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SAME WORD, DIFFERENT MEANING?

An Analysis of Sino-Japanese Homographs
found in Chinese Subtitles for Japanese TV
Dramas

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Abstract

In this essay I studied the variety of differences in meaning and usage between Sino-Japanese homographs. The purpose of the essay was to shed some light on what different types of Sino-Japanese homographs there are, as well as to figure out which one of these is the most common and which one seems the most difficult to understand for Japanese or Chinese native speakers. To achieve this goal, I studied the Chinese subtitles for two Japanese TV dramas and compared them with the Japanese subtitles, to find concrete examples of homographs used differently in various contexts. I then selected among the homographs I found a few for each of my pre-determined categories, based on previous works, and analysed them further using dictionaries as well as sentences extracted from the TV drama subtitles. I compared my findings with those of previous studies and found that I largely came to similar conclusions, for example that homographs that hardly share any common meaning in Japanese and Chinese seem the most difficult to learn, or that many homographs seem to have a broader scope of meaning in Chinese than they do in Japanese. The reason why this subject is an important one is because a higher awareness of homographs can be very conducive to properly learn Chinese as a Japanese speaker, or Japanese as a Chinese speaker. It is in many cases wishful thinking to believe that you can simply use kanji words in the same way in Chinese and in Japanese just because they are written the same. In reality they can be different in various ways, such as not being of the same word class in Japanese and Chinese, or being part of colloquial vocabulary in Chinese whereas in Japanese they would only be used in a formal context.

Keywords: Sino-Japanese, homographs, categorisation, Japanese, Chinese, subtitles, Japanese TV drama

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1 Introduction

Sino-Japanese homographs are kanji words that exist in both Japanese and Chinese, are written using the same kanji, but have different meanings. For a Chinese or Taiwanese person studying Japanese, a Japanese person studying Chinese or a person who has prior experience of studying either of the languages and is currently studying the other one, these words can lead to confusion. For example, when a Chinese or Taiwanese person studying Japanese speaks Japanese, they tend to use a lot of kanji words, so called “kango”, which are more familiar to them, having Chinese as their mother tongue, than other Japanese vocabulary. Similarly, Japanese people studying Chinese probably use a lot of kango when they speak Chinese, considering that kango originally came to Japan from China and should thus be easy for the Chinese native speaker to understand. However, if one is not aware of the existence of homographs in these scenarios, one is likely to be misunderstood sometimes.

In this thesis, I would therefore like to engage in providing some deeper understanding concerning Sino-Japanese homographs.

1.1 Previous Studies

There is a wide variety of previous works concerning the comparison of Sino-Japanese homographs.

Among these are Satō and Ōm (2010), who introduce the usage and meaning of about 300 Sino-Japanese-Korean homographs in a simple and concise way, Ikkai, Kakehi and Kakehi (2006) who write about kango in general, Zhāng (2004) who introduces a number of homographs in a very humorous manner and Wú (2005) who makes an effort in categorising Sino-Japanese homographs. These, among others, were greatly conducive to the writing of this thesis.

Furthermore, there is a number of theses on this subject or similar subjects.

For instance, Hé (2014) discusses the varying difficulties of the different kinds of homographs for Japanese people learning Chinese. Gù (2013) writes about the special characteristics of different types of homographs as well as important points to consider when learning or teaching these homographs.

1.2 Problem Definition

Even though there are previous studies on this subject, I have yet to find studies which analyse the application of Sino-Japanese homographs regarding the context in which they are actually used and to what extent.

1.3 Aim

My aim is to analyse to what extent Sino-Japanese homographs appear in the Chinese subtitles of Japanese TV dramas, in which colloquial language is primarily used, as well as what kind of categorisation is possible and what kinds of special characteristics and regularities there are.

1.4 Research Questions

- Which one of the different homograph categories that I bring attention to in this thesis most commonly appears in the subtitles?
- Judging by the results of the analysis; which of the categories is most likely to be the cause of confusion?
- Is there a pattern regarding which language's homographs have greater application scopes?

2 Framework

2.1 Kango

“Kango” are words consisting of kanji characters, which were introduced to Japan from China in ancient times through Korea. According to Yamaguchi (2007), there are largely four different categories of kango.

1. Kango which exist in both Japanese and Chinese, and also share the same meaning. Some examples are 秘密 (secret), 時間 (time) and 花瓶 (flower vase).
2. Kango which exist in both Japanese and Chinese, but have different meanings. Some examples are 勉強 (in Chinese, the meaning of this kango is “to do something by force/by compulsion”, but in Japanese it means “to study”), 大變 (in Chinese, it means “to change/alter greatly”, but in Japanese it means “very”, “terrible” or “difficult”) and 試驗 (in Chinese, it only means “experiment”, but in Japanese it usually indicates a “school test”).
3. Kango which exist in Japanese, but not in Chinese. Some examples are 財布 (wallet), 映画 (movie) and 自転車 (bicycle). Many of these words appear very commonly in everyday conversation in Japanese.
4. Kango created in Japan and then later introduced to China, which share the same meaning in both languages. Some examples are 社会 (society), 心理 (psychology), 自然 (nature) and 放送 (broadcast). (Yamaguchi 2007:45)

The kango brought up in this thesis are mainly those of the second category.

2.2 Categorisation

The categorisation of homographs attempted in this thesis is based on that of Wú (2005). Wú (2005:50) writes the following:

“Due to historical reasons, there exist lots of homographs in Chinese and Japanese. These words are written the same, but can differ in part of speech, only have partly similar meaning, be used in different contexts, be different in nuance, be seemingly identical but have small differences and so on. They are the cause of many mistakes.”

In Wú (2005:51), homographs are divided into 5 categories.

(1) Homographs which differ in part of speech

There is a portion of homographs which differ in part of speech. This also leads to different applications and grammatical functions. An application of a kango which might seem correct in Japanese can be incorrect in Chinese because of the difference in part of speech. An example is the following sentence (* indicates that the sentence is incorrect).

* 这四年间，我经验（経験）了很多事，也得了很多好朋友们。

Meaning: I have **experienced** a lot in the last four years, and also made a lot of friends.

The word “経験” (experience) possesses the same meaning in both Japanese and Chinese, but in Chinese it can only be used as a noun. In Japanese, you can combine it with a “suru” and create a verb out of it, but this is not an option in Chinese.

(2) Homographs which share similarities in meaning

Words belonging to this category have both similarities and differences. For example, “表現” is often used to indicate a “verbal expression” in Japanese, whereas in Chinese it is rather used to indicate “a human expression/action”.

(3) Homographs which are different in meaning

The words belonging to this category differ greatly in meaning between Japanese and Chinese. For example, “野菜” means “vegetable” in Japanese, whereas in Chinese it

means “wildflower”. (Zhāng 2004:32) Another example is “感激” which means “to be moved (emotionally)” in Japanese, but “to be grateful” in Chinese.

(4) Homographs which are combined differently with other words

There are also kango which are very similar in meaning, but are not combined with other words in the same way in Japanese and Chinese. “発表” is brought up as an example. In Japanese, it can be used to express the action “to post/present grades” (成績を発表する), which is not a possible combination in Chinese. In other words, 発表 (to present) cannot be combined with 成績 (grades) in Chinese.

(5) Homographs which differ in nuance

The last thing Wú (2005) brings up is the fact that there are also homographs which differ in nuance in Japanese and Chinese. She compares the word “就職” in both languages. In Japanese, it means “to get a job” or “to find a job” and is very commonly used. In Chinese it also possesses the meaning “to get a job”, but in most cases it indicates the acquisition of a high ranking job, and is mainly used in written language. That is to say, the degree of formality differs.

In this thesis I have created my own three categories, while referring to those above by Wú.

The categories are the following:

- Category A: Homographs which are used in different situations
- Category B: Homographs which are sometimes used identically, but sometimes differently
- Category C: Homographs which are different in meaning

The reason for decreasing the amount of categories from Wú’s five categories to just three was because I thought that some of Wú’s categories were very similar and could

therefore be merged with each other, to make it easier to distinguish between the different categories. So, using Wú's (4) and (5) as reference I created Category A, while (1) and (2) became Category B. Category C is basically the same as (3) above.

2.2.1 Category A: Homographs which are used in different situations

There is a great amount of kango which share a common meaning in Japanese and Chinese. However, a lot of these words are used in different situations depending on the language. This category is based on Wú's (2005) categories "Homographs which are combined differently with other words" as well as "Homographs which differ in nuance". It is also a phenomenon which Miyajima (1993) writes about.

As an example of a word belonging to this category, let us take a look at “放棄”. “放棄” is a word which does not commonly appear in everyday conversation in Japanese. It is a word that gives a rather formal impression when used. You can use it in expressions such as “責任を放棄する” or “権利を放棄する”, where it signifies the action of “abandoning or renouncing something”. It is not a word you would often hear in an everyday conversation with a friend. In contrast, when used in Chinese its meaning corresponds to that of “あきらめる” or “やめる” in Japanese, in other words “to give up something” or “to stop doing something”. On the subject of this category of homographs, Gù (2013) brings up “看病” and “医院” as examples to discuss. “看病” in Japanese means “to take care of a sick person”, but in Chinese it means “to diagnose or cure a sickness”. There is no great discrepancy in meaning between the two expressions, but the nuance is far from negligible. What makes them differ is the fact that the word constituents, “看” and “病” signify slightly different things in the two languages. Now, “医院” shares a common meaning in Japanese and Chinese in the sense that it means “a place where you practice medicine”, but in Japanese this word indicates “a clinic” whereas in Chinese it is “a hospital”. This is because the official definition of a “医院” (size, main purpose etc.) is different depending on the language.

2.2.2 Category B: Homographs which are sometimes used identically, but sometimes differently

There are many kango which share a common application in Chinese and Japanese. However, among these words there are also many which have additional, different applications in Japanese or Chinese. This category is a combination of Wú's (2005) "Homographs which share similarities in meaning" and "Homographs which differ in part of speech". "地方" is one example. In Japanese, "地方" means approximately "a specific area/region within a specific country" or "a region/locality which is not part of a metropolis or the capital". This meaning exists in Chinese to some extent as well, but a much more common usage is one corresponding to the Japanese "場所" or "ところ", which approximately means "place". (Satō 2010:138)

As an example, take a look at the following expression.

Chinese: 这个 地方, 很 漂亮

Japanese: この ところ、 とても 綺麗

Meaning: This **place** is very beautiful

The "地方" in this sentence could of course also signify the meaning of "region" rather than that of "place" without rendering the sentence incomprehensible.

However, let us take a look at another sentence.

Chinese: 那是 我们的 意见有 分歧的 地方

Japanese: そこが 私たちの 意見が 一致しない ところ

Meaning: That is **where** we do not agree/**where** we differ.

In this sentence, it is perfectly clear that the Chinese "地方" does not signify the same meaning as the Japanese "地方". The meaning is not that of a spatial place/location, but rather that of an abstract "ところ", as in "一致しないところ".

Furthermore, in Gù (2013) the kango “参考” and “発展” are considered as examples of words whose grammatical meaning differ.

In Japanese, “参考” (reference) is used as a noun, such as in “参考として使う” (to use as reference) or “参考にする” (to refer to), whereas in Chinese its only use is that of a verb. Meanwhile, “発展” (development) is used as a noun and a verb in both Japanese and Chinese. The difference, however, is that in Japanese it plays the role of an intransitive verb, but in Chinese it is a transitive one.

2.2.3 Category C: Homographs which are different in meaning

This category is basically the same as that of Wú’s (2005) identically named “Homographs which are different in meaning”.

Whether it is because of the original meaning of the word evolving over time or for some other reason, the fact remains that there are plenty of Sino-Japanese homographs that differ completely in meaning. In Japanese, you will oftentimes hear “先生” being used as an honorific to someone’s name if their profession is that of a teacher or a doctor, or something similar. Gender or age makes no difference. In Chinese, “先生” is also a very common word, but the meaning is quite different. In fact, it largely corresponds to the “さん” or “様” in Japanese, the difference being that it is only used when referring to males, who are clients to your company or other individuals you need to treat with additional respect. Unlike Japanese, there is no common word for referring to both men and women (さん), but instead divided into “先生” for men and “小姐” for women. (Zhāng 2004:15-16)

Additionally, the very basic Japanese vocabulary “手紙” is a fitting example of this category of homographs. In Japan, there are still some people who use 手紙 (letters) for special occasions, in spite of the promulgation of e-mails. The expression “手紙を使う” (to use a letter) still makes sense re-written in Chinese, but the difference in meaning is astonishing. As to why, it is because in Chinese “手紙” refers to “toilet paper”. (Zhāng 2004:151)

3 Material and Procedure

3.1 Research Method

I chose the comparative analysis of Japanese and Chinese TV drama subtitles as research method for this thesis. To properly translate subtitles is to translate the original language into its corresponding and natural equivalent in the target language, without straying too far away from the original meaning. It is not to translate word by word, which would for obvious reasons lead to a sometimes very bad result. Because of this, one should be able to learn the natural application of various words through subtitles created by a native speaker of the target language. This is the reason why I chose to analyse subtitles as my research method.

3.2 TV Drama

The objects of my analysis were two Japanese TV dramas. When selecting TV dramas, I had the assistance of three Chinese exchange students in Japan (studying at Tokyo Gakugei Daigaku under MEXT scholarship), proficient at both Japanese and Chinese. I had them read subtitle extracts from the three Japanese TV dramas “Shinya Shokudō”, “Priceless” as well as “Hanzawa Naoki”, and decide for me which two had the most correct and natural Chinese translations. The result was that “Shinya Shokudō” and “Hanzawa Naoki” had the best translations, which strayed the least in meaning from the Japanese original, according to two out of three of my participants. The reasoning behind the third person choosing “Priceless” over “Hanzawa Naoki” was simply “There are no issues with the Chinese translations, but I just liked the flow of the “Priceless” translation a bit more”.

3.2.1 Shinya Shokudō

Shinya Shokudō is a manga created by Yarō Abe, which first appeared in a special edition of the manga magazine “Big Comic Original”. It takes place in a diner, which is only open during night, in present day Shinjuku, Tokyo. The plot mainly consists of stories of quotidian life and occurrences and there is very little technical or difficult language. It was broadcasted on a daily basis by the Japanese radio and television broadcasting company MBS from October 2009 to October 2011. It had some success abroad as well and was shown on television in Hong Kong and Taiwan between 2011-2013.

(<http://ja.wikipedia.org/wiki/深夜食堂>, 2014-07-25)

Compared to Hanzawa Naoki, which had very high viewer ratings, Shinya Shokudō is a bit less famous. It does however provide some good contrast to Hanzawa Naoki, being a contemporary drama with a metropolitan setting just like Hanzawa Naoki but with more quotidian plot and speech.

3.2.2 Hanzawa Naoki

Hanzawa Naoki is a TV drama based on the Hanzawa Naoki series of novels written by Jun Ikeido. It is a fictional story, the main plot being that of corruption and illegal behaviour within a major bank in present day Tokyo. Compared to Shinya Shokudō, it contains a larger quantity of technical and difficult language. It was broadcasted on Sundays between the months of July and September in 2013, and quickly became very popular. As a matter of fact, it broke the viewer ratings record of any commercial broadcast TV drama in history in Japan. In addition to that, the main character’s (played by Masato Sakai) catch phrase “やられたらやり返す、倍返した!” (“If someone wrongs you, get them back double!”) received a reward for becoming one of the most popular vogue words on the internet. The drama received other awards as well.

(<http://ja.wikipedia.org/wiki/半沢直樹>, 2014-07-25)

Except for the very high viewer ratings, there are other aspects which make this TV drama suitable for the analysis. One reason is that there are plenty of really long dialogues, which provide very good analysis material. There are also lots of technical terms that do not commonly appear in most other TV dramas. This provides more opportunities of finding different types of homographs.

3.2.3 Subtitles

The Chinese and Japanese subtitles were acquired from a Chinese website called “人人影视”. This site is famous on the internet for supplying high-quality subtitles for a large variety of Japanese TV dramas.

3.2.4 Author

On this topic, I encountered an issue. Due perhaps to the website’s intrinsic rules, the subtitle authors use nicknames and cannot be identified by their real names.

3.2.5 Regarding the Quality of the Subtitles

Even though the author cannot be properly identified, it does not necessarily mean that the quality of the product is not trustworthy - I had a number of Chinese native speakers who ensured me that the translations were accurate and of high quality.

Furthermore, I also used dictionaries in my analysis to ensure the accuracy and correctness of the translation.

3.3 Data Collection

To collect the data necessary for the analysis, I used the full second season (episode 11-20) of Shinya Shokudō as well as episode 1-4 from the first season of Hanzawa Naoki. That equals a total of 200 minutes of data per TV drama. It seemed like an adequate amount of data, neither too much nor too little - corresponding to a whole

season of Shinya Shokudō, and an equal amount of data from Hanzawa Naoki (which had longer episodes).

3.4 Procedure

The way in which I chose which homographs to use in my analysis was the following. First, I made a database of all the homographs I found in the two TV dramas. As a result, I had found a total of 149 separate words. To narrow it down further, I chose all of the words which appeared five times or more in total. Then there were 39 left. Among these, I chose not only based on the number of appearances, but I also made sure not to get too many of the same category (Category A, B or C) or too many which had characteristics similar to one another. In the end, I picked a total of 9 words with varying characteristics, which also appeared in good example sentences, suitable for use in my extensive analysis. After that, I analysed each one of these by using the example sentences from the subtitles while also comparing with dictionary definitions from a Japanese and a Chinese dictionary.

4 Results, Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Results

Homographs which appeared five times or more in Shinya Shokudō:

Table 1

Homograph	Number of appearances	Category	Homograph	Number of appearances	Category
自己	9	A	開始	5	A
肯定	9	B	一直	5	C
結束	7	C	歡迎	5	A

工作	7	C	小心	5	C
意思	7	B	一樣	5	A
妻子	7	C			

In total:

Category A: 4 words

Category B: 2 words

Category C: 5 words

In Shinya Shokudō, there were not as many homographs appearing five times or more as there were in Hanzawa Naoki. A majority of the homographs I found in Shinya Shokudō appeared less than five times.

Homographs which appeared five times or more in Hanzawa Naoki:

Table 2

Homograph	Number of appearances	Category	Homograph	Number of appearances	Category
一定	13	C	左右	6	B
地方	12	B	放棄	6	A
告訴	12	B	小心	6	C
多少	12	B	清楚	6	A
肯定	11	B	作為	6	C
工作	10	C	結束	6	C
開始	10	A	繼續	6	A
希望	9	B	意思	5	B
一樣	9	A	決定	5	A
東西	8	C	大概	5	A
必須	8	A	保護	5	A

到底	8	A	奇怪	5	A
明白	7	A	發現	5	A
自己	7	A	考慮	5	A

In total:

Category A: 15 words

Category B: 7 words

Category C: 6 words

The category of homographs which appeared the most in Hanzawa Naoki was Category A. A large portion of the conversations taking place in Hanzawa Naoki are not consisting of just everyday speech, but also contain a lot of formal language, which might be one of the reasons for homographs belonging to Category A being so prevalent.

Homographs which appeared five times or more, combining both Shinya Shokudō and Hanzawa Naoki (objects chosen for further analysis are in bold and marked with an asterix (*)):

Table 3

Homographs	Number of appearances	Category	Homographs	Number of appearances	Category
肯定	20	B	大家*	8	C
工作*	17	C	作為	8	C
一定*	17	C	繼續	8	A
自己	16	A	一直	7	C
告訴*	15	B	左右	7	B
開始	15	A	歡迎*	7	A

地方	14	B	保護	7	A
一樣*	14	A	考慮	7	A
希望*	13	B	妻子	7	C
多少*	13	B	所有	6	C
結束	13	C	先生	6	C
意思	12	B	清楚	6	A
小心	11	C	奇怪	6	A
東西*	11	C	馬上	5	C
明白	10	A	可能	5	A
到底	10	A	心情	5	A
現在	9	A	大概	5	A
決定	8	A	發生	5	A
必須	8	A	發現	5	A
放棄	8	A			

In total:

Category A: 20 words

Category B: 7 words

Category C: 12 words

The category of homographs most prevalent in the data used in this thesis is consequently Category A.

4.2 Analysis

In my analysis, I analyse the chosen homographs separately and compare excerpts from the Chinese and Japanese subtitles from the aforementioned TV dramas. I also add a word by word Japanese translation of the Chinese subtitle excerpt, as well as my own English translation for more clarification. After presenting excerpts from both TV

dramas, I go on by showing the different dictionary definitions and example sentences (and my own translations of these) for the homographs, to support the quality of my translation as well as the claims I make in the upcoming chapters.

4.2.1 Example Sentences and Dictionary Definitions, Category A

一様 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 就像 我 一样 (一様)

Word by word: まるで 私 同じ

Translation: Just **like** me!

Japanese (Sub.): あたしみたいだな

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 之前 有 客人 也 说了 一样 (一様) 的 话 呢

Word by word: この間 ある 客 も 言った 同じ の 話 ね/な

Translation: A customer said the **same** thing the other day

Japanese (Sub.): この間の客も同じようなこと言ってたな

3.

Chinese (Sub.): 但 我 和 妈 不 一样 (一様)

Word by word: でも 私 と 母 じゃない 同じ

Translation: But, my mother and I are not the **same**

Japanese (Sub.): でもあたしは お母さんとは違う

一様 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 这 跟 之前 说好 的 不 一□ (一様) 吧

Word by word: これ と この間 約束 の じゃない 同じ だろう

Translation: This is not **the same** as what we agreed upon the other day!

Japanese (Sub.): 約束が**違**うやないか

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 一切都 和 □划 的 一□ (一様)

Word by word: 全部 と 計画 の とおり

Translation: It was all **precisely** according to plan...

Japanese (Sub.): 全部 計画**どおり**だったな

The definition of 一様, pronounced ichiyō, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. Same in its entirety. Hardly changing.

Example sentences:

- 太陽の光は、山の上にも沢の上にも**一様**に当たっていた

Translation: The light from the sun struck the top of the mountains and the top of the swamps **equally**.

- 目撃した人は、**一様**に飛行機がよろけるように西の方へ飛んで行ったと言っている

Translation: The witnesses **unanimously** said that the airplane flew away lurching westwards.

(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 一□ (= 一様), pronounced yīyàng, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. Same. No difference.
2. Similar. Resembling.

Example sentences:

- 姐妹□儿相貌一□

Translation: The sisters have the **same** face.

- 像血一□□

Translation: Thick **like** blood.
(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

歓迎 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 没 想到 会 那么 受 □迎 (歓迎)
Word by word: いない 想像する あんな 受ける 歓迎
Translation: I never thought it would become so **popular/such a hit**
Japanese: あんなにヒットすると思わなかったけどね

2.

Chinese (Sub.): □迎 (歓迎) 回来
Word by word: 歓迎 帰ってくる
Translation: **Welcome** home!
Japanese (Sub.): おかえり

3.

Chinese (Sub.): 真 受 □迎 (歓迎) 啊
Word by word: 本当 受ける 歓迎 な
Translation: You're really **popular** huh?
Japanese (Sub.): モテるね

歓迎 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): □迎 (歓迎) 光□
Word by word: 歓迎 光臨
Translation: Welcome!
Japanese (Sub.): いらっしゃいませ

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 都 很 受 □迎 (歓迎) 的

Word by word: 全部 とても 受ける 歓迎 なの

Translation: They are all very **popular**

Japanese (Sub.): どちらも人気ですよ

The definition of 歓迎, pronounced kangei, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. To welcome happily. To receive warmly.

Example sentences:

- 旅行のついでに旧友を訪ねたら、思いがけない**歓迎**を受けた。

Translation: When I visited an old friend during a trip, I was **received with an unexpected welcome**.

- 大切な取引先の客だから、盛大に**歓迎**するように。

Translation: He is a very important client, so make sure to give him a grand **welcome**.
(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 迎 (= 歓迎), pronounced huānyíng, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. To welcome/greet.
2. To accept happily.

Example sentences:

- □迎光□

Translation: **Welcome** (to our store etc.).

- □种衣服在市□上很受□迎

Translation: These clothes are very **popular** on the market.
(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

4.2.2 Example Sentences and Dictionary Definitions, Category B

東西 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 她 爱吃 的 东西 (東西) 还 是 没 变
啊

Word by word: 彼女 食べるのが好き な もの まだ が いない 変わる
なあ

Translation: The **things** she likes to eat haven't changed huh?

Japanese (Sub.): あいつ、好きな**もの**は変わってないんだな

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 我 只 是 想 取回 我 的 东西 (東西)

Word by word: 私 だけ は 一たい 取り返す 私 の もの

Translation: I am just taking back **what** is mine/my **things**

Japanese (Sub.): 私の**もの**を取り返すだけですよ

東西 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 这是 为 感谢 你 给 我 贷了 钱 买不到的东西 (東
西)

Word by word: これは ため 恩返し あなた くれる 私 貸した お金 買えないもの

Translation: This is my way of repaying you for giving me back **something** I could not have
bought for money

Japanese (Sub.): これは金で買えん**もの**を融資してもらった礼や

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 真是 对不起 非要 您 吃 那种 东西 (東西)

Word by word: 本当 すみません しろと言う 貴方様 食べる あんな もの

Translation: I am so sorry for making you eat such a **thing**!

Japanese (Sub.): すいません あんな**もん** 無理やり食べさせちゃって

The definition of 東西, pronounced tōzai, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. East and west. The Orient (the East) and the Occident (the West). Eastern part and western part.

Example sentences:

- 東西に走る道路ができて、この島は交通の便がよくなった。

Translation: As the road running **from east to west** was completed, the possibilities of transportation on the island were improved.

- シルクロードを通して東西の文明が行き交い、融け合っていたのだろう。

Translation: Through the Silk Road, **Western and Eastern** civilization met and started melting together.

(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 西 (= 東西), pronounced dōngxī, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. Thing, object. Small luggage.
2. Person, fellow (in a derogatory or familiar meaning).
3. Work (of art), production.

Also, if pronounced dōngxī rather than dōngxī, it means:

1. East and west. (Same as in Japanese)

Example sentences:

- 买东西

Translation: To buy **things** (to go shopping).

- 他人真不是西

Translation: He is a real **scoundrel**.

- 今年没写什么西

Translation: I have not written **anything** (a literary work) this year.

Concerning the etymology of 東西 in Chinese, the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten says the following:

“According to ancient Chinese philosophy, East is divided into “wood”, West into “metal”, South into “fire” and North into “water”. Among wood, metal, fire and water, the only solid materials are wood and metal. The directions corresponding to wood and metal, which were East and West, thus were combined and used to represent “things”. According to a different theory, it came from the era of the Han dynasty, from the capital of Changan. There were cities and markets to the east and the west of Changan, and go to shopping was therefore called “buy east buy west”, 买东买西, which later turned into “buy east west”, 买东西, which is how you say “to go shopping/to buy things” in Chinese today.

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

希望 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): □然 真的 希望 他 能 □

Word by word: が 本当に 望む 彼 できる 売れる／人気になる

Translation: I of course **want** him to become successful...

Japanese (Sub.): 売れて欲しいのは本当だけど

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 你 希望 我 死 吗?

Word by word: あなた 望む 私 死ぬ か?

Translation: Do you **want** me to die?

Japanese (Sub.): 死んで欲しいのか?

希望 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 希望 能 借 你 一臂 之 力

Word by word: 望む できる 借りる あなた 片腕 の 力

Translation: I **would like** you to help me

Japanese (Sub.): 君の力を貸してもらいたい

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 希望 没 被 他们 发现

Word by word: 望んでいる いない される 彼ら 発見する

Translation: I **hope** they don't find out

Japanese (Sub.): バレてなきゃ いいけどな~

3.

Chinese (Sub.): 那 5 亿 有 希望 收回 吗？

Word by word: では 5 億 ある 見込み 回収 か？

Translation: So, do you have any **hope of** retrieving the 500 million?

Japanese (Sub.): それで 5 億回収の見込みは？

The definition of 希望, pronounced kibō, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. To have hopes/wishes. Hope/wish.

Example sentences:

- どんな困難の中においても、未来に**希望**を持つよう心がけたい。

Translation: No matter what difficulties I am in; I always want to try to have **hopes** in the future.

- 弟は自分の**希望**する中学校に合格できた。

Translation: My little brother got into the middle school he was **hoping** for.

(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 希望, pronounced xīwàng, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. To want, to desire.
2. Wish, desire.
3. Hope, trust, promise.

Example sentences:

- 他希望当个飞行员

Translation: He **wants** to become a pilot.

- 你的希望很快就能实现

Translation: Your **wishes** will soon come true.

- 这个青年很有希望 (この青年は将来性がある)

Translation: This youngster shows great **promise**.

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

多少 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 想 喝 多少 没 关系

Word by word: したい 飲む いくら ない 関係

Translation: You can drink **as much** as you want to!

Japanese (Sub.): いいんだよ 好きなだけ飲みや

多少 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 您 大概 需要 多少 运转 资金

Word by word: 貴方様 大体 要る いくら 運行 資金

Translation: Approximately **how much** are the required operating funds?

Japanese (Sub.): その運転資金 おいくらくらいでしょう？

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 无论 銀行 損失 多少
Word by word: にもかかわらず 銀行 損失 いくら
Translation: No matter **how great** the bank's loss is
Japanese (Sub.): 銀行が どんだけ痛がっても

The definition of 多少, pronounced tashō, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. Much and little. To some extent. Small quantity.

Example sentences:

- 金額の**多少**にかかわらず、借りたお金はなるべく早く返しなさい。

Translation: No matter if it **a big or a small amount** of money, you have to pay back the money you have borrowed as soon as possible.

- 各地方で**多少**の違いはあるにせよ、この民話は、日本中にいたるところに残っている。

Translation: There might be **some** regional differences, but this folktale still remains all over Japan.

(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 多少, pronounced duōshao, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. How much: to inquire the amount.
2. To express an undecided amount.
3. When used in a negative sentence; expresses a low amount.
4. When used in an affirmative sentence; expresses a high amount.

Also, if pronounced duōshǎo rather than duōshao, it means:

1. Much and little. To some extent. Small quantity. (Same as in Japanese)

Example sentences:

- 花了**多少钱**?

Translation: **How much** did you pay?

- 没有**多少**人来买戏票，戏只好停演了

Translation: There were **so few** people buying tickets that the show had to be cancelled.

- 天气很坏，**多少**人都感冒了

Translation: The weather is so bad that **a lot** of people caught colds

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

4.2.3 Example Sentences and Dictionary Definitions, Category B

告訴 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 都是 她 告诉 (告訴) 我 的

Word by word: 全部 (は) 彼女 教える 私 の

Translation: It was she who **told** me everything

Japanese (Sub.): 俺に**教えて**くれたよ、あの子

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 告诉 (告訴) 我 是□ 干 的

Word by word: 教える 私 誰が やった の

Translation: **Tell** me who did it!

Japanese (Sub.): 誰にやられたか**言**ってみ!

告訴 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 如果 方便 的□ 可否 □ 您 告□ 我

Word by word: もし 便利 であれば できるかどうか 頼む あなた 教える 私

Translation: Please **tell** me, if you would be so kind

Japanese (Sub.): 差し支えななければ お**教**え下さい

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 副分行□ 夫人 因□ 很担心 告□了 我 很多
 Word by word: 副支店長 夫人 だから 心配して 教えた 私 いろいろ
 Translation: The submanager's wife was worried, so she **told** me all sorts of things
 Japanese (Sub.): 副支店長夫人が心配して いろいろ教えてくれたのよ

The definition of 告訴, pronounced kokuso, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. To charge/sue somebody for a crime etc.

Example sentences:

- 公害に苦しむ住民たちは、工場の責任者を告訴した

Translation: The citizens, suffering from pollution, **sued** the person in charge of the factory.

(Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 告□ (= 告訴), pronounced gaòsu, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. To inform, to tell.

Also, if pronounced gaòsù rather than gaòsu, it means:

1. To charge/sue somebody for a crime etc. (Same as in Japanese)

Example sentences:

- 请你告诉他，明天上午开会

Translation: Please **tell** him there's a meeting at noon tomorrow.

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

一定 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 我 一定 要带 你 去 看 她
 Word by word: 私 必ず 連れて あなた いく みる 彼女

Translation: I will, **without fail**, bring you to see her

Japanese (Sub.): **必ず**お前を見舞いに連れて行く

2.

Chinese (Sub.): **一定** 要点 吗?

Word by word: **必ず** 注文する か?

Translation: Do you **have to** order something?

Japanese (Sub.): なんか頼まなくちゃだめですか?

3.

Chinese (Sub.): 请 各位 也 **一定** 要做做 看

Word by word: 下さい みんな も **是非** 作る みる

Translation: Please **be sure** to try it yourselves as well

Japanese (Sub.): 皆さんも**是非** お試し下さい

一定 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 所以 我 **一定** 要进入 贵行

Word by word: だから 私 **必ず** 入る 御行

Translation: That's why I **must, by all means**, enter your bank and...

Japanese (Sub.): ですから 私は ぜひとも御行に入って

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 我 认为 **一定** 有 什么 内情

Word by word: 私 思う **きっと** ある 何か 内部事情

Translation: There **has to** be a reason (connected to internal affairs) behind this

Japanese (Sub.): 何か理由があるから **ではない**でしょうか

The definition of 一定, pronounced ittei, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. To be fixed.

Example sentences:

- どんなスポーツにも、一定の決まりがある。

Translation: For every sport, there are **fixed** rules.

- 前の車との間隔を一定にして安全運転をする。

Translation: Drive safely by keeping a **constant** distance to the vehicle ahead.

- わたしの寝る時間は、日によって異なり、一定していない。

Translation: My sleeping hours differ every day. They are not **fixed**.

(Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 一定, pronounced yīdìng, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. To be fixed.
2. Considerable, certain, fair (amount).
3. Specific.
4. Surely, certainly, without fail.

Example sentences:

- 按一定规格进行生产

Translation: To produce according to a **fixed** scope.

- 这件事你一定是忘记了

Translation: You have **most likely** already forgot about this.

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

工作 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 那 我 先 回去 工作 了

Word by word: じゃ 私 先に 戻っていく 仕事 (今から)

Translation: Well then, I'll get back to **work** (before you)

Japanese (Sub.): じゃ、俺、仕事戻るわ

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 母亲 工作 很忙, 没 时间 带 孩子
Word by word: 母親 仕事 とても忙しい ない 時間 世話する 子供
Translation: My mother is busy with **work** and has no time for taking care of children
Japanese (Sub.): お袋も**仕事**大変で子育てできないし

工作 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 你 干 什么 工作 都 行
Word by word: あなた やる 何の **仕事** 全部 良い
Translation: You can do any **job** you want to
Japanese (Sub.): どんな**仕事**をしてもええ

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 又 被 委任了 什么 不想 做的 工作 了 吗?
Word by word: また される まかした 何か たくない やる **仕事** か?
Translation: Were you forced to do a **job** you didn't agree with again?
Japanese (Sub.): また納得いかない**仕事**でも させられたか?

The definition of 工作, pronounced kōsaku, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

1. To manufacture, to make.
2. To influence, to exert influence on. To maneuver.

Example sentences:

- 瓶や缶などの廃物を利用して、何か**工作**してみよう。

Translation: Let us utilize scrap such as bottles and cans and try to **make** something!

- この事件には、陰で**工作**する人物がいるとみられる。

Translation: It is likely that this case has people **manoeuvring/exerting influence** in the background.

(Jūgoman Reibun – Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 工作, pronounced gōngzuò, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. To work. Physical/knowledge work.
2. Operating, running (machine).
3. Occupation.
4. Duty.

Example sentences:

- 他在上海工作过

Translation: He has **worked** in Shanghai.

- 机器正在工作

Translation: The machine is **operating**.

- 工作找到了

Translation: I found a **job**!

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

大家 in Shinya Shokudō

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 因为 大家 都 会 喝 一点

Word by word: だから みんな 全員 飲む ちょっと

Translation: It's because **everyone** else is drinking

Japanese (Sub.): みんなが飲んでいるものだから

2.

Chinese (Sub.): 不介意 的话, 大家 分了吧

Word by word: よろしければ の 話 みんな 分ける 一て

Translation: Please, share it amongst **all of you**

Japanese (Sub.): 良かったら、みんなで食べて

大家 in Hanzawa Naoki

1.

Chinese (Sub.): 半泽 这次 你 就 □ 大家 先 忍耐 一下 吧

Word by word: 半泽 今回 あなた が ため みんな 先に 忍耐 少し しろ

Translation: Hanzawa, this time you must endure for **all of us**

Japanese (Sub.): 半沢君 ここはどうか みんなのために耐えてくれ

2.

Chinese (Sub.): □些 都 是 大家 做 的 □?

Word by word: これ 全部 (は) みんな 作った の か?

Translation: Did **all of you** make all of this?

Japanese (Sub.): これ 全部 皆さんでお作りになったの?

The definition of 大家, pronounced *ōya* or *taika*, in Japanese according to the Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten dictionary:

When pronounced *ōya*:

1. Owner of a room for rent. Landlord.

When pronounced *taika*:

1. Large home.
2. House of good family lineage.
3. An especially distinguished person of a certain field.

Example sentences:

- このアパートの大家は、三軒先に住んでいます。

Translation: The **landlord** of this apartment lives three houses away.

- 美術館には、古典、近代、現代の画壇の大家による作品が数多く展示されていた。

Translation: In the art museum there were numerous art works on show from classic, modern and contemporary **great artists**.

(Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten, 1992)

The definition of 大家, pronounced dàjiā, in Chinese according to the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten dictionary:

1. All, everyone.

Example sentences:

- □大家准□下车

Translation: **Everyone**, please prepare for alighting.

- 大家对工作充满信心 (みんなは仕事に対し自信満々だ。)

Translation: **Everyone** is full of confidence when it comes to their job.

(Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten, 2004)

4.3 Discussion

In this chapter, discussion is presented for each category (A, B and C) using some representative words.

4.3.1 Discussion: Category A

一様

In Japanese there is a wide variety of ways to express that something is similar or different to something else in characteristics or appearance. To express, in a colloquial fashion, something's similarity or likeness you can use expressions such as “同じだ”, “みたいだ”, “のようだ” or “同じような”. For the opposite meaning, there are expressions such as “違う” or “同じじゃない”. In Chinese, you can simply use 一様 to express similarity and 不一樣 to express dissimilarity, something which can be inferred by using the results of the analysis above (with the help of subtitle extracts and dictionary definitions). If you were to use 一様 when speaking Japanese, it would mean pretty much the same thing. However, there is a rather large difference in degree

of formality as well as frequency of use in Japanese compared to Chinese. When it comes to the application of the word 一樣 in Japanese compared to Chinese, there is no significant difference. They are used in different ways, but one could say that they are both equally limited in their respective usage. It is the difference in frequency of use that is most remarkable.

歡迎

歡迎 can mean "to welcome" or "to receive happily" in both Japanese and Chinese. However, the Chinese 歡迎 takes this meaning even further and can also express popularity, as in "He is a popular guy" or "This is a popular item". The fact that the Chinese 歡迎 can also be used together with objects, not only people, makes it clear that the application scope of 歡迎 in Chinese is bigger than in Japanese.

Findings: Special Characteristics of Category A

According to Nakagawa (2005:35), two-letter kango are in general more objective, rational and abstract than wago (words of Japanese origin). In many cases, this is thought to be the result of kango being thought of as "solemn and exaggerated" words. (Nakagawa 2005:97). Even if the difference in meaning is small, they deviate in usage and in context. Gù (2013) says the following: "Even if the structure of the word constituents and the grammatical meaning of the word are the same, there are factors such as institutional differences (as in the case of 医院) between China and Japan or semantic differences (as in the case of 看病, where 看 and 病 indicate slightly different things in Japanese and Chinese) between the word constituents that prevent the vocabulary meanings in the both languages from mutually corresponding.". The theory of Ikkai, Kakehi and Kakehi (2006:79) is that "Japanese kango avoided the changes that occurred to them in the Chinese language after they had already been introduced to Japan". ". It can be surmised that cultural differences, which also encompass changes in usage and meaning of vocabulary over time, are reflected in the differences in meaning

of the words today. I think 歡迎 is probably a good example of this. 歡迎 perhaps meant the exact same thing in both languages a long time ago, but in Chinese it developed and eventually came to be used in a broader sense than in Japanese.

4.3.2 Discussion: Category B

東西

The Chinese 東西 can be used, according to Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten (2004), in the same way as the Japanese 東西, to express the meaning "east and west", if you tweak the intonation of the second syllable. However, in the contexts of the subtitle extracts from both of the TV dramas it is exclusively used to express a physical "thing" or "object". In Japanese, this word only possesses the ability to express cardinal expressions or to express "the Orient and the Occident", whereas in Chinese it can be used to express not only that but also the everyday vocabulary which is "thing" - by simply using different intonation. This brings me to the conclusion that the Chinese 東西 has a greater application scope.

希望

If you look at the Chinese subtitle extracts from Shinya Shokudō, 希望 in Chinese can play the role corresponding to that of "して欲しい" (to want someone to do something) or "してもらいたい" (to want to have something done by someone) in Japanese. Additionally, in Japanese you can use the expression "—いいけどなあ" to express a hope or a wish in an indirect way. In Chinese, you can express that same sentiment in a colloquial context using 希望, something you would not do in Japanese. Additionally, according to Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten (2004) the Japanese 見込み also translates into 希望 in Chinese. In conclusion, 希望 is used in different contexts in Japanese and Chinese and seems to be of more colloquial character in Chinese than in Japanese. It

also appears to have a wider application scope in Chinese, where it can single-handedly express a number of different meanings.

多少

As with 多少 in Japanese, 多少 in Chinese can also be used to express things such as “ある程度は” (to some extent), “多いことと少ないこと” (many or few) and “少しは” (a little bit). In that case it is pronounced “duōshǎo”. However, when pronounced “duōshao” it instead expresses a completely different meaning, which cannot be expressed with the Japanese 多少. This variant of 多少, pronounced duōshao, was clearly the one which appeared in the Chinese subtitles, with no exceptions. It corresponds in meaning to expressions such as “いくら” or “どれだけ”, which both mean “how much” in Japanese. Thus, seeing as 多少 in Chinese can express different meanings depending on how you pronounce it, it can be concluded that it has a wider application scope than that of the Japanese 多少.

Findings: Special Characteristics of Category B

What distinguishes vocabulary belonging to this category is their tendency to both have identical uses as well as different uses in Japanese and Chinese. Apart from this, they also tend to have a greater scope of application in Chinese than in Japanese. Something I have noticed is that many words, such as 東西, 希望 and 多少, are rather limited in meaning in Japanese, but in Chinese they have multiple applications. Concerning this, Hé (2014) mentions that “Words with greater variety of usage in Chinese than in Japanese are comparatively difficult for Japanese people studying Chinese to learn”.

Words pertaining to this category often have the ability to change meaning, by often just changing the intonation slightly for the second syllable, as have been mentioned earlier regarding examples such as 地方, 東西 and 多少.

4.3.3 Discussion: Category C

告訴

The 告訴 which appeared in the Chinese subtitle extracts clearly corresponds to Japanese words such as 教える or 告げる, meaning “to tell” or “to inform”, which is in accordance with the definition in Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten (2004). 告訴 in Chinese very commonly appears in colloquial contexts, whereas in Japanese its use is limited to formal contexts. I think it is therefore safe to say that it is a word you will overall hear a lot more in Chinese than in Japanese. Considering the reason behind it differing so much in use when comparing the two languages, it is perhaps, again based on the theory of Ikkaï, Kakehi and Kakehi (2006:79), because the kango 告訴 in Chinese has undergone changes in usage over the years, whereas the Japanese 告訴 has remained the same since when it was first introduced in the Japanese language.

一定

The 一定 which appear in the Chinese subtitle extracts above all fit in with the Tōhō Chūgokugo Jiten (2004) definition “4. Surely, certainly, without fail”. In the corresponding Japanese subtitles there are various expressions, such as “なくちゃだめ” (to have to do something), “ぜひ” (by all means) or “ではないでしょうか” (probably), which at first glance do not coincide with the dictionary definition I just mentioned. However, depending on the context they can signify the same thing. This is also the case here, if we just look at the translations. Seeing as there seems to be as many as 4 different meanings for the Chinese 一定, it is clear that the application scope is wider than in Japanese.

工作

The 工作 found in the subtitles extracts can all be translated into the Japanese 仕事.

工作 in Chinese can be used both as noun and verb, which is decided by the context rather than by using an auxiliary verb. 工作 in Japanese is very different from the Chinese version. In Japanese you can find it in contexts such as “政治工作” (political maneuver) or “裏面工作” (background maneuver), which is quite different from the Chinese contexts in which it is used. The closest connection between the Japanese 工作 and the Chinese 工作 probably lies in the other meaning, according to Jūgoman Reibun - Seiku Gendai Kokugo Yōrei Jiten (1992), of the word in Japanese, which is “to manufacture” or “to make”. It is not unlikely that this was perhaps the original meaning of the word in Chinese, but as time went by its application expanded and eventually came to be used when speaking about “work” in general. In other words, they might have had the same, or at least similar, meaning a long time ago, but now they are quite different. This speculation is, once again, based on Ikkai, Kakehi and Kakehi’s claim of Japanese kango avoiding the changes occurring in the Chinese language.

大家

The 大家 that appears in the Chinese subtitles is not one signifying “a landlord” or “a distinguished craftsman”, which are the Japanese meanings. Without even referring to the Chinese dictionary, it is obvious that 大家 refers to “everyone”, or “みんな”/“皆さん” in Japanese. Even though 大家 refers to quite different things in Japanese and Chinese, it can be surmised that its application is more frequent in Chinese, seeing as “everyone” or “all” are very commonplace vocabulary. The scope of application, however, is perhaps greater in Japanese, where it has multiple possible meanings.

Findings: Special Characteristics of Category C

My guess is that it is especially this category of homographs which proves the most difficult for Japanese people trying to learn Chinese. The reason for this is that despite

them being very familiar kango, there are very few, or sometimes none at all, similarities in meaning between the Japanese and the Chinese equivalents. Hé (2014) has a similar conclusion: “This category of homographs is difficult for Japanese people learning Chinese. Not only are they negatively influenced by their native tongue, but they also have to learn whole different meanings, which do not exist in Japanese, from scratch.”.

5 Conclusion

With the help of the results and the analysis above, let us consider what conclusions we can draw regarding the research questions stated in the first chapter.

• **Which one of the different homograph categories that I bring attention to in this thesis most commonly appears in the subtitles?**

Even though the data is of course limited, it appears that the most frequently appearing category of homographs is Category A, namely “Homographs which are used in different situations”. The reason why it is Category A is likely because a lot of common vocabulary which appear in everyday contexts and conversations, such as in TV dramas, will get translated to kango in Chinese, which from a Japanese point of view seem rather formal or not fitting to the context. For example, expressions such as “同じ” (the same) or “みたい” (to look like, to resemble) get translated into 一樣 in Chinese, which would seem like a misuse of the word or a slight exaggeration if you asked a Japanese person. Another example is 歓迎, which becomes the Chinese version of very commonplace Japanese terms such as いらっしゃいませ (Welcome!), おかえり (Welcome home!), モテる (to be popular (mostly romantically)) and 人気 (popularity).

• **Judging by the results of the analysis; which of the categories is most likely to be the cause of confusion?**

I think it is reasonable to conclude that Category C - Homographs which are different in meaning - is the most troublesome category of homographs for Japanese people learning Chinese, or vice versa. If you are unaware of the differences in meaning in Chinese and Japanese between the homographs of Category C, you will inevitably face confusion as a new learner. The fact that “大家” means “みんな” (which means “everyone” in Japanese) in Chinese, or that “告訴” is not a synonym to “教える” (to teach) in Japanese, but instead means “to sue/charge someone” are things probably hard to digest right away.

• **Is there a pattern regarding which language’s homographs have greater application scopes?**

Based on the results of the analysis, there can be discerned a pattern where the Chinese versions of homographs have the ability to be applied more widely than the Japanese ones in general. This applies especially to Category B homographs, for which you can often change intonation and get a brand new meaning. As to why there is such a pattern, I think Ikkai, Kakehi and Kakehi (2006:79) give us a plausible, albeit perhaps only partial, explanation when they claim Japanese kango avoided changes occurring in the Chinese language after they already had been introduced to Japan. Nakagawa’s (2005:35) claim that kango are often considered “solemn and exaggerated”, and are thus sometimes not used as frequently, also helps to support this theory.

In conclusion, Category A homographs seem to appear more often than others, but they are, however, not necessarily the ones which prove the most difficult to deal with. It is rather the homographs of Category C that are more likely to cause confusion. There is also some evidence that Sino-Japanese homographs tend to have multiple meanings or wider application in Chinese than in Japanese, which is likely due to historical reasons,

such as the one stated by Ikkai, Kakehi and Kakehi (2006) in the above paragraph. In the future, we will perhaps see the dawn of new homographs, along with further intercultural exchange and further borrowing of words between the Chinese and Japanese languages. It is also perhaps a possibility that current homographs will be influenced by the other language and start being applied in new ways as more and more Chinese speakers learn Japanese and vice versa.

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