indigenous people and a traditional community have come together in confronting mutual enemies;
33 these include the state and its hydroelectric projects, along with *grileiros* (land-grabbers), loggers, and
34 *garimpos* (informal mining camps) (Torres and Branford 2018). The context for this *beiradeiro* and
35 Munduruku co-resistance is a set of regional development projects – 43 planned hydroelectric power
36 plants and the accompanying infrastructure in the Tapajós region to facilitate the export of agricultural
37 commodities, especially soybeans, to the Brazilian state of Mato Grosso including a railroad, several
38 bulk port terminals, and waterway (Figure 2). A major flashpoint for a wide range of territorial conflicts
39 in the Brazilian Amazon, the Tapajós Basin also features an immense quantity of unallocated public
40 lands vulnerable to land grabbing and the deforestation associated with it (Torres 2012; Torres et al
41 2017). The region is also currently the epicentre of a gold mining boom --- the Tapajós holds one of the
42 largest gold-reserves on planet --- characterized by escalating conflicts between *garimpos*, large mining
43 corporations, and Indigenous and *beiradeiro* communities (Molina and Wanderley 2021).

44 In recent years, autodemarcations have become an important and effective part of greater
45 actions positioned against this network of extractive and government-led infrastructure projects,
46 solidifying alliances vital for confronting them. As a strategy of resistance, autodemarcations work
47 through the realization of collective territorial and civil rights that in turn reshape relationships between
48 Indigenous Peoples and Traditional Communities (IPTC)¹ in the Tapajós Basin. For instance, the
49 autodemarcation of the Munduruku Sawre Muybu (SM) territory, on the opposite bank of the Tapajós
50 to MM (Figures 1 and 2), contributed to the suspension of environmental licensing of the São Luiz do
51 Tapajós dam in 2016 (Loures 2017). In their fight against the planned construction of the Jatobá
52 hydroelectric power plant in the middle of their territory and ongoing illegal mining and logging
53 activities on their lands, the *beiradeiro* community of MM restarted their autodemarcation in 2017
54 together with the Munduruku. Other forms of joint resistance by the two groups include physically
55 preventing meetings to auction logging concessions in the two Itaituba National Forests; blocking the
56 TransAmazonica highway in protest at the changing of a National Indian Foundation (FUNAI) official;
57 and pressing the government to fulfil its legal obligation for prior consultation (CIMI 2017; Torres and
58 Branford 2017).

59 If we define autodemarcation as opening lines to mark territorial boundaries, it appears different
60 to countermapping, a term popularly used to refer to the production of maps by IPTC since the 1990s.
61 However, recent work by critical geographers has taken a process-oriented approach to
62 countermapping, opening up what is understood as ‘the map’ to include practices such as cutting lines
63 in the forest and autodemarcations (Wainwright and Bryan 2009; Bryan 2011). There are hundreds of
64 ‘social cartography’ projects in Latin America, those that draw on both or either of countermapping and
65 autodemarcation strategies (Kollektiv Orangotango+ 2018), including the famous New Social
66 Cartographies project in Brazilian Amazonia².

67 What distinguishes our paper from much of the important critical work on countermapping is
68 our focus on the set of social relations between an Indigenous people and traditional community that
69 are made and transformed through the processes of autodemarcation; these are the relations that both
70 work within and against the constraints of the map and property regimes imbricated within (Wainwright
71 and Bryan 2009). Our focus on such processes in the Tapajós presents a case through which to rethink
72 critiques of the emancipatory potential of countermapping, such as those raised by Mollett (2013:1237).
73 With regard to Indigenous and Afro-descendant cartographic projects in Honduras, Mollett asks, “how
74 do countermaps, drawn for the purpose of satisfying state spatial imaginaries, actually counter dominant
75 property regimes endorsed by the state?” Our paper takes up Mollett’s provocation to ask: how might
76 autodemarcations jointly undertaken by both the *beiradeiros* and Munduruku provide a fruitful case
77 study for rethinking the potential of what is commonly understood as countermapping practices?

78 In answering this question, we draw our theoretical framework from Bawaka et al. (2013, 2016)
79 and Di Giminiani (2015) to understand autodemarcations among Indigenous and traditional peoples as
80 a form of co-becoming, or emergent ways of relating between both groups that rise from embodied
81 land-based practices (section 3). On the Upper Tapajós, we contend that it is precisely *as a form of co-*
82 *becoming* that autodemarcations hold radical potential, that is, the possibility of challenging colonial

¹ This is a translation of the Brazilian legal term ‘*povos indígenas e comunidades tradicionais*,’ adopted in 2007 by federal legislation in Brazil through Decree 6040, the use of this term parallels the changes brought forth by the International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention 169, which institutionalized rights for these groups upon its adoption in 1989, substituted the problematic term ‘tribal’ for ‘traditional communities.’

² <http://novacartografiasocial.com.br/>

83 categorizations. Such evolving forms of relationality are most clearly expressed in the Munduruku
84 changing their identification of *beiradeiros* from *pariwat* --- meaning “those that are part of an outside
85 group” as well as “enemy”, the term is usually used to define non-Indigenous or white peoples (Torres
86 2015; Loures 2017) --- to *wuyguybuğun*. *Wuyguybuğun*, a neologism that means “those who live like
87 us, plant like us, fish like us, but cannot hear like us” began to be used by the Munduruku to refer to the
88 *beiradeiros* during the autodemarcations from 2014 forward (Loures 2017: 236; also see Torres 2015).

89 As explored by the ‘tropicality’ literature (e.g. Hecht 2013, see also Fraser et al. 2018:1387)
90 the West has tended to frame Amazonian cultures as an Indigenous ‘other.’ However, while both the
91 Munduruku and *beiradeiros* share a subaltern position in relation to colonial expansion in the Amazon,
92 especially as those both dispossessed of their land and labour, their identities have been historically
93 constructed differently: Indigenous groups (such as the Munduruku) are seen as an “authentic other”
94 and *riberinho* communities (such as the *beiradeiros*) as a “counterfeit other” (cf. Nugent 1997). Unable
95 to neatly fit into the category of the ‘pure other’, *riberinhos* and *beiradeiros* have subsequently been
96 seen as uninteresting by scholars, leading to a policy and research ‘invisibility’ (ibid). It is through the
97 everyday practices found within autodemarcations --- walking, going hungry, and confronting invaders
98 together --- that the colonial categorization of Munduruku and *beiradeiro* identities gets reconfigured.
99 Such resistance to colonial spatial imaginaries that have both essentialized and subordinated IPTC are
100 not smooth, quick, or simple as we describe in sections two and five. Rather, they form part of complex
101 histories including earlier Munduruku and *beiradeiro* antagonism.

102 For analytical purposes, we approach autodemarcations as a form of co-becoming in the
103 Tapajós through two ‘turns’: as a process that generates mutual recognition and collectivity within and
104 between the two peoples (turning inwards) while also a struggle of claiming rights (turning outwards)
105 in the face of expanding extractive frontiers. Although both turns are embedded within our
106 conceptualizations of autodemarcations and co-becoming, we emphasize that the turn inward is crucial
107 to autodemarcations since it produces and maintains the set of relations that guide struggles for
108 territorial recognition from the state. To clarify, this paper does not claim that co-becoming is “what is
109 happening” in the Tapajós. As non-Indigenous and non-*beiradeiro* scholars from both the Anglophone
110 and Latin American institutions, we are attentive to the colonial origins of such authoritative claims to
111 “expertise” (Correia 2019; Hunt 2013) based on notions of accurate translations between subaltern and
112 dominant worlds (Viveiros de Castro 2004). Rather, co-becoming is a concept we borrow from other
113 authors to help us productively approach the practices we encountered during our fieldwork. Our
114 paper’s conceptual framework stems from our own presence in such processes as well as our collective
115 understanding of ethnography as more than a mere method, research technique or piece of writing³.
116 Following Alarcon (2020) as well as Blaser and de la Cadena (2018), we situate ethnography as a
117 historically specific mode of inquiry that rises from careful movement between empirics and theory and
118 whose potential as a ‘concept-making genre’ lies in the very onto-epistemic differences between
119 researchers and interlocutors that make academic work possible.

120 Section two presents an ethnographic reading of the everyday dynamics of autodemarcations
121 through which co-becoming is made manifest. Section three theorizes co-becoming as, most crucially,
122 a ‘turn inward’ through intersubjective recognition but also, importantly, a ‘turn outward’ toward legal

³ We are engaged Brazilian, British, and Argentine-US scholars working alongside Munduruku and *beiradeiros* of the Tapajós Region. We joined autodemarcations at MM and SM on multiple occasions between 2015 and 2019. ANON also jointed an autodemarcation at MM in 2004. We used the following ethnographic methods in the field: open interviews, genealogical surveys, joint elaboration and study of maps, collection of oral histories, and reading of public letters published by the Munduruku and *beiradeiros*.

123 recognition through the actualization of ‘new rights.’ Section four analyses the co-becoming of the
124 *beiradeiros* and *Munduruku*, through the lens of the Munduruku neologism *wuyḡuybuḡun* (‘those who
125 are like us’) while section five examines the how autodemarcations at MM and SM push up against
126 liberal property regimes. Section six presents our concluding discussion.

127

128 2. Walking together and the everyday dynamics of co-becoming

129

130 This section examines processes of co-becoming in the Tapajós empirically, prior to the presentation of
131 our theoretical framework in section three. It traces moments in which Munduruku and *beiradeiros*
132 enact their own lifeworlds through autodemarcations --- from practices such trekking together during
133 the day to storytelling at night --- in which their survival is articulated alongside state technologies and
134 demands for recognition. We draw on material from our own participation during MM
135 autodemarcations, weaving together narratives taken from different moments in the field. Because MM
136 and SM territories are large (Figure 1), autodemarcation is done by walking through specific sections
137 of the perimeter of the territory in different stages --- taking from several days to a week --- occurring
138 at different moments in time. We start from the scene that opened the paper: a group of Munduruku and
139 *beiradeiros* moving through the forest led by Caititu.

140 Caititu was followed by 21-year-old Johnny Saw Munduruku, operating a GPS carrying official
141 boundaries of MM territory. As they walk, Caititu and Johnny identify areas of invasion, marking places
142 where wood was illegally harvested, where a bulldozer had cleared grounds, gold extraction sites, and
143 paths recently established by *grileiros*. Johnny directs Caititu to follow the straight lines of the GPS by
144 calling his name and extending his arm to point one way or another. The two rarely exchange words.
145 “Our system is as follows,” explains Caititu “... there is an official point which is where we put the
146 plaques. We clear the area and go towards the official spot, and he [Johnny] knows exactly where we
147 are.” Caititu continues:

148 “I also have an internal GPS, which is as follows. Well, like us this morning, when we left that
149 place, we always had the sun [in front of us], a quarter of the sun [in front of us]. This is what
150 we use, until we get to the path. There is also the river. I even orient using vines. The vine
151 always coils only from east to west, it does not coil from south to north at all. If there is a storm,
152 it is best to stop. If not, we continue walking in circles without direction. These are our
153 references.”

154 Caititu combines GPS technologies --- key to liberal forms of statecraft and domination --- with
155 *beiradeiro* and the Munduruku technologies of navigation, marking the hybridity of knowledges
156 deployed during autodemarcations. Rather than using GPS technologies as a way to outright subvert
157 the universal forms of Western cartography, Caititu demonstrates how the carving out of IPTC
158 geographies in the Tapajós does not abide to negative definitions of resistance (i.e. that resistance can
159 only be effective through ‘proper’ or ‘complete’ rejection of liberal state apparatus). At the same time
160 that *beiradeiros* and Munduruku modes of being *exceed* GPS technologies, these tools become mediums
161 through which both groups articulate their lifeworlds in relation to the state and capital (de la Cadena
162 2014). Caititu’s theorization of navigation extends co-becoming in the Tapajós to include relations and
163 attachments between modern and *beiradeiro* sciences.

164 Caititu and Johnny marched on, followed by young Munduruku warriors and *beiradeiros*
165 opening a four-meter-wide path in the forest with machetes. Behind them a group of older Munduruku
166 and *beiradeiros* carrying foodstuffs, pots and pans on their backs. Two carry handmade signs reading
167 “Montanha-Mangabal Agro-extractive Settlement Project. Entry without permission, buying or selling
168 land is forbidden.” The signs are placed along territorial limits.

169 As he walked, Solimar Ferreira, a *beiradeiro* leader, reminds the group that they are in a place
170 where their parents had once stood. He states, “I will participate [in the autodemarcation] because I love
171 this land that my father gave me... when I pass by the river, I remember working with my father cutting
172 rubber” while claiming that “securing the land is key to solving our mining problems today.” Solimar,
173 guided by his father’s memory, reassembles autodemarcation as practices where the past, present, and
174 future co-exist; in the Tapajós, like in Bawaka Country, “temporality, like spatiality, is contextual,
175 knowing/knowable and affecting/able to be affected” (Bawaka et al. 2016: 466). Memories that rise
176 from practices of “walking back” through time are those that propel the *beiradeiros* to “walk forward,”
177 to articulate and imagine alternative futures, even as they appeal for the actualization of constitutional
178 rights.

179 After a long day, the group sets up camp in the late afternoon. Hammocks are tied to nearby
180 trees and a fire is started, while Magdalena and Variela, two Munduruku women, begin making coffee
181 and rice. A group forms around the fire, and the *beiradeiro* leader Ageu tells stories from a previous
182 autodemarcation in which leaders, shamans and warriors of the Sateré-Mawé, Katxuyana and WaiWai
183 Indigenous peoples travelled for three to four days by boat, canoe, bus and motorcycle to MM. Nights
184 are the time to exchange stories, such as the birth of Guarana by the Sateré Mawe and of alliances with
185 *quilombola* communities during territorial monitoring by the Katxuyana Indians on the Trombetas
186 River. It was also during the nights that *beiradeiros* and Munduruku discussed shared histories and their
187 imaginings of alternate futures.

188 During one evening, as the Munduruku swept leaves into piles on the forest floor and burnt
189 them to keep scorpions at bay, Ageu recounted the history of MM’s struggle to keep their lands:

190 “After the government’s threats to the territory [Jatobá Dam] we knew that with the strength of
191 the Munduruku, we would get stronger. It would be impossible to face these projects with only
192 us in Montanha-Mangabal. This changed the prejudice that some people had about Indians—
193 that they didn’t work, that they were lazy. There are people in Montanha-Mangabal [with
194 Indigenous heritage] but they do not want to assume Indigenous identity. My father always said
195 that we are Indians, of the Apiaca people.”

196 Ageu’s words signal the shifting relations between MM and Munduruku made possible in the
197 interactions and shared experiences of lengthy days during the autodemarcations. They also
198 demonstrate the messiness of co-becoming, in which neither the Munduruku become *beiradeiro*, nor
199 vice versa. Yet, “they do not remain only what they were either” (la Cadena and Blaser 2018:11
200 invoking Verran): the Munduruku are no longer ‘lazy’ or ‘distant others’ but rather, through their
201 presence within autodemarcations, are what make the *beiradeiros* ‘stronger.’ Identifying as both
202 *beiradeiro* and Indigenous (Apiaca), Ageu’s own identity is also re-made and re-articulated alongside
203 Munduruku worlds. Following his words, we can begin to position autodemarcations as practices that
204 foster radical openings in which intersubjective forms of recognition do not follow strict modern
205 binaries around Indigenous/non-Indigenous modes of being but rather invoke multiplicity of co-
206 becomings.

207 3. Theoretical framework: Co-Becoming in the Tapajós

208 Co-becoming is defined by Bawaka et al. (2013, 2016) as “our conceptualization of a Bawaka Yolŋu
209 ontology within which everything exists in a state of emergence” (2016:40). Based on the authority of
210 Bawaka Country (North East Arnhem Land in Australia), the main author of the paper, co-becoming
211 signals the relations between humans and other-than-humans made and re-made from ongoing
212 practices, such as digging *ganguir* (yam) or gathering *miyapunu mapu* (turtle eggs). These practices
213 both rise from and transform specific obligations to kin. Key for Bawaka et al. is that co-becomings are
214 “never static, fixed, complete, but are continually merging in an entangled togetherness” (Bawaka et al.
215 2013). The concept of co-becoming has strong resonances with the turn to ontology in the social
216 sciences over the last decade or so (see Holbraad and Pedersen, 2017). Ontology refers to being and
217 becoming, and as we understand it, to the making or enacting of existence or rather ‘what is’. What co-
218 becoming brings to the ontological turn is a focus on how, throughout the practices of autodemarcation,
219 *beiradeiro* and Munduruku worlds are temporarily brought together.

220 We take up Bawaka et al.’s prompt to think of co-becoming “for the insight it offers about
221 living in a relational world” (2016: 469). Although for Bawaka et al. (2016), the term refers to emergent
222 relations between human and other-than-humans, we draw on co-becoming to think through the “never
223 static” transformations that occur within both Indigenous and *beiradeiro* lifeworlds while walking,
224 eating, and confronting invaders together in the forest during autodemarcations. Embodied practices,
225 specifically walking, have been posited by scholars like feminist geographer Sundberg (2014) as key
226 ways to “foster recognition of the multiplicity of knowledge systems” as well as “enact historically
227 contingent and radically distinct worlds/ontologies” (Sundberg 2014:7). Drawing from the Zapatista
228 “principle of ‘*preguntando caminos*’ (sometimes, ‘*caminar preguntando*’) or ‘asking, we walk,’”
229 Sundberg details how “walking and talking, doing and reflecting” --- vital aspects to autodemarcations
230 on the Tapajós --- are key towards theorizing of radical futures as something done and enacted rather
231 claimed (ibid.: 39). This is similar to other concepts inspired by the movement and grounded within the
232 age of neo-extractivism in Latin America, such as the pluriverse, defined by Escobar (2020) on the basis
233 of the Zapatista saying “a world in which many worlds fit” (p.50; see also de la Cadena and Blaser
234 2018). While Sundberg and Escobar’s theorization of multiplicity is grounded within neo-extractivism
235 in Latin America, co-becoming in the Tapajós are situated within a long history of Amazonian peoples’
236 interrelating through difference. In Brazil, an example par excellence is the *Cabanagem* (1835-1840),
237 an insurrection built on collaboration among diverse Amazonian peoples (Harris 2010). Its importance
238 lies in showing that large-scale alliances between different IPTC in defence of their rights have a long
239 historical precedent in the Brazilian Amazon.

240 Yet, co-becomings, as a set of practices that reconstitute relations between Munduruku and
241 *beiradeiro* lifeworlds, are not separate from state geographies. To address the asymmetric tension
242 between IPTC articulations (i.e. autodemarcations) and state translations (i.e. legal recognition) of
243 traditionally occupied territory, we draw on Di Giminiani’s (2015) theorization of becomings within
244 the Chilean Wallmapu, ancestral lands of the Mapuche. For Di Giminiani, becoming of Mapuche
245 ancestral lands are “processes characterised by both *opportunities* for and *constraints* on the translation
246 of ancestral land as property” (498, own italics). It is through the constraints of property regimes that
247 state power aims to pin down the fluid spatial ways of being of IPTC, antagonistic to state geographies.
248 While traditionally occupied territories are the result of IPTC struggles demarcations, state power
249 materializes in the translation of this geographic construct into territorial units commensurate with the
250 law.

251 However, for Di Giminiani, what is key to Mapuche becoming is not the “oppositional
252 representation of Indigenous and state geographies”, usually understood through the division between
253 IPTC understandings of territory as collectively held socio-natural spaces inextricable from cultural

254 reproduction (Almeida 2008) on the one hand, and liberal land regimes, which work in and through the
255 drawing of boundaries around areas of land, turning them into discrete units and separating them from
256 the inextricable social relations in which they are embedded, on the other. The latter renders ownership
257 exclusive and individual via a legally recognized tenurial document, clearing the way for market
258 exchange (Blomley 2010). Rather than the incommensurability between both geographies, what is
259 crucial for Di Giminiani is “the set of administrative procedures through which subversive uses and
260 interpretations of the property regimes are constrained” (499). While for the Mapuche, these constraints
261 take the form of having to prove their ties to ancestral land through the very documents that “were
262 designed to legitimize their dispossession”, in the Tapajós, laid out later in this section, they include the
263 transformation of all rights into individual rights and state assimilationist policies (491). We find Di
264 Giminiani’s approach of Mapuche struggles as within and yet, in his words, beyond the state as key to
265 understanding *beiradeiro* and Munduruku co-becomings in their struggle to actualize ‘new rights’ to
266 collective territories in the context of the broader liberal state apparatus.

267 We therefore extend Di Giminiani’s notion of Mapuche becoming within the constraints of
268 property as well as Bawaka and Sunberg’s theorizations of possibility, futurity, and heterogeneity to
269 think through co-becomings in the Tapajós Basin. Positioning autodemarcations as a form of co-
270 becoming signals an opening to think beyond the Tapajós defined *only as* pasture for cattle, soy
271 plantations, or mining pits and the racialized logics inscribed in the formation of these spaces wherein
272 wealthy *pariwat* settlers usually head these enterprises. It is also important to note that while co-
273 becoming can be used to refer to a larger set of actions taken on by both the Munduruku and *beiradeiros*
274 (joint occupations, mobilizations, fishing together), we focus on autodemarcations as both an example
275 of and essential to co-becoming in the Tapajós for the purpose of this paper. For the remainder of the
276 section, we elaborate how co-becoming entails both a *turn inward* (toward one another), and the *turn*
277 *outward* (toward the state) among *beiradeiros* and Munduruku.

278 *Turning inward:* The “co-” in co-becoming emphasizes the joining of Munduruku and the
279 *beiradeiros* and their lifeworlds. Within Munduruku and *beiradeiro* ways of being, land and water not
280 only constitute a material means of subsistence. They are co-constitutive of ancestral histories, stories,
281 and memories and are enactments of relations that make-up both human and other-than-humans worlds
282 (Torres 2014; Loures 2017). Such relationships to forest and river are grounded within linked
283 cultivation and fishing activities as well as the presence of ‘*encantados*’ or beings such as the mothers
284 of game, fish, manioc, and rivers within both groups’ land-based practices (Almeida 2013). Similarities
285 between the Munduruku and *beiradeiros* do not, however, constitute an equivalence between
286 lifeworlds. Nor does it signal the ‘blurring’ of settler/Indigenous divides echoing the applause of
287 *mestizaje* in much of Latin America or racial democracy in Brazil (Poets 2020; Speed 2017). There are
288 significant ontological and epistemological distinctions between both groups --- for instance, the
289 particularity of Munduruku cosmology based on the world upheld by *Karosakaybu*, the creator, and
290 language --- as well as divergent histories of migration, conflict, and essentialization by the Brazilian
291 state. Rather, ‘becoming’ (*become* as in transform, *-ing* as in ongoing) helps us approach
292 autodemarcations foremost as embedded practices of transformation, in which relations between the
293 Munduruku, *beiradeiros*, and territory, are made and re-made within each specific dialogue, encounter,
294 or action between the two groups.

295 This form of relationality, of co-becoming, following Fraser (2018), Coulthard (2014), and
296 Almeida (2013: 23-35) can be seen as an example of intersubjective recognition, which unlike legal
297 recognition, cannot be granted by a government entity; it involves mutual recognition within and among
298 (forest) peoples and beings that surface from the struggles and dialogues through which it is made
299 manifest. Thus, *beiradeiro* and Munduruku lifeworlds link-up insofar they push up against

300 dispossession-logics of resource extraction – logging, mining, soy and cattle. It is important to note that
301 these convergences between the Munduruku and *beiradeiros* are self-recognized by these two peoples.

302 Jairo Saw, Munduruku intellectual, draws attention to this form of relationality --- similarity
303 without equivalence --- in describing *wuyguybuğun*: “So *wuyguybuğun* they are like us, but they are not
304 an Indigenous group. Like us, they speak like us, they farm, make *farinha*, fish, but they are not like us,
305 they are not Indigenous.” (Loures 2017: 237- 238, own translation). Differences, evoked by Saw’s
306 words “they are not the same as us,” are strategically deployed during autodemarcations. For instance,
307 the presence of the Munduruku during MM autodemarcations is crucial for the *beiradeiros*; their
308 reputation as a historically warrior people and head-hunters (Murphy 1958, 1960; Loures 2017) offers
309 protection for the traditional community, who do not share similar traits. In the Brazilian Amazon, other
310 Indigenous and *beiradeiro* communities as well potential aggressors, such as illegal miners and loggers,
311 are aware of Munduruku history as a warlike people. These actors know that any act of aggression
312 against the Munduruku garners bigger political attention, both national and international, than against
313 the *beiradeiros*.

314
315 *Turning outward: the beiradeiro and Munduruku struggle to actualize ‘new rights’* is also
316 evident within autodemarcations. These are rights that did not originate in liberal philosophy and law,
317 but from popular struggles for recognition in Latin America during the late 1980s and throughout the
318 1990s (Marés 1999; Dussel 2008:124-125). As mentioned above, for Indigenous peoples in Brazil, these
319 new rights are enshrined in Article 231 of the 1988 Constitution; for *beiradeiros*, such rights are
320 expressed in several acts promulgated since the Constitution: the ratification of ILO Convention 169⁴
321 and Decree 6040/2007⁵. In Latin America, territorial policies emerging in the wake of these new rights
322 have, however, been critiqued as ‘neoliberal multiculturalism.’ Hale (2005:18) proposed that the
323 potential for liberation of ethnic territories and countermapping, specifically in Central America, is
324 foreclosed by neoliberal multiculturalism, questioning whether IPTC movements can truly create their
325 own alternatives, rather than being incorporated into liberal property regimes and further subsumed into
326 capitalist ‘development.’ For Hale, Latin American governments have diminished the radical potential
327 of ethnoterritorial rights so that they not only fail to challenge the neoliberal project, they actually
328 advance it.

329 The situation of IPTC rights in Brazil is distinct to that discussed by Hale and other critical
330 geographers such as Mollett, Bryan, and Wainwright in relation to the limitations of countermapping in
331 Central America. In Brazil, Indigenous rights were some of the first to be strongly guaranteed within
332 new Latin American Constitutions (although state apparatus guaranteeing these rights is being
333 dismantled by Bolsonaro), followed by those of Ecuador and Bolivia, notable for their advancement of
334 Indigenous rights under the Quechua and Aymara notion of Buen Vivir and rights to nature. In Brazil,
335 as in Ecuador for example (see e.g. Riofrancos 2020), although such rights exist in law, scholars point
336 to the need to press governments to actualize those rights and to abide by the principles set down in the
337 constitution. The battle over land turns on the fact that once recognized, Indigenous and other
338 traditionally occupied lands, in being inalienable, cannot be commodified. On the Upper Tapajós, legal
339 recognition of different kinds of traditionally occupied lands is an effective way of accessing
340 constitutional rights (in theory) and provides a degree of protection against land invasions and formal

⁴ IPTC rights to free, prior and informed consent over any development project or legislation affecting their territories (e.g. dam building) is guaranteed in the International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention 169, which has been integrated into Brazilian law since 2004 under Presidential Decree No. 5051.

⁵ E.g. Decree 6040, entitled “National Policy for the Sustainable Development of Traditional Peoples and Communities”, provided the legislative framework for the recognition of traditional peoples, such as the *beiradeiros*, in Brazil.

341 mining by corporations (not *garimpos*) (Torres et al. 2017). We say this in relation to current laws,
342 which are under serious attack by Bolsonaro.

343 It is with regard to these legislative possibilities and constraints that we can approach the
344 relationship between rights and co-becoming within autodemarcations. Drawing from a different
345 (Foucauldian) theoretical tradition, actualizing rights in this case can be seen as a form of co-becoming
346 insofar as the two peoples' subjectivities are mutually reshaped in the very struggle to realize these
347 rights 'on the ground' (Golder 2015; Nepomuceno et al. 2019). Borrowing this insight, we can say that
348 the mutual transformation of *beiradeiro* and Munduruku worlds, their co-becoming, is therefore not
349 external to the legislative realm. While sharp legal differences between the two groups remain, both
350 *beiradeiro* and Munduruku practices of appealing to relevant rights is not so dissimilar: they are using
351 the legal tools available to them to maintain their territories and ensure their intergenerational survival.

352 We further position these rights as effective insofar as they keep land out of the market and
353 create a legal framework to exclude invaders. Even under Bolsonaro, these rights create the legislative
354 structures necessary to remove invaders and also give IPTC access to constitutional rights (i.e.
355 health/education especially for the *beiradeiros*). If the state refuses to action such rights to remove
356 invaders, we can see that what is failing is the actualization of the right, not the right itself. This "deep
357 conflict between the abstract form of the proprietary right and the conditions for its realization" is well
358 established in the literature on property in the Americas (Nichols 2020:32; Escobar 2008).

359 While within Indigenous legal systems, land is collectively held by a people, the Brazilian state
360 is marked by legal individualism in relation to property. The collective rights of peoples are formalized,
361 contradictorily, as individual rights. The 1988 Constitution assured Indigenous peoples' collective right
362 to land while rights to the subsoil remain protected by the Federal Union. While Indigenous peoples
363 have the right to perpetual and exclusive use of land, its ownership is both individual and public (Marés
364 2003a; 2003b). This is the key contradiction: legally, Indigenous Territories are individual property and
365 their holder and owner is the state. TIs therefore have individual titles like any other private property,
366 in terms of legal form, but have collective tenure.

367 This legislative apparatus similarly applies to the territories of traditional non-Indigenous
368 communities, such as MM. In their PAE (Agroextractivist Project), a modality by which the state grants
369 land to the *beiradeiros*, the right to resource use is exclusively held by the *beiradeiros* although the
370 state owns the land. PAE constitutes a public good and not private property. Being public property
371 provides such territories with tenurial security, since they are inalienable. In such territories where the
372 right to use and occupy is owned by the communities, but the property is in the name of the state, lands
373 are fixed assets and cannot be sold on the market.

374

375 **4. *Wuyguybuğun* (those who live like us)**

376 When the Munduruku heard of death threats to Caititu and other leaders in early 2018 after a wave of
377 autodemarcations at MM, they published a letter articulating their co-becoming:

378 We, the Munduruku and the *beiradeiros*, are of the same river, we are of the same blood, we
379 are of the same forest. We were created together ... if you mess with the *beiradeiros*, who are
380 together with us in the struggle, you are also messing with the Munduruku.

381 Similarly, the Munduruku leader Kabaiwun, when addressing the *beiradeiros*, positioned the two
382 peoples as relatives – of the same blood, same river:

383 Autodemarcation is where we show our resistance, in the defence of our territory... We
384 understand that this struggle is not only yours, it is all of ours: we are all the people of the
385 Tapajós. We have the same blood, we are from the same river...the path we are building for
386 our children, is also for the *beiradeiros*. It doesn't matter if this [autodemarcation] is for the
387 *beiradeiros* because we are relatives.

388 In both the letter and Kabaiwun's words, relational modes of being between *beiradeiros* and
389 Munduruku are positioned as emerging through shared struggle and interlinked ways of relating to river
390 and forest. The terms *wuyguybuḡun* and 'relative' point to how formation of a collective subject during
391 processes of autodemarcation works to unsettle colonial imaginaries. These imaginaries naturalize and
392 rationalize the division between Indigenous subjects as romanticized and authentic others *vis-a-vis* the
393 *beiradeiros* as a 'counterfeit other' (cf. Nugent 1997).

394 Yet, as stated above, autodemarcations do not do away with these binaries. We return to Jairo
395 Saw's formulation of *wuyguybuḡun*, which evidences a repositioning rather than dissolution of
396 difference:

397 There are *pariwat* who are, who live like an *índio*, but are not Indigenous. Caititu is not a
398 *pariwat*, he is considered *wuyguybuḡun*, he lives like an *índio*, he lives on the forest, he lives
399 from fishing, he lives from hunting, he lives from the fields and knows the importance of nature,
400 the river, animals. But he doesn't have a culture that is the same as a Munduruku, he doesn't
401 paint himself ... So *wuyguybuḡun* they are like us, but they are not an Indigenous group. Like
402 us, they speak like us, they farm, make *farinha* [flour made from manioc], fish, but they are not
403 like us, they are not Indigenous ... if we speak to them in Munduruku, they will not understand.
404 They will speak only the language of the *pariwat*. They don't understand what I'm saying in
405 Munduruku, and if they speak Portuguese, we also don't understand. So, they have ears like
406 ours but they don't understand like us. This is the name *wuyguybuḡun*. That is why they are not
407 all the same, they are different... If I eat a baked fish, if he starts to see that this food that the
408 Munduruku eats, if he participates, then he is not *pariwat*, he is *wuyguybuḡun*. He knows how
409 to value our food, our way of feeding ourselves, so he knows our food is enjoyable (Loures
410 2017: 236-237).

411 In Jairo's statement, like Kabaiwun's, the *beiradeiros* are not positioned *as* the Munduruku. Rather,
412 they are "like" the Munduruku, "of the same river", and "those that live *like* us", the 'like' here noting
413 comparison rather than equivalence. The grounds for such comparisons and for *wuyguybuḡun* to rise
414 are precisely the shared practices of living in the forest– knowing how to fish, hunt, cultivate, make
415 *farinha*. These are the kind of embedded practices that Bawaka et al. deem imperative to co-becoming.

416 We can therefore think of *wuyguybuḡun* as a re-situating of *beiradeiro* lifeworlds and
417 settlement in relation to Indigenous ones. Having until a few generations ago warred over territory, the
418 *beiradeiros* and Munduruku came together politically in May 2013. They faced a common antagonist:
419 the state's plans for 43 dams on the Tapajós, that if built, would both flood and dispossess each group
420 of their territories. It was through this early alliance-building that each group began to rearticulate their
421 understandings of territory in relation to the other's. The following quote from Kabaiwun, a Munduruku
422 leader, illustrates this novel form of relationality:

423 “Since we made our alliance in common struggle, we have shown that we the Munduruku and
424 the *beiradeiros* are here to show our resistance, that we would never let them [the government]
425 build any project without recognising that we are the owners of this territory, [which is] as
426 much territory [of] Mundurukânia [the ancestral territory of all Munduruku] as territory [of]
427 Montanha-Mangabal”.

428 The increased use of *wuyguybuḡun* during the autodemarcations and the coming together did
429 not happen from one moment to the next: it is built on innumerable meetings, actions, and dialogue
430 over eight years. The alliance began just after the Munduruku had occupied the construction site of the
431 Belo Monte hydroelectric dam on the Xingu River, which neighbours the Tapajós, in 2013. This direct
432 action guaranteed the full attention of the national and international media on the question of dams and
433 their effects on Amazonian peoples (Loures 2017). Some of the *beiradeiros*, then much less politically
434 mobilized than the Munduruku, heard of the occupation and decided to support the Munduruku. In a
435 historic move, the *beiradeiros* published their first letter in support of the occupation, noting, “We were
436 never very close to our neighbours, the Munduruku” in 2013.

437 As the first *beiradeiro* participant in the occupation and subsequent protests in Brasília,
438 Caititu’s presence was paramount for grounding ties between each group. On his return in July 2013,
439 Caititu gave an interview on local radio in the city of Santarém. No longer talking about “distant
440 neighbours”, with his whole body painted with *jenipapo* in Munduruku designs, Caititu referred to “our
441 Munduruku brothers”. Caititu travelled throughout MM recounting the Munduruku people’s dedicated
442 resistance to the dam projects. From then on, Caititu was always invited to represent MM at Munduruku
443 assemblies, meetings lasting days or weeks and involving lengthy political deliberations where
444 everyone has the right to speak and decisions are made by consensus (Loures 2017).

445 The alliance was cemented in 2014, when after numerous meetings, the Munduruku decided to
446 autodemarcate SM, their territory on the opposite bank of the river to the *beiradeiros*’ territory of MM,
447 in their struggles against the construction of the São Luiz do Tapajós dam on their lands (Figure 1).
448 Caititu’s help in the autodemarcation of SM was so important for the Munduruku that they began calling
449 him the “chief of Mangabal.” At the time, Caititu explained the significance of the alliance:

450 “If we do not fight as hard as the Munduruku fight for the demarcation of their area [SM], we
451 will suffer aggression from loggers, gold miners and other people. We asked for the support of
452 the government, which says it will help but this takes a very long time. So, we decided to do it
453 [ourselves], today we have a very big alliance. We are working with the Munduruku because
454 much of our rights as traditional people have been violated as much as those of the indigenous
455 people. I spent two months and eighteen days struggling in the Munduruku autodemarcations”.

456 In 2017, when the *beiradeiros* decided to autodemarcate MM, the Munduruku reciprocated. The
457 Munduruku were present during all stages of the MM autodemarcation – even those from TI Munduruku
458 about 400 km upriver from MM. In each five-day stage, representatives from other Amazonian
459 Indigenous groups also joined. A group of Sateré-Mawé travelled for four days to participate in the
460 activity, as well as Katxuyana, Tiriyo, Tunayana and Xerew leaders who travelled from the upper
461 Trombetas River. The Borari from the lower Tapajós also supported the *beiradeiros* in attending
462 preliminary meetings to discuss the action and exchange methods of collaboratively fighting to secure
463 their territories. All peoples involved shared the experience of difficulties in the formal recognition of
464 their territories and threats of land-grabbing. A Katxuyana leader, Juventino, explained in 2017:

465 “We have come to help the *beiradeiro* people of MM and it is a pleasure to be together with
466 them because it is an extra force that we have to fight against the big companies that want to
467 destroy our territories. This partnership strengthens us more and more. It's no use fighting
468 separately. The union of the Indigenous people with *beiradeiros* and *quilombolas* [descendants
469 of maroon communities] must prevail. We are here to add our strength and continue in this
470 great endeavour, which is to defend our territories”.

471 Juventino’s words demonstrate how autodemarcations function not only in resisting the
472 incorporation of territory into national and international markets. In the lived experience of such shared
473 activities recognition and the potential of co-becomings beyond the Tapajós is generated: both
474 intersubjective recognition within the community and from other peoples who may have once been
475 enemies as well legal territorial recognition from the state and the policies that this gives access to (i.e.,
476 rights to health and differentiated education).

477 In line with Kabaiwun’s ‘one river-one people’ claim above, we suggest that the Munduruku
478 and *beiradeiros* lifeworlds, reassembled through autodemarcations, unsettle the encroachment of
479 colonial and modern imaginaries which isolate and divide the forest, the river, and its inhabitants (both
480 human and other-than-human) into discrete categories. For the Munduruku and *beiradeiros*, territory is
481 inseparable from origin stories, memories of shared pasts and each group's ways of being in the world
482 through which relations between people and non-human beings, the river in this case, are made
483 manifest. Such understandings of land as a network of reciprocity and care, between the *beiradeiros*,
484 Munduruku, and other entities, are sustained against the encroachment of modern logics that privilege
485 self-referential entities over relations (Blaser 2010:144). As ways in which Munduruku and *beiradeiro*
486 worlds are re-articulated in relation to each other, together “one-river-one-people” and *Wuyğuybuğun*
487 demonstrate how co-becomings on the Tapajós resist logics that try to dispossess both groups of their
488 lands— both as means of material survival and essential to continuation of IPTC lifeworlds in the region.

489 **5. The autodemarcations at Montanha-Mangabal and Sawre Muybu**

490 In early 2018, three community leaders prominent in this paper – Caititu, Ageu Lobo and Kabaiwun –
491 received numerous death threats linked to their relentless political actions to secure their ancestral
492 territories, including their leadership during autodemarcations. Forcing them into hiding for several
493 months, these threats come from loggers and land grabbers acting in parallel with gold mining mafias.
494 Autodemarcations, in documenting land invasions and expelling invaders, bring insecurity to *garimpos*
495 and *grileiros*, increasing the risk of their being expelled from the Tapajós by the federal government
496 agency IBAMA (the Brazilian Institute of the Environment and Renewable Resources). More
497 profoundly, they unsettle the liberal-colonial structures that constitute state and capital. Whilst formally,
498 the state creates regulations to prohibit open collusion with such forms of capitalist accumulation, in
499 practice the absence of state institutions – the police, INCRA, (the National Institute for Colonization
500 and Agrarian Reform), ICMBio (The Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation) and
501 FUNAI, dealing with issues of land, the environment and Indigenous peoples, respectively— means
502 that the law goes unrealized on the ground.

503 Recent literature on countermapping (e.g. Offen 2003; Bryan 2011; Mollett 2013; Anthias
504 2019) documents the making of a variety of new modalities of collective property rights that, whilst
505 being distinct to individual landownership, also subtend the expansion and deepening of private
506 property regime and its logics. The case studies presented demonstrate how mapping and demarcation
507 often do not lead to the outcomes envisaged by their protagonists. In the case of SM and MM, however,

508 the recognition of the legal rights of Indigenous peoples and traditional communities to their territories
509 are tools which help resist the expansion of liberal property regimes. Autodemarcations on the Tapajós
510 therefore nuance the notion presented by Anthias (2020:268-9) that “property and territory, viewed as
511 conjoined modern technologies of rule, work together to efface alternative indigenous ontologies of
512 land and reinscribe state sovereignty over indigenous socio-natures.” Territory, even as a modern
513 technology of rule, is critical for the persistence of contiguous IPTC spaces in the Brazilian Amazon.

514 On the Tapajós, the Munduruku and the *beiradeiros* explain that their decision to physically
515 demarcate their territories was because the state had not fulfilled its legal obligations to do so *and* due
516 to invasions by illegal loggers, *grileiros*, and the owners of *garimpos* (for more on these invasions on
517 the Tapajós see Torres 2008; Campbell 2015; Torres et al. 2017). The particular impacts of such
518 invasions are felt in the decrease of hunting species, owing to the noise of machinery, the clearing and
519 distribution of their living grounds and the felling of fruit-producing species on which they feed. Land-
520 grabbing is characterized as a severe form of dispossession in that it expels the original occupants and
521 facilitates private appropriation (Torres 2008; 2018).

522 The power of autodemarcation can be discerned from the fierce responses of loggers and land-
523 grabbers to it. During the first stage of the MM autodemarcation in 2007, tensions between *grileiros*
524 and *beiradeiros* resulted in an exchange of gunshots. Similarly, in 2017, *grileiros* who wanted to take
525 over the *beiradeiros*’ territory threatened community members as they crossed the *grileiros*’ illegal
526 logging road during their autodemarcation. The clandestine road cut through the MM territory to
527 connect the BR-230 (TransAmazonia highway) with the banks of the Tapajós River. In 2019, during
528 one of the SM autodemarcations, the group found a clandestine loggers’ road in Munduruku territory.
529 In a few minutes, about thirty men surrounded the small group of ten Munduruku, *beiradeiros* and
530 journalists. The incident was caused by the Munduruku putting a hand-made sign on the side of the road,
531 signalling that this location was in their territory. In both 2017 and 2019, merely the act of clearing
532 overgrown paths from an earlier autodemarcations resulted in death threats to Munduruku leaders.

533 In both SM and MM, counter-mapping preceded autodemarcation, guided precisely by the
534 boundaries mapped by the groups themselves. Both groups sought to resist the incorporation of land
535 into markets and the return of lands stolen by *grileiros* to their previous status as non-alienable territory
536 of common use. At MM this meant non-tradable usufruct rights given to the *beiradeiros* through the
537 modality of an Agroextractivist Settlement Project (PAE) in 2013. In the case of SM, Munduruku land
538 was marked as being inside the National Forests Itaituba I and II, both conservation units allowing the
539 auctioning of forests in concessions of up to 40 years for logging by large companies.

540 In 2014, the Munduruku used counter-mapping practices as a means of meeting state-stipulated
541 criteria for demarcation, with an anthropologist (normal for Indigenous demarcations) in concert with
542 FUNAI, fulfilling one of the requirements of the official process of recognition of their territory. If
543 officially approved, the delimitation would make it difficult for the government to grant logging
544 concessions in the National Forest overlapping SM, and in licensing the planned São Luiz of Tapajós
545 dam. From 2004 to 2006, MM also undertook similar counter-mapping efforts. An action termed
546 “*varação*” (instead of autodemarcation) was undertaken over five days in 2007. A company, Indusolo,
547 was trying to appropriate the territory of MM (Torres 2008), which is to the *beiradeiros* a commons
548 impossible to integrate into the land market.

549 Whilst the *beiradeiros* focused on demarcating limits already guaranteed by the Brazilian state
550 as of 2013, in 2014, the Munduruku sought to materialize limits that did not officially exist ‘on paper’.

551 In Brazilian legislation, an Indigenous territory (TI) is not acknowledged by environmental impact
552 studies if its delimitation is not published through a Circumstantial Report on Identification and
553 Delimitation (RCID). SM's autodemarcation as a political action focused on the publication of the RCID
554 in the context of the threat of São Luís do Tapajós hydroelectric project. Only after successive
555 autodemarcation stages was the RCID for SM published by the government in April 2016. As is
556 common with Indigenous peoples in Brazil, the Munduruku of SM were recognized as a group and
557 were able to access Indigenous rights to services (health and education) *even before* their territorial
558 rights were formalized via demarcation.

559 MM was different. Even *with* territorial rights recognized, they were still “abandoned” (as they
560 put it) in terms of the non-actualization of civil rights such as access to education, health and
561 transportation within the community. *Beiradeiros* do not have specialized health and education like
562 Indigenous people and often have to go to the nearby city of Itaituba to receive these rights. As a MM
563 leader, Ageu Lobo, explained:

564 “We hope that with the demarcation done, we can make the state feel responsible and that they
565 come to the community to implement public policies. There is no middle school here, so our
566 children go to Itaituba [nearest city to the community]. Often girls get pregnant and stop
567 studying, boys sometimes end up falling in with bad people and take drugs and leave school.
568 We need a school so our children stay here and to create unity”.

569 However, legal recognition of their territory pressured local government to comply with the
570 law and grant them access to their most basic constitutional rights, for example education within the
571 community, pensions and credit. Hence, access to constitutional rights and public policies is an integral
572 part of territorial control for MM.

573 There was an additional difficulty in the *beiradeiros*' struggle for legal recognition from the
574 state. If the Munduruku could count on the juridical modality of indigenous land (TI), this did not apply
575 to the *beiradeiros* since there is no modality for “*beiradeiro* territory”. Their first strategy was to try for
576 the creation of an Extractive Reserve (RESEX) in 2006, a conservation unit modality for traditional
577 communities granted by INCRA. The government's intended dams on the Tapajós River would have
578 been complicated by a RESEX, so the Rousseff government dismissed its creation. The alternative
579 which emerged was the formation of an Agroextractivist Settlement program (PAE) in 2013, a kind of
580 agrarian reform suited to the communal resource use of traditional communities. This is however
581 arguably inappropriate to do justice to the relations to land occupied for centuries by the *beiradeiros*
582 (Guerrero and Torres 2013).

583

584 **6. Concluding discussion**

585 In this paper we have approached autodemarcations as a form of co-becoming on the Tapajós in terms
586 of a ‘turn inwards’ (intersubjective recognition, *wuyguybuğun*) and a ‘turn outwards’ (legal recognition,
587 or the struggle to actualize constitutional rights). Yet as we have seen, this inward/outward turn is not
588 symmetrical: although autodemarcations in the Tapajós require the creation of boundaries (turn
589 outward), our paper emphasizes how crucial relational practices (turn inward) are to both groups’
590 struggles against the dispossession of their lands. We argue for a capacious understanding of co-
591 becoming in which turning outwards does not mean a complete submission to the liberal state apparatus.
592 Rather than rejecting the state, the Munduruku and *beiradeiros* carefully engage with liberal forms of

593 legal recognition in order to demarcate their territories and access rights. They do not expect the state
594 to carry out demarcation processes, exerting agency in seeking the freedom to continue living according
595 to their own ways of being in the world.

596 For example, in MM, the *beiradeiros* pressured INCRA to accompany parts of the
597 autodemarcation, who also placed official markers alongside the *beiradeiros*' handmade signs.
598 However, according to the *beiradeiros*, the autodemarcation did not cease to be 'theirs' nor was it 'taken
599 over' by state control. Rather, INCRA's presence during one autodemarcation was articulated by the
600 *beiradeiros* not only as their own achievement but also from confidence born out of their alliance with
601 the Munduruku. It was only after the completion of the first stage of the MM autodemarcation that the
602 community received the necessary recognition to persuade INCRA to accompany them in subsequent
603 autodemarcations – a demand grounded in hearing and seeing how the Munduruku interacted with the
604 state in strategic ways during their actions. Thus, autodemarcations on the Tapajós are both about IPTC
605 executing the work that would normally be done by the state, getting the state to work for them, and the
606 very intersubjective transformations that occur within processes to actualize rights. In a larger sense,
607 autodemarcations and other forms of struggle for recognition of territorial and civil rights can also be
608 categorized as examples of popular participation in state politics --- a deepening of democracy in Brazil
609 --- as subaltern actors such as the Munduruku and the *beiradeiros* engage in what can be seen as state-
610 building processes even as their practices exceed state logics (Lund 2017). There is an important lesson
611 here for public policy in Brazil, which we contend needs to have greater formal recognition of such
612 'forest citizenship' practices (Schmink 2011). This could be achieved by requiring institutions such as
613 FUNAI and INCRA to formally support autodemarcation processes as legitimate methods of
614 recognizing and actualizing territorial and civil rights.

615 Guided by such demands of legal recognition, but more crucially, modes of intersubjective
616 recognition made and remade through the shared act of walking through the forest, we position
617 autodemarcations in the Tapajós foremost as forms of co-becoming between the Munduruku and
618 *beiradeiros*. This is echoed in the following response from Ageu, when asked what autodemarcation
619 meant to him: "autodemarcation is a guarantee of territory and a way to pressure the government and
620 create friendship and unity within the community. And with the Munduruku we get closer still". Beyond
621 pressuring government, "friendship and unity" arises between two peoples who were once antagonists.
622 Anderson Painhum Munduruku theorizes the latter during the fourth phase of the MM autodemarcation:
623 "the autodemarcation of these lands will give more security to the people of MM and to the Munduruku;
624 it will be like a fence to stop the invasion of the *pariwat*". Anderson positions the *beiradeiros* as
625 distinctly separate from the *pariwat* – enemy no longer. This recognition and co-becoming is affective,
626 evident in shared corporeal and emotional experiences that make-up autodemarcations: going hungry
627 and thirsty, hunting for food, stepping through shoulder-height water, hearing the chainsaws of
628 *madeireiros* at a distance, and confronting armed *grileiros*.

629 For the Munduruku and *beiradeiros*, autodemarcation is never complete: it is, as we have
630 argued, a continual process of co-becoming, of pushing up against and grappling with ongoing forms
631 of colonialism. The forest itself, part of a wider set of other-than-human relations, resists the territorial
632 limits set up during the autodemarcation. After a few months, old paths are buried under new vegetation.
633 Boundaries remain alive and in constant flux. The same is true of invaders – new threats appear days
634 or months after autodemarcation so that, as Caititu explains, "every two years, we have to renew the
635 *pico*". Despite exile and frequent death threats, during his participation in the fifth phase of the
636 Munduruku autodemarcation of TI SM in July 2019, Caititu affirmed with confidence,
637 "autodemarcations have no end in sight."

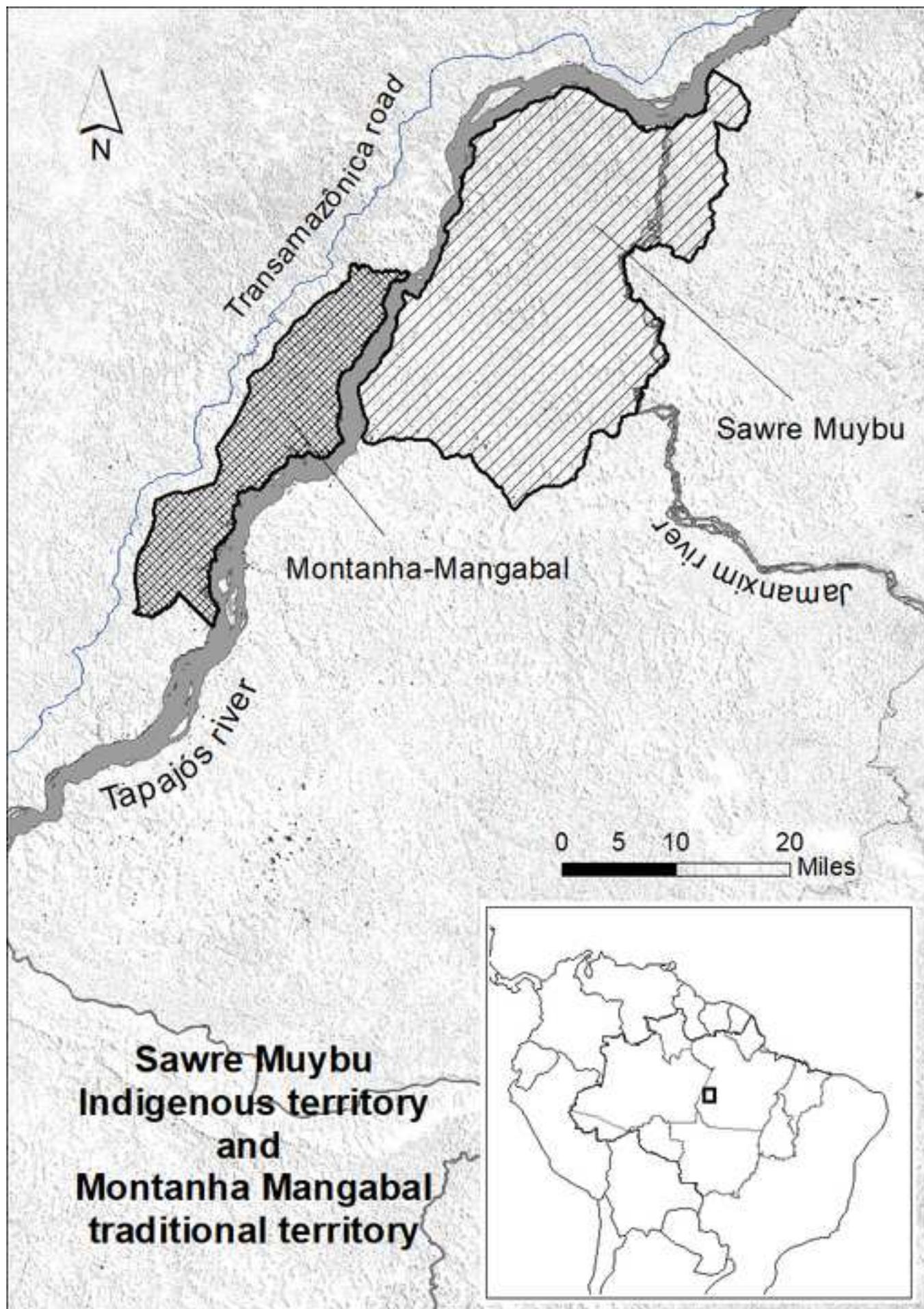
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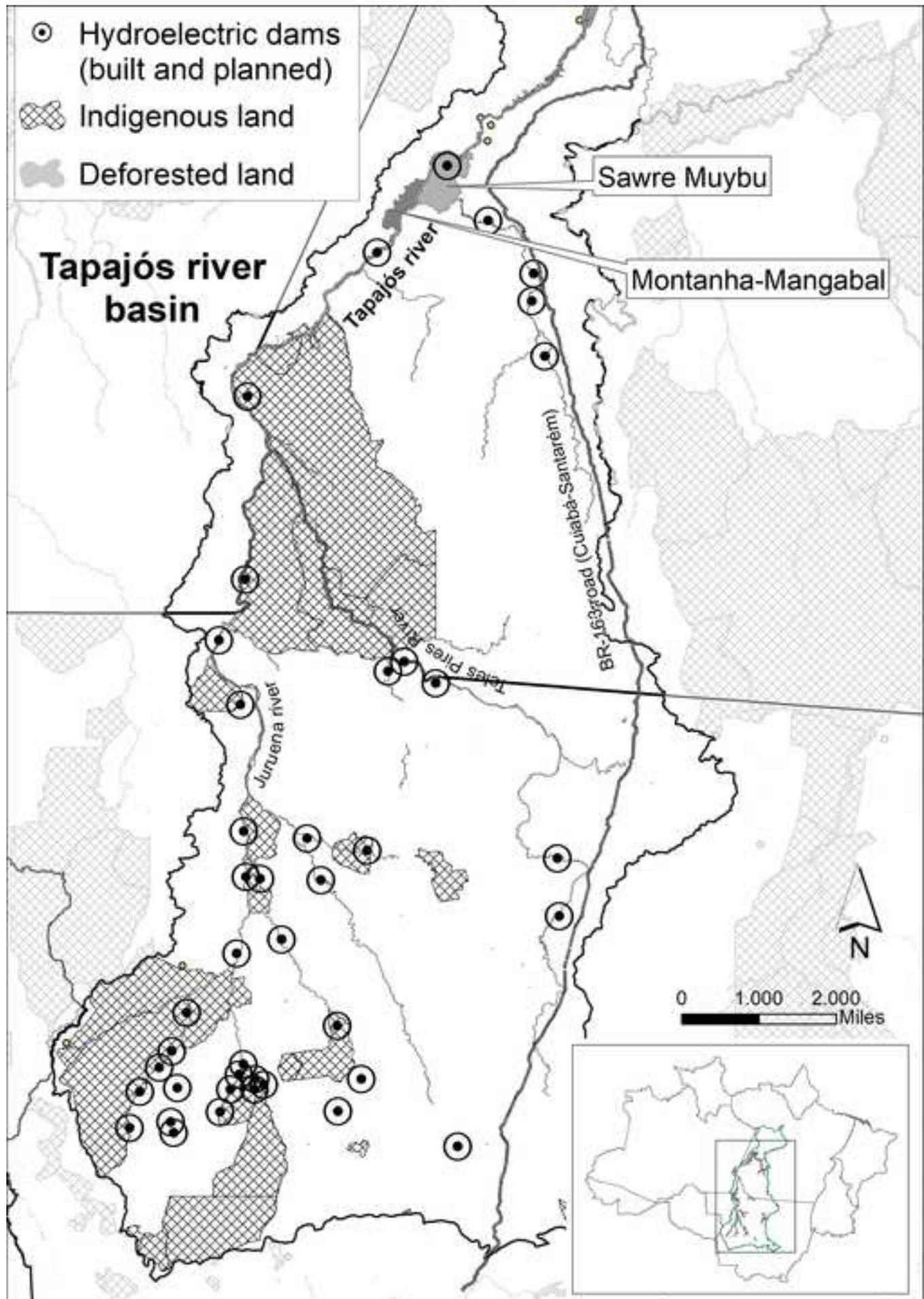
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Highlights for: **Those who live like us: Autodemarcations and the co-becoming of Indigenous and *beiradeiros* on the Upper Tapajós River, Brazilian Amazonia**

- We examine autodemarcations by traditional *beiradeiros* and Indigenous Munduruku using the concept of ‘co-becoming.’
- Co-becoming unseats colonial identities via mutual recognition between two peoples while claiming rights from the state.
- Co-becomings demonstrate radical potential of auto-demarcations beyond physical marking of boundaries and maps.

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