A COGNITIVE-SEMANTIC COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CHINESE COMPOUNDS IN MALAYSIA AND CHINA

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ABSTRACT

In global Huayu (Chinese), Malaysian Chinese (MC) and China Chinese (CC) are from two different regions. They have strong characteristics of commonality as well as marked differences in terms of meaning, word formation, and pronunciation. The most significant difference lies in their words, as it is a direct reflection of the two societies. In addition, the main form of Chinese words is compound words. Therefore, compound words constitute the main object of this study.

Cognitive linguistics can be used to explore the relationship that exists among our language, our mind, and our experience of the world. Cognitive semantics is a main area under cognitive linguistics, which investigates knowledge representation and meaning construction. This study compares Malaysian Chinese compounds (MCCs) with their corresponding China Chinese compounds (CCCs) to detect their similarities and differences from the perspective of cognitive semantics.

In this study, a total of 56 pairs of MCCs and CCCs (112 examples in total) were extracted from five sources amongst a collection of MC mini fictions. Based on Bloomfield's (1933) classic semantic classification, all MCCs and CCCs were classified as endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds. Additionally, partially endocentric compounds were added as an intermediate type of compounds in the study.

According to the findings of the comparison, firstly, three types of compounds were found in both MCCs and CCCs, and endocentric compounds had the highest occurrence among the compounds of these two regions. However, the percentages of partially endocentric and exocentric compounds in MCCs were higher than in CCCs. This indicates that the meanings noted in MCCs are more implicit than the meanings in CCCs. Secondly, there were several commonalities and differences between each type of MCC

and its corresponding CCC. In terms of characteristics, three similarities and three differences between MCCs and CCCs were found. In the partially endocentric group, two similarities and differences between MCCs and CCCs were found. Furthermore, in the exocentric group, there were two similarities and differences in the characteristics.

Finally, Fauconnier and Turner's (2002) conceptual blending theory (CBT) was utilized to illustrate and analyze the partially endocentric and exocentric compounds, as their meanings are not fully explicit. The CBT illustrated how implicit conceptual meaning contributes to the construction of meaning in MCCs and CCCs.

The study will offer better insight for others to understand the disparity that exists between Chinese compounds in Malaysia and China, and to promote more effective interaction for these two Chinese communities.

Key words: endocentric and exocentric compounds, partially endocentric compounds, Malaysian Chinese, China Chinese, Meaning construction, Conceptual Blending theory

ABSTRAK

Menurut Huayu global (Bahasa Cina), Bahasa Cina Malaysia (MC) dan Bahasa Cina China (CC) berasal dari dua wilayah yang berbeza. Mereka mempunyai ciri-ciri kesamaan yang kuat dan juga perbezaan yang ketara dari segi makna, pembentukan kata, pengucapan, dan lain-lain. Perbezaan yang paling ketara terletak pada perkataan mereka, kerana perkataan yang terucap adalah cerminan langsung daripada kedua-dua masyarakat. Tambahan lagi, bentuk utama perkataan-perkataan Bahasa Cina adalah kata majmuk. Oleh itu, kata majmuk merupakan objek utama kajian ini. Linguistik kognitif boleh digunakan untuk meneroka hubungan yang wujud antara bahasa, fikiran dan pengalaman kita terhadap dunia.

Semantik kognitif merupakan bidang utama di bawah linguistik kognitif, yang mengkaji perlambangan pengetahuan dan binaan makna. Oleh itu, kajian ini membandingkan kata majmuk Bahasa Cina Malaysia (MCC) dengan kata majmuk Bahasa Cina China (CCC) untuk mengesan persamaan dan perbezaannya, berdasarkan semantik kognitif.

Dalam kajian ini, sejumlah 56 pasang MCC dan CCC (112 contoh keseluruhannya) diekstrak daripada lima sumber dalam koleksi fiksyen mini MC. Berdasarkan klasifikasi semantik klasik Bloomfield (1933), semua MCC dan CCC dikelaskan sebagai kata majmuk endosentrik dan kata majmuk eksosentrik. Sebagai tambahan, kata majmuk endosentrik separa ditambah sebagai kata majmuk jenis perantaraan dalam kajian ini.

Berdasarkan dapatan perbandingan kata majmuk tersebut, pertama, tiga jenis kata majmuk didapati pada kedua-dua MCC dan CCC, dan kata majmuk endosentrik mempunyai bilangan tertinggi pada kata majmuk kedua-dua wilayah ini. Walau bagaimanapun, peratusan kata majmuk endosentrik separa dan kata majmuk eksosentrik bagi MCC lebih tinggi daripada CCC. Ini menunjukkan bahawa makna yang dinyatakan

dalam MCC lebih tersirat daripada makna dalam CCC. Kedua, terdapat beberapa persamaan dan perbezaan antara setiap jenis MCC dan pasangan CCCnya. Dari segi ciri-ciri, terdapat tiga persamaan dan tiga perbezaan antara MCC dan CCC yang ditemui. Dalam kumpulan endosentrik separa, terdapat dua persamaan dan perbezaan antara MCC dan CCC. Tambahan lagi, dalam kumpulan eksosentrik, terdapat dua persamaan dan perbezaan pada ciri-cirinya.

Akhirnya, teori adunan konseptual (CBT) Fauconnier dan Turner's (2002) digunakan untuk menggambar dan menganalisis kata majmuk endosentrik separa dan kata majmuk eksosentrik kerana maknanya tidak sepenuhnya eksplisit. CBT menggambarkan bagaimana makna konseptual yang tersirat menyumbang kepada binaan makna bagi MCC dan CCC.

Kajian ini akan memberikan pandangan yang lebih baik bagi orang lain untuk memahami perbezaan yang wujud antara MCC dan CCC, dan untuk menggalakkan interaksi yang lebih berkesan bagi kedua-dua komuniti Cina ini.

Kata kunci: kata majmuk endosentrik dan eksosentrik, kata majmuk endosentrik separa, bahasa Cina Malaysia, bahasa Cina China, Binaan makna, teori Adunan Konseptual

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADJ	:	Adjective
CBT	:	Conceptual Blending Theory
CC	:	China Chinese
CCC	:	China Chinese Compound
CCD	:	Contemporary Chinese Dictionary
CDGH	:	A Comprehensive Dictionary of Global Huayu
DGH	:	A Dictionary of Global Huayu
HMF	:	Return home, Selected Contemporary Malaysian Mini Fictions
MC	:	Malaysian Chinese
MCC	:	Malaysian Chinese Compound
MMF100	:	Malaysian Mini Fiction 100
MMF15	:	Malaysian Mini Fictions 15
N	:	Noun
SCMMF	:	Selected Contemporary Malaysian Mini Fictions
SMMF	:	Singapore and Malaysian Mini Fictions
V	:	Verb

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the basic concepts of this study. It begins with the background of the study, wherein a concise description of the topic is provided. The problems existing in previous studies comparing MC and CC are discussed next. The sections following this map out the research objectives and research questions that guide the study. In the final section of this chapter, the significance and contributions of this research are given.

1.2 Background of the Study

The commonly used Chinese language is generally known as 'Huayu'. Huayu is explained as 'a common language of the Chinese people around the world based on the Mandarin language' in *A Dictionary of Global Huayu,* edited by Li (2010). Global Huayu is composed of various regional types of Huayu that are used by the local Chinese of the respective regions, as explained by Zhao (2018). He mentions that regional Huayu refers to the phenomenon of the Chinese language used in a certain area, such as mainland China Chinese, Singaporean Chinese, and Malaysian Chinese, where strong characteristics of commonality may exist among the regional varieties as well as marked differences in terms of meaning, word formation, pronunciation, and so on.

According to the definition of regional Huayu by Zhao (2018), MC can be defined as a common language of Malaysian Chinese, being a regional Chinese language based on Mandarin, which integrates many local linguistic and cultural factors. CC in this study refers to a common language used in mainland China.

At present, studies on Huayu or the Chinese language in various regions, such as Thailand, Singapore, and other places, are increasing because people are keen to identify the differences. In many previous studies which explored the Chinese language of

Southeast Asian areas, it has been seen that MC is always grouped with Singaporean Chinese due to their commonality. For example, Guo (2002) grouped Singapore Chinese and MC into one type of Chinese to discuss their words in comparison with Mandarin Chinese words. However, recently, MC is getting more and more attention. The comparative studies of MC and the Chinese language used in mainland China, or CC, have been stimulating much interest as well. This is because MC and CC bear several differentiations regarding which and when to use. This may create a difference in meaning, and, if not expressed clearly, can create misunderstandings, ambiguity or even humor.

These differences can be detected through the morphology, word formation, and the usage in context. The most significant difference lies in their words. 'Compounding' is the main method used to construct words in the Chinese language (Yan, 2007). Based on this, it is imperative to understand how the way compounds are used in MC may differ from the way they are used in CC.

1.3 Research Problem

A review of past literature showed that there are gaps in some of the earlier studies which had focused on this aspect of the research. These gaps are elaborated below.

Firstly, many studies (Huang, 2009; Wong, 2014; Wang, 2016) comparing MC words and CC words have focused on morphology or how they are derived etymologically. Such studies seem to rarely focus on the differences in compound words, and studies on the meaning construction of MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are also rare.

Secondly, studies which have used the approach of Conceptual Blending involve mainly examining their use in CC, but not in other contexts. The present study aims to fill these gaps. This study will specifically identify the differences and similarities in

characteristics that exist between MCCs and CCCs by looking at them from the cognitive semantics perspective.

1.4 Research Objectives

Since the aim of this study is to examine the similarities and differences in characteristics between MCCs and CCCs from the cognitive semantic perspective, based on this, the objectives are stated below.

1. To identify the three types of MCCs (endocentric, exocentric and partially endocentric) used in MC mini fictions and their corresponding CCCs in the Chinese dictionary.
2. To explore the different or similar characteristics observed within the main types of MCCs and their corresponding CCCs.
3. To analyze the construction of meaning of the MCCs and CCCs by using CBT.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the aim and objectives formulated for this study, the research questions that this study intends to address are stated below.

1. What are the types of MCCs found in MC mini fictions and their corresponding CCCs in the Chinese dictionary?
2. What are the different or similar characteristics observed in the main types of MCCs when compared to their corresponding CCCs?
3. How are the meanings of MCCs and CCCs formed based on the CBT approach?

1.6 Significance of the Research

Malaysia is a multiethnic country, with the Chinese comprising the second largest ethnic group. According to a report by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2019), the ratio of ethnic Chinese living in Malaysia is 22.8 percent. Therefore, how they use MC will have a definite impact regionally and globally.

Since there have been instances of some miscommunications and misunderstandings due to the differences in the two varieties of Chinese – MC and CC, there is a need to understand the extent of their differences, since there are more and more mainland Chinese coming to Malaysia either for education, business, employment, or for making the country their second home.

Moreover, the comparative study conducted in this research will provide better insight for others to understand the disparity that exists between MC and CC. In this regard, it will serve as a link for the two countries to understand each other in better ways when using different expressions in MC and CC. This will promote better communication and more effective interaction for the different Chinese communities that exist throughout the world. Some Chinese characters which may seem simple in form may convey rather complex meanings; therefore, understanding the meanings of these Chinese words is important for those aspiring to master the Chinese language. Consequently, this study will not only help people to understand the meanings of MC and CC compounds, but also to know how these meanings are formed. Furthermore, this comparative study focuses on MCCs and CCCs from the cognitive semantic perspective, contributing to knowledge in this area.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The literature and studies pertaining to cognitive linguistics, cognitive semantics, classification of compounds, and studies on Chinese compounds are reviewed in this chapter. The literature review presents the topics and terminologies related to the focus of the study. Relevant past studies on the analysis of Chinese compounds and the comparison of MC and CC are reviewed.

2.2 Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is a relatively new field of linguistics that surfaced during the early 1970s. It describes how language interacts with humans' daily experience, knowledge, and thoughts. Zhang and Zhu (1999) explain the concept of 'cognition'; they believed that cognition refers to the way people perceive the world and conceptualize knowledge. Cognitive linguistics is linguistic study based on cognition. Evans and Greens (2006, p. 48) state that cognitive linguistics emphasizes on the role of meaning. To some extent, Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007, p. 5) clarify the notion of cognitive linguistics: "Cognitive linguistics is the study of language in its cognitive function, where cognitive refers to the crucial role of intermediate informational structures in our encounters with the world".

Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007, p. 5) further state three elementary characteristics of cognitive linguistics: (1) the 'primacy of semantics' in linguistic analysis, which the authors claim to be determined by the cognitive perspective; if categorization is considered to be the main function of language, by default, meaning can be viewed as the main linguistic phenomenon. (2) the 'encyclopedic nature of linguistic meaning,' which is based on categorical functions in language, proposes that if language exists as a system used to categorize the world, linguistic meaning can be assumed as the association of

linguistic form with world knowledge, and (3) the 'perspectival nature of linguistic meaning' holds that the categorization of language dictates that a structure be pressed upon the world. To be more specific, language is used as a tool to arrange knowledge mirroring the range of experiences of individuals and groups.

Evans and Greens (2006, p. 3) state that cognitive linguistics is not a specific theory. Furthermore, Geeraerts and Cuyckens (2007, p. 5) mention that cognitive linguistics as a framework is flexible rather than being a specific theory. With regard to category structure, there exist within cognitive linguistics a number of overlapping approaches as opposed to a particular theory.

2.2.1 Cognitive Semantics

Cognitive Semantics is one of the main areas under cognitive linguistics. Yuan (2017, p. 79) believes that it is established on the reflection and criticism of traditional semantic theory. Unlike the practical approach to semantics, which determines the meaning of an expression to be reflective of something in the world, cognitive semantics emphasizes that meaning is something flexible, and focuses on its wide, encyclopedic conception. Furthermore, cognitive semantics connects the meanings of an expression to mental entities. In other words, what occurs is a mapping between linguistic expressions and cognitive structures. (Allwood & Gärdenfors, 1999, p. 19; Geeraerts, 2010, p. 229). In simpler words, cognitive semantics investigates the representation of knowledge and the construction of meaning, in order to reveal the relationship existing between one's experience of the world, conceptual organization, and the structure of meaning within language.

Geeraerts (2010, p. 182) offers four contributions to the study of meanings within the field of cognitive linguistics: "(1) the prototype model of category structure; (2) the

conceptual theory of metaphor and metonymy; (3) Idealized Cognitive models and frame theory; and (4) the study of meaning change."

Geeraerts theorizes that the above four topics encompass three guiding notions of a cognitive linguistic understanding of language, namely that meaning is flexible contextually and pragmatically, that meaning is a cognitive phenomenon surpassing the world's concrete margins, and that meaning is concerned with perspectivization.

The first notion promotes the analysis of change that arises from language use, alongside how meaning dynamism shows itself in categorization structures. The second idea focuses on describing structures of meaning along with semantic mechanisms, going past the lexical level. The final ideal encourages studying how the meaning of a word concerns seeing one object or concept in relation to another, through figurative language like metaphor or metonymy, or by the extension of a prototype.

Yuan (2017, p. 79) concludes that there are nine main notions of cognitive semantics in the study of word and sentence meaning: (1) embodiment, (2) conceptualization, (3) encyclopedic, (4) prototype, (5) image schema, (6) metaphor, (7) parable, (8) iconicity and (9) cognitive model and activation theory. These nine notions are briefly introduced as follows:

(1) Embodiment notion

This notion holds that semantics is based on bodily experience perception, and that concepts can be formed through the body, the brain, and experience in the world. In Evans & Green (2006, p. 157), the concept is realized, or rather, the conceptual structure arises, from the interactivity that occurs between humans and the world.

(2) Conceptualization notion

In cognitive linguistics, meaning is discerned through conceptualization. It is a process that is based on bodily experience and cognitive processing. Langacker (1987) considers semantic structure as conceptualization which is customized according to the particularities of linguistic convention. So it stands that carrying out semantic analysis necessitates that the conceptual structure be characterized. Evans and Green (2006, p. 162) equate the construction of meaning with conceptualization, which from the cognitive semantic perspective implies that meaning is not encoded by language itself; rather, its construction is based on our encyclopedic knowledge. Additionally, Evans and Green (2006) explained the process of meaning construction based on Conceptual Bending theory. The Conceptual Blending theory will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3 of the dissertation.

(3) Encyclopedic notion

Since conceptualization is a cognitive processing, it does not entirely depend on the objective world, but is closely related to human cognitive methods and knowledge systems. For Evans & Green (2006, p. 206), it is not possible to understand the meanings of words in isolation from the encyclopedic knowledge they are connected to. Geeraerts (2010, p. 222) states that, taking an encyclopedic perspective, our understanding of the world is arranged in broader categories, or "larger chunks of knowledge". The encyclopedic understanding of linguistic meaning calls for ways in which these "larger chunks of knowledge" can be represented, along with ways to link all pertinent lexical items to that same broad conceptual structure.

(4) Prototype notion

'Prototype' plays a key role in the process of categorization. The category is built on a clear prototype 'Examplar'. By comparing other members with this prototype

exemplar, they can be classified within the same category if they have similar attributes (Yuan, 2017, P. 84).

(5) Image schema notion

This concept states that the fundamental knowledge structure is formed on the basis of physical experience, which comes from perception and interaction. Image schema is the initial cognitive structure, it is an important tool to form a conceptual category, to organize thinking, and to establish meaning. The expansion of image schema is mainly accomplished through metaphor and metonymy, and it plays a key role in one concept being mapped to another concept (Yuan, 2017, p.86).

(6) Metaphor notion

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) propose the conceptual metaphor theory, which emphasizes the universal nature of metaphors within our day to day experiences and the role played by human cognition in interpreting these metaphors. There are two domains of knowledge existing in conceptual metaphor, namely, 'source domain' and 'target domain'. Metaphor can systematically map one concept domain to another domain through human cognition and reasoning. This mapping is not arbitrary; some mappings follow from embodied experiences that are pre-conceptual, and some build on those embodied experiences so as to create conceptual structures that are more and more complex (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 286).

(7) Parable notion

Parable regards the parable story as a basic cognitive method of human beings. People often project one story onto another through allegorical methods and by explaining their various experiences in the form of literature. Language is also formed in this way (Yuan, 2017, p. 88).

(8) Iconicity notion

Iconicity refers to a natural connection and similarities between signifier and signified. These connections and similarities exist and can be perceived by people in the process of language formation (Yuan, 2017, p.89).

(9) Cognitive model and activation theory

Lakoff (1987) proposes an Idealized Cognitive Model. It refers to the abstract, unified, and idealized understanding of the speaker's experience and knowledge in a specific cultural background, which is based on many models such as image-schematic models and metonymic models. In Geeraerts (2010, p. 225), the Cognitive model, rather than referring to a particular descriptive model, is used as an umbrella term for the variety of models of encyclopedic knowledge focused on by cognitive semantics. For meaning understanding, people will depend on encyclopedic knowledge to activate the knowledge structure in the relevant cognitive domain and form the characteristic of the word when they understand its meaning.

The notions of Conceptual Metaphor, Conceptual Metonymy, and Encyclopedic Knowledge will be explained in detail since they are often combined and used in many past studies to examine the meanings of Chinese characters and words.

2.2.2 Conceptual Metaphor and Conceptual Metonymy

As mentioned in last section, Conceptual metaphor theory emerged in the 1980 book, *Metaphors We Live By,* written by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 296; Ungerer & Schmid, 2006). The theory includes a 'source domain' and a 'target domain'. Metaphor functions as a tool for humans to understand and experience a conceptual domain based on another; the exchange that occurs between these two domains is known as 'mapping'.

For instance, consider the mappings for LIFE IS A JOURNEY, where 'journey' is the source domain, and 'life,' the target domain. Based on the cognitive perspective of metaphor, 'life' is an abstract concept understood through knowledge from the concrete concept 'journey'. In short, a conceptual metaphor shows that the abstract concept relies on a concrete word to make its meaning concrete in language expressions (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 295).

Unlike Conceptual Metaphor, Conceptual Metonymy is the conceptual relation 'X stands for Y' (Evans & Green, 2006, p.315). Examples of conceptual metonymy are:

(1) All hands on deck (Ungerer & Schmid, 2006, p. 128).

(2) The university needs more clever heads (Ungerer & Schmid, 2006, p. 128).

These two examples illustrate that one entity stands for the other. In example (1), the word 'hands' is a part of the body (SUBSTRUCTURE), and it stands for physical labor (PERSON). In the second example, 'heads' (SUBSTUCTURE) stands for the intelligent human (PERSON). The PERSON can be expressed by 'hands' or 'heads' according to different contexts. In other words, Conceptual Metonymy enables an entity to stand in place of another given that both the concepts exist in the same domain. (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 312).

In some past studies (Booij; 2004; Benczes, 2006; Scalise et al., 2009), the meaning of words is understood based on conceptual metaphor and metonymy. Benczes (2004, p. 2) states that with the help of a cognitive linguistic 'tool' such as metaphor, metonymy and blending, among others, the meaning of exocentric compounds becomes analyzable and transparent.

2.2.3 Encyclopedic Knowledge

Encyclopedic knowledge is an important notion in Cognitive Linguistics. Cognitive semantics scholars believe that the understanding of meaning must depend on context, which is composed of background knowledge structures. This background knowledge structure consisting of encyclopedic knowledge is the 'cognitive domain' (Evans & Green, 2006). The cognitive domain is the knowledge structure in our conceptual system, which ranges from simple concept to complex knowledge system and contains and organizes relevant ideas and experiences.

In cognitive linguistics, encyclopedic knowledge is regarded as a structured systematic knowledge organized into a network. Cognitive psychologists (Robert and Karin. 2008) believe that the value of words does not come from the utterance itself, but from concepts and relationships as well as the meaningful knowledge structures they reflect. Therefore, words and larger linguistic units (such as phrases and sentences) are the entry points into the knowledge network. For a comprehensive interpretation of the meaning of a language expression, it is usually based on humans' social and physical experience, and includes background knowledge, besides common-sense, sociocultural, and real-world knowledge, etc. Therefore, in general, the meaning of a word cannot be known from an isolated dictionary definition, and must rely on encyclopedia knowledge (Evans & Green, 2006).

Kecskes (2013, p. 81) claims that what the encyclopedic perspective offers is a model representing the "system of conceptual knowledge" that linguistic meaning is based on. This conceptual knowledge system is crucial to human ability to communicate sensibly.

2.3 Compounds in Chinese

Compounding is an effective way of creating new words and expressing new concepts. Many Chinese words are compounds consisting of two or more morphemes (Chu & Ding, 2016). Bloomfield (1933) proposes that a compound consists of two or more free morphemes. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (Hornby et al, 2014, p. 411), a compound in grammar refers to a noun, adjective, or verb that is made up of two words or more, or parts of words, and is noted down as one word, or more than one word connected with one or more hyphens. In the Contemporary Chinese Dictionary (CCD), a compound (复合词 *fù hé cí*) is a word that is composed of two or more roots.

Some scholars have analyzed word formations in Chinese and shared their opinions on the identification of compounds. For example, in Packard's (2000, p.80) study, a compound word is composed of roots. Similarly, Booij (2018, p.227) believes that the basic unit of compounding in Chinese should be the root, rather than the word.

2.4 Classification of Compounds

Bloomfield's (1933) classification of compounds is the most prevalent semantic classification of compounds (Benczes, 2006b, p. 2). A number of researchers have applied the classification of compounds in their studies, such as Benczes (2004), Ceccagno and Basciano (2007).

Bloomfield (1933) initially proposed endocentric and exocentric construction, from the perspective of meanings and functions of the components of a compound. According to Bloomfield (1933), the compound is the hyponym of its head element. For instance, *blackbird* is the hyponym of its head element *bird*; *armchair* is the hyponym of *chair*. Namely, armchair is a type of chair, and blackbird is a type of bird. These

compounds have the same function as their head members; hence, they are endocentric constructions.

In the case of exocentric compounds, the class of the whole compound is different from that of the head member. For example, in *turnkey*, the head member is an infinitive verb, but the whole compound is a noun. These kinds of compounds are exocentric. On the other hand, some compounds have the same functions as their head members, but the whole meaning is not a hyponym of the head element. As an example, *blue-stocking* has noun function; it is considered as a noun and also as a head member. In terms of meaning, blue-stocking does not denote a kind of stocking but refers to a well-educated woman. Yet these kinds of compounds are classed as exocentric.

Following Bloomfield's (1933) original proposal, modern scholars such as Benczes (2004, p. 2) and Scalise et al (2009, p. 49, p. 62) have indicated that if a compound has a lexical head (or two) which specifies the class of the compound, it is called an endocentric compound. If a compound has no lexical head, the class denoted by the compound is unpredictable from the denotation of its components, and as such is called an exocentric compound. To sum up, the meaning of the whole exocentric compound is not derived from the meanings of its component parts.

As Bloomfield (1933, p. 236) mentioned, there are some borderline cases which may not be clearly distinguished, whereby the meaning of the compound is less explicit than the endocentric compounds and is also not as implicit as the exocentric compounds. Based on this, a new term proposed in Leong's (2015) study distinguished a type of compound which is difficult to define as either endocentric or exocentric. Leong (2015) termed this 'partially-endocentric' in her master's dissertation. She further explained (2015, p. 44) that a compound word has a lexical head, but the meaning of the non-head component may not be fully explicit, and the non-head component may also provide an

additional meaning for understanding the whole compound word, as seen in the example from her study, 溜走 *liū zǒu* (slip + walk) 'walk away secretly'. The lexical head 走 *zǒu* 'walk' is an explicit component while the meaning of non-head 溜 *liū* 'slip' is opaque. These two components combine to make a partially explicit word. The additional meaning from the non-head component 溜 *liū* 'slip' which refers to 'to go quickly and quietly without being noticed' provides a hint for understanding the compound 溜走 *liū zǒu* (slip + walk) 'walk away secretly' (p. 77).

Thus, in her study the compounds are more specifically divided into three types: endocentric, exocentric, and partially-endocentric.

Chao (1968) has classified six macro-types based on interior constructions of Chinese compounds. They are subject-predicate, coordination, modifier-head, verb-object, verb-complement, and complex construction.

Subject-predicate construction describes a subject-predicate relationship between the constituents of a compound. For instance, in 天亮 *tiān liàng* (day + bright) 'daybreak', the first component 天 *tiān* 'day' functions as the subject while the second component 亮 *liàng* 'bright' functions as the predicate. Coordination construction such as the compound 书报 *shū bào* (book + newspaper) 'books and newspapers' where neither component is subordinate, nor has a modifying relation to the other. Modifier-head construction such as the compound 飞机 *fēi jī* (fly + machine) 'airplane', where one of components is modified by and therefore structurally dominated by the other. Verb-object construction such as the compound 转眼 *zhuǎn yǎn* (turn + eye) 'in an instant', where the first component is a verb, and the second component is performed by the action of verb. Complex construction is the compound constituted by three or more than three components, there is more than one interior construction within a compound. For instance,

in 地震仪 *dì zhèn yí* (grand + shake + instrument) 'seismometer', the first two components 地震 *dì zhèn* (grand + shake) 'earthquake' have a subject-predicate construction, while the construction of the first two components and the third component 地震仪 *dì zhèn yí* (earthquake + instrument) 'seismometer' is classified as a modifier-head construction.

Chao's (1968) classification has indicated characteristics of components, the first five macro types developed and generally acknowledged in Chinese compound classification (Chen, 2008, p.325). This classification is discussed or adopted by many studies, for example, Chen (2008) and Li (2010).

Bisetto and Scalise (2005) propose a new classification of compounds based on the grammatical relations between the components of a compound. The compounds are divided into three macro-types: subordinate, attributive, and coordinate.

Compounds are classified as 'Subordinate' whenever there is a 'complement' relation between the two constituents, such as *taxi driver.* Attributive compounds are described as ones that are constituted by a noun, an adjective, or two nouns, and whose non-head is more often used metaphorically, thus indicating an attribute belonging to the head, as in the compound *sword fish*. Finally, Coordinate compounds are identified by their constituents being connected by the 'and' conjunction during compound formation, for example, the compound *poet painter* (Bisetto & Scalise, 2005). Among them, the attributive and coordinate compounds proposed by Bisetto and Scalise (2005) are similar to the modifier-head and coordination construction that are proposed in Chao's (1968) study.

In Bisetto & Scalise's (2005) classification, each macro-type may be endocentric or exocentric. Therefore, all the compounds can be accommodated in six classes:

Subordinate endocentric, Subordinate exocentric, Attributive endocentric, Attributive exocentric, Coordinate endocentric, and Coordinate exocentric.

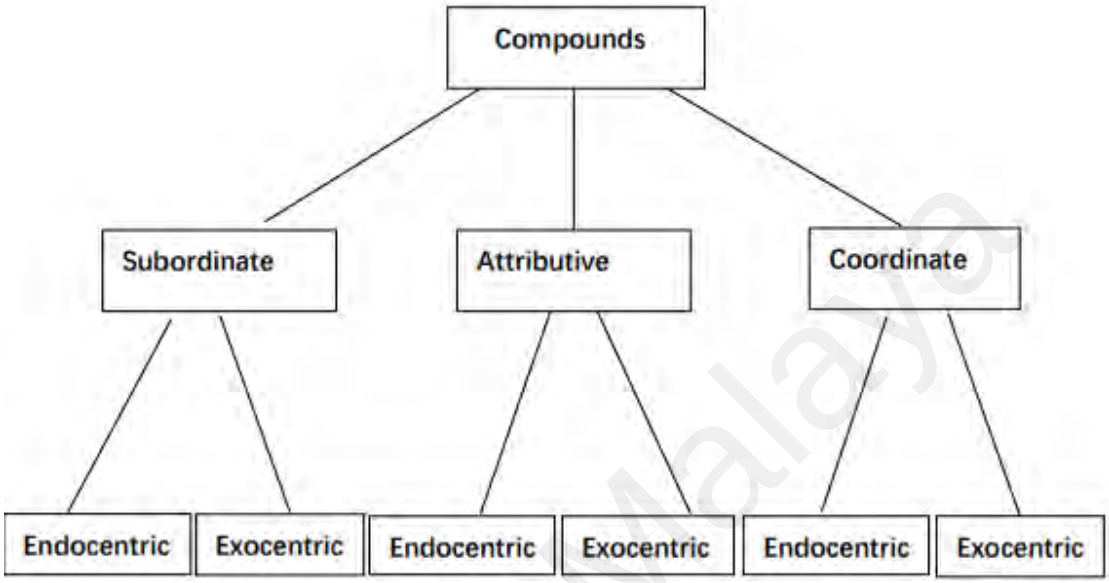

Figure 2.1: Bisetto and Scalise's (2005) Classification of Compounds

Based on the classification presented in figure 2.1, Ceccagno and Basciano (2007) proposed new definitions for the three macro-types of compounds: the constituents of Subordinate compounds, have an argument-head relation with each other, the constituents of Attributive compounds have a modifier-head relation between themselves, and constituents of Coordinate compounds in turn display a rational coordination between themselves, or exhibit semantic relations like synonymy, antonymy, redundancy, and reduplication. Moreover, their found that Chinese has three head positions in compounds: right-headed compounds, left-headed compounds and two-headed compounds.

Some scholars analyzed the internal structure of Chinese compounds from the perspective of lexical heads. Ceccagno and Scalise (2006) gave rise to the Chinese compounds canonical head principle, which states that the canonical position of the head in Chinese compounds is on the right. Furthermore, Ceccagno & Basciano (2007)

analyzed Chinese neologism from CCD. Their study found that 80.8% of compounds are endocentric in structure. Among them, 47.8% are right-handed compounds, 17.8% are left-headed compounds, and 15.2% are two-headed compounds. However, the ratio of exocentric compounds is only 19.2%.

2.5 Previous Studies on Chinese Words

The literature review in this section addresses relevant previous studies on the analysis of Chinese compounds and Chinese single syllable words.

2.5.1 Synonymous Compounds in Chinese

In the Chinese language, there is a special language phenomenon: synonymous compounds. The meaning of the morphemes of synonymous compounds seems similar, but there is a nuance between morphemes in some compounds (Liu, 2014).

Liu (2014) analyzes the morphemes and semantic structures of Chinese synonymous compounds. In his study, a synonymous compound is defined as a compound that consists of two or more morphemes with similar meaning. Liu's (2014) study attempted to explore the classification of synonymous compounds based on the nuance between morphemes.

In the analysis, the synonymous compounds are classified into three types:

(1) The differences in the meaning of two morphemes. For instance，饥饿 *jī è* 'hungry + hungry' = 'hungry', while both of the morphemes mean hungry, but the degree of 饿 *è* 'hungry' is deeper than 饥 *jī* 'hungry'.

(2) The same meaning in two morphemes, for instance: 迷惑 *mí huò* 'puzzle +puzzle'. In Chinese, the meanings of these two morphemes are exactly the same.

(3) One-sided compounds, composed of two morphemes with similar or opposite

meaning. In this type of compounds, the meaning is derived more strongly form one morpheme, and the other is an accompanying morpheme. This type of compound is an important category of compounds, but it is comparatively small in quantity.

2.5.1.1 The Chinese Synonyms 房 *fáng* 'house' and 屋 *wū* 'house'

Zhang (2004) and Lai (2013) analyze Chinese synonyms 房 *fáng* and 屋 *wū*. Zhang (2004) mentions that 房 *fáng* and 屋 *wū* are from different etymologies. In modern Chinese, these two words have come to be synonyms through the evolution of the word and are interchangeable in many cases. However, some of the semantic features of the original meaning of these two words are still deeply hidden in the language sense of language users.

As these two researchers posit, the original meaning of 房 *fáng* is a place of residence or sleeping room in ancient China. In contrast, 屋 *wū* is a place with roof and wall, which can block rain, keep people warm, and provide a space for living and for storing supplies. All of them refer to their extended meaning: 'house'.

Zhang (2004) states that in terms of expressions related to a 'roof', such as 屋顶花园 *wū ding huāy uán* 'roof garden', the 屋 *wū* cannot be replaced by the 房 *fáng*. When things are related to 'sleeping' or 'accommodation', the 房 *fáng* cannot be replaced by the 屋 *wū*, such as 卧房 *wòfáng* 'bedroom', 客房 *kè fáng* 'guest room' and so on.

Lai (2013) explores their differences in etymon, collocation, and image color. According to Liu (1980), image color is the association of the object represented by the word. He believes that compared with 屋 *wū,* 房 *fáng* has greater flexibility in word formation, and can combine many words for the purpose of referring to new concepts, for

instance, 房车 *fáng chē* ‘motor home’. These new words cannot be replaced by the component 屋 *wū*. In brief, Lai’s (2013) study shows that the undertone of 房 *fáng* is more modern than that of 屋 *wū*.

Nie (2014) examines the features of four basic temperature-sensation words from a semantic perspective; these are 冷 *lěng* ‘cold’, 凉快 *liáng kuai* ‘cool’, 暖和 *nuǎn huo* ‘warm’ and 热 *rè* ‘hot’. The analysis relies on cognitive linguistics to discuss how to employ these words in different situations. The study explains the concept of temperature as a temperature phenomenon, and defines temperature-sensation words as language used to explain the concept of temperature.

The semantic features of 冷 *lěng* ‘cold’, 凉快 *liáng kuai* ‘cool’, 暖和 *nuǎn huo* ‘warm’, amd 热 *rè* ‘hot’ are shown below:

Table 2.1: The Semantic Features of 冷 *lěng* 'cold', 凉快 *liáng kuai* 'cool', 暖和 *nuǎn huo* 'warm', and 热 *rè* 'hot' (Nie, 2014)

Basic temperature-sensation word	Basic concept	Semantemes
冷 *lěng* 'cold'	low temperature; a feeling of low temperature	temperature; sense; physiology; objective; object; low
凉快 *liáng kuai* 'cool'	low temperature; cool (lower degree than 冷 *lěng* 'cold')	temperature; sense; physiology; objective; object; relatively lower
暖和 *nuǎn huo* 'warm'	not cold and not too hot	temperature; sense; physiology; objective; object; moderation
热 *rè* 'hot'	high temperature; a sense of high temperature.	temperature; sense; physiology; objective; object; high

Nie (2014) believes temperature is an objective phenomenon and a comprehensive subjective feeling. People's understanding of temperature is summarized from daily life experience; the concept of temperature in daily life not only refers to the temperature phenomenon in life, but also expresses people's perception of temperature.

2.5.2 Cognitive Studies of Chinese Single Syllable Words

In the Chinese language, the experience of the human body is meaningful and significant in structuring abstract concepts. Some studies have explored the derived meanings of terms using human features in the Chinese language.

2.5.2.1 The 'eyes' in Chinese

In Liu's (2016) study, five features of 'eyes' in Chinese are identified from a metaphor perspective: (1) the 'eyes', referring to the object which has a similar shape to eyes. (2) the 'eyes' used to express emotion, (3) the 'eyes' used as a metaphor formed according to people's experiences; (4) the 'eyes' referring to an ability, including people's understanding, judgment or viewpoint; (5) the 'eyes' used as a metonym, referring to a thing or a person which relates to the character of 'eyes'.

2.5.2.2 The 'hand' in Chinese

A study by Hui (2017) attempts to analyze the metaphor-based similarities and differences between the English 'hand and the Chinese 'hand', and to study the cognitive as well as cultural notions that lead to these similarities and differences.

Following the comparisons of the study, the results show that the hands in Chinese can refer to: (1) the motion of a hand; (2) handwriting; (3) skill, ability; (4) control, possession; (5) sides, aspects; (6) unit of length; (7) the feeling; (8) assistance, concern, approval; (9) order, sequence; (10) handcuffs, fetters or chains; (11) head; (12) a person's pulse on the wrist.

2.5.2.3 The 'mouth' in Chinese

Xu (2007) analyzes □ *kǒu* 'mouth' in Chinese from the metaphor cognition perspective. The study believes the cognition of 'mouth' includes three aspects: (1) the experiences of people's bodies. Many words and sentences prove the mapping

relationship between ‘mouth’ and sense words (touch, taste, smell, etc.) or body (heart), (2) natural experiences; it is like relating to the things in nature and animals, (3) Social experience, such as a metaphor of ‘mouth’ relating to people, clothes, foods, residence, military, etc.

2.5.3 Chinese Culture within Single Syllable Words

Language and culture are related quite closely, in that there is a direct effect of the culture of an individual or group on the language used. Words as one of the elements of language also reflect the culture of an ethnic group (Zen, 2012).

2.5.3.1 Chinese Culture within the Localizer ‘east’

Zen (2012) explores the cultural metaphorical function of the Chinese localizer 东 *dōng* ‘east’. In the study, the vitality contained within the localizer 东 *dōng* ‘east’ is identified. The East is where the sun rises; the sun brings light and warmth to people, and vitality to the earth. Hence, the east represents vitality and hope in Chinese culture.

Another cultural metaphor of the East is respect. As a place where the sun rises, the Chinese express respect or honor by reference to the East. These ideas are also reflected in residential places. In traditional Chinese architecture, the eastern room is the room where the elders or the masters live. Since then, the ‘east’ has developed the meaning of owner.

2.5.3.2 Chinese Culture within the Color Word ‘red’

Piao (2009) and Ning (2012) examine 红 *hóng* ‘red’ metaphor from a cultural perspective. Piao (2009) states that in Chinese culture, red is always related to happiness and joy. Accordingly, metaphors such as achievement, smoothness, success, and good luck have been developed. In addition, Ning (2012) explores the similarities and differences between English and Chinese of ‘red’ as a metaphor, and analyzed the reasons

from the cultural perspective. Ning's (2012) study shows that the metaphors of 'red' in English and Chinese share a part of target domains, and their metaphors have the same or similar meanings in a small part of the target domain, such as sentiment domain and festive domain, while in some domains, like the economic one, they have different metaphorical meanings. For example, red is often used in the economic domain to indicate positive meanings such as rewards or profits in Chinese, but in English, it mostly refers to economic losses. Ning (2012) believes that cognition changes with the development of culture and civilization.

2.5.4 Conceptual Blending Theory Studies on Chinese Compounds

CBT focuses on "the general mental capacity of blending" and human ability "to invent new concepts and to assemble new and dynamic mental patterns" (Fauconnier and Turner, 2002). In CBT, there are four mental spaces which are constantly being constructed in the process of human cognition. They are: two input spaces, a generic space, and a blending space. These four mental spaces are mapped to each other; they are connected to each other through projection and form a conceptual blending network (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 404).

In the beginning, CBT was frequently applied to understand the English language. In recent years, some researchers (Wang, 2009; Shi, 2015; Leong, 2015) have used this theory to analyze meaning construction in CC.

2.5.4.1 Analysis of Chinese Antonymous Compounds

Wang (2009) collected 81 N+N antonymous compounds from CCD and used CBT to explain the semantic generation process of Chinese antonymous compounds. In her analysis, the semantic blending mechanism of Chinese antonymous compounds has the following four modes: basic mode, metaphor mode, metonymy mode, and iconicity mode.

Her study takes the compound word 水火 *shuǐ huǒ* (water + fire) as an example. There are five meanings in CCD: (1) water and fire, (2) incompatible, (3) disaster or hardship, (4) cooking, and (5) the old name for defecation.

The first meaning is formed from the basic mode, which is the meaning of the compound words 'water' and 'fire' and comes from the direct combination of the components '水 *shuǐ* (water)' and '火 *huǒ* (fire)'.

The meanings (2) and (3) are derived from the characteristics of '水 *shuǐ* (water)' and '火 *huǒ* (fire)', for example, the properties of incompatibility and the extreme states that they can produce. Simply, these two meanings are produced by completion and expansion in the blending space through metaphor.

In meaning (4), the concrete concepts '水 *shuǐ* (water)' and '火 *huǒ* (fire) refer to the abstract conceptual meaning, 'cooking,' through metonymy.

The semantic of (5) reflects a kind of iconicity of language, which is directly related to human experience. When people perceive water and fire, the properties of liquid and gas are easily connected with human defecation. This is a euphemistic expression in Chinese.

The semantic generation process of Chinese antonymous compounds 水火 *shuǐ huǒ* (water + fire) through CBT is shown in figure 2.2 below.

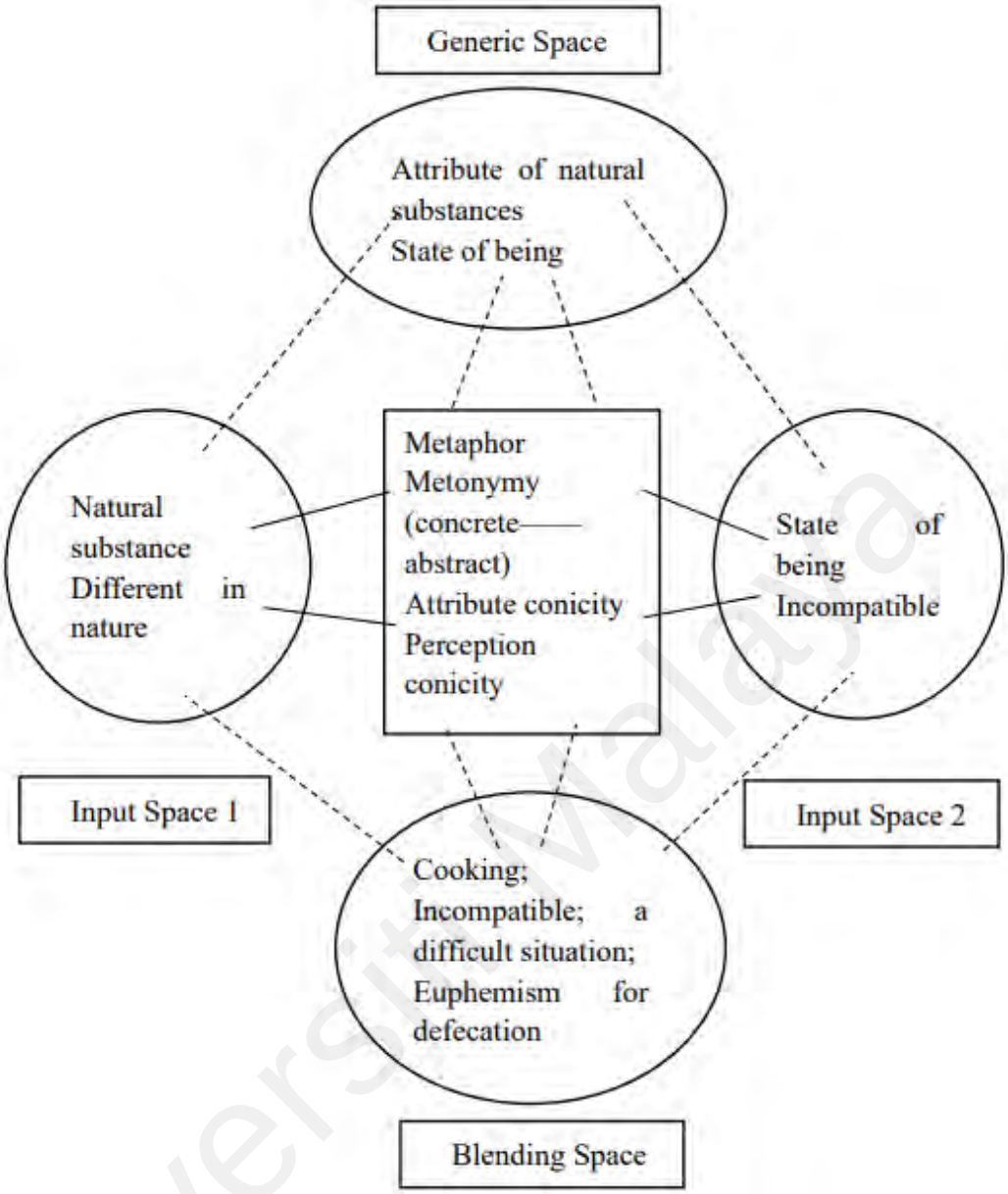

Figure 2.2: The Semantic Generation Process of Chinese Antonymous Compound 水火 *shuǐ huǒ* (water + fire) (Wang, 2009)

2.5.4.2 Analysis of New Chinese Compounds

Shi (2015) analyzes the construction process in the meaning of Chinese neologisms related to economy and trade, based on CBT. His study analyzed the neologisms 手机病毒 *shǒu jī bìng dú* 'cellphone + virus' (mobile phone virus). The conceptual blending mechanism in the construction of meaning was explained using

illustration and descriptions, as in the example of 手机病毒 *shǒu jī bìng dú* 'cellphone + virus' (mobile phone virus) illustrated in figure 2.3 below.

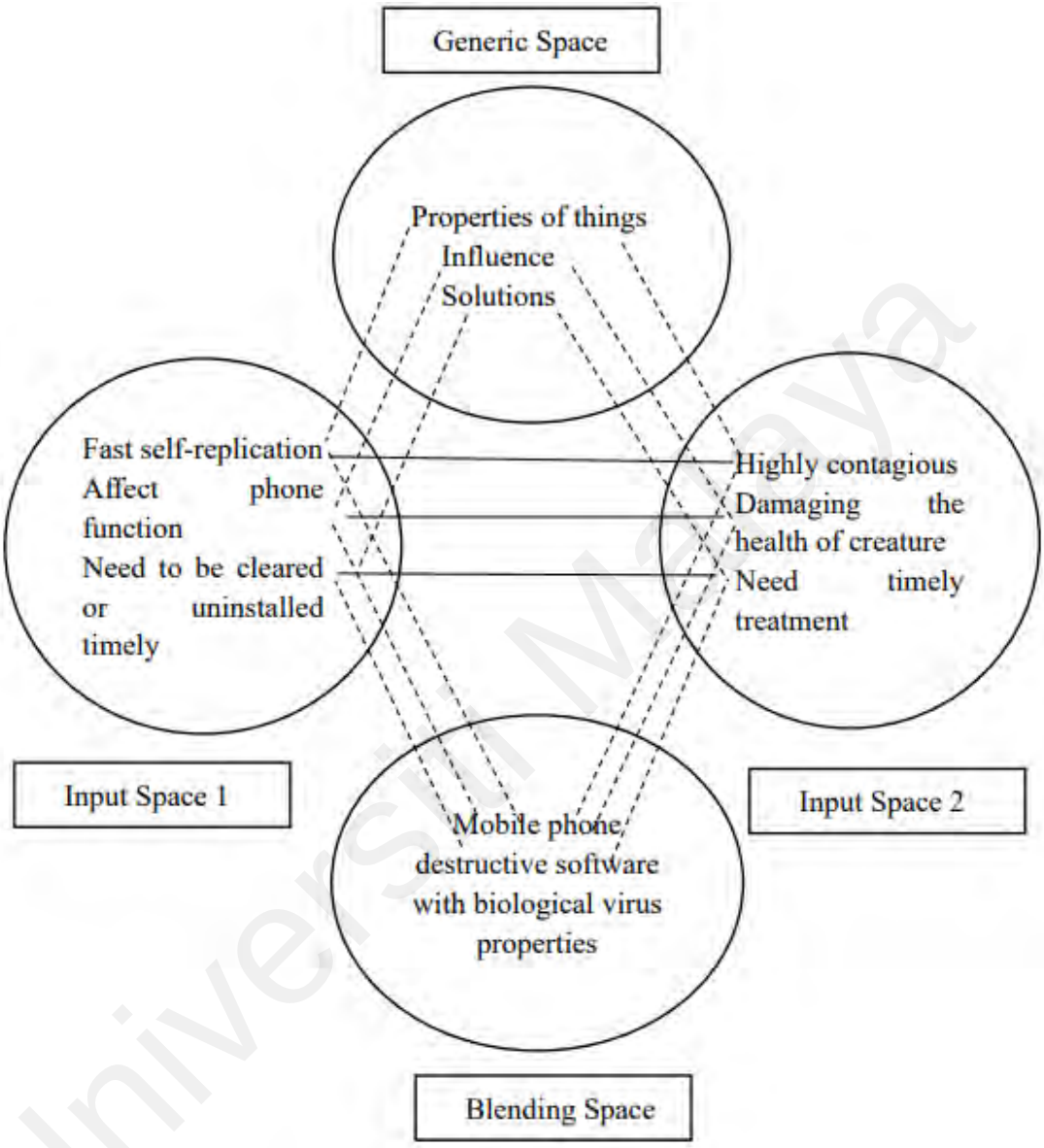

Figure 2.3: Conceptual Blending Network of 手机病毒 *shǒu jī bìng dú* 'cellphone + virus' (mobile phone virus) (Shi, 2015)

According to Shi's (2015) analysis, 手机病毒 *shǒu jī bìng dú* 'cellphone + virus' is an infectious and malicious program in mobile phones. The two input spaces in the conceptual network - the phone destructive software space, and the biological virus space - are activated by the mobile phone virus.

The mobile phone destructive software space is the knowledge structure about the mobile phone destructive software. Hence, the elements 'fast self-replication', 'affect phone function', and 'need to be cleared or uninstalled in time' are included in the space. The biological virus space is structured by the elements 'highly contagious', 'damaging the health of creature', and 'need timely treatment', since it is the knowledge structure related to the biological virus.

Further, some corresponding elements of the two input spaces will establish mutual mapping and matching, and at the same time, the common generic concepts will be projected into the generic space. According to Evans & Green (2006), the information of the generic space is abstract enough to be shared to all the input spaces. Therefore, the generic space of this conceptual blending network includes 'properties of things', 'influence', and 'solutions'.

In the process of projecting into the generic space, some elements of the input space will selectively project to the blending space. In the end, after composition, completion, and elaboration of elements in the blending space, an emergent structure that projects from neither input space is derived: mobile phone destructive software with biological virus properties.

Shi (2015, p.1) believes that the word 手机病毒 *shǒu jī bìng dú* 'cellphone + virus' (mobile phone virus) can be understood from other attributes of biological viruses, such as its needing a method of transmission and ability to be avoided through certain measures.

Leong (2015) notes that all collective Chinese compounds which from a selected Chinese short story could be divided into three types of groups: endocentric, exocentric, and partially endocentric. Her research also applied CBT as a mechanism to analyze the construction of meaning in disyllabic Chinese compounds.

2.5.5 Previous Studies on the Malaysian Chinese Language

Su & Wei (2014) examine the characteristics of Chinese variations in Malaysia. The study concluded that there are four characteristics of MC: (1) multilingual loan: some MC expressions are based on English, Malay, or dialect words, (2) language mosaic: meaning that there are some other language words or phrases mixed in with MC directly, (3) Malaysian characteristic words and local words: these kinds of MC words are produced from the unique Malaysian culture or society. They appear in Malaysia only, and it is hard to find an exactly corresponding CC word, and finally, (4) different pronunciation and grammar: the same characters have different pronunciations in MC and CC.

Chen (2016) analyzes Malaysian Chinese characteristic words from a word's meaning, part of speech, word length, etc. The study found that in parts of speech, the proportion of nouns is the highest, and most of these nouns reflect Malaysian politics, education, food and clothing culture, etc. in the aspect of word length and the proportion of disyllabic words.

2.5.6 Comparative studies on MC and CC.

Many researchers (Huang, 2009; Wong, 2014; Su & Wei, 2014) from both Mainland China and the Malaysian context have done many comparative studies focused on the comparison of MC and CC words. For instance, Huang (2009) and Wong (2014) compare homographs and synonyms in MC and CC words from the perspectives of word formation, meaning, and etymology. They focused on looking at the differences between MC and CC words. Wong (2014) divides MC and CC homograph words into three categories: (1) two completely different semantics, (2) two semantics of MC and CC words are linked but the meaning of one word might be decreased or expanded, and (3) the meaning of two semantics themselves is not very different, but there is a difference in

value perception. Moreover, Wong's (2014) study has cited the differences of 134 homograph words between MC and CC, the quantity statistical of 134 MC and CC homograph words is shown in table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Quantity Statistical of MC and CC Homograph Words (Wong, 2014，p. 104)

No.	Classification of MC and CC homograph words	Quantity
1	Two completely different semantics.	42
2	Two semantics of MC and CC words are linked but the meaning of one word is expanded.	83
3	Two semantics of MC and CC words are linked but the meaning of one word is decreased.	4
4	The meaning of two semantics themselves are not very different, but there is a difference in value perception	5
Total		134

Based on Table 2.2, among the 134 collected MC and CC homograph words, the number in the second category is the highest. Thus, Wong (2014) believes the differences between MC and CC homograph words are mainly manifested in that an MC word expands its semantic or pragmatic scope based on CC essential semantics.

The MC and CC synonymous words are divided into two categories in her study: (1) completely different morphemes, and (2) partly the same morphemes.

Besides, characteristically MC words have been discussed in previous studies. According to the studies of Huang (2009) and Chen (2016), characteristically MC words refer to the innovative words that reflect the unique environment, economy, culture and lifestyle of Malaysian Chinese people, and they have no corresponding words in CC.

Furthermore, Su and Wei (2014) and Wang (2016) discuss the variations of MC words. Their results show that the variations of MC auxiliary words and prepositions are influenced by the language environment and habits of expression.

In conclusion, for analysis of the topic of this research, these previous studies have provided valuable knowledge in cognitive linguistic and Chinese compounds, guidance in the classification of compounds, experience in application of CBT, and meaningful ideals in comparing MCCs and CCCs.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A qualitative research method is presented in this chapter. The three research questions of this study are answered in theoretical and descriptive methods. This chapter addresses four topics: (1) Data, (2) Theoretical Framework, (3) Data collection, and (4) Data analysis. The research questions of this study are presented below:

1. What are the types of MCCs found in MC mini fictions and their corresponding CCCs in the Chinese dictionary?
2. What are the different or similar characteristics observed in the main types of MCCs when compared to their corresponding CCCs?
3. How are the meaning of MCCs and CCCs formed based on the CBT approach?

The procedure which is conducted in this study is designed on the basis of these three research questions.

3.2 Data

In this study, the data consists of MCCs and their corresponding CCCs. MC mini fictions are the main source for collecting MCCs in this study. Mini fictions can display the development of society and culture with refined language (Gu, 2014). Shen (2001) states that many Chinese live in Southeast Asian countries, and the development of mini fictions has positively affected the prosperity of Chinese literature. Therefore, MCCs are taken from five selected MC mini fictions, they are：

(1) 马来西亚微型 100 *Mǎláixīyà wēixíng 100* ‘*Malaysian Mini fiction 100’* (MMF100), edited by Tan, C. S. (1998). The MMF100 has collected 100 mini fictions from Malaysian Chinese authors, selected from material written during the years 1970 to 1998.

(2) 马来西亚当代微型小说选 *Mǎláixīyà dāngdài wēixíngxiǎoshuōxuǎn* '*Selected Contemporary Malaysian Mini Fictions'* (SCMMF), edited by Zen Pei. (2010), The SCMMF has compiled 195 Mini fictions written by 51 Malaysian Chinese authors over a period of 20 years.

(3) 马来西亚微型 15 *Mǎláixīyài wēixíng* 15 '*Malaysian Mini Fictions 15'* (MMF15), edited by Tan, C. S. (2014), contains 96 mini fictions written by 15 Malaysian Chinese authors from different age groups.

(4) 回家，马来西亚华文微型小说选 *Huí jiā*, *Mǎláixīyà dāngdài wēixíngxiǎoshuōjí 'Return home, selected Contemporary Malaysian Mini Fictions'* (HMF), edited by Qin, H. and Wen, B. (2014). This selection consists of 262 mini fictions written by Malaysian Chinese authors of different ages.

(5) 新马文学高铁之微型小说 *Xīnmǎ wénxuégāotiě zhī wēixíngxiǎoshuō 'Singapore and Malaysian mini fictions'* (SMMF), edited by Liu, R. J. and Tan, C. S. (2017). This is a selection of mini fictions jointly published by the Singapore Association of Writers and the Malaysian Association of Writers. The SMMF consists of 65 Malaysian Chinese mini fictions and 50 Singapore Chinese mini fictions, written by 20 Malaysian Chinese authors and 20 Singapore Chinese authors. The fictions focus on the connection with the theme of life, reflecting a social reality, and showing local features. In this study, only the 65 mini fictions written by Malaysian Chinese authors have been used as data sources.

These Malaysian Chinese mini fictions are collected from different authors with different ages, styles and themes. the words in these fictions reflect various aspects of Malaysian Chinese community. As such, they are an ideal source for this study.

On the other hand, the CCCs are collected from a Chinese dictionary, entitled 现代汉语词典 *Xiàndài hànyǔ cídiǎn* '*Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*' (CCD), published by the Commercial press (2012). The CCD has collected 13000 commonly used Chinese words, and is the most influential dictionary in China. Wong (2014) has compared MC and CC with reference to the CCD. In addition, the *Dictionary of Global Huayu* (DGH) (2010) and *A Comprehensive Dictionary of Global Huayu* (CDGH) (2016) are taken as references which provide the regions of usage of compounds. The DGH has collected about 10,000 words from global Chinese communities, which include Malaysian Chinese, Singaporean Chinese, and Thai Chinese, etc. The CDGH has collected 88,400 common words and special words form global Chinese communities. These two Chinese monolingual dictionaries are used by Wong (2014) to check if the words are used in China.

3.3 Theoretical Framework

This study is conducted based on two theoretical frameworks: Bloomfield's (1933) semantic classification of compounds, and Fauconnier and Turner's (2002) CBT.

3.3.1 Bloomfield's (1933) Classification of Compounds

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Bloomfield's (1933) classification of compounds is divided into endocentric and exocentric- two types. Following Bloomfield's (1933) original proposal, modern scholars such as Benczes (2004, p. 1-2) and Scalise (2009, p. 49, p. 62) have explicated the features of endocentric and exocentric compounds. If a compound has a lexical head (or two) which specifies the class of the compound, it is called an endocentric compound. An example from MCC is 厕纸 *cè zhǐ* 'toilet + paper = toilet paper', it has a lexical head '纸 *zhǐ* (paper)', the complete compound 厕纸 *cè zhǐ* 'toilet paper' is fully transparent in its meaning.

If a compound has no lexical head, and the class denoted by the compound is unpredictable from the denotation of its components, it is called an exocentric compound, such as the example from MCC 冷气 *lěng qì* 'cold + air = air conditioner'. It has no lexical head, and the component '冷 *lěng (cold)'* combines with '气 *qì* (air)' to create a new meaning, 'air conditioner', which is not easily denoted through two components.

The new type of compounds as mentioned in section 2.4 in the last chapter- the partially-endocentric component, is also added into the current study as an intermediate type of compound, this type of compound consists of a lexical head and a dependent component. Like endocentric compounds, the meaning of the dependent component is not the core meaning of the whole compound, but, importantly, it modifies or supports the lexical head of the whole compound. That is, the meaning of the dependent component is inseparable from the whole meaning of the compound; it can also add semantic features of the meaning of the whole compound in some cases.

For example, the CCC 手纸 *shǒu zhǐ* 'hand + paper = toilet paper' has the lexical head '纸 *zhǐ* (paper)', and the dependent component '手 *shǒu* (hand)'. The dependent component, 'hand', is not the core meaning in 手纸'toilet paper', but it provides the additional meanings, 'a part of the body, its functions are holding and cleaning'. These additional meanings are suggested in the whole meaning of 'toilet paper', and provide the features of the compound 手纸 'toilet paper'. Therefore, it is established that the compounds to be examined in this study are of three types.

3.3.2 Fauconnier and Turner's (2002) CBT

According to Evans and Green (2006, p. 400), CBT is derived from conceptual Metaphor Theory and Mental Space Theory. The CBT is adopted in this study in order to explain how a new meaning is produced by two unrelated meanings being combined.

Conceptual blending is a basic mental operation which produces a new meaning through selectively extracting information from different spaces. It plays a fundamental role in meaning construction in our daily lives, especially in the social and behavioral sciences (Wang, 2009).

The conceptual blending network is the central framework of CBT. Fauconnier and Turner (2002) hold that a complete Conceptual blending network includes four basic mental spaces: Input space 1, Input space 2, Generic space, and Blended space.

Input space 1 contains elements which are related to one of the components of the compound. Input space 2 contains elements which are related to another component of the compound. Generic space abstracts the commonalities from the two spaces. (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p. 39).

According to Fauconnier & Turner (2002, p. 47) and Evans & Green (2006, p. 404), a blended space creates a novel expressive effect. The elements in blended space and generic spaced are related. Blended space contains structure projected from two input spaces, and also contains the emergent structures that are not connected to either of the inputs. The emergent structure in blending space is produced by composition, completion, and elaboration- three operations.

The term ‘blending’, as used in the CBT, refers to the process of constructing the linking networks between mental spaces. Blending matches two input spaces through partial cross-space mappings. It projects the elements from the input spaces selectively to a blended space. Cross-space mappings have used shared schematic structures of two input spaces or have created the extra shared schematic structures. This shared schematic structure decides the core concepts of target words for space blending. These four spaces

are linked up through mappings to construct a conceptual blending network. A standard conceptual blending network is presented in figure 3.1 below.

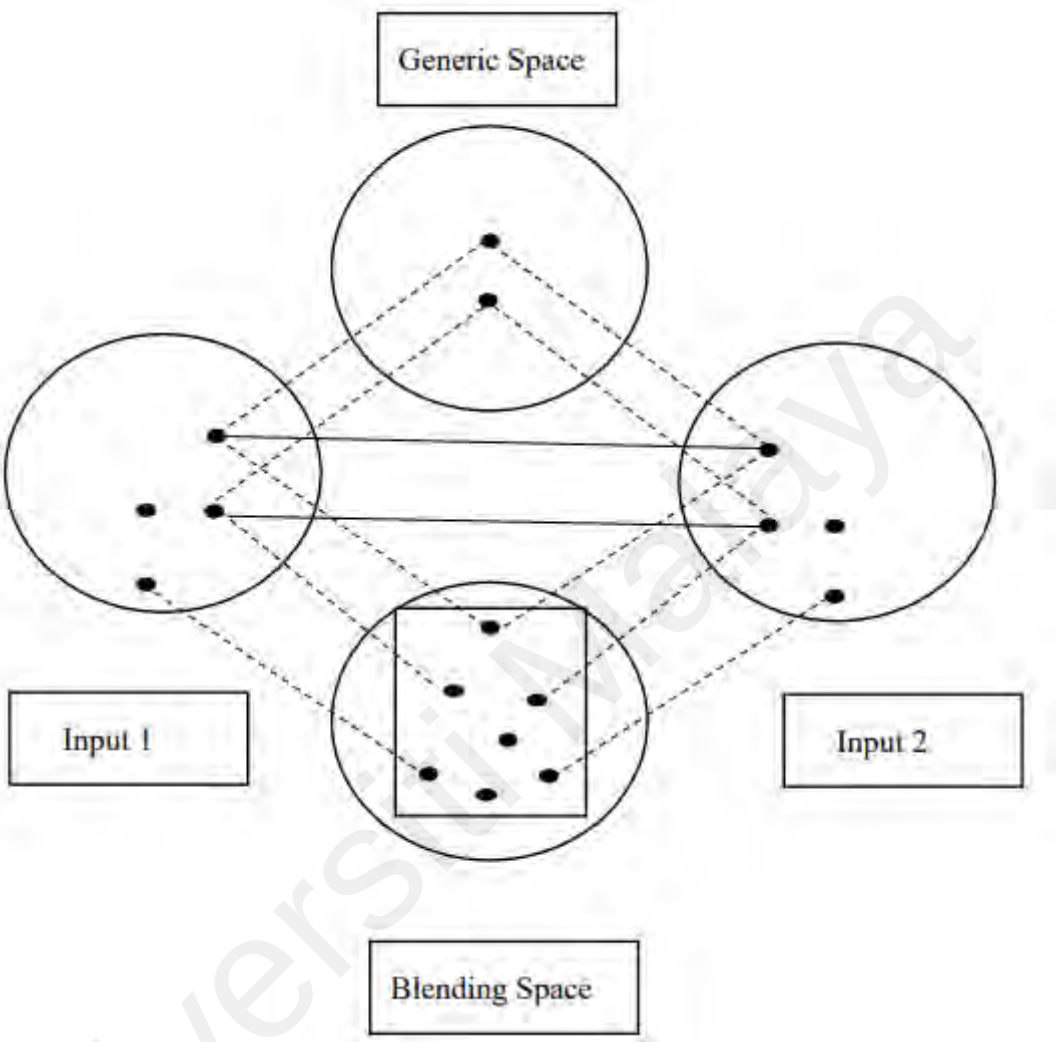

Figure 3.1: The standard mode of CBT (Fauconnier and Turner, 2002, p. 46)

3.3.2.1 Mental Spaces

The circles in figure 3.1, refer to four mental spaces: input I, input 2, generic and blended space. Fauconnier (1997, p. 11) holds that mental spaces are "partial structures" that multiply as we speak and think, enabling efficient compartmentalization of our "discourse and knowledge structures".

3.3.2.2 Cross-space Mapping of Counterpart Connections

The illustration in figure 3.1 shows that the elements in the two input spaces are connected to each other through partial cross-space mappings. Solid lines in the figure represent counterpart connections. Fauconnier and Turner (2002, p.47) state that there is a variety of these "counterpart connections", like connections of identity, representation, metaphor, transformation, and frames and roles within them, among others. When matches between the spaces are constructed, a cross-space mapping is created.

3.3.2.3 Selective Projecting

Projection is an essential process in conceptual blending networks. In the process of blending, not all the structures from the inputs are projected to the blend, but the matched information that is required for purposes of understanding are projected. The process of selective projection is flexible (Evans and Green, 2009, p. 409). As indicated by the blending space and the broken lines in figure 3.1, the elements in blend projected from both inputs include additional elements which are projected from neither.

Fauconnier and Turner (2002), however, did not clearly explain why the elements were listed in spaces. Mattos (2017) states that conceptual blending refers to the highly abstract cognitive operations involved in meaning construction. In this process, making sense of linguistic forms, extra-linguistic information, and nonverbal signs are all necessary. Therefore, the meanings of compounds in this study were analyzed with both dictionary knowledge and encyclopedic knowledge. Encyclopedic knowledge is based on human interaction with others- social experience, and the world around us- physical experience (Evans & Green, 2006, p. 206).

3.4 Data Collection

Data collection for this study was divided into two parts. The first part is the collection of MCCs. The MCCs were collected from the five MC mini fictions that are mentioned above. In this process, all MCCs are identified with the help of DGH and CDGH.

In the references of DGH and CDGH, the regions of usage of characteristic words are marked, and the meanings of words are provided. For example, 厕纸 *cè zhǐ,* means toilet paper. It is used in Hongkong, Macau, Singapore, Malaysia, etc.

According to these two dictionaries, when the regions of usage of the compound include Malaysia but not mainland China, then the compound is identified as MCC in this study.

In the second part, the collection of CCCs from the CCD is according to the meanings of the collected MCCs provided by DGH or CDGH. For example, the meaning of the MCC 厕纸 *cè zhǐ* (toilet + paper) provided by the CDGH is toilet paper, then, the compound 手纸 *shǒu zhǐ* (hand + paper) which refers to the same meaning in the CCD was collected.

In order to clearly illustrate the design procedure of data collection, the collection of MCC 厕纸 *cè zhǐ* and its corresponding CCC 手纸 *shǒu zhǐ* as an example is shown in the flow-chart below.

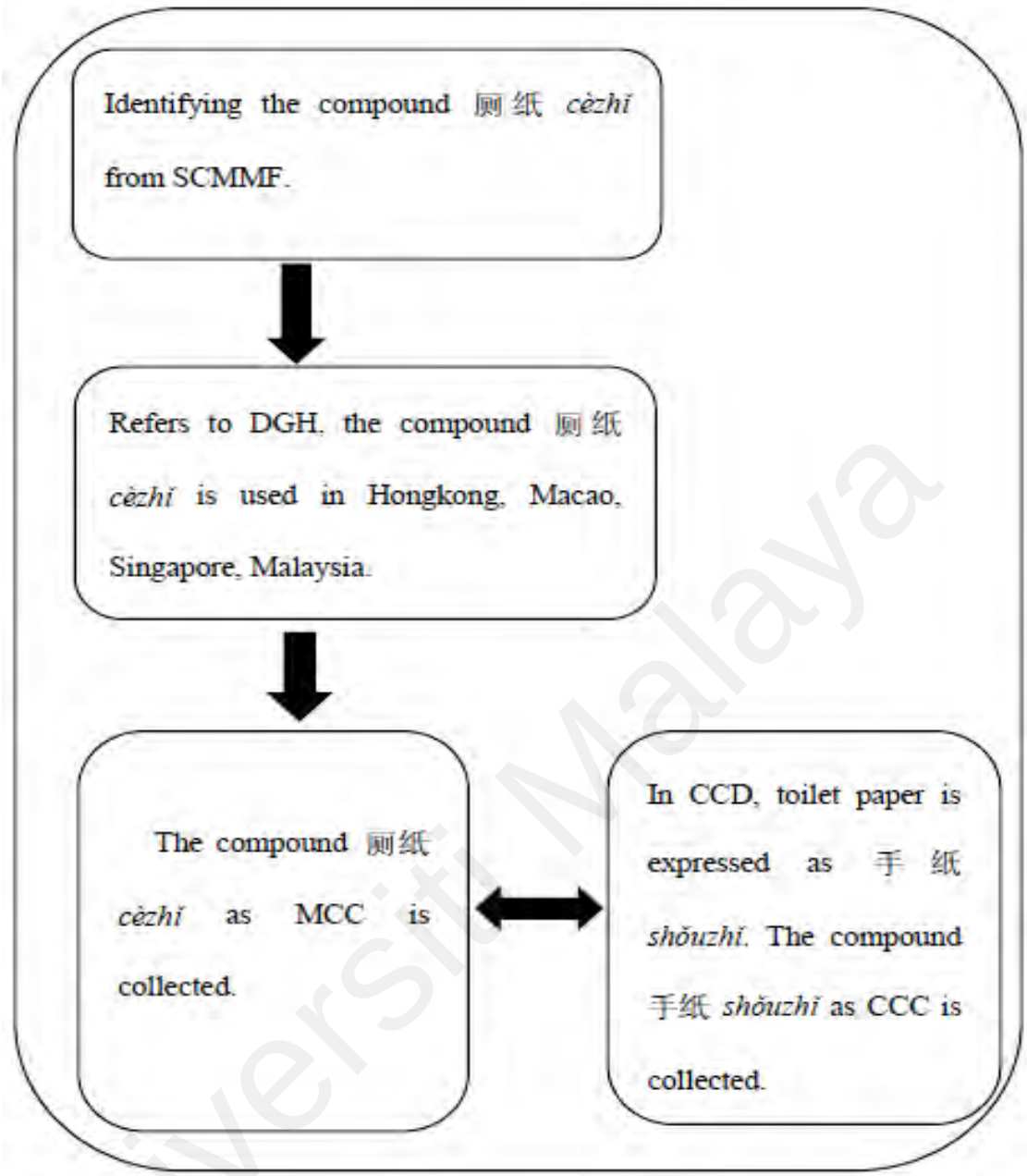

Figure 3.2: A Flow-chart of Design Procedure of Data Collection

An important criterion used for the selection of compounds of this study was that MCCs which have corresponding compounds in CC were considered, while MCCs which have no such correspondence in CC were excluded from the analysis, as in the example of the MCC 店屋 *diàn wū* 'shop + house= shophouse', which refers to a two or three storey building, with a shop on the ground floor for business activities and a residence above the shop. This building type is commonly seen in Southeast Asia. Wong (2014)

and Chen (2016) classify it as a characteristic MC word. These types of MCCs have no corresponding CCCs. Hence, they are not considered in this study.

Moreover, affected by the multiculturalism of Malaysia, there are some Malay and English words translated through phonetic borrowings that appear in MC. In the phonetic borrowing process, the closest matching Chinese sounds will be selected to reproduce the phonetics of the source words. Although Chinese character always carries a semantic meaning, the semantic meaning of Chinese characters is always disregarded in the borrowed words which are translated using phonetic borrowing. Therefore, the Chinese characters that form these words retain only their phonetic and written forms and lose their original meaning (Ren & Liu, 2007). For example, the word 罗里 *luó li* 'lorry' in MC is from English word 'lorry'. According to the phonetics of the source word, the Chinese characters 罗 *luó* and 里 *li* which have similar phonetics with English word 'lorry', are selected to form the word 罗里 *luó li*. In this word, these two Chinese characters have lost their semantic meaning, therefore, such words are also excluded in the study.

In the data collection process, all 56 MCCs collected and their corresponding CCCs were first located in the data sources. Their meanings were then compared and analyzed. The MCCs and the corresponding CCCs were then coded and tabulated using Microsoft Word. The English meanings, word classes, and sources for each compound are also provided, as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Example of the Coding of MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC	Source	CCC	Source
1	**Toilet paper**	N	厕纸 *cè zhǐ* toilet + paper	SCMMF, 39-5	手纸 *shǒu zhǐ* hand + paper	CCD, 1197-21

In the coding process, the MC and CC compounds were tabulated as shown in Table 3.1. The 'N' in the code above refers to noun, 'SCMMF, 39-5' refers to page 39 line 5 in the SCMMF, while 'CCD, 1197-21' refers to the twenty-first word of page 1197 in the CCD.

3.5 Data Analysis

In order to answer the three research questions, the data analysis is explained using illustrations and descriptions, followed by theoretical components.

To answer Research Question 1, all the MCCs and CCCs were coded and then tabulated. Following this, these compounds were then grouped into three main types of compounds based on the classification mentioned in 3.3.1. Then, the frequency counts were conducted; these are presented in numbers and percentages according to each type of MCC and CCC, based on comparison.

To answer Research Question 2, all the MCCs identified from the sources were classified into three groups. These were then compared with their corresponding CCCs. Research Question 2 consists of three parts:

1. Endocentric compounds,
2. Partially-endocentric compounds,
3. Exocentric compounds.

The similarities and differences between each type of MCC and its corresponding CCC are set out in tables and further explained in words.

For Research Question 3, considering the meanings of endocentric compounds can be directly derived from the combination of their components, this type of compounds is not included in the answering of research question three. The CBT is applied only on the partially-endocentric and the exocentric compounds, as their meanings are not fully explicit. In this regard, the CBT can illustrate how their meanings were constructed from one or two unrelated components.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings based on the three research questions of this study. Each research question is restated in three separate sections to present the corresponding findings. Representative examples of MCCs are taken from the selected MC mini fictions, and their corresponding CCCs are taken from the CCD. These are provided in the discussion.

4.2 Answering the First Research Question

The first research question is 'What are the types of MCCs found in MC mini fictions and their corresponding CCCs in the Chinese dictionary?'

There are altogether 56 MCCs found in the selected MC mini fictions and 56 corresponding CCCs in the CCD. Endocentric, partially-endocentric and exocentric compounds are found in both MC and CC. The numbers and percentages of the three types of compounds in MC and CC are illustrated in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Comparison of Three Types of Compounds in MC and CC

Types of Compounds	MCC		CCC	
	No.	%	No.	%
Endocentric	20	35.71	27	48.21
Exocentric	19	33.93	18	32.14
Partially-endocentric	17	30.36	11	19.64
Total	56	100	56	100

The findings noted that the MC endocentric compounds with full explicit meanings formed the highest percentage (35.71%), followed by partially-endocentric (33.93%), and exocentric compounds (30.36%). Similarly, the endocentric type (48.21%)

was the most frequently found compound in CC, followed by partially-endocentric (32.14%), and exocentric compounds (19.64%).

According to the comparison of percentages of each type of MCC and CCC, the results show that the percentage (35.71%) of MC endocentric compounds is lower than the percentage (48.21%) of CC endocentric compounds. The meaning of endocentric compounds is fully explicit. However, the percentages of partially endocentric (30.36%) and exocentric compounds (33.93%) in MC are higher than the percentages of partially endocentric (19.64%) and exocentric compounds (32.14%) in CC. The meanings of these two types of compounds are partially explicit or implicit.

Most MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are classified as the same type. However, some compounds in MC are partially-endocentric compounds, but their corresponding CCCs are endocentric compounds, such as the example 'old age', which in MC is a partially-endocentric compound: 乐龄 *lè líng* (cheerful + age), where the meaning of the lexical head is explicit, but the whole meaning of the compound is not directly denoted by the non-head. However, the expression in CC is an endocentric compound: 老龄 *lǎo líng* (old age), where the meaning can be understood by the combination of two components. Besides, some compounds in MC are exocentric compounds with implicit meaning, but their corresponding CCCs are partially-endocentric compounds. For instance, the expression 'account' in MC is an exocentric compound: 户口 *hù kǒu* (door + mouth), where the meanings of the two components do not directly denote the whole meaning, while in CC, 'account' is a partially-endocentric compound: 账户 *zhàng hù* (account + door).

In addition, Frequency-count analysis of the word classes amongst the collected MCCs and CCCs shows that a total of 37 pairs (66.07%) of MCCs and CCCs are nouns,

followed by verbs (16 pairs, 28.57%) and adjectives (3 pairs, 5.37%). It can be said that most MCCs appear in the expression of objects or concepts.

4.2.1 Summary

Endocentric compounds, partially-endocentric compounds and exocentric compounds were found in both MC and CC. In the two regional Chinese, the ratios of three types of compounds show that the exocentric structure has the most compounds, while the exocentric structure has the least compounds, and the ratio of partial-endocentric structure is in the middle. This finding supports the result of Ceccagno & Basciano (2007), which shows that there are more endocentric compounds than exocentric ones in the Chinese language.

The differences are shown by the numbers of each type of MCCs and CCCs. According to the comparison, CCCs have more endocentric compounds than MCCs. This indicates that CCCs are more head-driven and their meaning expression is more direct. In contrast, MCCs have more partially-endocentric and exocentric compounds than CCCs. This means MCCs tend to consider more factors other than the mere combination of two components, causing the meanings of their expression to be more indirect.

4.3 Answering the Second Research Question

This section answers research question 2, which is repeated here: What are the different or similar characteristics observed in the main types of MCCs when compared to their corresponding CCCs? This section is divided into three parts based on the classification of collected MCCs: endocentric compounds, partially-endocentric compounds, and exocentric compounds.

4.3.1 Endocentric compounds

According to the collected endocentric compounds in this study, this section explored similarities and differences between MC endocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs.

4.3.1.1 Similarities

Analysis of the data highlighted that there were three similar characteristics between the MC endocentric compounds and their corresponding CC compounds, which included (1) right-headed compounds, (2) compounds with the same lexical head, and (3) both components giving a meaning similar to that of the whole compound.

The following tables show the representative examples for each similar characteristic of MC endocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs. In addition, some of the compounds contain different characteristics, hence, the same compound may be shown in different tables to present its different characteristics.

(1) Right-headed compounds

Ceccagno and Scalise (2006) introduced the Chinese compounds canonical head principle, which claims that the canonical position of the head in Chinese compounds is on the right. After analyzing 20 MC and 27 CC endocentric compounds, they found that there were 70% right-headed compounds in the MC endocentric group, and the percentage of CC endocentric compounds was 59%. Consequently, the result of this study meets their conclusion. Right-headed compounds were the main characteristics for both the MC and CC endocentric compounds. More descriptions are given in table 4.2 below. The lexical head is underlined.

Table 4.2: Right- headed Compounds

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Car fare	N	车资 *chē zī* vehicle + fee	Endocentric	车钱 *chē qián* vehicle + money	Endocentric
2	Classroom	N	课室 *kè shì* class + room	Endocentric	教室 *jiào shì* teach + room	Endocentric
3	Handbag	N	手袋 *shǒu dài* hand + bag	Endocentric	手包 *shǒu bāo* hand + bag	Endocentric

For example, in the case of the MCC 车资 *chē zī* (vehicle + fee) 'car fare', the meaning of this compound *car fare* is a hyponym of the component 资 *zī* 'fee'. Hence, 资 *zī* 'fee' is the head of this compound. Similarly, 'car fare' in CCC is 车钱 *chē qián* (vehicle + money), the component 钱 *qián* 'money' is the head of this compound. Both are right-headed compounds.

(2) Compounds with the same lexical head

Other comparisons between the MCCs and CCCs are shown in table 4.3. It is observed that the same lexical head exists in both MC and CC endocentric compounds. Both give the same meaning. The element which differs is indicating the way in which the modifying word is written.

Table 4.3: Compounds with the Same Lexical Head

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Late marriage	V	迟婚 *ch ihūn* late + marriage	Endocentric	晚婚 *wǎn hūn* late + marriage	Endocentric
2	Underwear	N	底裤 *dī kù* bottom + pants	Endocentric	内裤 *nèi kù* inside + pants	Endocentric
3	House rent	N	屋租 *wu zu* house + rent	Endocentric	房租 *fáng zū* house + rent	Endocentric

For example, the expression ‘late marriage' in MCC is 迟婚 *chí hūn* 'late + marriage' (late + marriage), while in CC it is 晚婚 *wǎn hūn* 'late + marriage' (late marriage). The component 婚 *hūn ‘marriage’* as a lexical head exists in these two endocentric compounds, which specifies the class of the compounds (Benczes, 2004 and Scalise et al, 2009). It is evident that the MC and CC compounds express the meaning of ‘late marriage' in the same lexical head.

(3) Both components giving a meaning similar to that of the whole compound.

According to the comparison, a characteristic exists in both MC and its corresponding CC endocentric compounds, which is that the two components of a compound have a similar meaning to the whole word.

For instance, the expression ‘ride’ in MC is 乘搭 *chéngdā* (ride + ride) 'ride', while in CC it is 搭乘 *dāchéng* (ride + ride) 'ride'; both of them are two-headed compounds, the first and second components have similar meanings, and the compound retains the meaning of each component. This kind of compounds is a two-headed compound. Table 4.4 illustrates this.

Table 4.4: Both Components Giving a Meaning Similar to that of the Whole Compound

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Ride	V	乘搭 *chéngdā* ride + ride	Endocentric	搭乘 *dāchéng* ride + ride	Endocentric
2	Information	N	讯息 *xùn xī* information + information	Endocentric	信息 *xìn xī* Information + information	Endocentric

4.3.1.2 Differences

Three differences between the compound components in MC and CC were noted in the present study. They include: (1) MCC and CCC are discretely formed from the two components of a synonymous compound, (2) difference in the undertone of a component, and (3) different scope of the meaning of a component. These differences are explained below.

(1) MCC and CCC are discretely formed from the two components of a synonymous compound

There are a number of Chinese compounds which are formed by two different components but with similar meaning. These Chinese compounds are defined as synonymous compound in Chinese language (Liu, 2014). Moreover, the components in these synonymous compounds are often been divided to form MCC and its corresponding CCC. The examples are displayed in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: MCC and CCC are Discretely Formed from the Two Components of a Synonymous Compound

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	**Reverse** a car	V	退车 *tuì chē* reverse + vehicle	Endocentric	倒车 *dào chē* reverse + vehicle	Endocentric
2	Traffic **jam**	V	塞车 *sāi chē* jam + vehicle	Endocentric	堵车 *dǔ chē* jam + vehicle	Endocentric

The example in the table below shows the component of MCC 退车 *tuì chē* (reverse + vehicle), 退 *tuì,* and the component of CCC 倒车 *dào chē* (reverse + vehicle), 倒 *dào,* are two different characters, but with the similar meaning, 'reverse'. These two different characters are from a synonymous compound, which is formed by 倒 *dào* and 退 *tuì:* 倒退 *dào tuì* (reverse + reverse = reverse).

Another example is the MCC 塞车 *sāi chē* (jam + vehicle), and its corresponding CCC 堵车 *dǔ chē* (jam + vehicle). The characters 塞 *sāi* and 堵 *dǔ* refer to the similar meaning, 'jam'. These two characters are from a synonymous compound: 堵塞 *dǔ sè* (jam + jam = jam). In other words, MCC and CCC refer to the same meaning, and are discretely formed from the two components of a synonymous compound.

In addition, the character 塞 is pronounced in different ways. It is pronounced as *sāi* in 塞车 *sāi chē* (jam + vehicle), but *sè* in the compound 堵塞 *dǔ sè* (jam + jam = jam). The meanings in these two compounds are the same.

(2) Difference in the undertone of a component

The character, 屋 *wū* 'house', is frequently adopted in MC compounds to express the meaning of 'house', whereas the character, 房 *fáng* 'house', is always used in their corresponding CCCs. As the examples in table 4.6 show, 'house-owner' in the MCC is 屋主 *wū zhǔ* ''house + owner', but in the CCC, it is 房主 *fán gzhǔ* 'house + owner'.

Table 4.6: Difference in the Undertone of a Component

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	House-owner	N	屋主 *wū zhǔ* house + owner	Endocentric	房主 *fáng zhǔ* house + owner	Endocentric
2	House rent	N	屋租 *wū zū* house + rent	Endocentric	房租 *fáng zū* house + rent	Endocentric

According to Zhang (2004, p. 1) and Lai (2013, p. 42-43), 房 *fáng* is a place of residence or sleeping in ancient China. In contrast, the original sense of 屋 *wū* is a place with a roof and wall, which can block rain, keep people warm, and provide a space for living and for storing supplies. The original meanings of '房 *fang*' and '屋 *wū*' were different, and they have come to be synonymous through the evolution of the word. Therefore, some of the semantic features of the original meaning of these two words are still deeply hidden in the subconscious of the language users.

For example, the 屋 *wū* ‘house’ is often associated with its original meaning of ‘roof’ or ‘being warm, small and exquisite’, hence, in understanding the word 屋主 *wū zhǔ* ‘houseowner’, the undertone is towards the owner of a warm and traditional house with an independent roof. In contrast, the concept understood by Chinese language users regarding the word ‘房 *fang*’ is often associated with ‘residence’ or ‘sleeping’. Thus, the undertone of 房主 *fángzhǔ* ‘house owner’ tends to be the owner of a house with a clear room layout and a separate sleeping room.

Accordingly, the surface conceptual meanings of 屋主 *wū zhǔ* and 房主 *fáng zhǔ* are both ‘houseowner’, but the different undertones of the semantic features in the etymology are still contained in the words.

(3) Differences in the scope of the meaning of a component

The meanings of the components in MC and CC are similar, but the scope of the meaning of each component is not the same (Liu, 2014). Using the examples in Table 4.7, the character, 搭 *dā* ‘ride’ in MCC includes ‘ride a traditional or modern mode of transportation’, whereas 乘 *chéng* ‘ride’, in CCC only refers to ‘ride a modern mode of transportation’. Therefore, the MCC meaning ‘passenger’ can be the people who ride traditional or modern modes of transportation, while in CCC, it refers to the people who ride modern modes of transportation only. Accordingly, the scope of the meaning of a component between MCCs and CCCs is different, it makes the scope of the meaning of MCCs and its corresponding CCCs different.

Table 4.7: Difference in the Scope of the Meaning of a Component

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	**Passenger**	**N**	搭客 *dā kè* ride (traditional or modern mode of transportation) + guest	Endocentric	乘客 *chéng kè* ride (modern mode of transportation) + guest	Endocentric
2	**Fire disaster**	**N**	火患 *huǒ huàn* fire + disaster or worry	Endocentric	火灾 *huǒ zāi* fire + disaster	Endocentric

4.3.2 Partially-endocentric Compounds

Partially-endocentric compounds is consists of a lexical head and a dependent component. The similarities and differences between MC partially-endocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs are discussed in this section.

4.3.2.1 Similarities

Two similarities between the MC partially-endocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs were noted. They encompass (1) expanding the meaning of the compounds, and (2) shape to illustrate objects.

(1) Expanding the meaning of the compounds

The meaning of the whole compound is understood from one component, and the other component provides a supplementary meaning to enrich the meaning of the whole compound.

Table 4.8: Expanding the Meaning of the Compounds

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Quality	N	素质 *sù zhì* element + quality	Partially-endocentric	质量 *zhì liàng* quality + quantity	Partially-endocentric
2	Screen	N	荧幕 *ying mù* fluorescence + screen	Partially-endocentric	屏幕 *ping mù* screen + screen	Endocentric

In MC 素质 *sù zhì* (element + quality) 'quality', the meaning of the component 素 *sù* 'element' enriches the meaning of the component 质 *zhì* 'quality'. In CC, 'quality' is 质量 *zhì liàng* (quality + quantity) where the compound 'quality' also includes the element, 量 *liàng* , 'quantity'. As can be seen from the examples given above, the meaning of the compounds can be understood from the single component 质 *zhì* 'quality', while another component specifies and expands the meaning of the whole compound.

(2) Shape to illustrate objects

In MC and CC, there are incidents where shapes are used to illustrate an object with a similar shape. For example, in MCC 钢骨 *gāng gǔ* (steel + bone) 'steel bar', the shape of 骨 *gǔ* 'bone' is used to describe the shape of steel, while in CC 钢筋 *gāng jīn* (steel + tendon) 'steel bar', another object shape 筋 *jīn* 'tendon' which is a similar shape to bone, is used to describe the shape of steel.

Another example is the expression of 'microchip', which in MCC is 晶片 *jīng piàn* (crystal + slice), whereas in CCC it is 芯片 *xīn piàn* (core + slice). As we know, a

microchip is shaped like a slice, hence slice is used in both MCC and CCC to show the shape of a microchip.

Table 4.9: Shape to Illustrate Objects

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Steel bar	N	钢 骨 *gāng gǔ* steel + bone	Partially-endocentric	钢 筋 *gāng jīn* steel + tendon	Partially-endocentric
2	Microchip	N	晶 片 *jīng piàn* crystal + slice	Partially-endocentric	芯 片 *xīn piàn* core + slice	Partially-endocentric

4.3.2.2 Differences

Two differences were found by comparing the partially-endocentric compounds of MC and CC: (1) MCCs include more meanings than CCCs, and (2) components bring out different perspectives of the compounds.

(1) MCCs include more meanings than CCCs

The result of Wong's (2014) study shows that the main reason why MC and CC homograph words are different is that MC words develop new meanings based on CC essential semantics. The finding of this section meets Wong's result. For instance, 简讯 *jiǎn xùn* 'brief + message' collected from the MC mini fictions means 'message'. Its corresponding compound in CC is 短信 *duǎn xìn* 'short + letter = message'. The same compound 简讯 *jiǎn xùn* 'brief + message' in CC means 'news in brief'. The difference indicates that the MCC 简讯 *jiǎn xùn* 'brief + message' includes both the meanings of the CCC, 'message' and 'news in brief'. In other words, the meanings of the partially-

endocentric compounds in MC are wider than their corresponding CCC. In contrast, the partially-endocentric compounds in CC are more specific.

Table 4.10: MCCs Include More Meanings than CCCs

No	MCC		CCC		Meaning	Word class
	Example	Type	Example	Type		
1	简讯 *jiǎn xùn* brief + message	Partially-endocentric	1. 短信 *duǎn xìn* short + letter 2. 简讯 *jiǎn xùn* brief + message	Partially-endocentric	1.Message 2.News in brief	N N
2	大衣 *dà yī* big + clothes	Partially-endocentric	1. 西装 *xī zhuāng* western + clothes 2. 大衣 *dà yī* big + clothes	Partially-endocentric	1.Business suit 2.Overcoat	N N
3	素质 *sù zhì* element + quantity	Partially-endocentric	1. 质量 *zhì liàng* quality + quantity 2. 素质 *sù zhì* element + quantity	Partially-endocentric	1.Quality 2.Qualities of psychological or behavioral	N N

(2) Components bring out different perspectives of the compounds

As the examples in table 4.11 show, the lexical head, 龄 *líng* ‘age’, is combined in the compounds of MC and CC. The component, 老 *lǎo* ‘old’, in the CCC is an antonym of the meaning ‘young’, whereas the component 乐 *lè* ‘cheerful’ in the MCC refers to

'happiness' or 'peace'. In this case, there is no negative feeling associated with age. In fact, 乐龄 *lèlíng* 'cheerful + age', which is used to express 'old age', is combined with 乐 *lè* to express a happy and peaceful age (Zhou, 2002, p. 44).

For the expressions of 'to rob', the component 抢 *qiǎng* 'rob', is a lexical head of both MCCs and CCCs to indicate the key meaning of the concept 'to rob'. In MCC 打抢 *dǎ qiǎng* (hit + rob), it consists of *rob* and a violent behavior, *hit*. These two components show the two specific behaviors that happen in a robbery. In CCC 抢劫 *qiǎng jié* (rob + disaster), *disaster* is combined with *rob*, which shows an influence of the behavior 'rob' along with a definition of the result of this behavior.

These examples demonstrate that one of the components can be shared by the MCCs and CCCs, while other components bring out different perspectives. As a result, the meaning of the whole compound in MC and CC reflect different perspectives.

Table 4.11: Components Bring out Different Perspectives of the Compounds

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Old age	Adj	乐龄 *lè líng* cheerful + age	Partially-endocentric	老龄 *lǎo líng* old + age	Endocentric
2	To rob	V	打抢 *dǎ qiǎng* hit + rob	Partially-Endocentric	抢劫 *qiǎng jié* rob + disaster	Partially-Endocentric
3	To tender one's resignation	V	呈辞 *chéng cí* submit + resign	Partially-Endocentric	请辞 *qǐng cí* request + resign	Partially-Endocentric

4.3.3 Exocentric compounds

If a compound has no lexical head, and the class donated by the compound is unpredictable from the denotation of its components, it is called an exocentric compound. This section discussed the similarities and differences between MC exocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs.

4.3.3.1 Similarities

Two major similarities also stood out between the exocentric compounds of MCC and CCC, which encompass: (1) concrete actions to denote phenomenon, and (2) Chinese culture contained in the components.

(1) Concrete actions to denote a phenomenon

Some actions were used metaphorically to denote a related phenomenon. This characteristic appeared in both MCCs and CCCs. For example, the MCC 割名 *gē míng* 'cut + name' meaning the act of cutting someone's name, is linked to a change in the owner's name. The corresponding CCC is 过户 *guò hù* 'pass + residents' which refers to the act of passing something to others. In these two compounds, two concrete actions denote the phenomenon of 'transfer of ownership'. Table 4.12 illustrates what is discussed above.

Table 4.12: Concrete Actions to Denote Phenomenon

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Transfer ownership	V	割名 *gē míng* cut + name	Exocentric	过户 *guò hù* pass + resident	Exocentric
2	To publish a list of successful candidates	V	放榜 *fàng bǎng* release + announcement	Exocentric	发榜 *fā bǎng* send + announcement	Exocentric

(2) Chinese culture contained in compounds

The present study found that the same component was combined in MCCs and CCCs to denote the same Chinese culture. In Chinese culture, the East side represents a high position in family or social and respect. Accordingly, *east* contains the meaning of master (Zen, 2012, p. 13). For example, in the MCC 东主 *dōng zhǔ* (east + master) 'employer', *east* contains the meaning of honorable identity in Chinese culture. *Master* indicates a person with financial resources and power. In the CC expression of 'employer', the traditional meaning of *east* is also constructed in the CCC 东家 *dōng jia* (east + family), while another component, *family,* is seen as a group. Hence it shows a person who has high position and can represent a group.

Another aspect of Chinese culture is reflected by the color red. Red symbolizes luck, joy and happiness in Chinese culture. It is also used in the economic domain to indicate positive meanings such as rewards or profits (Ning, 2012). The MCC 花红 *huā hóng* (flower + red) and CCC 红利 *hóng lì* (red + good) all refer to bonus. Based on encyclopedic knowledge, bonus is normally related to economic or profit growth.

The *flower* in MCC 花红 *huā hóng* (flower + red) includes a metaphor suggesting wonderful things (Liu, 2016). Similarly, the component 利 *lì* 'good' in CCC emphasizes a positive meaning. They are found to be separately compounded with the same component 红 *hóng* 'red' to indicate a positive economic income. In this way, the 红 *hóng* 'red' with its Chinese cultural metaphor is compounded in both MCC and CCC to refer to bonus. Table 4.13 illustrates this.

Table 4.13: Chinese Culture Contained in Compounds

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Employer	N	东主 *dōng zhǔ* east + master	Exocentric	东家 *dōng jia* east + family	Exocentric
2	Bonus	N	花红 *huā hóng* flower + red	Exocentric	红利 *hóng lì* red + good	Exocentric

4.3.3.2 Differences

Three differences between MCC and CCC are found: (1) temperature words are used in MC exocentric compounds to denote function or purpose, and (2) expressing the same thing with different features.

(1) Temperature words are used in MC exocentric compounds to denote function or purpose

MC compounds were constructed from temperature words to denote functions. For example, the component, 冷 *lěng* 'cold' refers to a method or device for cooling air (Fang, 2018). This was employed in the MC compound, 冷气 *lěngqì* 'cold + air' 'air

conditioner' where 冷 *lěng 'cold'* refers to the temperature being lower than normal (Nie, 2014). It is a temperature feeling of human beings while 气 *qì* 'air' refers to an unfixed temperature where the temperature can be controlled, hence, air is changed to a lower temperature than normal. The CC expression of air conditioner is 空调 *kōngtiáo* 'air + device'. The meaning is fully explicit; thus, it was classified as an endocentric compound. Table 4.14 below illustrates this.

Table 4.14: Temperature Words are used in MC Exocentric Compounds to Denote Function or Purpose

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Air conditioner	N	冷气 *lěng qì* cold + air	Exocentric	空调 *kōng tiáo* air + device	Endocentric
2	Take a shower	V	冲凉 *chōng liáng* pour + cool	Exocentric	洗澡 *xǐ zǎo* wash+ bathe	Endocentric

(2) Expressing the same thing with different features

MCC such as 捷运 *jié yùn* 'quick + transport' means subway. This compound is seen as the function of transportation where the speed is higher than many other modes of transportation, hence, the meaning of this compound is based on the functional characteristics of the subway. In contrast, the CCC 地铁 *dì tiě* 'ground + iron' represents the location and the material of the subway, because the subway runs underground, and the metal is the main material of the subway.

In the MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter), *hand* is associated with the ability of carrying, and *letter* indicates a way of conveying emotions and greetings. Hence the meaning of *gift* in MC is constructed by the functions of gift, while the purpose of gift is considered in the CCC 礼物 *lǐ wù* (ceremony + item). *Ceremony* is linked to doing something for celebration, commemoration or expressing respect. *Item* is seen as an entity that can be shown. These examples show that MCCs and CCCs define the same thing from different features of the thing, thus, people can know different features through the expressions of MCCs and CCCs. Table 4.15 illustrates this.

Table 4.15: Expressing the Same Thing with Different Features

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Subway	N	捷运 *jié yùn* quick + transport	Exocentric	地铁 *dì tiě* ground + iron	Exocentric
2	Gift	N	手信 *shǒu xìn* hand + letter	Exocentric	礼物 *lǐ wù* ceremony + item	Exocentric
3	Unit	N	单位 *dān wèi* single + place	Exocentric	单 元 *dān yuan* single + basis	Exocentric

4.3.4 Summary

According to the classification of MCCs, this section is divided into three groups: endocentric, partially-endocentric, and exocentric compounds. The characteristics of each type of MCC and its corresponding CCC have been found and compared.

In the endocentric compounds group, three similarities and three differences are found. The three similarities are: (1) most of MCCs and CCCs are right-headed

compounds, (2) MCCs have the same lexical head with their corresponding CCCs, and (3) both components give a meaning similar to the meaning of the whole compound. There are three differences between them: (1) some MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are discretely formed from the two different components of synonymous compounds, (2) components of MCCs and CCCs have different undertones, (3) the difference in the scope of meaning of a component causes a difference in the scope of MCCs and CCCs.

In the partially-endocentric compounds group, two similarities and two differences are found. The two similarities are: (1) one of the components is used to expand the meaning of the compounds, and (2) a new concept is illustrated by a similar shape. The two differences are: (1) MCCs include more meanings than CCCs, and (2) components bring out different perspectives of the compounds.

In the exocentric compounds group, two similarities and two differences are found. The two similarities are: (1) meaning of a concrete action extended by metaphor or metonymy to denote a phenomenon, and (2) Chinese culture contained in MCCs and CCCs to express the same meaning. The two differences are: (1) according to people's life experience, temperature words are used in MCCs to denote function or purpose, and (2) different features of the same thing are used by MCC and CCC to express the same concept.

In addition, based on the comparison, the findings show that MCCs contain more subjective words reflecting the speaker's feelings, moods, and experiences. For example, words with subjective sensation are more used in MCCs, such as the 冷 *lěng* 'cold' in MCC 冷气 *lěng qì,* the temperature-sensation word 'cold' is used to express the concept of air conditioner. According to the study by Nie (2014), the concept of temperature is summarized from our daily life experience. In another example of MCC 乐龄 *lè líng* 'old

age', the 乐 *lè* 'cheerful' refers to happy and peaceful (Zhou, 2002), people's emotions are combined in this MCC. Notably, MCCs are more subjective than their corresponding CCCs.

4.4 Answering the Third Research Question

This section answers research question 3, which is repeated here: How are the meanings of MCCs and CCCs formed based on the CBT approach? Based on the third research question, this section will illustrate how the meanings of MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are constructed through the CBT. Since the meanings of endocentric compounds are fully explicit, the CBT is only used to analyze partially-endocentric and exocentric compounds, as their meanings are not fully explicit.

According to the classification of MCCs, this section is divided into two groups: partially-endocentric, and exocentric compounds. MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are listed in tables, and then they are illustrated by using CBT separately. Only three of MCC and CCC examples from each group are presented in this section.

4.4.1 Partially-endocentric Compounds

Partially-endocentric compounds of MC and CC are analyzed and discussed in this section by using written and figurative methods. The examples are presented below.

4.4.1.1 The Expressions of 'to leave work' in MCC and CCC

Table 4.16: The Expressions of 'to leave work' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	To leave work	V	放工 *fàng gong* *gong* release + work	Partially-endocentric	下班 *xià bān* finish + shift	Partially-endocentric

(1) MCC 放工 *fàng gong* (release + work) 'to leave work' (Figure 4.1)

Figure 4.1 below illustrates the impact of the meaning of the MCC 放工 *fàng gong* (release + work), which denotes 'to leave work'. In Conceptual blending network, two input spaces contain elements which are related to two components of compounds, and generic space abstracts the common attributes of elements which from two input spaces (Croft& Cruse, 2004). As it can be noted, Input 1 is structured by the component 放 *fang* 'release' which refers to 'freedom', and 'the constraint of time and place being relieved'. Input 2 is structured by the component, 工 *gong* 'work', which includes the two elements of 'responsibility', and 'laboring and production'. The generic space of the two inputs contains the generic roles 'rule' and 'action'. According to Fauconnier & Turner (2002), blend space contains structure projected from two input spaces, and the emergent structure is produced by composition, completion and elaboration. Consequently, the blend space in the MCC 放工 *fàng gong* takes the attributes of 'finish' and 'work' to give rise to the meaning of 'to leave work'.

(2) CCC 下班 *xià bān* (finish + shift) 'to leave work' (Figure 4.2)

Figure 4.2 demonstrates the CCC 下班 *xià bān* (finish + shift), which refers to 'to leave work'. Input 1 is structured by the component 下 *xià* 'finish', which refers to 'discontinue' and 'stop'. Input 2 is structured by the component 班 *bān* 'shift', which relates to 'take turn' and 'regular time'. The shared roles 'action' and 'rule' in generic space map onto input 1 and input 2.

In the blended space, the element 'finish' is derived from the attribute 'to leave work' in Input 1, the element 'unavailable' is derived from the attribute 'regular time' in Input 2, 'finish' and 'unavailable' helped in the formation of the meaning 'to leave work'.

In both of these two compounds, they recognize the roles of 'rule' and 'action' in their generic space. However, MCC 放工 *fàng gong* is constructed from the concept of 'to leave work' from the perspective of human beings, such as 'freedom' and 'responsibility'. CCC 下班 *xià bān* is formed from the perspective of work attributes to express the same concept, such as 'discontinue' and 'regular time'.

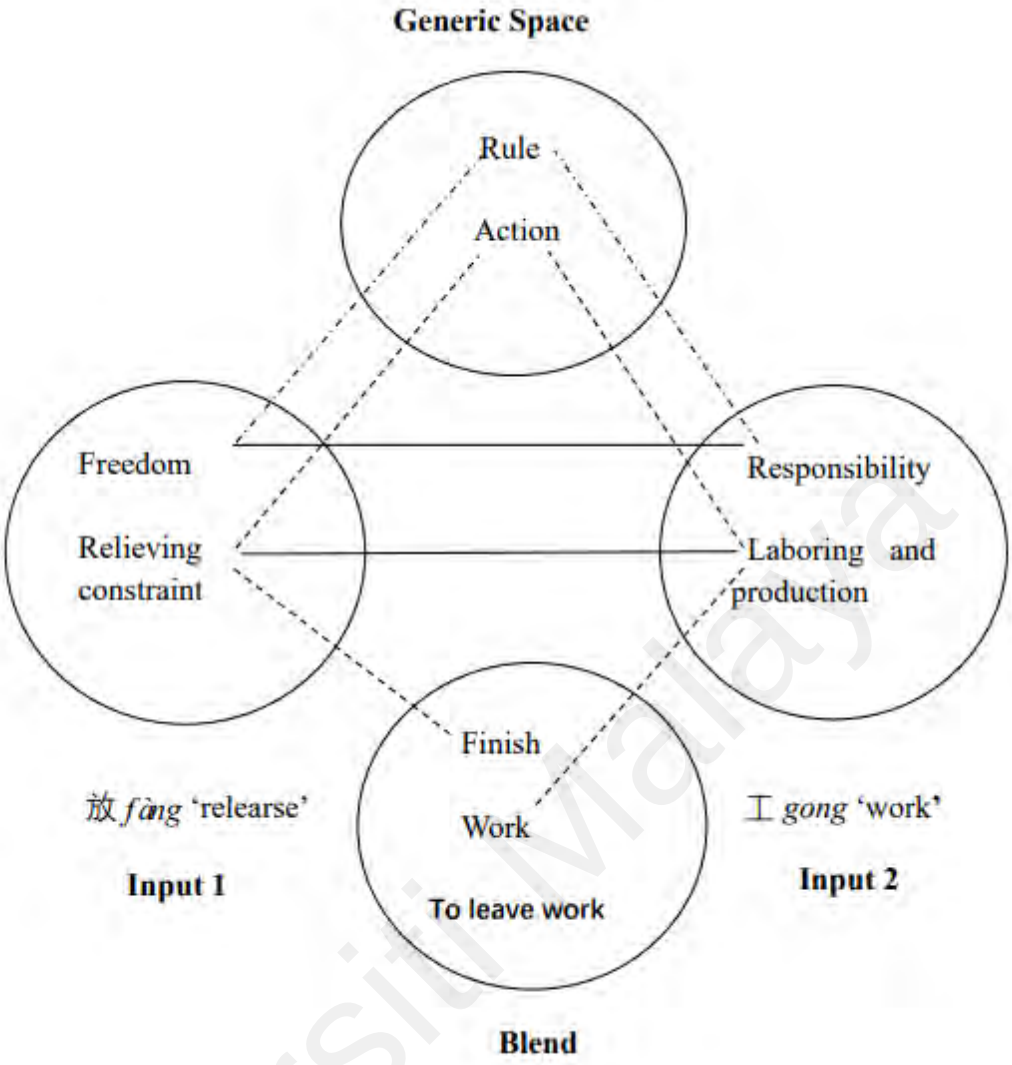

Figure 4.1: MCC 放工 *fàng gong* (release + work) 'to leave work'

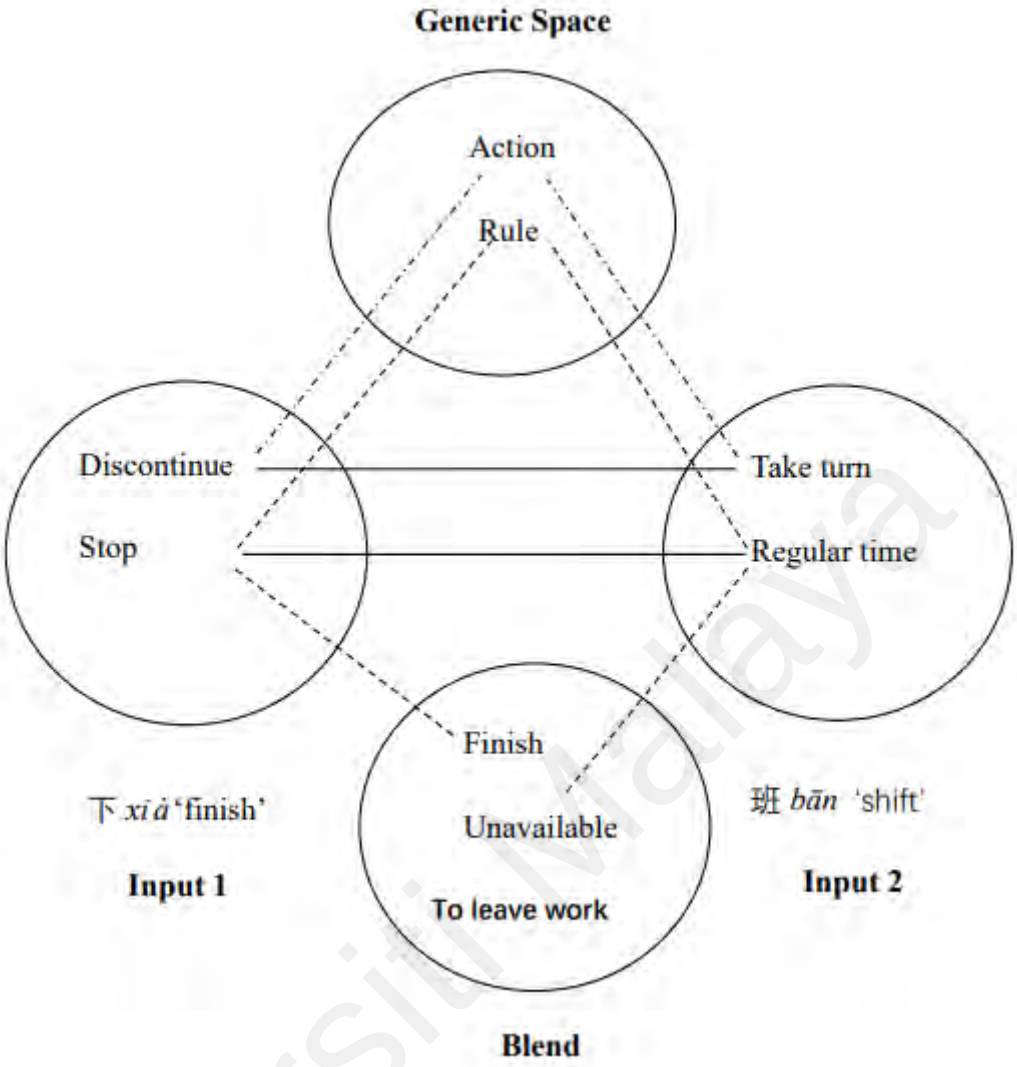

Figure 4.2: CCC 下班 *xià bān* (finish + shift) 'to leave work'

4.4.1.2 The Expressions of 'to rob' in MCC and CCC.

Table 4.17: The Expressions of 'to rob' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	To rob	V	打抢 *dǎ qiǎng* hit + rob	Partially-endocentric	抢劫 *qiǎng jié* rob + disaster	Partially-endocentric

(1) MCC 打抢 *dǎqiǎng* (hit + rob) 'to rob' (Figure 4.3)

The MCC 打抢 *dǎqiǎng* (hit + rob) 'to rob' is compounded by the components 打 *dǎ* 'hit' and 抢 *qiǎng* 'rob'. Since this is an immoral action, the generic space takes the generic roles 'action' and 'immoral' from the two input spaces.

In Input 1, the elements 'to attack' and 'violence' are related to the component 打 *dǎ* 'hit', while Input 2 contains the element 'to get' and 'harm', related to another component 抢 *qiǎng* 'rob'.

In the blend, the compound meaning 'to rob' is derived from the attributes 'violence' and 'to get' projected from the two input spaces.

(2) CCC 抢劫 *qiǎng jié* (rob + disaster) 'to rob' (Figure 4.4)

The meaning 'to rob' is expressed in CCC is as 抢劫 *qiǎng jié* (rob + disaster). The components of the compound are 'rob' and 'disaster'. Hence, the generic space includes the generic roles 'action' and 'emotion'.

In input 1, the elements ‘to get’ and ‘harm’ are related to the component 抢 *qiǎng* ‘rob’. In input 2, the elements ‘lose’ and ‘suffering’ are related to another component, 劫 *jié* ‘disaster’.

The blended space takes the elements ‘harm’ which projected from Input 1, ‘suffering’ which projected from Input 2, forming the compound meaning ‘to rob’.

These two compounds are constructed by the same component 抢 *qiǎng* ‘rob’ to define the characteristic of ‘action’, but their difference is shown in the elements of input spaces. As the illustrations shows below, in MCC 打抢 *dǎ qiǎng*, the elements ‘to attack’ and ‘violence’ reflect the characteristic of immorality of *to rob*, while in CCC 抢劫 *qiǎng jié*, the elements ‘harm’ and ‘suffering’ in input 2 show people’s emotion on this action.

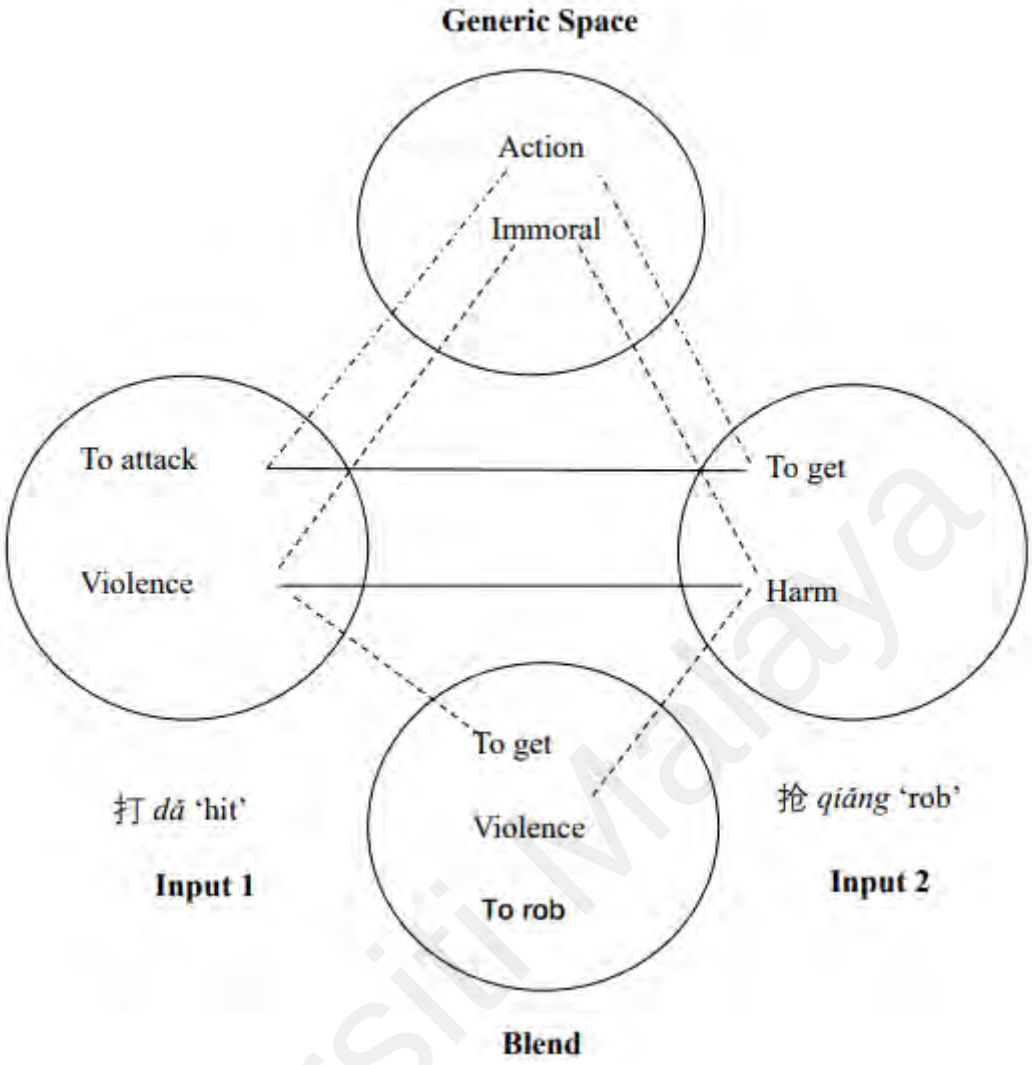

Figure 4.3: MCC 打抢 *dǎ qiǎng* (hit + rob) 'to rob'

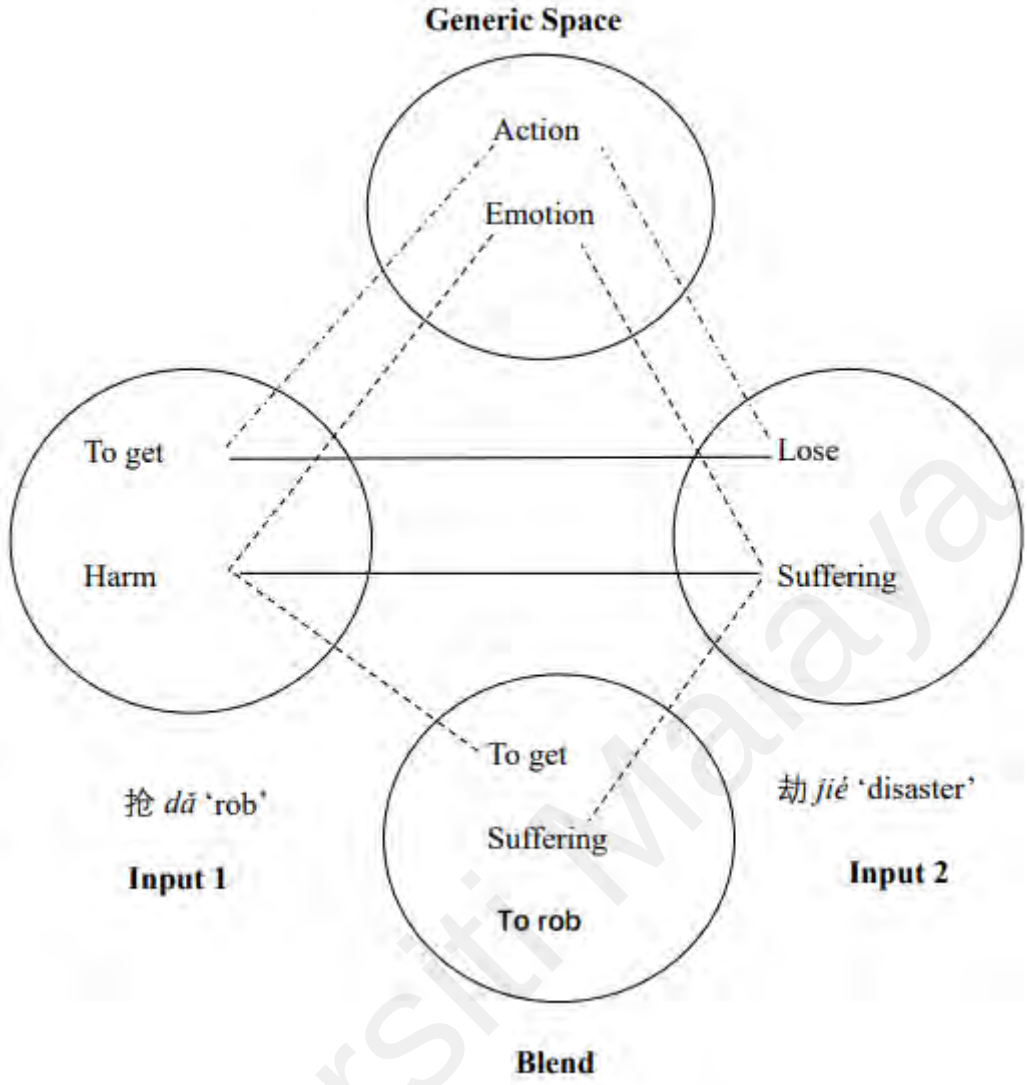

Figure 4.4: CCC 抢劫 *qiǎng jié* (rob + disaster) 'to rob'

4.4.1.3 The Expressions of 'microchip' in MCC and CCC.

Table 4.18: The Expressions of 'microchip' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Microchip	N	晶片 *jīng piàn* crystal + slice	Partially-endocentric	芯片 *xīn piàn* core + slice	Partially-endocentric

(1) MCC 晶片 *jīng piàn* (crystal + slice) 'microchip' (Figure 4.5)

The MCC 晶片 *jīngpiàn* (crystal + slice) refers to 'microchip'. The generic space contains the generic roles 'object' and 'value'. These two generic roles can be shared by other spaces in this network.

Input 1 is structured from the component 晶 *jin* 'crystal', which contains attributes indicating 'shining' and 'precious'. Input 2 is structured from the component 片 *piàn* 'slice', which includes attributes showing a thin, small, portable item.

In the blend, only one additional structure 'precious' is projected from Input 1, since the meaning of this component is implicit, while the meaning of the other component 片 'slice' is explicit. Thus, 'precious + slice' combine to express 'microchip'.

(2) CCC 芯片 *xīn piàn* (core + slice) 'microchip' (Figure 4.6)

The compound 芯片 *xīn piàn* (core + slice) refers to 'microchip' in CC. The generic space contains the generic roles 'object' and 'value'.

In Input 1, the elements ‘main part’ and ‘irreplaceable’ are related to the component 芯 *xīn,* ‘core’. Input 2 is structured by the component 片 *piàn* ‘slice’, which indicates ‘thin and small’ and ‘portable’.

The blended space takes the attributes ‘core’ and ‘slice’ to give rise to the meaning of ‘microchip’.

According to the CBT illustrations of these two compounds, they have the same characteristics which are ‘object’ and ‘value’ in their generic spaces. Nevertheless, the slight difference between these two compounds is manifested in the elements of their input spaces. For instance, the meaning of *microchip* in MCC emphasizes the external ‘shining’ feature of the microchip, while the same concept is expressed through its internal feature ‘main part’ in CCC.

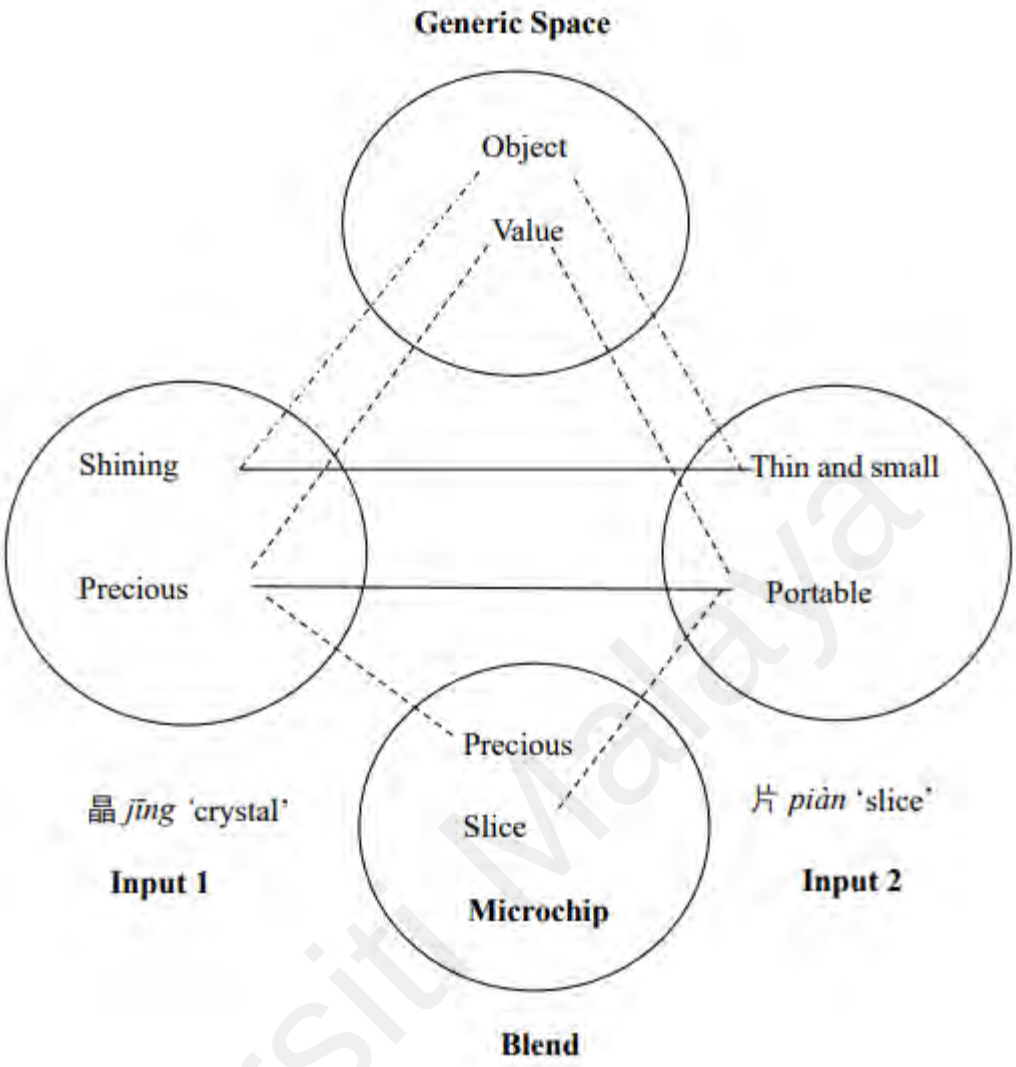

Figure 4.5: MCC 晶片 *jīng piàn* (crystal + slice) 'microchip'

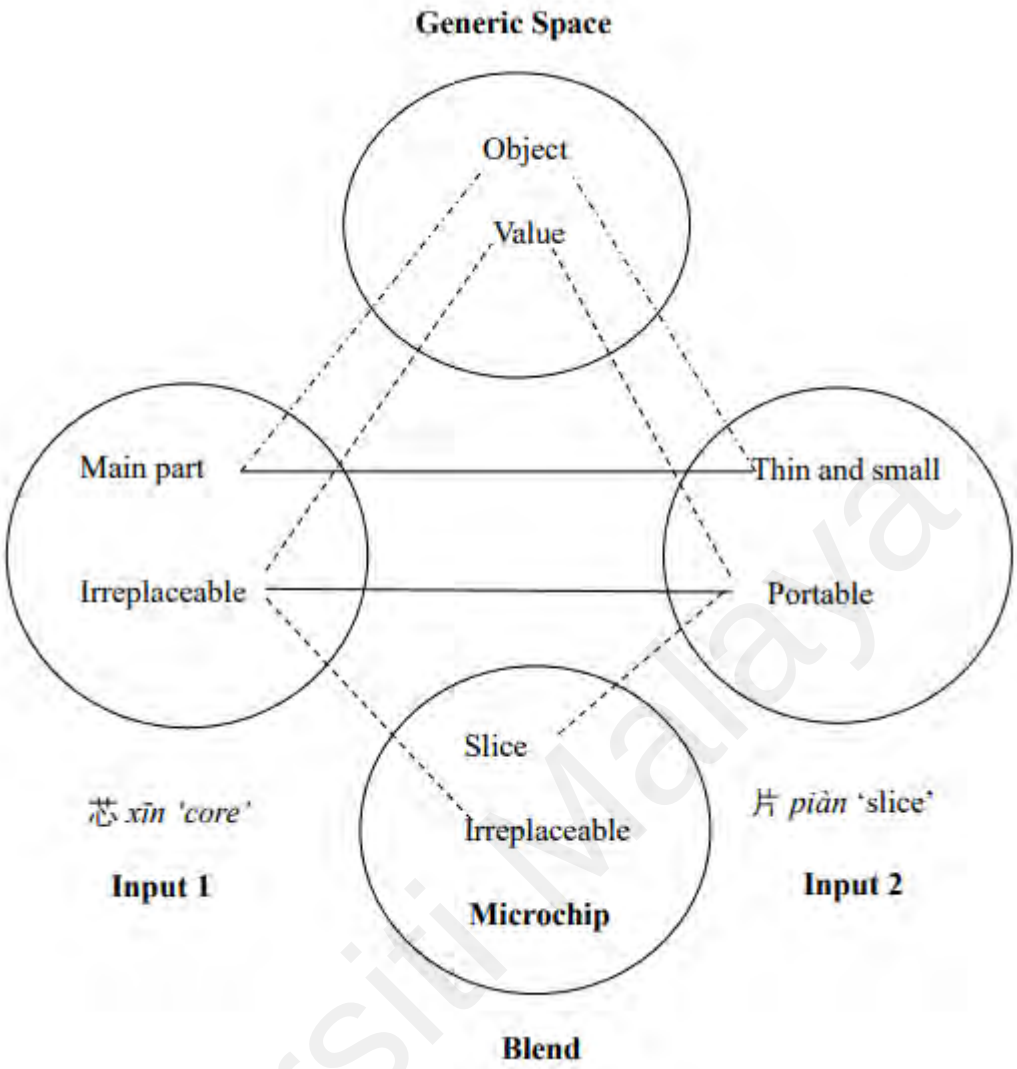

Figure 4.6: CCC 芯片 *xīn piàn* (core + slice) 'microchip'

4.4.2 Exocentric Compounds

The MC exocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs are presented below.

4.4.2.1 The Expressions of 'to publish a list of successful candidates' in MCC and CCC

Table 4.19: The Expressions of 'to publish a list of successful candidates' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	To publish a list of successful candidates	V	放榜 *fàng bǎng* release + announcement	Exocentric	发榜 *fā bang* send + announcement	Exocentric

(1) MCC 放榜 *fàng bǎng* (release + announcement) 'to publish a list of successful candidates' (Figure 4.7)

The MCC 放榜 *fàng bǎng* (release + announcement) refers to 'to publish a list of successful candidates'. The generic space contains the three roles of 'action', 'authority', and 'publicity'. As noted, Input 1 is structured by the component 放 *fàng* 'release' which refers to 'relieving constraint', 'allowable', and 'public'. Input 2 is structured from the component 榜 *bǎng* 'announcement', which includes the three elements 'showing result or list', 'admitted', and 'information'.

The blend takes the attributes 'displaying result', 'uncontrolled', and 'publicity' to give rise to the meaning of 'announcement of examination result'.

(2) CCC 发榜 *fā bǎng* (send + announcement) 'to publish a list of successful candidates' (Figure 4.8)

In CCC, the expression of 'to publish a list of successful candidates' is 发榜 *fā bǎng* (send + announcement). As evident from the elements of the components, this compound refers to action and publicity. Hence, the generic space contains the generic roles 'action' and 'publicity'.

Input 1 is structured from the component 发 *fā* 'send', which indicates 'spreading information' and 'public'. Input 2 is structured from the component 榜 *bǎng* 'announcement', which includes 'showing result or list' and 'information'.

In the blend, the meaning 'to publish a list of successful candidates' is formed from the elements of 'spreading' and 'result'.

In a word, the generic spaces of these two compounds contain the same roles which are 'action' and 'publicity', but comparing with CCC 发榜 *fā bǎng*, the input space of '放' in MCC 放榜 *fàng bǎng* is associated to the element 'allowable' which reflected the characteristic 'authority'. However, the role of 'authority' is not reflected in the CCC 发榜 *fā bǎng*.

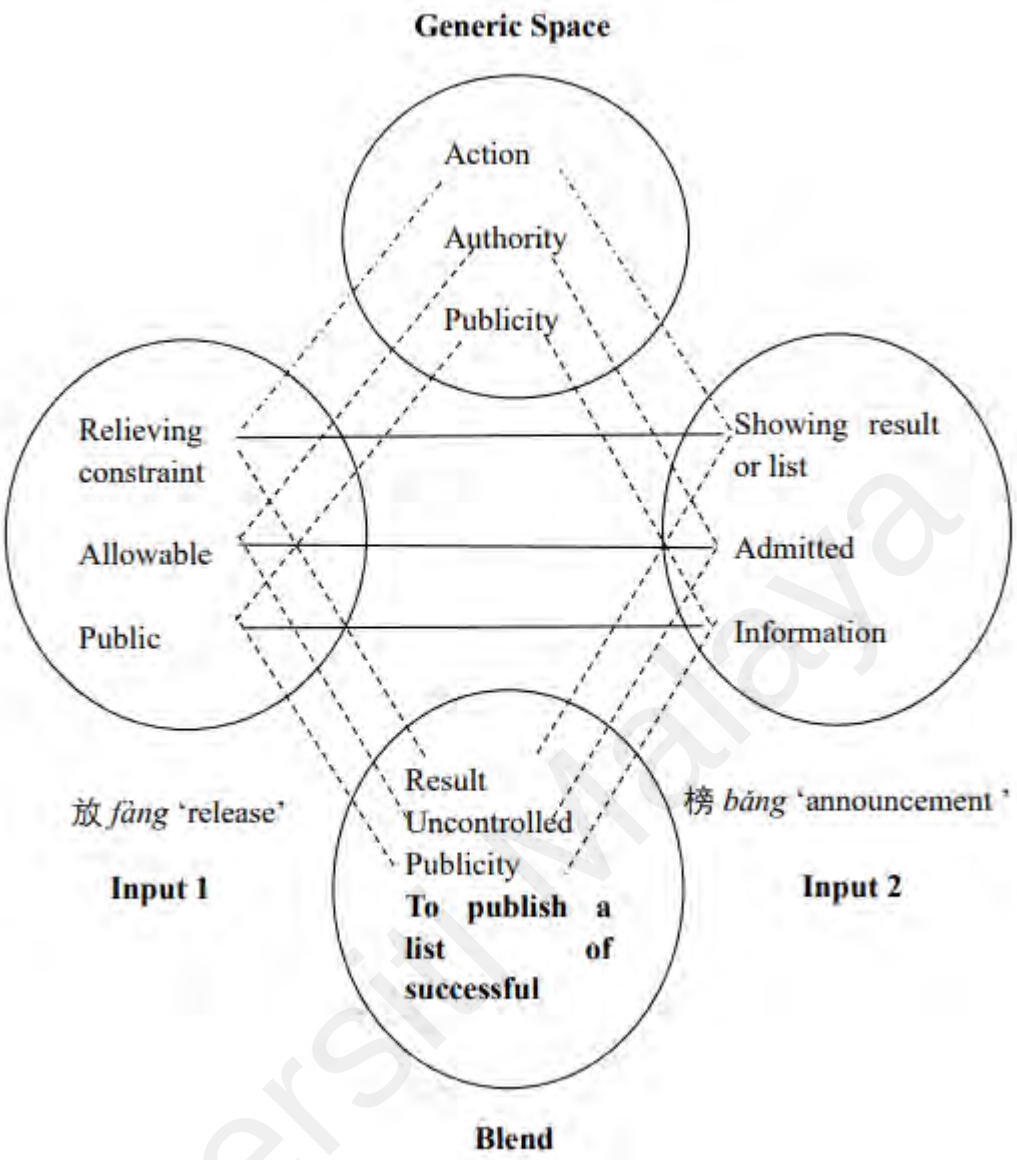

Figure 4.7: MCC 放榜 *fàng bǎng* (release + announcement) 'to publish a list of successful candidates'

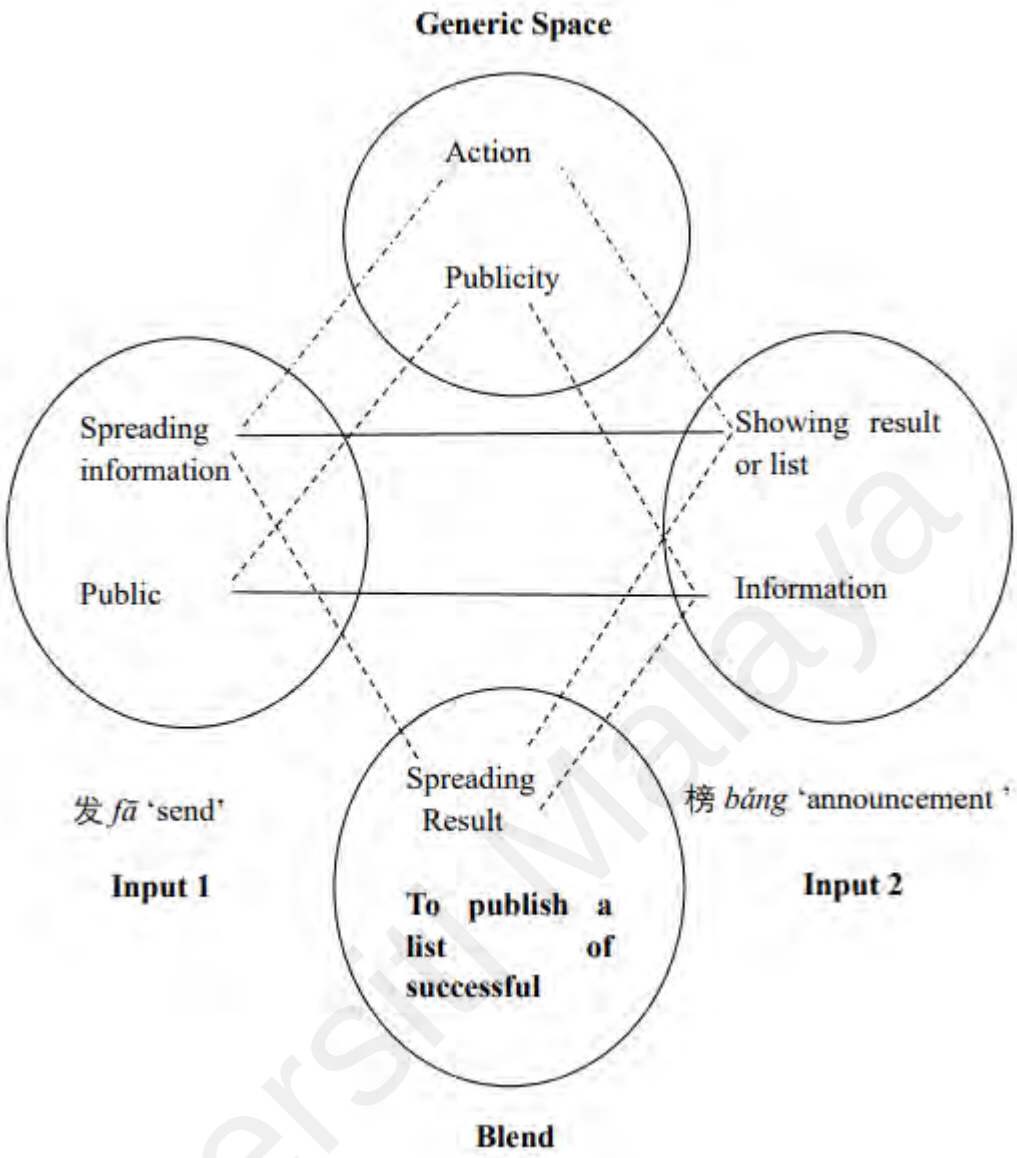

Figure 4.8: CCC 发榜 *fā bǎng* (send + announcement) 'to publish a list of successful candidates'

4.4.2.2 The Expressions of 'gift' in MCC and CCC

Table 4.20: The Expressions of 'gift' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Gift	N	手信 *shǒu xìn* hand + letter	Exocentric	礼物 *lǐ wù* ceremony + item	Exocentric

(1) MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter) 'gift' (Figure 4.9)

The meaning of the MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter) refers to 'gift'. This compound refers to an object, and our hand is always linked to function. As such, the generic space contains three generic roles: 'object', 'function', and 'emotion'.

Input 1 is structured from the component 手 *shǒu* 'hand' which indicates 'body part', 'to carry', and 'personally', while Input 2 is structured by the component 信 *xìn* 'letter' which indicates 'paper', 'portable', and 'greeting'.

In the blend, the meaning of the compound denotes an item which is easy to carry, and also functions as an expression of greeting.

(2) CCC 礼物 *lǐwù* (ceremony + item) 'gift' (Figure 4.10)

In CC, the compound 礼物 *lǐ wù* (ceremony + item) refers to 'gift'. The generic space contains the generic roles 'object', 'purpose', and 'emotion'.

Input 1 is structured from the component 礼 *lǐ* 'ceremony', which indicates 'memento', 'to celebrate', and 'respect', while in Input 2, the elements 'various', 'to show', and 'appreciation' are related to the other component 物 *wù* 'item'.

In the blend, the meaning of ‘gift’ in this compound indicates an item that is given in order to express kindness.

Base on the CBT illustrations of the ‘gift’ in MCC and CCC, the characteristics of ‘object’ and ‘emotion’ in generic space are included in both MCC and CCC, while there are different characteristics between two Chinese compounds. In the MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter), the elements ‘to carry’ and ‘portable’ are linked to show the characteristic ‘function’. Different with MCC, the ‘purpose’ of ‘gift’ is expressed though the elements ‘to celebrate’ and ‘to show’ in CCC 礼物 *lǐ wù* (ceremony + item).

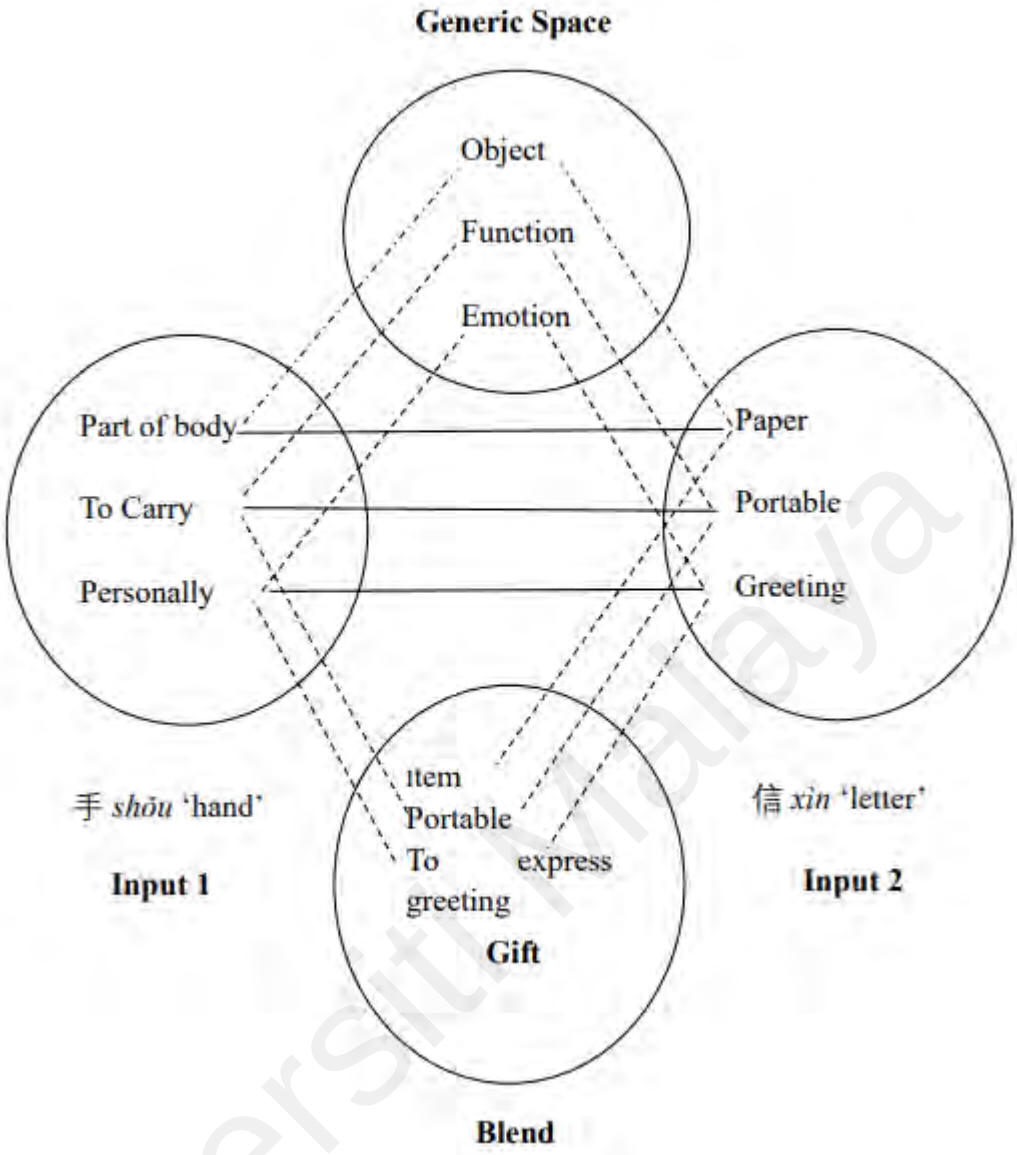

Figure 4.9: MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter) 'gift'

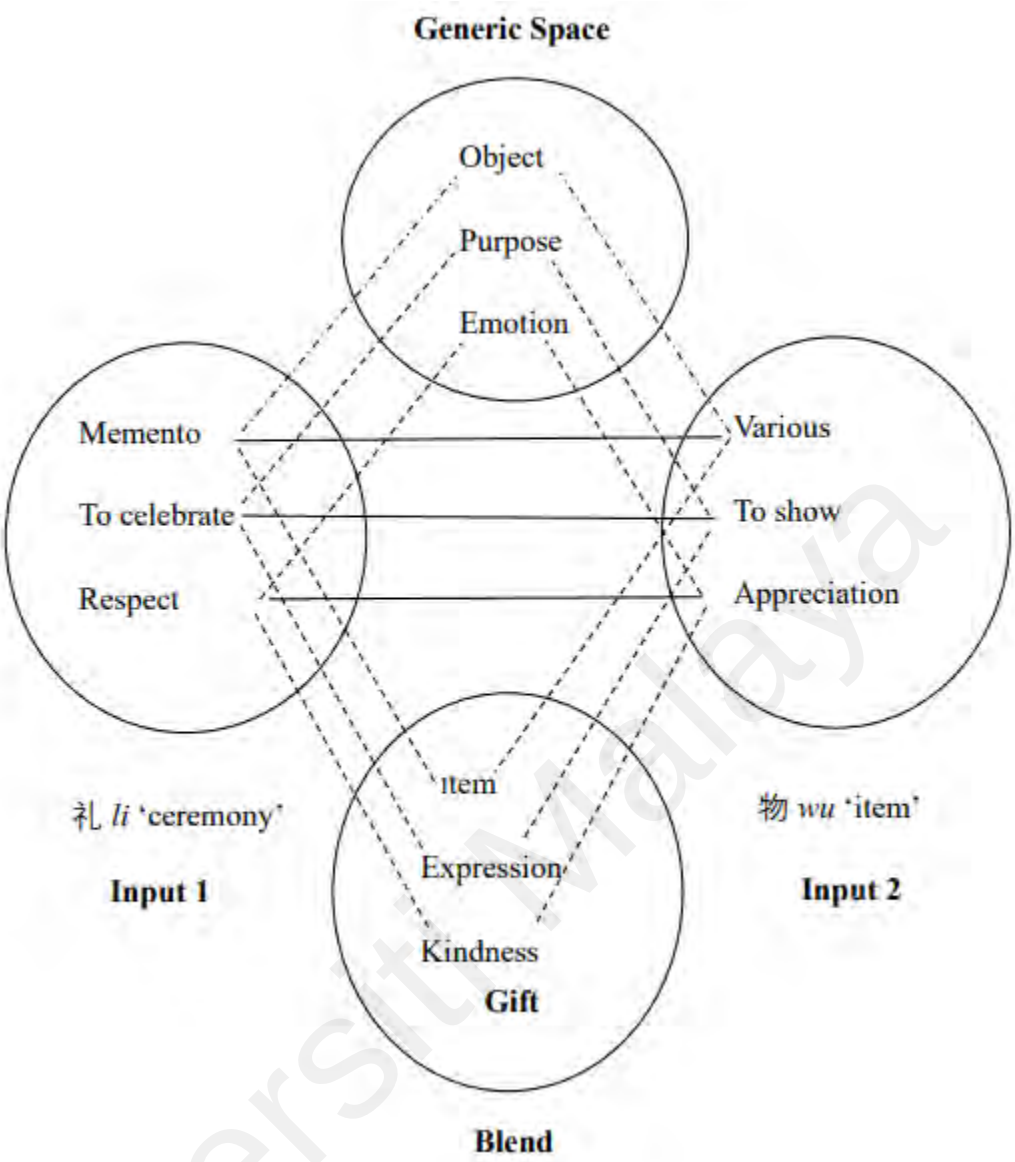

Figure 4.10: CCC 礼物 *lǐ wù* (ceremony + item) 'gift'

4.4.2.3 The Expressions of 'clever' in MCC and CCC

Table 4.21: The Expressions of 'clever' in MCC and CCC

No	Meaning	Word Class	MCC		CCC	
			Example	Type	Example	Type
1	Clever	ADJ	醒目 *xǐng mù* wake + eyes	Exocentric	聪明 *cōng míng* hearing + bright	Exocentric

(1) MCC 醒目 *xǐng mù* (wake + eyes) 'clever' (Figure 4.11)

Since the MCC 醒目 *xǐng mù* (wake + eyes) refers to clever, it is normally used to describe a person's intellectual ability. As such, the general roles 'human', 'ability', and 'sense' are contained in the generic space.

The elements relate to the first component 醒 *xǐng* 'wake'. Hence, 'vitality', 'understanding', and 'sober-minded' are contained in Input 1, while Input 2 contains the elements 'part of body', 'observation', and 'clear', which are related to the second component 目 *mù* 'eyes'.

The blended space takes the elements 'strong observation' and 'understanding ability' from the two inputs forming the meaning of 'clever'.

(2) CCC 聪明 *cōng míng* (wake + bright) 'clever' (Figure 4. 12)

As with the MCC 醒目 *xǐng mù* (wake + eyes), in CCC 聪明 *cōng míng* (hearing + bright), the function of 'hearing' is extended to the ability of humans in order to express 'clever'. As such, the generic space contains 'human', 'ability', and 'sense'.

Input 1 includes the elements ‘ear’, ‘judgement’, and ‘keen’, which are related to the first component 聪 *cōng* ‘hearing’. Input 2 is constructed from the other component 明 *míng* ‘bright’, which indicates ‘eyes’, ‘observation’, and ‘clear’.

The compound meaning ‘clever’ in the Blended space is formed from the elements ‘strong observation’ and ‘accurate judgement’, projected from the 2 Input spaces.

These two compounds contain same characteristics which are ‘human’, ‘ability’ and ‘sense’. However, MCC and CCC show their characteristics from different perspectives. The meaning in MCC is constructed from the perspectives of a certain part of the human body and the entire human body. For instance, in MCC, the elements ‘vitality’, ‘understanding’, and ‘sober-minded’ reflect the entire human body, while the elements ‘part of body’, ‘observation’, and ‘clear’ are related to the *eyes.*

Differently, the meaning of ‘clever*’* in CCC is only constructed from the perspective of parts of human body. For example, the elements in two input spaces are linked to two components, ‘hearing’ and ‘bright’, which are extended from the functions of parts of human body- ‘ears’ and ‘eyes’.

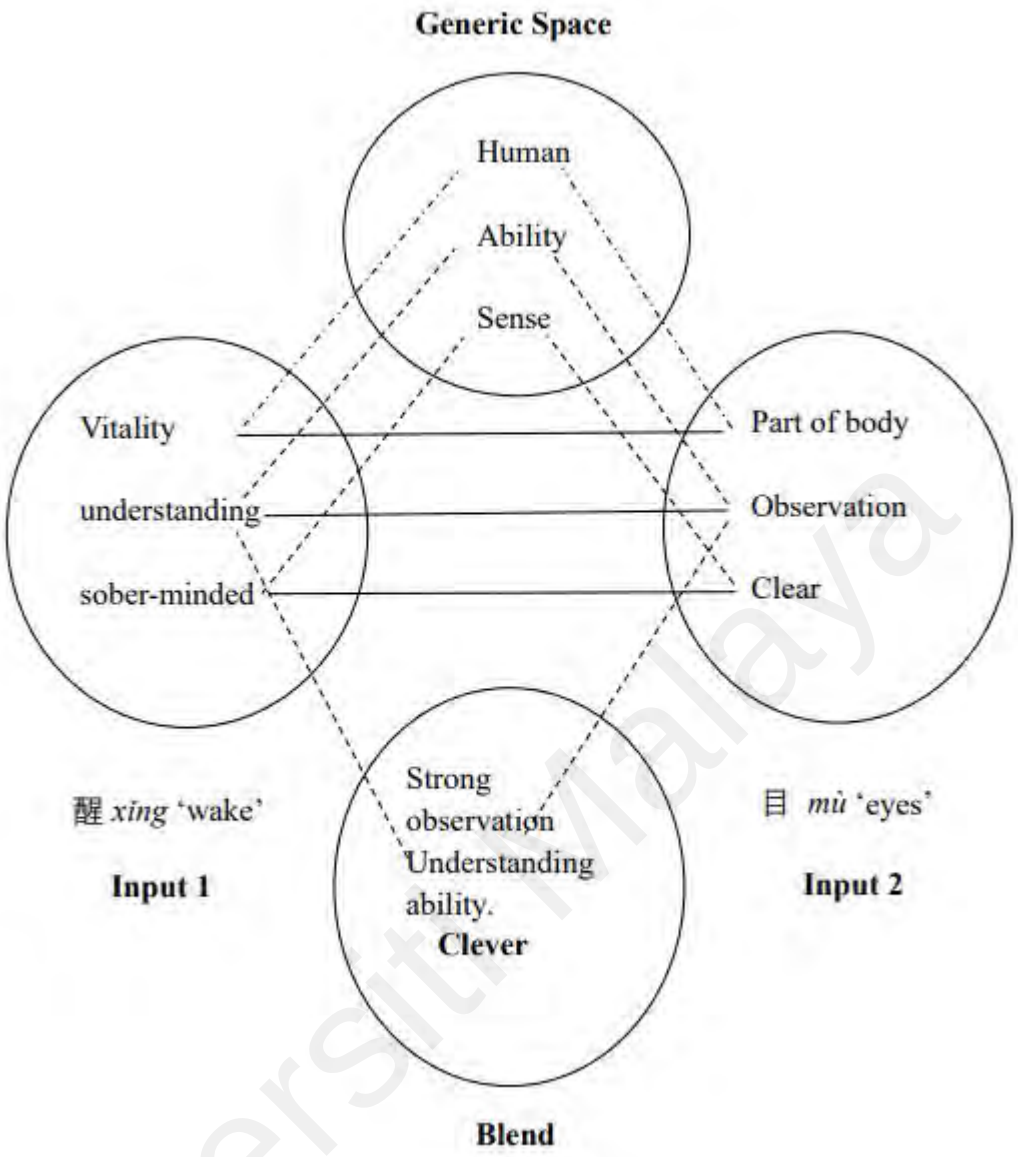

Figure 4.11: MCC 醒目 *xǐngmù* (wake + eyes) 'clever'

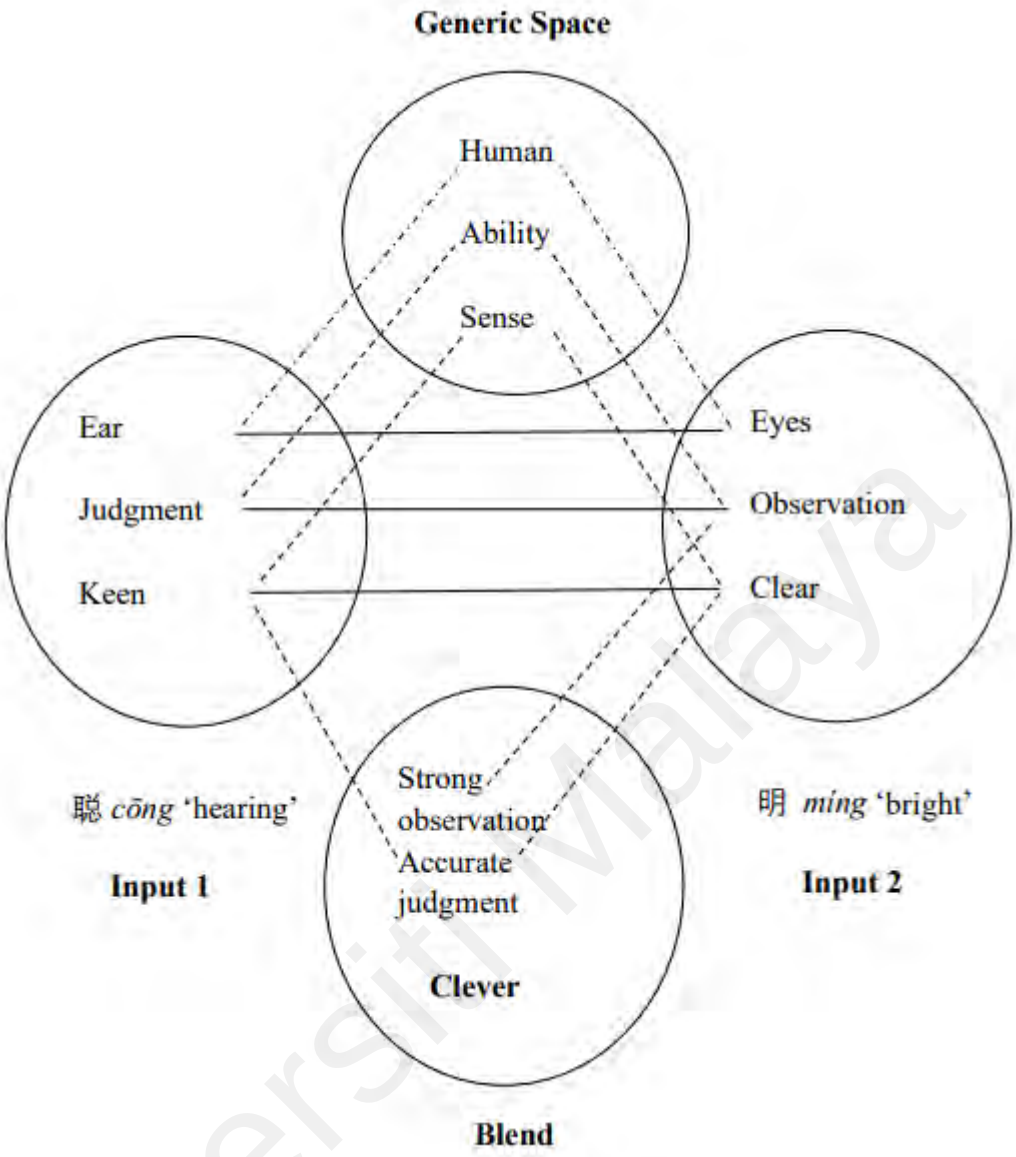

Figure 4.12: CCC 聪明 *cōng míng* (hearing + bright) 'clever'

4.4.3 Generic spaces of conceptual blending in MCCs and CCCs

The characteristics of generic spaces of MCC and CCC conceptual blending are listed in the tables below.

(1) Partially-endocentric compounds

Table 4.22 The Characteristics of Generic Spaces of MC and CC Partially-endocentric Compounds

No	Word class	Meaning	Generic spaces	
			MCC	CCC
1	V	To leave work	Rule; Action	Action; Rule
2	V	To rob	Action; Immoral	Action; Emotion
3	N	Microchip	Object; Value	Object; Value

Based on the table above, when a concept is expressed in two different compounds, the elements in generic spaces are same or similar. For instance, the characteristics 'rule' and 'action' are included in both MCC and CCC to determine the concept of 'to leave work'. Similarly, the generic spaces of 'Microchip' in MCC and CCC are structured from the same characteristics which are 'object' and 'value'.

On the example of 'to rob' in MCC and CCC, the characteristics of generic spaces in MCC and CCC are not exactly the same, however, the characteristic of 'action' is identified by both of them. Accordingly, the characteristics of generic spaces of MC and CC partially-endocentric compounds are highly coincident.

(2) Exocentric Compounds

Table 4.23 The Characteristics of Generic Spaces of MC and CC Exocentric Compounds

No	Word class	Meaning	Generic spaces	
			MCC	CCC
1	V	To publish a list of successful candidates	Action; Authority; Publicity	Action; publicity
2	N	Gift	Object; Function; Emotion	Object; Purpose; Emotion
3	ADJ	Clever	Human; Ability; Sense	Human; Ability; Sense

Same as partially-endocentric compounds, the characteristics of generic spaces of MC and CC exocentric compounds are same or similar. As Table 4.23 shows, the MCC and CCC of 'clever' are structured by the same characteristics, which are 'human', 'ability' and 'sense'. The characteristics of 'to publish a list of successful candidates' and 'gift' in MCC and CCC are not completely same. Nonetheless, for the main characteristics, MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are in agreement. Consequently, MCCs and their corresponding CCCs have a certain consensus on the definition of the same concept, while the differences in characteristics are reflected in the perspective of how two communities understand the same thing.

4.4.4 Summary

Partially-endocentric and exocentric structures are used in nouns, verbs and adjectives in MC and CC.

According to the analysis of the meaning formation of MCC and CCC by CBT, the study found that the main characteristics in the generic spaces of some MCCs and their corresponding CCCs are the same, but different characteristics are also included as

they contain different perspectives on how these two Chinese speakers look at the same thing.

For example, in the meaning of 'gift' in the 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter) (see Figure 4.9), the function is more emphasized in MCC, while in the 礼物 *lǐ wù* (ceremony + item) (see Figure 4.10), the purpose is more emphasized in CCC. In the formation of both of these compounds, the same attributes, 'object' and 'emotion', were identified. The difference is that the 'function' attributes are included in the MCC, while the CCC concept contains the 'purpose' attribute of *gift*. In the main division of the attribute category of the objective world, both MCC and CCC have reached a consensus, but there are different interpretations of certain characteristics.

Besides, two Chinese communities have similar classification methods for things, this similar way determines the formation of concepts and the acquisition of meaning. The CBT illustrations show that the generic characteristics of some MCCs and CCCs are the same. For example, in the MCC 醒目 *xǐngmù* (wake + eyes) 'clever' (see Figure 4.11) and its corresponding CCC 聪明 *cōngmíng* (hearing + bright) 'clever' (see Figure 4.12), their concepts contain the same characteristics 'human', 'ability', and 'sense', but are present in different ways.

Although some expressions of Chinese in the two regions are different, through their similar recognition and division of attributes of the same objective world, the two Chinese communities can also construct concept meanings that are similar or related. The subtle differences between MCC and CCC reflect the differences in their social environments and their ways of cognizing.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the entire study in three parts. The first part summarizes and reviews the findings of the three research questions set for this study. In the second part, based on the comparing and analyzing of the meanings of MCCs and CCCs, the experience that is reflected in the meaning formation of these compounds is concluded. The last part points out some of the limitations found in the study and offers some recommendations for future studies.

5.2 Summary of Findings Pertaining to the Research Questions

This comparative study explored the similarities and differences between MCCs and CCCs from the perspective of cognitive semantics. In order to fill gaps in previous studies which had focused on the related field of the research, three research questions were raised and then answered in this study.

First, endocentric, partially-endocentric, and exocentric compounds were identified in both MCCs and CCCs. The findings of this study show that the endocentric compound is the most frequently found compound, while the exocentric compound is the least frequently found in both MCCs and CCCs. A further incidental finding is that in these MCCs and CCCs, nouns are the most numerous part of speech.

However, differences exist in the numbers and percentages of each type in MCCs and CCCs. The results show that MCCs have fewer endocentric compounds than CCCs, but more partially-endocentric and exocentric compounds. This means that CCCs are more head-driven, while MCCs tend to consider more factors.

Secondly, similarities and differences exist between the three types of MCCs and their corresponding CCCs. The commonalities mainly come from the following aspects:

(1) the basis of internal structure of Chinese compounds, for instance, right-handed compounds are a typical characteristic in MC and CC endocentric compounds (see section 4.3.1.1); (2) agreement of the core meaning in the compounds, for example, the same lexical head exists in both MC endocentric compounds and their corresponding CCCs (see section 4.3.1.1); (3) shapes are used to illustrate an object with a similar shape, for example, the shape of a steel bar in MCC 钢骨 *gāng gǔ* (steel + bone) is illustrated by the shape of a bone, while in CCC 钢筋 *gāng jīn* (steel + tendon) it is illustrated by the shape of a tendon (see section 4.3.2.1); and finally, (4) the influence of Chinese traditional culture, for instance, the Chinese cultural metaphors of 东 'east' and 红 'red' are involved in both MCCs and CCCs (see section 4.3.3.1).

On the other hand, their differences are mainly shown in the following aspects: (1) the choice of synonyms in the MCCs and CCCs, for instance, 倒 *dào* 'reverse' and 退 *tuì,* 'reverse' are discretely formed for MCCs and CCCs to refer to the same meaning (see section 4.3.1.2); (2) the influence of subjective factors on the formation of meaning in compounds, for instance, in MCC 乐龄 *lè líng* 'cheerful + age' and 冷气 *lěng qì* 'cold + air', the meaning of 乐 *lè* 'cheerful' and 冷 *lěng* 'cold' are from peoples' subjective feeling, but the meaning of their corresponding CCCs 老龄 *lǎo líng* 'old + age' and 空调 *kōngtiáo* 'air + device' is not affected by this kind of factor (see sections 4.3.2.2 and 4.3.3.2); (3) differing perspectives of objects, for instance, MCC 捷运 *jié yùn* 'quick + transport' and CCC 地铁 *dì tiě* 'ground + iron' are expressed by different features of a subway (see section 4.3.3.2).

Partially-endocentric and exocentric structures are used in nouns, verbs and adjectives in MC and CC.

Third, CBT has provided an illustration to present how MC and their corresponding CC partially-endocentric and exocentric compounds are formed by two unrelated components. The illustrations have shown that the main characteristics of MCCs and CCCs are the same, but the different perspective on how Chinese speakers of these two regions look at the same thing are contained in their different characteristics.

5.3 Relation of Experience to the Meanings of MCCs and CCCs

The study examined the meanings of MCCs and CCCs. The meaning of a word is the equivalent of conceptualization in a cognitive model, that is, the psychological process of meaning construction (Allwood & Gärdenfors,1999, p. 21; Evans & Green, 2006, p. 162). In other words, in the formation of meaning, it is closely related to the cognitive style and knowledge system of humans. Evans & Green (2006, p. 206) claim that it is not possible to understand the meanings of words in isolation from the encyclopedic knowledge they are connected to. This encyclopedic knowledge has its foundation in the interrelationship humans have with their social and physical experiences.

Based on the examination of the meanings of MCCs and CCCs, the study concluded three aspects of experience that are associated with the meanings of MCCs and CCCs, they are: (1) human attributes, (2) social and cultural attributes, and (3) natural environmental impact.

(1) Human attributes.

The formation of concepts often depends on our knowing about ourselves. According to Yuan (2017), people begin to understand the world by knowing themselves and space. Therefore, the concepts of parts of human body and space are the basis for humans to form new concepts, they are important source of metaphors. This is also reflected in Chinese compounds.

For instance, MCC 手信 *shǒu xìn* (hand + letter) 'gift' and CCC 手纸 *shǒu zhǐ* (hand + paper) 'toilet paper': the 手 *shǒu* 'hand' is combined to these two compounds to express the meaning of *gift* and *toilet paper* which is related to 'carrying' and 'hold'. Through the understanding of the *hand* in life, Chinese people connect it with the 'carrying' and 'hold' functions, and integrate it with another independent concept to form a new concept which is linked to the function of 'carrying' and 'hold'. The example indicates that human attributes directly affect our own experience of the world, and this experience will also be reflected in MC and CC.

(2) Social and cultural attributes.

Liu (2018, p. 87) believes that language is a unique product of human society and a carrier of culture, thus, human language shows social and cultural identity of people. In brief, language can reflect the history, society, and cultural experiences of each language community. It is worth mentioning that, during long-term historical development, Chinese culture has been deeply rooted in Chinese communities, and it has had a profound impact on MC and CC.

For example, in Chinese culture, the east side stands for nobility and honor, and red color stands for joy or fortune. These Chinese culture meanings are contained in MC and CC, for instance, *Employer* in MCC is 东主 *dōng zhǔ (*east + master), while in CCC is 东家 *dōng jia (*east + family); *Bonus* in MCC is 花红 *huā hóng* (flower + red), and in CCC is 红利 *hóng lì (*red + good) (see section 4.3.3.1). The Chinese culture which is associated with the component of compounds is from cultural experience.

(3) Natural environmental impact.

In the final analysis, human language is an integral part of nature. Although language is not natural, nature must include language, and language is closely related to nature, and reveals some characteristics of the natural environment.

For example, Malaysia has a tropical rain forest climate with high temperatures throughout the year. This climatic feature is reflected in the meaning formation of MCCs, as in 冷气 *lěng qì* (cold + air) 'air conditioner'，冲凉 *chōng liáng* (pour + cold) 'take shower'. The low temperature words 'cool' and 'cold' corresponding to high temperatures are used in the MCCs to denote function and purpose. In contrast, China has four distinct seasons, therefore, in CCC 空调 *kōng tiáo* (air + conditioner) 'air conditioner' and 洗澡 *xǐ zǎo* (wash+ bathe) 'take shower', low temperature is not highlighted as their important function or purpose in these CCCs.

The experiential basis mentioned above is reflected in the encyclopedic knowledge related to the meaning of MCCs and CCCs.

5.4 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Study

Firstly, the comparison of MCCs and CCCs in this study only considered the MCCs which were collected from five Malaysian Chinese mini fictions. So, it stands that the MCCs and their corresponding CCCs involved in this study are not comprehensive. Secondly, the interpretation and analysis of the meaning formation of compounds is based on the research's own daily experiences, encyclopedic knowledge background, and cognition of Chinese language as a Chinese native speaker. However, in the process of construction of the conceptual structure of compounds, the information activated by components may vary according to the different knowledge background and experiences of language users and researchers.

In order to help research in related fields to be more comprehensive and complete, for further studies, the data sources can be more diverse, for instance by collecting data from newspapers, TV programs, or the internet. The comparison may focus on MCCs and CCCs in different fields such as economics or food. Moreover, some Chinese characters come from ancient Chinese literature or dialect expressions, and their meanings in text are used today as components forming compounds. Therefore, the ancient Chinese meaning or dialect meaning associated with a component of compounds might be considered. Such research would extend the understanding of Chinese compounds in Malaysia and China.

To sum up, the findings of this study show that the same characteristics have been retained in the Chinese of both regions. However, with the development of the language in the two Chinese communities, differences have developed between them. This study may be able to provide better insight for others to understand the disparity that exists between MC and CC, and can inspire further study on comparing the Chinese of different regions from the cognitive linguistic perspective.

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