As an advanced civilization developed in Rome, other civilizations were developing in the Americas. These early American cultures found unique ways of adapting to the varied environments of the Americas. Some groups even developed sophisticated government structures and works of art and engineering that rivaled those of the ancient Romans.

**Social Studies Objectives**

2.08 Evaluate the achievements of the major civilizations of the Americas during the pre-Columbian epoch including, but not limited to, the Aztecs, Incas, and Mayas.

**Language Arts Objective**

2.01.4 Demonstrate the ability to read, listen to and view a variety of increasingly complex print and non-print information texts appropriate to grade level and course by demonstrating comprehension of main idea and supporting details.

**TIME LINE**

**WORLD EVENTS**

- **c. 500 BC**
  - Athens develops the world’s first democracy.
- **c. 500 BC**
  - The Moche culture develops in Peru’s coastal desert.
- **206 BC**
  - The Han dynasty begins its rule of China.
- **476**
  - The Roman Empire falls.
- **c. 750**
  - The Anasazi develop pueblo architecture.
- **c. 700**
  - Murasaki Shikibu writes *The Tale of Genji*, the world’s first novel.

**CHAPTER EVENTS**

- **c. 400 BC**
  - The Moche culture develops in Peru’s coastal desert.
- **Classic Age of Maya Civilization 250–900**
- **c. 750**
  - The Anasazi develop pueblo architecture.

196 CHAPTER 7
History’s Impact video program
Watch the video to understand the impact of Maya achievements on math and astronomy.

1325
The Aztecs establish their capital at Tenochtitlán.

1453
Constantinople becomes part of the Ottoman Empire.

1492
Columbus begins his journey to the Americas.

Analyzing Visuals
This photograph shows the ruins of Machu Picchu, an ancient Inca city high in the Andes Mountains. Historians think this city was built as a retreat for Inca royalty. It lay all but forgotten for hundreds of years until its rediscovery in 1911.

**Analyzing Visuals** Why do you think the Inca chose to build a royal city in this location? What benefits and challenges do you think the geography presented?

See *Skills Handbook*, p. H26

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**1500**

**Reading like a Historian**

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**1325**

**1440**

Pachacuti begins to expand the Inca Empire.

**1096**

European Christians begin the Crusades for control of the Holy Land.
Starting Points. North and South America have almost every possible type of environment—from frozen tundra to dusty deserts to lush tropical forests. In spite of the environmental differences, early people settled in almost every part of the Americas. They quickly learned to adapt to their region’s unique climate, vegetation, and topography.

1. **Compare** What type of environments do you think would be most suitable for developing farming societies?

2. **Predict** In what ways might people adapt to living in cold forest and tundra areas? in highland areas?

Go online to listen to an explanation of the starting points for this chapter.

**Listen to History**

**Keyword:** SHL ANS
North America

Before You Read

Main Idea
As people settled in North America, they adapted to different types of geography by developing different styles of housing and ways of getting food.

Reading Focus
1. How did cultures adapt to the environment of the Desert West?
2. How have scientists learned about the mound builders?
3. How did geography affect the Inuit, the Iroquois, and the Plains Indians?

Key Terms
- adobe
- pueblo
- kivas
- maize
- Iroquois League

The First Americans

Where did they come from and how did they get here? In 1996 two college students stumbled upon a human skull in the Columbia River near Kennewick, Washington. Later searches in the area turned up a nearly complete 9,000-year-old skeleton. Scientists nicknamed the skeleton Kennewick Man. Kennewick Man is helping scientists answer some questions about the first Americans.

Scientists have put forth many theories on how and when people first arrived in the Americas. According to one theory, the last ice age caused ocean levels to fall, exposing dry land across the Bering Strait, between present-day Russia and Alaska. At that time, sometime between 25,000 and 14,000 years ago, small bands of people from Asia could have crossed this “land bridge,” known as Beringia, as they followed the animals they were hunting into North America and formed settlements. From there, the people would have continued migrating southward as they looked for food.

Recent archaeological discoveries, such as Kennewick Man, suggest that the land bridge theory may not fully explain the arrival of the first Americans. One important recent discovery is the Monte Verde site in southern Chile. Remains found there are at least 12,500 years old—and may be as old as 30,000 years! If the remains are that old, it might have been impossible for humans to have migrated there from the Beringia land bridge. Many scientists now think that early people may have arrived to the Americas along the coasts, perhaps using boats. However they got here, as they spread across the continents, early Americans had to learn to adapt to many different environments.
Cultures of the Desert West

Much of the southwestern United States and northern Mexico is desert. Early people in this region learned how to farm in the harsh, dry environment and to build their homes out of local materials.

**Hohokam** In the Desert West the Hohokam (ho-ho-kam) flourished from 300 BC to AD 1500. To farm in the desert, the Hohokam built shallow canals for irrigation. Next to the canals the Hohokam planted crops in a series of earthen mounds. Woven mats created dams in the canals that directed irrigation water toward the earthen crop mounds.

The Hohokam expanded their irrigation system to channel water into their villages. In addition to wells and other types of containers for storing water, Hohokam villages contained dwellings called pithouses. Pithouses were formed by digging shallow holes in the ground and building walls and roofs with a mixture of clay and straw called **adobe**.

**Anasazi** The Anasazi lived in the Desert West near the Hohokam from about 100 BC to AD 1300. Like their neighbors, they lived in pithouses. However, around the end of the first century AD the Anasazi developed a new kind of architecture called **pueblo**. Pueblos were several stories high and had many rooms, similar to modern apartment buildings. It was easier for the Anasazi to add rooms in pueblos than to dig pithouses. Most villages also had underground rooms called **kivas**. Kivas were used as meeting places or for religious ceremonies.

Also typical of Anasazi architecture were **cliff dwellings**. Pueblos were built in shallow caves high up in the walls of canyons. To enter their cliff dwellings, the Anasazi used staircases carved into the rock walls or ladders with notched footholds made from tree trunks. Because of their limited accessibility, cliff dwellings offered protection from attack.

**Reading Check** Make Generalizations
How did cultures of the Desert West adapt their architecture to their environment?

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North American Cultures

North American cultures within certain regions shared similar characteristics. The geography of a region determined to a large extent what people ate, where they lived, and how their societies functioned. **Which cultures relied most on fishing?**

**Arctic & Subarctic**

Ivory from walrus tusks was one of the few resources available to the Inuit for making ornaments.
- Peoples included the Inuit, Aleut, and Ingali
- Environmental conditions included permanent snow and ice
- Relied on fishing and hunting sea mammals for food
- Built houses out of ice

**Far West**

The bird and fish decoration on this spool shows two aspects of life for Native Americans in the far west.
- Peoples included the Haida, Chinook, Columbia, Miwok, and Chumash
- Geography included rivers, forests, and a long coastline
- Fishing in rivers and the ocean was a main method of getting food
- Built houses and canoes out of wood from the forests
The Mound Builders

In the eastern woodlands of North America, near the Ohio and Mississippi river valleys, lived several societies known for the large earthen mounds they built. The mounds tell us about the cultures of these societies.

**Hopewell** One early group of mound builders was the Hopewell, who lived from 200 BC to AD 500. They built large stone and earth mounds as burial sites. The size of the mounds suggests that Hopewell society included some form of organized labor. Buried inside the mounds were objects such as pottery and metal ornaments. These objects provide other clues to Hopewell society. For example, daggers of obsidian from the Rocky Mountains and shells from the Gulf of Mexico show that the Hopewell developed an extensive trade network.

In spite of their relatively organized society, the Hopewell culture gradually declined beginning around AD 400. Scientists are still unsure of the cause of this culture’s decline.

**Mississippian** Later mound builders, the Mississippians, built some of the earliest cities in North America. Their largest city, Cahokia, had a population of up to 20,000 people and contained more than 100 mounds. Cahokia was a planned city. It was built by an organized Mississippian labor force using mathematical and engineering skills. For example, engineers used different types of soils in building the mounds to ensure proper drainage.

The layout of the city and the objects found in its mounds suggest that Mississippian society was complex and had clear divisions between social classes. Priests ruled Cahokia and surrounding villages, with the ruler living atop the largest mound in the city center. Rows of other houses surrounded a central plaza. In addition, artifacts found in some burial mounds show differences between common people and people who had elite status in society.

**READING CHECK** Summarize What do the mounds tell us about Hopewell and Mississippian society?
Other Cultures of North America

In other areas of North America, cultures developed differently according to their different environments. The varied geography of the continent determined the way these peoples got food, made shelter, and organized their societies.

The Inuit  The Inuit lived in the Arctic regions of North America. In this frozen, treeless landscape, the Inuit could not depend on vegetation for their food source. Instead, they became skilled hunters and fishers. Using kayaks, the Inuit hunted sea mammals such as seals. They also caught fish through holes in the ice. In the summer, the Inuit hunted land animals like caribou. Caribou skins and furs were important for making warm clothing. They also served as furniture in the Inuit igloos, or houses made from ice blocks.

The Iroquois  To the south, in eastern North America, where it was warmer, the Iroquois relied on materials in their forest environment. They built their dwellings, called longhouses, from elm bark. For food, they trapped forest animals. The climate also allowed the Iroquois to farm crops such as beans, squash, and maize, which is another word for corn.

Although they shared many similar characteristics, the Iroquois were actually made up of five different nations. They included the Cayuga, Mohawk, Oneida, Onondaga, and Seneca. These tribes eventually formed a joint government called the Iroquois League. Each chief in the league had one vote. In the 1700s the Tuscarora were admitted to the League.

Plains Indians  Like the Iroquois, the Plains Indians consisted of different tribes. However, not all spoke the same language, so communication was a problem. To solve the problem, the Plains Indians developed a form of sign language to communicate more easily when they met on the Great Plains.

The Great Plains region is a mostly treeless grassland. At first, the Plains Indians lived along rivers and streams, where they farmed the fertile land. After Europeans brought horses to the region, however, the lives of the Plains Indians changed. They began to use horses to follow buffalo herds over long distances. The buffalo became an even greater part of their lives. The Plains Indians ate buffalo meat, made clothing and portable tents from the skins, and used the bones and horns to make tools.

Identify Supporting Details  What details show that the Inuit, Iroquois, and Plains Indians lived in different environments?

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **Identify**  What culture developed **pueblo** architecture?
   - Explain  How were the Hohokam able to grow crops in the desert?
2. **Recall**  In what region did the mound builders live?
   - Interpret  What about the items found in burial mounds do you think led researchers to believe that the Hopewell had an extensive trade network?
   - Elaborate  How do you think the layout and mounds of Cahokia suggest that there were clear social divisions in Mississippian society?
3. **Describe**  How did the Inuit adapt to their environment?
   - Contrast  What differed about the way the Iroquois and the Plains Indians dealt with the different nations within their regions?
   - Predict  How might the lives of the Plains Indians have been different if they had not started using horses?

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Evaluate**  Using your notes on the section and a chart like the one below, list similarities and differences that developed in different cultures of North America. Note differences in climate and environment that may have affected cultures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. **Description**  Choose one early North American culture and imagine you are visiting the people of that culture for the first time. Write a short paragraph describing unique characteristics of that culture.
Was the Olmec civilization the “mother culture” of Mesoamerica? Among the ruins of an ancient Olmec city, archaeologists found some of the greatest sculptures in Mesoamerica—from tiny jade jaguar figures to giant stone heads up to 9 feet tall and weighing as much as 40 tons. This advanced artistic style led scholars to think that the Olmec were a relatively recent civilization in the region.

As more discoveries were made, however, scholars learned that the Olmec actually predated just about every other civilization in Mesoamerica. They were the first to develop what might be considered a writing system and the first to use an architecture style of pyramids and plazas that is common throughout the region. Because of all these “firsts,” scholars once called the Olmec the “mother culture” of Mesoamerica, meaning they were the ones who gave rise to all later cultures in the region.

The First Civilizations

Mesoamerica, a region that includes southern Mexico and northern Central America, was the site of the first farming settlements in the Americas. Warm temperatures, plentiful rainfall, and rich volcanic soils made the area ideal for growing crops. The first domesticated crop in the Americas, maize, was farmed in the region by around 5000 BC. Early Mesoamericans soon learned to farm beans and squash as well. Farming allowed some early peoples in Mesoamerica to create large cities and complex social structures and to advance culturally.
Olmec The Olmec lived in the hot, humid, lowlands along the Gulf coast of southern Mexico from about 1200 BC to AD 300. They built the first large towns in Mesoamerica. The earliest Olmec town contained a large pyramid and a courtyard. It also contained eight giant stone heads and several other thronelike monuments. A later town, La Venta, had more giant stone heads as well as elaborate tombs and a pyramid. Because of the types of structures and monuments in the towns, scholars think Olmec towns served as ceremonial, political, and religious centers.

The towns may have also been where Olmec rulers and their families lived. The rulers led public ceremonies that symbolized their special relationship with the gods. People of lower social classes, such as artists and farmers, lived outside the towns and supported the rulers and priests.

In addition to leading ceremonies, the Olmec elite, or high-ranking members, controlled a large trade network that stretched to central Mexico and along the Pacific coast. Olmec traders traveled the network to obtain shells and certain types of valuable stones that could not be found nearby. They exported rubber, pottery, furs, and cacao.

Trade goods were not the only things exchanged along the network of trade routes. Knowledge, beliefs, and art styles spread in this way also. For example, the Olmec invented a calendar and were perhaps the first in Mesoamerica to use writing. They were also the earliest people in the region to play what became a popular ball game. These elements of Olmec civilization can be seen in many later Mesoamerican civilizations. As influential as the Olmec were, however, the reason for their decline remains a mystery.

Zapotec One later Mesoamerican people that may have had contact with the Olmec were the Zapotec. They lived in southern Mexico from about 1500 BC to AD 750. In the beginning, the Zapotec were farmers. Around 500 BC, however, they built a capital city, Monte Albán, high above the Valley of Oaxaca (wah-HAH-kah).

Monte Albán was the first true city in Mesoamerica. Its huge main plaza was lined with pyramids, temples, and palaces, some of which were decorated with carvings that showed Olmec influence. There was also a large ball court and even an observatory. Outside the main area, the city had fifteen residential neighborhoods, each with its own plaza.
At its height in the 700s, Monte Albán had a population of as many as 35,000 people. The city declined rapidly, however. Some scholars think that Zapotec leaders probably lost their people’s support. When this happened, Mesoamerica’s first urban population moved from Monte Albán to smaller communities. The site, however, was still used for high-status burials.

**Toltec** The Toltec, who lived in the highlands of central Mexico from AD 900 to 1200, formed another urban civilization. An early Toltec leader established a capital at Tula. Tula’s location near obsidian mines made it a major trade center.

Like other early Mesoamerican cities, Tula had pyramids and temples. Unlike other cities, however, Tula’s art and architecture showed the militaristic nature of its inhabitants. Statues and carvings of warriors celebrate the fierce Toltecs, who established military dominance over a large region. Toltec dominance did not last, however. Some combination of climate change and social conflict led to the abandonment of Tula in less than three centuries.

**The Maya**

The civilizations of the Olmec, Zapotec, and Toltec were small compared to the Maya civilization that developed in Mesoamerica around 1000 BC. At its height, Maya civilization consisted of some 10 million people spread among 40 cities.

**Early Maya Civilization** Before they built cities, the Maya lived in small villages where they grew corn, beans, and squash. While they benefited from good rainfall and rich soils, their rain forest environment presented some challenges to farming. To clear forest land for crops, the Maya practiced **slash-and-burn agriculture**. This method of farming involves burning vegetation to clear land for planting. Farmers who lived in the highlands built flat terraces into the hillsides so they could control erosion and more easily grow crops.

Farming did not provide everything the Maya needed. Villages started trading with one another to get goods such as cotton and jade that came from different parts of Mesoamerica. Trade and agriculture helped support larger populations, and the early Maya villages grew into cities.
Cities and Government The Maya built most of their cities between AD 250 and 900, a period of Maya history known as the Classic Age. Maya cities such as Tikal and Copan were some of the most spectacular in Mesoamerica. They contained stone pyramids, temples, and palaces. Often built to honor gods or rulers, these monumental structures were brightly painted and decorated with stone carvings.

Maya cities functioned as city-states. Each had its own ruler and its own government. No ruler ever united the many cities into a single empire. Even without a central government, however, Maya cities were linked in several ways. One link was trade. Cities in the highlands traded local products such as jade and obsidian for cotton, rubber, and cacao from cities in the lowlands. Another link between cities was warfare. Neighboring Maya cities were often at war with each other. Through bloody battles, kings tried to gain land for their cities and power for themselves.

Society and Religion Kings had great influence in Maya society. The Maya believed kings communicated with the gods. The Maya worshipped many gods and believed they influenced daily life. To prevent disasters and keep the gods happy, the Maya performed private and public rituals for the gods. One common ritual involved offering blood to the gods, usually by piercing the tongue or skin. Another religious ritual involved playing a ball game common in Mesoamerica. In this game, players tried to get a heavy rubber ball through a stone ring using only their elbows, knees, or hips. Losing teams often lost their lives as well, with their hearts sacrificed to the gods. The Maya performed human sacrifice only on certain occasions.

Religious ceremonies were led by priests, who were part of the upper class. Also part of the upper class were professional warriors. They played an important role in Maya religion and society because they were responsible for getting war victims for use in human sacrifice.

Just below the upper class in Maya society were merchants and skilled craftspeople. Most men and women, however, were members of the lower class. They were the farmers and slaves whose labor supported the wealthier classes. They supported the upper classes by providing food and labor for public building projects.

Achievements Impressive buildings and architecture, including canals, were a major achievement of the Maya. In addition, the Maya made advances in astronomy, math, and writing. They carefully observed the movements of the sun, moon, and planets. Based on what they observed, they created a calendar system. The Maya had two calendars—a 365-day farming calendar and a 260-day religious calendar. Priests consulted the calendars to determine what days would be lucky or unlucky for war, planting, and religious ceremonies. In spite of the way the Maya used their calendar system, it was more accurate than that used in Europe at the same time.

To go along with their calendars, the Maya created a number system that included some new concepts in math. For example, the Maya were among the first people in the world to use the concept of zero.

The Maya also developed a complex writing system to keep records. Their writing consisted of glyphs, or symbols, that represented both objects and sounds. The Maya carved their writing into large stone monuments called stelae. They also kept written records in a type of bark-paper book later referred to as a codex.

Decline A part of Maya history that is not clear from their written records is what caused their civilization to decline. Scholars think that a number of factors caused the decline. One factor may have been environmental damage from overuse of resources or a drought that made it difficult to feed everyone in the cities. A related theory says that warfare increased over competition for land. Increased warfare would have destroyed more crops. A third factor in the decline could have been the abuse of power by particularly strong kings, such as Yax Pak of Copán. The demands of kings could have caused people to rebel and leave their cities.

Although Maya civilization declined around 900, the Maya did not disappear. Evidence suggests that the Maya from forest cities moved to new cities, such as Chichén Itzá in the Yucatán Peninsula. Those cities remained powerful for several hundred years. Eventually, however, the Maya abandoned those cities as well and scattered into small villages in the region.

**Summarize** What were the main characteristics of Maya civilization?
Maya Carvings

Analyzing Primary Sources  Whether they are primary or secondary sources, visual images can help us understand an event or a culture in history. Historians have learned a lot about the Maya from studying their carvings and writing. The image here is a Maya carving created about 770. The Maya typically wrote descriptions—much like captions—of the scenes in their carvings. The glyphs, or symbols, on the carving are Maya writing describing the scene. Historians are interested in studying Maya carvings to learn about their society.

To analyze what this carving has to say about Maya society, think about:
- the subject of the image
- the details in the image
- the Maya description of the scene.

The lady is pulling a cord studded with stingray spines through her tongue to get blood.

The people in the image are a Maya king and his wife.

A bloodletting ritual was performed to celebrate the birth of Shield Jaguar II, son of Bird Jaguar

These are translations of the Mayan writing in the carving.

Bird Jaguar, he who took 20 captives, blood lord of Yaxchilan

1. Creator  What does this carving tell us about the artist?
2. Details  What does this carving reveal about Maya society?
3. Subject  Why do you think the artist created this carving?

The Aztecs

About the time that the Maya cities in the Yucatán were declining, a group of people to the north, the Aztecs, began their rise to power. The early Aztecs were just a small group of unlucky farmers from northwestern Mexico who were searching for a new home. But in little time, they created the most powerful empire in Mesoamerica.

Rise of the Empire The Aztecs began as a group of separate tribes from northwestern Mexico. These farming tribes were probably subjects of the Toltecs. According to legend, the war god told one of the tribes’ leaders that they should look for a place where they saw an eagle perched on a cactus eating a snake. It was there that they should settle and build a new capital.

The Aztecs migrated south to the Valley of Mexico in the 1100s. When they arrived, they found that other tribes had already taken all the good farmland. The Aztecs saw the eagle and the snake on a swampy island in Lake Texcoco. They founded a city there and called it Tenochtitlán. From there the Aztecs continued their rise to power.

In addition to being farmers, the Aztecs were also fierce warriors. They began fighting to control other towns around Lake Texcoco. The Aztecs gained strength in the 1420s when they formed an alliance, or partnership, with two other nearby city-states, Texcoco and Tlacopan. This alliance quickly gained control over a huge region that spread far beyond Lake Texcoco. The Aztecs came to rule 400 to 500 other city-states. At its height, about 5 million people were part of the Aztec Empire.

The Aztecs required the conquered people of their empire to pay tribute, or a type of tax. People in the empire paid tribute in many forms, from feathers and food crops to pottery and blankets. This tribute system was the basis of the Aztec economy. If any local ruler refused to pay tribute, the Aztecs used their military force to destroy the town.

The Aztec Empire gained wealth and strength through trade as well as through tribute. A system of roads aided trade. Merchants traveled throughout the empire to buy and sell luxury goods such as jade and cacao. Merchants sometimes acted as spies for the Aztec emperor. They could report any trouble they saw brewing in distant parts of the empire.

Life in the Aztec Empire

The famous Mexican muralist Diego Rivera painted this scene of Tenochtitlán in 1945. The title is La Gran Tenochtitlán: Market Fair at Tenochtitlán. It now hangs in Mexico City, the city built on the ruins of Tenochtitlán. How accurately do you think this painting depicts Tenochtitlán?
Tenochtitlán The glory of the Aztec Empire was most clearly seen in the capital city of Tenochtitlán. This amazing city covered five square miles and had a population of about 200,000. It was one of the largest cities in the world at that time.

At the center of the city was a huge walled compound that served as the political and religious heart of the entire empire. Within the walls rose a huge pyramid with two temples on top. The Aztec priests performed religious ceremonies at these temples. Other temples, as well as government buildings, palaces, and a ball court, filled the rest of the city center. It was such an impressive sight that one of the first Europeans to see Tenochtitlán said the city “seemed like an enchanted vision.”

Since Tenochtitlán was built on a swampy island in the middle of a lake, there was not much land available for farming. To create more farmland for their corn, beans, and squash, the Aztecs built “floating gardens” called chinampas (chee-NAHM-pahs) around the edges of the city. They did this by piling soil on top of rafts anchored to reeds in the water. From the chinampas, farmers loaded crops onto canoes and floated them down canals to the market.

Tenochtitlán was connected by canals and causeways to the empire’s biggest market at Tlatelolco, a smaller city just outside the Aztec capital. Tlatelolco attracted more than 60,000 people a day. Merchants brought goods such as cotton, jaguar pelts, and rubber to trade. Since the Aztecs had no coins, they sometimes used cacao beans or goose quills filled with gold as money. Vendors at the market had to pay a tax, usually in corn, to support the Aztec army.

Society and Religion Just as the economy of the Aztec Empire was highly organized, so was Aztec society. It was strictly divided into different social classes. At the top of the social order was the king. The king was part of a royal family, but he had to be elected by a group of nobles. The king displayed his power at his palace in Tenochtitlán, where he had gardens, a zoo, and thousands of servants. Certain nobles also served the king as government officials.

Just below the king in Aztec society were priests. They interpreted calendars and performed religious ceremonies. Aztec religious ceremonies were particularly bloody. Believing that the gods needed human blood, the Aztecs sacrificed as many as 20,000 victims a year. One European observer shared his perspective of a scene in a temple after a sacrifice.

HISTORY’S VOICES

“All the walls of that shrine were so splashed and caked with blood that they and the floor too were black. Indeed, the whole place stank abominably.”

—Bernal Díaz del Castillo, The Conquest of New Spain, 1568

The Aztecs usually used slaves or prisoners of war as sacrifices. Warriors were responsible for capturing these victims. Because of this tie to religion, certain highly trained warriors were also part of the Aztec upper class.

Not quite part of the upper class, but respected and wealthy nonetheless, were merchants and artisans. Merchants often became rich from trading in luxury goods. They lived in grand houses in Tenochtitlán, but they were not as wealthy as the king. Artisans were important because they made the goods required for tribute.

Most people in Aztec society were farmers. They made up the lower class and were very poor. They usually did not own their own land.
Aztec Arts

This skull mask is made from turquoise and obsidian. Skulls and gods were common themes in Aztec art.

They often had to pay so much in tribute that they found it difficult to survive on what was left over.

Farmers could improve their lives, however, by becoming warriors or studying at special schools. All Aztec boys and girls had to attend school until the age of 15, but some people continued in special schools that enabled them to become government officials.

Those in Aztec society who suffered the most were slaves. Most slaves were people who had been captured in battle or those who could not pay their debts. Merchants also bought slaves from other towns in the region. Some slaves worked as farmers or laborers for nobles or merchants, and their children would be born free. Others became victims in human sacrifices.

Achievements Like other Mesoamericans, the Aztecs are known for their achievements in art and science. Their artisans made bright feathers into headdresses, shields, and warrior costumes. Metalworkers fashioned gold, silver, and copper into jewelry and masks. In addition, master stoneworkers decorated temples and other buildings with elaborate sculptures depicting gods and stories from their history.

Like the Maya, the Aztecs kept written records. The Aztecs also used glyphs in their writing, but their system was not as advanced as Maya writing. The Aztecs used writing to keep track of tax records and business deals. They also composed poetry, riddles, and historical accounts. These were passed on orally from one generation to the next as well.

Using their knowledge of astronomy, the Aztecs created a 260-day religious calendar and a 365-day solar calendar much like the Maya calendar. They also accurately calculated the movements of some planets.

Although the Aztec Empire reached new heights of civilization in the Americas, it lasted a relatively short time. Tenochtitlán lasted less than 200 years. In the early 1500s contact with Europeans would quickly bring an end to the empire.

**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Describe** What geographical features of Mesoamerica made it a good location for the development of early civilizations in the Americas?
   b. **Explain** How did the Olmec influence knowledge and arts throughout Mesoamerica?

2. **a. Define** What is slash-and-burn agriculture?
   b. **Analyze** In what ways was Maya religion linked to daily life?
   c. **Support a Position** Defend or criticize the statement that the Maya civilization grew too fast for its own good.

3. **a. Recall** How did the alliance affect the Aztecs?
   b. **Interpret** How did the Aztec system of tribute strengthen the empire?
   c. **Make Judgments** How might an Aztec and a European view Aztec religion differently?

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Compare and Contrast** Use your notes on the section and a graphic organizer like the one below to show how the Maya and the Aztecs were similar and how they were different in their government, religion, society, and achievements.

   **Maya**
   - Government
   - Religion
   - Society
   - Achievements

   **Aztec**

**Focus on Writing**

5. **Description** Imagine you are a visitor to a Maya city as the Classic Period is ending. Write a short letter home describing what you see. Include details about the environment, people’s activities, what the city must have been like in earlier years, and what you expect it to look like in a few years.
What are the gigantic designs in the desert of Peru? Since the 1920s scientists have studied some mysterious lines in the Peruvian desert. These lines formed images of plants and animals up to several hundred feet long. Some scholars think the Nazca people created the lines more than 2,000 years ago. But how did the Nazca create them and what purpose did they serve?

Scholars know that the lines were made by removing the top, darker layer of the desert floor to expose lighter ground underneath, but they can only theorize about their purpose. Perhaps the lines pointed to movements of the sun or planets. Or perhaps they were sacred pathways or had other religious functions.
Early Cultures in South America

The western region of South America is one of environmental contrasts. The coastal desert is one of the driest places on earth. The Andes, which run almost the length of the continent, form the second-highest mountain range in the world. On the eastern slopes of the Andes is a region of steamy rain forests. In spite of these geographical extremes, many early peoples learned to adapt to their environments and built advanced civilizations there.

Chavín

One early people, the Chavín (chav-veen), lived in the highlands of Peru from about 900 to 200 BC. The center of Chavín culture was a site called Chavín de Huantar. It was an urban religious and trading center with a population of about 3,000 farmers, craftspeople, and others.

Because Chavín de Huantar lay on the slopes of the Andes, farmers in the region had access to several distinct ecological zones. As a result, they were able to grow several different types of crops. In the warmer valleys, they built irrigation systems and grew corn. Higher in the mountains, where it was cooler, they grew potatoes. In the high-altitude grasslands, they raised animals such as llamas and alpacas. These same farming and herding strategies continued in later Andean societies.

Moche

In the coastal desert of Peru, the Moche also learned how to adapt to their environment. They were able to farm in the desert by building irrigation canals that channeled the flow of streams from the Andes to their crops. From about 400 BC to 600 AD the Moche lived in farming and fishing villages. They also had an urban capital centered around two great pyramids.

The Moche were probably best known for their skilled metalwork in gold and silver and for their pottery. Moche pottery depicted scenes from daily life, such as weaving and hunting. Religion and war were also common themes. From Moche pottery, archeologists have been able to determine that warrior-priests ruled Moche society and that they expanded their territory through warfare.

Arts in South America

Pottery, such as this Moche warrior, and weaving, such as this Inca textile, were two of the most common forms of art among early cultures in South America.
**Nazca**
Another desert people, the Nazca, lived from about 200 BC to AD 600. The Nazca are best known for the huge designs they made on the desert floor. These Nazca Lines show geometric shapes and outlines of animals such as a monkey, a hummingbird, and a spider. There are many theories as to why the Nazca created these large-scale drawings and designs. One theory is that they may have had something to do with the location of water.

Water was very important in the desert. The Nazca built irrigation canals and also relied on the natural springs and the annual flooding of streams to water their crops. This way, they were able to farm in the desert and support a large population.

**Reidng Check**

**Identify Problem and Solution**
What problems did the environments of South America create, and how did early cultures solve these problems?

**The Inca Empire**

Many years after the earliest civilizations began in western South America, the Incas brought the entire Andes region into one empire. They began as a small tribe in the Andes, but by the early 1500s their empire extended along almost the entire Pacific coast and throughout the Andes.

**Government**
The Incas began their period of rapid expansion in the 1400s. From their capital at Cuzco, their leader Pachacuti used political alliances and military force to gain control of a huge territory. Later Inca leaders continued the expansion. At its height, in the early 1500s, the Inca Empire had a population of about 12 million.

To rule such a large empire, the Incas needed a strong government. The emperor had most of the power. However, he needed help to rule areas far from the capital because the Incas did not want people they conquered to gain too much power and rebel. To limit the power of various local leaders, the Incas made leaders of conquered areas move out of their villages. They then moved in new leaders who were loyal to the Inca Empire. This system of resettlement created stability in the empire. The military was also used to protect against internal rebellion and external attacks.

**Economy**
The government strictly controlled the economy in the empire. The common people in the empire were required to “pay” a labor tax called the *mita*. Women could fulfill the *mita* by activities such as weaving cloth for the army. Men worked on government-owned farms, in mines, or built roads. The government said what work would be done.

There were no merchants or markets as we know them in the Inca Empire. Instead, government officials distributed goods around the empire. This was how the Incas supplied their army and people who were old or sick with the goods they needed. Any extra food or goods were stored in government warehouses for use in emergencies.

To keep track of the movement of goods throughout the empire, the Inca used a *quipu*, or set of colored and knotted cords. The colors and knots represented numbers or dates. The quipu was the only system of record keeping in the empire because the Incas had no written language. The Inca used quipus to record information such as tax records, quantities of livestock, and *census*, or population, data. Only specially trained officials could read and use quipus. Scholars today have not been able to fully decipher these Inca records.

Quipu keepers, officials who distributed tribute goods, the army, and many other people relied on an extensive road network. Roads linked cities all over the empire. The Inca road system improved communication and helped the government control the economy.

**Faces of History**
Pachacuti was the most powerful ruler in Inca history. He became emperor in about 1438. Under his rule, the Inca Empire had its period of greatest expansion. In addition to gaining territory, Pachacuti rebuilt the Inca capital at Cuzco.

Pachacuti was also responsible for many government reforms. For example, he began the policy of sending government officials to rule different areas of the empire. He also established an official religion and an official language, Quechua. These changes brought unity and stability to an empire that governed diverse groups of people.

**Infer** How would Pachacuti’s establishing an official religion and language help him govern the Inca Empire?
Inca Roads

The Incas built a network of roads, paved with stone blocks, that was about 14,000 miles long and crossed almost every kind of terrain imaginable. The roads stretched from sea level to almost 12,000 feet in elevation.

**Skills Focus**

**Interpreting Visuals**

Roads were vital for transportation, communication, and government administration in the Inca Empire.

**Analyze** What challenges did the Incas face in building their roads?
**Society** In the Central Andes, each family was grouped with others into a cooperative community called an **ayllu** (eye-yoo). Members of the **ayllu** worked together in activities such as farming, building canals or terraces, and performing religious rituals. Under the Incas, each group of ten **ayllus** had a chief. That chief reported to a higher level government official and so on in groups of ten. In this way, the **ayllu** was at the end of a chain of command that stretched from the local level throughout the empire all the way to the emperor.

In spite of the cooperation in the **ayllus**, there were still clear class divisions in Inca society. There were no slaves in the Inca Empire, but most people belonged to the lower class. They were farmers, artisans, or servants. Inca laws required that they wear only plain clothes and restricted them from owning any more goods than they needed. The lower class had to serve the upper class.

The upper class, which included the king, government officials, and priests, lived in Cuzco, the capital. These elite, high-ranking members of society had good stone houses and wore fine clothes. They did not have to pay the labor tax. Sons of Inca nobles attended school where they studied religion, history, law, and the quipu to prepare for lives as government or religious officials.

Religion was a key element of Inca society. People throughout the empire were allowed to worship local gods, but the sun god was the most important god in the official Inca religion. The Incas believed their kings were related to the sun god. The mummies of dead kings were kept in Cuzco and worshipped. Priests performed ceremonies for this god at the main temple in Cuzco. These ceremonies often included sacrifices of llamas, cloth, or food. The Incas only sacrificed humans on rare occasions.

**Achievements** The level of organization of Inca government and society led to significant achievements in the areas of engineering and the arts. The Incas were particularly talented builders. They built temples, forts, and roads out of huge stone blocks. They cut the blocks to fit so precisely that they did not need mortar to hold them together. These Inca structures were built so well that many still stand today, and even today it is nearly impossible to slip a knife blade between the stones.

In the arts, the Incas were especially skilled in metalwork and weaving. Artisans made intricate ornaments out of gold and silver. They even created a life-sized field of corn out of gold and silver in a temple courtyard.

Inca weavers worked with both wool and cotton. They divided cloth into three categories—plain cloth used for households, finer cloth used for taxes and trade, and special cloth used only for royal and religious purposes. The Incas used a variety of patterns for their textiles. A particular pattern indicated an Inca’s status in society.

In spite of the high level of organization and achievement, the Inca Empire lasted only about 100 years. It began to suffer from internal conflict. The arrival of the Spanish in Peru in 1532 would mark the end of the Inca Empire just as the Spanish arrival had for the Aztecs.

**Summarize** What methods did the government use to control the Inca Empire?
Theories on Migration to the Americas

**Historical Context**  The four documents below support different theories about when and how the first people migrated to the Americas.

**Task**  Study the documents and answer the questions that follow. Then, using evidence from these selections and from the chapter, write an essay explaining why it is difficult for historians to agree on one theory.

**The Traditionally Accepted Theory**
Archaeologist Stuart J. Fiedel has studied hundreds of sites across the Americas to determine how and when the first people arrived in the Americas. The evidence he found supports the traditionally held theory that the first people, called Clovis, crossed the Bering Land Bridge and spread throughout the Americas.

The striking similarity of fluted points and associated artifacts across the whole expanse of North America suggests that the continent was rapidly filled by Paleo-Indian hunting bands, each retaining for several centuries the tool-making traditions of an ancestral population that originally entered through the ice-free corridor around 10,000–9500 BC. But the only place from which this hypothetical ancestral group could have come is Alaska, where there is hardly any existing evidence of Clovis occupation. The earliest Alaskan cultures, which date to the period from 9000 to 6000 BC, are characterized by small-blade tools, derived from wedge-shaped cores. This "Paleo-arctic" tradition has clear ties to northeast Asia . . . . Unfortunately, there is no convincing evidence of a substantial human presence in Alaska before 9000 BC.

**Archaeological Evidence**
Archaeologists base their theories on migration to the Americas on the dates and locations of archaeological evidence of early human settlement.

![Early American Settlements Map](image)
Another Side of the Debate

Archaeologist Thomas Dillehay has studied a site at Monte Verde, Chile. Evidence from that site raises questions about when people arrived in the Americas.

For most of the past century, archaeologists thought that all early sites in the Americas were Clovis, dating no earlier than about 11,200 years ago. If a site appeared to be earlier than Clovis and did not contain Clovis points, a debate ensued about misidentification of evidence from the site. As a result, the evidence from all pre-Clovis candidates was considered unconvincing and dismissed. Recently, however, the debate has taken a new turn because of a small number of sites excavated in the 1970s and 1980s, including Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, probably the Cactus Hill site in Virginia and the Topper site in South Carolina, and several sites in eastern Brazil, Taima-Taima in Venezuela, Tibitó in Colombia, and Monte Verde in Chile. All these sites yielded more convincing pre-11,000-year dates and evidence suggestive of a generalized (non-big-game) hunter and gatherer lifeway. In other words, these sites contained not only more convincing radiocarbon dates, human-made artifacts, and reliable stratigraphic association but also evidence of early cultures that pre-dated Clovis.

A Newer Theory

Archaeologists Dennis Stanford and Bruce Bradley think that people have been so focused on the Beringia and Clovis-first theories that they have neglected other possible interpretations of the archaeological evidence.

We also point out that during Solutrean times [c. 20,000 years ago] lower sea levels greatly reduced the distance between the Celtic and the North American Continental Shelves and a connecting ice bridge eliminated the necessity of a 4,000-mile blue voyage between Lisbon and New York City. The southern margin of this ice bridge was a relative rich environment inhabited by migrating sea mammals, birds, and fish attracting Solutrean people. We reason that generations of Solutrean hunters learned to cope with ice and weather conditions to follow rich resources such as Harp seals and Great Aucks that migrated north and westward along with retreating ice in late spring. Through such activities they ended up (by accident and/or design) along the exposed continental shelf of North America discovering a New Land.
Chapter Review

Complete each sentence by filling the blank with the correct term or name.

1. Tombs often reflected a person’s ________, or position or rank in society.
2. The Incas kept track of ________, or population, data.
3. Maya writing consisted of ________, or symbols.
4. The emperor ________ was mostly responsible for the great expansion of the Inca Empire.
5. The Aztecs forced the people they conquered to pay ________, a type of tax.
6. The Anasazi developed ________ architecture around AD 750.
7. The Maya practiced ________, a method of farming that involves burning vegetation to clear land for planting.

North America
- Environments include deserts, woodlands, and icy tundra.
- Early peoples were the Hohokam, Anasazi, Mound Builders, Inuit, Plains Indians, and others.
- Architecture and hunting or farming depended on environment.

South America
- The Chavin, Moche, and Nazca learned to farm in the dry desert and rugged Andean highlands.
- The Inca Empire, with its strong government, controlled a huge area in the 1400s.

Mesoamerica
- Environment supported first farming in the Americas.
- Olmec, Zapotec, and Toltec built cities with pyramids.
- The Maya developed a large civilization of many cities between AD 250 and 900.
- In the 1300s, the Aztecs built one of the most powerful empires in the Americas.

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Chapter Review

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Comprehension and Critical Thinking

SECTION 1 (pp. 199–202)

8. a. Recall Why did the Hopewell and Mississippian people build mounds?
   b. Explain How did the Hohokam and the Anasazi adapt to their environment?
   c. Make Judgments Based on what you know about early North Americans’ different types of social organizations and ways of adapting to the environment, which culture do you think was the most advanced? Explain your answer.

SECTION 2 (pp. 203–210)

9. a. Identify Which group of people built the first true city in Mesoamerica?
   b. Compare and Contrast In what ways were the Maya and the Aztec civilizations similar? How were they different?
   c. Support a Position Do you think people who were conquered and became part of the Aztec Empire benefited by being part of the empire? Why or why not?

SECTION 3 (pp. 211–215)

10. a. Describe What were some of the main achievements of the Incas?
    b. Explain What methods did the Inca use to maintain unity and stability in their empire?
    c. Elaborate In what way did the organization of Inca society benefit members of the lower class? In what way did it burden them?

Reading Skills

Making Generalizations Use what you have read in this chapter to make a one-sentence generalization to answer each question below.

11. What do the Mississippian mounds tell us about the culture?
12. How did the early Maya benefit from the environment of Mesoamerica?
13. How did the Aztecs create one of the strongest empires in the Americas?
14. Based on the image and explanation on pages 208–09, what general statement could you make about life in the Aztec Empire?
15. Why was the Inca government strong?

Analyzing Visuals

Reading Like a Historian The mural below shows a Maya king and his court.

Mural from Structure 1, Bonampak, c. AD 700–800

16. Infer Which figure in the mural is the king? How can you tell?
17. Analyze What are the other figures doing?

Using the Internet

18. The Maya calendar had two wheels, one with 260 days and one with 365 days. Use the Internet to learn how Maya dates correspond to dates from our calendar system. Then calculate your birthday in the Maya calendar.

Writing for the SAT

Think about the following issue:

Exposition: Comparing and Contrasting The Aztecs and Inca both incorporated many different peoples into their large empires. There were similarities and differences in how these two empires treated their conquered subjects.

19. Assignment: Do you think conquered subjects had better lives in the Aztec Empire or the Inca Empire? Write a short essay in which you develop your point of view on this issue. Support your point of view with reasoning and examples from your reading and studies.