AFFIXATION AND COMPOUNDING IN HAKKA

Siripen UNGSITIPOONPORN
Mahidol University
ungsitipoonporn@yahoo.com

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

Keywords
affixation, prefixes, suffixes, compound words, Hakka

1 This article is supported funding by Thailand research Fund in my research project of “The Hakka grammar as spoken in Bangkok” (Grant No. MRG 5285280140). This research is supported by the Thailand Research Fund (TRF) from March 2009 to March 2011. I would like to acknowledge with thanks Ajarn David Hirsh’s comments on the first draft of this manuscript. This paper was presented at the 33rd Annual Conference of Linguistic Society of Nepal, 26-27 November 2012, Kathmandu, Nepal.
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 钻 ‘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 姜嫌 ‘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 kùŋ¹ 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 N</th>
<th>N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>桌布</td>
<td>“คำ์ปูโต”</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kio⁵</td>
<td>毛脚</td>
<td>“วก”</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiuŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓</td>
<td>“รุกกินน้ํา”</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sky + bow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁</td>
<td>“เมล็ดถั่ว”</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bean + seed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) nga² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟัน”</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ngaet⁶ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>月</td>
<td>“ขนมสำหรับไหว้พระจันทร์”</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moon + cake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ jin³</td>
<td>主人</td>
<td>“เจ้าของบ้าน”</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>owner + person</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. **Modifier (n.):** 白毛 (*maw*), 白 (white) + hair
   - **Example:**  ผมขาว ('grey hair')
2. **Modifier (adj.):** 寒衫 (*sam*), 寒 (cold) + coat
   - **Example:**  青克 (‘overcoat’)
3. **Modifier (adj.):** 白粥 (*tsuk*), 白 (white) + porridge
   - **Example:**  ข้าวต้ม (‘porridge’)
4. **Modifier (adj.):** 長席 (*tsʰieŋ*), 長 (long) + mat
   - **Example:**  สองต่อ (‘long mat’)
5. **Modifier (adj.):** 生果 (*sán*), 生 (raw) + fruit
   - **Example:**  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. **Modifier (n.):** hok (*kaw*), 學校 (study) + school
   - **Example:**  โรงเรียน (‘school’)
2. **Modifier (n.):** hok (*tʰon*), 學堂 (study + room for specific purpose)
   - **Example:**  โรงเรียน (‘school’)
3. **Modifier (n.):** son (*mien*), 祝命先生 (tell one’s fortune + teacher/master)
   - **Example:**  หมอสูง (‘fortune-teller’)

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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:

\[
\text{Noun + Noun + Noun} \rightarrow \text{Noun or N+N+N} \rightarrow \text{N}
\]

(1) kiɔk⁵ ɲian³ jin² 腳眼仁 “ต่ำนุน” ‘ankle’
    foot + eye + kernel
(2) kiɔk⁵ tsan⁴ kut⁵ 腳踇骨 “สันเท้า” ‘heel’
    foot + heel + bone
(3) fu⁴ tʰew² taj⁴ 褲头带 “เข็มขัด” ‘belt’
    trousers + head + belt
(4) muk⁵ mi² maw¹ 目眉毛 “กิ้น” ‘eyebrow’
    eye + eyebrow + hair
(5) muk⁵ tsɨp⁵ maw¹ 目汁毛 “ขนตา” ‘eyelashes’
    eye + juice + hair

\[
\text{Noun + Noun + Verb} \rightarrow \text{Noun or N+N+V} \rightarrow \text{N}
\]

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

\[
\text{Verb + Noun + Noun} \rightarrow \text{Noun or V+N+N} \rightarrow \text{N}
\]

(1) pʰa² ɲi⁴ si³ 抜耳屎 “ไม้แก้ม” ‘ear picker’
    rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun → Noun or
V + V + N → N

(1) saŋ⁴ sit⁶ kua¹

raw + to eat + melon

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

(1) suj³ tsin¹ hi⁴

water + 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) tsi₄ m³

soak + water

(2) hi⁴ tʰat⁵

lie + human

(3) kʰon⁴ pʰiᵃŋ⁴

see + illness

(4) laj² tʰien²

plow + farmland

(5) lok⁶ fo⁴

drop + goods

(6) mi⁴ suj³

dive + water

(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰon²

to rise from bed

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Verb + Verb or verb complement

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

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

(3) tʰaŋ¹ 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 tʰaŋ¹ 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’ นิยม
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 law⁴ 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 恶 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) ʔan³ sin¹ kʰu³ 惡辛苦 “ล้ามาจากหลักเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) ʔan³ tuj⁴ 惡对 “หลับหลุดเกิน” ‘so accidental’
(3) ʔan³ hiŋ³ 惡响 “หลังหลุดเกิน” ‘so loud’
(4) ʔan³ kʰiɔŋ² tsɔŋ⁴ 惡强壮 “แข็งแรงหลุดเกิน” ‘so strong’
(5) ʔan³ tiam³ 惡恬 “屿裡” ‘so calm’
(6) ʔan³ to¹ 惡多 “มากมายหลุดเกิน” ‘so much’
(7) ʔan³ ti³ tsʰiɛn² 惡抵钱 “มีค่าหลุดเกิน” ‘so precious’
(8) ʔan³ tʰaj⁴ 惡大 “ใหญ่หลุดเกิน” ‘so big’
(9) ʔan³ tsʰaj¹ tsʰaj¹ 惡自在 “อิสระหลุดเกิน” ‘so free’
(10) ʔan³ kaw¹ 惡高 “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) law³ŋiŋ² 老人 “คนแก่” ‘old people’
(3) law³ pak⁵ 老伯 “พ่อเก่า” ‘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.
Prefix ອ 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 “โป” ‘crab’
(2) law⁴ fū³ 老虎 “เสือ” ‘tiger’
(3) law⁴ tsʰu³ 老鼠 “หนู” ‘rat’

Prefix ອ 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) m² kian⁴ 唔见 “ไม่ + หัน = มลิ” ‘lose’
   not + see
(2) m² laŋ² li⁴ 唔 伶俐 “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
   not + bright
(3) m² tʰuŋ² 唔同 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(4) m² pʰiŋ² 唔平 “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’
   not + flat
(5) m² tsʰiŋ¹ tsʰi³ 唔清楚 “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเคลือ” ‘vague’
   not + clear
(6) m² jaŋ² 唔赢 “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’
   not + win
(7) m² jît⁵ joŋ⁴ 唔一样 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(8) m² wɔj⁴ nan² 唔会难 “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’
   not + difficult
(9) m² ki⁴ tet⁵ 唔记得 “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 tsʰien²  有钱  “มี เงิน = รวย”  ‘rich’
     have + money
(2)  jiw¹ pʰian⁴  有病  “มี โรค = ป่วย”  ‘sick’
     have + disease
(3)  jiw¹ miaŋ²  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 pʰian⁴  发病³  become or get + ill  ‘to be ill’
(2)  fat⁵ tsʰoj²  发财  ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

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

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

Examples:
(1)  kie² ma²   姜麻   “ัง”   ‘ginger’
(2)  taw¹ ma²   刀麻   “มี”   ‘kitchen chopper’
(3)  li² ma²    笠麻   “อิ”   ‘a bamboo hat’
(4)  set⁵ ma²   虱麻   “กอ”   ‘louse’
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 蚂公 “แมลง” ’ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝌公 “กุ้ง” ’shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมลงปอ” ’scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 螫公 “ไอ้ต้อม” ’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 “มวด” ’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>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹) 屋下 “(ที่) บ้าน” ’(at) house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ?am¹ ha¹ 庵下 “(ที่) วัด” ’(at) temple’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha₁ 學堂下 “(ที่) โรงเรียน” ’(at) school’</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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix ʔe² 里</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) ka¹ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) sim¹ (tu¹)ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) su³ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) san² ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) tʰoj⁴ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ho² ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tʰien² ne²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) san³ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) wok⁶ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) su⁴ lim² me²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) suj³ ʔe²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix tʰew² 头</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) kut⁵ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ɲit⁵ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) kuon⁴ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) kin¹ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) kiɔk⁵ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) wok⁶ tʰew²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(7) sak⁶ tʰew² 石头 “หิน” ‘stone’
(8) pu³ tʰew² 斧头 “ฆวน” ‘axe’
(9) tsem¹ tʰew² 砍头 “เจ่ง” ‘chopping block’
(10) tsim³ tʰew² 枕头 “หม่อม” ‘pillow’

Suffix tsì³ 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 tsì³ or ?e².

Examples:

N + suffix

(1) η³ tsì³ 女子 “อุกสาว” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰi³ tsì³ 妻子 “กิ้ว” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsì³ 臣子 “จูน改为” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsì³ 晏子 “จูดี” ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) sin¹ ne³ 身子 “ร่างกาย” ‘body’
(6) san⁴ ne³ 扇子 “ผัด” ‘fan’
(7) lam² me³ 篮子 “ลักรี” ‘basket’
(8) sam² me³ 蝉子 “จักจูน” ‘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 孩子 “ลูกชาย” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ?e³ 星子 “ดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit³ ?e³ 载船子 “นกกระจอก” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa¹ ?e³ 遮子 “ห่ม” ‘umbrella’
(16) pʰan² ?e³ 盘子 “จาน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ?e³ 果子 “ผลไม” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu³ ?e³ 兔子 “กระต่าย” ‘rabbit’
(19) pʰon¹ ?e³ 虾子 “ปู” ‘shell’
Suffix $\text{tsaj}^3$ 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 “หนักเฉย” ‘handsome man’
(2) lian$^4$ moj$^4$ tsaj$^3$ 靚妹仔 “หน้าสวย” ‘beautiful girl’
(3) so$^2$ tsaj$^3$ 傻仔 “หนี้ (เจ้า)” ‘stupid man’
(4) se$^4$ tsaj$^3$ 细仔 “เด็กชาย” ‘boy’
(5) moj$^4$ tsaj$^3$ 妹仔 “เด็กหญิง” ‘girl’

Suffix $\text{ko}^1$ 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$^1$ 鮟哥 “ปลาดุก” ‘catfish’
(3) wu$^1$ liaw$^4$ ko$^1$ 乌鵙哥 “นกขุนทอง” ‘grackle’
(4) sa$^2$ ko$^1$ 蛇哥 “งู” ‘snake’
(5) se$^2$ lo$^2$ ko$^1$ 蛤蟆哥 “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 銜 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 媽 is used to indicate female.

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