AFFIXATION AND COMPOUNDING IN HAKKA\textsuperscript{1}

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Abstract

This paper aims to present the internal structures of words in the Hakka language. Similar to other languages, affixation and compounding are outstanding in Hakka. In general, prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes which do not occur independently, but in Hakka they sometimes appear as independent forms. Apart from single words, identifying compound words is of particular interest. Compound nouns can be made up of two or three words (characters) which may be a noun, adjective or verb. The results found that some prefixes or suffixes have no meaning such as the prefix \(\mathbf{ʔa}^1\) which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender \((\mathbf{ku}^3\) 鈥‘male’, \(\mathbf{ma}^2\) 女 ‘female’, and \(\mathbf{kuŋ}^1\) 公 ‘male’) and in some cases the meaning is not related to the gender of the animal but is merely a component of those morphemes. Such examples are \(\mathbf{kiŋ}^1\) \(\mathbf{ma}^2\) 姜 ‘ginger’ and \(\mathbf{ha}^2\) \(\mathbf{kuŋ}^1\) 鯽 公 ‘shrimp’.

Keywords

affixation, prefixes, suffixes, compound words, Hakka

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Resumen


Palabras clave
afijación, prefijos, sufijos, palabras compuestas, Hakka

1. Introduction

Publications dealing with Hakka grammar are quite rare. Previous works have tended to investigate the phonology of Hakka dialects, including Meixian, Xingning, and Jieyang Hakka which are spoken in Thailand and researchers can find good informants giving data (Saengtummachai 2003; Ungsitipoonporn 2007, 2009; So-Bha 2001; Wongwantanee 1984; Shiwaruangrote 2008). One important reason why grammars of other Chinese dialects including Hakka are not interesting or not available is that those Chinese dialects have only spoken language. When they read the Chinese characters in Mandarin they can pronounce in their pronunciation. So the grammar of written language is not different from modern standard Chinese or Mandarin. In fact each Chinese dialect group has many sub-dialects and some details are different.
2. Hakka language and Hakka speakers

Hakka belongs to Hakka group of seven Chinese groups (Mandarin, Wu, Xiang, Gan, Min, Hakka or Kejia, and Yue). According to Luo Xianglin (1933), ancestors of Hakka group originally migrated from the Central Plains to south China during several periods in the past so that now Hakka speakers are scattered in many provinces in southern China such as Guangdong, Guangxi, Fujian, Jiangxi, Hunan, Hainan, Sichuan, and Taiwan (cited from Yan 2006: 166). Hakka speakers in Thailand mostly came from Guangdong province but have many sub-dialects. Meixian and Hongshun sub-dialects are the most common. The usage described in this work is that of Meixian Hakka spoken in Bangkok so we can call this Bangkok Hakka. The situation of Hakka in Thailand is endangered now. Although Hakka descendants are large in number, most cannot speak their mother tongue. Only the elderly can provide good data.

3. Description and explanation

This article is part of my research results in the project of “The Hakka grammar as spoken in Bangkok” (Ungsitmapoonporn 2013). This paper is intended to describe the Hakka grammar of current spoken language especially word formation by compounding and affixation. The objective is to describe the affixation and compounding of Bangkok Hakka from my data collected from several contexts and conversations, focusing on colloquial language pronounced by the Hakka speakers who came from Meixian and have lived in Bangkok for a long time. The Chinese characters that are used together with IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) mean they are pronounced the same as or similar to the informant pronunciation.

4. Compound words in Hakka

A compound word is combined of two or more independent morphemes to make a single word. Its meaning is sometimes predictable but sometimes may not be. The
compounding can be both nouns and verbs. For examples, pak⁵ kuŋ¹ 伯公 ‘father’s brother and father’s father = god of land’ and mien⁴ sam¹ 面衫 ‘outside – shirt = coat’ are compound nouns because they refer to one single word.

In Hakka, there are several compound nouns and verbs. We classify the compounding according to their properties which mean their parts of speech.

### 4.1 Compound nouns

Compound nouns are composed of at least two free morphemes. They function as single nouns and act as head nouns in noun phrases. The internal compositions have several types as follows:

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>桌布 ‘ผู้พู’</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kiɔ⁵</td>
<td>毛腳 ‘นุ้’</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓 ‘รุนุ้ ’</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sky + bow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁 ‘เฝิ้’</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bean + seed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ŋa² ʃot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷 ‘ฟ้าื’</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ʃet⁶ piŋ⁴</td>
<td>月 ‘ฟ้าื’</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moon + cake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ ŋin²</td>
<td>主人 ‘เจ้าของบ้าน’</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>owner + person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Their structure can be written as follows: modifier (n.) + Head N.
In the examples above, the right side morpheme functions as the head noun and the left side morpheme function as the modifier.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or Adj. + N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) pʰak⁶ maw¹</td>
<td>白毛  &quot;ผมขาว&quot;</td>
<td>‘grey hair’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + hair</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hon² sam¹</td>
<td>寒衫  &quot;เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว&quot;</td>
<td>‘overcoat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cold + coat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) pʰak⁶ tsuk⁵</td>
<td>白粥  &quot;ข้าวต้ม&quot;</td>
<td>‘porridge’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + porridge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tsʰon² tsʰiek⁶</td>
<td>长席  &quot;เสื่อยาว&quot;</td>
<td>‘long mat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long + mat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) san¹ kuo²</td>
<td>生果  &quot;ผลไม้&quot;</td>
<td>‘fruit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>raw + fruit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Their structure can be written as follows: modifier (adj.) + Head N.
In the examples above, the noun on the right side functions as the head noun and the adjective on the left side function as the modifier.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or V+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hok⁶ kaw³</td>
<td>学校²  &quot;โรงเรียน&quot;</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + school</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹</td>
<td>学堂 下  &quot;โรงเรียน&quot;</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + room for specific purpose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) son⁴ mieŋ⁴ sin¹ san¹</td>
<td>許命先生  &quot;หมอฤา&quot;</td>
<td>‘fortune-teller’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tell one’s fortune + teacher/ master</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

² Literary language.
Their structure can be written as follows: modifier (v.) + Head N.

In the examples above, the verb functions as the modifier which is placed on the left side of the head noun.

In addition, there can be three syllables of compound nouns as follows:

**Noun + Noun + Noun** → **Noun** หรือ น + น + น → **N**

(1) kiɔk⁵ ɲian³ jin² นิ้ว + ตาตุ้ม
foot + eye + kernel

(2) kiɔk⁵ tsəŋ⁴ kut⁵ ตุ้มเท้า
foot + heel + bone

(3) fu⁴ tʰew² taj⁴ ผูก + เข็มขัด
trousers + head + belt

(4) muk⁵ mi² maw¹ ตา + คิ้ว
eye + eyebrow + hair

(5) muk⁵ tsɨp⁵ maw¹ ตา + ขน
eye + eyelash + hair

**Noun + Noun + Verb** → **Noun or** น + น + ว → **N**

(1) ke² maw¹ saw⁴ นิ้ว + ขนไก่
‘a broom from chicken + hair + sweep’

**Verb + Noun + Noun** → **Noun or** ป + น + น → **N**

(1) pʰa² ɲi⁴ si³ รAKE
rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun → Noun or V + V + N → N

(1) san^1 sit^6 kua^1  =  生食瓜  "มะกอก"  ‘cucumber’
raw + to eat + melon

Noun + Verb + Noun → Noun หรือ  N + V + N  N →

(1) suj^3 tsin^1 hi^4  =  水蒸气  "ไอ"  ‘steam, vapour’
water + to steam + air

4.2 Compound verbs

Compound verbs are composed of two morphemes. They seem to be a verb plus object and are corresponding to an intransitive verb in English.

Examples:

Verb + noun (object)

(1) tsi^m suj^3  =  浸水  ‘soak’  "แช่ชุ่ม"
soak + water
(2) tʰat^5 ŋin^2  =  告人  ‘tell obvious lies’  "โกหก"
lie + human
(3) kʰon^4 pʰian^4  =  看病  ‘go to see a doctor’  "ไปพบแพทย์"
see + illness
(4) laj^2 tʰien^2  =  犁田  ‘to plow’  "ไถนา"
plow + farmland
(5) lok^6 fo^4  =  落货  ‘to carry, to load on (vehicle)’  "ขนส่งสินค้า"
drop + goods  hicles, animals' back)
(6) mi^4 suj^3  =  潜水  ‘to dive’  "ดำน้ำ"
dive + water
(7) hoŋ^4 tsʰoŋ^2  =  踽床  ‘to rise from bed’  "ตื่นได้แล้ว (ตุกตาหลับ)"
"ลุกจากเตียง"
Verb + Verb or verb complement

(1) fat⁵ sin⁴  | 发性  | ‘angry’  | โลรัส  
| produce + temper

(2) tʰew¹ kʰon⁴ | 偷看  | ‘to peep’ | แอบดู  
| steal + see

(3) tʰaŋ⁴ taw⁴  | 听到  | ‘to hear’ | ได้ยิน  
| hear + used as a verb complement to indicate the result of an action

4.3 Compound adjectives

Compound adjectives are composed of at least two morphemes which are adjectives plus verbs or nouns. This process can produce some new adjectives.

Examples:

(1) tʰaj⁴ foŋ¹  | 大方  | ‘magnanimous’ | “ใจกว้าง”  
| big + locality

(2) haw³ tʰaŋ¹  | 好听  | ‘melodious’ | “ไพเราะ”  
| good + hear

(3) haw³ sit⁶  | 好食  | ‘delicious’ | “อร่อย”  
| good + eat

(4) tʰaj⁴ sit⁶  | 太食  | ‘greedy’ | “ตะกละ”  
| greatest + eat

(5) tet⁵ ɲin² siak⁵ | 得人惜  | ‘lovely’ | “น่ารัก”  
| gain + human + love

(6) tʰaj⁴ saŋ¹  | 大声  | ‘loud’ | “เสียงดัง”  
| big + sound

get up+ bed

(8) pot⁵ muŋ⁴  | 发梦  | ‘to dream’ | “ฝัน”  
| produce + dream
5. Affixation

There are both prefixes and suffixes in Hakka language. In general, prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes and do not occur independently. In Hakka, however, prefixes and suffixes may sometimes appear as independent forms but their meanings are not exactly the same when they act as prefixes or suffixes. For example, for the prefix law, its literary meaning is “old” but when it functions as a prefix, its meaning is not related to ‘old’.

5.1 Prefixes in Hakka language

Prefix ?a is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

(1) ?a pa “” ‘father’
(2) ?a me “” ‘mother’
(3) ?a ko “” ‘older brother’
(4) ?a saw “” ‘female in-law’
(5) ?a kap “” ‘name of people’
(6) ?a p’o “” ‘grandmother’
(7) ?a tsi “” ‘older sister’
(8) ?a pak “” ‘uncle’

Prefix ?an is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) ʔan³ sin¹ kʰu³ 恨辛苦 “ลำบากเหลือเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) ʔan³ tuj⁴ 恨对 “ผลิตเหลือเกิน” ‘so accidental’
(3) ʔan³ hicη³ 恨响 “ดังเหลือเกิน” ‘so loud’
(4) ʔan³ kʰicη² tsəŋ⁴ 恨强壮 “แข็งแรงเหลือเกิน” ‘so strong’
(5) ʔan³ tiam³ 恨愧 “ขอโทษ” ‘so calm’
(6) ʔan³ to¹ 恨多 “มากมายเหลือเกิน” ‘so much’
(7) ʔan³ ti³ tsʰien² 恨抵押 “มีค่าเหลือเกิน” ‘so precious’
(8) ʔan³ tʰaj⁴ 恨大 “ใหญ่เหลือเกิน” ‘so big’
(9) ʔan³ tsʰaj⁴ tsʰaj⁴ 恨自在 “อิสระเหลือเกิน” ‘so free’
(10) ʔan³ kaw¹ 恨高 “สูงจัง” ‘so high’

Prefix law³ 老, has the literary meaning of “old” but when it functions as a prefix, its meaning has changed and is not related to the original. Occasionally, it means respect to someone or a senior person when it precedes kinship terms and nouns.

Examples:

(1) law³ pʰo² 老婆 “ภรรยา” ‘wife’
(2) law³ ʔin² 老人 “คนแก่” ‘old people’
(3) law³ pak⁵ 老伯 “控股股东” ‘elderly’
(4) law³ kun¹ 老公 “สามี” ‘husband’
(5) law³ tʰaj¹ 老弟 “น้องชาย” ‘younger brother’
(6) law³ moj⁴ 老妹 “น้องสาว” ‘younger sister’
(7) law³ sit⁶ 老实 “ซื่อสัตย์” ‘honest’
(8) law³ sin² 老成 “ระมัดระวัง” ‘careful’
(9) law³ sin¹ saŋ¹ 老先生 “คุณครูอาวุโส” ‘old teacher’

Prefix law⁴ 老, has no meaning in this situation but is used to complete a noun morpheme.
Examples:

(1) law⁴ haj³ 老蟹 “ปู” ‘crab’
(2) law⁴ fu³ 老虎 “เลียง” ‘tiger’
(3) law⁴ tsʰu³ 老鼠 “หู้” ‘rat’

Prefix 岬² 见 has a literary meaning of “not” and is used in a negation sentence. We called it a prefix when it precedes some verbs or adjectives, when it becomes a single noun.

Examples:

(1) ṃ² kian⁴ 唔见 “ไม่ + ถูม = หาย” ‘lose’
   not + see
(2) ṃ² lan⁴ li⁴ 唔 伶俐 “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
   not + bright
(3) ṃ² tʰuŋ² 唔同 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(4) ṃ² pʰian² 唔平 “ไม่ + ผิว = หุบๆ” ‘rough’
   not + flat
(5) ṃ² tsʰiŋ¹ tsʰi³ 唔清楚 “ไม่ + ขัดเจน = กลมเกลีย” ‘vague’
   not + clear
(6) ṃ² jan⁴ 唔赢 “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’
   not + win
(7) ṃ² jì⁵ jön⁴ 唔一样 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(8) ṃ² woj⁴ nan² 唔会难 “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’
   not + difficult
(9) ṃ² ki⁴ tet⁵ 唔记得 “ไม่ + จำได = ลืม” ‘forget’
   not + remember
Prefix jiw⁴ 有, has a literary meaning of “to have” but when it precedes a noun, it changes to an adjective.

Examples:
(1) jiw⁴ tsʰien² 有钱 “มี เงิน = รวย” ‘rich’
   have + money
(2) jiw⁴ pʰian⁴ 有病 “มี โรค = ป่วย” ‘sick’
   have + disease
(3) jiw⁴ miaŋ² 有名 “มี ชื่อ = เป็นที่นิยม” ‘famous’
   have + name

Prefix fat⁵ 发, has a literary meaning of “become, get into a certain state” but when it precedes a noun, it changes to a noun.

Examples:
(1) fat⁵ pʰian⁴ 发病³ become or get + ill ไม่สบาย ‘to be ill’
(2) fat⁵ tsʰoj² 发财 ขาทาง ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

Suffixes used to identify gender have three forms. Suffixes ku³ 鈤 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix ma² 嫠 is used to indicate female. In general a modifier in the Hakka language is placed on the left side of the head noun but only for the gender it is placed on the right side of the head noun so we classify it into suffixes class.

Examples:

N + suffix
(1) ke¹ ma² 鸡 嫠 “ไก่” ‘hen’
   chicken + suffix (female)

³ Literary language.
Suffix \( ma^2 \) 媼 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

**Examples:**

(1) \( ki\eta^1 ma^2 \) 姜媒 “จิง” ‘ginger’
(2) \( taw^1 ma^2 \) 刀媒 “กัด” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3) \( li^2 ma^2 \) 笋媒 “งอบ” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4) \( set^5 ma^2 \) 虱媒 “เกา” ‘louse’
Suffix kuŋ¹ has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ni² kuŋ¹ 蚂公 “แมลง” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 虾公 “กุ้ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹ 山虾公 “แมงป่อง” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 螃公 “ใส่ดอน” ‘earthworm’

Suffix ku¹ has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) si¹ ku¹ 駄姑 “หนวด” ‘moustache’
(2) nen⁴ ku¹ 乳姑 “เต้านม” ‘breast’

Suffix ha¹, when it follows a noun, has a meaning which is similar to indicating location and it acts as preposition.

Examples:
N + suffix
(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹) 屋下 “(at) บ้าน” ‘(at) house’
(2) ?am¹ ha¹ 庵下 “(at) 寺” ‘(at) temple’
(3) hok⁶ tʰoŋ² ha¹ 学堂下 (at) โรงเรียน’ ‘(at) school’
Suffix ṭʔe² 里 has a sound which is sometimes assimilated to the final consonant of the former syllable. It follows a noun and its meaning denotes the location. Its function is similar to a preposition.

Examples:

N + suffix ṭʔe² 里

(1)  ka¹ ṭʔe²  里家  "ในบ้าน"  ‘in a house’
(2)  sim¹ (tu¹) ṭʔe²  里心  "ในใจ"  ‘in a heart’
(3)  su³ ṭʔe²  里手  "ในมือ"  ‘in a hand’
(4)  san² ṭʔe²  里城  "ในเมือง"  ‘in the city’
(5)  tʰoj⁴ ṭʔe²  里袋  "ในกระเป๋า"  ‘in a bag’
(6)  ho² ṭʔe²  里河  "ในแม่น้ำ"  ‘in a river’
(7)  tʰien² ne²  里田  "ในนา"  ‘in a rice field’
(8)  san³ ṭʔe²  里山  "ในหุบเขา"  ‘in a valley’
(9)  wok⁶ ṭʔe²  里锅  "ในกระทะ"  ‘in a pan’
(10)  su⁴ lim² me²  里树林  "ในป่า"  ‘in a forest’
(11)  suj³ ṭʔe²  里水  "ในน้ำ"  ‘in water’

Suffix tʰew² 头 has a literary meaning of “head” but when it follows a noun, its function changes to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

N + suffix tʰew² 头

(1)  kut⁵ tʰew²  里头  "กะโหลก"  ‘bone’
(2)  ṭjit⁵ tʰew²  里日  "พระอาทิตย์"  ‘sun’
(3)  kuon⁴ tʰew²  里罐  "กระป๋อง"  ‘tin, canister’
(4)  kin¹ tʰew²  里肩  "หัวไหล่"  ‘shoulder’
(5)  kiok⁵ tʰew²  里镰  "จอบ"  ‘hoe’
(6)  wok⁶ tʰew²  里锅  "กระทะ"  ‘pan’
(7) sak⁶ tʰew² 石头 “หิน” ‘stone’
(8) pu³ tʰew² 斧头 “ปราบ” ‘axe’
(9) tsem¹ tʰew² 砧头 “เจง” ‘chopping block’
(10) tsim³ tʰew² 枕头 “หมอน” ‘pillow’

Suffix tsʰi³ หรือ ?e³ 子 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme. The pronunciation of this suffix is not exactly the same but it sometimes depend on the final consonant of the former syllable. However, it is usually pronounce as tsʰi³ or ?e³.

Examples:

N + suffix
(1) ṇ³ tsʰi³ 女子 “คุณภร” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰi¹ tsʰi³ 妻子 “ภรรยา” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsʰi³ 臣子 “ขุนนาง” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsʰi³ 晏子 “ทูต” ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) sin¹ ne³ 身子 “ร่างกาย” ‘body’
(6) san⁴ ne³ 扇子 “พัด” ‘fan’
(7) lam² me³ 篮子 “ตะกร้า” ‘basket’
(8) sam² me³ 蟆子 “มัดไก่” ‘cricket’
(9) ṇ² le³ 鱼子 “ปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap⁶ ?e³ 叶子 “ใบไม้” ‘leaf’
(11) lu² ?e³ 炉子 “เตา” ‘stove’
(12) laj⁴ ?e² 燕子 “นกกระจอก” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ?e³ 星子 “ดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit³ ?e³ 禾鶴子 “นกกระท่อม” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa³ ?e³ 遮子 “ร่ม” ‘umbrella’
(16) phan² ?e³ 盘子 “มาม” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ?e³ 果子 “ผลไม้” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu³ ?e³ 兔子 “กระเตย” ‘rabbit’
(19) phon¹ ?e³ 蛙子 “หอย” ‘shell’
Suffix tsaj/th marks a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme. Most of them mean female.

Examples:

adj. + suffix

(1) liam⁴ tsaj/th 美女 "ผู้หญิง" ‘female’
(2) liam⁴ moj⁴ tsaj/th 美女 "ผู้หญิง" ‘beautiful girl’
(3) so² tsaj/th 傻仔 “คนไม่(ซื่อ)” ‘stupid man’
(4) se⁴ tsaj/th 细仔 “เพื่อนชาย” ‘boy’
(5) moj⁴ tsaj/th 美女 "ผู้หญิง" ‘girl’

Suffix ko/n marks a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

(1) hew² ko/n 猴哥 "émon” ‘monkey’
(2) wat⁶ ko/n 鰕哥 “ปลาดุก” ‘catfish’
(3) wu¹ liaw⁴ ko/n 乌鲁哥 “นกขุนทอง” ‘grackle’
(4) sa² ko/n 蛇哥 “งู” ‘snake’
(5) se² lo² ko/n 蛞蝓哥 “หอยทาก” ‘garden snail’
6. Conclusion

Compounding in Hakka can be found as three types: compound nouns, compound verbs, and compound adjectives. Compound nouns are quite clear whereas compound verbs can be identified to be verb-object compounds. This study shows ten suffixes and seven prefixes. Some prefixes or suffixes have no meaning but functions to complete a noun morpheme. Some suffixes act as prepositions such as suffix ʔe² 里 and suffix ha¹ 下. The most interesting finding is that suffixes used to identify gender in Hakka have three morphemes. Suffixes ku³ 钮 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫢 is used to indicate female.

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