AFFIXATION AND COMPOUNDING IN HAKKA¹

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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 ʔa¹ which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender (ku³ ‘male’, ma² ‘female’, and kuŋ¹ ‘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 kiŋ¹ ma² ‘ginger’ and ha² kuŋ¹ ‘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 [阿], que se utiliza con los términos de parentesco o de dirección. Los sufijos más interesantes se utilizan con el género de los animales (ku3 钩 ‘masculino’, ma2 嫁 ‘femenino’, y kuŋ1 公 ‘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 kiaŋ1 ma2 姜 ‘jenjibre’ y ha2 kuŋ1 蝦 ‘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.
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</th>
<th>N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>桌布</td>
<td>“ผู้ปูโต”</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kio⁵</td>
<td>毛脚</td>
<td>“วากหม่”</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien⁴ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓</td>
<td>“รุ้กินน้ํา”</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sky + bow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁</td>
<td>“เมล็ดถั่ว”</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bean + seed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) nga² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟ(น”</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ŋiet⁶ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>月</td>
<td>“ขนมสำหรับไวพระจันทร”</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>moon + cake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ ŋin²</td>
<td>主人</td>
<td>“เจ้าของบ้าน”</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<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.

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

1. \( p^{h}ak^{6} maw^{1} \) 白毛 "ผมขาว" ‘grey hair’
   - white + hair
2. \( hon^{2} sam^{1} \) 寒衫 "เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว" ‘overcoat’
   - cold + coat
3. \( p^{h}ak^{6} tsuk^{5} \) 白粥 "ข้าวต้ม" ‘porridge’
   - white + porridge
4. \( ts^{h}on^{2} ts^{h}iek^{6} \) 長席 "ม้าสุก" ‘long mat’
   - long + mat
5. \( sa^{n}^{1} kuo^{2} \) 生果 "ผลไม้" ‘fruit’
   - raw + 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. \( hok^{6} kaw^{3} \) 學校 "โรงเรียน" ‘school’
   - study + school
2. \( hok^{6} t^{h}on^{2} ha^{1} \) 學堂 下 "โรงเรียน" ‘school’
   - study + room for specific purpose
3. \( son^{4} mie^{n}^{4} sin^{1} sa^{n}^{1} \) 祇命先生 "หมอฟู่" ‘fortune-teller’
   - tell one’s fortune + teacher/ master

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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  N + N + N  →  **N**

1. **kiɔŋ ɲian jin** จัมบุ "ตาตุ่ม"  ‘ankle’
   
   foot + eye + kernel

2. **kiɔŋ tsan kut** จัมบ้น "ส้นเท้า"  ‘heel’
   
   foot + heel + bone

3. **fu thew taj** ผูกเข็มขัด "เข็มขัด"  ‘belt’
   
   trousers + head + belt

4. **muk mi maw** คิ้ว "คิ้ว"  ‘eyebrow’
   
   eye + eyebrow + hair

5. **muk tsip maw** ขนตา "ขนตา"  ‘eyelashes’
   
   eye + juice + hair

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

1. **ke maw saw** ไม้ขนไก่ "ไม้ขนไก่"  ‘a broom from chicken+ hair + sweep’ (feathers for cleaning)

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

1. **pa ɲi si** ไม้แคะหู "ไม้แคะหู"  ‘ear picker’
   
   rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun $\rightarrow$ Noun or V + V + N $\rightarrow$ N

(1) saŋ⁴ sit⁶ kua¹ 生食瓜 “มะนาว” ‘cucumber’
raw + to eat + melon

Noun + Verb + Noun $\rightarrow$ Noun หรือ N + V + N N $\rightarrow$

(1) suj³ tsin¹ hi⁴ 水蒸气 “ไอน้ำ” ‘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) tsim⁴ suj³ 浸水 ‘soak’ “แช่จุม”
soak + water
(2) tʰat⁵ ŋin² 告人 ‘tell obvious lies’ “โกหก”
lie + human
(3) kʰon⁴ pʰian⁴ 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 (vehicle)’ “ขนลากสินค้า”
drop + goods hicles, animals' back)
(6) mi⁴ suj³ 潜水 ‘to dive’ “ดิ่ง”
dive + water
(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰon² 跳床 ‘to rise from bed’ “ตื่นได้แล้ว, ลุกจากเตียง”
get up+ bed

(8)  pot₅ muŋ⁴  ‘to dream’  “ฝัน”
produce + dream

**Verb + Verb or verb complement**

(1)  fat⁵ sin⁴  ‘angry’  โทรม
produce + temper

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

(3)  tʰaŋ¹ taw⁴  ‘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  ‘magnanimous’  “ใจกว้าง”
big + locality

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

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

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

(5)  tet⁵ ɲin² siâk⁵  ‘lovely’  “น่ารัก”
gain + human + love

(6)  tʰaj⁴ saŋ¹  ‘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 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 ‘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) ?an³ sin¹ kʰu³ 憨辛苦 “ลำบากเหลือเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) ?an³ tuj⁴ 憨对 “ผลิตเหลือเกิน” ‘so accidental’
(3) ?an³ hiŋ³ 憨响 “ดังเหลือเกิน” ‘so loud’
(4) ?an³ kʰiŋ² tson⁴ 憨强壮 “แข็งแรงเหลือเกิน” ‘so strong’
(5) ?an³ tiam³ 憨恬 “อ่อนเจ้า” ‘so calm’
(6) ?an³ to¹ 憨多 “มากมายเหลือเกิน” ‘so much’
(7) ?an³ ti³ tsʰien² 憨抵钱 “มีค่าเหลือเกิน” ‘so precious’
(8) ?an³ tʰaj⁴ 憨大 “ใหญ่เหลือเกิน” ‘so big’
(9) ?an³ tsʰaj⁴ tsʰaj⁴ 憨自在 “อิสระเหลือเกิน” ‘so free’
(10) ?an³ kaw¹ 憨高 “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 ɲin² 老人 “คนแก่” ‘old people’
(3) law³ pak⁵ 老伯 “คนแก่” ‘elderly’
(4) law³ kuŋ¹ 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 “เสือ” ‘tiger’
(3) law⁴ tsʰu³ 老鼠 “หนู” ‘rat’

Prefix ม² 唔 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) ม² kian⁴ 咱见 “ไม่ + ทิ้ง = ทิ้ง” ‘lose’

not + see

(2) ม² laŋ² li⁴ 咱伶俐 “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’

not + bright

(3) ม² tʰun³ 咱同 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’

not + same

(4) ม² pʰian² 咱平 “ไม่ + เที่ยง = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’

not + flat

(5) ม² tsʰin¹ tsʰi³ 咱清楚 “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมคลุม” ‘vague’

not + clear

(6) ม² jaŋ² 咱赢 “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’

not + win

(7) ม² jɪt⁵ jοŋ⁴ 咱一样 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’

not + same

(8) ม² wοj⁴ nan² 咱会难 “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’

not + difficult

(9) ม² ki⁴ tet⁵ 咱记得 “ไม่ + 忘 = 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 “ี + เงิน = รวย” ‘rich’
    have + money
(2) jiw¹ pʰian⁴ 有病 “ี + โรค = ป่วย” ‘sick’
    have + disease
(3) jiw¹ miaŋ² 有名 “ี + เกม = 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 ้ ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

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

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

Examples:

1. `kiŋ1 ma2` `姜` “จั่ง” ‘ginger’
2. `taw1 ma2` `刀` “โท้” ‘kitchen chopper’
3. `li2 ma2` `笠` “ลบ” ‘a bamboo hat’
4. `set5 ma2` `虱` “กุ้ย” ‘louse’
Suffix kuŋ¹ 公 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ni¹ kuŋ¹ 蚂公 “มด” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 “กุ้ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san¹ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมงป่อง” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 蠅公 “ไสเดือน” ‘earthworm’

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

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

Suffix ha¹ 下, 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 “(ที่) บ้าน” ‘(at) house’
(2) ?am¹ ha¹ 庵下 “(ที่) วัด” ‘(at) temple’
(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹ 學堂下 “(ที่) โรงเรียน” ‘(at) school’
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:

N + suffix ʔe² 里

1. ka¹ ʔe²  在家里  "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 ṭe²  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 ńe²  田里  "นา"  ‘in a rice field’
8. san¹ ʔe²  山里  "ภูเขา"  ‘in a valley’
9. wok⁶ ʔe²  鍋里  "กระทะ"  ‘in a pan’
10. su⁴ lim² ńe²  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:

N + suffix tʰew² 头

1. kut⁵ tʰew²  骨头  "กระดูก"  ‘bone’
2. ńjit⁵ tʰew²  日头  "พระอาทิตย์"  ‘sun’
3. kuon⁴ tʰew²  罐头  "กระป๋อง"  ‘tin, canister’
4. kin¹ tʰew²  肩头  "หัวไหล่"  ‘shoulder’
5. kios⁵ tʰew²  長头  "จอม"  ‘hoe’
6. wok⁶ tʰew²  锅头  "กระทะ"  ‘pan’
(7) sak$^6$ t$^h$ew$^2$ 石头 “หิน” ‘stone’
(8) pu$^3$ t$^h$ew$^2$ 斧头 “جام” ‘axe’
(9) tsem$^1$ t$^h$ew$^2$ 砍头 “เจ่ง” ‘chopping block’
(10) tsim$^3$ t$^h$ew$^2$ 枕头 “หมอน” ‘pillow’

Suffix ts$^3$ หรือ ?e$^2$ 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 ts$^3$ or ?e$^2$.

Examples:

N + suffix

(1) η$^3$ ts$^3$ 女子 “ผู้หญิง” ‘daughter’
(2) ts$^h$$^1$ ts$^3$ 妻子 “ภรรยา” ‘wife’
(3) sin$^2$ ts$^3$ 臣子 “ขุนนาง” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan$^4$ ts$^3$ 晏子 “เล็ก” ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) sin$^1$ ne$^3$ 身子 “ร่างกาย” ‘body’
(6) san$^4$ ne$^3$ 扇子 “พัด” ‘fan’
(7) lam$^2$ me$^3$ 盆子 “ตะกร้า” ‘basket’
(8) sam$^2$ me$^3$ 蝉子 “แพ็ง” ‘cricket’
(9) η$^2$ le$^3$ 鱼子 “ปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap$^6$ ?e$^3$ 叶子 “ใบไม้” ‘leaf’
(11) lu$^2$ ?e$^3$ 炉子 “เตา” ‘stove’
(12) laj$^4$ ?e$^2$ 孫子 “ลูกชาย” ‘son’
(13) sen$^1$ ?e$^3$ 星子 “ดวง” ‘star’
(14) wo$^2$ pit$^3$ ?e$^3$ 禽子 “นกกระจอก” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa$^4$ ?e$^3$ 遮子 “ม่าน” ‘umbrella’
(16) p$^h$an$^2$ ?e$^3$ 盘子 “จาน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo$^3$ ?e$^3$ 果子 “ผลไม้” ‘fruit’
(18) t$^h$u$^4$ ?e$^3$ 兔子 “กระต่าย” ‘rabbit’
(19) p$^h$on$^1$ ?e$^3$ 虾子 “หอย” ‘shell’

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Suffix tsaj³ 仔 follows an adjective in order to complete a noun morpheme. Most of them mean female.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adj. + suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) liaŋ⁴ tsaj³ 靚仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) liaŋ⁴ moj⁴ tsaj³ 靚妹仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) so² tsaj³ 傻仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) se⁴ tsaj³ 细仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) moj⁴ tsaj³ 妹仔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffix ko¹ 哥 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

<p>| |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hew² ko¹ 猴哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) wat⁶ ko¹ 鮎哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) wu¹ liaw⁴ ko¹ 乌鹅哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) sa² ko¹ 蛇哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) se² lo² ko¹ 蛞螺哥</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 ʔe^2 里 and suffix ha^1 下. The most interesting finding is that suffixes used to identify gender in Hakka have three morphemes. Suffixes ku^3 钻 and kuŋ^1 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma^2 嫾 is used to indicate female.

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