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阿 which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender (ku³犫 ‘male’, ma²嫆 ‘female’, and kuŋ¹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 kion¹ ma²嫆 ‘ginger’ and ha² kuŋ¹蝦公 ‘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 า, que se utiliza con los términos de parentesco o de dirección. Los sufijos más interesantes se utilizan con el género de los animales (ku³ 𥬮 ‘masculino’, ma² 姜 ‘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 kioŋ¹ ma² 姜 ‘jengibre’ 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. The
compounding can be both nouns and verbs. For examples, pak⁵ kn̄¹ 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:

Noun + Noun → Noun or N+ N → N

(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴ 桌布 “ผับโต” ‘table cloth’
    table + cloth

(2) maw¹ kiɔ⁵ 毛脚 “หักผม” ‘hair root’
    hair + foot

(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹ 天弓 “รุ้งกินน้ำ” ‘rainbow’
    sky + bow

(4) tʰew⁴ jìn² 豆仁 “เมล็ดถั่ว” ‘bean seed’
    bean + seed

(5) ηa² sɔt⁵ 牙刷 “แปรงสีฟัน” ‘a toothbrush’
    tooth + brush

(6) ηjet⁶ piaŋ⁴ 月 “ขนมสำหรับไหว้พระ” ‘moon cake’
    moon + cake

(7) tsu³ ηin² 主人 “เจ้าของบ้าน” ‘owner of the house’
    owner + person
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>長席 &quot;สื่อยาว&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 &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>神命先生 &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 or N + N + N** → **N**

1. **kiŋ⁵ jian³ jin²**
   脚眼仁 “ตาตุ”
   ‘ankle’
   foot + eye + kernel

2. **kiŋ⁵ tsan⁴ kut⁵**
   脚跟骨 “ส”นเท”า”
   ‘heel’
   foot + heel + bone

3. **fu⁴ thew² taj⁴**
   裤头带 “เข็มขัด”
   ‘belt’
   trousers + head + belt

4. **muk⁵ mi² maw¹**
   目眉毛 “คิ้ว”
   ‘eyebrow’
   eye + eyebrow + hair

5. **muk⁵ tsip⁵ maw¹**
   目汁毛 “ขนตา”
   ‘eyelashes’
   eye + juice + hair

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

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

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

1. **ph² a⁴ si³**
   扒耳屎 “ไม”แคะหู”
   ‘ear picker’
   rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun \[\rightarrow\] Noun or V + V + N \[\rightarrow\] N

(1) san^1 sit^6 kua^1  
 生食瓜 “ผักผลิ” ‘cucumber’
 raw + to eat + melon

Noun + Verb + Noun \[\rightarrow\] Noun หรือ N + V + N N \[\rightarrow\]

(1) suj^3 tsin^1 hi^4  
 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) tsim^4 suj^3  
浸水 ‘soak’  "แชจุม"
 soak + water

(2) tʰat^5 ɲin^2  
啞人 ‘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 (ve-
 drop + goods hicles, animals' back)’

(6) mi^4 suj^3  
潜水 ‘to dive’  "ดำน้ำ"
 dive + water

(7) hoŋ^4 tsʰoŋ^2  
跷床 ‘to rise from bed’  "ตื่นได้แล้ว (ขึ้นจากเตียง)"

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Verb + Verb or verb complement

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

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

(3) thañ¹ 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 thañ¹  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 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 ʔa is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

(1) ʔa pa  “爹” ‘father’
(2) ʔa me  “妈” ‘mother’
(3) ʔa ko  “兄” ‘older brother’
(4) ʔa saw  “嫂” ‘female in-law’
(5) ʔa kap  “阿甲 (ชื่อคน)” ‘name of people’
(6) ʔa p’o  “阿婆” ‘grandmother’
(7) ʔa tsi  “姊” ‘older sister’
(8) ʔa pak  “伯” ‘uncle’

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

(1) ʔan³ sin¹ h¹u³ 捌辛苦 “ลำบากเหลือเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) ʔan³ tuj⁴ 捌对 “คลั่งสติหลอกกัน” ‘so accidental’
(3) ʔan³ hicη³ 捌响 “ดังหลอกกัน” ‘so loud’
(4) ʔan³ kʰicη² tson⁴ 捌强壮 “แข็งแรงหลอกกัน” ‘so strong’
(5) ʔan³ tiμ⁴ 捌恬 “สงบจัง” ‘so calm’
(6) ʔan³ to¹ 捌多 “มากมายหลอกกัน” ‘so much’
(7) ʔan³ ti³ tsʰień² 捌抵钱 “มีค่าหลอกกัน” ‘so precious’
(8) ʔan³ thaj¹ 捌大 “ใหญ่หลอกกัน” ‘so big’
(9) ʔan³ tsʰaj⁴ tsʰaj⁴ 捌自在 “อิสระหลอกกัน” ‘so free’
(10) ʔan³ kaw¹ 捌高 “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 nín² 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 “จริงดี” ‘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 “หมู่” ‘rat’

Prefix ʔ²อะ 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) ʔ² kian⁴ 吱見 “ไม่ + หัน = หาย” ‘lose’
    not + see
(2) ʔ² lan⁴ li⁴ 吱伶俐 “ไม่ + สงคต = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
    not + bright
(3) ʔ² tʰu⁴ 吱同 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
    not + same
(4) ʔ² pʰian² 吱平 “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’
    not + flat
(5) ʔ² tsʰin¹ tsʰi³ 吱清楚 “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเคลือ” ‘vague’
    not + clear
(6) ʔ² jaŋ² 吱赢 “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’
    not + win
(7) ʔ² jit⁵ joŋ⁴ 吱一样 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
    not + same
(8) ʔ² woj⁴ nan² 吱会难 “ไม่ + อาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’
    not + difficult
(9) ʔ² ki⁴ tet⁵ 吱记得 “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 tsh¹ien² 有钱 “มีเงิน = รวย” ‘rich’
   have + money
(2) jiw² pʰiaŋ⁴ 有病 “มี โรค = ป่วย” ‘sick’
   have + disease
(3) jiw³ mian² 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 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 雄 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix ma² 嫡 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 嫡 “ไก่ตัวเมีย” ‘hen’
   chicken + suffix (female)

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

Examples:

(1)  kiŋ¹ ma² 姜 嫫 “وجب” ‘ginger’
(2)  taw¹ ma² 刀 嫫 “กัด” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3)  li² ma² 笠 嫫 “จอ” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4)  set⁵ ma² 虱 嫫 “กิ” ‘louse’
(5) sat⁶ ma² 舌嫌 “ลิ้น” ‘tongue’
(6) li¹ ma² 鲤嫌 “ปลาหลีฮื้อ” ‘carp’
(7) sək⁶ ma² 勺嫌 “กระบวย” ‘ladle’

Suffix kuŋ¹ 公 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ni² kuŋ¹ 虐公 “มด” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 “กุ้ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมงปอ” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 蠕公 “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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix</th>
<th>N + suffix</th>
<th>‘at’</th>
<th>‘at’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹) 屋下</td>
<td>“(ที่) บ้าน”</td>
<td>‘(at) house’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ?am¹ ha¹ 庵下</td>
<td>“(ที่) วัด”</td>
<td>‘(at) temple’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹ 学堂下</td>
<td>(ที่) ‘โรงเรียน’</td>
<td>‘(at) school’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Suffix ?e² 有 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 ?e²

(1) ka¹ ?e²  "ในบ้าน" ‘in a house’
(2) sim¹ (tu¹) ?e²  "ในใจ" ‘in a heart’
(3) su³ ?e²  "ในมือ" ‘in a hand’
(4) san² ?e²  "ในเมือง" ‘in the city’
(5) tʰoj⁴ ?e²  "ในถุง" ‘in a bag’
(6) ho² ?e²  "ในแม่น้ำ" ‘in a river’
(7) tʰien² ?e²  "ในน้ำ" ‘in a rice field’
(8) san³ ?e²  "ในหุบ" ‘in water’
(9) wok⁶ ?e²  "ในหัว" ‘in a forest’
(10) su⁴ lim² ?e²  "ในป่า" ‘in a forest’
(11) suj³ ?e²  "ในน้ำ" ‘in water’

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

Examples:

N + suffix tʰew²

(1) kut⁵ tʰew²  "กระดูก" ‘bone’
(2) njit⁵ tʰew²  "พระอาทิตย์" ‘sun’
(3) kuon⁴ tʰew²  "กระปอง" ‘tin, canister’
(4) kin¹ tʰew²  "หัวไหล่" ‘shoulder’
(5) kiok⁵ tʰew²  "จób" ‘hoe’
(6) wok⁶ tʰew²  "กระทะ" ‘pan’
Examples:

N + suffix

(1) η³ tsi³ 女子 “ฤกษ์” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰi¹ tsi³ 妻子 “ห่วย” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsi³ 臣子 “จุบน่าน” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsi³ 晏子 “ฮื้” ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) sin¹ ne³ 身子 “ว่างกาย” ‘body’
(6) san⁴ ne³ 扇子 “พัด” ‘fan’
(7) lam² me³ 篮子 “ตะกร่าง” ‘basket’
(8) sam² me³ 蟬子 “จั๊กจั่น” ‘cricket’
(9) η² le³ 鱼子 “ปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap⁶ ?e³ 叶子 “ใบไม” ‘leaf’
(11) lu² ?e³ 炉子 “เตา” ‘stove’
(12) laj⁴ ?e² 子 “ลูกชาย” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ?e³ 星子 “ดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit³ ?e³ 禾穀子 “ศิริ” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa¹ ?e³ 遮子 “หนาม” ‘umbrella’
(16) pʰan² ?e³ 盘子 “จาน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ?e³ 果子 “ผลไม” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu⁴ ?e³ 兔子 “กระต่าย” ‘rabbit’
(19) pʰon¹ ?e³ 蛙子 “หอย” ‘shell’

Suffix tsi³ หรือ ?e² 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 tsi³ or ?e².
Suffix tsaj^3 仔 follows an adjective in order to complete a noun morpheme. Most of them mean female.

Examples:

adj. + suffix

(1) lian^4 tsaj^3 靚仔 “หนัง allocate” ‘handsome man’
(2) lian^4 moj^4 tsaj^3 靚妹仔 “หนัง ตา allocate” ‘beautiful girl’
(3) so^2 tsaj^3 傻仔 “หนัง เหม้าย” ‘stupid man’
(4) se^4 tsaj^3 细仔 “เต็มเขี้ยว” ‘boy’
(5) moj^4 tsaj^3 妹仔 “เต็มหญิง” ‘girl’

Suffix ko^1 哥 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

(1) hew^2 ko^1 猴哥 “เป้า” ‘monkey’
(2) wat^6 ko^1 鮥哥 “ปลาดุก” ‘catfish’
(3) wu^1 liaw^4 ko^1 乌鹤哥 “นกขุนทอง” ‘grackle’
(4) sa^2 ko^1 蛇哥 “งู” ‘snake’
(5) se^2 lo^2 ko^1 蛤螺哥 “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 阗 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫉 is used to indicate female.

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