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 ʔa¹ which is used with kinship or address terms. The most interesting suffixes are used with animal gender (ku³ ‘male’, ma² ‘female’, and kuŋ¹ ‘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 kiŋⁱ ma² ‘ginger’ and ha² kuŋ¹ ‘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 ʔa³ ereco, que se utiliza con los términos de parentesco o de dirección. Los sufijos más interesantes se utilizan con el género de los animales (ku³ 非 ‘masculino’, ma² 雌 ‘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 ‘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:

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Noun</th>
<th>Noun or N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>“ผ้าปูโต”</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kiɔ⁵</td>
<td>“รากผม”</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>“รุ้งกินน้ํา”</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sky + bow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>“เมล็ดถั่ว”</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bean + seed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ŋa² sot⁵</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟัน”</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ŋiet⁶ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>“ขนมสำหรับไหว้พระจันทร์”</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>moon + cake</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ ŋin²</td>
<td>“เจ้าของบ้าน”</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<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.

<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>&quot;ผมขาว&quot;</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>&quot;เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว”</td>
<td>‘overcoat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cold + coat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) pʰak⁶ tsuk⁶</td>
<td>白粥</td>
<td>&quot;ข้าวต้ม&quot;</td>
<td>‘porridge’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + porridge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tsʰon² tsʰiek⁶</td>
<td>长席</td>
<td>&quot;เสื่อยาว”</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>&quot;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>&quot;โรงเรียน”</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹</td>
<td>学堂  下</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 saŋ¹</td>
<td>祕命先生</td>
<td>“หมอสู”</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.
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 jian³ jin²* จิ๋วแยง  "ตาตุ่ม"  
   ‘ankle’
   foot + eye + kernel

2. *kiɔk₅ tsan⁴ kut⁵* จิ๋วซันแยง  "ส้นเท้า"  
   ‘heel’
   foot + heel + bone

3. *fu⁴ thew² tai⁴* ฟุ้งแยง  "เข็มขัด"  
   ‘belt’
   trousers + head + belt

4. *muk⁵ mi² maw¹* ผ้าแยง  "คิ้ว"  
   ‘eyebrow’
   eye + eyebrow + hair

5. *muk⁵ tsip⁵ maw¹* ผ้าแยง  "ขนตา"  
   ‘eyelashes’
   eye + juice + hair

- **Noun + Noun + Verb** → **Noun** หรือ **N + N + V** → **N**

1. *ke² maw¹ saw⁴* ขูแยง  "ไม้งานไก่ชนิดกุ้ง"  
   ‘a broom from chicken + hair + sweep (feathers for cleaning)’

- **Verb + Noun + Noun** → **Noun** หรือ **V + N + N** → **N**

1. *pʰa⁴ ni⁴ si³* จิ๋วแยง  "ไม้แยง"  
   ‘ear picker’
   rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun → Noun or V + V + N → N

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

Noun + Verb + Noun → Noun หรือ 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’ "แช่ชุ่ม”
soak + water
(2) tʰat⁵ ŋin² 告人 ‘tell obvious lies’ "โกหก”
lie + human
(3) kʰon⁴ pʰiaŋ⁴ 看病 ‘go to see a doctor’ "ไปพบแพทย”
see + illness
(4) laj² tʰien² 犁田 ‘to plow’ "ไถนา”
plow + farmland
(5) lok⁶ fo⁴ 落货 ‘to carry, to load on (ve-
drop + goods ขนถ่ายสินค้า的)’
hicles, animals' back)
(6) mi⁴ suj³ 潜水 ‘to dive’ "ดำน้ำ”
dive + water
(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰoŋ² 跳床 ‘to rise from bed’ "ตื่นไดแล้ว (ขึ้นจากเตียง)”
Verb + Verb or verb complement

(1) fat⁵ sin⁴ 发性 ‘angry’ โกรธ
produce + temper
(2) tʰew¹ kʰon⁴ 偷看 ‘to peep’ แอบดู
steal + see
(3) tʰan¹ taw⁴ 听到 ‘to hear’ ไดยิน
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 for¹ 大方 ‘magnanimous’ “ใจกว้าง”
big + locality
(2) haw³ tʰaŋ¹ 好听 ‘melodious’ “ไพเราะ”
good + hear
(3) haw³ si⁶ 好食 ‘delicious’ “อร่อย”
good + eat
(4) tʰaj⁴ si⁶ 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 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 阿媽 “媽” ‘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 慈 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{k}^u^3 \) 惋辛苦 “สับสนเหลือเกิน” ‘so difficult’
(2) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tuj}^4 \) 惋对 “ดีใจเหลือเกิน” ‘so accidental’
(3) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{hio}^3 \) 惋响 “ตื่นเต้นเหลือเกิน” ‘so loud’
(4) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{k}^h^io^2 \text{ts}^o^j^4 \) 惋强壮 “แข็งแกร่งเหลือเกิน” ‘so strong’
(5) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tiam}^3 \) 惋惦 “ขอบหั้ง” ‘so calm’
(6) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{to}^1 \) 惋多 “มากมายเหลือเกิน” ‘so much’
(7) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{ti}^3 \text{ts}^h^ien^2 \) 惋抵钱 “มีค่าเหลือเกิน” ‘so precious’
(8) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{t}^h^aj^4 \) 惋 大 “ใหญ่เหลือเกิน” ‘so big’
(9) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{ts}^h^i^4 \text{ts}^h^aj^4 \) 惋自在 “อิสระเหลือเกิน” ‘so free’
(10) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{kaw}^1 \) 惋高 “สูงจัง” ‘so high’

Prefix \( \text{law}^3 \) 彙, 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 “ภรรยา” ‘wife’
(2) \( \text{law}^3 \text{jin}^2 \) 老人 “คนแก่” ‘old people’
(3) \( \text{law}^3 \text{pak}^5 \) 老伯 “ผู้ใหญ่” ‘elderly’
(4) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ku}^u^1 \) 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 “สุจริต” ‘honest’
(8) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^2 \) 老成 “ระมัดระวัง” ‘careful’
(9) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{sa}^j^1 \) 老先生 “ผู้ครูโรง” ‘old teacher’

Prefix \( \text{law}^4 \) 彙, has no meaning in this situation but is used to complete a noun morpheme.
Examples:

(1) \text{law}^4 \text{haj}^3 \quad \text{蟹} \quad "ปู" \quad 'crab'
(2) \text{law}^4 \text{fu}^3 \quad \text{虎} \quad "เสือ" \quad 'tiger'
(3) \text{law}^4 \text{ts}'u^3 \quad \text{鼠} \quad "หนู" \quad 'rat'

Prefix \text{m}^2 晤 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) \text{m}^2 \text{ki}'a^4 \quad \text{见} \quad "ไม่ + กี = หมิ่น" \quad 'lose'
not + see
(2) \text{m}^2 \text{la}'n^2 \text{li}^4 \quad \text{伶俐} \quad "ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก" \quad 'dirty'
not + bright
(3) \text{m}^2 \text{t}'u^3 \quad \text{同} \quad "ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง" \quad 'different'
not + same
(4) \text{m}^2 \text{p}'i'a^4 \quad \text{平} \quad "ไม่ + ถึง = ขรุขระ" \quad 'rough'
not + flat
(5) \text{m}^2 \text{ts}'i'\text{t}^1 \text{ts}'i^3 \quad \text{清楚} \quad "ไม่ + ชัดเจน = กลมกลืน" \quad 'vague'
not + clear
(6) \text{m}^2 \text{ja}'n^2 \quad \text{赢} \quad "ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้" \quad 'to be defeated'
not + win
(7) \text{m}^2 \text{ji}'t^5 \text{jo}'n^4 \quad \text{一样} \quad "ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง" \quad 'different'
not + same
(8) \text{m}^2 \text{wo}'j^4 \text{nan}^2 \quad \text{难} \quad "ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย" \quad 'easy'
not + difficult
(9) \text{m}^2 \text{ki}^4 \text{tet}^5 \quad \text{记得} \quad "ไม่ + จำ = ลืม" \quad 'forget'
not + remember

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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  “มีเงิน = รวย”  ‘rich’
   
   have + money

2. `jiw¹ pʰian⁴` 有病  “มีโรค = ป่วย”  ‘sick’
   
   have + disease

3. `jiw¹ miaŋ²` 有名  “มีชื่อ = 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 駱 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  “ไก่แม่”  ‘hen’

   chicken + suffix (female)

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³ Literary language.
Suffix ma$^2$ has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:

1. *kiŋ$^1$ ma$^2$*  
   姜麻  “ขิง”  ‘ginger’
2. *taw$^1$ ma$^2$*  
   刀麻  “มีดโต้”  ‘kitchen chopper’
3. *li$^2$ ma$^2$*  
   竹麻  “จอน”  ‘a bamboo hat’
4. *set$^5$ ma$^2$*  
   虱麻  “ผี”  ‘louse’
(5) sat⁶ ma² 舌蠍 “ลิ้น” ‘tongue’
(6) li¹ ma² 鯉蠍 “ปลาหลีฮื้อ” ‘carp’
(7) sɔk⁶ ma² 勺蠍 “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 蚊公 “มด” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 “กุ#ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san³ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมงป%อง” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 蝕公 “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 “เต#านม” ‘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)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>屋下</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“(ที่) บ้าน” ‘(at) house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ?am¹ ha¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>庵下</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“(ที่) วัด” ‘(at) temple’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>学堂下</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“(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:

\[ N + \text{suffix ʔe² 里} \]

1. \( \text{ka}^1 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ห้าม “ในบ้าน” ‘in a house’
2. \( \text{sim}^1 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 หัวใจ “ในใจ” ‘in a heart’
3. \( \text{su}^3 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ห้าง “ในมือ” ‘in a hand’
4. \( \text{san}^2 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ซิตี้ “ในเมือง” ‘in the city’
5. \( \text{tʰo}^4 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 “ในเมือง” ‘in a bag’
6. \( \text{ho}^2 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 หัวใจ “ในใจ” ‘in a river’
7. \( \text{tʰien}^2 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ห้าม “ในช้าง” ‘in a rice field’
8. \( \text{san}^3 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ห้าม “ในช้าง” ‘in a bag’
9. \( \text{wok}^6 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘in a bag’
10. \( \text{su}^4 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 ห้าม “ในช้าง” ‘in a geese’
11. \( \text{wok}^6 \text{ʔe²} \) 里 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘in a forest’

Suffix ʔe² 里 has a literary meaning of “head” but when it follows a noun, its function changes to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

\[ N + \text{suffix tʰew² 头} \]

1. \( \text{kut}^5 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘bone’
2. \( \text{ŋit}^5 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘sun’
3. \( \text{kuon}^4 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘tin, canister’
4. \( \text{kin}^1 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘shoulder’
5. \( \text{kik}^5 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘hoe’
6. \( \text{wok}^6 \text{tʰew²} \) 头 หัวใจ “ในช้าง” ‘pan’
Examples:

N + suffix

(1) \( \eta^3 ts\dot{i}^3 \) 女子  “ญุกสรร”  ‘daughter’
(2) \( ts\dot{i}^3 ts\dot{i}^3 \) 妻子  “ภรรยา”  ‘wife’
(3) \( sin^2 ts\dot{i}^3 \) 臣子  “จุนมา”  ‘bureaucrat’
(4) \( jan^4 ts\dot{i}^3 \) 晏子  “จูด”  ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) \( sin^4 ne^3 \) 身子  “ร่างกาย”  ‘body’
(6) \( san^4 ne^3 \) 棋子  “พื้”  ‘fan’
(7) \( lam^2 me^3 \) 盏子  “ตะกร้า”  ‘basket’
(8) \( sam^2 me^3 \) 蟲子  “จั๊กจั่น”  ‘cricket’
(9) \( \eta^2 le^3 \) 魚子  “ปลา”  ‘fish’
(10) \( jap^6 \dot{e}^3 \) 叶子  “ใบไม้”  ‘leaf’
(11) \( lu^2 \dot{e}^3 \) 炉子  “เตา”  ‘stove’
(12) \( laj^4 \dot{e}^2 \) 鑫子  “ฏกษา”  ‘son’
(13) \( sen^1 \dot{e}^3 \) 星子  “ดาว”  ‘star’
(14) \( wo^2 pit^5 \dot{e}^3 \) 禾鶯子  “นกกระจอก”  ‘sparrow’
(15) \( tsa^1 \dot{e}^3 \) 遮子  “ร่ม”  ‘umbrella’
(16) \( p^b an^2 \dot{e}^3 \) 盤子  “จาน”  ‘plate’
(17) \( kuo^3 \dot{e}^3 \) 果子  “ผลไม้”  ‘fruit’
(18) \( t^h u^4 \dot{e}^3 \) 兔子  “กระต่าย”  ‘rabbit’
(19) \( p^b on^1 \dot{e}^3 \) 蚌子  “หอย”  ‘shell’

Suffix ts\dot{i}^3 หรือ \( ?e^2 \) 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 ts\dot{i}^3 or \( ?e^2 \).
Suffix $\text{tsaj}^3$ 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) lian⁴ $\text{tsaj}^3$ 靚仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) lian⁴ $\text{moj}^4$ $\text{tsaj}^3$ 靚妹仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) so² $\text{tsaj}^3$ 傻仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) se⁴ $\text{tsaj}^3$ 细仔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) $\text{moj}^4$ $\text{tsaj}^3$ 妹仔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suffix $\text{ko}^1$ 哥 follows a noun in order to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun + Suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hew² $\text{ko}^1$ 猴哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) wat⁶ $\text{ko}^1$ 鮎哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) ku¹ liaw⁴ $\text{ko}^1$ 乌鹣哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) sa² $\text{ko}^1$ 蛇哥</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) se² lo² $\text{ko}^1$ 蛤螺哥</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 頃 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫡 is used to indicate female.

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