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 頭 ‘male’, ma² 娃 ‘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 蜜 ‘ginger’ and ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦 ‘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 稜 ‘masculino’, ma² 嫩 ‘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 姜嬢 ‘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:

<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>“ผู้ปู่”</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kik⁵</td>
<td>毛脚</td>
<td>“รากผม”</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓</td>
<td>“รื่นหน้า”</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) ŋa² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟัน”</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>“ขนมสำหรับไหว้พระ”</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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or</th>
<th>Adj. + N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) pʰak⁶ maw¹</td>
<td>白毛</td>
<td>“ผมขาว”</td>
<td>‘grey hair’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + hair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hon² sam¹</td>
<td>寒衫</td>
<td>“เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว”</td>
<td>‘overcoat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cold + coat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) pʰak⁶ tsuk⁵</td>
<td>白粥</td>
<td>“ข้าวต้ม”</td>
<td>‘porridge’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + porridge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tsʰon⁷ tsʰiek⁶</td>
<td>长席</td>
<td>“เลื่องซ่า”</td>
<td>‘long mat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long + mat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) saŋ¹ kuo²</td>
<td>生果</td>
<td>“ผลไม”</td>
<td>‘fruit’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>raw + fruit</td>
<td></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</th>
<th>V+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hok⁶ kaw³</td>
<td>学校²</td>
<td>“โรงเรียน”</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hok⁶ tʰon⁷ ha¹</td>
<td>学堂</td>
<td>“โรงเรียน”</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + room for specific purpose</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) son⁴ mieŋ⁴ sin¹ san¹</td>
<td>祝命先生</td>
<td>“หมอพร”</td>
<td>‘fortune-teller’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tell one’s fortune + teacher/master</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

² Literary language.

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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 + V → N

(1) kiɔŋ jian jin
   foot + eye + kernel

(2) kiɔŋ tsan kut
   foot + heel + bone

(3) fu thew taj
   trousers + head + belt

(4) muk mi maw
   eye + eyebrow + hair

(5) muk tsip maw
   eye + juice + hair

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

(1) ke maw saw
   chicken + hair + sweep

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

(1) pʰa η si
   rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun → Noun or V + V + N → N

(1) saŋ¹ sit⁶ kua¹  生食瓜  "แตงกวา" ‘cucumber’
    raw + to eat + melon

Noun + Verb + Noun → Noun หรี N + V + N N →

(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’ "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 (vehicle)’ "ขนถ่ายสินค้า"
    drop + goods hicles, animals' back)
(6) mi⁴ suj³  潜水 ‘to dive’ "ดับน้ำ"
    dive + water
(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰon²  跳床 ‘to rise from bed’ "ตื่นได้แล้ว (ถูกลาเตียง)"

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get up+ bed

(8) \( pot^5 \) \( muŋ^4 \)  
发梦  
‘to dream’  
“ฝัน”
produce + dream

Verb + Verb or verb complement

(1) \( fat^5 \) \( sin^4 \)  
发性  
‘angry’  
โกรธ
produce + temper

(2) \( thew^1 \) \( kʰon^4 \)  
偷看  
‘to peep’  
แอบดู
steal + see

(3) \( thәŋ^1 \) \( taw^4 \)  
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) \( thәŋ^4 \) \( foŋ^1 \)  
大方  
‘magnanimous’  
“ใจกว้าง”
big + locality

(2) \( haw^3 \) \( thәŋ^1 \)  
好听  
‘melodious’  
“ไพเราะ”
good + hear

(3) \( haw^3 \) \( sit^6 \)  
好食  
‘delicious’  
“อร่อย”
good + eat

(4) \( thәŋ^4 \) \( sit^6 \)  
太食  
‘greedy’  
“ตะกละ”
greatest + eat

(5) \( tet^5 \) \( ɲin^2 \) \( siak^5 \)  
得人惜  
‘lovely’  
“น่ารัก”
gain + human + love

(6) \( thәŋ^4 \) \( saŋ^1 \)  
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 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 阿姆 “姆” ‘mother’
(3) ʔa¹ ko¹ 阿哥 “哥” ‘older brother’
(4) ʔa¹ saw³ 阿嫂 “嫂” ‘female in-law’
(5) ʔa¹ kap⁵ 阿甲 “甲” ‘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 恒 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Prefix "law" 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) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{kuŋ}^3 \) 老婆 “老婆” ‘wife’
(2) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ŋin}^2 \) 老人 “老人家” ‘old people’
(3) \( \text{law}^3 \text{pak}^5 \) 老伯 “老人家” ‘elderly’
(4) \( \text{law}^3 \text{kun}^1 \) 老公 “老公” ‘husband’
(5) \( \text{law}^3 \text{tʰaj}^4 \) 老弟 “小弟” ‘younger brother’
(6) \( \text{law}^3 \text{moj}^4 \) 老妹 “小妹” ‘younger sister’
(7) \( \text{law}^3 \text{siŋ}^6 \) 老实 “老实” ‘honest’
(8) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^2 \) 老成 “老成” ‘careful’
(9) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{saŋ}^1 \) 老先生 “老先生” ‘old teacher’

Prefix "law" 老, has no meaning in this situation but is used to complete a noun morpheme.
Prefix ʔ he 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) law⁴ haj³ 老蟹 “ปู” ‘crab’
(2) law⁴ fu³ 老虎 “เลือ” ‘tiger’
(3) law⁴ tsʰu³ 老鼠 “ חודשים” ‘rat’
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  “มี + 銀 = รวย” ‘rich’
have + money
(2) jiw¹ pʰian⁴ 有名  “มี + 名 = เป็นที่นิยม” ‘famous’
have + name
(3) jiw¹ mian² 有名  “มี + 名 = 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  “เป็น + ぜひ = ไม่สบาย” ‘to be ill’
become or get + ill ไม่สบาย ‘to be ill’
(2) fat⁵ tsʰoj² 发财  ḫƯcí ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

Suffixes used to identify gender have three forms. Suffixes ku³ 鈍 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+㛵 = ควง” ‘hen’
chicken + suffix (female)
Suffix ma² 嬉 has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:

(1)  kiŋ⁴ ma² 姜嬌 “จิ้ง” ‘ginger’
(2)  taw¹ ma² 刀嬌 “ทำได้” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3)  li² ma² 笠嬌 “เถ้า” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4)  set⁵ ma² 虱嬌 “ก่ำ” ‘louse’
(5) sat⁶ ma²  ติ่ง “ปลี” ‘tongue’
(6) li¹ ma²  ปลา “ปลาเพียงตัว” ‘carp’
(7) sək⁶ ma²  งด “งดงาม” ‘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  อั้ง “อั้ง” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹  ปลา “ปลา” ‘shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹  ปลา “ปลา” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹  ปลา “ปลา” ‘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  หู “หู” ‘moustache’
(2) nen⁴ ku¹  หู “หู” ‘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>(ห) “(at) house”</th>
<th>(ห) “(at) temple”</th>
<th>(ห) &quot;(at) school&quot;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹)  บ้าน</td>
<td>“(ที่) บ้าน”</td>
<td>“(ที่) วัด”</td>
<td>“(ที่) โรงเรียน”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ?am¹ ha¹  บ้าน</td>
<td>“(ที่) บ้าน”</td>
<td>“(ที่) วัด”</td>
<td>“(ที่) โรงเรียน”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹  ห้อง</td>
<td>“(ที่) ห้อง”</td>
<td>“(ที่) ห้อง”</td>
<td>“(ที่) ห้อง”</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) \text{ka¹ ʔe²} 里家  "ในบ้าน"  ‘in a house’
(2) \text{sim¹ (tu¹)ʔe²} 心肚里  "ใจ"  ‘in a heart’
(3) \text{su³ ʔe²} 手里  "มือ"  ‘in a hand’
(4) \text{san² ʔe²} 城里  "เมือง"  ‘in the city’
(5) \text{tʰoj⁴ ʔe²} 袋里  "กระเป๋า"  ‘in a bag’
(6) \text{ho² ʔe²} 河里  "แม่น้ำ"  ‘in a river’
(7) \text{tʰien² ne²} 田里  "นา"  ‘in a rice field’
(8) \text{san¹ ʔe²} 山里  "ภูเขา"  ‘in a valley’
(9) \text{wok⁶ ʔe²} 锅里  "กระทะ"  ‘in a pan’
(10) \text{su⁴ lim² me²} 树林里  "ป่า"  ‘in a forest’
(11) \text{su³ 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) \text{kut⁵ tʰew²} 头骨  "กระดูก"  ‘bone’
(2) \text{ŋit⁵ tʰew²} 日头  "พระอาทิตย์"  ‘sun’
(3) \text{kuon⁴ tʰew²} 罐头  "กระป๋อง"  ‘tin, canister’
(4) \text{kin¹ tʰew²} 肩头  "ไหล่"  ‘shoulder’
(5) \text{kiok⁵ tʰew²} 锤头  "จุก"  ‘hoe’
(6) \text{wok⁶ tʰew²} 锅头  "กระทะ"  ‘pan’
Examples:

(1) η³ tsi³ 女子 “คุณสาว” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰ¹ tsi³ 妻子 “กระอย” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsi³ 臣子 “ขุนนาง” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsi³ 晏子 “ยุท” ‘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 蝉子 “จั๊กจั่น” ‘cricket’
(9) η² le³ 鱼子 “ปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap⁶ ?e³ 叶子 “ใบไม้” ‘leaf’
(11) lu² ?e³ 炉子 “เตา” ‘stove’
(12) laj⁴ ?e² 孺子 “ลูกชาย” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ?e³ 星子 “ดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit⁵ ?e³ 禾秸子 “นกกระจอก” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa¹ ?e³ 遮子 “มุ้ง” ‘umbrella’
(16) pʰan² ?e³ 盘子 “จาน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ?e³ 果子 “ผลไม้” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu⁴ ?e³ 兔子 “กระเต็ง” ‘rabbit’
(19) pʰon¹ ?e³ 蛙子 “ปู” ‘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 \textit{tsaj} 三個 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) lian$^4$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) lian$^4$ moj$^4$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) so$^2$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) se$^4$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) moj$^4$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) moj$^4$ \textit{tsaj}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffix \textit{ko} 三個 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

<p>| |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hew$^2$ \textit{ko}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) wat$^6$ \textit{ko}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) wu$^1$ liaw$^4$ \textit{ko}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) sa$^2$ \textit{ko}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) se$^2$ lo$^2$ \textit{ko}</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 ʔe² 里 and suffix ha¹ 下. The most interesting finding is that suffixes used to identify gender in Hakka have three morphemes. Suffixes ku³ 鈺 and kuj¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫌 is used to indicate female.

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