AFFIXATION AND COMPOUNDING IN HAKKA

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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 ʔa which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender (ku ‘male’, ma ‘female’, and kuŋ ‘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 kioŋ ma ‘ginger’ and ha kuŋ ‘shrimp’.

Keywords
affixation, prefixes, suffixes, compound words, Hakka

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AFIJACIÓN Y COMPOSICIÓN EN HAKKA

Resumen

Este trabajo tiene como objetivo presentar la estructura interna de las palabras en el idioma Hakka. Al igual que en otras lenguas, la afijación y la composición son excepcionales en esta lengua. En general, los prefijos y sufijos son morfemas concatenados que no ocurren de manera independiente, pero en Hakka a veces aparecen como formas independientes. Además de palabras sueltas, la identificación de palabras compuestas es de particular interés. Los nombres compuestos pueden estar formados por dos o tres palabras (caracteres) que pueden ser un sustantivo, un adjetivo o un verbo. Los resultados muestran que algunos prefijos o sufijos no tienen significado, como el prefijo ʔa¹, que se utiliza con los términos de parentesco o de dirección. Los sufijos más interesantes se utilizan con el género de los animales (ku³ ‘masculino’, ma² ‘femenino’, y kuŋ¹ ‘masculino’) y, en algunos casos, el significado no está relacionado con el género del animal, sino que es meramente un componente de esos morfemas. Ejemplos tales son kioŋ¹ ma² 姜 ‘jenjibre’ y ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 ‘camarón’.

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” (Ungsitipoonporn 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 ‘father’s brother and father’s father = god of land’ and mien⁴ sam¹ ‘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</th>
<th>N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>桌布 (桌布 ‘table’)</td>
<td>“หูปุ่ได้” (table)</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kik⁵</td>
<td>毛脚 (毛脚 ‘hair’)</td>
<td>“รากผม” (hair)</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓 (天弓 ‘sky’)</td>
<td>“รุ้งกินน้ํา” (sky)</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁 (豆仁 ‘bean’)</td>
<td>“เมล็ดถั่ว” (bean)</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ɲa² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷 (牙刷 ‘tooth’)</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟัน” (tooth)</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ɲiet⁶ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>月 (月 ‘moon’)</td>
<td>“ขนมสำหรับใส่พระจันทร์” (moon)</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ ɲin²</td>
<td>主人 (主人 ‘owner’)</td>
<td>“เจ้าของบ้าน” (owner)</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</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.

**Adjective + Noun** → **Noun or Adj. + N** → **N**

1. pʰak⁶ maw¹ (white + hair)  
   หัวผม ’grey hair’
2. hon² sam¹ (cold + coat)  
   ผ้าคลุม ’overcoat’
3. pʰak⁶ tsuk⁵ (white + porridge)  
   ข้าวต้ม ’porridge’
4. tsʰoŋ² tsʰiek⁶ (long + mat)  
   ผ้าม่าน ’long mat’
5. saŋ¹ kuo² (raw + fruit)  
   ผลไม้ ’fruit’

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.

**Verb + Noun** → **Noun or V+N** → **N**

1. hok⁶ kaw³ (study + school)  
   โรงเรียน ’school’
2. hok⁶ tʰoŋ² ha¹ (study + room for specific purpose)  
   ห้องเรียน ’school’
3. son⁴ mieŋ⁴ sin¹ san¹ (tell one’s fortune + teacher/master)  
   หมอดู ’fortune-teller’

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2 Literar 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 or N+N+N → N

1. ke² maw¹ saw⁴ 鸡毛扫 “ไม่จานไป(ใช้เป็นกุญแจ)” ‘a broom from chicken + hair + sweep (feathers for cleaning’

**Verb + Noun + Noun** → Noun or V+N+N → N

1. pʰa² ŋi⁴ si³ 抓耳屎 “ไม่จานไป” ‘ear picker’

rake up + ear + excrement
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) tśim⁴ suj³ 浸水 ‘soak’ “แชจุม”
   soak + water
(2) tʰat⁵ ŋin² 告人 ‘tell obvious lies’ “โกหก”
   lie + human
(3) kʰon⁴ pʰiaŋ⁴ 看病 ‘go to see a doctor’ “ไปพบแพทย์”
   see + illness
(4) laj² tʰien² 犁田 ‘to plow’ “ไถนา”
   plow + farmland
(5) lok⁶ fo⁴ 落货 ‘to carry, to load on (ve-
   drop + goods hicles, animals' back)’
   “บนล้อสินค้า”
(6) mi⁴ suj³ 潜水 ‘to dive’ “ดำน้ำ”
   dive + water
(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰon² 蹼床 ‘to rise from bed’ “ตื่นแล้วลุกจากเตียง”
   “ตื่นได้แล้ว (ถูกผลัดเตียง)”
Verb + Verb or verb complement

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

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

(3) tʰan¹ taw⁴ 听到 ‘to hear’ ไดยิน
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 tʰan¹ 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
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 law³ 老, 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 ʔa¹ 阿 is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

1. ʔa¹ pa¹ 阿爸 “爸” ‘father’
2. ʔa¹ me¹ 阿妈 “妈” ‘mother’
3. ʔa¹ ko¹ 阿哥 “哥” ‘older brother’
4. ʔa¹ saw³ 阿嫂 “嫂” ‘female in-law’
5. ʔa¹ kap⁵ 阿甲 “阿爸 (小朋友)” ‘name of people’
6. ʔa¹ pʰo² 阿婆 “婆” ‘grandmother’
7. ʔa¹ tsi³ 阿姊 “姊” ‘older sister’
8. ʔa¹ pak⁵ 阿伯 “伯” ‘uncle’

Prefix ʔan³ 恁 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{k}^h \text{u}^3\) 憨辛苦 “ลำบากเหลือเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{tuj}^4\) 憨对 “พอเจษเหลือเกิน” ‘so accidental’
(3) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{hiŋ}^3\) 憨响 “ดังเหลือเกิน” ‘so loud’
(4) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{k}^h \text{ioc}^2 \text{tsong}^4\) 憨强壮 “มาจากแรงเหลือเกิน” ‘so strong’
(5) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{tiam}^3\) 憨恬 “ใจสงบ” ‘so calm’
(6) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{to}^1\) 憨多 “มากมายเหลือเกิน” ‘so much’
(7) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{ti}^3 \text{ts}^h \text{ien}^2\) 憨抵钱 “มีค่าเหลือเกิน” ‘so precious’
(8) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{thaj}^4\) 憨大 “ใหญ่เหลือเกิน” ‘so big’
(9) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{ts}^h \text{aj}^4 \text{ts}^h \text{aj}^4\) 憨自在 “อิสระเหลือเกิน” ‘so free’
(10) \(\text{ʔan}^3 \text{kaw}^1\) 憨高 “สูงจ้า” ‘so high’

Prefix \(\text{law}^3\) 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) \(\text{law}^3 \text{p}^h \text{o}^2\) 老婆 “ภรรยา” ‘wife’
(2) \(\text{law}^3 \text{ŋin}^2\) 老人 “คนแก่” ‘old people’
(3) \(\text{law}^3 \text{pak}^5\) 老伯 “คนแก่” ‘elderly’
(4) \(\text{law}^3 \text{kun}^1\) 老公 “สามี” ‘husband’
(5) \(\text{law}^3 \text{thaj}^1\) 老弟 “น้องชาย” ‘younger brother’
(6) \(\text{law}^3 \text{moj}^4\) 老妹 “น้องสาว” ‘younger sister’
(7) \(\text{law}^3 \text{sit}^6\) 老实 “ซื่อสัตย์” ‘honest’
(8) \(\text{law}^3 \text{sin}^2\) 老成 “ระมัดระวัง” ‘careful’
(9) \(\text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{saŋ}^1\) 老先生 “คุณครูอาวุโส” ‘old teacher’

Prefix \(\text{law}^4\) 老, has no meaning in this situation but is used to complete a noun morpheme.
Prefix แหม️ 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) แหม่ kian oubles “ไม่ + ตื่น = หลับ” ‘lose’
    not + see
(2) แหม่ lan oubles “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
    not + bright
(3) แหม่ tʰun oubles “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
    not + same
(4) แหม่ pʰian oubles “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’
    not + flat
(5) แหม่ tsʰin tsʰi oubles “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเคลือ” ‘vague’
    not + clear
(6) แหม่ jan oubles “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’
    not + win
(7) แหม่ jit jοŋ oubles “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
    not + same
(8) แหม่ wοj nan oubles “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’
    not + difficult
(9) แหม่ ki tet oubles “ไม่ + จำได้ = ลืม” ‘forget’
    not + remember
Prefix jiw¹ 有, has a literary meaning of “to have” but when it precedes a noun, it changes to an adjective.

Examples:
(1) jiw¹ tsʰien² 有钱 “มีเงิน = รวย” ‘rich’
    have + money
(2) jiw¹ pʰiaŋ⁴ 有病 “มีโรค = ป่วย” ‘sick’
    have + disease
(3) jiw¹ miaŋ² 有名 “มีชื่อ = 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 pʰiaŋ⁴ 发病³ become or get + ill ไม่สบาย ‘to be ill’
(2) fat⁵ tsʰoj² 发财 ไม่ร่ํารวย ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

Suffixes used to identify gender have three forms. Suffixes ku³ 牠 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix ma² 嫔 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 嫔 “ไก่” ‘hen’
    chicken + suffix (female)

³ Literary language.
Suffix ma² 嫁 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) kiŋ¹ ma² 姜嫮 “ching” ‘ginger’
(2) taw¹ ma² 刀嫮 “mādī” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3) li² ma² 笠嫮 “jō” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4) set⁵ ma² 蟲嫮 “kū” ‘louse’
Suffix kuŋ¹ ๑ 公 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) นิ² kuŋ¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "มด"  ‘ant’
(2) หา² kuŋ¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "กุ้ง"  ‘shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "แมงป่อง"  ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "ไสเดือน"  ‘earthworm’

Suffix ku¹ ๑ ฎก has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ติ¹ ku¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "หนวด"  ‘moustache’
(2) nen⁴ ku¹ ๑ ฎก ๑ "เต้านม"  ‘breast’

Suffix ha¹ ๑ ฎก, when it follows a noun, has a meaning which is similar to indicating location and it acts as preposition.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ?am¹ ha¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Suffix ʔe² 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:

\[
\text{N + suffix ʔe² 里}
\]

(1) ka¹ ʔe²  家里  “ในบ้าน”  ‘in a house’
(2) sim¹ (tu¹) ʔe² 心肚里  “ใจ”  ‘in a heart’
(3) su³ ʔe² 手里  “มือ”  ‘in a hand’
(4) san² ʔe² 城里  “เมือง”  ‘in the city’
(5) tʰoj⁴ ʔe² 袋里  “กระเป๋า”  ‘in a bag’
(6) ho² ʔe² 河里  “แม่น้ำ”  ‘in a river’
(7) tʰien² ʔe² 田里  “นา”  ‘in a rice field’
(8) san¹ ʔe² 山里  “ภูเขา”  ‘in a mountain’
(9) wok⁶ ʔe² 鍋里  “กระทะ”  ‘in a pan’
(10) su⁴ ʔe² 树林里  “ป่า”  ‘in a forest’
(11) suj³ ʔe² 水里  “น้ำ”  ‘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:

\[
\text{N + suffix tʰew² 头}
\]

(1) ʔkut⁵ tʰew² 骨头  “กระดูก”  ‘bone’
(2) ʔnit⁵ ʔe² 日头  “พระอาทิตย์”  ‘sun’
(3) kuon⁴ ʔe² 罐头  “กระป๋อง”  ‘tin, canister’
(4) kuin⁴ ʔew² 肩头  “หัวไหล่”  ‘shoulder’
(5) kiok⁵ ʔew² 锺头  “จอม”  ‘hoe’
(6) wok⁶ ʔew² 锅头  “กระทะ”  ‘pan’
Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix</th>
<th>&quot;คำศัพท์&quot;</th>
<th>‘word’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. หัตถี ตุลส</td>
<td>ผู้หญิง</td>
<td>‘woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ตุลส</td>
<td>ตุลส</td>
<td>‘husband’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. สิ่ง</td>
<td>สิ่ง</td>
<td>‘thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. จันทร์</td>
<td>จันทร์</td>
<td>‘moon’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. สกุล</td>
<td>สกุล</td>
<td>‘surname’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ต้น</td>
<td>ต้น</td>
<td>‘stem’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. สัน</td>
<td>สัน</td>
<td>‘branch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. สัตว์</td>
<td>สัตว์</td>
<td>‘animal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. สิ่ง</td>
<td>สิ่ง</td>
<td>‘thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. สัน</td>
<td>สัน</td>
<td>‘branch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. ต้น</td>
<td>ต้น</td>
<td>‘stem’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. สัตว์</td>
<td>สัตว์</td>
<td>‘animal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. สิ่ง</td>
<td>สิ่ง</td>
<td>‘thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. สัน</td>
<td>สัน</td>
<td>‘branch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. ต้น</td>
<td>ต้น</td>
<td>‘stem’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. สัตว์</td>
<td>สัตว์</td>
<td>‘animal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. สิ่ง</td>
<td>สิ่ง</td>
<td>‘thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. สัน</td>
<td>สัน</td>
<td>‘branch’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. ต้น</td>
<td>ต้น</td>
<td>‘stem’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffix **tsi³** or **ʔe²** 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 **tsi³** or **ʔe²**.
Suffix $\text{tsaj}^3$ 仔 follows an adjective in order to complete a noun morpheme. Most of them mean female.

Examples:

adj. + suffix

(1) $\text{lian}^4 \text{tsaj}^3$ 飴仔 “หนักถ่อ” ‘handsome man’
(2) $\text{lian}^4 \text{moj}^4 \text{tsaj}^3$ 飴妹仔 “หน้าย่า” ‘beautiful girl’
(3) $\text{so}^2 \text{tsaj}^3$ 傻仔 “คนใจ (ตรง)” ‘stupid man’
(4) $\text{se}^4 \text{tsaj}^3$ 细仔 “เด็กชาย” ‘boy’
(5) $\text{moj}^4 \text{tsaj}^3$ 妹仔 “เด็กหญิง” ‘girl’

Suffix $\text{ko}^1$ 哥 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

(1) $\text{hew}^2 \text{ko}^1$ 猴哥 “ลิง” ‘monkey’
(2) $\text{wat}^6 \text{ko}^1$ 鰍哥 “ปลาดุก” ‘catfish’
(3) $\text{wu}^1 \text{liaw}^4 \text{ko}^1$ 乌鲁哥 “นกขุนทอง” ‘grackle’
(4) $\text{sa}^2 \text{ko}^1$ 蛇哥 “งู” ‘snake’
(5) $\text{se}^2 \text{lo}^2 \text{ko}^1$ 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 ئب and suffix 下. The most interesting finding is that suffixes used to identify gender in Hakka have three morphemes. Suffixes ئب and ئب are used to indicate male while suffix ئب is used to indicate female.

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