World History I & Honors World History I
(World History to 1500)

Learning in Place, Phase IV

May 18 – June 5

Name: ____________________________________________

School: __________________________________________

Teacher: ________________________________________
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<th>Task</th>
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<td>Describe the geography and cultural characteristics of the Aztecs.</td>
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<td>How did agriculture and human sacrifice define Aztec culture?</td>
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<td>Should historians most emphasize agriculture or human sacrifice when referencing the Aztecs?</td>
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| 1. Read the essay and answer the following questions:  
  a) During what years was Aztec society at its height? In what year did the conquistadors arrive from Spain?  
  b) What does it mean that we should not expect a “smoothly ironed” Aztec history?  
  c) Why has Tenochtitlan been described as an “urban island?” What was its population?  
  d) About how many deities did the Aztecs worship?  
  e) Why do you think the Aztecs worshipped Huitzilopochtli?  
  2. Define the following terms in your own words: conquistador, pre-conquest, basin, tribute, chinampas, deities  
  3. Examine each document, then complete a quick write: In what ways were Aztecs similar to civilizations you have already studied this year? How were they different? Cite specific evidence from the documents.  
  4. After reading the background essay and examining the primary source documents, reflect on Aztec culture by considering the following question: Should historians most emphasize agriculture or human sacrifice when referencing the Aztecs? Take a stance and write a well-supported [with evidence from the background essay and documents] argument defending your position. Your paper should be at least 1 typed page or 2 handwritten pages in length and should make specific reference to the evidence used. |
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| Where was the Inca Empire located and how did its location affect their development of agriculture? | Document 3 | 1. Create a list of a minimum of 5 different geographic characteristics of the Incan Empire.  
2. Read and study the map provided, respond to the following questions using evidence from the map and passage: Explain in a paragraph how the Incan Empire adapted to living in the Andes Mountains. |
| Support the provided claim to answer the driving historical question: How were the Incans able to adapt to lifestyle in the Andes Mountains? | Document 4 | **Claim: The Incans were able to adapt to a lifestyle in the Andes Mountains through engineering and political organization.**  
3. Provide 2 pieces of text evidence that would support the claim from Highways and Byways through Building an Empire  
4. Provide 2 pieces of text evidence that would support the claim from Political Structure of Inca and organized Empire.  
5. Provide 1 piece of text evidence that would support the claim from the Mystery of Machu Picchu. |
| Compare and contrast the people of Aztec, Mayan and Inca civilization. | Passage 5 & Graphic Organizer: South American Civilization Comparison | 6. After reading the passage to refresh information about the Mayan, Aztec and Inca civilizations, complete the graphic organizer comparing the civilizations.  
7. Using the graphic organizer, write two paragraphs explaining a common similarity and difference between the South American civilizations. In the first paragraph, explain one or two similarities between the civilizations and in the second, explain one or two differences between the civilizations and how these differences helped to create a unique civilization. *Please note: Additional Information on the Maya can be found in the Phase III Packet.* |
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| **What were the major motivations behind European explorers?** | **Document 6** | Read Document 6 and respond to the following questions  
1. Identify which region of the world (Western Europe/Africa/or Asia) became the core of the global economy?  
2. Identify whether or not the labor force for agriculture controlled by Western Europe was paid or enslaved.  
3. Compare and contrast what you think life was like in the colonies versus what you think life would have been like in the European states  
4. Identify what major goods were raised in the colonies.  
5. Evaluate what you think the major motivation of the Europeans was behind their expansion. |
| **Examine & evaluate the routes of the explorers Vasco De Gama, Christopher Columbus, and John Cabot.** | **Document 7** | Use the map to answer the questions below  
1. Find the arrow labelled Christopher Columbus. Which country did he start his journey in? Where did he end his journey?  
2. Find the arrow labelled Vasco De Gama. Which country did he start his journey in? Where did he end his journey?  
3. Find the arrow labelled John Cabot. Which country did he start his journey in? Where did he end his journey?  

Answer the following question: Evaluate which of the explorers do you think was the most important and why? Your response should be in paragraph form and a minimum of 5 sentences. |
| **Discuss Cortés and the Spanish conquest of the Aztec.** | **Document 8** | Read the three passages in Document 8 and respond to the following:  
1. Based on Passage 1, explain what happened when Cortés met Moctezuma in 1519.  
2. Identify who wrote Passage 2. Why was it written? Did the author have any motivation for describing the encounter with Moctezuma the way that he did?  
3. Compare and contrast the accounts of the encounter between Cortés and Moctezuma in Passage 2 and Passage 3.  
4. Evaluate whether Passages 2 and 3 are reliable and accurate accounts of the encounter. Write a paragraph explaining the reliability of the passages and whether historians should view the accounts as truly accurate descriptions of the meeting of Cortés and Moctezuma. |
The Aztecs: Should Historians Emphasize Agriculture or Human Sacrifices?

Aztec History

Agriculture and Human Sacrifices

The Aztecs were skilled farmers, known for their agricultural knowledge. They developed an advanced irrigation system, using canals and dikes to control water flows and ensure the availability of fresh water for their crops. The Aztecs cultivated a wide variety of crops, including maize, beans, squash, and avocados, which supported their growing population. The fertile soil of the Valley of Mexico, combined with their sophisticated farming techniques, allowed the Aztecs to sustain a large and dense population.

Human Sacrifices

The Aztecs were also known for their human sacrifice rituals. These ceremonies were performed as offerings to their gods and were central to their religious and cultural practices. The Aztecs believed that blood was a sacred substance that replenished the earth and sustained the sun. They performed sacrifices of humans, particularly those who died in battle or were captured in wars, as well as others who were ritually sacrificed as part of their religious ceremonies. These sacrifices were considered acts of devotion and were meant to ensure the continuance of the sun's life-giving powers.

The Aztecs' reliance on human sacrifices became a point of contention among modern historians. Some argue that the emphasis on agriculture and agricultural practices is more appropriate, as it reflects the Aztecs' reliance on a productive land base to sustain their large population. Others, however, believe that human sacrifices were an integral part of Aztec society and should be recognized as such in historical narratives.

In conclusion, while the Aztecs' agricultural practices were undoubtedly significant, it is also important to acknowledge the role of human sacrifices in their religious and cultural practices. A balanced perspective that considers both aspects of Aztec life is essential for a comprehensive understanding of this ancient civilization.
Document A

Territorial Acquisitions by Aztec Rulers

Note: Aztec warriors had the reputation of being fierce fighters, and most territories shown on the map were acquired by force. Independent territories on the map were sometimes the result of a deliberate policy that unoccupied lands remain available for future “flower wars” in order to provide an ongoing supply of “flowers” (captured sacrifice victims).

Document B


In and around Lake Texcoco, the Aztecs developed an ingenious system for irrigating agriculture called *chinampas*. These were floating islands approximately seventeen feet long and one hundred to three hundred thirty feet wide that rested in reed frames that were anchored to the bottom of the lake. Willow trees were planted at intervals to provide shade. Approximately twenty thousand acres of *chinampas* were constructed around Tenochtitlan and the yield from them was high: four corn crops per year were possible.

Sources: Drawing at left from the Aztec manuscript *Matricula de Tributos*, circa 1542. Drawing below from David Carrasco and Scott Sessions: *Daily Life of the Aztecs: People of the Sun and Earth*, 1998.
Document D


Note: Diego Durán was a Spanish priest who lived in Mexico. His book is one of the earliest Western accounts of the history and culture of the Aztecs.

The prisoners taken at Teultepec were brought out. Motecuhzoma and Chihuancoatl [“chi-wah-coat-el”] began to sacrifice them, slicing open their chests and extracting their hearts. First, they raised the hearts to the sun, then they threw them into the shrine before the gods. This sacrifice began at midday and ended at nightfall. Two thousand three hundred men were killed and their blood bathed the entire temple and stairway. Each time the priest cut out a heart, they rolled the body down the stairs.

Source: *Codex Mendoza*, 1542. The Codex Mendoza was commissioned by the Spanish Viceroy of Mexico in 1541 to provide King Charles V of Spain a clearer idea about his new subjects. The illustrations in the Codex were drawn by Aztec artists. The text was written by Spanish priests.

Note: The mural shows the Basin of Mexico during Aztec times. The men at the right plant and harvest the maize (corn) while the women on the left grind and roll it into tortillas. Behind them is a person dressed as a corn goddess. Rows of *chinampas* plots stretch across the lake as far as the eye can see. Two great volcanoes rise above the scene.
When I saw this ceremony last year as a member of the priestly school, I was amazed by the physical beauty of the enemy warrior who was killed at the end of the festival. This seasoned warrior, whom we change from a human into the god Tezcatlipoca ["tehs-cah-tee-poh-cah", the god of war], can have no blemish upon his body, and he is treated like our most royal family member during the long year leading up to his sacrifice. During that time he is given all the finest luxuries from the nobles' storehouses, including foods, clothes, teachers, women, and instruction. He walks among us as a living god, and I was impressed and felt pride for my altepetl [village] when the younger people stopped their work or play and were mesmerized by him and his entourage of servants and guards as they strolled through the city or rode in the canoes along the canals.

Many of us become attached to this living god, and a terrible sadness comes over some of the women when, at the end of the year, he is taken to Chalco and dismembered in public view. Let me share with you my images and memories of what happened last year when I followed his every movement. It will help me prepare my paintings in the book of sacred history.
The Geography of the Inca Empire

The Inca were a large South American empire that rose to power in the 1400s. The empire began in the 1100s with a small group of people living in a city called Cuzco, in the southern highlands of what is now Peru. Eventually, the Inca Empire would stretch over much of the South American continent, covering parts of modern-day Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, and Peru. The Inca lived in the Andes Mountains. The Andes stretch the length of the western coast of South America, which is bordered by the Pacific Ocean. The Andes are the highest mountains in the Americas, and they are separated by plateaus that are also at very high altitudes. The climate of the Andes region varies greatly depending on a number of factors such as altitude and latitude. Although the region’s average temperature does not change much over the course of a year, temperatures in a single day may vary by as much as 40 degrees between the high and low. Rainfall in the region is seasonal, with the highest amount of precipitation occurring between December and March. The geography of the Andes had a large effect on the Inca Empire. The climate of the region and the mountainous terrain presented many challenges. The Inca were forced to adapt their lifestyles to meet many of these challenges.

Farming in the Andes

Life in the Andes was challenging in many ways. Agriculture in particular was extremely difficult. The steep slopes of the mountains limited the amount of fertile land that could be used for farming. It was also difficult to find water for the crops. To solve this problem, the Inca used a system known as terrace farming. They built walls on hillsides and filled them with soil to make terraces. Terraces are wide steps on the side of mountains. Without the terraces, the mountainous landscape would have been too steep for farmers to water, plow, and harvest. The terrace system increased the amount of land that the Inca could use for agriculture. It also kept the topsoil from washing away down the hillside in heavy rains. Although rain falls in the Andes regularly from December to March, the rest of the year sometimes brings extended periods with no rainfall at all. In order to ensure that they had the water they needed for their farms, the Inca built large canal systems to irrigate, or bring water to, their fields. The canals also brought water to the cities. Many streets had supplies of fresh water running through a canal. This made daily chores, such as washing clothes, much easier. To fertilize the land and improve crop production, Incan farmers in the coastal areas used bird droppings, or guano; in the highland areas, they used the remains of dead local animals, such as llamas. Maize, squash, beans, and potatoes were the staple crops of the empire. Farmers also grew coca for its leaves, which they chewed to reduce fatigue and hunger. The farmers were taxed on all the crops they grew and gave most of their crops to the government. The government controlled how farmers used the crops that they harvested and kept a large store of food in reserve in case of prolonged drought. This system, called the mita, was a way of redistributing wealth to promote the power of the emperor. Controlling the food supply also helped the emperor keep the empire united.
Highways and Byways
In addition to the challenges it created for Incan agriculture, the extreme mountain terrain of the Andes also presented many obstacles to travel and trade. The Inca created a network of roads throughout the empire. In order to create this network, a labor tax was enforced. The labor tax forced peasants to provide free labor for public works projects such as roads, forts, and bridges. Peasants were also forced to work mining precious metals.

Mountain Highways
The transportation network consisted of two main roads linking the north and the south, and a complex web of crossroads that reached nearly every village in the empire. This system of roads was essential for maintaining communication among the geographically widespread empire. Runners were needed because many of the roads were too steep for carts. Relay runners used a 10,000-mile-long network of roads to carry messages between government officials. These runners worked in teams to cover up to 250 miles each day. The roads were also used by the military, which could travel quickly to any region to protect the empire from invasion or to stop rebellions. The mountainous roads caused problems for traders in the region. Llamas were common in the Andes; the Inca used them as pack animals, because llamas are capable of carrying heavy loads over the mountainous roadways. The llamas also provided a source of wool that was used to make cloth. Yarn was spun and boiled in dye. The dyed yarn was turned into fabric. Incan women paid their labor tax by spinning and dyeing wool. Llamas were also a food source for the Inca.

Bridges
The deep river valleys, called gorges, in the Andes provided another unique challenge for the Inca. Roads were often interrupted by these gorges, which meant that some Incan cities were separated from each other. The Incas used ropes made from twined plant fibers to create suspension bridges that could reach across these gorges. Some of the bridges were over 300 feet long. One bridge, constructed in 1350 CE, lasted over 500 years. These rope-suspension bridges were similar to today's modern suspension bridges. The roads and bridges of the Inca helped to unify the empire by enabling travel and trade. The road system made communication between the four regions of the empire easier. It also allowed the army to move quickly to wherever they might be needed. This all helped the emperor keep the sprawling Inca Empire united, even as it continued to expand.

Building the Empire
The Inca Empire was centered in the territory that is modern-day Peru. However, through expansion it grew over time to include parts of present-day Ecuador, Bolivia, Chile, and Argentina. Pachacuti, who ruled from 1438 to 1471 CE, greatly expanded the Inca Empire. Under his leadership, the Inca pushed northward, conquering new territories and spreading the boundaries of the emperor. Topa Inca, Pachacuti's son, expanded the empire into Chile, Bolivia, Argentina, and Ecuador. Under Huayna Capac, thought by many historians to be the final Incan emperor, the empire added lands in northern Peru, coastal Ecuador, and Guayaquil. The Inca conquered some regions through the use of their strong army. Incan soldiers remained in the conquered lands to help collect tribute and to keep order among the citizens. Local governments offered tributes of gold and silver to the central Inca government. Force was not always required, however. Sometimes, regions were invited to join the empire before conquest. The emperor sent spies to the regions he wanted to conquer, in order to learn about their strengths and weaknesses. Then, the emperor sent messages to the leaders of these lands convincing them of the wisdom of joining the Inca Empire. Promises of safety and riches were often enough to persuade local rulers to join the empire. The local ruler’s children would be brought to Cuzco to train to be Inca administrators. There, they would learn about the structure of the Incan government.

The Political Structure of the Inca
The society of the Inca Empire was built on order. At the head of the society and the government was the emperor, who was also known as Inca and was believed to have a divine origin from the sun god Inti. As a godking, the emperor had absolute authority and ruled over the land, its people, and all that they owned. The Incan emperor lived in luxury, eating off gold plates and dressing in the finest clothes. The royal family of the emperor was just below the emperor in the social
structure of the empire. The royal family was followed in importance by the upper aristocracy, which was comprised of all the relatives and descendants of the royal family. Those who had two Incan parents and were not previous members of one of the conquered regions could hold the highest government, religious, and military positions. The emperor’s sons took the most important administrative posts, but the emperor also gave important jobs to the nobles of the lands the Inca had conquered. This helped to promote unity within the empire. The next level of power was the imperial administrators. The Inca Empire was divided into four regions, with the capital city of Cuzco at its center. There was an administrator, or governor, for each quarter. The quarters were divided into smaller governmental units known as districts. District governors supervised about 10,000 peasants each. Village leaders were in charge of smaller groups of perhaps 1,000 people. Below them, 10 foremen were responsible for overseeing 100 peasants each. It was the duty of the noble class to supervise the government officials who ran the kingdom. This expansive system of administration and organization of the government helped the Inca Empire maintain power across a vast and challenging expanse of land.

An Organized Empire
As the empire expanded, the structure of the government and the organization of the empire became more important in order to maintain control. The Inca had a central capital in Cuzco and regional capitals in four other cities. The empire as a whole was known as Tahuantinsuyu, a Quechua word which means “Land of the Four Quarters.” Quechua is the native language of the Inca. Each of the four quarters was called a suyu. The Antisuyu quarter was made of deep, heavily forested valleys east of Cuzco. The Cuntisuyu was west of Cuzco. South of Cuzco was Collasuyu, the largest of quarters, which touched present-day Bolivia, Chile, and Argentina. The Chincasuyu was comprised of the land north of Cuzco. Each quarter was further divided into smaller provinces. Placing the capital at the center of the four regions helped the emperor keep control of the vast Inca Empire. The empire was at its largest during the reign of Huayna Capac. At that time, the empire spread over 2,500 miles from north to south, and about 500 miles from east to west. Somewhere between 3.5 million and 16 million people from several different tribal backgrounds lived in a region about as big as the present-day Atlantic Coast states in the United States. The physical distance made communication across the empire difficult. Communication was also hampered by the fact that there was not a shared language throughout the empire. Although no written Incan language has been discovered, historians believe that the Inca used a system of knotted ropes of different colors, known as quipu, to record information. Many historians believe that this was a numerical system that was only used for accounting and record keeping. Others believe it was a binary code (similar to that of modern computers) that also could be used as a form of written language. However, few examples of quipu exist and they have never been successfully translated. The geography of the large Inca Empire made governing the empire a challenge. However, the Inca succeeded and created a great society. As great as the Inca Empire was, however, it was not powerful enough to last forever. In 1532 CE, Spanish explorers, including Francisco Pizarro, arrived in Peru and made contact with the Inca. This contact with European explorers would ultimately lead to the end of a great civilization.

The Mystery of Machu Picchu
One Incan city still mystifies historians and archaeologists. Known as the “City in the Clouds” and the “Lost City of the Inca,” it is perhaps the best-known archaeological ruin in the Americas. This city is proof of the power and architectural ability of the ancient Inca.

City in the Clouds
Machu Picchu lies in the middle of a dense mountain forest, rising 8,000 feet above sea level. Machu Picchu is surrounded by mountains that are holy to the Quechua Indians, the descendants of the Inca, who still occupy the land today. City walls were made out of white granite. The land was terraced to aid in farming, and ramps were used to make walking up and down the steep mountain terrain easier. These elements helped to make Machu Picchu the premiere city of the Inca Empire. Historians still debate why the Inca would perch a great city like this on a mountain ridge in the Peruvian Andes. Some historians think that Machu Picchu was a royal estate for Pachacuti, a famous Incan ruler and warrior who conquered much of the land that made up the Inca Empire in the 1400s.

Engineering Machu Picchu
The Inca built the great city in less than 100 years. A nearby mountain spring provided fresh water. The Inca built an elaborate system of canals and fountains to process drinking water and prevent flooding. To help the city get rid of water from rainfall, Incan engineers used chunks of white granite left over from construction of the city walls to build an underground drainage system. There are approximately 700 terraces at Machu Picchu. Water can flow easily through the
soil in the terraces, so it seeps through the ground and is safely carried away from the city. Engineers also included over 100 drainage holes to help drain rainwater from the city.

The Decline of Machu Picchu

Machu Picchu declined as smallpox and civil war weakened the Inca Empire. Just 60 years after the death of Pachacuti, the Inca Empire collapsed. As much as historians and archaeologists have learned about Machu Picchu, it still remains a source of intrigue and wonder for many. Even today, many aspects of Incan culture are still common in societies throughout the Andes Mountains. Quechua, spoken by the ancient Inca, is still the dominant language of many peasants in Peru and Bolivia. Religion, family life, and farming techniques used today still mirror those used by the ancient Inca. Much of the wonder of Machu Picchu was created as a response to the challenges imposed by the environment of the Inca Empire. The geography of the Inca Empire affected all aspects of life. The links between the past and present that can be seen in Machu Picchu demonstrate how important the geography of the region continues to be.

Passage 5

The Inca

The Inca were a tribe around the 12th century who formed a city-state, Cuzco which became a major city and capital of a powerful and wealthy empire in Peru, Bolivia and Equador. They conquered their neighbors, or brought city-states in peacefully with promises of benefits and/or threats of conquest. They ruled their empire with a centralized government and four provincial governments. Inca Creation Myth

In 1533, Spanish invaders led by Francisco Pizarro conquered most of the Inca empire. By 1542, the Spanish established a Viceroyalty of Peru.

The Maya

The Maya Civilization lived in Central America, including south Mexico, Belize, Guatemala, El Salvador and Honduras between 2500 BCE and 1500 CE. The Classic Maya Civilization 250-900 CE developed a hieroglyphic writing system. They studied astronomy and mathematics, calculated highly accurate calendars, predicted eclipses and other astronomical events. They built elaborate temples and pyramids and had a complex social order.

They were a religious society and held festivals throughout the year to ensure the favor of the gods. They sacrificed to the gods and made ritual offerings. Part of religious ceremony involved drinking an intoxicant called balche.

The great cities such as Tikal, and Palenque of the classical period and Chichen Itza of the post classical period, were religious centers and were inhabited mostly by the priests. They played a ballgame with ritual significance and left behind elaborate ball courts. Most of the people lived in small farming communities. The demise of this dynamic civilization is a mystery, but around 900 AD they abandoned their cities. The Mayan people did not disappear and continue to live in Mexico and Central America.

The Aztecs

The Aztecs were a people who came into the Valley of Mexico in the 12th century and quickly rose to become the dominant power in Mesoamerica. The capital of the Aztecs, Tenochtitlan, was built on Lake Texcoco on raised islands. The Aztecs formed an empire commanding tribute from other city states in Mesoamerica. A religious society, the Aztecs practiced human sacrifice, like other mesoamerican civilizations. The Aztecs were at the peak of their power when in 1521 they were destroyed by Hernan Cortes and the Spanish conquistadors. The Spanish built the city of Mexico City on the ruins of the destroyed Tenochtitlan.
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**Written Response Task:** You may complete this task on a sheet of notebook paper and include it with your packet. Using the completed graphic organizer, write two paragraphs explaining a common similarity and difference between the South American civilizations. In the first paragraph, explain one or two similarities between the civilizations and in the second, explain one or two differences between the civilizations and how these differences helped to create a unique civilization.
The creation of the European empires during the 16c made it possible for capitalists to maximize their profits through regional specialization. Western Europe became the core of the global economy, the center of a complex variety of economic activities and institutions—banking, insurance, trade companies, gun manufacture, shipbuilding, and the production of cloth. In Europe agriculture was more and more devoted exclusively to producing food, and the labor supply was free—neither serfs, as had been the case in the Middle Ages, nor slaves, as was the case in parts of the Americas. The distant colonies, especially in Spanish and Portuguese America, became the periphery devoted to raising single cash crops, such as sugar, tobacco, cotton, coffee, or indigo for dyes. Agriculture in the periphery was produced on large estates by slaves.

The capitalist global economy has steadily and relentlessly expanded throughout the world since the 16c. Much of the subsequent history of Western civilization can be understood only in terms of the triumph of capitalism and the economic integration of a world dominated by Westerners. The capitalist global economy has yielded many benefits in enhancing the material well-being of the middle classes of the West, increasing the available food supply of the world, and stimulating technological innovation. But there have been costs. Since the 16c, the gap between rich and poor individuals and rich and poor countries has widened, and societies on the agrarian periphery have found it enormously difficult to break out of their disadvantaged position in the world economy.
Passage 1
A small group of conquistadors led by Hernán Cortés reached Mexico in 1519. They were looking for gold. Hearing of this arrival, the Aztec emperor, Moctezuma II, believed Cortés to be a god. According to an Aztec legend, the god Quetzalcoatl was to return to Mexico in 1519. Cortés resembled the god’s description from the legend. Thinking that the god had returned, Moctezuma sent Cortés gifts, including gold. With getting more gold his motive, Cortés marched to the Aztec capital. When he got there, Moctezuma welcomed him, but Cortés took the emperor prisoner.

Source: A 2006 history textbook titled World History: Medieval to Early Modern Times.

Passage 2
After being seated Moctezuma spoke as follows:
“We learned from our ancestors that those of us who inhabit this region descend from strangers who came here from a very distant land. We have also learned that a prince brought our people into these parts, and then returned to his native land. “Much later, the prince returned to this region and found that his people had intermarried with the native inhabitants. When he asked them to return with him, they were unwilling to go, nor were they willing to see him as their leader, so he left. We have always heard that his descendants would come to conquer this land.
“From what you say of the great king who sent you here, we believe that your king is our natural leader. Especially because of the direction from which you say you have come, and because you say that you first learned of us a long time ago.
“Therefore be assured that we will obey you. And you have the power in all this land to command what is your pleasure, and it shall be done in obedience, and all that we have is at your disposal. And since you are in your own proper land and your own house, rest and refresh yourselves after your journey.”

Source: Letter by Hernán Cortés to King Charles V, written in 1520.

Passage 3
Moctezuma addressed Cortés in these words: “Our lord, you are very welcome in your arrival in this land. You have come to satisfy your curiosity about your noble city of Mexico. You have come here to sit on your throne, which I have kept for you. . . . For I am not just dreaming, not just sleepwalking, not seeing you in my dreams. I have been worried for a long time, looking toward the unknown place from which you have come. Our ancestors said that you would come to your city and sit upon your throne. And now it has been fulfilled, you have returned. Go enjoy your palace, rest your body. Welcome our lords to this land.”

Source: Excerpt from the Florentine Codex, an account of Aztec life originally written by Mexican natives between 1570-1585 under the supervision of Spanish friar Bernardino de Sahagún, whose primary goal was to convert the natives of Mexico to Christianity.