V. China: Dynasties and Conquerors

Teaching Idea
Ask students to tell you about the Roman Empire and the reasons for its decline, which students in Core Knowledge schools should have studied in Grade 3. Compare that rise and fall with what students will be learning about Chinese dynasties. One dynasty displaced another; the second prospered and then began to have problems, sometimes from inside and sometimes from outside the empire. In the midst of these problems, a new group would displace it, as it had displaced the first group. The Chinese explained this through the concept of the Mandate of Heaven.

Teaching Idea
Explore the meaning of the word dynasty before introducing the Qin dynasty. Explain that a dynasty is a succession of rulers who are members of the same family. The ruler’s position is hereditary. Ask students how they know that the president (or anyone in public office in the United States) is not a member of a dynasty. Ask if they know of any modern rulers who belong to a dynasty. (While the term is not usually used in reference to the English monarch, the queen is a member of a dynasty—the House of Windsor.)

Cross-curricular Teaching Idea
To give students a feeling for Chinese culture, read them a few stories set in China, like “The Wonderful Chuang Brocade” (discussed in the Language Arts section on p. 51).

Heaven from this ruler and bestow it on another one.

While China prospered under the Zhou, the seeds of the Zhou’s destruction were sown by the introduction of feudalism. In exchange for military support, the Zhou kings gave land to their supporters, who established local states and ruled them for their own benefit. In time, the local lords, known as warlords, became more powerful than the Zhou kings and fought one another for power and wealth. The era between 402 BCE and 201 BCE is known as the Warring States Period.

Qin Dynasty

Shihuangdi
Zheng [JHENG] was a warlord who ruled the state, or province, of Qin [CHIN]. In 221 BCE he set out to unify China by subjugating the local warlords, abolishing feudalism, and proclaiming himself emperor. By his death in 210 BCE, he had succeeded for the most part in conquering the local warlords. Zheng took the title Shihuangdi [she-HWONG-dee], meaning “First Emperor,” and as Shihuangdi, imposed a strong centralized government on China. In an effort to ensure his control, he had his opponents murdered.

The emperor had a great interest in magic and alchemy. He summoned magicians from all over China to visit him. But his motive was beyond entertainment; the emperor desperately sought an elixir that would grant him immortality. When Confucian scholars criticized the emperor’s preoccupation with magic, he had 460 leading scholars executed.

Shihuangdi is also known for his establishment of a single system of coinage and a standardization of the Chinese ideographic writing system, which had developed during the Shang dynasty. After his death, Shihuangdi’s policies of torture and murder of enemies, heavy taxation, and forced labor (to build the Great Wall) resulted in a series of rebellions against the next Qin emperor and the end of the Qin dynasty.

In the 1970s, Shihuangdi’s tomb was excavated and a collection of over 6,000 life-sized soldiers made of terra-cotta was discovered, along with terra-cotta horses and chariots made of bronze. The figures are arranged in precise military formation, and the soldiers hold weapons that are still sharp. Today, visitors can see the figures in a museum constructed above the tomb, and archaeologists are still working to uncover the rest of the tomb.

Great Wall of China

The Great Wall of China was built over many centuries. The wall was begun during the Qin dynasty in the 3rd century BCE, and additions were made during subsequent dynasties. The last work was completed during the Ming dynasty (1368–1644). The wall, which was built to keep out invaders, stretches 2,150 miles (3,460 km) across North China. Made of earth, stones, and brick, the wall is 25 feet (7.6 m) high and 12 feet (3.7 m) wide. It is the world’s longest fortification and, in fact, the longest structure ever built and the only human-made structure that can be seen from outer space.


**Han Dynasty**

The Han [HAHN] dynasty succeeded the Qin in 206 BCE and ruled for more than 400 years, until 220 CE. The harsher policies of Shihuangdi were replaced, and Confucianism was introduced as the basis of government actions. Confucianism remained the basis of Chinese government until the early 1900s when the last dynasty, the Qing, was toppled.

Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived in China from 551 to 479 BCE. After his death, his sayings and activities were collected as the *Analects of Confucius*. The principle tenet of Confucianism is *jen*, pronounced “ren” and translated as “human-heartedness” or “sympathy.” Human-heartedness is a sensibility that relates every person to every other. Human-heartedness sets up certain relationships in society and requires that people treat others as they would wish to be treated themselves.

According to Confucius, there are five basic relationships:

- father to son
- elder brother to younger brother
- husband to wife
- ruler to subject
- friend to friend

Except for the relationship between friends, the relationships are unequal. In the first four relationships, the father, the elder brother, the husband, and the ruler are superior and are owed allegiance and obedience by the lower person. In turn, the superior person owes protection to the lower. These duties and responsibilities set up a system of right action that governs relationships.

Confucius saw the family as the basic unit of society and government as an extension of the family. It was within the family that a person learned right action. Filial piety, respect for one’s parents, was the most important virtue. A person who practiced right action in the family—honoring his or her elders, obeying them, and taking care of them—would transfer this sense of correct behavior to relationships outside the family.

Translated into the political realm, Confucianism meant that the ruler as the head of society (the family) was owed allegiance, but that those he governed were due good government in return. Confucius maintained that when all family relationships are in order, including those between husband and wife and parents and children, then there will be order in society.

The students of Confucius called him “Master” and came to study with him to hear the wise things he said. The *Analects* record some of the advice he gave his students:

IV.18 The Master said, “In serving your father and mother, you ought to dissuade them from doing wrong in the gentlest way. If you see your advice being ignored, you should not become disobedient but remain reverent.”

XV.24: Tzu-kung asked, “Is there a single word which can be a guide to conduct throughout one’s life?” The Master said, “It is perhaps the word *shi* [reciprocity]. Do not impose on others what you yourself do not desire.”
XIII.6. The Master said, “If a man is correct in his own person, then there will be obedience without orders being given; but if he is not correct in his own person, there will not be obedience, even though orders are given.”

XV.21 The Master said, “What a gentleman seeks, he seeks within himself; what a small man seeks, he seeks in others.”

XVII.2. The Master said, “Men are close to one another by nature. They diverge as the result of repeated practice.”

VII.1. The Master said, “I transmit but do not innovate; I am truthful in what I say and devoted to antiquity.”

After Confucius died, schools were established to teach Confucianism. During some of the later dynasties, Confucian ideas became even more important in China. The emperors decided that people who had studied Confucius would make the most honest and reliable government officials, so they required aspiring officials to pass an exam on the Analects and other key Confucian texts.

While Confucianism had a tremendous impact on the development of all aspects of Chinese life for 2,000 years—familial, societal, political, and economic—it was attacked by Chinese reformers after the downfall of the last emperor in the early 1900s. Confucianism was seen as a conservative force in Chinese life that kept China from modernizing. Today, Confucius is again venerated as a great teacher in China. Confucian teachings remain quite influential in other Asian societies, most notably Japan, South Korea, Vietnam, and Singapore.

Trade

During the Han dynasty, China began to participate in the international trade network. Over the centuries, China imported a variety of goods—foods such as grapes and figs from the Mediterranean, woolen cloth from northern Europe, furs from Central Asia, ivory from Africa, and cotton cloth from India. China’s major export was silk.

Silk Road

By 1000 BCE, the Chinese were making silk thread from the cocoons spun by silkworms. The silkworms were raised on the leaves of mulberry trees that were grown for this purpose. Women workers first made silk thread from the cocoons and then spun the thread into cloth, which was dyed and made into robes. The secrets of silk production were for many years a closely guarded trade secret.

Silk became such an important export that the trade route along which silk merchants traveled became known as the Silk Road. The Silk Road was really a network of roads and paths. It stretched from eastern China to Syria in the Middle East and from there linked to routes to the Mediterranean, and in the 500s CE, to Constantinople (modern-day Istanbul). Caravans of camels carried silk and other valuable goods west along the road. It was along this route that Chinese knowledge of papermaking reached the West, but the Chinese kept the secret of silk-making for themselves for many centuries.

Invention of Paper

The Chinese invented paper in 105 CE. They learned how to create it from mashed plant fiber, such as bamboo and tree bark, or pulped rags.
To make paper, the Chinese husked bamboo with a mortar and pestle. It was then placed in a pool of lime to soften for several days. A month of steaming and boiling in a big kiln, drying, and repeated steaming and boiling followed. The material was then ground into pieces and put into a pool of pure water. The mulch of birch leaves was added to provide adhesion and smoothness. The resulting paper was then squeezed and hung to dry in sheets.

Knowledge of papermaking did not make its way to Europe for several centuries. Until then, those few people who could write used papyrus, the stem of a Mediterranean plant cut into thin strips, as the Egyptians did, or parchment, which was goatskin or sheepskin treated specially for writing.

**Tang and Song Dynasties**

The Tang and Song dynasties are known as Golden Ages in Chinese history. The earlier Han dynasty collapsed for several reasons. Weak leadership caused internal problems, and Huns from Central Asia swept in and took control. Between 220 and 618 CE, China was divided into three kingdoms. In 618 CE, the Tang came to power and ushered in almost 300 years of expansion, prosperity, and innovation. Confucianism was made the basis of government, and a system of civil service examinations was instituted by which men were selected for public office. Buddhism was supported by most Tang emperors, and historians believe the religion had its greatest influence during this dynasty. The Chinese during the Tang dynasty were also noted for their beautiful poetry and fine porcelain wares.

The Tang dynasty was overthrown in 907 CE by one of its own generals. The next 53 years brought another period of warfare between states competing for control of China. In 960 CE, a period of stability began under the Song and lasted until 1279, when the Mongols invaded China and took control.

As in the Tang dynasty, China during the Song dynasty was prosperous, organized, and efficiently run. People had time to devote to the arts. Landscape painting became an important art style. Poetry and history flourished. Chinese porcelain, known popularly as China, became a prized trade good. Either white or colored, plain or delicately painted, these earthenware bowls, plates, pitchers, and decorative pieces were produced in China for 1,000 years before Europeans discovered the process.

**Trade**

One of the practical innovations developed under the Tang was the Grand Canal. At the time the world's longest human-made canal, it linked the Huang He and the Ch’ang Rivers and encouraged north-south trade within China.

During the Tang and Song dynasties, China continued to participate in the international trade networks that took Chinese goods to India, West Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, and Europe. Chinese merchants themselves went as far as the Malay Peninsula. Silk remained the largest Chinese export.

**Inventions: Compass, Paper Money, Gunpowder**

Several of the inventions and innovations that developed during the Tang and Song dynasties aided trade. Sometime before the 1100s, the Chinese had devised the magnetic compass for use in planning the layout of their temples, but in 1119, they discovered that it was useful for navigation. Since the compass pointed north,
Navigators could use it to be sure they were traveling in the right direction. The compass did not reach Europe until the 1200s. It was one of the navigational devices that enabled Europeans to embark on their voyages of exploration in search of an all-water route to Asia.

Paper money came into use in China during the Song dynasty. The Chinese, as well as other peoples, had been using metal coins for centuries, but the Chinese were the first to use paper currency. Two other inventions converged to make the use of paper currency possible. First, the Chinese had invented the process of making paper in 105 CE, and then, during the Tang dynasty in the 700s CE, they had learned how to print from large blocks of type—the words for a page were carved into a single block of wood the size of the page, then inked, and paper applied. In the 1040s, the Chinese had invented the use of movable type for printing. The characters for individual words were carved into small pieces of wood and assembled to make a page, then inked, and paper applied. Europeans would not employ movable type until the time of Gutenberg, about 1450. Marco Polo, who traveled and lived in China for 20 years in the 1200s, noted in the journal of his travels that:

The coinage of this paper money is authenticated with as much form and ceremony as if it were actually of pure gold or silver. To each note a number of officers, specially appointed, not only subscribe their names, but affix their seals also . . . . All his [Khan's] subjects receive it [paper money] without hesitation, because, wherever their business may call them, they can dispose of it again in the purchase of merchandise.

Polo’s readers received this news with surprise because paper currency was unknown in Europe.

The military use of gunpowder was another invention of the Song dynasty. Gunpowder was first used in the Tang dynasty to make fireworks. In order to fight off the Mongols from Central Asia in the 1100s, the Chinese developed rockets that were propelled by gunpowder.

Mongol Invasions

In about 1200, the Mongols, nomadic warriors of Central Asia, set out to conquer the world. By 1294, their four khanates, as their units of organization were called, extended across southern Russia from Korea and the Pacific Ocean to the Black Sea, reached into the Arabian Peninsula, and included almost all of China and some of Southeast Asia.

Chinggis Khan and the “Golden Horde”

Chinggis [CHIN-giz KHAN] (also spelled Ghengis) Khan—which means “ruler of the universe”—started the Mongols on their world conquest. His army of well-disciplined, well-trained horsemen was known as the “Golden Horde,” because the early khan—“khan” is a title similar to the European title of “king”—lived in gold-colored tents. Fierce nomadic fighters, the Golden Horde struck terror in the hearts of their opponents.

Khubilai Khan and the Yuan Dynasty

Khubilai [KOO-bil-eye] (also spelled Kublai) Khan was Chinggis Khan’s grandson, and it was he who took the Mongol Empire to its greatest expanse.
While his grandfather had conquered northern China, Kubilai Khan conquered southern China and began the Yuan dynasty. The Mongol Empire and the Yuan dynasty did not endure much beyond Kubilai Khan’s death in 1294. Natural disasters and internal problems, but mainly an armed revolt, led to the downfall of the Mongols. In 1368, the Ming established their dynasty in China.

While the Mongol Empire lasted, it enforced peace, much like the Pax Romana of the Roman Empire, which students in Core Knowledge schools should have learned about in Grade 3. The arts flourished and the development of the Chinese novel and drama are dated to the Yuan dynasty. Because there was peace, the great Silk Road was safe and trade increased. In addition to silk and porcelains, the Chinese exported their ideas and inventions. It was during this time that papermaking and gunpowder reached Europe and the Middle East. In return, new crops and foods were sent along the trade routes to Asia. Kubilai Khan continued the sea trade with Southeast Asia. Perhaps his most permanent achievement was the building of a capital city, which he called Khanbalik and which is today known as Beijing.

Marco Polo

Marco Polo described Khanbalik [khan-BAH-leek] in great detail in his work The Travels of Marco Polo, Venetian. Polo was a merchant from the Italian city-state of Venice and an explorer who set out bound for China in 1271 with his father and uncle. They reached the court of Kubilai Khan in Khanbalik in 1275. For 17 years, Marco Polo served the khan as a governor of a province and as a diplomat in China, India, and Southeast Asia before returning to Venice in 1295. Along with the Crusades, Marco Polo’s account of his life in China and what he saw helped spur European interest in an all-water route to Asia. Christopher Columbus, for example, was fascinated by Polo’s book, and his desire to sail to the Indies described by Polo led to the European discovery of America.

Ming Dynasty

The Ming dynasty, meaning “bright” or “luminous,” was in place from 1368 to 1644. This dynasty marked the return of power to ethnic Chinese after a period of non-Chinese rule by the Mongol emperors. During this period, China experienced stable and efficient government, which allowed the country to prosper. The Ming had the Grand Canal rebuilt to encourage trade, and the Great Wall was extended to keep out invaders. The population of China increased to perhaps 160 million by the year 1600. Most people were farmers, but small industries like porcelain manufacture thrived in China’s cities. The arts—both visual and literary—were important. In addition to landscape painting, artists began to paint portraits.

It was also during the Ming dynasty that European traders began to come to China, and not long after, Christian missionaries arrived to attempt to convert the Chinese to Christianity.

Forbidden City

During the Ming dynasty, Kubilai Khan’s capital was renamed Beijing and was greatly enlarged. A new imperial palace was built as a walled city within a city and was named the Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was greatly enlarged. A new imperial palace was built as a walled city within a city and was named the Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was named the Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was named the Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was given the name Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was given the name Forbidden City. The palace was finished in 1420 and was given the name Forbidden City.
remained the home of the emperor until the fall of the last Chinese emperor in 1911. Today, the Forbidden City, with its 183 acres of rooms, great halls, gardens, and waterways, is a museum.

### Explorations of Zheng He

During the Ming dynasty, China opened sea routes to Southeast Asia and South Asia. Between 1405 and 1433, the sea captain Zheng He (JHENG HAY) commanded seven expeditions along the northern coasts of the Indian Ocean, going as far as the entrances to the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. Some people think he may have also rounded the tip of Africa. These expeditions included hundreds of large and small ships and thousands of sailors and troops. Their purpose was to encourage trading contacts and show the power of the Ming.

After Zheng He’s death, the Ming emperors stopped sending out fleets of ships. Construction of oceangoing ships was halted permanently. The emperors turned their attention inward. No one knows why this occurred, but one theory is that the Confucian-trained imperial advisors considered Chinese civilization ideal and did not want to risk corrupting it with outside influences. A second theory is that the voyages brought little immediate financial return on their huge investment.

Whatever the reason, the Chinese decision to refrain from exploration changed world history. In the same century in Europe, explorers set out in ships far smaller than the ships of Zheng He’s fleet and reached both Asia and the Western Hemisphere. As China withdrew from the world, Europeans were spreading their civilization and power both east and west.

In 1644, the Ming were overthrown by the Qing (formerly known as the Ch’ing), the final Chinese imperial dynasty, which ruled until 1912. The Qing emperors were Manchus from the north and not Chinese. However, they adopted the Chinese name Qing, meaning “clear” or “pure.” The Manchus, while adopting a number of Chinese customs, tried to retain some of their native ways. By the end of the Qing dynasty, Europeans had seized the opportunity to rule the seas and dictate trade terms to the Chinese.

### Review

Below are some ideas for ongoing assessment and review activities. These are not meant to constitute a comprehensive list. Teachers may also refer to the Pearson Learning/Core Knowledge History & Geography series for additional information and teaching ideas.

- Create writing centers around the room based on the various inventions of the different dynasties. Each center should be based on an invention and include several writing prompts to which students can respond. Have students write about the effect of that invention or what life would be like without it. For example, students could write about gunpowder, the compass, paper, paper money, silk, or spices. Before students begin rotating through each center, create a journal for students to use by stapling several sheets of lined paper together and making a construction paper cover. Schedule enough time for students to rotate through and respond to prompts at each station.
What Teachers Need to Know

Note: The descriptions and activities in the main text below are intended to help you become familiar with the artworks before presenting them to students; however, some of the activities might be adapted for classroom use. Activities intended specifically for students can be found in the Teaching Idea sidebars. The Looking Questions are also printed on the reverse side of the Art Resources and have been written with students in mind so that they might be used as a rough plan for class discussion. You should feel free to use these questions or develop questions of your own. Be sure students have time to look at the reproductions carefully before asking the Looking Questions.

Chinese Art: Expressions of Ancient Traditions

China is said to be the oldest continuing civilization in the world. China lays claim not only to this distinction, but it was also the first civilization to develop the compass, paper, silk cloth, gunpowder, movable type for printing, and porcelain. For much of China's history, the Pacific Ocean on the east and the mountain ranges on the west allowed it to develop in relative isolation from Western societies.

China has many rich cultural traditions, including several important traditions in the visual arts. Chinese artists have long practiced various forms of art. They have particularly excelled in three areas—scroll painting, calligraphy, and porcelain.

A Private World: Scroll Painting

There are two major types of painting in China: hanging scrolls and hand scrolls. Hanging scrolls can be displayed in public like western European paintings or medieval tapestries. However, they are not permanent installations. They temporarily adorn walls and are often changed by owners. Viewing hand scrolls is an even more private affair. The admirer slowly unrolls one portion of the painting at a time, contemplating the scene before moving on to the next section of the scroll. (See the included reproduction of *Ink Bamboo.*) Both types of scrolls are easily rolled, transported, and stored.

Instead of oil paints and canvas used by Western painters, Chinese artists typically use ink on paper or silk. Their ink washes (combinations of ink and water) of varying intensities simulate the effects of mist and endless space as well as record selected sharp details.

Nature has been the primary subject for scroll painting since the 11th century. The Chinese reverence for nature is rooted in Taoism, which began during the 6th century. In Taoism, the secret to wisdom and happiness is a life of simplicity and the observance of the laws of nature, rather than trying to make nature submit to human will. Confucianism, the belief system that became the basis of China's political philosophy for hundreds of years, also calls for respect for nature (as well as for one's parents and ancestors, the state, and the emperor).

Landscape painters didn't try to replicate exactly the world they saw. They indicated depth by altering the size of objects and using washes to create the
Teaching Idea

Have students make their own hand scroll about a special time they spent in nature. At the end of the scroll, students should write a paragraph about why this time was so special. When the class is finished, review how hand scrolls were viewed privately. Assign students to groups of four to share their hand scrolls in a private viewing.

IV. The Art of China

Sense of a misty distance. Both the atmosphere and details of a landscape are meant to create a transporting experience. The scroll painting should arouse feelings of walking through the actual scene itself. Your eyes should “take a walk” through each landscape.

Paintings were judged on the quality of their brushwork. Artists had to handle not only the ink and washes, but each stroke had to be an expression of the artists themselves.

Chinese artists produced other kinds of art besides scrolls, calligraphy, and porcelain. They also excelled in block printing, architecture, sculpture, and paper cutting (which originated as an elite pastime).

Formerly attributed to Guan Daosheng, Ink Bamboo (17th century)

Landscape scenes were important subject matter in Chinese art beginning in the Sung dynasty (960–1279 CE). In the West, landscapes became important after the Reformation in the 16th century in northern Europe.

Although it was mostly educated men who trained in art, some Chinese women excelled as well. However, these women rarely actually went outdoors to study their subject matter. Instead, they lived inside the family compound and traveled only occasionally through the countryside when accompanying their husbands. Nonetheless, female landscape artists equaled men in using their strokes to express something essential about their character. One such artist was Guan Daosheng [gwahn dao-shung].

Traditionally, Chinese artists spent years copying the style and compositions of earlier masters. It wasn’t until artists were fully mature that it was appropriate to add personal touches. Guan Daosheng offset her dark, sharp strokes with feathery brushwork. Other artists greatly admired her innovative method of depicting bamboo in the mist after a fresh rain. Ink Bamboo features calligraphy on the left side and an image of a bamboo plant on the other.

The calligraphy on this scroll has two parts: a poem about bamboo on the first half and an inscription on the other half. The title of this hand scroll and the inscription (which is dated 1309 and addressed to Guan’s sister, Guan Daoguo) attribute the work to Guan Daosheng. However, because of the style of the painting and the condition of the work, scholars now believe that it dates back to the 17th century, but they do not know who painted the work.

Looking questions

• What do you see on the left side of this work? On the right? There is printing on the left side, and the leaves of a bamboo plant on the right.

• How can you tell this is a Chinese work of art? You can tell by the lettering. These are pictographs.

• In what different ways did the artist use line in the painting? The artist used long, dark, sharp lines and short strokes in this painting.

• How did the artist use ink to create a distinct atmosphere? The soft washes in the painting suggest mist, creating a distinct atmosphere.

• What feeling does the artist’s nature scene create? Answers will vary. Students may say that the scene creates a sense of peace, harmony, or calmness.
• The left part of the scroll shows a poem. By looking at the right part of the scroll, what do you think the poem is about? Answers will vary. Students might suggest fields, bamboo, gardens, a shoreline, or wind.

**Brushstroked Words: Calligraphy**

Chinese painting and calligraphy are intimately intertwined. Calligraphy is the art of writing using stylized brushstrokes and technique to create beautiful characters. In many cultures, especially Chinese, these images are often considered works of art. In fact, Chinese writing evolved from images. Ancient potters inscribed pictures into Neolithic pots between 5000 BCE and 2000 BCE. The motifs developed into written characters, which artists carved into bone and bronze during the Shang dynasty (roughly the 17th through the 11th century BCE). Calligraphers began brushing ink on silk during the Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE), and finally on paper in 105 CE.

Calligraphy could stand alone, but artists frequently used it when writing poems right on their paintings. The liquid brushwork of the characters visually added to the scene while the words themselves simultaneously enhanced the subject matter.

It takes years of practice and patience to become adept at applying the fluid lines that dominate both Chinese painting and calligraphy. Historically, artists came from an artist-scholar tradition, beginning around the time of the Tang dynasty (618–907 CE). These people were the artistic and intellectual elite of society and were educated in music and poetry in addition to painting and calligraphy. Many artist-scholars held positions as officials in the court.

Zhu Yunming [joo yoonming] was one of the greatest calligraphers of the Ming dynasty. He is best known for his “wild cursive script,” a style believed to have been invented by drunken immortals who expressed their energies with brush and ink.

**Teaching Idea**

 Invite a calligrapher to come into your class to demonstrate a few brushstrokes and to explain the process.

**Teaching Idea**

Share with students that a famous Chinese calligrapher once said, “Good calligraphy is like a flock of birds darting out of trees, a startled snake scurrying into the grass, or cracks bursting through a shattered wall.” Have students invent their own poetic simile to describe calligraphy.

**Teaching Idea**

Chinese artists first inscribed images in pottery, bone, and even turtle shells. Have students investigate the Chinese invention of silk, which served as a painting surface. The Chinese invented both silk and paper centuries before they were produced in the West.

**Teaching Idea**

After exploring Chinese calligraphy, ask students to devise their own short poems about something in nature (perhaps something that they’re studying in science). Afterward, ask students to rewrite the poem with expressive letters, using ink (or paint) and thin brushes.

**Li Lung-Mien and Zhao Mengfu, Legend of Guizimo (detail no. 10)**

Chinese writing began as pictographs, with some of the earliest surviving examples seen on bones. Eventually the images evolved into characters, which themselves are images that we associate with words. Calligraphy is at once abstract and literal.

It is not essential to understand what particular characters mean. Even people who read Chinese will consider the painted strokes for their artistic merit. As with landscape painting, lines are judged for their quality and flow, as well as what they express about the artists themselves. Over the years, Chinese calligraphers have developed different scripts, or styles of writing characters. Even when artists are using the same script, there is a great deal of room for personal expression, ranging from the use of brush, paper, spacing, and stroke, resulting in unique and beautiful expressions of art.

Li Lung-Mien [leh-EE loong-myen] (also known as Li Gonglin) was one of the most distinguished painters of the Song dynasty. He became a civil servant after passing the rigorous exam and moved to the capital, where he studied and copied old masters. His style has been described as refined and elegant. He was particularly known for his landscapes and paintings of horses and Buddhist figures.
IV. The Art of China

Zhao Mengfu [jaow mengfoo] was a Chinese painter and calligrapher. He had a major influence on modern Chinese landscape painting. A descendant of the imperial family of the Song dynasty, he was in service to the Mongol empire. His works show the influence of masters from the Tang dynasty, particularly his rougher brushstrokes. This was a stylistic break from masters of the Song dynasty.

Looking questions
- What element of art is most important in this image? Line is most important in this image.
- What is the art of beautiful writing called? It is called calligraphy.
- What about the poem's calligraphy indicates whether the characters were made slowly or quickly? The liquid brushstrokes suggest quick strokes.
- How would writing a character with brush and ink be different from writing one with a pen? Answers will vary. Explain that one must be more careful and decisive with a brush than with a pen.

The Beauty of Clay: Porcelain

Chinese artists first began to work with porcelain during the Tang dynasty (618–906 CE). Europe wouldn’t produce the same product until eight centuries later, in the 1700s. In the Ming dynasty (1368–1644 CE), Chinese artists perfected the porcelain technique, fashioning the finely decorated white ware in elegant forms.

Porcelain is made from fine white clay, known as kaolin, that is fired (or baked) at high temperatures. Kaolin is relatively rare, only found in a few locations in China, Europe, and North America. Artists apply a clear liquid glaze, which turns glassy when fired, allowing the white clay to show underneath. The most famous porcelain is “blue-and-white” ware. Here, artists add cobalt blue pigment under or over the glaze, which then stands out against the white background. (See the included reproduction of the porcelain flask.)

Porcelain was a major commodity for China in international trade from the 11th through the 19th centuries. Other Asian countries, and those in the Near East, Africa, and Europe, all sought Chinese porcelain. Today, the nation’s ceramic work is still so highly respected that we commonly use the term china when referring to porcelain.

Porcelain flask, Ming dynasty (c. 1403–1424)

The image and size of this porcelain flask reveal a great deal about the piece. There are three claws on the dragon, indicating that an attendant gave the ware as a gift to the emperor—or the emperor presented the flask to foreign rulers or dignitaries. During the Ming dynasty, the dragons on anything the emperor used himself had five claws. The dragon’s massive head and powerful limbs help us understand the creature’s symbolic connection to the emperor.

Looking questions
- What do you see? Some students will be drawn to the dragon; others will say a vase or a pot with designs, etc.
- What are some important elements of art in this work? Color, form, and line are dominant.


- What creature appears on the flask? *A dragon appears on the flask.*
- What else is shown? *A complicated design of vines and leaves is also shown on the flask.*
- Do you think that this ware would be used for daily drinking? *Its beauty and size suggest that it would be reserved for special occasions, for ceremonies, or for use by someone of high social standing.*
- What might it feel like to be served from this flask? *Answers will vary.*

**Review**

Below are some ideas for ongoing assessment and review activities. These are not meant to constitute a comprehensive list.

- Give each student a piece of paper with the outline of a vase on the page. Then tell the class that this is a porcelain vase that needs to be decorated. Have them sketch a picture on the vase and then paint their pictures onto the vase. Have students write a paragraph describing their vase.
- After practicing calligraphy, have students create scrolls with stories that they have written. They should illustrate their stories. You can use long pieces of butcher paper rolled up at each end, or put the ends of the paper on sticks to roll them up.
- Assign short research papers to the class and have students write about the Chinese dynasty of their choice and what art it was famous for. Have students illustrate their papers with a picture of that type of art and a description of it.
- Provide students with a collection of home and architecture magazines. Have them look through the magazines and see if they can find examples of how the art of China affects design today. Have them look for examples of porcelain objects, silk, scrolls, or calligraphy in homes and architecture today. When they find a picture, have them cut it out and glue it to poster board. Then students should write a paragraph explaining the influences they have discovered.
- Chinese landscape painters created dreamy, relaxing scenes. Ask students to think about a relaxing scene and draw a picture of it.
- Consult with local universities and libraries to see if there is a Chinese art specialist (professor, exchange student, librarian) who can come to the class and give a presentation on an aspect of Chinese art. Before inviting the speaker, have students write personal letters to introduce themselves and ask a question about Chinese art that they would like answered. Deliver these letters prior to the presentation.
- In general, the best time to ask questions about a specific work of art is while students are looking at it. However, by the end of the unit, students should be able to answer questions like the following:

1. What are some important forms of traditional Chinese art?
   *Three important forms of traditional Chinese art are scroll painting, calligraphy, and porcelain.*

2. What is calligraphy?
   *Calligraphy is the art of writing.*

**Teaching Idea**

Bring in samples of porcelain flatware stamped with “Made in China” on the bottom. Without mentioning this fact, pass the items around, asking what they are used for (eating or serving food). Then have a student turn over a piece and read aloud where the dish was made. Help students understand that China’s porcelain tradition has evolved over the centuries. It is no longer just for the elite, but exported to other countries for daily use as well.

**The Big Idea in Review**

*Traditional Chinese art—especially calligraphy, scroll painting, and porcelain—has ancient roots.*