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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 牯 ‘male’, ma² 嫲 ‘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 kiŋ¹ ma² 姜嫲 ‘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 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 牯 ‘masculino’, ma² 嫲 ‘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 kiŋ¹ ma² 姜嫲 ‘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 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)	tsok ⁵ pu ⁴		桌布 table + cloth	“ผ้าปูโต๊ะ”		‘table cloth’
(2)	maw ¹ kiok ⁵		毛脚 hair + foot	“รากผม”		‘hair root’
(3)	t ^h ien ¹ kiun ¹		天弓 sky + bow	“รุ้งกินน้ำ”		‘rainbow’
(4)	t ^h ew ⁴ jin ²		豆仁 bean + seed	“เมล็ดถั่ว”		‘bean seed’
(5)	ŋa ² sot ⁵		牙刷 tooth + brush	“แปรงสีฟัน”		‘a toothbrush’
(6)	ŋiet ⁶ pian ⁴		月 moon + cake	“ขนมสำหรับไหว้พระจันทร์”		‘moon cake’
(7)	tsu ³ ŋin ²		主人 owner + person	“เจ้าของบ้าน”		‘owner of the house’

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 white + hair	“ผมขาว”		‘grey hair’
(2)	hon ² sam ¹		寒衫 cold + coat	“เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว”		‘overcoat’
(3)	p ^h ak ⁶ tsuk ⁵		白粥 white + porridge	“ข้าวต้ม”		‘porridge’
(4)	ts ^h on ² ts ^h iek ⁶		长席 long + mat	“เสื่อยาว”		‘long mat’
(5)	san ¹ kuo ²		生果 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)	hok ⁶ kaw ³		学校 ² study + school	“โรงเรียน”		‘school’
(2)	hok ⁶ t ^h on ² ha ¹		学堂 下 study + room for specific purpose	“โรงเรียน”		‘school’
(3)	son ⁴ mien ⁴ sin ¹ san ¹		算命先生 tell one’s fortune + teacher/ master	“หมอดู”		‘fortune-teller’

² Literary language.

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|--------------|-----------|------------|
| (4) | soj ⁴ muk ⁵ fon ² | 睡目房 | “ห้องนอน” | ‘bedroom’ |
| | | sleep + room | | |
| (5) | san ¹ njit ⁵ | 生日 | “วันเกิด” | ‘birthday’ |
| | | birth + day | | |

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) | kiok ⁵ njan ³ jin ² | 脚眼仁 | “ตาตุ่ม” | | ‘ankle’ |
| | | foot + eye + kernel | | | |
| (2) | kiok ⁵ tsan ⁴ kut ⁵ | 脚踵骨 | “ส้นเท้า” | | ‘heel’ |
| | | foot + heel + bone | | | |
| (3) | fu ⁴ t ^h ew ² taj ⁴ | 裤头带 | “เข็มขัด” | | ‘belt’ |
| | | trousers + head + belt | | | |
| (4) | muk ⁵ mi ² maw ¹ | 目眉毛 | “คิ้ว” | | ‘eyebrow’ |
| | | eye + eyebrow + hair | | | |
| (5) | muk ⁵ tsip ⁵ maw ¹ | 目汁毛 | “ขนตา” | | ‘eyelashes’ |
| | | eye + juice + hair | | | |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|-----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| | Noun + Noun + Verb | → | Noun or N + N + V | → | N |
| (1) | ke ¹ maw ¹ saw ⁴ | 鸡毛扫 | “ไม้ขนไก่(ใช้ปัดฝุ่น)” | | ‘a broom from |
| | | chicken+ hair + sweep | | (feathers for cleaning’ | |

- | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------|
| | Verb + Noun + Noun | → | Noun or V + N + N | → | N |
| (1) | p ^h a ² nj ⁴ si ³ | 扒耳屎 | “ไม้แคะหู” | | ‘ear picker’ |
| | | rake up + ear + excrement | | | |

	Verb + Verb + Noun	→	Noun or	V + V + N	→	N
(1)	saŋ ¹ si ⁶ kua ¹		生食瓜	“แตงกวา”		‘cucumber’
			raw + to eat + melon			

	Noun + Verb + Noun	→	Noun หรือ	N + V + N	N	→
(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’	“แช่ – จุ่ม”
		soak + water		
(2)	tʰat ⁵ ŋin ²	哄人	‘tell obvious lies’	“โกหก”
		lie + human		
(3)	kʰon ⁴ pʰian ⁴	看病	‘go to see a doctor’	“ไปพบแพทย์”
		see + illness		
(4)	la ² tʰien ²	犁田	‘to plow’	“ไถนา”
		plow + farmland		
(5)	lok ⁶ fo ⁴	落货	‘to carry, to load on (vehicles, animals' back)’	“ขนถ่ายสินค้า”
		drop + goods		
(6)	mi ⁴ suj ³	潜水	‘to dive’	“ดำน้ำ”
		dive + water		
(7)	hon ⁴ tsʰon ²	跷床	‘to rise from bed’	“ตื่นได้แล้ว (ลุกจากเตียง)”

		get up+ bed	
(8)	pot ⁵ mun ⁴	发梦	‘to dream’
		produce + dream	“ฝัน”

Verb + Verb or verb complement

(1)	fat ⁵ sin ⁴	发性	‘angry’	โกรธ
		produce + temper		
(2)	t ^h ew ¹ k ^h on ⁴	偷看	‘to peep’	แอบดู
		steal + see		
(3)	t ^h an ¹ taw ⁴	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)	t ^h aj ⁴ fon ¹	大方	‘magnanimous’	“ใจกว้าง”
		big + locality		
(2)	haw ³ t ^h aj ¹	好听	‘melodious’	“ไพเราะ”
		good + hear		
(3)	haw ³ sit ⁶	好食	‘delicious’	“อร่อย”
		good + eat		
(4)	t ^h aj ⁴ sit ⁶	太食	‘greedy’	“ตะกละ”
		greatest + eat		
(5)	tet ⁵ ŋin ² siak ⁵	得人惜	‘lovely’	“น่ารัก”
		gain + human + love		
(6)	t ^h aj ⁴ san ¹	大声	‘loud’	“(เสียง)ดัง”
		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^3 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 ʔa^1 阿 is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

(1)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{pa}^1$	阿爸	“พ่อ”	‘father’
(2)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{me}^1$	阿姆	“แม่”	‘mother’
(3)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{ko}^1$	阿哥	“พี่ชาย”	‘older brother’
(4)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{saw}^3$	阿嫂	“สะใภ้”	‘female in-law’
(5)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{kap}^5$	阿甲	“อาคัน (ชื่อคน)”	‘name of people’
(6)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{p}^{\text{h}}\text{o}^2$	阿婆	“ย่าหรือยาย”	‘grandmother’
(7)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{tsi}^3$	阿姊	“พี่สาว”	‘older sister’
(8)	$\text{ʔa}^1 \text{pak}^5$	阿伯	“ลุง”	‘uncle’

Prefix ʔan^3 恁 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.

Examples:

(1)	ʔan ³ sin ¹ k ^h u ³	恁辛苦	“ลำบากเหลือเกิน”	‘so difficult’
(2)	ʔan ³ tuj ⁴	恁对	“พอดีเหลือเกิน”	‘so accidental’
(3)	ʔan ³ hiŋ ³	恁响	“ดังเหลือเกิน”	‘so loud’
(4)	ʔan ³ k ^h ieŋ ² tson ⁴	恁强壮	“แข็งแรงเหลือเกิน”	‘so strong’
(5)	ʔan ³ tiam ³	恁惦	“เฉยจัง”	‘so calm’
(6)	ʔan ³ to ¹	恁多	“มากมายเหลือเกิน”	‘so much’
(7)	ʔan ³ ti ³ ts ^h ien ²	恁抵钱	“มีค่าเหลือเกิน”	‘so precious’
(8)	ʔan ³ t ^h aj ⁴	恁大	“ใหญ่เหลือเกิน”	‘so big’
(9)	ʔan ³ ts ^h i ⁴ ts ^h aj ⁴	恁自在	“อิสระเหลือเกิน”	‘so free’
(10)	ʔan ³ kaw ¹	恁高	“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)	law ³ p ^h o ²	老婆	“ภรรยา”	‘wife’
(2)	law ³ ŋin ²	老人	“คนแก่”	‘old people’
(3)	law ³ pak ⁵	老伯	“คนแก่”	‘elderly’
(4)	law ³ kun ¹	老公	“สามี”	‘husband’
(5)	law ³ t ^h aj ¹	老弟	“น้องชาย”	‘younger brother’
(6)	law ³ moj ⁴	老妹	“น้องสาว”	‘younger sister’
(7)	law ³ sit ⁶	老实	“ซื่อสัตย์”	‘honest’
(8)	law ³ sin ²	老成	“ระมัดระวัง”	‘careful’
(9)	law ³ sin ¹ san ¹	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) | law ⁴ haj ³ | 老蟹 | “ปู” | ‘crab’ |
| (2) | law ⁴ fu ³ | 老虎 | “เสือ” | ‘tiger’ |
| (3) | law ⁴ ts ^h u ³ | 老鼠 | “หนู” | ‘rat’ |

Prefix 唔² 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) | 唔 ² kian ⁴ | 唔见 | “ไม่ + เห็น = หาย” | ‘lose’ |
| | | not + see | | |
| (2) | 唔 ² lan ² li ⁴ | 唔伶俐 | “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” | ‘dirty’ |
| | | not + bright | | |
| (3) | 唔 ² t ^h un ² | 唔同 | “ไม่ + เหมือน = ต่าง” | ‘different’ |
| | | not + same | | |
| (4) | 唔 ² p ^h ian ² | 唔平 | “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ” | ‘rough’ |
| | | not + flat | | |
| (5) | 唔 ² ts ^h in ¹ ts ^h ɿ ³ | 唔清楚 | “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเครือ” | ‘vague’ |
| | | not + clear | | |
| (6) | 唔 ² jan ² | 唔赢 | “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” | ‘to be defeated’ |
| | | not + win | | |
| (7) | 唔 ² jit ⁵ jon ⁴ | 唔一样 | “ไม่ + เหมือน = ต่าง” | ‘different’ |
| | | not + same | | |
| (8) | 唔 ² woj ⁴ nan ² | 唔会难 | “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” | ‘easy’ |
| | | not + difficult | | |
| (9) | 唔 ² ki ⁴ tet ⁵ | 唔记得 | “ไม่ + จำได้ = ลืม” | ‘forget’ |
| | | not + remember | | |

Prefix *jiw*¹ 有, has a literary meaning of “to have” but when it precedes a noun, it changes to an adjective.

Examples:

- | | | | | |
|-----|--|----------------|---------------------------|----------|
| (1) | <i>jiw</i> ¹ <i>ts</i> ^h <i>ien</i> ² | 有钱 | “มี + เงิน = รวย” | ‘rich’ |
| | | have + money | | |
| (2) | <i>jiw</i> ¹ <i>p</i> ^h <i>ian</i> ⁴ | 有病 | “มี + โรค = ป่วย” | ‘sick’ |
| | | have + disease | | |
| (3) | <i>jiw</i> ¹ <i>mian</i> ² | 有名 | “มี + ชื่อ = เป็นที่นิยม” | ‘famous’ |
| | | have + name | | |

Prefix *fat*⁵ 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) | <i>fat</i> ⁵ <i>p</i> ^h <i>ian</i> ⁴ | 发病 ³ | become or get + ill | ไม่สบาย | ‘to be ill’ |
| (2) | <i>fat</i> ⁵ <i>ts</i> ^h <i>oj</i> ² | 发财 | | ร่ำรวย | ‘get rich’ |

5.2 Suffixes

Suffixes used to identify gender have three forms. Suffixes *ku*³ 牯 and *kun*¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix *ma*² 嫲 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) | <i>ke</i> ¹ <i>ma</i> ² | 鸡 嫲 | “ไก่วเมีย” | ‘hen’ |
| | | chicken + suffix (female) | | |

³ Literary language.

(2)	ɲiw ² ma ²	牛 嫫	“วัวตัวเมีย”	‘cow’
		cow + suffix (female)		
(3)	kew ³ ma ²	狗 嫫	“หมาตัวเมีย”	‘female dog’
		dog + suffix (female)		
(4)	ʔap ⁵ ma ²	鸭 嫫	“เป็ดตัวเมีย”	‘female duck’
		duck + suffix (female)		
(5)	ɲoŋ ⁴ ma ²	戇 嫫	“คนบ้า (เพศหญิง)”	‘a women who is mad’
		mad + suffix (female)		
(6)	ke ¹ ku ³	鸡 牯	“ไก่ตัวผู้”	‘cock’
		chicken + suffix (male)		
(7)	ɲiw ² ku ³	牛 牯	“วัวตัวผู้”	‘ox’
		ox + suffix (male)		
(8)	kew ³ ku ³	狗 牯	“หมาตัวผู้”	‘male dog’
		dog + suffix (male)		
(9)	ɲoŋ ⁴ ku ³	戇 牯	“คนบ้า (เพศชาย)”	‘madman’
		mad + suffix (male)		
(10)	ʔap ⁵ kuŋ ¹	鸭 公	“เป็ดตัวผู้”	‘male duck’
		duck + suffix (male)		
(11)	ke ¹ kuŋ ¹	鸡 公	“ไก่ตัวผู้”	‘cock’
		chicken + suffix (male)		

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

Examples:

(1)	kiŋ ¹ ma ²	姜 嫫	“จิง”	‘ginger’
(2)	taw ¹ ma ²	刀 嫫	“มีดโต้”	‘kitchen chopper’
(3)	li ² ma ²	笠 嫫	“จอบ”	‘a bamboo hat’
(4)	set ⁵ ma ²	虱 嫫	“เหา”	‘louse’

(5)	sat ⁶ ma ²	舌嫲	“ลิ้น”	‘tongue’
(6)	li ¹ ma ²	鯉嫲	“ปลาหลีฮื้อ”	‘carp’
(7)	sok ⁶ ma ²	勺嫲	“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)	ni ¹ kuŋ ¹	蚁公	“มด”	‘ant’
(2)	ha ² kuŋ ¹	蝦公	“กุ้ง”	‘shrimp’
(3)	san ¹ ha ² kuŋ ¹	山蝦公	“แมงป่อง”	‘scorpion’
(4)	hian ³ kuŋ ¹	蟻公	“ไส้เดือน”	‘earthworm’

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

Examples:

(1)	si ¹ ku ¹	須姑	“หนวด”	‘moustache’
(2)	nen ⁴ ku ¹	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)	wuk ⁵ ha ¹ (k ^h ua ¹)	屋下	“(ที่) บ้าน”	‘(at) house’
(2)	ʔam ¹ ha ¹	庵下	“(ที่) วัด”	‘(at) temple’
(3)	hok ⁶ t ^h oŋ ² ha ¹	学堂下	“(ที่) โรงเรียน”	‘(at) school’

Suffix 𠂔² 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 𠂔 ² 里				
(1)	ka ¹ 𠂔 ²	家里	“ในบ้าน”	‘in a house’
(2)	sim ¹ (tu ¹) 𠂔 ²	心里	“ในใจ”	‘in a heart’
(3)	su ³ 𠂔 ²	手里	“ในมือ”	‘in a hand’
(4)	san ² 𠂔 ²	城里	“ในเมือง”	‘in the city’
(5)	t ^h oj ⁴ 𠂔 ²	袋里	“ในกระเป๋”	‘in a bag’
(6)	ho ² 𠂔 ²	河里	“ในแม่น้ำ”	‘in a river’
(7)	t ^h ien ² ne ²	田里	“ในนา”	‘in a rice field’
(8)	san ¹ 𠂔 ²	山里	“ในหุบเขา”	‘in a valley’
(9)	wok ⁶ 𠂔 ²	锅里	“ในกระทะ”	‘in a pan’
(10)	su ⁴ lim ² me ²	树林里	“ในป่า”	‘in a forest’
(11)	suj ³ 𠂔 ²	水里	“ในน้ำ”	‘in water’

Suffix t^hew² 头 has a literary meaning of “head” but when it follows a noun, its function changes to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

N + suffix t ^h ew ² 头				
(1)	kut ⁵ t ^h ew ²	骨头	“กระดูก”	‘bone’
(2)	ɲit ⁵ t ^h ew ²	日头	“พระอาทิตย์”	‘sun’
(3)	kuon ⁴ t ^h ew ²	罐头	“กระป๋อง”	‘tin, canister’
(4)	kin ¹ t ^h ew ²	肩头	“หัวไหล่”	‘shoulder’
(5)	kiok ⁵ t ^h ew ²	镢头	“จอบ”	‘hoe’
(6)	wok ⁶ t ^h ew ²	锅头	“กระทะ”	‘pan’

(7)	sak ⁶ t ^h ew ²	石头	“หิน”	‘stone’
(8)	pu ³ t ^h ew ²	斧头	“ขวาน”	‘axe’
(9)	tsem ¹ t ^h ew ²	砧头	“โขียง”	‘chopping block’
(10)	tsim ³ t ^h ew ²	枕头	“หมอน”	‘pillow’

Suffix tsɿ³ หรือ ɲe² 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 tsɿ³ or ɲe².

Examples:

N + suffix				
(1)	ŋ ³ tsɿ ³	女子	“ลูกสาว”	‘daughter’
(2)	ts ^h i ¹ tsɿ ³	妻子	“ภรรยา”	‘wife’
(3)	sin ² tsɿ ³	臣子	“ขุนนาง”	‘bureaucrat’
(4)	jan ⁴ tsɿ ³	晏子	“ทูต”	‘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	篮子	“ตะกร้า”	‘basket’
(8)	sam ² me ³	蝉子	“จิ้งจก”	‘cricket’
(9)	ŋ ² le ³	鱼子	“ปลา”	‘fish’
(10)	jap ⁶ ɲe ³	叶子	“ใบไม้”	‘leaf’
(11)	lu ² ɲe ³	炉子	“เตา”	‘stove’
(12)	laj ⁴ ɲe ²	殄子	“ลูกชาย”	‘son’
(13)	sen ¹ ɲe ³	星子	“ดาว”	‘star’
(14)	wo ² pit ⁵ ɲe ³	禾鷁子	“นกกระจอก”	‘sparrow’
(15)	tsa ¹ ɲe ³	遮子	“ร่ม”	‘umbrella’
(16)	p ^h an ² ɲe ³	盘子	“จาน”	‘plate’
(17)	kuo ³ ɲe ³	果子	“ผลไม้”	‘fruit’
(18)	t ^h u ⁴ ɲe ³	兔子	“กระต่าย”	‘rabbit’
(19)	p ^h on ¹ ɲe ³	蚌子	“หอย”	‘shell’

(20)	ɲiun ² ɲe ³	银子	“เงิน”	‘silver’
(21)	p ^h aj ² ɲe ³	牌子	“ป้าย”	‘billboard’
(22)	ts ^h a ¹ ɲe ³	车子	“รถ”	‘car’
(23)	maw ⁴ ɲe ³	帽子	“หมวก”	‘hat’
(24)	kam ¹ ɲe ³	柑子	“ส้ม”	‘orange’
(25)	moj ⁴ ɲe ³	妹子	“ลูกสาว”	‘woman’

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

Examples:

		adj. + suffix		
(1)	lian ⁴ tsaj ³	靓仔	“คนหล่อ”	‘handsome man’
(2)	lian ⁴ moj ⁴ tsaj ³	靓妹仔	“คนสวย”	‘beautiful girl’
(3)	so ² tsaj ³	傻仔	“คนโง่ (ชาย)”	‘stupid man’
(4)	se ⁴ tsaj ³	细仔	“เด็กชาย”	‘boy’
(5)	moj ⁴ tsaj ³	妹仔	“เด็กหญิง”	‘girl’

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

Examples:

(1)	hew ² ko ¹	猴哥	“ลิง”	‘monkey’
(2)	wat ⁶ ko ¹	鰻哥	“ปลาคูท”	‘catfish’
(3)	wu ¹ liaw ⁴ ko ¹	乌鶇哥	“นกขุนทอง”	‘grackle’
(4)	sa ² ko ¹	蛇哥	“งู”	‘snake’
(5)	se ² lo ² 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 ʔe² 里 and suffix ha¹ 下. The most interesting finding is that suffixes used to identify gender in Hakka have three morphemes. Suffixes ku³ 牯 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫲 is used to indicate female.

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