

A Study of Japanese Loanwords in Chinese

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Summary

Since Japanese language makes extensive use of Chinese characters in its writing system, and a large portion of its vocabulary is borrowed from Chinese in ancient times, it makes people to believe that Chinese always has the overwhelming influence on Japanese. However, the situation is completely changed since modern times. A great number of Japanese words entered into Chinese. Nevertheless, many Chinese people still think that nowadays Chinese language is in a dominant position in linguistic exchange between Chinese and Japanese.

The goal of this research is to give people better understanding of the significance of Japanese loanwords in modern Chinese. In this paper, I analyze the channels, classifications, characteristics and influences of Japanese loanwords in different time backgrounds. The findings are mainly based on about one thousand Japanese loanwords that I collected from dictionaries and academic papers.

The main results are that Japanese loanwords take an important part in creating new words and forming modern Chinese. Research also indicates that both linguistic factor and social factor affect loanwords, meanwhile, the host language and society are influenced by loanwords. Therefore both Chinese language and society affect the intakes of Japanese loanwords, at the same time the Chinese language and society are also influenced by Japanese loanwords.

Foreword

I would like to thank my academic supervisor professor Bjarke Frellesvig for helping me through this project. If not for him, this thesis would probably never have seen the light of day. Special thanks are given to everyone who took the time to comment and review on my work. It is obviously clear that none of this would have been possible had it not been for the support of these individuals.

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1 Introduction

Whatever the degree or nature of contact between neighboring peoples, it is generally sufficient to lead to some kind of linguistic influence on each other. Frequently the influence runs heavily in one direction. (Edward Sapir. 1921:93) Chinese had a large influence on Japanese in ancient times. “An educated Japanese can hardly frame a single literary sentence without the use of Chinese resources.” (Edward Sapir. 1921:93) A great number of Chinese people believe that Chinese has flooded the terms of Japanese for centuries, but has received nothing in return. However in fact, the Japanese language plays a significant part in the formation of modern Chinese.

In order to clarify that how Japanese loanwords entered into Chinese, how the processes took place, what kind of words are adopted from Japan, how the Japanese loanwords influenced Chinese language and society, I am going to analyze those questions from four periods and focus on two periods. Therefore the analysis of classifications, channels, characteristics and influences of Japanese loanwords are the emphasis of the paper. All the analyses will be based on data sources collected from authoritative dictionaries and academic papers.

1.1 Sources and material

Otto Jespersen describes the word borrowing between English and Scandinavian, “In most speech-mixtures the various elements remain distinct and can be separated, just as after shuffling a pack of cards you can pick out the hearts, spades, etc.; but in the case of English and Scandinavian we have a subtler and more intimate fusion, very much as when you put a lump of sugar into a cup of tea and a few minutes afterwards are quite unable to say which is tea and which is sugar.”. (Otto Jespersen. 1922:212) The word borrowing between Chinese and Japanese is entirely like that. Since there are a great number of common Chinese characters between Chinese and Japanese, it is very difficult to recognize which terms are original Chinese words, which are borrowed from Japanese.

In order to ensure all the Japanese loanwords are really originally from Japanese, I collect loanwords from a highly authoritative dictionary, 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* ‘Modern Loanwords Dictionary’ and some academic papers which are published on *China*

Academic Journals Full-text Database. Therefore all the studies and analyses will be based on authoritative data sources.

1.2 Structure and presentation

In this paper, I am going to study the Japanese loanwords in Chinese language from four periods, which are 1. Ancient times--about the 2nd century~1839 (from Eastern Han Dynasty to middle-late Qing Dynasty); 2. 1840~1920s (from the Opium War of 1840 to before the Anti-Japanese War); 3. The plateau of borrowing--1920s~1978 (from the Anti-Japanese War to the China's reform and opening-up); 4. Modern times--1978 after China's reform and opening-up~the present.

In the first period, ancient times--about the 2nd century~1839 (from Eastern Han Dynasty to middle-late Qing Dynasty), only few Japanese loanwords are adopted into Chinese. The main borrowing method is phonemic loans, which is using Chinese characters to convey sounds.

The second period, 1840~1920s (from the Opium War of 1840 to before the Anti-Japanese War), is the peak of borrowing Japanese words. China is invaded by foreign powers since 1840. In order to change the backward situation, Chinese government and intellectuals start to learn from Japan. Because of the common Chinese characters and the needs of Chinese society, a great number of Japanese words enter into Chinese language. In this period, the Japanese loans mainly introduce modern science and advanced ideas.

The third period, 1920s~1978 (from the Anti-Japanese War to the China's reform and opening-up), is a plateau of borrowing Japanese words. Due to the outbreak of Anti-Japanese War, the relations between China and Japan deteriorated. Japan is not an example for Chinese to learn from, therefore, barely Japanese words entered into Chinese in this period.

In the forth period, Modern times--1978 after China's reform and opening-up~the present, the diplomatic relations between China and Japan have normalized. With the development of economy and technology, there are frequent trade and culture contacts between two countries. It causes a lot of Japanese words enter into Chinese society. In this period, the Japanese loans mainly represent the feeling of modern and fashion.

The second and the forth period are the primary parts I am going to give a detailed analysis. In both periods, I will introduce the social background first, and then analyze the channels, characteristics and influences of Japanese loans based on data sources. In order to find the relation between the loanwords and social factor, I will make a comparative analysis to contrast the Japanese loans under the different historical backgrounds.

2 Different definitions of Japanese loanwords

There are many definitions of Japanese loanwords in Chinese. I would like to expound some typical definitions and make my point of view about the Japanese loanwords which I am going to use in this paper.

2.1 Phonemic loans

The definitions are various, however there is no doubt of considering phonemic loans as loanwords. The phonemic loans are the most frequent form of borrowing words. It represents the meaning and the phonemic shape of the source language, meanwhile adapts to the target language's phonemic system. In Chinese language's case, the characters are used to record the sound as phonetic symbols. It is not concerned with representing the meaning behind the characters. However it is known that Chinese language is logogram. The characters convey the meanings through their different structures. Thus the characters used in a loanword usually have totally different meanings from when they are separated. For instance, the English word *pizza* is written by 比萨 *bisa*, which has the same sound as the original, however it does not make any sense if we think this word character by character. 比 *bi* means to compare, 萨 *sa* is a surname and hardly used in other words. Nevertheless Chinese people are used to understand a word by thinking of the meaning of every single character subconsciously. Therefore when it comes to borrow words into Chinese, phonemic borrowing is not a main method.

2.2 Semantic loans

Semantic loans are another frequent form of borrowing words. Semantic loans are a process of borrowing semantic meaning instead of borrowing sound from another language. Semantic loans are those terms which existed in the traditional lexicon, but given new conceptions. For instance, the Chinese word 同志 *tongzhi* originally only means the persons who have the same aspiration, especially for the socialists or communists. However Chinese people today use this word to represent the English word 'gay', which also means the persons who have the same aspiration, but in homosexual way. The word 同志 *tongzhi* itself has already existed before the borrowing happened. Therefore it is a semantic loan. There are much more semantic loans from western

languages than Japanese in Chinese. Linguists have different opinions about it. Some linguists do not consider semantic loans as loanwords.

2.3 Graphic loans

Graphic loans are another type of word borrowing. Graphic loans adopt both the meaning and the writing form of foreign terms. The phonemic shape of the word is determined by its own phonemic system, regardless of the phonemic shape of the words in the borrowing language. Graphic loans are only possible if the languages share the same ideographic writing system and the relationship between the semantic and the graphic shape of the words is direct and not mediated by the phonemic shape. (Federico Masini. 1993:128) Since there are a large number of common characters in both Chinese and Japanese, it is extremely convenient for Chinese to borrow Japanese words which consist of characters. Nevertheless because of some political reasons, it is a very controversial issue.

2.4 Different definitions of Japanese loanwords

The first monograph on foreign loans in China is published at the end of the 1950s. 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Hanyu wailaici Yanjiu* ‘Modern Chinese Loanwords Study’ is the first overall analysis of phonemic and graphic loans by *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan* published in 1958. In this book phonemic and graphic loans are considered as loanwords. Graphic loans from Japanese are divided into three classes: 1. Original loans, which are the native Japanese words, such as 武士道 *wushidao* ‘Bushido’, 和服 *hefu* ‘kimono’ 2. Loans of words translated from western languages by the Japanese by using classical Chinese words, such as 大学 *daxue* ‘university’, 世界 *shijie* ‘world’. Sometimes the meaning is changed from the original. In this book *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan* took ‘pencil’ as an example to explain it. Pencil is invented by western people. When it was introduced into Japan, instead of naming it according to its original sound, the Japanese people used one classical Chinese word 铅笔 to name it, but pronounce it in Japanese way *enpitsu*. When pencil was introduced into China, instead of translating it from English, the Chinese people borrow the Japanese word *enpitsu* directly and pronounce it in Chinese way *qianbi*. It seems like 铅笔 *qianbi* is a native Chinese word, however, it is a Japanese loanword since the meaning has been changed from the original. 铅笔 *qianbi* used to be a writing utensil made by lead in classical Chinese. It is still a writing utensil

now, but made by carbon. Although the appearance of the word 铅笔 *qianbi* is not changed, the meaning is altered and the image it represents is new. 3. Loans of words translated from western languages by the Japanese by using Chinese characters, such as 博物馆 *bowuguan* ‘museum’, 社会 *shehui* ‘society’. The phonemic loans from western languages representing by Chinese characters are also included, such as 瓦斯 *wasi* ‘gas’, Japanese pronunciation *gasu*. The semantic loans are not considered as loanwords in this book. *Gao* and *Liu* argue that the semantic loans are the borrowing of foreign meanings rather than foreign terms.

Wang Lida mainly has the same definition of Japanese loans as *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. However in terms of graphic loans, he presents more elaborate classification. *Wang Lida* divides the graphic loans into eight classes: 1. Words which in Japanese are phonemic loans but written with Chinese characters, such as 俱乐部 ‘club’, Chinese pronunciation is *julebu*, Japanese pronunciation is *kurabu*. 2. Autochthonous Japanese words written with Chinese characters but read with Japanese pronunciation (*kunyomi*), such as 入口 ‘entrance’, Chinese pronunciation is *rukou*, Japanese pronunciation is *iriguti*. 3. Words which in Japanese are loans from western languages read with the Sino-Japanese pronunciation (*onyomi*) rather than the Japanese pronunciation (*kunyomi*), such as 绝对 ‘absolute’, Chinese pronunciation is *juedui*, Japanese pronunciation is *zettai*. 4. Japanese words which has acquired a new meaning in Chinese, such as 物语, Chinese pronunciation is *wuyu*, Japanese pronunciation is *monogatari*. It means a novel, such as *Genji Monogatari* ‘The Tale of Genji’ in Japanese, while in Chinese the meaning became a ‘fairy tale’. 5. Words attested in earlier Chinese texts, but are used for the first time by the Japanese to express a new modern meaning, such as 保险 ‘insurance’, Chinese pronunciation is *baoxian*, Japanese pronunciation is *hoken*. It used to mean that situating in a terrain where is difficult to access in order to protecting oneself in classical Chinese. 6. New graphemes invented by the Japanese, such as 腺, ‘gland’, Chinese pronunciation is *xian*, Japanese pronunciation is *sen*. 7. Words invented by the Chinese to translate Japanese expressions, such as 关于 *guanyu* ‘concerning’, Japanese word is 関する *ni kansuru*. 8. Obsolete early 20th century Japanese loans, such as 劳动组合 ‘labour union’, Chinese pronunciation is *laodongzuhe*, Japanese pronunciation is *roudoku kumiai*. (*Wang Lida*. 2002: 109-122) In the same period *Wang Li* published 汉语史稿 *Hanyu Shigao* ‘Chinese language’. He gave the same interpretation of the category of loanwords from Japanese and considered the semantic loans as

neologisms, along the lines of the study by *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan* and the articles by *Wang Lida*.

Cen Qixiang, one of the most famous linguists in China, who compiled 汉语外来语词典 *Hanyu Wailaiyu Cidian* 1990 'Chinese Loanwords Dictionary', argues that there are two types of loanwords: direct loans and indirect loans. Direct loans are those words that are absorbed from source language directly; indirect loans are those that are absorbed via a third language, which depends on historical situations. He thinks Japanese loans belong to indirect loans. Since Meiji restoration, there are a large number of scientific and technical terminologies from the western languages into Japanese language. Most of them are written in Chinese characters and pronounced with Japanese pronunciation (*kunyomi*) which is quite different from Chinese pronunciation. For instance, yard is read as *yaado* in Japanese, while it is written as 码 that is pronounced *ma* in Chinese. Concrete is read as *konkurito* in Japanese, however it is written as 混凝土 that is pronounced *hun ning tu* in Chinese. When this kind of Japanese words are borrowed into Chinese, the pronunciations are entirely in accordance with Chinese pronunciation. Thus they are considered as indirect loanwords for Chinese. (Cen Qixiang, 1990:2-3) Cen Qixiang does not classify graphic loans into the loans of words that translated from western languages by the Japanese by using Chinese characters and by using classical Chinese words like *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. *Cen Qixiang* considers all the Japanese loanwords translated from western languages as indirect loans.

The most authoritative critique was published in 1959 on one of the very few monographs printed in China on the history of Modern Chinese language: 五四以来汉语书面语言的发展和变迁 *Wusiylai Hanyu Shumianyuyan de Bianqian he Fazhan* 'Since the May Fourth Movement the Chinese written language's changes and development'. Loans from Japanese are divided into three classes: 1. Original loans 2. Loans of words translated from western languages by the Japanese by using classical Chinese words, which is the same as *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. 3. Japanese phonemic loans from western languages and neologisms, which is partly the same as *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. However the graphic loans are not considered as real loanwords. It advocates that the words that have already existed in Chinese and have been reintroduced into China by the Japanese are indicated as 词侨归国 *ciqiao guiguo* 'words return home after a stay abroad'.

Some linguists deny any graphic loans from Japanese, such as *Zhang Yingde*. He advocates that only phonemic loans, original loans and new characters made by Japan are loanwords. (Guo Jianying. 2003:64) However some linguists are against this point of view. *Wang Lida* states that there are almost half the words are loans from Japanese in the dictionaries of neologisms. (Wang Lida. 2002:107) *Wang Binbin* even thinks there are seventy percent of neologisms are from Japanese. (Wang Binbin. 1998:1) A large number of Japanese loanwords exist and have spread enormously in modern Chinese, however, it seems hard to accept by the sentiments of national pride.

Some foreign linguists have the similar definitions of Japanese loanwords in Chinese. Their opinions might be more objective, since there is no national consciousness and nationalism emotions interfere with the analysis. Federico Masini who is an Italian linguist also considers the phonemic and graphic loans as loanwords, however he has the different definition of graphic loans. He contends that graphic loans from Japanese can be classified as original and return loans. Original loans are autochthonous Japanese words. Words that existed in earlier Chinese works but whose meaning subsequently changed in Japan. Or words invented by the Japanese as loans from western words. Return loans are terms that have already existed in earlier Chinese texts and still keep the same meaning. Through their use in Japanese, the loans later come back into use in Chinese. He argues against those Chinese linguists who tried to reduce the weight and the range of the class of words that had existed in earlier Chinese texts and been given new meanings in Japanese and subsequently returned to China with a new meaning. He criticizes the academic phenomena on Japanese loans in China. He thinks “in the many studies on loans published in China, every effort was made to limit the categories of original loans from the Japanese and look for evidence of the existence of these terms prior to their diffusion in Japan in earlier Chinese works.”, “In mainland China and in Taiwan, if their graphic aspect existed in earlier times, words are still not considered as return loans from the Japanese, even if the ancient meaning is different from that of the word returned from Japan.” He even states that “Clearly what was only apparently a purely linguistic discussion involved sentiments of national pride.” (Federico Masini. 1993:128-129, 132-133) Moreover he considers the semantic loans as loanwords, which is different from *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan* on semantic loans.

2.5 Definition of Japanese loanwords in this paper

In this paper, I would like to adopt the definition made by *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. The phonemic and graphic loans are considered as loanwords from Japan. However I would like to divide the graphic loans into four classes: 1. Original loans. 2. Loans of words translated from western languages by the Japanese by using classical Chinese words. 3. Loans of words translated from western languages by the Japanese by using Chinese characters. 4. Return loans. The first three classes are the same as *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*. The forth one is adopted from Federico Masini. It may contain the return loans in *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*'s class 2 and 3. Although the number of the return loans is not large, the reason I add it as an individual item into the graphic loans is return loans play a very important role in borrowing words from Japanese. In my opinion, there are two significant functions of the return loans. One is the function of propagation. Since the return loans are invented by the Chinese from western words and the meanings are not changed after they re-borrowed from Japanese, they are simply accepted and spread widely by the Chinese. It makes other types of Japanese loans easier to be absorbed into Chinese language. The other one is the function of preservation. Although these words had already existed in earlier Chinese texts, they were never used in people's daily life. They had even disappeared for twenty or thirty years in Chinese before they returned from Japan. These words could vanish from Chinese language forever if they would never have entered into Japan through the earlier Chinese monographs or widely used in Japan. They have been well preserved by Japanese language.

I do not consider semantic loans as Japanese loanwords in this paper. I agree with *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengtan*'s theory. I think the semantic loans are not the borrowing of the foreign words but the borrowing of the foreign conceptions. For instance, the English word 'computer', we did not have a word for computer before it had been invented by American. When the conception of computer entered into China, we created a new term 电脑 *diannao* according to its feature, which means electrical brain literally instead of representing by its pronunciation. 电脑 *diannao* is a vivid metaphor to describe computer like a brain executes as fast as electricity. It has already well accepted by the Chinese people nowadays. Therefore I consider semantic loans as neologisms for meeting the need of new conceptions.

In this paper I would like to talk about Japanese loanwords from three periods.

3 Ancient times-about the 2nd century~1839 (from Eastern Han Dynasty to middle-late Qing Dynasty)

There is a long history of cultural communication between China and Japan. China was in a dominant position in cultural exchange in ancient times. It not only represented the overwhelming influence on Japanese architecture, religion or literature, but also on Japanese script, term and pronunciation. Japanese writing is primarily comprised of *kanji*, *hiragana* and *katakana*. *Kanji* literally means Chinese characters. There is an extensive use of *kanji* in Japanese writing system and a large portion of its terms borrowed from Chinese as well. *Hiragana* originates from the cursive script style of Chinese calligraphy. Historically, in ancient Japan, *kanji* was used by educated or elite men, whereas *hiragana* was first widely used among court women in the writing of personal communications and literature. *Katakana* is developed from one part of Chinese character. During more than 1000 years, from Eastern Han Dynasty to middle-late Qing Dynasty (the 2nd century-1839), Chinese language had a considerable influence on Japan.

3.1 Phonemic loans-Chinese Characters conveyed sounds (the Han and Wei Dynasties AD 2nd)

Chinese culture was playing a leading role in ancient times, however cultural communication is a two-way process. The ancient Chinese language was also influenced by Japanese language at the same time. “China may be the earliest country that records Japanese nation and Japanese language in the world. The *Book of 魏志·倭人传* ‘*Wei-Biographies of Wo Ren*¹’ in *三国志* ‘*Records of the Three Kingdoms*’, *倭传* ‘*Biographies of Wo*²’ in *后汉书* ‘*Book of the Later Han*’ and *倭国传* ‘*Biographies of Wo Guo*³’ in *宋书* ‘*Book of Song*’ are considered the most important historical materials of Japanese ancient history and ancient language study”. (Xu Yiping. 1999) There are a few Japanese words in *三国志* ‘*Records of the Three Kingdoms*’ to record a detailed account of *倭国 wo guo* and *倭人 wo ren*, which includes their life, society,

¹WoRen is an old form of address to Japanese in ancient China

²Wo is an old form of address to Japan in ancient China

³Wo Guo is Japan country, an old form of address to Japan in ancient China

rules and regulations and special local products. There are many proper nouns in this book. Mainly there are three types: country name, position title and person's name. All of them are transliterated. In other words, Chinese characters are used as a 'phonetic symbol to record the pronunciation of Japanese words. (Xu Yiping. 1999)

I use *Pinyin* 'Chinese phonetic alphabet' to show the pronunciations of the characters. However the pronunciations I presented are the sounds of modern Chinese, which probably vary from the old pronunciations. However I am not sure of the Japanese pronunciations for the characters in old times, therefore I didn't give the Japanese pronunciations.

| Chinese Characters | Pinyin |
|--------------------|------------------------|
| Country name | |
| 狗邪韩国 ⁴ | <i>gouxiehan guo</i> |
| 末卢国 | <i>molu guo</i> |
| 伊都国 | <i>yidu guo</i> |
| 奴国百里 | <i>nuguobaili</i> |
| 不弥国百里 | <i>bumiguobaili</i> |
| 投马国 | <i>touma guo</i> |
| 邪马壹国 | <i>xiemayi guo</i> |
| 斯马国 | <i>sima guo</i> |
| 有已百支国 | <i>youyibaizhi guo</i> |
| 伊邪国 | <i>yixie guo</i> |
| 都支国 | <i>duzhi guo</i> |
| 弥奴国 | <i>minu guo</i> |
| 好古都国 | <i>haogudu guo</i> |
| 不呼国 | <i>buhu guo</i> |
| 姐奴国 | <i>jienu guo</i> |
| 对苏国 | <i>duisu guo</i> |
| 苏奴国 | <i>sunu guo</i> |
| 呼邑国 | <i>huyi guo</i> |

⁴国 means country

| | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 华奴苏奴国 | <i>huanusunu guo</i> |
| 鬼国 | <i>gui guo</i> |
| 为吾国 | <i>weiwu guo</i> |
| 鬼奴国 | <i>guinu guo</i> |
| 邪马国 | <i>xiema guo</i> |
| 躬臣国 | <i>gongchen guo</i> |
| 巴利国 | <i>bali guo</i> |
| 支惟国 | <i>zhiwei guo</i> |
| 乌奴国 | <i>wunu guo</i> |
| 奴国 | <i>nu guo</i> |
| 狗奴国 | <i>gounu guo</i> |
| Position title | |
| 卑狗 | <i>beigou</i> |
| 卑奴毋离 | <i>beinuwuli</i> |
| 尔支 | <i>erzhi</i> |
| 泄漠觚 | <i>xiemogu</i> |
| 柄渠觚 | <i>bingqugu</i> |
| 兕马觚 | <i>simag</i> |
| 卑奴毋离 | <i>beinuwuli</i> |
| 多模 | <i>duomo</i> |
| 弥弥 | <i>mimi</i> |
| 弥弥那利 | <i>miminali</i> |
| 伊支马 | <i>yizhima</i> |
| 弥马升 | <i>mimasheng</i> |
| 弥马获支 | <i>mimahuo zhi</i> |
| 奴佳鞮 | <i>nujiadi</i> |
| 狗古智卑狗 | <i>guouguzhibigou</i> |
| Person's name | |
| 卑弥呼 | <i>beimihu</i> |

| | |
|-------|----------------------|
| 卑弥弓呼素 | <i>beimigonghusu</i> |
| 伊声耆 | <i>yishengqi</i> |
| 夜邪拘 | <i>yexiegou</i> |
| 掖邪拘 | <i>yexiegou</i> |
| 难升米 | <i>nanshengmi</i> |
| 载斯 | <i>zaisi</i> |
| 乌越 | <i>wuyue</i> |
| 壹与 | <i>yiyu</i> |

All the country names, position titles and person's names appear in that book as transliteration of Japanese words, Chinese character is a mere means to represent the sound without any meaning. The transcriptions of Japanese words are very confusing when Chinese people read. 狗 *gou*, 奴 *nu*, 卑 *bei* and 鬼 *gui*, means 'dog', 'slave', 'inferior' and 'ghost' respectively, had been used for many times. For instance, there are two countries called 鬼国 *gui guo* and 狗奴国 *gounu guo* that mean ghost country and dog slave country literally. Moreover 狗奴 *gounu* is also an existed word in Chinese which is a discriminational metaphor means to think of a slave as a dog. One name of position titles is 卑狗 *beigou* that means inferior dog literally. The phonemic transcriptions are the primary form of incorporating foreign words into ancient Chinese. It is a simple and direct way to absorb foreign languages. However these transcriptions are very difficult for Chinese people to understand.

3.2 Graphic Loans (the Tang and Song Dynasties 618-the 12th century)

From the 6th century AD China entered into the Tang Dynasty (618-907) and became one of the most developed countries in the world. Japan court aggressively imported Chinese civilization by sending diplomatic envoys known as 遣唐使 *qiantangshi* to the Tang court for approximate twenty times. There are many historical records of the relation between China and Japan in that period, which contain economy, politics, religion, culture and personnel exchanges. In the 宋史·日本国传 '*Biographies of Japan country in History of Song*' there are a few Japanese words for recording the cultural communication from the Sui Dynasty AD 589 to the

Southern Song Dynasty AD 1202. (Gu Jiangping. 2011:41). It gives a much more detailed description than the Three Kingdoms period. It is an obvious difference in the expression Japanese proper nouns. Instead of using Chinese characters as phonemic symbols, Japanese words are absorbed as graphic loans into Chinese books. (Gu Jiangping. 2011:42)

| Chinese Characters | Pronunciation in Chinese (Pinyin) | Pronunciation in Japanese (Roumaji) |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Place name | | |
| 山城 | <i>shancheng</i> | <i>yamasiro</i> |
| 大和 | <i>dahe</i> | <i>yamato</i> |
| 河内 | <i>henei</i> | <i>kawati</i> |
| 和泉 | <i>hequan</i> | <i>izumi</i> |
| 摂津 | <i>shejin</i> | <i>settsu</i> |
| 東海道 ⁵ | <i>donghaidao</i> | <i>tougai dou</i> |
| 東山道 | <i>dongshandao</i> | <i>touyama dou</i> |
| 北陸道 | <i>beiludao</i> | <i>hokuriku miti</i> |
| 山陰道 | <i>shanyindao</i> | <i>saiin dou</i> |
| 小陽道 | <i>xiaoyangdao</i> | <i>koyou dou</i> |
| 南海道 | <i>nanhaidao</i> | <i>nankai dou</i> |
| 西海道 | <i>xihaidao</i> | <i>seikai dou</i> |
| Position title | | |
| 天御中主 | <i>tianyuzhongzhu</i> | <i>amanominakamusi</i> |
| 天村雲尊 ⁶ | <i>tiancunyunzun</i> | <i>amamurakumo mikoto</i> |
| 八重雲尊 | <i>bachongyuzun</i> | <i>yaekumo mikoto</i> |
| 天彌聞尊 | <i>tianmiwenzun</i> | <i>amamimon mikoto</i> |
| 崇峻天皇 ⁷ | <i>chongjuntianhuang</i> | <i>susyun tennou</i> |
| 推古天皇 | <i>tuigutianhuang</i> | <i>suiko tennou</i> |
| 舒明天皇 | <i>shumingtianhuang</i> | <i>zyomei tennou</i> |

⁵道 is a local public organization

⁶尊 is an honorific title

⁷天皇 means emperor

| | | |
|---|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 皇極天皇 | <i>huangjitianhuang</i> | <i>kougyoku tennou</i> |
| 孝德天皇 | <i>xiaodetianhuang</i> | <i>koutoku tennou</i> |
| Person's name | | |
| 藤原氏 | <i>tengyuanshi</i> | <i>fujiwarasi</i> |
| 真蓮 | <i>zhenlian</i> | <i>mahatisu</i> |
| 智通 | <i>zhitong</i> | <i>titsuo</i> |
| 栗田真人 | <i>sutianzhenren</i> | <i>mawatanomahito</i> |
| 靈仙 | <i>lingxian</i> | <i>ryousen</i> |
| 行賀 | <i>xinghe</i> | <i>gyouga</i> |
| 空海大師 | <i>konghaidashi</i> | <i>kuukaidaisi</i> |
| 睿宗 | <i>ruizong</i> | <i>eisou</i> |
| Product name | | |
| 琥珀 'amber' | <i>hupo</i> | <i>kohaku</i> |
| 木箱 'wood box' | <i>muxiang</i> | <i>kibako</i> |
| 葛籠 'wicker clothes box' | <i>gelong</i> | <i>tsuzura</i> |
| 金銀蒔絵硯 'gold/silver-lacquered ink stone' | <i>jinyinshihuiyan</i> | <i>kinginmakietsuzuri</i> |
| 檜扇 'one kind of Japanese cypress fan for winters' | <i>guishan</i> | <i>hiougi</i> |
| 蝙蝠扇 'one kind of Japanese foldable fan for summers' | <i>bianfushan</i> | <i>kawahoriougi</i> |
| 螺鈿書案 'mother-of-pearl desk' | <i>luodianshuan</i> | <i>radensyoan</i> |
| 螺鈿鞍轡 | <i>luodiananpei</i> | <i>radenkurakutuwa</i> |

| | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|-------------|
| ‘mother-of-pearl saddle/bit’ | | |
| 障泥 ‘saddle flap’ | <i>zhangni</i> | saddle flap |

I mark the Japanese words with *PinYin* and *Roumaji* ‘Japanese Latin-script alphabet’ to show their pronunciations in both languages. These terms can be simply understood when people read them, since the Chinese characters used in these Japanese words are very appropriate. Even though the pronunciations are different, the meanings of characters are basically the same.

In the Tang Dynasty, Japan had established a Chinese characters system. The tributes from Japanese envoys to the Chinese emperor were not only special products, but also literature. According to 宋史·日本国传 *Biographies of Japan Country· History of Song* (1345), Japanese monks who do not know Chinese communicated by writing Chinese characters when they visited China. 古事記 *kojiki*, the oldest extant chronicle in Japan, is completed in 712. It is written in a form of Chinese with a mixture of Japanese elements. The poems in 古事記 *kojiki* are written with Chinese characters for conveying sounds. The communication in poetry was also very prosperous in that period. A lot of Chinese poetry imported to Japan, and many Japanese students studied in China. 漢詩 *kanshi* is a Japanese term for Chinese poetry in general as well as the poetry written in Chinese by Japanese poets. It literally means "Han poetry". 漢詩 *kanshi* was a popular form of poetry during the early *Heian* period (794-1185) in Japan among Japanese aristocrats and proliferated until the modern period. 懷風藻 *kaifuso* is the oldest collection of 漢詩 *kanshi* written by Japanese poets, compiled in 751.

In ancient times, language communication became more specific and more accurate through Chinese characters. Therefore the transcriptions from Japanese words in Chinese literature were getting easier for Chinese people to accept.

3.3 The characteristic of transcriptions of Japanese words in ancient times

3.3.1 Preponderance of proper nouns

There are only a few of transcriptions of Japanese words entered into Chinese, moreover, the aspects concerned are limited. It focuses more on proper nouns, mainly is place name, position title, person's name and special product's name. It indicates that the cultural exchange between China and Japan is on a shallow level in ancient times, or rather I might say China played the leading role in this communication, and absorbed much less the Japanese culture than Japan did China.

3.3.2 Transition from phonemic loans to graphic loans

There is an obvious change in the way of transcriptions of Japanese word into ancient Chinese. In the *Han* and *Wei* Dynasties, the means of transcription was phonemic borrowing. Chinese characters were only used to convey sounds. When the *Tang* and *Song* Dynasties came, the situation altered significantly. Graphic borrowing replaced phonemic borrowing almost completely.

There are four reasons for this transition. Firstly, in *Tang* and *Song* Dynasties Japan had already established a Chinese characters system in its own language. It was very convenient to borrow the shape of Japanese words directly and pronounce them in Chinese way. Secondly, in terms of syllable, generally one character only contains one syllable in Chinese. However, one character usually has two or more than two syllables in Japanese. When Chinese characters are used to record the sound of Japanese words, the length of one word both in appearance and pronunciation becomes much longer than usual Chinese words. For instance, 城 'castle', it is *cheng* in Chinese, while it is read *shi ro* in Japanese. One syllable becomes two syllables. 泉 'spring', it is *quan* in Chinese, but in Japanese it is *i zu mi*. One syllable turns into three syllables. It makes Japanese loanwords difficult to memorize and use. Thirdly, Chinese characters are logogram. Therefore Chinese people tend to identify the words through the meanings behind every single character that comprises the word. However, as I have mentioned before, most Chinese characters used in loanwords do not make any sense or even confuse people. It may be because the historical literature compilers paid more attention to the sound than the meaning when they selected characters. Lastly, it is associated with the closeness of the cultural communication. Japan court sent diplomatic envoys to China regularly. It indicates that the relationship between China and Japan are very close. Graphic borrowing is a reflection of this closeness on language.

3.3.3 Limitation

The transcriptions of Japanese words are limited to record of Japan in historical literatures. They rarely appeared in other types of literary works, such as poetry, prose and songs. Apparently the transcriptions of Japanese loanwords had not reached the life of common people in ancient China. There was a vast distance between Japanese words and the daily language in ancient times.

Although the transcriptions of Japanese words cannot be considered as the real Japanese loanwords, they are the first form of Japanese words appear in Chinese language. The transcriptions of Japanese words make Chinese intellectuals come into contact with Japanese words, and give them ideas of adopting Japanese words into Chinese language. Therefore the transcriptions of Japanese words in ancient times build a significant foundation for the Japanese loanwords in modern Chinese in the 19th century.

4 1840~1920s (from the Opium War of 1840 to before the Anti-Japanese War)

In ancient times, China had a major influence on Japan when it comes to cultural communication, so were the language. However, the situation was completely changed in modern times. The history of modern China is turbulent and full of rapid political and social change. Intrusion and invasion by foreign powers, deterioration and the final collapse of the Qing Dynasty, rebellions by the peasantry, civil wars and revolutions, these events occurred one after another. Such political and social changes affected the development of the Chinese language. I would like to analyse the development of Japanese loanwords in Chinese under this tumultuous historical background from three periods.

4.1 1840 (the Opium War) - 1894 (the Sino-Japanese War)

Modern China started from the Opium War of 1840. It is also known as the Anglo-Chinese War, which was fought between Great Britain and China over their conflicting viewpoints on diplomatic relations, trade, and the administration of justice for foreign nationals. The ease with which the British forces defeated the numerically superior Chinese armies seriously affected the Qing Dynasty's prestige. The success of the First Opium War allowed the British to resume the opium trade and other privileges by signing the Treaty of Nanking. It also paved the way for opening of the lucrative Chinese market to other commerce. The Opium War was also the beginning of opening the Chinese society to missionary endeavors. The Treaty of Nanking was the beginning of the series of unequal treaties. In 1844 the Treaty of Whampoa was signed in 1844 between France and China. It was a commercial treaty, however, it also enforced Chinese court to secure a rescission of *Yongzheng* Emperor's prohibition of Christianity in China from 1724. The *Daoguang* emperor issued an edict on February 1846, which legalized the practice of Christianity in China. The western missionaries brought a large number of religious books into China. In order to spread the religion to the civilians, the books had to be translated into Chinese. From a linguistic perspective, it gave Chinese language a chance to come into contact with other

languages. Meanwhile it was also a challenge of finding an appropriate way to let those foreign words into Chinese language.

At the beginning of spreading religion, the missionaries wrote hundreds of religious books in Chinese. However the sphere of influence was limited, moreover, it did not draw the attention of Qing government. Since these religious books were not well spread, the western missionaries started to write scientific and technical books cooperated with Chinese scholars. There were nearly hundred books published since 1855, which contained geography, history, politics, economy, medicine and mathematics. Some books related to geography and politics drew the Chinese officials' attention. Some Chinese officials started to compile books for introducing the western world.

In 1847 海国图志 *haiguo tuzhi* 'Records and Maps of the World' was compiled by *Wei yuan*. 海国图志 *haiguo tuzhi* is a very important resource of acquainting the West. This book was very valuable as well from a linguistic perspective. There are some neologisms appeared in this book, such as 贸易 *maoyi* 'trade', 文学 *wenxue* 'literature', 法律 *falü* 'law', 议院 *yiyuan* 'parliament' etc. These neologisms probably had been used before they were collected into 海国图志 *haiguo tuzhi* in China (Federico Masini.1997:28). However those neologisms were used in a limited range and hardly used in people's daily life. This book had a great effect on Japanese society. It was translated into Japanese since 1854. The same as China, 海国图志 *haiguo tuzhi* might be the earliest book of introducing the West in Japan. Those neologisms probably entered Japan through this book. (Federico Masini.1997:99) They were spread widely in Japan and often used by Japanese people in their daily life. These neologisms originally belong to Chinese, however, they integrated into Japanese language earlier than Chinese. The neologisms reentered Chinese language later as Japanese loanwords. It is so-called return loans, which I have mentioned before in chapter two 'Different definitions of Japanese loanwords'.

In order to meet the challenge of western science and technology, the power of which shook the foundation of the Chinese empire, the Qing government launched what was called *Yangwu Yundong*, which is often translated as 'Westernization Movement' or 'Self-Strengthening Movement'. The purpose of this movement is to fight off foreign powers by using western technology. Translating foreign books is an inevitable way when it comes to learning. 同文馆 *tongwen guan* 'School of Combined Learning' was a government school for teaching western languages, founded at Beijing in 1862 during the late-Qing Dynasty. It was the first foreign

languages school in Modern China. In 1863 and 1864 同文馆 *tongwen guan* was also set up in Shanghai and Canton. *Fu Lanya* (John Fryer), an Englishman, founded a translation department in 江南制造局 *jiangnan zhizao ju* ‘Jiangnan Bureau of Manufacture’. These institutions educated the earliest a bunch of Chinese people who were able to speak foreign language. (Martin 1896: 293-372)

From a linguistic point of view, these institutions had played a very significant role. They translated many western books. The most of them were about international law and foreign laws. One of the earliest books published by 同文馆 *tongwen guan* of Beijing was 万国公法 *wanguo gongfa* ‘Thousands of nations’ common law’. The original work is *Elements of International Law* (London, Philadelphia, 1836) written by Henry Wheaton. In 1864 it was translated by *Ding Weiliang* (W.A.P Martin) who was American teaching English at 同文馆 *tongwen guan* at that time. Collating the translation with the original, several neologisms were found. These neologisms might be originated from this book. For instance, he translated ‘right’ as 权 *quan*; ‘republic’ was 民主 *minzhu*, ‘republican’ was 民主之国 *minzhu zhi guo* ‘republic country’; ‘parliament’ was 国会 *guohui*; ‘judgement’ was translated as 判断 *panduan*. 万国公法 *wanguo gongfa* was introduced into Japan before Japanese Meiji Restoration (1960s). It was well received by Japanese and had been reprinted. The neologisms had played a part in the formation of glossary of law in modern Japan. (Federico Masini.1997:99). Another well received book by Japan society is 格物入门 *gewu rumen*, which is about natural science written by *Ding Weiliang* in 1868. He gave many Chinese characters a brand new meaning. For instance, 电 *dian* was used to represent ‘electricity’; 电报 *dianbao* was used to call ‘telegram’; 化学 *huaxue* was used to describe ‘chemistry’. (Federico Masini.1997:57) As the same as 万国公法 *wanguo gongfa*, the neologisms were entered into Japanese through this book as well. 六合丛谈 *liuhecong tan* was a scientific journal published from 1857–1858. There are some terms in it, such as 文学 *wenxue* ‘literature’, 国债 *guozhai* ‘national debt’, 空气 *kongqi* ‘air’. (Ge Gongzhen. 2003:68-69) This journal was reprinted in Japan in 1858 and translated into Japanese in 1864. These neologisms were not attached importance by Chinese society or spread in Chinese public life, however, they became widely used in Japan. The neologisms were re-borrowed from Japan as Japanese return loans several decades later.

During the same period, the Meiji Restoration was ongoing (1860s–1880s). Differing from the Qing Dynasty, the Japanese knew that they were behind the rest of the world when American

Commodore Matthew C. Perry came to Japan to try to issue a treaty that would open up Japanese ports to trade. Perry came to Japan in large warships with armament and technology that far outclassed those of Japan at the time. The goal of the Meiji Restoration was to combine western advances with the traditional, eastern values, to promote civilization and enlightenment through western ethics and ideas. Through this restoration, Japan began to be more powerful and prosperous than Chinese. Nevertheless China traditionally viewed Japan as a subordinate outlier of the Chinese cultural sphere. The flow of language was still mainly from Chinese to Japanese. On the other hand, these neologisms that disappeared for many years in Chinese were preserved in Japanese. It made a good foundation of borrowing words, especially return loans.

4.2 1894 (the Sino-Japanese War) – 1911 (the Revolution of 1911)

The Meiji Restoration led to enormous changes in Japanese political and social structure. Japan became a modernized nation through the restoration. In 1894 The First Sino-Japanese War was broken out between Qing Dynasty China and Meiji Japan. After more than six months of continuous successes by the Japanese army and naval forces, the Qing leadership sued for peace in February 1895. The prestige of Qing Dynasty, along with the classical tradition in China, suffered a major blow. The war was a clear indication of the failure of the Qing dynasty's attempts to modernize its military and fend off threats to its sovereignty, especially compared with Japan's successful post-Meiji restoration. For the first time, regional dominance in East Asia shifted from China to Japan. The victory established Japan as the dominant power in Asia. The defeat made the Qing government realized that Japan had become a modernized and industrialized country and started to learn from Japan. Within China, the defeat was also a catalyst for a series of revolutions and political changes led by educated Chinese, such as *Kang Youwei* and *Liang Qichao*.

The Japanese dominant situation also represented in the language area. Differing from the ancient time and the previous period, Chinese started to borrow words from Japanese language since this period. Both the Qing government and educated Chinese, especially the Japan-inspired intellectuals appealed to translate Japanese books and learn Japanese language in order to absorb advanced ideas. Borrowing Japanese words reached a peak from this period.

In 1896 东文馆 *dongwen guan* ‘eastern language department’⁸ was established in Beijing and also set up in Shanghai and Canton later. (Huang Fuqing. 1975:151) It indicates that the Chinese government had already overthrown their traditional thinking of considering Japan as China’s cultural colony, and started to regard Japan as a model of successfully modernized country. It marks the beginning of a new era of the relationship between Chinese and Japanese. From 1896 to 1911, there were 958 Japanese books translated into Chinese and the one third (366 books) was about politics and society. It had exceeded the books which were translated from the West. (Keishu Saneto. 1982) In 1896 the Qing government dispatched students to Japan for the first time. The number of students was increasing year by year. There were at least 25,000 Chinese students studying in Japan from 1898 to 1911, which was unprecedented of sending this amount of students within such a short time. (Lei Yi. 2013) Because of these series of measures, it impelled a large number of Japanese words entered Chinese.

Since the success of the Japanese Meiji Restoration, the *Wuxü Bianfa*, also was known as the Hundred Day’s Reform, was implemented in 1898. This was in response to weaknesses exposed by China's defeat by Japan in the Sino-Japanese War in 1894. It was undertaken by the young *Guangxu* Emperor and his reform-minded supporters. However the movement was short-lived, lasted only 103 days, and ended by powerful conservative opponents led by Empress Dowager *Cixi*. The two principal leaders, *Kang Youwei* and his student *Liang Qichao* I have mentioned before, fled to Japan.

Liang Qichao started a newspaper for the Chinese readers from 1899 to 1901, *Qingyi Bao* ‘commentary of Qing Newspaper’, while he was living in Japan. He translated the Japanese political novels, 佳人の奇遇 *kajin no kiguu* ‘the adventure of a beautiful lady’ and 経国美談 *keikoku bidan* ‘a good discourse of managing a country’, and serialized in his newspaper. *Liang Qichao* found out that there were a lot of Chinese characters in Japanese books besides some case particles. Even the Chinese who do not master Japanese language could understand. Therefore he used many Japanese words in his books and translations, and kept them in their original appearance. Therefore many Japanese words entered into Chinese language through his political writings. (Wang Binbing. 1998:4) *Liang Qichao* also advocated Chinese to learn Japanese. He thought the western languages were alphabet language, but both Chinese and Japanese were non-alphabet language, in other words, both were character-based language. Therefore it was much easier for Chinese to learn Japanese than western languages.

⁸eastern language here specifically means Japanese

Zhang Zhidong, a conservative politician during the late Qing Dynasty, published his famous work, 劝学篇 *quanxue pian* 'Exhortation to Study' in 1898. He believed that "Japanese was similar with Chinese, easy to understand, therefore it was better to translate from Japanese books than western books". The Japanese scholars had translated a great number of western books at that time and "Japanese had already expurgated and revised the parts which were not appropriate." "The political environment was also similar, thus it was easy to imitate". "Nothing could be better than this, gain twice the result with half the effort".

Some Japanese intermediate textbooks were even translated and used at Chinese schools. *Lu Xun*, a very eminent Chinese writer, had translated Japanese textbooks and Japanese lecture notes when he was teaching in a normal school from 1909 to 1911.

This period was called 'A Golden Decade' by Douglas R. Reynolds in his book *China: 1898-1912: The Xinzheng Revolution and Japan* (1993). There was a stirring of interest in learning Japan in China. Instead of translating western books directly, many Japanese books translated from the West were translated into Chinese. A large number of Japanese loanwords entered into Chinese through these books. Moreover since the same characters used by two languages, these loanwords were accepted quite well by Chinese. The Japanese loanwords provided an abundant of expressions of new concepts and advanced ideologies, which built a foundation for the great changes in the next period.

4.3 1912 (the Republic of China) – 1920s (before the Anti-Japanese War)

The failure of the Hundred Days' Reform initiated by *Kang Youwei* and *Liang Qichao* in 1898 gave great impetus to revolutionary forces within China. Changes within the establishment were seen to be largely hopeless, and the overthrow of the whole Qing government increasingly appeared to be the only viable way to save China. Such sentiments directly contributed to the success of the Chinese Revolution in 1911 when the Qing Dynasty officially came to an end and established the Republic of China. Without the obstruction from the imperial court, the reform accelerated by learning the West and Japan. However the abolition of the imperial dynasty and the establishment of a republic did not lead to any improvement in the political and social situation in China. China was still plagued by the violence from foreign powers and warlordism. Being desperate in seeking a solution and true to Chinese tradition of emphasis on moral and

cultural imperatives, the educated Chinese began to think that the Chinese nation could be saved only by raising the spirit of the people. In order to achieve fundamental change, they believed that China required both cultural and moral change.

In the same way as the previous period, it had already introduced many western ideas and concepts to educated Chinese by translating western books directly and Japanese books that were translated from the West into Chinese. However the new requirement in this period was to introduce these ideas to Chinese civilians who were not well educated. Thus this challenge spurred a language reform movement. To make this task easier, it had to make the written language more accessible and narrow the gap between the official texts written in 文言 *wenyan* and the language spoken in daily life. Hence a movement called 白话 *baihua* ‘plain speech’ started in China. The aim of this movement was to promote a form of written language as a standard language for the nation closer to the spoken language. This language reform was the first step of a new culture movement.

The New Culture Movement was from 1910s to 1920s. It was led by scholars like *Chen Duxiu*, *Cai Yuanpei*, *Li Dazhao*, *Lu Xun*, *Zhou Zuoren*, and *Hu Shih*. They started many plain language newspapers, magazines and novels. In 1918 *Lu Xun*, the leading figure of modern Chinese literature and had studied in Japanese from 1902 to 1909, published 狂人日记 *kuangren riji* ‘A Mad Man’s Diary’ which shook the intelligentsia and marked the first victory of the literary revolution. This short story was written in plain language, the first in modern literature. In 1921 *Lu Xun* published the influential 阿Q正传 *Ah Q zhengzhuan* ‘The True Story of Ah Q’, arguably the best and certainly the most well-known of his works, which was also written in plain language. In the same year Japanese-educated writer and poet *Guo Moruo* published a collection of poems 女神 *nü shen* ‘The Goddess’, which were not only of high quality but also written in plain language. Since most of them were Japanese-educated, they used many Japanese words into their works. Therefore many Japanese words were spread in China through their works.

新青年 *xin qingnian* ‘new youth’ was an influential Chinese magazine in the 1910s and 1920s that played an important role in initiating the New Culture Movement. The magazine was founded by *Chen Duxiu* who was also a Japanese-educated revolutionary socialist and one of the founders of the Communist Party of China. 新青年 *xin qingnian* influenced many young Chinese intellectuals and widely spread democratic thought. When the concept of democracy

was first introduced, some tried the technique of translating the English pronunciation, as 德谟克拉西 *demokelaxi*. However the term was not popular and widely used. In 新青年 *xin qingnian* it termed democracy 德先生 *de xiansheng* by taking the sound of the first syllable of the word and adding the Chinese term for ‘Mr’. Maybe 德先生 *de xiansheng* was more for amusement to draw people’s attention, therefore, the term for democracy was finally settled by adopting the Japanese word which rendered it in two Chinese characters 民主 *min zhu* ‘people master’. There was a continual process of borrowing Japanese words into Chinese the same as the previous period, however, this period the Japanese loanwords more penetrated among people in China and replaced many Chinese native translations, thus they became commonly accepted words and remained in Chinese language.

4.4 Reasons of borrowing Japanese words

We have known there is a historical reason of borrowing words from Japanese from the previous chapter. There were a lot of dramatic changes happened in China. China was forced to break the closed-door policy by the Opium War in 1840. After a number of wars with western countries, peasant revolts and reforms, China's last imperial dynasty, Qing Dynasty was overthrown by the *Xinhai* Revolution and the Republic of China was finally established. A lot of new concepts, especially modern science and advanced ideology were introduced into China. It resulted in a huge gap in the Chinese vocabularies. In order to fill the gap, a great number of Japanese words were borrowed into Chinese. However most of Japanese loans borrowed in this period are the words that are translated by the Japanese from western languages. Why the Chinese people did not borrowed words from western languages directly, instead, they used the Japanese words which translated from western languages? Besides historical reason, there is a very important factor influences the borrowing, which is linguistic factor.

4.4.1 Attempt of borrowing western words

In fact, it has been trying to absorb words from western languages into Chinese all the time. Although I have no absolute figures on the number of it. Considering only loans from the dictionary of 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* compiled by *Gao Mingkai* and *Liu Zhengdan* in 1984, which is the same dictionary as the data resource of Japanese loanwords for this period in this paper, the loanwords borrowed from western languages are nearly four times more than from Japanese. It contains approximately 3500 vocabulary entries from western

words, while only 882 loans from the Japanese. Most western loanwords are phonemic loans, while almost all the Japanese loans are graphic loans. It indicates that western loans tend to be borrowed their sound, while Japanese loans tend to be borrowed their graphemes. Since there is a special connection between Chinese and Japanese, character, it is not difficult to understand the reason. Compared to the around 850 graphic loans from the Japanese, approximately 3500 western loans may seem a lot. However the most among the first 3817 words of high frequency in Modern Chinese, 143 graphic loans from the Japanese. (Sone. 1987: 27) It shows that although the western loans are superior in number to the Japanese loans, they are not frequently used in China and highly accepted by the Chinese people.

4.4.1.1 Attempt of phonemic borrowing

About phonemic loans, Federico Masini has said that “All foreign terms introduced into Chinese as phonemic loans must undergo two different processes of adaptation to the borrowing lexical system. When the loan first occurs, there is an initial process of phonemic adaptation. There are some similarities between Chinese and western languages phonemes, but the former has a limited associative capacity. The Chinese phonemic system is therefore impermeable and not prepared to incorporate associations of phonemes foreign to those envisaged by the system. Because of the specular relationship between the phonemic and the graphic level, the phonemic aspect of loans must be identical to that of autochthonous words, if assimilation is to occur. From the point of view of Federico Masini, there is a space between the phonemic level and the graphic rendering of a term. Thus, there can be various graphic renderings of the same foreign phonemic chains, depending on the phonemic differences between the various dialects.” For example, ‘chocolate’ has been graphically rendered in Chinese in at least twelve different ways, which refers to 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* 1984. They are 巧克力 *qiaokeli*, 朱古力 *zhuguli*, 巧克利 *qiaokeli*, 巧格力 *qiaogeli*, 巧古力 *qiaoguli*, 巧可力 *qiaokeli*, 查古列 *chagulie*, 查古律 *chagulü*, 朱古律 *zhugulü*, 朱咕叻 *zhugule*, 勺古力 *shaoguli*, 诸古力 *zhuguli*.

Since there is no contiguity between the phono-ideographic system of Chinese writing and that of western languages, phonemic loans must also undergo a process of graphic adaptation. In Chinese writing system there is always a strong semantic relationship between sound and graphemes. Thus, within the framework of the limitations imposed at the phonemic level, the Chinese translators have always tended to choose graphemes that provide some indication also of the semantic value of the compound, when deciding how to render foreign phonemes. (Masini.

1993: 138) It is an ideal way of translating words from western languages, however it is difficult to find the characters to meet this criterion and only few words are up to the standard. In order to be easily identified the meaning by Chinese people, graphic radicals are added when the compound is used for its phonemic rather than semantic value, or other radicals are used to indicate the semantic category with which the compound is to be associated. For instance, the phonemic loan 咖啡 *kafei* ‘coffee’, the radical 口 *kou* ‘mouth’ is imposed on the graphemes 加 *jia* and 非 *fei* to indicate that it is something for drink. The radical 艹 *cao* ‘grass’ is imposed on the graphemes 葡 *pu* and 萄 *tao* of the compound 葡萄 *putao* ‘grape’ to indicate that it is a plant. More examples about this are terms used to indicate chemical substances upon which are imposed the radicals 金 *jin* ‘metal’, 石 *shi* ‘stone’ and 气 *qi* ‘gas’, etc.

Nevertheless it is still quite restricted to compound the phonemic value and semantic value by imposing radicals on the graphemes. In most cases, Chinese translators choose graphemes that are specific in phonemic loans and hardly used in native Chinese words. For instance, 拷贝 *kaobei* ‘copy’, 乌托邦 *wutuobang* ‘ultimatum’, 吐司 *tusi* ‘toast’ and 咖啡 *kafei*, 葡萄 *putao* which I have mentioned above. The characters in these phonemic loans have no meaning or totally different meaning when the words are divided into each single character. Therefore there are limitations of characters to represent the sound of western words and also difficult to associate the meaning of the word with each character which comprises the word.

In addition to the limitation of characters, the assimilation problems encountered by phonemic loans are also due to the difference in the average length of morphemes in Chinese and in western languages. Modern Chinese tends to prefer words of an average length of two syllables, western languages prefer longer polysyllabic words. (Masini. 1993: 139) Thus, it is another reason for western loanwords being difficult to spread in China. For instance, ‘telephone’ was translated into three syllables, 德律风 *de lü feng*, which was difficult to remember and understand the meaning. Democracy was translated into 德谟克拉西 *de mo ke la xi*, five syllables. One word with five syllables rarely appears in Chinese except in some old sayings. Therefore most western loanwords with long morphemes were replaced by Japanese loans translated from western language. 德律风 *de lü feng* is replaced by 电话 *dian hua*, 德谟克拉西 *de mo ke la xi* is changed into 民主 *min zhu*. Of course, phonemic loans are made extensive use for the names of people and places. However it tends to use Japanese loans, when it comes to western institutions. For example, university is translated as 由尼卫土地 *you ni wei shi di*, which

is a phonemic loan from the English university and finally replaced by Japanese loan 大学 *daxue*.

4.4.1.2 Attempt of semantic borrowing

From the late of the 19th century and the early of the 20th century, some scholars started to contribute to the modernization of the lexicon by translating western texts. It is specially the case of *Yan Fu*'s many translations. *Yan Fu* is probably the first Chinese writer endowed with all qualities that *Liang Qichao* believed essential for a translator: traditional Chinese culture, knowledge of foreign languages and of the subject to be translated. He was one of the first Chinese students to study abroad. In 1877 he traveled to Great Britain and spent approximately two years there learning the language and coming into direct contact with British culture. After his return to China in 1897, *Yan Fu*'s translations and critiques of European works were enormously popular among his contemporaries. In 1898, he published 天演论 *tianyan lun*, his first translation of T.H.Huxley's *Evolution and Ethics*, which had considerable impact on China's elite in the early 20th century.

Yan Fu tried to defend Chinese lexicon from the influx of the Japanese loans. For example, he invented 钞店 *chaodian*, 钞商 *chaoshang*, and 版克 *banke* to indicate bank rather than use the already known Japanese loan 银行 *yinhang*. He translated many western terms to replace Japanese loans, such as 计学 *jixue* and 资生学 *zishengxue* 'economics', 理学 *lixue* and 智学 *zhixue* 'philosophy', 群学 *qunxue* 'sociology' and 格致学 *gezhi xue* 'physics'. However all of them did not exist in Chinese for a long time and instead of being replaced by Japanese loans: 经济学 *jingjixue* 'economics', 哲学 *zhexue* 'philosophy', 社会学 *shehuixue* 'sociology' and 物理学 *wulixue* 'physics'. Although *Yan Fu*'s works were widely read, the terms he created appear to be short-lived. Only few have survived, such as 乌托邦 *wutuobang* 'utopia'. (Wang Lida. 1985:123)

Yan Fu believed that a good translator should be 'adherent', 'comprehensible' and 'elegant', however his translations were too classical to understand by the average readers. Therefore it seems like the Japanese loans defeat the neologisms invented by Chinese in the battle of translating western words.

4.4.2 Special connection between Chinese and Japanese

As far as we know, the Japanese never developed their own autochthonous writing system. They had come into contact with the Chinese writing form and adapted it to their own language. (Miller. 1967:91) Japanese scholars had always studied the Chinese classics. Especially after the Meiji restoration, when it had become essential to invent neologisms to translate western terms, the Japanese consulted the Chinese classics. Whenever possible, new meanings were given to terms that already existed in the classical Chinese. These new formations were identical to those of basic traditional Chinese words. They usually have two, at most three syllables, which is in keeping with the normal length of Chinese words. Therefore Japanese loans are easier to be accepted by the Chinese people than western loans.

During the Meiji era, many western works were studied and translated by Japanese scholars. Japanese proved to be more receptive than Chinese, and Japanese lexicon evolved more rapidly than Chinese lexicon. Thousands of neologisms were created into Japanese, which constituted an important lexical legacy for Chinese to enrich its own lexicon.

Additionally, Chinese characters belong to logogram system, conveying their meanings through different structures that are essential. There is a very strong connection between the sound and the graph. Since a large number of common characters exist both in Chinese and Japanese, the Japanese loanwords are simply to be comprehended by Chinese people.

4.5 Classification of Japanese Loanwords

Before I classify the Japanese loanwords I collected, I would like to introduce the data source I used. I make a table of the data source that shows every entry and classification in detail. Please refer to the appendix.

4.5.1 Introduction of data source

I select 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* ‘Modern Loanwords Dictionary’ as my data source for this paper. A *Dictionary of Loan Words and Hybrid Words in Chinese* is the subtitle given by English in the dictionary. There are three reasons for me to choose this dictionary as the base of data analysis.

First of all, 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* is a highly authoritative dictionary. It has been used as a reference for many academic papers and books that are about loanwords in

Chinese. In its preface says that about Japanese loans: “there is a long history of cultural exchange between China and Japan. The situation of word-borrowing is very complicated, in addition, there is a huge mass of literature and the limited human resource, therefore, it is difficult to identify the borrowing time of each word. We sufficiently consulted studies and works which are written by Chinese and Japanese linguists and referred to relevant dictionaries. Every entry included in this dictionary had been ascertained. We observe the principle of quality over quantity, keep the serious scientific attitude to avoid deliberately misrepresent”. “Therefore there is no entry without derivation”. (Gao Mingkai Liu Zhengdan. 1984: 3)

Secondly, 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* is compiled by *Gao Mingkai and Liu Zhengdan*. I have introduced their point of view about the definition of Japanese loanwords in chapter two “Different definitions of Japanese Loanwords”. There are two kinds of Japanese loans, phonemic loans and graphic loans, recorded in the dictionary. “Most of Japanese loans included are graphic loans, which mean only the characters are borrowed, while the pronunciations are not borrowed. Some Japanese loanwords are translated from western languages by using classical Chinese words. The meanings of them have not been the same any more, or even totally different, such as 革命 ‘revolution’. Some of them are created to represent the new objects and concepts emerged in Japan by using Chinese characters, such as 人力车 ‘rickshaw’. Some of them are translated from western languages by using Chinese characters to represent the new objects and concepts emerged in the west, such as 哲学 ‘philosophy’.” (Gao Mingkai Liu Zhengdan. 1984: 2) Since I adopt their definition of Japanese loanwords in this paper, it is very suitable to use the dictionary compiled by the same person. In other words, the words I use for analysis and explanation are the Japanese loanwords that meet the definition of this paper.

Lastly, the compilation of 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* started from 1960. Due to the Great Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), the compilation was forced to suspend. It has been accomplished until 1984. Moreover in the preface of the dictionary, it says we widely collected loanwords from the ancient time. Most of the words included have a heavy historical sense and are not often used in recent decades of years. Although it published in 1984, this dictionary is appropriate to be the data source for the second period (1840-1920s) of borrowing word from Japanese.

I also would like to introduce this dictionary. There are approximately 10,000 loanwords included in this dictionary and 882 loanwords from Japanese. According to the explanatory notes in the dictionary, there are only general loans included, which are everyday terms and common terminologies. The person name, place name and obscure terminologies are not included. Since the person name and place name have great quantity and special characteristics, they are not suitable to analyze the common feature of Japanese loanwords. Therefore it is more persuasive to do the research without person name, place name or obscure terminologies.

Because of the time of compilation, some loanwords have been rarely used or even discarded nowadays. However it will not be a problem for being a data source for the second period of borrowing Japanese word.

It is possible to have some different viewpoints of the Japanese loanwords included in this dictionary. Some may argue that some words do not belong to loanwords. Some may doubt the derivation of the words. It is very normal to have different opinions about Japanese loanwords. However it is impossible for me to prove the derivation of every single loanword appears in my data source. I would like to use all of the Japanese loanwords included in this dictionary for my data analysis.

4.5.2 Classes of Japanese loanwords

I would like to clarify two general lines of my classification first. One is if there are more than one definitions of one word, I classify it according to the first definition which is given in the dictionary. For instance, 品位 *pinwei* means both ‘grade of nonferrous metal and taste’. Therefore I sort it into the third class, terminologies. The other one is if the case is that the original meaning of the loanword has been rarely used, instead, given a metaphorical meaning or has a new meaning, I classify it according to the original meaning, since it is absorbed into Chinese with its original meaning. For instance, 金丝雀 *jinsi que* ‘canary bird’ is a kind of bird, however when it comes to 金丝雀 *jinsi que* in China, it reminds people of a beautiful woman who is kept in comfort by her lover without freedom like a pretty canary bird kept in a cage. Nevertheless I sort it into the third class, terminologies.

There are totally 882 Japanese loanwords used for my research. I divide them into four groups: 1. Daily life terms 2. Societal terms 3. Terminologies 4. Others. 1. Daily life terms include articles for daily use, such as 电报 *dianbao* ‘telegram’, 电话 *dianhua* ‘telephone’;

something and some activities are related to daily life, such as 剧场 *juchang* ‘theatre’ and 远足 *yuanzu* ‘hiking’; some individual behavior, such as 失恋 *shilian* ‘unrequited love’ and 接吻 *jiewen* ‘kiss’. 2. Societal terms include some concepts relate to social system, such as 国营 *gongying* ‘state-operated’ and 阶级 *jieji* ‘class’; social phenomenon, such as 独裁 *ducai* ‘dictatorship’ and 特权 *tequan* ‘privilege’; social organizations, such as 劳动组合 *laodong zuhe* ‘trade union’ and 社团 *shetuan* ‘association’; titles, such as 作者 *zuozhe* ‘writer’ and 巨头 *jutou* ‘magnate’. 3. Terminologies include the terms for social science and natural science, the professional terms in the field of politics, economy, philosophy, military affairs, chemistry, physics, mathematics, literature, art, astronomy, agriculture, animals etc. 4. Others are the words that do not belong to any class above or are difficult to distinguish between daily life terms and societal terms, such as 重点 *zhongdian* ‘key point’, 批评 *piping* ‘criticize’ and 直接 *zhijie* ‘direct’. Moreover I classify each group into two small groups, which are original loans and loans of words translated from western languages. I make further classifications of loans of words translated from western languages. There are phonemic translations and semantic translations. Moreover I divide semantic translations into translating by using Chinese characters and translating by using classical Chinese words. All the classifications are not my personal decision. They are based on the annotations in the dictionary. Please see the details in the table below. It shows the amount and the percentage of Japanese loanwords in each group.

| | Total | Original Loans | Loans of words translated from western languages | | |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|--|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| | | | Phonemic Translations | Semantic Translations | |
| | | | | by Chinese characters | by Classical Chinese Words |
| 1. Daily life terms | 78 [8.8%] | 24 | 6 | 38 | 10 |
| 2. Societal terms | 165 [18.7%] | 39 | 1 | 87 | 38 |
| 3. Terminologies | 563 [63.8%] | 53 | 30 | 361 | 119 |
| 4. Others | 76 [8.6%] | 22 | 0 | 42 | 12 |
| Total | 882 | 138 [15.6%] | 37 [4.2%] | 528 [59.9%] | 179 [20.3%] |

4.5.3 Data analysis

I would like to expound my analysis about the Japanese loanwords based on the table I made above.

4.5.3.1 A great number of terminologies

It is very clear that the most Japanese loans are in class 3. Terminologies, the proportion is 63.8%. There are 18.7% Japanese loans belong to class 2. Societal terms and only 8.8% loans are in class 1. Daily life terms, which is almost the same as the class 4. Others (8.6%) It shows that Japanese words are mainly borrowed for representing scientific concepts and advanced ideas in that period. Japanese loans reflect the needs of society at that time. As I have analyzed before, the Chinese scholars had attempted to absorb the western words, however it did not spread well within China. Instead the graphic loans from Japanese were well accepted and widely used by Chinese society. On the other hand, the proportion of daily life terms is only 8.8%. It means the Japanese loans have not been often used in everyday level. It is also relative to the borrowing channels and borrowing purpose, which I will give the explanations in the following chapters.

4.5.3.2 Superiority of loans translated from western languages

It is obvious that the loans of words translated from western languages are in a dominant position in the Japanese loanwords. The percentage is about 84.4%, while the percentage of original loans is only about 15.6%. It indicates that the word borrowing is inseparable from historical background. There was a dramatic change happened in China from the Opium War of 1840 to 1920s. As the Republic of China was established, a lot of new concepts, especially modern science and advanced ideology were introduced into China. In order to fill this lexical gap, many Japanese words that are translated from western languages were borrowed into Chinese.

4.5.3.3 Extensive scope of Japanese loans

The Japanese loans concern from traditional Japanese things, such as 榻榻米 *tatami* ‘staw mattress’, 和服 *hefu* ‘kimono’, to modern science, such as 化学 *huaxue* ‘chemistry’, 物理 *wuli* ‘physics’ and 数学 *shuxue* ‘mathematics’. These Japanese loans are like a lexical treasure for Chinese. They enriched the lexicon of modern Chinese and gave the new idea about word formation. The Chinese adopted some certain parts of some Japanese loans as suffix to make

more neologisms further. For example, 主义 *zhuyi* ‘-ism’ is taken from 资本主义 *ziben zhuyi* ‘capitalism’, 社会主义 *shehui zhuyi* ‘socialism’; 化 *hua* ‘-ation’ is brought from 工业化 *gongye hua* ‘industrialization’, 现代化 *xiandai hua* ‘modernization’.

4.5.3.4 An increase of three syllables loans

Modern Chinese tends to prefer words of an average length of two syllables. Even the neologisms formed in Chinese with suffix were almost always disyllabic words. For example, the suffix 学 *xue* was used in Chinese to present a certain branches of western scientific knowledge, such as 力学 *li xue* ‘mechanics’, 化学 *hua xue* ‘chemistry’ and 光学 *guang xue* ‘optics’. However the trisyllabic words were mostly introduced from Japanese. There are 156 trisyllabic words included in the dictionary and around 18% Japanese loans are trisyllabic. For example, the trisyllabic words 人力车 *renli che* ‘rickshaw’, 博物馆 *bowu guan* ‘museum’ and 幼稚园 *youzhi yuan* ‘kindergarten’, they are all composed by a suffix 车 *che*, 馆 *guan* and 园 *yuan* respectively. These suffixes contributed to the creation of trisyllabic words in Chinese. The structure is usually two syllables plus one suffix, which proved to be very fruitful later in Chinese.

4.5.3.5 Flexibility of the part of speech

When it comes to the western loanwords, they are almost always nouns, especially phonemic loans. However the graphic loans from Japanese also contain verbs and adjectives.

| | Total | noun | verb | adjective |
|------------------------|-------|----------------|----------------|---------------|
| 1. Daily life terms | 78 | 67 [85.9%] | 11 [14.1%] | 0 [0.0%] |
| 2. Societal terms | 165 | 116 [70.3%] | 48 [29.1%] | 1 [0.6%] |
| 3. Terminologies | 563 | 499 [88.6%] | 53 [9.4%] | 11 [2.0%] |
| 4. Others | 76 | 21 [27.6%] | 44 [57.9%] | 11 [14.5%] |
| Total | 882 | 703 [79.7%] | 156 [17.7%] | 23 [2.6%] |

According to the table above, the most verbs are from class three, terminologies, which are 48 words. However the proportion is only 9.4% in terminologies. It indicates that nouns play an important part in introducing the concepts of social science and natural science. The proportion of verbs in class one, daily life terms, is only 14.1%. The reason is the same as terminologies, which is nouns are good for introducing daily goods, such as 电报 *dianbao* ‘telegram’, 电话 *dianhua* ‘telephone’. The proportion of verbs in class two, societal terms, and class four, others, are relatively high, which are 29.1% and 57.9% respectively. It is because some verbs are used to describe social phenomena, such as 抗议 *kangyi* ‘protest’ and 封锁 *fengsuo* ‘blockade’. Some verbs are difficult to classify, such as 批评 *piping* ‘criticize’ and 反对 *fandui* ‘oppose’, therefore I sort them into class four, others. There are eleven adjectives in class four for the same reason as verbs.

However, it is noteworthy that most verbs are able to be used as nouns as well. In other words, they are able to adapt to Chinese grammatical categories and perform the predicative functions. It is because the special character of the Japanese language. In Japanese there are some verbs are called *suru* verb, which means some nouns are able to become verb when they add *suru* behind them. Therefore some words can be used as a verb when comes with *suru* or a noun without *suru*. However there is no some suffix like *suru* to change the part of the speech of the words in Chinese. When these *suru* verbs entered into Chinese, they have function of being both a verb and a noun. This flexibility makes Japanese loanwords very convenient to build sentences in Chinese language.

4.6 Channels of borrowing

There are four main channels of borrowing Japanese words into Chinese from the Opium War of 1840 to 1920s before the Anti-Japanese War.

4.6.1 Travel diaries of visiting Japan

The treaty of friendship between China and Japan was the first step toward the exchange of permanent representatives. (Hummel. 1943:466) It became easy for Chinese to go to Japan. Some travelers and diplomats wrote travel diaries to record their experience in Japan. Therefore these travel diaries were an important first source of information on what was happening in Japan. The works wrote by Chinese travelers and scholars were very influential in China at the

end of 19th century. Many neologisms invented by the Japanese in Japan were introduced into China through these texts. They were later to be part of modern Chinese lexicon.

Most of travel diaries were about Japanese history, geography, conventions and culture. There were terms for Japanese household utensils, cultural relics and official positions. For example, *He Ruzhang* was the first Chinese ambassador to Japan in 1876. He spent one month traveling around Japan and recorded his experiences in a diary named 使东述略 *shidong shulue* ‘short account of the mission to the East’, which was the first official report on Japan written by a Chinese. (Zhong Shuhe. 1985:373) There were many Japanese words contained in his text, such as 大藏省 *dazang sheng* ‘the Ministry of Finance’, 外务省 *waiwu sheng* ‘the Ministry of Foreign Affairs’, 警视厅 *jingshi ting* ‘Police Agency’, 神社 *shenshe* ‘sinto shrine’, 公园 *gongyuan* ‘park’, 幼稚园 *youzhi yuan* ‘kindergarten’, 郵便 *youbian* ‘post’, etc.

Huang Zunxian was the counselor to the Chinese Embassy in Japan from 1877. He was one of the most attentive Chinese observers in the last quarter of the 19th century. While he was in Japan, *Huang Zunxian* wrote a collection of 200 poems, published in 1879 with the title 日本杂事诗 *riben zashishi* ‘Poems on different aspects of Japan’. Each poem was accompanied by the comments on aspects of traditional and modern Japanese life. (Hummel. 1943:351) His poems contain a lot of Japanese words, such as 议院 *yi yuan* ‘parliament’, 政党 *zhengdang* ‘political party’, 和歌 *hege* ‘waka’, 三味线 *sanweixian* ‘samisen’, 广场 *guangchang* ‘square’, 宗教 *zongjiao* ‘religion’, etc. He made explanatory notes behind the Japanese words, since some words were difficult for the Chinese to recognize the meaning.

Those Japanese loans that entered by traveling diaries are mainly nouns, since they were used to introduce the Japanese society and life. However these loans were lack of stability. Only few of them remained in the Chinese lexicon, and most of them were replaced by Chinese neologisms. For example, 会社 *huishe* ‘company’ was short-lived in China and soon replaced by a Chinese compound 公司 *gongsi*. Because most of Japanese loans were rarely used in other works except traveling diaries and texts of introducing Japan, these loans did not enter into Chinese language for daily use.

4.6.2 Studying in Japan

Since the defeat by Japan for the first Sino-Japanese War in 1895 and the success of post-Meiji restoration in Japan, the Qing government realized that Japan had become a modernized and industrialized country and started to learn from Japan. Thousands of Chinese people went to Japan to study their political system and advanced techniques.

It also included some very influential politicians and litterateurs who were the advocates and promoted the dissemination of Japanese loans. They created political organizations and journals. For instance, 同盟会 *tongmenghui*, also known as the Chinese United League, was founded by Sun Yat-sen in *Tokyo* in 1905. 政闻社 *zhengwen she* ‘Political news association’ was made by *Liang Qichao* in *Tokyo* in 1907. Most of them were revolutionary societies and propagated the advanced ideas to the Chinese. Since they had studied in Japan, those people tended to use Japanese words in their writings. We can find many Japanese words in *Luxun*’s works, such as 昨今 *zuojin* ‘recently’, 美点 *meidian* ‘strength’, 知人 *zhiren* ‘acquaintance’, 直后 *zhihou* ‘shortly after’, 控室 *kongshi* ‘waiting room’, 便当 *biandang* ‘lunch box’, 名所 *mingsuo* ‘sight’, etc.

The Chinese students studied in Japan were responsible for introducing the Japanese terms into Chinese. Those students and scholars had good knowledge of both Chinese and Japanese society, politics and culture. Therefore the Japanese loans absorbed from them were closer to the public and represented the daily life more than those loans that absorbed through travel diaries.

4.6.3 Translations of Japanese books

Before the end of the 19th century, there were few Japanese books translated into Chinese. However this situation was totally changed since 1895. There were over 321 Japanese books translated into Chinese from 1902 to 1904, while the translations from the West were only 120 books. Moreover the number increased year by year. The amount of Japanese books reached 958 until 1911. The most translations were social science books, which was 366. The second most was the books about world geography. The others were about applied science and natural science. (Gu Jiangping. 2011: 55)

From the end of 19th century to 1920s, the influence from Japan was much stronger than from the West. Since a great number of Japanese books translated into Chinese, the translation became an important channel for absorbing Japanese words. Especially for the translations of new theories and disciplines, it is easy to adopt graphic loans. For example the loans about

gynaecology, 妇人科 *furen ke* ‘gynaecology’, 生产 *shengchan* ‘childbirth’, 避孕 *biren* ‘birth control’.

About the advantage of translating Japanese books, *Liang Qichao* noted that in the West, language and writing were united, while in China, language and writing were separate. Compared to the western languages, written Chinese was character rather than alphabet, which encountered greater difficulty in inventing new names. *Liang Qichao* also noted that in his essay, 饮冰室文集 *yinbingshi wenji*, in 1902: After reform, Japan concentrated on the study of the West, translated some of the most important western works. Moreover the works composed by them are for the most part worthy of consideration. It is therefore a good idea to study Japanese to translate Japanese works. He also stated several reasons for studying Japanese: Firstly, the sounds are few. Secondly, there are no sounds that do not exist in Chinese and there are no harsh contrasting sounds. Thirdly, the grammar is similar. Fourthly, Proper noun is similar to the Chinese ones. Lastly, for six or seven-tenths it is composed of Chinese characters. For these reasons it takes only six months for Chinese to master Japanese. Thus greater results can be achieved with little effort by learning Japanese language than the western languages.

In this period, the Japanese loanwords were borrowed by well-educated Chinese people. The most loans were about advanced ideas, science and technology. Therefore the Japanese loanwords were used by politicians, revolutionaries and progressive rather than ordinary people. At the same time the Japanese loans promoted the formation of modern Chinese and made great contributions to the modern Chinese lexicon.

4.7 Characteristics of Japanese loanwords

Since the Japanese loanwords were borrowed under a special historical background, there are some distinguishing features in this period. I summarized them in five characteristics.

4.7.1 A preponderance of nouns

The most Japanese loans were nouns in this period. According to the data source, 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* compiled by *Gao Mingkai and Liu Zhengdan*, there are 703 nouns in 882 Japanese loans, which is over 79.7%. It was because most loanwords were borrowed for representing Japanese traditional products, modern scientific concept and ideology

from the West. It indicates that the Japanese loans mainly functioned for introduction and representation. Therefore it was hard for them to have predicative functions.

4.7.2 Large quantity

Since China was at the meridian of social change, a great number of neologisms were required urgently. Translated from western languages was a time consuming process, since the totally different linguistic system between Chinese and western languages and there were more syllables in western languages which was difficult for the Chinese people to understand and memorize. Chinese scholars chose to borrow words from Japanese to meet the urgent needs. It was much easier to use Japanese loans, since there were a lot of common characters in both Chinese and Japanese. It was possible to absorb them directly without translating. Moreover the formations of Japanese loans were very similar with Chinese, therefore they were accepted well by Chinese people.

These Japanese loans did play a very important role in modern China. However the quantity was too large to be selected carefully. Some of them existed only for a short time and then were replaced when the more appropriate Chinese words appeared. I can find many Japanese loanwords from 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian*, which have not been used today, such as 麦酒 *mai jiu* ‘beer’ was replaced by a phonemic loan from English, 啤酒 *píjiu*; 辯護士 *bianhu shi* ‘lawyer’ was replaced by 律师 *lǜ shi*, which was translated from English directly.

4.7.3 Close connection with the development of society

As I have analyzed before, 63.8% of Japanese loans from the data source were terminologies. It indicates that the main function of Japanese loans was to introduce and represent advanced ideology and modern science to the Chinese society at that moment. The selection of Japanese words was decided by the society instead of the individuals. There was a very close connection between Japanese loanwords and the development of Chinese society. There were more social demands than linguistic demands of Japanese loan.

4.7.4 The uniqueness of Japanese loans

China experienced a dramatic change from the Opium War of 1840 to 1920s. There were a great number of new concepts poured to China. In order to fill the huge gap in the Chinese

lexicon, Japanese words were borrowed as the supplements for the lack of Chinese lexicon. Most Japanese loans were unique, since the concepts they represented were the first time introduced in China, such as 民主 *minzhu* ‘democracy’, 革命 *geming* ‘revolution’ and 自由 *ziyou* ‘liberty’. They were not the substitutes for the existing terms but the supplements for the lack of Chinese lexicon.

4.7.5 High frequency used among intellectuals

In this period, Japanese loanwords were borrowed by those well-educated Chinese people. Therefore the Japanese loanwords were mainly used by Chinese intellectuals such as revolutionaries and progressives. However they were not high frequency words for the Chinese ordinary people. Most Japanese loanwords were terminologies with the responsibilities to introduce advanced thoughts and modern science. There was still a distance between the Japanese loans and ordinary people.

Although the Japanese loanwords were used for the upper class more than ordinary people’s daily life at that time, they helped the diffusion of knowledge and enriched the modern Chinese lexicon. The Japanese loans played a significant part in the formation of modern Chinese.

4.8 Influences on intake of Japanese loanwords

Japanese loanwords entered into Chinese to meet the needs of the development of Chinese society as the supplement of Chinese lexicon, meanwhile, they promoted the formation of modern Chinese objectively.

4.8.1 Social influence

Since the Opium War of 1840, China was forced to open the door to the outside world. Many western socialist ideologies, political thoughts and modern science were introduced into China. These social changes brought a great number of Japanese words into the Chinese language. Those loans were responsible for spreading the democratic ideology, advanced culture and technology. They propelled the Chinese society forward and speeded up the reforms and revolutions in China. They made the advanced knowledge and ideas simpler to spread and understand. Especially after the defeat of the First Sino-Japanese War in 1895, Japan became the lead in Asia and also became the medium of learning advanced concept and democratic political

system for China. Therefore Japanese words were naturally entered into Chinese through learning from Japan.

Japanese loanwords played a social role more than a linguistic role at that moment. To some extent the borrowing from Japanese was affected by social factors more than linguistic factors.

4.8.2 Linguistic influence

The Japanese loanwords did not only supply a great deal of new concepts, but also provided good thoughts of creating new words, which contributed to the formation of modern Chinese.

4.8.2.1 Trisyllabic neologisms

Although some trisyllabic words had existed before the 19th Century, the trisyllabic neologisms could still be a great innovation in the history of Chinese lexicon. Since the 19th Century, more and more trisyllabic compounds arrived in Chinese from Japanese. At first these compounds had trouble spreading in China, however they paved the way for the acceptance of other trisyllabic compounds later. As there was no incompatibility with trisyllabic words between Japanese and Chinese, this type of loanwords was incorporated well into modern Chinese lexicon. These trisyllabic loanwords appeared in many fields. For instance, in the area of education and study, 物理学 *wuli xue* ‘(study of) physics’; 生物学 *shengwu xue* ‘(study of) biology’; 政治学 *hengzhi xue* ‘(study of) politics’. In the area of military, 预备役 *yubeiyi* ‘supporting troops’; 常备兵 *changbeibing* ‘effective troops’; 后备兵 *houbeibing* ‘second supporting troops’. In the area of daily life, 马铃薯 *malingshu* ‘potato’; 植物园 *zhiwu yuan* ‘botanical garden’. These loans gave an idea of inventing trisyllabic words in modern Chinese. There were an enormous number of neologisms generated later.

The trisyllabic formations usually composed by a disyllabic base and an affix formative. As the increase of trisyllabic words, the affixation became widespread.

4.8.2.2 Affixation

Morphologically, the “base-affix” relation can be considered a sub-category of the more general determining-determined relationship. One of the two elements is degraded to the role of affix, and the syntactic relationship within the word remains that of determining-determined. What changes is the semantic relationship of the word with the whole class of words sharing

either the same suffix or prefix. (Zhao Yuanren. 1968:211) In Chinese, affixes are degraded and turned into a sort of semantic mark repeated in a given class of words. If placed in front of the base, they are prefixes. If placed after, they are suffixes.

Under the influence of Japanese, many affix formatives, especially suffix, contributed to the rapid creation of numerous trisyllabic compounds, which significantly enriched the lexicon of modern Chinese. For example, the suffix formative ‘*xue*’ proved to be extremely productive and used for the names of certain sciences. I have set some examples in the previous paragraph, like 物理学 *wuli xue* ‘(study of) physics’; 生物学 *shengwu xue* ‘(study of) biology’; 政治学 *zhengzhi xue* ‘(study of) politics’. And there are more examples, such as 几何学 *jihe xue* ‘(study of) geometry’; 植物学 *zhiwu xue* ‘(study of) botany’; 动物学 *dongwu xue* ‘zoology’, ‘(study of) animals’; 地质学 *dizhi xue* ‘(study of) geognosy’; 天文学 *tianwen xue* ‘(study of) astronomy’, etc.

Another frequent suffix formative is 机 *ji* ‘machine’. About half the words formed with a base plus 机 *ji* were autochthonous Chinese disyllabic neologisms, such as 飞机 *fei ji* ‘airplane’, 留声机 *liusheng ji* ‘phonograph’, 相机 *xiang ji* ‘camera’. This suffix is still very productive nowadays.

Additionally, some affix formatives with two syllables also fostered the creation of quadrisyllables. For instance, the disyllabic affix formative 主义 *zhuyi* ‘-ism’, was from the Japanese polysyllabic loanwords like 资本主义 *ziben zhuyi* ‘capitalism’, 社会主义 *shehui zhuyi* ‘socialism’, 帝国主义 *diguo zhuyi* ‘imperialism’; the disyllabic affix formative 阶级 *jieji* ‘class’ was from the Japanese polysyllabic loanwords, such as 农民阶级 *nongming jieji* ‘the (class of) peasantry’, 地主阶级 *dizhu jieji* ‘landlord class’, 无产阶级 *wuchan jieji* ‘the (class of) proletariat’. Both of them were proved to be very fruitful later.

Among all types of loanwords entered into modern Chinese, Japanese graphic loans were certainly the most productive. Japanese graphic loans had the greatest impact on the general morphological structure of the Chinese language.

5 The plateau of borrowing

China reached a peak of learning from Japan and borrowing words from Japanese from the Opium War of 1840 to 1920s. However it did not change the situation of that China was still a backward country. The relationship between China and Japan deteriorated since the end of 1920s. The Japanese Kwantung Army plotted an assassination that targeted the warlord in northeast China *Zhang Zuolin* in 1928 to attempt to capture the northeast area of China. In 1931, Japan invaded the Manchuria through the Mukden Incident, also known as the Manchurian Incident. Japan had occupied the northeastern part of China by 1932. In 1937, the Marco Polo Bridge Incident, also known as the *Lugouqiao* Incident happened, which was used as the marker for the start of the Second Sino-Japanese War or the Anti-Japanese War. The hostilities between China and Japan had officially broken out. This war lasted eight years from 1937 to 1945, which brought extremely damaging and painful repercussions to the Chinese people, even today there is still a shadow over the Chinese nation.

Japan was not an example for the Chinese to follow anymore. Because of the war, the Chinese students chose to study in the western countries instead of Japan. The number of translating Japanese books decreased, instead the books translated from the West started to increase. Therefore the language communication between Chinese and Japanese were not as extensive as before. The speed of borrowing Japanese words had slowed down. Especially after the war, under the influence of Cold War, the diplomatic relations between China and Japan were suspended. Thus the situation of word borrowing had reached a plateau.

Nevertheless, there were still some Japanese loanwords entered into Chinese during the Anti-Japanese War. Most of them were the terms related to military and the system of organizations. It might be due to the war, the exchange of military terminologies was enhanced. Some Japanese loanwords can be found in that period, such as 任命 *renming* ‘appoint’, 干部 *ganbu* ‘cadre’, 机关 *jiguan* ‘organ’, 劳动组合 *laodongzuhe* ‘trade union’, 清算 *qingsuan* ‘liquidation’, etc.

Mao Zedong had discussed the word borrowing in his speech at *Yanan* Cadres conference in 1942. He says that “We should absorb the words we need from the foreign languages. We must not transplant the foreign words mechanically or use them indiscriminately. We should assimilate good components to work for us. Since the autochthonous words are not enough, we have absorbed many foreign words into our language. For example, the meeting today is ‘Cadres

conference', the 'cadre' is from foreign country. We should absorb more new things from other countries, not only learn their advanced thoughts, but also borrow their fancy words." (Mao Zedong. 1991: 858-859) 干部 *ganbu* 'Cadre' mentioned by Mao Zedong was a loanword from Japan. *Mao* advocated borrowing words from foreign languages, however there was no particular policies or measures for learning foreign countries as before. Thus only few loanwords entered into Chinese in this period.

In addition, during the wartime, in the Japanese occupied areas such as the northeast area of China, there were many Japanese who were the families of army men living there. They were keeping the Japanese traditional life style and using Japanese language while they were living in China. Moreover the Japanese courses were enforced in schools. Therefore some Japanese words were used by local residents in their daily life. These words still exist in those areas nowadays. The Japanese words have become dialects and highly used by local people, such as *moji*⁹ is a local language in *Dalian* where a city in northeast China means rice cake. In fact *moji* is a phonemic loan from Japanese 餅 *mochi*.

The word borrowing from Japanese entered the plateau since the end of 1920s, however, the language communication between China and Japan has never entirely suspended. Even though there were no specific government policies to support people to learn from Japan or the strong needs of social development, the borrowing still happened naturally. It was involuntary for the linguistic infiltration during this period.

⁹ Since *moji* is a dialect, there are no regular Chinese characters for this word

6 Modern times—1978 after China's reform and opening-up~the present

From the end of 19th century to the beginning of 20th century, it was the formative period of modern Chinese. There were no official standards of modern Chinese at that time. Since the establishment of the People's Republic of China, Chinese linguists formulated an integrated system for modern Chinese. The first edition of 现代汉语词典 *xiandian hanyu cidian* 'Dictionary of Modern Chinese' had been published in 1978 and became the most widely used dictionary in China. The Chinese people started to have more consciousness of their language. Therefore the loanwords are not simply providing new words for advanced knowledge, but become a means to catch up with 'fashion' and 'modern'. The Japanese loanwords presented a different picture in modern times.

6.1 Social background

China introduced economic reform and opening policies since 1978, which made headway in economic and technological development. In the same year, the Treaty of Peace and Friendship between Japan and the People's Republic of China was signed in Beijing, which restored the diplomatic ties after a break of about fifty years. Thus the relation between China and Japan entered into a new era. The economic and cultural exchange between two countries became increasingly close.

The economic growth aroused the spirit of pursuing fashion. The Chinese people started to give their attention to the field of fashion. More and more people, especially young people, would like to spend their time in catching up with fashion. Japan as a country in the leading position of fashion field in Asia became an example again for the Chinese people to follow. There has been an upsurge of 韩流 *hanliu* 'South Korean fad' and 日流 *riliu* 'Japanese fad' in China since 1990s. It promoted the adoption of foreign words. Korean language no longer use Chinese characters in its writing system since 1970, therefore, there are hardly Korean loanwords in Chinese language, only few phonemic loans such as 首尔 *shouer* 'Seoul', *Oba*¹⁰ 'brother, specifically for boyfriend'. However Japanese language has an innate advantage of being adopted into Chinese. The large number of common characters between Chinese and Japanese

¹⁰ Since *Oba* is only used as a buzzword, there is no written form for this word

resulted in a lot of Japanese terms borrowed into Chinese, in particular, those words that represent modern social phenomena and fashionable things.

6.2 Channels of borrowing

As the development of the technology, the channels of adopting foreign words became quite different from the previous periods. The technological revolution also reflected in borrowing words.

6.2.1 Japanese products

Because of the economic reform and opening up, a great number of foreign products are imported into China, especially high technology products and fashion goods, such as cars, electronic products and makeup. Many Chinese people started to worship foreign products, life style and culture. As the most developed country in Asia, Japan became a popular country among Chinese people again. Since Japanese products are known as high quality and good design, a great amount of Chinese people become a big fan of ‘made-in-Japan’ products.

Japanese skin care products and makeup are always popular with Chinese women. As a Chinese young woman, I would like to set Japanese cosmetics and skin care products as an example to present my point of view. First of all, the products made in Japan are called 日系 *rixi* that is a graphic loanword and becomes a common prefix. The Japanese cosmetics are called 日系化妆品 *rixi huazhuangpin*. Since the growing popularity of 日系化妆品 *rixi huazhuangpin* in China, every cosmetic store has a Japanese section. Maybe because keep the Japanese words on the package is good for business, many Japanese words adopted into Chinese through those beauty goods and become widely used by Chinese young ladies. I do not want to mention the brand names, since there is no distinction when it comes to translate foreign brand names. I would rather talk about the names of product types.

The table below shows the names of common cosmetic types (Yang Hongjun. 2009: 30). We can find something very interesting through the table. There are 32 out of 39 names presented by *katakana*, which is a new trend of using *katakana* as phonetic symbols to represent the western terms. There are only 7 names are written by Chinese characters or the combination of Chinese characters and *hiragana*, however, 4 names are partly adopted, and 3 names are entirely adopted. (See the table below)

| Japanese | Chinese | Pinyin | English ¹¹ |
|------------------------------|---------|------------------------------|-----------------------|
| presented by katakana | | | |
| アイクリーム | 眼霜 | <i>yang shuang</i> | Eye cream |
| アイシャドー | 眼影 | <i>yang ying</i> | Eye shadow |
| アイブローペンシル | 眉笔 | <i>mei bi</i> | Eyebrow pencil |
| アイマスク | 眼膜 | <i>yang mo</i> | Eye mask |
| アイライナー | 眼线笔 | <i>yang xian bi</i> | Eyeliner |
| アストリンゼント | 爽肤水 | <i>shuang fu shui</i> | Astringent |
| アフターシェービングローション | 须后水 | <i>xu hou shui</i> | After shaving lotion |
| ボディーローション | 润肤露 | <i>run fu lu</i> | Body lotion |
| エッセンス | 精华液 | <i>jing hua ye</i> | Essence |
| リップグロス | 唇彩 | <i>chun cai</i> | Lip gloss |
| クリーム | 霜 | <i>shuang</i> | Cream |
| クレンジングローション | 卸妆乳液 | <i>xie zhuang ru ye</i> | Cleansing lotion |
| コールドクリーム | 冷霜 | <i>leng shuang</i> | Cold cream |
| コンディショナー | 护发素 | <i>hu fa su</i> | Conditioner |
| シャンプー | 洗发水 | <i>xi fa shui</i> | Shampoo |
| スムージングトナー | 柔肤水 | <i>rou fu shui</i> | Smoothing toner |
| モイスチュアライザー | 保湿液 | <i>bao shi ye</i> | Moisturizer |
| デイクリーム | 日霜 | <i>ri shuang</i> | Day cream |
| チャップスティック | 润唇膏 | <i>run chun gao</i> | Chap stick |
| ナイトクリーム | 晚霜 | <i>wan shuang</i> | Night cream |
| ナリシングクリーム | 营养面霜 | <i>ying yang mian shuang</i> | Nourishing cream |
| マニキュア | 指甲油 | <i>zhi jia you</i> | Manicure |
| ネイルアート | 彩甲 | <i>cai jia</i> | Nail art |

¹¹ The English translations are on the basis of Japanese names.

| | | | |
|-------------------------|------|------------------------|------------------------|
| リンス | 护发素 | <i>hu fa su</i> | Rinse |
| パック | 面膜 | <i>mian mo</i> | Pack |
| バニシングクリーム | 粉底霜 | <i>fen di shuang</i> | Vanishing cream |
| ハンドローション | 护手霜 | <i>hu shou shuang</i> | Hand lotion |
| ファーマーミングローション | 紧肤水 | <i>jin fu shui</i> | Firming lotion |
| ファンデーション | 粉底 | <i>fen di</i> | Foundation |
| フェイシャルスクラブ | 磨砂膏 | <i>mo sha gao</i> | Facial scrub |
| フェイシャルマスク | 面膜 | <i>mian mo</i> | Facial mask |
| マスカラ | 睫毛膏 | <i>jie mao gao</i> | Mascara |
| partly adopted | | | |
| 油取り紙 | 吸油面纸 | <i>xi you mian zhi</i> | Facial blotting pad |
| 日焼け止め乳液 | 防晒乳液 | <i>fang shai ru ye</i> | Sunscreen cream |
| 頬紅 | 腮红 | <i>sai hong</i> | Blusher |
| 洗顔料 | 洗面乳 | <i>xi mian ru</i> | Facial cleansing cream |
| entirely adopted | | | |
| 口紅 | 口红 | <i>kou hong</i> | Lipstick rouge |
| 乳液 | 乳液 | <i>ru ye</i> | Milky lotion |
| 化粧水 | 化妆水 | <i>hua zhuang shui</i> | lotion |

Since 油取り紙 and 日焼け止め乳液 include *hiragara*, it is impossible to borrow them entirely. The Chinese language chose to keep the Chinese characters and translated the rest parts. 油取り in Chinese is 吸油 ‘blotting oil’, 日焼け止め is 防晒 ‘protect from sunburn’. Therefore 油取り紙 is adopted as 吸油面纸 and 日焼け止め乳液 is adopted as 防晒乳液. 頬紅 and 洗顔料 are adopted as 腮红 and 洗面乳. 頬 is changed into 腮, which is in order to meet people’s idiomatic expression. 顔料 is changed into 面乳. It is for avoiding ambiguity, because 顔料 means pigment in Chinese.

There are 3 names entirely borrowed by Chinese. Since the Chinese government has been simplifying Chinese characters since 1950s, the traditional characters are shifted into simplified

characters when they are borrowed into Chinese. Thus 口红 *kou hong*, *hong* is written as 红 in Chinese, while in Japanese it is written as 紅. 化妆水 *huangzhuang shui*, *zhuang* is written as 妆 in Chinese, while in Japanese it is written as 粧.

Thus many graphic loanwords through Japanese products entered into Chinese and became high frequency words in Chinese people's daily life. It is a new borrowing method generated from the economic and culture exchanges with Japan.

6.2.2 Influence from Taiwan and Hong Kong

After the Anti-Japanese War, the diplomatic relation between the People's Republic of China and Japan were severed, however, Taiwan (the Republic of China) and Hong Kong still had the diplomatic relations with Japan due to some historical reasons. In 1895 The Treaty of Shimonoseki between Imperial Japan and the Qing Dynasty was signed. It caused Taiwan to be ceded to Japan. After the success of Anti-Japanese War in 1945, Taiwan was governed by the Republic of China. Since Taiwan was occupied by Japan for 50 years, it kept a good relationship between Taiwan and Japan even after Taiwan was returned to the Republic of China. There were good economic exchanges and trade between Taiwan and Japan. Therefore Taiwan absorbed a great number of Japanese words into Chinese language which was much more than the mainland China.

Hongkong was occupied by the United Kingdom due to the Treaty of Nanking signed in 1842 and transferred to the People's Republic of China in 1997. Hongkong is a capitalist society different from the mainland China. Since its special history and social system, Hongkong has a good connection with Taiwan. When it comes to fashion, there is an interesting trend in East Asia, Taiwan learns from Japan, Hongkong learns from Taiwan, mainland learns from Taiwan and Hongkong. The language borrowing is also along with this route. The Japanese words were not the same as before absorbed into Chinese directly through translating books or learning Japanese language. They were entered via Taiwan and Hongkong into mainland in this period. Especially Taiwan, since the taiwanese entertainment TV programs and soap opera are very popular in mainland, a lot of Japanese terms through Taiwan entered into mainland China. It is a very interesting channel which has never had before.

6.2.3 Mass media

As the development of modern technology, mass media becomes a significant means of international communication. The Japanese entertainment industry is introduced into China through mass media. Japanese manga, computer game, cartoon, soap opera, fashion magazine, entertainment TV show and Japanese celebrities influence the Chinese young generation. The increasingly wide utilization of internet accelerates the Japanese fad sweeps the whole China. As the trend grows, a great number of Japanese words adopted into Chinese. Because of the way the Japanese words entered, most of them exist as a buzzword in Chinese language. For instance, 干物女 *ganwunü*, literally ‘dried fish woman’, is to describe a woman who spends so much time at home that becomes dry, just like a dried fish, but also enjoys her single life. This word entered Chinese and became a buzzword through a popular Japanese soap opera 蛍の光 *hotaru no hikari*. It does not only cause 干物女 *ganwunü* to become a popular term, but also the style of the chief actress’s clothes is popular for a time. 败犬 *baiquan*, ‘an underdog, a participant in a fight, conflict, or game who is not expected to win’ is used to describe a woman who is in her 30s without getting married like a beaten dog. This Japanese loanword came from a Taiwanese soap opera called 败犬女王 *baiquan nüwang*. Since this soap opera exposed this new social phenomenon and expressed the confusion of women in modern times successfully, 败犬 *baiquan* became a very popular term for a time.

6.3 Classifications of Japanese loanwords

In order to analyse the characteristics of Japanese loanwords in modern times, I would like to classify the Japanese loans I have collected first.

6.3.1 Introduction of data source

As I have analysed in the last chapter, most Japanese loanwords in modern times are adopted through popular products or fashion trend instead of serious works. There has not been a dictionary of Japanese loanwords in modern times or an academic writing about the definitions of Japanese loanwords in modern times. Therefore I collected Japanese loans from academic papers as my data source for this paper.

I chose 14 papers¹² concerning Japanese loanwords in Chinese language in modern times through *China Academic Journals Full-text Database*. I selected 117 Japanese loanwords that were set as examples in these papers. Thus the 117 words I have picked are generally considered as Japanese loans. Additionally, the 14 papers were published during the last 10 years and the examples set in the papers are also quite new Japanese loans that entered into Chinese the last decade.

6.3.2 Classes of Japanese loanwords

The classes I divided are similar to the classification of the period from the 1840 Opium War to 1920s before the Anti-Japanese War. Since the times have been changed dramatically, I also made a little change in my classification.

I divided the 117 Japanese loanwords into four classes: 1. Daily life terms 2. Societal terms 3. Terminologies 4. ACG terms, which is the shortened form for “Animation, Comic, Game” 1. Daily life terms are the terms people use in their everyday life, such as 料理 *liaoli* ‘cooked dishes’ and the articles for daily use, such as 自动贩卖机 *zidong fanmai ji* ‘automatic vending machine’. It is a graphic borrowing written as 自动贩卖机 in Chinese and 自動販売機 in Japanese. The difference is the former is written in simplified Chinese, while in Japanese it is written in traditional Chinese. 2. Societal terms are the social phenomena, especially those that appeared in Japan first and then also arise in China. For example, 过劳死 *guolaosi* means ‘death from overwork’, which is a typical Japanese social phenomenon. Nowadays, there are more and more Chinese people who are working in the office died because of overworking. Due to this new social phenomenon, Chinese borrowed Japanese word 過勞死 to describe this new social issue and read it in Chinese pronunciation. Societal terms also include some concepts relate to social system, such as 公务员 *gongwuyuan* ‘civil servant’. 3. Terminologies are the terms for social science and natural science. 4. ACG terms are the terms which are mainly used in the field of ACG. ACG is an acronym for “Animation, Comic, Game”. As Japan is the leader of ACG in the world, many Japanese ACG terms entered into China. Due to these loans are “jargon” and the primary customer are young people, ACG terms are limited to the professional players in China. Thus the ACG terms are different from other Japanese loans which are able to be

¹² Zhang guangpin, 2004. Huang Yunxia, 2007. Wang Jingjing, 2010. Huang Aimin, 2010. Xu Juan, 2010. Li Yu, 2010. Yang Qingfu, 2011. Li Lin, 2012. Liu Hongyan, 2012. Huang Yueyu, 2012. Wang Shasha, 2013. Wang Fang, 2013. Chen Lili, 2013. Li Jianhui, 2013.

understood by the characters. ACG terms are difficult for the nonprofessional to recognize, such as 耽美 *danmei* ‘tanbi, boy’s love’ and 百合 *baihe* ‘lily, girl’s love’. However many daily life terms are also derived from ACG terms since some ACG terms have an extensive popularity among the public, such as 正太 *zhengtai* and 萝莉 *luoli*, which are used to describe ‘cute little boys and girls’ in China. 正太 *zhengtai* is originated from the Japanese manga 鉄人28号 *tetsujin 28 gou*. The major character is called 金田正太郎 *kaneda syootarou* who is a 12 years old cute boy. Therefore 正太 *zhengtai* is derived from the name of major character *syootarou*, means ‘little lovely boy’. 萝莉 *luoli* is the opposite of 正太 *zhengtai*, means ‘little lovely girl’. It is derived from an American novel *Lolita* and then developed into a subculture in Japan.

It is the data source below:

| No. | Chinese(P/G/L ¹³) | Pinyin | English | Japanese |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------|
| 1. Daily life terms | | | | |
| 1 | 沙扬娜拉(P) | <i>shayangnala</i> | Goodbye | さようなら |
| 2 | 欧巴桑(P) | <i>oubasang</i> | Old lady | おばさん |
| 3 | 欧吉桑(P) | <i>oujisang</i> | Old guy | おじさん |
| 4 | 卡哇伊(P) | <i>kawayi</i> | Cute | かわいい |
| 5 | 赛高(P) | <i>saigao</i> | Excellent | さいこう |
| 6 | 麻吉(P) | <i>maji</i> | Really | まじ |
| 7 | 达人(G) | <i>daren</i> | Veteran | 達人 |
| 8 | 萌(G) | <i>meng</i> | Lovable | 萌え |
| 9 | 萝莉(P) | <i>luoli</i> | Cute little girl | ロリ |
| 10 | 正太(G) | <i>zhengtai</i> | Cute little boy | 正太 |
| 11 | 御姐(G) | <i>yujie</i> | Mature woman | お姉 |
| 12 | 暴走(G) | <i>baozou</i> | Go ballistic | 暴走 |
| 13 | 女优(G) | <i>nüyou</i> | Actress | 女優 |
| 14 | 攻略(G) | <i>gonglue</i> | Strategy | 攻略 |
| 15 | 宅男(G) | <i>zhainan</i> | Guy who is obsessed with ACG | お宅 |

¹³ P=phonemic loans; G=graphic loans; L=letter including loans

| | | | | |
|----|----------|-----------------------|---|-------|
| 16 | 写真(G) | <i>xiezhen</i> | Photograph | 写真 |
| 17 | 日系(G) | <i>rixi</i> | Japanese style | 日系 |
| 18 | 赏味期限(G) | <i>shangweiqixian</i> | Quality guarantee period | 賞味期限 |
| 19 | 鬼畜(G) | <i>guichu</i> | Beast | 鬼と畜生 |
| 20 | 素人(G) | <i>suren</i> | Amateur | 素人 |
| 21 | 素颜(G) | <i>suyan</i> | Face without makeup | 素顔 |
| 22 | 物语(G) | <i>wuyu</i> | Story | 物語り |
| 23 | 自动贩卖机(G) | <i>zidongfanmai</i> | Vending machine | 自動販売機 |
| 24 | 百合(G) | <i>baihe</i> | Lily, girls' love | 百合 |
| 25 | 痴汉(G) | <i>chihan</i> | Guy who sexually harass women | 痴漢 |
| 26 | 最高(G) | <i>zuigao</i> | Great | 最高 |
| 27 | 最低(G) | <i>zuidi</i> | Lousy | 最低 |
| 28 | 腹黑(G) | <i>fuhei</i> | Black hearted | 腹黒い |
| 29 | 美肌(G) | <i>meiji</i> | Beautiful skin | 美肌 |
| 30 | 残念(G) | <i>cannian</i> | Feel sorry | 残念 |
| 31 | 幼齿(G) | <i>youchi</i> | Naive | 幼稚 |
| 32 | 王道(G) | <i>wangdao</i> | Kingly way | 王道 |
| 33 | 元气(G) | <i>yuanqi</i> | Energetic | 元気 |
| 34 | 恶趣味(G) | <i>equewei</i> | Peculiarity | 悪趣味 |
| 35 | 草食男(G) | <i>caoshinan</i> | Gentle man with no motivation to chase girls | 食草男 |
| 36 | 亲子(G) | <i>qinzi</i> | Parents and kids | 親子 |
| 37 | 雷到(G) | <i>leidao</i> | Shocking | 雷 |
| 38 | 漫画(G) | <i>manhua</i> | Manga | 漫画 |
| 39 | 居酒屋(G) | <i>jujiuwu</i> | Pub | 居酒屋 |
| 40 | 攻受(G) | <i>gongshou</i> | SM | 攻め、受け |
| 41 | 完胜(G) | <i>wansheng</i> | Win a perfect victory | 完勝 |
| 42 | 入手(G) | <i>rushou</i> | Gain | 入手 |

| | | | | |
|----|--------|---------------------|---|-------|
| 43 | 新登场(G) | <i>xindengchang</i> | New arrivals | 新登場 |
| 44 | 便当(G) | <i>biandang</i> | Lunch box | 弁当 |
| 45 | 料理(G) | <i>liaoli</i> | Dish | 料理 |
| 46 | 乌冬面(G) | <i>wudongmian</i> | Udon, thick wheat flour noodles | 烏丼 |
| 47 | 手打面(G) | <i>shoudamian</i> | Handmade noodle | 手打ち |
| 48 | 天妇罗(G) | <i>tianluofu</i> | Tempura | 天麩羅 |
| 49 | 味噌汤(G) | <i>weizengtang</i> | Miso soup | 味噌汁 |
| 50 | 豚骨面(G) | <i>tungumian</i> | Pig bone noodle soup | 豚骨 |
| 51 | 寿司(G) | <i>shousi</i> | Sushi | 寿司 |
| 52 | 唐扬鸡(G) | <i>tangyangji</i> | Fried chicken | 唐揚げ鳥 |
| 53 | 照烧鸡(G) | <i>zhaoshaoji</i> | Teriyaki chicken | 照り焼き鳥 |
| 54 | 刺身(G) | <i>cishen</i> | Sashimi | 刺身 |
| 55 | 铜锣烧(G) | <i>tongluobing</i> | Dorayaki, pancake | 銅羅焼き |
| 56 | 醇熟(G) | <i>chunshu</i> | A special way of fermenting flour | 醇熟 |
| 57 | 抹茶(G) | <i>mocha</i> | Matcha, powdered green tea | 抹茶 |
| 58 | 烧(G) | <i>shao</i> | Roust cookies | 焼き |
| 59 | 仙贝(P) | <i>xianbei</i> | Rice cracker | 煎餅 |
| 60 | 果子(G) | <i>guozi</i> | Snack | 菓子 |
| 61 | 熟女(G) | <i>shunü</i> | mature woman | 熟女 |
| 62 | 腐女(G) | <i>funü</i> | woman who loves boy's love | 腐り女 |
| 63 | 森女(G) | <i>sennü</i> | woman loves nature without pursuing material wealth | 森女 |
| 64 | 历女(G) | <i>linü</i> | woman who likes history | 歴女 |
| 65 | 宅女(G) | <i>zhainü</i> | woman who enjoys staying at home | お宅 |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------|---------|------------------|--|---------|
| 66 | 魔女(G) | <i>monü</i> | woman who is like a witch in both good and bad way | 魔女 |
| 67 | 肉食女(G) | <i>roushinü</i> | woman who has strong personality | 肉食女 |
| 68 | 干物女(G) | <i>ganwunü</i> | woman who does not love dating like a dried fish | 干し物女 |
| 69 | 敗犬女(G) | <i>baiquannü</i> | woman who cannot get married like a beaten dog | 敗犬女 |
| 70 | 控(P) | <i>kong</i> | Complex, be obsessed with something | コンプレックス |
| 71 | 系(G) | <i>xi</i> | Style | 系 |
| 72 | 族(G) | <i>zu</i> | Group | 族 |
| 73 | 女(G) | <i>nü</i> | Woman | 女 |
| 74 | 男(G) | <i>nan</i> | Man | 男 |
| 75 | 娘(G) | <i>niang</i> | Girl | 娘 |
| 76 | 屋(G) | <i>wu</i> | Store | 屋 |
| 77 | 准(G) | <i>zhun</i> | Going to be | 準 |
| 78 | 腐(G) | <i>fu</i> | Rotten | 腐り |
| 79 | 爆(G) | <i>bao</i> | Explode | 爆 |
| 80 | 中(G) | <i>zhong</i> | In the middle of something | 中 |
| 81 | 超(G) | <i>chao</i> | Super | 超 |
| 82 | 卡拉ok(L) | <i>kalaoukei</i> | Karaoke | カラオケ |
| 2. Societal terms | | | | |
| 83 | 尼特族(P) | <i>nitezu</i> | NEET, not currently engaged in employment, education or training | ニート族 |
| 84 | 援交(G) | <i>yuanjiao</i> | Compensated dating | 援交 |
| 85 | 婚活(G) | <i>hunhuo</i> | an activity of hunting a life partner | 婚活 |

| | | | | |
|-----|--------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----|
| 86 | 少子化(G) | <i>shaozihua</i> | Low birth rate | 少子化 |
| 87 | 人气(G) | <i>renqi</i> | Popular | 人気 |
| 88 | 暴走族(G) | <i>baouzouzu</i> | Motorcycle gang | 暴走族 |
| 89 | 过劳死(G) | <i>guolaozi</i> | Death from overwork | 過労死 |
| 90 | 量贩(G) | <i>liangfan</i> | Mass sales | 量販 |
| 91 | 职场(G) | <i>zhichang</i> | Workplace | 職場 |
| 92 | 研修(G) | <i>yanxiu</i> | Training | 研修 |
| 93 | 卖场(G) | <i>maichang</i> | Store, shopping place | 売り場 |
| 94 | 就职(G) | <i>jiuzhi</i> | Start to be in employment | 就職 |
| 95 | 店长(G) | <i>dianzhang</i> | Store manager | 店長 |
| 96 | 车掌(G) | <i>chezhang</i> | Conductor | 車掌 |
| 97 | 部长(G) | <i>buzhang</i> | Manager | 部長 |
| 98 | 公务员(G) | <i>gongwuyuan</i> | Civil servant | 公務員 |
| 99 | 新干线(G) | <i>xinganxian</i> | Bullet train | 新幹線 |
| 100 | 宅急送(G) | <i>zhaijisong</i> | Delivery service | 宅急便 |

3. Terminologies

4. ACG terms

| | | | | |
|-----|--------|---------------------|--|------|
| 101 | 捏他(P) | <i>nieta</i> | plot | ネタ |
| 102 | 杀必死(P) | <i>shabisi</i> | fan service | サービス |
| 103 | 同人(G) | <i>tongren</i> | Creating freely without commercial purpose | 同人 |
| 104 | 耽美(G) | <i>danmei</i> | Boy's love | 耽美 |
| 105 | 白目(G) | <i>baimu</i> | White eye | 白目 |
| 106 | 石化(G) | <i>shihua</i> | Petrification | 石化 |
| 107 | 中二病(G) | <i>zhongerbing</i> | People are self-righteous in their adolescence | 中二病 |
| 108 | 本命(G) | <i>benming</i> | Favorite | 本命 |
| 109 | 眼镜娘(G) | <i>yanjingniang</i> | Girl who wears glasses | 眼鏡娘 |
| 110 | 兄贵(G) | <i>xionggui</i> | Big brother | 兄貴 |

| | | | | |
|-----|---------|---------------|------------------|-----|
| 111 | 次元(G) | <i>ciyuan</i> | Dimension | 次元 |
| 112 | 傲娇(G) | <i>aojiao</i> | Arrogance | 傲り |
| 113 | kuso(L) | <i>kuso</i> | Shit | クソ |
| 114 | H(L) | <i>h</i> | Pervert | H |
| 115 | BL(L) | <i>bl</i> | Boy's love | BL |
| 116 | BGM(L) | <i>bgm</i> | Background music | BGM |
| 117 | orz(L) | <i>orz</i> | Kneeling to beg | orz |

6.3.3 Data analysis

According to the table I made above, it is easy to find out some characteristics which are different from the previous period.

The table below is the details of every class of Japanese loanwords in modern times.

| | Total | Phonemic Loans | Graphic Loans | Letter Including Loans |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Daily life terms | 82 [70.1%] | 9 | 72 | 1 |
| 2. Societal terms | 18 [15.4%] | 1 | 17 | 0 |
| 3. Terminologies | 0 [0%] | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. ACG terms | 17 [14.5%] | 2 | 10 | 5 |
| Total | 117 | 12 [10.3%] | 99 [84.6%] | 6 [5.1%] |

6.3.3.1 A great number of daily life terms

It is very clear that the most Japanese loans are in class 1. Daily life terms, the proportion is almost 70.1%. The proportion of Japanese loans in class 2. Societal terms and class 4. ACG terms are both around 15%. However there is no any loanword belongs to class 3. Terminologies.

It is quite opposite to the period from 1840 to 1920s. In the previous period, the terminologies had the highest proportion 63.8%, while the proportion of daily life terms was only 8.8%. It indicates that the Japanese loanwords are not used to spread the advanced science or technology anymore in modern times, instead, they are borrowed for expressing the modern culture, fashion and novelties. The Japanese loanwords do not appear in scientific or political books as the previous period. They appear in advertisements, entertainments and magazines. Daily life terms become the main component in Japanese loans in this period. The Japanese loans have entered into Chinese ordinary people's daily life already in modern times through the needs of modern society.

Besides the needs of modern society, the linguistic factor is the other reason for the low proportion of Japanese loans in terminologies. The Japanese language has used *katakana* as phonetic symbols to represent the western terms instead of Chinese characters, when the Japanese people introduce the western scientific and technical terms. In modern Japanese, almost all the loanwords from the western languages are phonemic loans written in *katakana*. As the Chinese characters lost the function of representing the western terms in Japanese language, the Japanese terms that came from the western languages also lost the superiority to enter into Chinese language. The terminologies invented by the West are no longer adopted into Chinese via Japanese. The Chinese language started to translate terminologies from western languages directly.

6.3.3.2 High rates of social phenomena in societal terms

There are 7 out of 18 loanwords in class of societal terms represent social phenomena in modern times, which are 尼特族 *nitezū*, 援交 *yuanjiao*, 婚活 *hunhuo*, 人气 *renqi*, 少子化 *shaozihua*, 暴走族 *baouzouzu*, 过劳死 *guolaosi*. Since Japan is a leading country in economics and culture in Asia, many new social phenomena happened in Japan preceded China. With the development of China, the same phenomena appeared in Chinese society as well. Moreover there are 6 out of these 7 words are graphic loans. Since these phenomena have already had Japanese names, it is very convenient to adopt for meeting new social needs in China as long as they are written in Chinese characters.

In addition as the development of modern means of communication, such as internet, it becomes possible to learn the latest information of foreign countries. With the spread of information, the foreign words are also adopted into the host language.

6.3.3.3 A small amount of phonemic loans

There are only 12 phonemic loans collected in this data source. The phonemic loans still remains a very low proportion as usual, which is about 10.3%. However the difference from before is they are not in order to cover the gap of Chinese lexicon, but to diversify the modern Chinese vocabulary. For instance, 沙扬娜拉 *shayangnala* is from the Japanese word *sayounara* さようなら, means ‘goodbye’. This loanword is famous for a well-known poem called 沙扬娜拉 *shayangnala* written by a Chinese poet *Xu Zhimo*. Since this poem romantically describes a scene of leaving a Japanese girl met by chance, 沙扬娜拉 *shayangnala* sounds much more beautiful and romantic than the Chinese native word 再见 *zaijian* ‘goodbye’ for Chinese people. 卡哇伊 *kawayi* is from the Japanese word 可愛い *kawaii*, means ‘cute’, ‘lovely’. There is a Chinese native word for cute called 可爱 *keai* that contains the same Chinese characters as the Japanese word 可愛い *kawaii*. However Chinese young people, especially young girls tend to use 卡哇伊 *kawayi* instead of Chinese native word 可爱 *keai*. It may be because when the girl uses this Japanese loanword *kawayi* to express something, the listeners would think this girl is also 卡哇伊 *kawayi*.

There is only one word 尼特族 *nite zu* hardly used today, and replaced by 啃老族 *kenlao zu* which is partly translated from its original meaning. 尼特族 *nite zu* is from a Japanese word ニート族 *niito zoku*, which originated from an English word ‘NEET’ short for ‘Not currently engaged in Employment, Education or Training’. The Japanese adopt this English word *neet*, and represent it in *katakana* ニート and add a suffix 族 *zoku* ‘a group of people’. Since 尼特族 *nite zu* is a Japanese loanword translated from western language, it is difficult for Chinese people to understand the meaning from the characters composed the word. Now 尼特族 *nite zu* is replaced by a word meaning-translation 啃老族 *kenlao zu*, which is literally means ‘a group of young people bites elders’. It shows that the graphic loans are still the main way of borrowing Japanese words and also accepted best by the Chinese people in modern times.

Japanese phonemic loans give a exotic and fashionable feeling to both speakers and listeners. However the Chinese language is logogram. Thus phonemic loans are never the preferred choice when it comes to borrow word all the time.

6.3.3.4 The appearance of terms with alphabets

In this period, there is a new feature of Japanese loanwords, which is the terms include alphabets. There are 6 Japanese loans containing English letters. One belongs to class 1. daily life terms, which is 卡拉ok *kalaok* ‘karaoke’. 卡拉ok *kalaok* is from the Japanese word カラオケ *karaoke*. It can also be considered as a phonemic loan, which is partly represented by Chinese characters and partly by English letters. The other 5 Japanese loans all belong to class 4. ACG, such as *kuso*¹⁴ ‘shit’, *H* is a short form of a Japanese word 変態 *hentai* ‘pervert’ and *orz*. *Orz* represents a little person kneeling, bowing, or comically falling over. It is usually used as a posture emoticon when people chat online.

Although these alphabets containing loanwords are not as popular as other Japanese loans, have a small amount and limited to the specific group of people, the appearance of alphabetic loans shows that the rules of borrowing words in China have already become more open and freer. The acceptability for the public and the amusing function are becoming important elements in the field of word borrowing.

6.3.3.5 A variety of part of speech

According to the table below, it is clear that nouns are still superior in numbers as usual, the proportion is about 73.5%. However other parts of speech all have changed more or less comparing with the previous period of 1840-1920s. The number of verbs reduced from 17.7% to 9.4%, while the amount of adjective increased from only 2.6% to 14.5%. The reason for this change may concern the function of Japanese loanwords. In the previous period, Japanese loans were used to spread advanced thoughts and modern science. Since adjectives are not good for spreading knowledge, they were hardly adopted into Chinese language. However in modern times, Japanese loans are used to express the feeling of fashion and modern. They are not the tool for civilizing Chinese society anymore. Thus more adjectives entered into Chinese language to make expressions fashionable and exotic.

It is noteworthy that there are 3 verb-affixes in Japanese loans, which did not appear in the previous period. 爆 *bao* and 超 *chao* literally means to ‘explode’ and ‘super’ respectively. They are used as prefix in both Chinese and Japanese, mean ‘very’, ‘super’. For example, 爆睡 *baoshui* ‘sleep for a long time deeply’, 爆笑 *baoxiao* ‘burst into laughter’, 超开心 *chaokaixin* ‘super happy’ and 超好吃 *chaohaochi* ‘super delicious’. These 爆 *bao* and 超 *chao* beginning

¹⁴ *Kuso* is borrowed as *kuso*, there is no Chinese characters to represent this word

words are considered as buzzwords with good sense of humor and rapidly spread out among Chinese young people.

The other verb-affix is 中 *zhong* means ‘in the middle of something’ used as a suffix. For instance, 营业中 *yingyeyzhong* ‘opening’, 准备中 *zhunbeizhong* ‘preparing’ and 上课中 *shangkezhong* ‘during the class’. This expression is similar with present progressive tense in English. Since there was no this expression for present progressive in Chinese language, the native expression is a phrase 正在... *zhengzai...* ‘in the middle of something’, which is a expression more complicated to use than the Japanese loan 中 *zhong*. However 中 *zhong* used to present in the middle of some situation in classical Chinese. (Li Chanting. 2006:130) Because of the connection with its old meaning, when 中 *zhong* came back again through Japanese, it is easier for Chinese people to accept.

The increase of adjectives and the appearance of verb-affix in Japanese loanwords show that the function of Japanese loans tends to be entertaining and convenient for use in modern times. When the neologisms that are more amusing and easier to use appear, people incline towards these kinds of words whether they are “homemade” or not.

| | noun | verb | adjective | verb-affix |
|------------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|
| 1. Daily life terms | 55 | 8 | 16 | 3 |
| 2. Societal terms | 16 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 3. Terminologies | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4. ACG | 15 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Total | 86 [73.5%] | 11 [9.4%] | 17 [14.5%] | 3 [2.6%] |

6.4 Characteristics of Japanese loanwords

6.4.1 The nonuniqueness

I have analyzed that the Japanese loans tended to be unique in the previous period, since they were borrowed for presenting new concepts as the supplements for the lack of Chinese lexicon. However in modern times, Japanese loanwords lost their uniqueness in Chinese language. Since modern Chinese has already had its own system to create new terms for the new concepts, especially for the concepts from the western countries. Besides, Japanese language is using *katakana* as phonetic symbols to represent the western terms instead of Chinese characters. As the Chinese characters lost its position in the field of translating the western words in Japanese, the Japanese words are not the best alternative for Chinese when it comes to western terms.

If I look through the 117 Japanese loanwords in my data source, most loans can be found an equivalent expression in Chinese existing lexicon. Only something that are indigenous to Japan cannot be replaced by Chinese native terms, such as some traditional Japanese food *sushi*, something invented by Japan *karaoke* and some ACG words *orz*.

6.4.2 The function of showing fashion and entertainment

The Japanese loanwords have lost their uniqueness in Chinese, in other words, the Japanese loans become one of the options when people choose a word to express their sentiments. Therefore the function of Japanese loans for showing meanings reduced, while the function for expressing personal emotions enhanced.

People use Japanese loans to show they have good sense of ‘modern’, ‘fashion’ rather than to represent the object itself. For example, 败犬 *baiquan*, a Japanese loanword I have mentioned before, compares a woman to a beaten dog since she cannot get married over her thirty years old. Although 败犬 *baiquan* does not sound nice literally, this loanword is better known by its connotative meaning which is a woman who is beautiful, well-educated and independent. Therefore when a Chinese woman is commented by 败犬 *baiquan*, it does not mean she is not good enough to get married, but she is so fabulous that it is difficult to find an excellent man to marry. Contrarily, if people use the native Chinese word 嫁不出去 *jia bu chu qu* ‘cannot get married’, which is the same meaning as 败犬 *baiquan*, to describe the women in the same situation, it gives the image of a woman who is not so good as to be wanted by man.

When some native words are unkind to use or hear, Japanese loanwords provide a better choice. For instance, 欧巴桑 *oubasang* is a phonemic loan from a Japanese word おばさん *obasan*, which means ‘a middle aged lady’ in Japanese. However this loanword is used to describe a middle aged lady who is a gossip and annoying. There are many native words in Chinese language to describe this kind of ladies, but none of them are nice to speak or hear. However the loanword 欧巴桑 *oubasang* cannot arouse the negative images badly. It makes the user express his or her emotion without feeling himself or herself using a strong word.

Japanese loanwords bring the new image on the same thing and person. Moreover the image is usually positive, veiled and fashionable. They give the Chinese lexicon fresh ingredient and energy, meanwhile they also give Chinese people more choices to express their emotions. The Japanese loanwords make the Chinese language has more fun to use.

6.4.3 High frequency used among young people

In modern times, the Japanese loanwords are mainly used by Chinese young people. As I have analyzed the channels of borrowing in modern times last chapter, the Japanese loanwords were adopted through modern ways, such as internet, TV entertainment and fashionable products instead of serious works. Therefore the Chinese young people stand in a forward position and have more exposure to the Japanese loanwords. Thus Chinese young people play a very important part in spreading Japanese loanwords.

On the other hand, since the young people are the main consumer and audience of these modern products, ACG and TV entertainments, the manufacturers, ACG developers and entertainment makers use these loans frequently to catch young people’s eyes. Through this interaction, the Japanese loanwords become more and more popular among young people.

However it causes the Japanese loanwords have limitations in modern times. Most elder people have no idea what these loanwords mean. I did a small survey to see the elder people’s knowledge of loanwords. I selected 10 of the most popular Japanese loanwords (see the table below) and 20 Chinese people. The 20 people work in the office for big companies or Chinese government without understanding Japanese. 12 are women and 8 are men. All of them are above 50 years old. There was no one could recognize all the words. Most people know three or four words. There was only one person recognized eight words, but she does not use them in her

talks at all. According to this result, it indicates that the Japanese loanwords in modern times are popular and being used by ordinary people, however they are limited to young people.

| No. | Chinese | Pin yin | English |
|-----|---------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1 | 萌 | <i>meng</i> | Lovable |
| 2 | 腹黑 | <i>fuhei</i> | Black-hearted |
| 3 | 素颜 | <i>suyan</i> | Face without makup |
| 4 | 入手 | <i>rushou</i> | Get |
| 5 | 败犬 | <i>baiquan</i> | Unwaited woman |
| 6 | 御姐 | <i>yujie</i> | Mature woman |
| 7 | 正太 | <i>zhengtai</i> | Cute boy |
| 8 | 萝莉 | <i>luoli</i> | Lovely girl |
| 9 | 卡哇伊 | <i>lawayi</i> | Cute |
| 10 | 干物女 | <i>ganwunii</i> | Dried fish woman |

6.4.4 Oral communication language

The Japanese loanwords in modern times are mainly used for oral communication, since they usually do not have denotative meaning or connotative meaning. People can easily guess the meaning from the characters that compose the word. These loans are able to be simply used in casual talks or used alone, such as 卡哇伊 *kawayi*! ‘Cute!’, 入手 *rushou* ‘Got it’.

Due to these features, the Japanese loanwords are mainly used for oral communication and some informal articles, such as entertainment news on the internet and fashion magazines. However they never appear on academic, intellectual or public writings. It is difficult to find their reference, since these loans are too new to be compiled in a dictionary. Thus it is easy to broaden their meanings and use indiscriminately. Some schools even warn their students not to use those words in their exams, which is reported in a Chinese local newspaper just before the college entrance examination.

6.4.5 Lack of stability

Most Japanese loans exist in Chinese language as buzzwords, therefore they do not have the function of introducing scientific concepts or advanced thoughts as they had before. The function

of Japanese loanwords is more to give people a fashionable feeling to catch people's eyes today. Because of this function, the Japanese loanwords would fall into disuse, when the fashion trend changes. Moreover most loanwords are still in the process of developing, therefore it is difficult to standardize them. Even though there are many neologism dictionaries published in China nowadays, some loanwords are too instable to be compiled in. Even those that appear as entries in a dictionary may have not been used anymore.

6.5 Influences on intake of Japanese loanwords

Since the appearance of loanwords is always for meeting the needs of the development of society and the language itself, the selection of loanwords are influenced by both social and linguistic factors. Meanwhile the recipient society and language are also influenced by the loanwords.

6.5.1 Social influence

As I have discussed in the last chapter, the Japanese loanwords have the function of showing fashion and amusement in modern times. Some loanwords give the positive impressions to something that used to have negative images, and even change people's attitude to those things.

There are 9 loanwords end in 女 *nü* 'woman' in the data source (see the table below), such as 干物女 *ganwunü* 'a woman like a dried fish' and 败犬女 *baiquannü* 'a woman like an underdog'. Both of them describe those women who are in their marriageable age without having a boyfriend or marriage. From the Chinese traditional point of view, those women may have some shortcomings or are not good enough to get married. This can be found in many Chinese native expressions, such as 嫁不出去 *jiabuchiqu* 'cannot be married' or 剩女 *shengnü* 'unwanted woman'. Even though the Japanese loanwords describe the same kind of women as the Chinese native words do, the loans more convey the information of those women choose not to get married and enjoy their single life very much. Thus this kind of expressions changes traditional ideas and gives people new thought about single women.

| No. | Chinese | Pin yin | English |
|-----|---------|------------------|---|
| 1 | 熟女 | <i>shunü</i> | mature woman |
| 2 | 腐女 | <i>funü</i> | woman who loves boy's love |
| 3 | 森女 | <i>sennü</i> | woman loves nature without pursuing material wealth |
| 4 | 历女 | <i>linü</i> | woman who likes history |
| 5 | 宅女 | <i>zhainü</i> | woman who enjoys staying at home |
| 6 | 魔女 | <i>monü</i> | woman who is like a witch in both good and bad way |
| 7 | 肉食女 | <i>roushinü</i> | woman who has strong personality |
| 8 | 干物女 | <i>ganwunü</i> | woman who does not love dating like a dried fish |
| 9 | 败犬女 | <i>baiquannü</i> | woman who cannot get married like a beaten dog |

Additionally, from these 9 女 *nü*-ending loanwords, we can also find the Chinese society starts to pay more attention to women. The social status of women has increased remarkably.

6.5.2 Linguistic influence

Along with the Japanese loanwords, a number of affixes entered into Chinese language, which is the same as the previous period. Those affixes prove to be very fruitful in Chinese. In old times, the affixes were used to be in a very academic way, such as 学 *xue*, it is used to name certain sciences like 物理学 *wuli xue*, '(study of) physics'; 主义 *zhuyi* '-ism', it is used to define political systems like 资本主义 *ziben zhuyi* 'capitalism'. However in modern times, the affixes tend to be used for describing ordinary people with the same hobby or feature.

There are 12 affixes in the data source. 3 are verb affixes, I have mentioned before, and 9 are normal affixes. (see the table below) There are 6 out of 9 used on people. For instance, 男 *nan* 'man' and 女 *nü* 'woman' are suffixes from Japanese word 男 *otoko/nan* and 女 *onna/jyou*. There are a great number of neologisms composed of them. I searched by *baidu* which is the biggest search engine in China and found 43 *nan*-ending neologisms and 45 *nü*-ending neologisms, such as 理科男 *likenan* 'science man' describes a man who studies science is not romantic or humorous; 拜金女 *baijinnü* 'material girl' means a girl who worships money.

| No. | Chinese | Pin yin | English |
|--|---------|--------------|-------------|
| normal affixes-be used on people | | | |
| 1 | 控 | <i>kong</i> | complex |
| 2 | 腐 | <i>fu</i> | rotten |
| 3 | 族 | <i>zu</i> | group |
| 4 | 女 | <i>nü</i> | woman |
| 5 | 男 | <i>nan</i> | man |
| 6 | 娘 | <i>niang</i> | girl |
| normal affixes-do not be used on people | | | |
| 7 | 屋 | <i>wu</i> | store |
| 8 | 准 | <i>zhun</i> | going to be |
| 9 | 系 | <i>xi</i> | style |

These affixes can simply create new terms. They are different from old times when the terms with loan affixes usually made by intellectuals for the academic definitions. However in modern times, the flexibility of loan affixes enables them to adapt easily to the structure of Chinese language and meet current trends and needs of both society and individuals. The individuals can easily build new terms with the affixes to express their own sentiment. The Japanese loan affixes infuse energy into Chinese language and make everybody be a creator of neologisms.

In modern times, the graphic loans are still the main method of borrowing words from Japanese and the nouns still have the highest proportion in Japanese loans, which do not changed from the old times. Nevertheless the Japanese loanwords are more used to show the atmosphere of modern and fashion nowadays. The function of Japanese loans is for pleasant more than for filling the gap in Chinese lexicon. The most Japanese loans are daily use terms and popular among young people, since they are easy to understand and use in conversations. Especially the affixes entered along with Japanese loans give Chinese people a new idea of building words and make Chinese language more energetic and entertaining.

7 Conclusion

In general, there are two factors affect loanwords, which are linguistic factor and social factor. Meanwhile the loanwords also influence the host language and society. Therefore the intakes of Japanese loanwords are affected by both Chinese language and society. At the same time the Chinese language and society are also influenced by Japanese loanwords.

7.1 Linguistic factor in Japanese loanwords

There are a lot of common Chinese characters between Chinese and Japanese. Moreover Chinese characters are logogram, therefore the meaning of characters is very stable even the pronunciations are different in two languages. Since Chinese characters as a significant linguistic factor play a very important role in borrowing words from Japanese into Chinese, the main method of borrowing Japanese words is graphic loans.

In the period of 1840~1920s, Japanese translated a great number of words which are from western languages by using Chinese characters. Because of the common Chinese characters, these Japanese terms were introduced into Chinese language later. It shortened the time and reduced the difficulties of translating western terms into Chinese language.

In modern times, Japanese use its own writing system *katakana* to present western terms instead of Chinese characters. Chinese characters has already lost the superiority in representing western terms, however, they are still the critical factor in adopting Japanese words. According to the data source in this paper, nearly 90% Japanese loans are graphic loans.

The Chinese characters give priority to borrow Japanese words which are from western languages rather than to translate western terms directly. The Chinese characters also dominate the graphic loans as the main way of adopting Japanese words. Therefore Chinese characters as the key linguistic factor cause a significant effect on Japanese loanwords.

7.2 Social factor in Japanese loanwords

No matter the society changes slowly or drastically, the language will also change accordingly. (Li Zhiyuan. 2004:5) Thus the social factor also plays a very important part in borrowing foreign words. The requirement and the development of society affect the channel of

borrowing, the main user of loanwords and the type of loanwords. The social background and historical background always have a great effect on loanwords.

In the period of 1840~1920s, China was a poor and backward country invaded by the imperialists, while Japan had become a modernized and industrialized country through the success of the Meiji Restoration. Therefore Japan was an excellent example of advanced thought, political structure, modern science and technology for China. There were a great number of Japanese words through those who study in Japan and books which were translated from Japanese entered into Chinese. The Japanese loanwords were mainly terminologies represented new ideas and knowledge, which were urgent needed by Chinese society. Since the most of the loans were adopted through academic people and books, they were wider used among Chinese intellectuals. Due to the effect of social factor, Japanese loans reached a peak during this period.

In modern times, China was not a country that was in poverty and ignorance anymore. The success of the Chinese economic reform resulted in immense changes in Chinese society. As the improvement of Chinese political and economic situation, Japan is not the only example Chinese learn from, especially in the field of technology and science. Therefore there are few terminologies from Japanese in this period. Instead the terms that are used in people's daily life have a very high proportion in Japanese loanwords. As the advancement of technology, it is getting easier and easier to gain goods and information from foreign countries. With the increasingly wide utilization of internet, it is very convenient to communicate with people who are living in foreign countries. Therefore many Japanese words entered into Chinese through Japanese products, animation, manga and computer games. Since the Chinese young people are the main customers, they are also the main user of the Japanese loanwords.

In addition, as the progress of economy, the Chinese people start to pursue fashion. Since loanwords give a fashionable and exotic atmosphere, they are able to meet the needs of those who want to catch up with the fads.

Since social factor has a strong effect on the loanwords, the word borrowing is not only related to language, but also a social activity. The social function requires loanwords to meet the needs of society. Therefore the Japanese loanwords were a means of spreading advanced thoughts in old times, while they are used to represent modern and fashion in modern times.

7.3 Effect of Japanese loanwords on Chinese language

Languages, like cultures, are rarely sufficient unto themselves. It would be difficult to point to a completely isolated language or dialect. (Edward Sapir. 1921: 93) Japanese loanwords not only enrich the modern Chinese lexicon, but also infuse energy into Chinese language. They promote the formation of modern Chinese and give new thoughts of building words.

The formation of modern Chinese is during the period of 1840~1920s. There were few trisyllabic words in Chinese language. With the adoption of Japanese loanwords, trisyllabic words entered in Chinese to represent new subjects, theories and even some communal facilities. As the increase of trisyllabic words, one syllable was taken to be used as an affix to create new words. It impacted on the general morphological structure of the Chinese language. Therefore these trisyllabic loanwords and affixes provided good thoughts of creating new words, meanwhile, they played a significant part in the formation of modern Chinese.

In modern times, the Japanese loanwords have lost the uniqueness of their meanings and no longer been used to fill the gap in Chinese lexicon. Nevertheless the Japanese loans give Chinese people more options to express their emotions and entertaining each other. They improve the amusement function of Chinese language. In this period, the Japanese loans also bring many affixes. They are used to represent specific people and groups instead of new subjects and theories. Therefore these affixes are able to be used by individuals at random. The Japanese loanwords make Chinese language more active and the word-building more casual.

7.4 Impact of Japanese loanwords on Chinese society

The Japanese loanwords also produce an impact on Chinese society. J.B. Pride put forward a theory of Covariance in his book Sociolinguistic: Aspects of Language Learning and Teaching, which means that language is changing with the development of society. However, the language also impacts on the society at the same time. In order to represent the new concepts and social phenomena, many Japanese words are borrowed into Chinese language.

In the period of 1840~1920s, most Japanese loanwords were used to represent advanced knowledge and thoughts. Since they are easy to be understood and have the similar structure

with Chinese native words, the Japanese loans played an important role to spread those new conceptions and ideas and also increased the acceptability for Chinese people. The Japanese loans accelerated the development of Chinese society to some extent.

In modern times, as the development of technology, it becomes easier to know and exchange different ideas from foreign countries. Some same social phenomena may have different point of views among countries. In China some phenomena are expressed negatively by Chinese native words, while they sound positive in Japanese expressions. Since some Japanese loanwords represent social issues in positive ways, they give people a different angle to think about. The Japanese loanwords bring new definitions on old issues and have the Chinese antiquated ideas changed.

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Appendix

This list of Japanese loanwords is the data source for the period of 1840~1920s (from the Opium War of 1840 to before the Anti-Japanese War). There are totally 882 words selected from 现代外来词词典 *Xiandai Wailaici Cidian* ‘Modern Loanwords Dictionary’ and divided into four groups. This table shows each Japanese loanword written in Chinese character and gives pronunciation and English translation.

| No. | Chinese | Pinyin | English |
|----------------------------|---------|-------------------|------------------|
| 1. Daily life terms | | | |
| 1 | 金婚式 | <i>Jinhunshi</i> | golden wedding |
| 2 | 百日咳 | <i>Bairike</i> | whooping cough |
| 3 | 备品 | <i>Beipin</i> | equipment |
| 4 | 舶来品 | <i>Bolaipin</i> | imported article |
| 5 | 曹达 | <i>Caoda</i> | soda |
| 6 | 茶道 | <i>Chadao</i> | tea ceremony |
| 7 | 衬衣 | <i>Chenyi</i> | shirt |
| 8 | 乘务员 | <i>Congwuyuan</i> | crewman |
| 9 | 宠儿 | <i>Chonger</i> | darling |
| 10 | 出口 | <i>Chukou</i> | exit |
| 11 | 储蓄 | <i>Chuxu</i> | saving |
| 12 | 电报 | <i>Dianbao</i> | telegram |
| 13 | 电车 | <i>Dianche</i> | tram car |
| 14 | 电池 | <i>Dianchi</i> | battery |
| 15 | 电话 | <i>Dianhua</i> | telephone |
| 16 | 读本 | <i>Duben</i> | reader |
| 17 | 读物 | <i>Duwu</i> | reading material |
| 18 | 风琴 | <i>Fengqin</i> | organ |

| | | | |
|----|-----|---------------------|-------------------|
| 19 | 服用 | <i>Fuyong</i> | taking (medicine) |
| 20 | 副食 | <i>Fushi</i> | side dish |
| 21 | 概括 | <i>Gaikuo</i> | summary |
| 22 | 固定 | <i>Guding</i> | fixed |
| 23 | 故障 | <i>Guzhang</i> | failure |
| 24 | 广场 | <i>Guangchang</i> | square |
| 25 | 广告 | <i>Guanggao</i> | ad |
| 26 | 和服 | <i>Hefu</i> | kimono |
| 27 | 化妆品 | <i>Huazhuangpin</i> | cosmetics |
| 28 | 画廊 | <i>Hualang</i> | gallery |
| 29 | 回收 | <i>Huishou</i> | collection |
| 30 | 会话 | <i>Huihua</i> | conversation |
| 31 | 吉地 | <i>Jidi</i> | wooden clog |
| 32 | 加非 | <i>Jiafei</i> | coffee |
| 33 | 建筑 | <i>Jianzhu</i> | construction |
| 34 | 交通 | <i>Jiaotong</i> | traffic |
| 35 | 接吻 | <i>Jiewen</i> | kiss |
| 36 | 奥巴桑 | <i>Oubasang</i> | middle aged lady |
| 37 | 俱乐部 | <i>Julebu</i> | club |
| 38 | 剧场 | <i>Juchang</i> | theatre |
| 39 | 看护妇 | <i>Kanhufu</i> | nurse |
| 40 | 劳作 | <i>Laozuo</i> | elaboration |
| 41 | 冷藏 | <i>Lengcang</i> | refrigeration |
| 42 | 冷藏库 | <i>Lengcangku</i> | refrigerator |
| 43 | 列车 | <i>Lieche</i> | train |
| 44 | 麦酒 | <i>Maijiu</i> | beer |

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| 45 | 美浓纸 | <i>Meinongzhi</i> | oil paper |
| 46 | 蜜月 | <i>Miyue</i> | honeymoon |
| 47 | 母校 | <i>Muxiao</i> | alma mater |
| 48 | 旗手 | <i>Qishou</i> | standard bearer |
| 49 | 汽船 | <i>Qichuan</i> | steamship |
| 50 | 汽笛 | <i>Qidi</i> | siren |
| 51 | 牵引车 | <i>Qianyinche</i> | tractor |
| 52 | 铅笔 | <i>Qianbi</i> | pencil |
| 53 | 人力车 | <i>Renliche</i> | rickshaw |
| 54 | 日程 | <i>Richeng</i> | schedule |
| 55 | 入场券 | <i>Ruchangquan</i> | ticket |
| 56 | 入口 | <i>Rukou</i> | entrance |
| 57 | 上水道 | <i>Shangshuidao</i> | waterworks |
| 58 | 失恋 | <i>Shilian</i> | unrequited love |
| 59 | 時計 | <i>Shiji</i> | clock |
| 60 | 时间 | <i>Shijian</i> | time |
| 61 | 榻榻米 | <i>Tatami</i> | tatami mat, Japanese straw floor covering |
| 62 | 台车 | <i>Taiche</i> | truck |
| 63 | 天鹅绒 | <i>Tianerong</i> | villus |
| 64 | 味之素 | <i>Weizhisu</i> | special Japanese condiment |
| 65 | 物语 | <i>Wuyu</i> | story |
| 66 | 下水道 | <i>Xiashuidao</i> | drainage |
| 67 | 消火栓 | <i>Xiaohuoshuan</i> | fire hydrant |
| 68 | 燕尾服 | <i>Yanweifú</i> | swallow-tailed coat |
| 69 | 羊羹 | <i>Yanggeng</i> | sweet bean jelly |
| 70 | 银婚式 | <i>Yinhunshi</i> | a silver wedding |

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|--------------------------|-----|---------------------|--------------------|
| 71 | 油槽车 | <i>Youcaochē</i> | tank car |
| 72 | 远足 | <i>Yuanzu</i> | excursion |
| 73 | 运动 | <i>Yundong</i> | sports |
| 74 | 运动场 | <i>Yundongchang</i> | playground |
| 75 | 运转手 | <i>Yunzhuanshou</i> | driver |
| 76 | 杂志 | <i>Zazhi</i> | magazine |
| 77 | 主食 | <i>Zhushi</i> | staple food |
| 78 | 常识 | <i>Changshi</i> | common sense |
| 2. Societal terms | | | |
| 79 | 编制 | <i>Bianzhi</i> | formation |
| 80 | 辩护士 | <i>Bianhushi</i> | lawyer |
| 81 | 保险 | <i>Baoxian</i> | insurance |
| 82 | 半旗 | <i>Banqi</i> | half-mast |
| 83 | 白旗 | <i>Baiqi</i> | flag of truce |
| 84 | 标语 | <i>Biaoyu</i> | slogan |
| 85 | 表决 | <i>Biaojue</i> | pass a vote |
| 86 | 表象 | <i>Biaoxiang</i> | vorstellung |
| 87 | 不动产 | <i>Budongchan</i> | immovables |
| 88 | 财阀 | <i>Caifa</i> | plutocrat |
| 89 | 财团 | <i>Caituan</i> | syndicate |
| 90 | 策动 | <i>Cedong</i> | manoeuvre |
| 91 | 成员 | <i>Dongyuan</i> | member |
| 92 | 出版 | <i>Chuban</i> | publication |
| 93 | 出发点 | <i>Chufadian</i> | the starting point |
| 94 | 出庭 | <i>Chuting</i> | to appear in court |
| 95 | 初夜权 | <i>Chuyequan</i> | jus primae noctis |

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|-----|-----|-------------------|-------------------|
| 96 | 处女地 | <i>Chunüdi</i> | virgin soil |
| 97 | 处女作 | <i>Chuizuo</i> | maiden work |
| 98 | 创作 | <i>Chuangzuo</i> | creation |
| 99 | 大本营 | <i>Dabenyng</i> | headquarters |
| 100 | 大局 | <i>Daju</i> | general situation |
| 101 | 代表 | <i>Daibiao</i> | representation |
| 102 | 单元 | <i>Danyuan</i> | unit |
| 103 | 导火线 | <i>Daohuoxian</i> | a fuse |
| 104 | 登记 | <i>Dengji</i> | registration |
| 105 | 等外 | <i>Dengwai</i> | substandard |
| 106 | 番号 | <i>Fanhao</i> | number |
| 107 | 动产 | <i>Dongchan</i> | movables |
| 108 | 动态 | <i>Dongtai</i> | movement |
| 109 | 动议 | <i>Dongyi</i> | motion |
| 110 | 动员 | <i>Dongyuan</i> | mobilization |
| 111 | 独裁 | <i>Ducal</i> | dictatorship |
| 112 | 独占 | <i>Duzhan</i> | monopoly |
| 113 | 队商 | <i>Duishang</i> | caravan |
| 114 | 反动 | <i>Fandong</i> | reaction |
| 115 | 方案 | <i>Fangan</i> | plan |
| 116 | 方针 | <i>Fangzhen</i> | policy |
| 117 | 分配 | <i>Fenpei</i> | distribution |
| 118 | 封锁 | <i>Fengsuo</i> | blockade |
| 119 | 服务 | <i>Fuwu</i> | service |
| 120 | 复员 | <i>Fuyuan</i> | demobilization |
| 121 | 复制 | <i>Fuzhi</i> | reproduction |

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|-----|-----|------------------|-------------------------|
| 122 | 副手 | <i>Fushou</i> | assistant |
| 123 | 干部 | <i>Ganbu</i> | cadre |
| 124 | 干事 | <i>Ganshi</i> | manager |
| 125 | 公报 | <i>Gongbao</i> | official report |
| 126 | 公立 | <i>Gongli</i> | public |
| 127 | 公民 | <i>Gongmin</i> | citizen |
| 128 | 公仆 | <i>Gongpu</i> | public servant |
| 129 | 公认 | <i>Gongren</i> | authorized |
| 130 | 公营 | <i>Gongying</i> | public |
| 131 | 关系 | <i>Guanxi</i> | relation |
| 132 | 规范 | <i>Guifan</i> | norm |
| 133 | 规则 | <i>Guize</i> | regulations |
| 134 | 国立 | <i>Guoli</i> | national institute |
| 135 | 过渡 | <i>Guodu</i> | transition |
| 136 | 号外 | <i>Haowai</i> | an extra edition |
| 137 | 环境 | <i>Huanjing</i> | enciroment |
| 138 | 会社 | <i>Huishe</i> | company |
| 139 | 会谈 | <i>Huitan</i> | conversation |
| 140 | 机关 | <i>Jiguan</i> | organ |
| 141 | 基准 | <i>Jizhun</i> | standard |
| 142 | 集团 | <i>Jituan</i> | group |
| 143 | 见习 | <i>Jianxi</i> | apprentice |
| 144 | 讲坛 | <i>Jiangtan</i> | restrum |
| 145 | 讲习 | <i>Jiangxi</i> | a short training course |
| 146 | 交际 | <i>Jiaoji</i> | association |
| 147 | 教科书 | <i>Jiaokeshu</i> | textbook |

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|-----|------|--------------------|----------------------|
| 148 | 教授 | <i>Jiaoshou</i> | professor |
| 149 | 教养 | <i>Jiaoyang</i> | education |
| 150 | 阶级 | <i>Jieji</i> | class |
| 151 | 警察 | <i>Jingcha</i> | police |
| 152 | 警官 | <i>Jingguan</i> | police officer |
| 153 | 就任 | <i>Jiuren</i> | assumption of office |
| 154 | 拘留 | <i>Juliu</i> | detention |
| 155 | 巨匠 | <i>Jujiang</i> | maestro |
| 156 | 巨头 | <i>Jutou</i> | magnate |
| 157 | 巨星 | <i>Juxing</i> | great man |
| 158 | 觉书 | <i>Jueshu</i> | memorandum |
| 159 | 看守 | <i>Kanshou</i> | gaoler |
| 160 | 抗议 | <i>Kangyi</i> | protest |
| 161 | 课程 | <i>Kecheng</i> | course |
| 162 | 浪人 | <i>Langren</i> | samurai with no lord |
| 163 | 劳动 | <i>Laodong</i> | labour |
| 164 | 劳动者 | <i>Laodongzhe</i> | labourer |
| 165 | 劳动组合 | <i>Laodongzuhe</i> | trade union |
| 166 | 理事 | <i>Lishi</i> | director |
| 167 | 立场 | <i>Lichang</i> | standpoint |
| 168 | 例会 | <i>Lihui</i> | a regular meeting |
| 169 | 论坛 | <i>Luntan</i> | the press |
| 170 | 论战 | <i>Lunzhan</i> | controversy |
| 171 | 免許 | <i>Mianxu</i> | permission |
| 172 | 明细表 | <i>Mingxibiao</i> | an itemized account |
| 173 | 目标 | <i>Mubiao</i> | target |

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|-----|----|-----------------|---------------------|
| 174 | 目的 | <i>Mudi</i> | goal |
| 175 | 内幕 | <i>Neimu</i> | inside information |
| 176 | 配给 | <i>Peihe</i> | distribution |
| 177 | 骑士 | <i>Qishi</i> | knight |
| 178 | 企业 | <i>Qiye</i> | enterprise |
| 179 | 契机 | <i>Qiji</i> | moment |
| 180 | 清算 | <i>Qingsuan</i> | liquidation |
| 181 | 取缔 | <i>Qudi</i> | supervision |
| 182 | 权威 | <i>Quanwei</i> | an authority |
| 183 | 权限 | <i>Quanxian</i> | authority |
| 184 | 权益 | <i>Quanyi</i> | rights |
| 185 | 人选 | <i>Renxuan</i> | personnel selection |
| 186 | 任命 | <i>Renming</i> | appoint |
| 187 | 社交 | <i>Shejiao</i> | social intercourse |
| 188 | 社团 | <i>Shetuan</i> | association |
| 189 | 身份 | <i>Shenfen</i> | position |
| 190 | 审问 | <i>Shenwen</i> | aesthetic |
| 191 | 审判 | <i>Shenpan</i> | interrogate |
| 192 | 失效 | <i>Shixiao</i> | lapse |
| 193 | 施工 | <i>Shigong</i> | construction |
| 194 | 时事 | <i>Shishi</i> | current events |
| 195 | 实绩 | <i>Shiji</i> | current events |
| 196 | 实权 | <i>Shiquan</i> | real power |
| 197 | 市场 | <i>Shichang</i> | market |
| 198 | 市长 | <i>Shizhang</i> | major |
| 199 | 事变 | <i>Shibian</i> | incident |

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|-----|------|--------------------|------------------------|
| 200 | 事态 | <i>Shitai</i> | situation |
| 201 | 事务员 | <i>Shiwuyuan</i> | clerk |
| 202 | 手续 | <i>Shouxu</i> | procedure |
| 203 | 输入 | <i>Shuru</i> | import |
| 204 | 输出 | <i>Shuchu</i> | export |
| 205 | 私立 | <i>Sili</i> | private |
| 206 | 随员 | <i>Suiyuan</i> | attendant |
| 207 | 谈判 | <i>Tanpan</i> | negotiation |
| 208 | 特权 | <i>Tequan</i> | privilege |
| 209 | 条件 | <i>Tiaojian</i> | condition |
| 210 | 图书馆 | <i>Tushuguan</i> | library |
| 211 | 外勤 | <i>Waiqin</i> | outside duty |
| 212 | 现金 | <i>Xianjin</i> | cash |
| 213 | 现役 | <i>Xianyi</i> | active service |
| 214 | 现实 | <i>Xianshi</i> | reality |
| 215 | 消费 | <i>Xiaofei</i> | consumption |
| 216 | 校训 | <i>Xiaoxun</i> | school motto |
| 217 | 协会 | <i>Xiehui</i> | society |
| 218 | 新闻记者 | <i>Xinweijizhe</i> | journalist |
| 219 | 兴信所 | <i>Xingxinsuo</i> | detective agency |
| 220 | 宣传 | <i>Xuanchuang</i> | propaganda |
| 221 | 宣战 | <i>Xuanzhan</i> | declare war |
| 222 | 学历 | <i>Xueli</i> | educational background |
| 223 | 学府 | <i>Xuefu</i> | seat of learning |
| 224 | 学会 | <i>Xuehui</i> | scientific society |
| 225 | 训话 | <i>Xunhua</i> | cautionary tale |

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|-------------------------|------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 226 | 演出 | <i>Yanchu</i> | presentation |
| 227 | 演说 | <i>Yanshuo</i> | address |
| 228 | 业务 | <i>Yewu</i> | business |
| 229 | 义务 | <i>Yiwu</i> | obligation |
| 230 | 展览会 | <i>Zhanlanhui</i> | exhibition |
| 231 | 战线 | <i>Zhanxian</i> | front |
| 232 | 阵容 | <i>Zhenrong</i> | lineup |
| 233 | 支部 | <i>Zhibu</i> | branch |
| 234 | 支线 | <i>Zhixian</i> | branch line |
| 235 | 制裁 | <i>Zhicai</i> | sanction |
| 236 | 株式会社 | <i>Zhushihuishe</i> | joint-stock company |
| 237 | 主笔 | <i>Zhubi</i> | the chief editor |
| 238 | 专卖 | <i>Zhuanmai</i> | monopoly |
| 239 | 座谈 | <i>Zuotan</i> | conversation |
| 240 | 作者 | <i>Zuozhe</i> | author |
| 241 | 组合 | <i>Zuhe</i> | union |
| 242 | 出版物 | <i>Chubanwu</i> | publication |
| 243 | 内勤 | <i>Neiqin</i> | office work |
| 3. Terminologies | | | |
| 244 | 安质母尼 | <i>Anzhimuni</i> | antimony |
| 245 | 半径 | <i>Banjing</i> | radius |
| 246 | 悲剧 | <i>Beiju</i> | tragedy |
| 247 | 白金 | <i>Baijin</i> | platinum |
| 248 | 白夜 | <i>Baiye</i> | white night |
| 249 | 白热 | <i>Baire</i> | white heat |
| 250 | 安打 | <i>Anda</i> | a safe hit |

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|-----|-----|---------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 251 | 本质 | <i>Benzhi</i> | essence |
| 252 | 比重 | <i>Bizhong</i> | specific gravity |
| 253 | 变压器 | <i>Bianyaqi</i> | transformer |
| 254 | 辩证法 | <i>Bianzhengfa</i> | dialectics |
| 255 | 标本 | <i>Biaoben</i> | sample |
| 256 | 标高 | <i>Biaogao</i> | altitude |
| 257 | 病虫害 | <i>Bingchonghai</i> | disease and insect damage |
| 258 | 波长 | <i>Bochang</i> | wavelength |
| 259 | 博士 | <i>Boshi</i> | doctor |
| 260 | 博物 | <i>Bowu</i> | natural science |
| 261 | 不景气 | <i>Bujingqi</i> | business recession |
| 262 | 才 | <i>Cai</i> | talent |
| 263 | 采光 | <i>Caiguang</i> | natural lighting |
| 264 | 苍铅 | <i>Cangqian</i> | bismuth |
| 265 | 插话 | <i>Chahua</i> | episode |
| 266 | 长波 | <i>Changbo</i> | long wave |
| 267 | 常备兵 | <i>Changbeibing</i> | regular troops |
| 268 | 成分 | <i>Chengfen</i> | ingredient |
| 269 | 呎 | <i>Chi</i> | foot |
| 270 | 抽象 | <i>Chouxiang</i> | abstraction |
| 271 | 出超 | <i>Chuchao</i> | an excess of exports over imports |
| 272 | 触媒 | <i>Chumei</i> | catalyst |
| 273 | 传染病 | <i>Chuanranbing</i> | contagious disease |
| 274 | 刺激 | <i>Ciji</i> | stimulus |
| 275 | 催眠 | <i>Cuimian</i> | hypnotize |
| 276 | 催眠术 | <i>Cuimianshu</i> | hypnotism |

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| 277 | 胰脏 | <i>Cuizang</i> | panvreas |
| 278 | 吋 | <i>Cun</i> | inch |
| 279 | 错觉 | <i>Cuojue</i> | illusion |
| 280 | 大气 | <i>Daqi</i> | atmosphere |
| 281 | 大熊座 | <i>Daxiongzu</i> | the Great Bear |
| 282 | 大正琴 | <i>Dazhengqin</i> | a Japanese stringed musical instrument |
| 283 | 代言人 | <i>Daiyanren</i> | lawyer |
| 284 | 代议士 | <i>Daiyishi</i> | a member of... |
| 285 | 单利 | <i>Danli</i> | simple interest |
| 286 | 单位 | <i>Danwei</i> | unit |
| 287 | 但书 | <i>Danshu</i> | proviso |
| 288 | 蛋白质 | <i>Danbaizhi</i> | protein |
| 289 | 低调 | <i>Didiao</i> | low tone |
| 290 | 低能儿 | <i>Dinenger</i> | a feeble-minded child |
| 291 | 低压 | <i>Diyan</i> | low pressure |
| 292 | 抵抗 | <i>Dikang</i> | resistance |
| 293 | 地上水 | <i>Dishangshui</i> | surface water |
| 294 | 地下水 | <i>dixiashui</i> | underground water |
| 295 | 地质 | <i>Dizhi</i> | geology |
| 296 | 地质学 | <i>Dizhixue</i> | geology |
| 297 | 电波 | <i>Dianbo</i> | electric wave |
| 298 | 电流 | <i>Dianliu</i> | electric current |
| 299 | 电子 | <i>Dianzi</i> | electron |
| 300 | 丁几 | <i>Dingji</i> | tinctuur |
| 301 | 定义 | <i>Dingyi</i> | definition |
| 302 | 动力 | <i>Dongli</i> | motive power |

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|-----|-----|---------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 303 | 动力学 | <i>Donglixue</i> | dynamics |
| 304 | 动脉 | <i>Dongmai</i> | artery |
| 305 | 短波 | <i>Duanbo</i> | shortwave |
| 306 | 吨 | <i>Dun</i> | ton |
| 307 | 二重奏 | <i>Erchongzou</i> | duetto |
| 308 | 发明 | <i>Faming</i> | invention |
| 309 | 法律 | <i>Falü</i> | law |
| 310 | 法人 | <i>Faren</i> | juridical person |
| 311 | 法庭 | <i>Fating</i> | court |
| 312 | 法则 | <i>Faze</i> | law |
| 313 | 反射 | <i>Fanshe</i> | reflection |
| 314 | 低能 | <i>Dineng</i> | weak intellect |
| 315 | 反应 | <i>Fanying</i> | reaction |
| 316 | 泛神论 | <i>Fanshenlun</i> | pantheism |
| 317 | 泛心论 | <i>Fanxinlun</i> | panpsychism |
| 318 | 范畴 | <i>Fanchou</i> | category |
| 319 | 方程式 | <i>Fangchengshi</i> | equation |
| 320 | 放射 | <i>Fangshe</i> | emission |
| 321 | 非金属 | <i>Feijinshu</i> | nonmetal |
| 322 | 分解 | <i>Fenjie</i> | analysis |
| 323 | 分子 | <i>Fenzi</i> | numerator |
| 324 | 风位 | <i>Fengwei</i> | wind direction |
| 325 | 封建 | <i>Fengjian</i> | feudalism |
| 326 | 否决 | <i>Foujue</i> | rejection |
| 327 | 浮世绘 | <i>Fushihui</i> | Ukiyoe, Japanese woodblock prints |
| 328 | 辐射 | <i>Fushe</i> | radiation |

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|-----|------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 329 | 附着 | <i>Fuzhuo</i> | adhesion |
| 330 | 复式 | <i>Fushi</i> | duplex |
| 331 | 复水器 | <i>Fushuiqi</i> | condenser |
| 332 | 副官 | <i>Fuguan</i> | adjutant |
| 333 | 改编 | <i>Gaibian</i> | reorganization |
| 334 | 改订 | <i>Gaiding</i> | revise |
| 335 | 概念 | <i>Gainian</i> | conception |
| 336 | 概算 | <i>Gaisuan</i> | rough estimate |
| 337 | 感性 | <i>Ganxing</i> | sinnlichkeit |
| 338 | 干线 | <i>Ganxian</i> | main line |
| 339 | 纲领 | <i>Gangling</i> | programme |
| 340 | 高潮 | <i>Gaochao</i> | high tide |
| 341 | 高炉 | <i>Gaolu</i> | blast furnace |
| 342 | 高射炮 | <i>Gaoshepao</i> | anti-aircraft gun |
| 343 | 高周波 | <i>Gaozhoubo</i> | high frequent |
| 344 | 歌剧 | <i>Geju</i> | opera |
| 345 | 歌舞伎 | <i>Gewuji</i> | Kabuki, Japanese classical drama |
| 346 | 革命 | <i>Geming</i> | revolution |
| 347 | 工业 | <i>Gongye</i> | industry |
| 348 | 攻守同盟 | <i>Gongshoutongmeng</i> | an offensive and defensive alliance |
| 349 | 弓道 | <i>Gongdao</i> | Japanese art of archery |
| 350 | 公称 | <i>Gongcheng</i> | nominal |
| 351 | 公判 | <i>Gongpan</i> | trial |
| 352 | 公诉 | <i>Gongsu</i> | arraignment |
| 353 | 公债 | <i>Gongzhai</i> | public bond |

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|-----|------|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 354 | 共产主义 | <i>Gongchanzhuyi</i> | communism |
| 355 | 共和 | <i>Gonghe</i> | republic |
| 356 | 共鸣 | <i>Gongming</i> | resonance |
| 357 | 古加乙涅 | <i>Gujiayinie</i> | cocaine |
| 358 | 古柯 | <i>Guke</i> | coca |
| 359 | 固体 | <i>Guti</i> | solid |
| 360 | 观测 | <i>Guance</i> | observation |
| 361 | 观照 | <i>Guanzhao</i> | contemplation |
| 362 | 光年 | <i>Guangnian</i> | light year |
| 363 | 光线 | <i>Guangxian</i> | light |
| 364 | 广义 | <i>Guangyi</i> | wide sense |
| 365 | 归纳 | <i>Guina</i> | induction |
| 366 | 规那 | <i>Guina</i> | kina |
| 367 | 规尼涅 | <i>Guiniepan</i> | kinine |
| 368 | 国事犯 | <i>Guoshifan</i> | state erimina |
| 369 | 国教 | <i>Guojiao</i> | state religion |
| 370 | 国税 | <i>Guoshui</i> | national tax |
| 371 | 国体 | <i>Guoti</i> | national structure |
| 372 | 海拔 | <i>Haiba</i> | height above sea level |
| 373 | 寒带 | <i>Handai</i> | the frigid zones |
| 374 | 寒流 | <i>Hanliu</i> | cold current |
| 375 | 航空母舰 | <i>Hangkongmujian</i> | aircraft carrier |
| 376 | 黑死病 | <i>Heisibing</i> | plague |
| 377 | 弧光 | <i>Huguang</i> | arc light |
| 378 | 虎烈拉 | <i>Huliela</i> | cholera |
| 379 | 化脓 | <i>Huanong</i> | suppuration |

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|-----|------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 380 | 化石 | <i>Huashi</i> | fossil |
| 381 | 化学 | <i>Huaxue</i> | chemistry |
| 382 | 幻灯 | <i>Huandeng</i> | magic lantern |
| 383 | 幻想曲 | <i>Huanxiangqu</i> | fantasia |
| 384 | 混凝土 | <i>Hunningtu</i> | concrete |
| 385 | 火成岩 | <i>Huochengyan</i> | igneous rocks |
| 386 | 机关炮 | <i>Jiguanpao</i> | machine gun |
| 387 | 机械 | <i>Jixie</i> | machine |
| 388 | 基地 | <i>Jidi</i> | base |
| 389 | 基调 | <i>Jidiao</i> | key note |
| 390 | 基督 | <i>Jidu</i> | christ |
| 391 | 基督教 | <i>Jidujiao</i> | Christianity |
| 392 | 基质 | <i>Jizhi</i> | substrate |
| 393 | 技师 | <i>Jishi</i> | engineer |
| 394 | 加答儿 | <i>Jiadaer</i> | catarrhus |
| 395 | 加农炮 | <i>Jiaonongpao</i> | canna |
| 396 | 假定 | <i>Jiading</i> | assumption |
| 397 | 假分数 | <i>Jiafenshu</i> | improper fraction |
| 398 | 假名 | <i>Jiaming</i> | Kana, Japanese alphabets |
| 399 | 假想敌 | <i>Jiaxiangdi</i> | hypothetical enemy |
| 400 | 尖兵 | <i>Jianbing</i> | advance guard |
| 401 | 检波器 | <i>Jianboqi</i> | detector |
| 402 | 间歇泉 | <i>Jianxiequan</i> | geyser |
| 403 | 间歇热 | <i>Jianxiere</i> | intermittent fever |
| 404 | 健质亚那 | <i>Jianzhiyana</i> | gentiana |
| 405 | 鉴定 | <i>Jianding</i> | legal advice |

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|-----|------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 406 | 讲师 | <i>Jiangshi</i> | lecturer |
| 407 | 讲演 | <i>Jiangyan</i> | lecture |
| 408 | 讲座 | <i>Jiangzuo</i> | course |
| 409 | 交感神经 | <i>Jiaoganshenjing</i> | sympathetic nerve |
| 410 | 交响乐 | <i>Jiaoxiangyue</i> | symphony |
| 411 | 胶着语 | <i>Jiaozhuoyu</i> | agglutinative language |
| 412 | 脚光 | <i>Jiaoguang</i> | footlights |
| 413 | 脚本 | <i>Jiaoben</i> | play |
| 414 | 教育学 | <i>Jiaoyuxue</i> | pedagogy |
| 415 | 酵素 | <i>Jiaosu</i> | enzyme |
| 416 | 结核 | <i>Jiehe</i> | tuberculosis |
| 417 | 解放 | <i>Jiefang</i> | liberate |
| 418 | 解剖 | <i>Jiepao</i> | dissection |
| 419 | 借方 | <i>Jiefang</i> | debit |
| 420 | 金额 | <i>Jine</i> | amount of money |
| 421 | 金刚石 | <i>Jingangshi</i> | diamond |
| 422 | 金牌 | <i>Jinpai</i> | gold medal |
| 423 | 金融 | <i>Jinrong</i> | finance |
| 424 | 金丝雀 | <i>Jiesique</i> | canario |
| 425 | 进化 | <i>Jinhua</i> | evolution |
| 426 | 进化论 | <i>Jinhualun</i> | the theory of evolution |
| 427 | 紧张 | <i>Jinzhang</i> | tension |
| 428 | 经费 | <i>Jingfei</i> | expense |
| 429 | 经济 | <i>Jingji</i> | economy |
| 430 | 经济恐慌 | <i>Jingjikonghuang</i> | economy panic |
| 431 | 经济学 | <i>Jingjixue</i> | economics |

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|-----|------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 432 | 精神 | <i>Jingshen</i> | mind |
| 433 | 景气 | <i>Jingqi</i> | boom |
| 434 | 净化 | <i>Jinghua</i> | purification |
| 435 | 净琉璃 | <i>Jingliuli</i> | Ballad drama |
| 436 | 静脉 | <i>Jingmai</i> | vein |
| 437 | 静态 | <i>Jingtai</i> | stationariness |
| 438 | 竞技 | <i>Jingji</i> | match |
| 439 | 具体 | <i>Juti</i> | concrete |
| 440 | 决算 | <i>Juesuan</i> | final accounts |
| 441 | 绝对 | <i>Juedui</i> | absolute |
| 442 | 军部 | <i>Junbu</i> | military authorities |
| 443 | 军国主义 | <i>Junguozhuyi</i> | militarism |
| 444 | 军籍 | <i>Junji</i> | military register |
| 445 | 军需品 | <i>Junxupin</i> | munitions |
| 446 | 科目 | <i>Kemu</i> | subject |
| 447 | 科学 | <i>Kexue</i> | science |
| 448 | 可锻铸铁 | <i>Keduanzhutie</i> | malleable cast iron |
| 449 | 可决 | <i>Kejue</i> | approval |
| 450 | 客观 | <i>Keguan</i> | object |
| 451 | 客体 | <i>Keti</i> | theobject |
| 452 | 肯定 | <i>Kending</i> | affirmation |
| 453 | 坑木 | <i>Kengmu</i> | pit prop |
| 454 | 空间 | <i>Kongjian</i> | space |
| 455 | 会计 | <i>Kuaiji</i> | accounts |
| 456 | 狂言 | <i>Kuangyan</i> | Kyogen |
| 457 | 扩散 | <i>Kuosan</i> | diffusion |

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|-----|-------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 458 | 累减 | <i>Leijian</i> | degression |
| 459 | 累进 | <i>Leijin</i> | cumulativeness |
| 460 | 类型 | <i>Leixing</i> | type |
| 461 | 冷战 | <i>Lengzhan</i> | cold war |
| 462 | 哩 | <i>Li</i> | mile |
| 463 | 理论 | <i>Lilun</i> | theory |
| 464 | 理念 | <i>Linian</i> | idee |
| 465 | 理性 | <i>Lixing</i> | reason |
| 466 | 理智 | <i>Lizhi</i> | intellect |
| 467 | 力学 | <i>Lixue</i> | dynamics mechanics |
| 468 | 立宪 | <i>Lixian</i> | constitutionism |
| 469 | 连歌 | <i>Liange</i> | Renga, early Japanese poetry form |
| 470 | 量子 | <i>Liangzi</i> | quantum |
| 471 | 淋巴 | <i>Linba</i> | lymph |
| 472 | 临床 | <i>Linchuang</i> | clinical pathology |
| 473 | 领海 | <i>Linghai</i> | territorial waters |
| 474 | 领空 | <i>Lingkong</i> | territorial sky |
| 475 | 领土 | <i>Lingtu</i> | territory |
| 476 | 流感 | <i>Liugan</i> | flu |
| 477 | 流体 | <i>Liuti</i> | fluid |
| 478 | 流线型 | <i>Liuxianxing</i> | stream-line form |
| 479 | 流行病 | <i>Liuxingbing</i> | epidemic |
| 480 | 流行性感冒 | <i>Liuxingxingganmao</i> | influenza |
| 481 | 佻麻质斯 | <i>Lümazhisi</i> | rheumatismus |
| 482 | 伦理学 | <i>Lunlixue</i> | logic |
| 483 | 落选 | <i>Luoxuan</i> | defeat |

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|-----|-----|------------------|------------------|
| 484 | 码 | <i>Ma</i> | yard |
| 485 | 脉动 | <i>Maidong</i> | pulsation |
| 486 | 漫笔 | <i>Manbi</i> | rambling notes |
| 487 | 漫画 | <i>Manhua</i> | cartoon |
| 488 | 漫谈 | <i>Mantan</i> | chat |
| 489 | 毛细管 | <i>Maoxiguan</i> | capillary |
| 490 | 媒质 | <i>Meizhi</i> | medium |
| 491 | 美感 | <i>Meigan</i> | sense of beauty |
| 492 | 美术 | <i>Meishu</i> | art |
| 493 | 密度 | <i>Midu</i> | density |
| 494 | 糝 | <i>Li</i> | centimeter |
| 495 | 耗 | <i>Hao</i> | millimeter |
| 496 | 民法 | <i>Minfa</i> | civil law |
| 497 | 民主 | <i>Minzhu</i> | democracy |
| 498 | 敏感 | <i>Mingan</i> | sensitiveness |
| 499 | 命题 | <i>Mingti</i> | proposition |
| 500 | 默剧 | <i>Moju</i> | pantomime |
| 501 | 默示 | <i>Moshi</i> | revelation |
| 502 | 母体 | <i>Muti</i> | parent body |
| 503 | 目 | <i>Mu</i> | mesh |
| 504 | 内分泌 | <i>Neifenmi</i> | incretion |
| 505 | 内服 | <i>Neifu</i> | internal use |
| 506 | 内阁 | <i>Neige</i> | cabinet |
| 507 | 内在 | <i>Neizai</i> | immanence |
| 508 | 能动 | <i>Nengdong</i> | activity |
| 509 | 能乐 | <i>Nengyue</i> | Nogaku, noh play |

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|-----|-----|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 510 | 能力 | <i>Nengli</i> | ability |
| 511 | 能率 | <i>Nenglü</i> | efficiency |
| 512 | 拟人化 | <i>Nirenhua</i> | personification |
| 513 | 农作物 | <i>Nongzuowu</i> | agricultural crops |
| 514 | 暖流 | <i>Nuanliu</i> | warm current |
| 515 | 偶然 | <i>Ouran</i> | zufall |
| 516 | 俳句 | <i>Paiju</i> | haiku poetry |
| 517 | 判决 | <i>Panjue</i> | judgement |
| 518 | 陪审 | <i>Peishen</i> | serve on a jury |
| 519 | 陪审员 | <i>Peishenyuan</i> | a juryman |
| 520 | 品位 | <i>Pinwei</i> | grade |
| 521 | 平假名 | <i>Pingjiaming</i> | Hiragana |
| 522 | 平面 | <i>Pingmian</i> | plane |
| 523 | 坪 | <i>Ping</i> | unit of land measurement |
| 524 | 气密 | <i>Qimi</i> | airtightness |
| 525 | 气体 | <i>Qiti</i> | gas |
| 526 | 前卫 | <i>Qianwei</i> | advance guard |
| 527 | 前线 | <i>Qianxian</i> | front |
| 528 | 钱 | <i>Qian</i> | Japanese money |
| 529 | 秆 | <i>Qian</i> | kilometer |
| 530 | 砵 | <i>Qian</i> | kilogramme |
| 531 | 强制 | <i>Qiangzhi</i> | compel |
| 532 | 侵犯 | <i>Qinfan</i> | invasion |
| 533 | 侵略 | <i>Qinlüe</i> | agression |
| 534 | 勤务 | <i>Qinwu</i> | duty |
| 535 | 轻工业 | <i>Qinggongye</i> | light industries |

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|-----|-------|------------------------|------------------------------|
| 536 | 清教徒 | <i>Qingjiaotu</i> | puritan |
| 537 | 情报 | <i>Qingbao</i> | information |
| 538 | 驱逐舰 | <i>Quzhujian</i> | destroyer |
| 539 | 热带 | <i>Redai</i> | the tropics |
| 540 | 人格 | <i>Renge</i> | personality |
| 541 | 人权 | <i>Renquan</i> | human right |
| 542 | 人文主义 | <i>Renwenzhuyi</i> | humanism |
| 543 | 日和见主义 | <i>Rihejianzhuyi</i> | opportunity |
| 544 | 溶媒 | <i>Rongmei</i> | solvent |
| 545 | 溶体 | <i>Rongti</i> | solution |
| 546 | 柔道 | <i>Roudao</i> | judo |
| 547 | 柔术 | <i>Roushu</i> | jujutsu |
| 548 | 肉弹 | <i>Roudan</i> | suicidal attack |
| 549 | 入超 | <i>Ruchao</i> | unfavorable balance of trade |
| 550 | 商法 | <i>Shangfa</i> | commercial law |
| 551 | 商业 | <i>Shangye</i> | commerce |
| 552 | 少将 | <i>Shaojiang</i> | major general |
| 553 | 少尉 | <i>Shaowei</i> | second lieutenant |
| 554 | 社会 | <i>Shehui</i> | society |
| 555 | 社会学 | <i>Shehuixue</i> | sociologie |
| 556 | 社会主义 | <i>Shehuizhuyi</i> | sozialismus |
| 557 | 摄护腺 | <i>Shehuxian</i> | prostate |
| 558 | 神经 | <i>Shenjing</i> | nerve |
| 559 | 神经过敏 | <i>Shenjingguomin</i> | hyperesthesia |
| 560 | 神经衰弱 | <i>Shenjingshuiruo</i> | neurasthenia |
| 561 | 审美 | <i>Shenmei</i> | aesthelic |

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|-----|------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 562 | 升华 | <i>Shenghua</i> | sublimation |
| 563 | 生产关系 | <i>Shengchanguanxi</i> | produktionsverhältnisse |
| 564 | 生产 | <i>Shengchan</i> | production |
| 565 | 生产力 | <i>Shengchanli</i> | produktionskraft |
| 566 | 生理学 | <i>Shenglixue</i> | physiolog |
| 567 | 生命线 | <i>Shengmingxian</i> | lifeline |
| 568 | 生态学 | <i>Shengtaixue</i> | ecology |
| 569 | 剩余价值 | <i>Shengyujiazhi</i> | mehrwert |
| 570 | 施行 | <i>Shixing</i> | enforce |
| 571 | 时效 | <i>Shixiao</i> | prescription |
| 572 | 实业 | <i>Shiye</i> | industry |
| 573 | 实感 | <i>Shigan</i> | actual sensation |
| 574 | 使徒 | <i>Shitu</i> | apostle |
| 575 | 士官 | <i>Shiguan</i> | officer |
| 576 | 世纪 | <i>Shiji</i> | century |
| 577 | 世界观 | <i>Shijieguan</i> | weltanschauung |
| 578 | 手工业 | <i>Shougongye</i> | manual industry |
| 579 | 手榴弹 | <i>Shouliudan</i> | grenade |
| 580 | 受难 | <i>Shounan</i> | the passion |
| 581 | 输尿管 | <i>Shuniaoguan</i> | ureter |
| 582 | 水成岩 | <i>Shuichengyan</i> | aqueous rocks |
| 583 | 水密 | <i>Shuimi</i> | watertightness |
| 584 | 水素 | <i>Shuisu</i> | hydrogen |
| 585 | 水准 | <i>Shuizhun</i> | level |
| 586 | 私法 | <i>Sifa</i> | private law |
| 587 | 思潮 | <i>Sichao</i> | the trend of thought |

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|-----|------|-------------------------|------------------|
| 588 | 思想 | <i>Sixiang</i> | ideology |
| 589 | 死角 | <i>Sijiao</i> | dead angle |
| 590 | 诉权 | <i>Suquan</i> | right of action |
| 591 | 素材 | <i>Sucai</i> | material |
| 592 | 素描 | <i>Sumiao</i> | design |
| 593 | 素质 | <i>Suzhi</i> | anlage |
| 594 | 速度 | <i>Sudu</i> | velocity |
| 595 | 速记 | <i>Suji</i> | shorthand |
| 596 | 所得税 | <i>Suodeshui</i> | income tax |
| 597 | 所有权 | <i>Suodequan</i> | ownership |
| 598 | 索引 | <i>Suoyin</i> | index |
| 599 | 他律 | <i>Talü</i> | heteronomie |
| 600 | 太阳灯 | <i>Taiyangdeng</i> | sun lamp |
| 601 | 碳酸加里 | <i>Tansuanjiali</i> | carbonic acid |
| 602 | 碳酸瓦斯 | <i>Tansuanwasi</i> | carbonic gas |
| 603 | 探海灯 | <i>Tanhaideng</i> | search light |
| 604 | 探照灯 | <i>Tanzhaodeng</i> | search light |
| 605 | 特长 | <i>Techang</i> | strong point |
| 606 | 特务 | <i>Tewu</i> | special service |
| 607 | 誊写版 | <i>Tengxieban</i> | mimeograph |
| 608 | 体操 | <i>Ticao</i> | gymnastics |
| 609 | 体育 | <i>Tiyu</i> | physical culture |
| 610 | 天主 | <i>Tianzhu</i> | deus |
| 611 | 铁血 | <i>Tiexue</i> | blood and iron |
| 612 | 通货膨胀 | <i>Tonghuopengzhang</i> | inflation |
| 613 | 通货收缩 | <i>Tonghuojinsuo</i> | deflation |

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|-----|------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 614 | 统计 | <i>Tongji</i> | statistics |
| 615 | 投机 | <i>Touji</i> | speculation |
| 616 | 投影 | <i>Touying</i> | projection |
| 617 | 投资 | <i>Touzi</i> | investment |
| 618 | 图案 | <i>Tuan</i> | design |
| 619 | 退化 | <i>Tuihua</i> | degeneration |
| 620 | 退役 | <i>Tuiyi</i> | retirement |
| 621 | 瓦 | <i>Wa</i> | gramma |
| 622 | 瓦斯 | <i>Wasi</i> | gas |
| 623 | 外分泌 | <i>Waifenmi</i> | external secretion |
| 624 | 外在 | <i>Waizai</i> | externality |
| 625 | 唯心论 | <i>Weixinlun</i> | spiritualism |
| 626 | 唯物论 | <i>Weiwlun</i> | materialism |
| 627 | 卫生 | <i>Weisheng</i> | hygiene |
| 628 | 胃溃疡 | <i>weikuiyang</i> | gastric ulcer |
| 629 | 尉官 | <i>Weiguan</i> | company officer |
| 630 | 温床 | <i>Wenchuang</i> | hot bed |
| 631 | 温度 | <i>Wendu</i> | temperature |
| 632 | 温室 | <i>Wenshi</i> | hot house |
| 633 | 文化 | <i>Wenhua</i> | culture |
| 634 | 文库 | <i>Wenku</i> | library |
| 635 | 文明 | <i>Wenming</i> | civilization |
| 636 | 文学 | <i>Wenxue</i> | literature |
| 637 | 沃度 | <i>Wodu</i> | jod |
| 638 | 沃素 | <i>Wosu</i> | jod |
| 639 | 无产阶级 | <i>Wuchanjieji</i> | proletariat |

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|-----|-----|---------------------|--------------------|
| 640 | 无产者 | <i>Wuchanzhe</i> | proletarian |
| 641 | 舞台 | <i>Wutai</i> | the stage |
| 642 | 物理 | <i>Wuli</i> | physics |
| 643 | 物理学 | <i>Wulixue</i> | physics |
| 644 | 物质 | <i>Wuzhi</i> | substance |
| 645 | 悟性 | <i>Wuxing</i> | verstand |
| 646 | 喜剧 | <i>Xiju</i> | comedy |
| 647 | 系列 | <i>Xilie</i> | series |
| 648 | 洗漱 | <i>Xisu</i> | coefficient |
| 649 | 系统 | <i>Xitong</i> | system |
| 650 | 细胞 | <i>Xibao</i> | cell |
| 651 | 狭义 | <i>Xiayi</i> | a narrow sense |
| 652 | 纤维 | <i>Xianwei</i> | fibre |
| 653 | 铎铁 | <i>Xiantie</i> | pig iron |
| 654 | 现象 | <i>Xianxiang</i> | phenomenon |
| 655 | 宪兵 | <i>Xianbing</i> | military policeman |
| 656 | 宪法 | <i>Xianfa</i> | constitution |
| 657 | 腺 | <i>Xian</i> | gland |
| 658 | 相对 | <i>Xiangdui</i> | relativity |
| 659 | 想象 | <i>Xiangxiang</i> | imagination |
| 660 | 象征 | <i>Xiangzheng</i> | symbole |
| 661 | 消极 | <i>Xiaoji</i> | negative |
| 662 | 消化 | <i>Xiaohua</i> | digest |
| 663 | 小型 | <i>Xiaoxing</i> | compact size |
| 664 | 小熊座 | <i>Xiaoxiongzuo</i> | little bear |
| 665 | 小夜曲 | <i>Xiaoyequ</i> | serenus |

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|-----|------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 666 | 效果 | <i>Xiaoguo</i> | effect |
| 667 | 协定 | <i>Xieding</i> | agreement |
| 668 | 心理学 | <i>Xinxixue</i> | psychology |
| 669 | 信号 | <i>Xinhao</i> | signal |
| 670 | 信托 | <i>Xintuo</i> | trust |
| 671 | 信用 | <i>Xinyong</i> | credit |
| 672 | 猩红热 | <i>Xinghongre</i> | scarlet fever |
| 673 | 刑法 | <i>Xingfa</i> | criminal law |
| 674 | 形而上学 | <i>Xingershangxue</i> | metaphysics |
| 675 | 性能 | <i>Xingneng</i> | function |
| 676 | 虚无主义 | <i>Xuwuzhuyi</i> | nihilism |
| 677 | 序幕 | <i>Xumu</i> | prologue |
| 678 | 序曲 | <i>Xuqu</i> | overture |
| 679 | 选举 | <i>Xuanju</i> | election |
| 680 | 旋盘 | <i>Xuanpan</i> | lathe |
| 681 | 学士 | <i>Xueshi</i> | bachelor |
| 682 | 学位 | <i>Xuewei</i> | academic degree |
| 683 | 血色素 | <i>Xuesesu</i> | haemoglobin |
| 684 | 血栓 | <i>Xueshuan</i> | thrombus |
| 685 | 血吸虫 | <i>xuexichong</i> | blood fluke |
| 686 | 巡洋舰 | <i>Xunyangjian</i> | cruiser |
| 687 | 训令 | <i>Xunling</i> | official directives |
| 688 | 训育 | <i>Xunyu</i> | discipline |
| 689 | 讯问 | <i>Xunwen</i> | interrogate |
| 690 | 压延 | <i>Yayan</i> | roll |
| 691 | 压延机 | <i>Yayanji</i> | rolling mill |

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|-----|-----|-----------------|--------------------------|
| 692 | 雅乐 | <i>Yayue</i> | old Japanese court music |
| 693 | 亚铅 | <i>Yaqian</i> | zinc |
| 694 | 研磨机 | <i>Yanmoji</i> | grinder |
| 695 | 演习 | <i>Yanxi</i> | practise |
| 696 | 演绎 | <i>Yanyi</i> | deduction |
| 697 | 阳极 | <i>Yangji</i> | anode |
| 698 | 野兔病 | <i>Yetubing</i> | tularemia |
| 699 | 液体 | <i>Yeti</i> | liquid |
| 700 | 医学 | <i>Yixue</i> | medical science |
| 701 | 遗传 | <i>Yichuan</i> | heredity |
| 702 | 议决 | <i>Yijue</i> | decision |
| 703 | 议会 | <i>Yihui</i> | parliament |
| 704 | 议员 | <i>Yiyuan</i> | congressman |
| 705 | 议院 | <i>Yiyuan</i> | congress |
| 706 | 艺术 | <i>Yishu</i> | art |
| 707 | 异物 | <i>Yiwu</i> | aline substance |
| 708 | 疫痢 | <i>Yili</i> | children's dysentery |
| 709 | 意匠 | <i>Yijiang</i> | design |
| 710 | 意识 | <i>Yishi</i> | consciousness |
| 711 | 意义 | <i>Yiyi</i> | significance |
| 712 | 意译 | <i>Yiyi</i> | free translation |
| 713 | 因子 | <i>Yinzi</i> | factor |
| 714 | 阴极 | <i>Yinji</i> | cathode |
| 715 | 音程 | <i>Yincheng</i> | interval |
| 716 | 银行 | <i>Yinhang</i> | bank |
| 717 | 银幕 | <i>Yinmu</i> | silver screen |

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|-----|-----|--------------------|------------------|
| 718 | 银翼 | <i>Yinyi</i> | silver wing |
| 719 | 引渡 | <i>Yindu</i> | delivery |
| 720 | 印鉴 | <i>Yinjian</i> | seal |
| 721 | 印象 | <i>Yinxiang</i> | impression |
| 722 | 营养 | <i>Yingyang</i> | nutrition |
| 723 | 影像 | <i>Yingxiang</i> | image |
| 724 | 优生学 | <i>Youshengxue</i> | eugenics |
| 725 | 游离 | <i>Youli</i> | isolation |
| 726 | 游弋 | <i>Youyi</i> | cruise |
| 727 | 右翼 | <i>Youyi</i> | the right wing |
| 728 | 语源学 | <i>Yuyuanxue</i> | etymology |
| 729 | 预备役 | <i>Yubeiyi</i> | reserve duty |
| 730 | 预后 | <i>Yuhou</i> | prognose |
| 731 | 预算 | <i>Yusuan</i> | budget |
| 732 | 元帅 | <i>Yuanshuai</i> | marshal |
| 733 | 元素 | <i>Yuansu</i> | element |
| 734 | 园艺 | <i>Yuanyi</i> | gardening |
| 735 | 原动力 | <i>Yuandongli</i> | driving force |
| 736 | 原理 | <i>Yuanli</i> | theory |
| 737 | 原意 | <i>Yuanyi</i> | original meaning |
| 738 | 原则 | <i>Yuanze</i> | principle |
| 739 | 原子 | <i>Yuanzi</i> | atom |
| 740 | 原罪 | <i>Yuanzui</i> | original sin |
| 741 | 原作 | <i>Yuanzuo</i> | original work |
| 742 | 债权 | <i>Zhaiquan</i> | credit |
| 743 | 债务 | <i>Zhaiwu</i> | debt |

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|-----|-----|---------------------|--------------------|
| 744 | 哲学 | <i>Zhexue</i> | philosophia |
| 745 | 真空管 | <i>Zhenkongguan</i> | vacuum valve tube |
| 746 | 证券 | <i>Zhengquan</i> | bill |
| 747 | 政党 | <i>Zhengdang</i> | political party |
| 748 | 政策 | <i>Zhengce</i> | policy |
| 749 | 知识 | <i>Zhishi</i> | knowledge |
| 750 | 直观 | <i>Zhiguan</i> | intuition |
| 751 | 直径 | <i>Zhijing</i> | diameter |
| 752 | 直觉 | <i>Zhijue</i> | intuition |
| 753 | 直流 | <i>Zhiliu</i> | direct current |
| 754 | 纸型 | <i>Zhixing</i> | matrix |
| 755 | 指标 | <i>Zhibiao</i> | index |
| 756 | 指数 | <i>Zhishu</i> | exponent |
| 757 | 室扶斯 | <i>Zhifusi</i> | typhus |
| 758 | 窒素 | <i>Zhisu</i> | nitrogen |
| 759 | 制版 | <i>Zhiban</i> | plate making |
| 760 | 制裁 | <i>Zhicai</i> | sanction |
| 761 | 制御器 | <i>Zhiyuqi</i> | controller |
| 762 | 质量 | <i>Zhiliang</i> | mass |
| 763 | 中将 | <i>Zhongjiang</i> | lieutenant general |
| 764 | 仲裁 | <i>Zhongcai</i> | arbitration |
| 765 | 仲裁人 | <i>Zhongcairen</i> | arbitrator |
| 766 | 重曹 | <i>Zhongcao</i> | sodium bicarbonate |
| 767 | 重工业 | <i>Zhonggongye</i> | heavy industry |
| 768 | 轴接手 | <i>Zhoujieshou</i> | shaft coupling |
| 769 | 烛光 | <i>Zhuguang</i> | candle power |

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|-----|------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 770 | 主观 | <i>Zhuguan</i> | subject |
| 771 | 主人公 | <i>Zhurengong</i> | hero |
| 772 | 主体 | <i>Zhuti</i> | subject |
| 773 | 主义 | <i>Zhuyi</i> | principle |
| 774 | 注射 | <i>Zhushe</i> | inject |
| 775 | 转炉 | <i>Zhuanlu</i> | converter |
| 776 | 资本 | <i>Ziben</i> | capital |
| 777 | 资本家 | <i>Zibenjia</i> | capitalist |
| 778 | 资料 | <i>Ziliao</i> | material |
| 779 | 紫外线 | <i>Ziwaixian</i> | ultraviolet rays |
| 780 | 自律 | <i>Zili</i> | autonomy |
| 781 | 自然淘汰 | <i>Zirantaotai</i> | natural selection |
| 782 | 自由 | <i>Ziyou</i> | freedom |
| 783 | 自治领 | <i>Zizhiling</i> | self-governing |
| 784 | 宗教 | <i>Zongjiao</i> | religion |
| 785 | 综合 | <i>Zonghe</i> | synthesis |
| 786 | 总动员 | <i>Zongdongyuan</i> | general mobilization |
| 787 | 总理 | <i>Zongli</i> | prime minister |
| 788 | 总领事 | <i>Zonglingshi</i> | consul general |
| 789 | 组阁 | <i>Zuge</i> | cabin making |
| 790 | 组合 | <i>Zuhe</i> | combination |
| 791 | 组织 | <i>Zuzhi</i> | organization |
| 792 | 最惠国 | <i>Zuihuiguo</i> | a most favored nation |
| 793 | 左翼 | <i>Zuoyi</i> | the left wing |
| 794 | 作品 | <i>Zuopin</i> | a work |
| 795 | 作物 | <i>Zuowu</i> | crops |

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| 796 | 坐药 | <i>Zuoyao</i> | suppository |
| 797 | 和文 | <i>Hewen</i> | Japanese |
| 798 | 版画 | <i>Banhua</i> | woodcut print |
| 799 | 饱和 | <i>Baohe</i> | saturation |
| 800 | 贷方 | <i>Daifang</i> | the credit side |
| 801 | 单行本 | <i>Danxingben</i> | a separate volume |
| 802 | 道具 | <i>Daoju</i> | instrument |
| 803 | 德育 | <i>Deyu</i> | moral education |
| 804 | 高利贷 | <i>Gaolidai</i> | usury |
| 805 | 国库 | <i>Guoku</i> | the national terasury |
| 806 | 国际 | <i>Guoji</i> | international |
| 4. Others | | | |
| 807 | 克服 | <i>Kefu</i> | overcome |
| 808 | 了解 | <i>Liaojie</i> | verstehen |
| 809 | 盲从 | <i>Mangcong</i> | blind obedience |
| 810 | 美化 | <i>Meihua</i> | beautification |
| 811 | 明确 | <i>Mingque</i> | clarify |
| 812 | 派遣 | <i>Paiqian</i> | dispatch |
| 813 | 批评 | <i>Piping</i> | criticize |
| 814 | 评价 | <i>Pingjia</i> | appraise |
| 815 | 取消 | <i>Quxiao</i> | cancel |
| 816 | 探险 | <i>Tanxian</i> | exploration |
| 817 | 同情 | <i>Tongqing</i> | sympathy |
| 818 | 消防 | <i>Xiaofang</i> | fire fighting |
| 819 | 演奏 | <i>Yanzou</i> | perform |
| 820 | 支配 | <i>Zhipei</i> | dominate |

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|-----|-----|------------------|--------------|
| 821 | 直接 | <i>Zhijie</i> | direct |
| 822 | 止扬 | <i>Zhiyang</i> | aufheben |
| 823 | 指导 | <i>Zhidao</i> | guidance |
| 824 | 制限 | <i>Zhixian</i> | restrict |
| 825 | 制约 | <i>Zhiyue</i> | condition |
| 826 | 终点 | <i>Zhongdian</i> | terminal |
| 827 | 重点 | <i>Zhongdian</i> | key point |
| 828 | 主动 | <i>Zhudong</i> | main drive |
| 829 | 组成 | <i>Zucheng</i> | compose |
| 830 | 暗示 | <i>Anshi</i> | hint |
| 831 | 悲观 | <i>Beiguan</i> | pessimism |
| 832 | 背景 | <i>Beijing</i> | background |
| 833 | 必要 | <i>Biyao</i> | necessity |
| 834 | 参观 | <i>Canguan</i> | visit |
| 835 | 参看 | <i>Cankan</i> | reference |
| 836 | 参照 | <i>Canzhao</i> | reference |
| 837 | 场合 | <i>Changhe</i> | situation |
| 838 | 场所 | <i>Changsuo</i> | location |
| 839 | 承认 | <i>Chengren</i> | admission |
| 840 | 储藏 | <i>Chuzang</i> | storage |
| 841 | 单纯 | <i>Danchun</i> | naive |
| 842 | 对照 | <i>Duizhao</i> | contrast |
| 843 | 对象 | <i>Cuixiang</i> | object |
| 844 | 反感 | <i>Fangan</i> | antipathy |
| 845 | 敌视 | <i>Dishi</i> | hostile view |
| 846 | 氛围气 | <i>Fenweiqi</i> | atmosphere |

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|-----|----|-----------------|---------------|
| 847 | 否认 | <i>Fouren</i> | denial |
| 848 | 概括 | <i>Gaikuo</i> | summary |
| 849 | 固定 | <i>Guding</i> | fixed |
| 850 | 故障 | <i>Guzhang</i> | failure |
| 851 | 活跃 | <i>Huoyue</i> | activity |
| 852 | 简单 | <i>Jiandan</i> | simple |
| 853 | 交换 | <i>Jiaohuan</i> | exchange |
| 854 | 节约 | <i>Jieyue</i> | economy |
| 855 | 内容 | <i>Neirong</i> | content |
| 856 | 气分 | <i>Qifen</i> | mood |
| 857 | 气质 | <i>Qizhi</i> | temperament |
| 858 | 情操 | <i>Qingcao</i> | sentiment |
| 859 | 打消 | <i>Daxiao</i> | cancel |
| 860 | 反响 | <i>Fanxiang</i> | response |
| 861 | 动机 | <i>Dongji</i> | motive |
| 862 | 反对 | <i>Fangdui</i> | opposition |
| 863 | 方式 | <i>Fangshi</i> | form |
| 864 | 分析 | <i>Fenxi</i> | analysis |
| 865 | 否定 | <i>Fouding</i> | denial |
| 866 | 概略 | <i>Gailüe</i> | summary |
| 867 | 观点 | <i>Guandian</i> | viewpoint |
| 868 | 观念 | <i>Guanian</i> | idea |
| 869 | 积极 | <i>Jiji</i> | positive |
| 870 | 集结 | <i>Jijie</i> | gather |
| 871 | 集中 | <i>Jizhong</i> | concentration |
| 872 | 计划 | <i>Jihua</i> | plan |

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|-----|----|-----------------|--------------|
| 873 | 记号 | <i>Jihao</i> | mark |
| 874 | 记录 | <i>Jilu</i> | record |
| 875 | 尖端 | <i>Jianduan</i> | spearhead |
| 876 | 坚持 | <i>Jianchi</i> | adherence |
| 877 | 间接 | <i>Jianjie</i> | indirect |
| 878 | 介入 | <i>Jieru</i> | intervention |
| 879 | 进度 | <i>Jindu</i> | progress |
| 880 | 进展 | <i>Jinzhan</i> | progress |
| 881 | 经验 | <i>Jingyan</i> | experience |
| 882 | 理想 | <i>Lixiang</i> | idea |