AFFIXATION AND COMPOUNDING IN HAKKA

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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 ʔa which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender (ku ‘male’, ma ‘female’, and kuŋ ‘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 kиŋ ma .ConnectionString =w ‘ginger’ and ha kuŋ ConnectionString =w ‘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 Napal, 26-27 November 2012, Kathmandu, Nepal.
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 (carácteres) 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 钩 ‘masculino’, ma₂ 婦 ‘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 鎮 ‘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. 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples:</th>
<th>Noun + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>&quot;ผ*าปูโต(ะ</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>maw¹ kiɔ⁴</td>
<td>&quot;รากผม&quot;</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>&quot;รุ#งกินน้ํา</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sky + bow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>&quot;เม*ีต้าว&quot;</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bean + seed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>ŋa² sot⁵</td>
<td>&quot;แปรงสีฟ(น</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>ŋiet⁵ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>&quot;ขนำมสำหรับไว-พระจันทร2</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moon + cake</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>tsu³ ŋin²</td>
<td>&quot;เจ*าของบ#าน</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>owner + person</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. **pʰak⁶ maw¹**  
   白毛  "ผมขาว"  ‘grey hair’  
   white + hair
2. **hon² sam¹**  
   寒衫  "เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว"  ‘overcoat’  
   cold + coat
3. **pʰak⁶ tsuk⁶**  
   白粥  "ข้าวต้ม"  ‘porridge’  
   white + porridge
4. **tsʰon⁷ tsʰiek⁶**  
   长席  "เสื่อยาว"  ‘long mat’  
   long + mat
5. **saŋ¹ kuo²**  
   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. **hok⁶ kaw³**  
   学校  "โรงเรียน"  ‘school’  
   study + school
2. **hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹**  
   学堂  "โรงเรียน"  ‘school’  
   study + room for specific purpose
3. **son⁴ mien⁴ sin¹ saŋ¹**  
   禮命先生  "หมอฤทธิ์"  ‘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) kiɔk⁵ ɲian³ jin² 脚眼仁 “ต้นุ่ม” ‘ankle’
    - foot + eye + kernel
  - (2) kiɔk⁵ tsan⁴ kut⁵ 脚趾骨 “ลำตี” ‘heel’
    - foot + heel + bone
  - (3) fu⁴ tʰew² taj⁴ 褲头带 “เข็มขัด” ‘belt’
    - trousers + head + belt
  - (4) muk⁵ mi² maw¹ 目眉毛 “ฟิ้่” ‘eyebrow’
    - eye + eyebrow + hair
  - (5) muk⁵ tsip⁵ maw¹ 目汁毛 “จมวด” ‘eyelashes’
    - eye + juice + hair

- **Noun + Noun + Verb** → **Noun or** N+N+V → **N**
  - (1) ke² maw¹ saw⁴ 鸡毛扫 “ไม่จอมใกล้ตู้” ‘a broom from chicken+ hair + sweep’ (feathers for cleaning’)

- **Verb + Noun + Noun** → **Noun or** V+N+N → **N**
  - (1) pʰa² ḡi⁴ si³ 抓耳屎 “ไม่จอมโค” ‘ear picker’
    - rake up + ear + excrement
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’

soak + water

2. **tʰat**⁵ **ŋin**² 告人 ‘tell obvious lies’ ‘โกหก’

lie + human

3. **kʰon**⁴ **pʰiaŋ**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 (vehicle(s), animals' back)’

drop + goods

6. **mi**⁴ **suj**³ 潜水 ‘to dive’ ‘ดักน้ำ’

dive + water

7. **hoŋ**⁴ **tsʰoŋ**² 跷床 ‘to rise from bed’ ‘ตื่นได้แล้ว ลุกจากเตียง’

water + steam + air
get up + bed

(8) pot°⁵ muŋ°⁴ ฝัน ‘to dream’ ผี
produce + dream

Verb + Verb or verb complement

(1) fat°⁵ sin°⁴ ผัน ‘angry’ โกรธ
produce + temper
(2) tʰew¹ kʰon⁴ เอ ‘to peep’ แอบดู
steal + see
(3) tʰaŋ¹ taw⁴ ได้ยิน ‘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) tʰaj°⁴ 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) tʰaj°⁴ sit⁶ 大食 ‘greedy’ ตะกละ
greatest + eat
(5) tet°⁵ ɲin² siak⁵ 得人憐 ‘lovely’ นิยม
gain + human + love
(6) tʰaj°⁴ saŋ¹ 大声 ‘loud’ (เสียง)ดัง
big + sound

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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 law⁸ 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  "opa"  ‘father’
(2) ʔa¹ me¹  "mam"  ‘mother’
(3) ʔa¹ ko¹  "fáe"  ‘older brother’
(4) ʔa¹ saw³  "saw"  ‘female in-law’
(5) ʔa¹ kap⁵  "kap (ไก่)"  ‘name of people’
(6) ʔa¹ pʰo²  "pʰo (ป่อ)”  ‘grandmother’
(7) ʔa¹ tsi³  "tsi (พี่)”  ‘older sister’
(8) ʔa¹ pak⁵  "pak (ป๋า)”  ‘uncle’

Prefix ʔan² 恶 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{k}^u^3 \) 勵辛苦 "ล้ามากเหลือเกิน" ‘so difficult’
(2) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tuj}^4 \) 勵对 "พอพิเศษเหลือเกิน" ‘so accidental’
(3) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{hiŋ}^3 \) 勵响 "ดังเหลือเกิน" ‘so loud’
(4) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{k}^h^iŋ^2 \text{ts}^oŋ^4 \) 勵强壮 "แข็งแรงเหลือเกิน" ‘so strong’
(5) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tiam}^3 \) 勵恬 "โอจัง" ‘so calm’
(6) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{to}^1 \) 勵多 "มากมายเหลือเกิน" ‘so much’
(7) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{ti}^3 \text{ts}^h^iɛn^2 \) 勵抵钱 "มีค่าเหลือเกิน" ‘so precious’
(8) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{t}^h^aj^4 \) 勵大 "ใหญ่เหลือเกิน" ‘so big’
(9) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{ts}^h^i^4 \text{ts}^h^aj^4 \) 勵自在 "อิสระเหลือเกิน" ‘so free’
(10) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{kaw}^1 \) 勵高 "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) \( \text{law}^3 \text{p}^h^o^2 \) 老婆 "พระยา" ‘wife’
(2) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ŋin}^2 \) 老人 "ท่านเก่า" ‘old people’
(3) \( \text{law}^3 \text{pak}^5 \) 老伯 "ท่านเก่า" ‘elderly’
(4) \( \text{law}^3 \text{kuŋ}^1 \) 老公 "สามี" ‘husband’
(5) \( \text{law}^3 \text{t}^h^aj^1 \) 老弟 "น้องชาย" ‘younger brother’
(6) \( \text{law}^3 \text{moj}^4 \) 老妹 "น้องสาว" ‘younger sister’
(7) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sit}^6 \) 老实 "ซื่อสัตย์" ‘honest’
(8) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^2 \) 老成 "ระมัดระวัง" ‘careful’
(9) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{saŋ}^1 \) 老先生 "ผู้ครูอาจารย์" ‘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 "หมู" ‘rat’

Prefix ṃ² 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) ṃ² kian⁴ 唔见 "ไม่ + ยิน = หาย” ‘lose’
not + see
(2) ṃ² lan⁴ li⁴ 唔 伶俐 "ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
not + bright
(3) ṃ² tʰuŋ³ 唔同 "ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
not + same
(4) ṃ² pʰian⁴ 唔平 "ไม่ + เปรียบ = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’
not + flat
(5) ṃ² tsʰin¹ tsʰ⁵ 唔清楚 "ไม่ + ขัดเจน = กลุ้มคลอก” ‘vague’
not + clear
(6) ṃ² jaŋ² 唔赢 "ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้” ‘to be defeated’
not + win
(7) ṃ² jit⁵ joŋ⁴ 唔一样 "ไม่ + เสมอ = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
not + same
(8) ṃ² woj⁴ nan² 唔会难 "ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย” ‘easy’
not + difficult
(9) ṃ² 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 mian⁴ 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 ไม่สบาย ‘to be ill’

(2) fat⁵ tsʰoj² 发财 รวย ‘get rich’

5.2 Suffixes

Suffixes used to identify gender have three forms. Suffixes ku³ 禿 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 “ไก่ แม่” ‘hen’
    chicken + suffix (female)

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

Examples:

(1)  kiiŋ¹ ma² 姜嬬 “ขิง” ‘ginger’
(2)  taw¹ ma² 刀嬬 “มีดโต้” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3)  li² ma² 笋嬬 “งอบ” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4)  set⁵ ma² 虱嬬 “เหา” ‘louse’
(5) sa^t^6 ma^2  ลิ้น  ‘tongue’
(6) li^1 ma^2  เลี้ยง  ‘carp’
(7) so^k^6 ma^2  จักร  ‘ladle’

Suffix ku^1  has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ni^1 ku^1  แมลง  ‘ant’
(2) ha^2 ku^1  ปุ๋ย  ‘shrimp’
(3) san^3 ha^2 ku^1  แมงป่อง  ‘scorpion’
(4) hian^3 ku^1  ไสเดือน  ‘earthworm’

Suffix ku^1  has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) si^1 ku^1  หนวด  ‘moustache’
(2) nen^4 ku^1  เต้านม  ‘breast’

Suffix ha^1  下, when it follows a noun, has a meaning which is similar to indicating location and it acts as preposition.

Examples:
(1) wuk^5 ha^1 (kʰua^1)  ที่บ้าน  ‘(at) house’
(2) ?am^1 ha^1  ที่วัด  ‘(at) temple’
(3) hok^6 tʰoŋ^2 ha1  ที่โรงเรียน  ‘(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     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 ʔe²    城里      “เมือง”        ‘in the city’
(5)  tʰo³j² ʔe²  袋里      “ถัง”         ‘in a bag’
(6)  ho² ʔe²     河里      “แม่น้ำ”      ‘in a river’
(7)  tʰien² ne²  田里      “นา”          ‘in a rice field’
(8)  san³ ʔe²    山里      “ทุ่งนา”      ‘in a rice field’
(9)  wok⁶ ʔe²    锅里      “กระทะ”       ‘in a pan’
(10) su⁴ lim² me² 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)  njit⁵ tʰew²  日头      “พระอาทิตย์” ‘sun’
(3)  kuon⁴ tʰew²  罐头      “กระป๋อง”     ‘tin, canister’
(4)  kin¹ tʰew²  肩头      “หัวไหล่”     ‘shoulder’
(5)  kio²k⁵ tʰew²  锥头      “จงรัก”       ‘hoe’
(6)  wok⁶ tʰew²  锅头      “กระทะ”       ‘pan’
Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N + suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) η³ tsi³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) tsʰi³ tsi³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) sin² tsi³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) jan⁴ tsi³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) sin¹ ne³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) san⁴ ne³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) lam² me³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) sam² me³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) ṇ² le³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) jap⁶ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) lu² ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12) laj⁴ ṇ²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13) sen¹ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) wo² pit³ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15) tsə¹ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) ph¹an² ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17) kuo³ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) tʰu³ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(19) pʰon¹ ṇ³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Suffix tsaj^3 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) lian^4 tsaj^3  靚仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) lian^4 moj^4 tsaj^3  靚妹仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) so^2 tsaj^3  傻仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) se^4 tsaj^3  细仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) moj^4 tsaj^3  妹仔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffix 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  鰂哥  | “ปลาดุก”  | ‘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  蛞蟳哥  | “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 魚 and kun¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 娘 is used to indicate female.

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