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 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 kiŋ¹ 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 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 'masculino', ma2 'femenino', y kuŋ1 '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 '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</th>
<th>N+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>tsok⁵ pu⁴</td>
<td>桌布</td>
<td>“ผู้ปูโต”</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>table + cloth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>maw¹ kiŋ⁵</td>
<td>毛脚</td>
<td>“รากผม”</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hair + foot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓</td>
<td>“รุ่งกินน้ํา”</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sky + bow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁</td>
<td>“เมล็ดถั่ว”</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bean + seed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>ŋa² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷</td>
<td>“แปรงสีฟัน”</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tooth + brush</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>ŋiet⁶ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>月</td>
<td>“ขนมสำหรับไวพระจันทร์”</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>moon + cake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>tsu³ ŋin²</td>
<td>主人</td>
<td>“เจ้าของบ้าน”</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<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 Adj. + N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) ( p^h )ak(^6) maw(^1)</td>
<td>白毛</td>
<td>‘grey hair’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hon(^2) sam(^1)</td>
<td>寒衫</td>
<td>‘overcoat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) ( p^h )ak(^6) tsuk(^5)</td>
<td>白粥</td>
<td>‘porridge’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tsʰon(^2) tsʰiek(^6)</td>
<td>长席</td>
<td>‘long mat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) saŋ(^1) kuo(^2)</td>
<td>生果</td>
<td>‘fruit’</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 V+N</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hok(^6) kaw(^3)</td>
<td>学校</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hok(^6) tʰon(^2) ha(^1)</td>
<td>学堂 下</td>
<td>‘school’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) son(^4) mieŋ(^4) sin(^1) saŋ(^1)</td>
<td>祝命先生</td>
<td>‘fortune-teller’</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 ŋian³ jin²  脚眼仁  “ต่อมุน” ‘ankle’
    foot + eye + kernel

(2)  kiɔk⁵ tsan⁴ kut⁵  脚踝骨  “ส้นเท้า” ‘heel’
    foot + heel + bone

(3)  fu⁴ tʰew² taj⁴  裤头带  “เข็มขัด” ‘belt’
    trousers + head + belt

(4)  muk⁵ mi² maw¹  目眉毛  “คิ้ว” ‘eyebrow’
    eye + eyebrow + hair

(5)  muk⁵ tsip⁵ maw¹  目汁毛  “ขนตา” ‘eyelashes’
    eye + juice + hair

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

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

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

(1)  pʰa² jì⁴ si³  抓耳屎  “ไม้พ่นตัว” ‘ear picker’
    rake up + ear + excrement

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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) tsiṃ⁴ suj³ 水浸

‘soak’

soak + water

(2) tʰat⁵ ńin² 告人

‘tell obvious lies’

lie + human

(3) kʰon⁴ pʰiaŋ⁴

看病

‘go to see a doctor’

see + illness

(4) laj² tʰien²

犁田

‘to plow’

plow + farmland

(5) lok⁶ fo⁴

落货

‘to carry, to load on (vehicle)’

drop + goods

(6) mi⁴ suj³

潜水

‘to dive’

dive + water

(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰoŋ²

跷床

‘to rise from bed’

“ตื่นได้แล้ว (ลุกจากเตียง)”
get up+ bed

(8) pot ^5 muŋ^4 发梦 ‘to dream’ onium
produce + dream

**Verb + Verb or verb complement**

(1) fat^5 sin^4 发性 ‘angry’ โทนส์
produce + temper
(2) tʰew^l kʰon^4 偷看 ‘to peep’ แอบดู
steal + see
(3) tʰaŋ^1 taw^4 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) tʰaj^4 foŋ^1 大方 ‘magnanimous’ ใจกว้าง
big + locality
(2) haw^3 tʰaŋ^1 好听 ‘melodious’ ไพเราะ
good + hear
(3) haw^3 sit^6 好食 ‘delicious’ อร่อย
good + eat
(4) tʰaj^4 sit^6 太食 ‘greedy’ ตะกละ
greatest + eat
(5) tet^5 ɲin^2 siak^5 得人惜 ‘lovely’ นารัก
gain + human + love
(6) tʰaj^4 saŋ^1 大声 ‘loud’ เสียงดัง
good + 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, 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 ئa³ is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

(1) ئa³ pa¹ 阿爸 “爸爸” ‘father’
(2) ئa³ me¹ 阿姆 “姆” ‘mother’
(3) ئa³ ko¹ 阿哥 “哥哥” ‘older brother’
(4) ئa³ saw³ 阿嫂 “嫂” ‘female in-law’
(5) ئa³ kap⁵ 阿甲 “阿甲 (ชื่อตาม)” ‘name of people’
(6) ئa³ pʰo² 阿婆 “阿婆 (ชื่อตาม)” ‘grandmother’
(7) ئa³ tsi³ 阿姊 “姐姐” ‘older sister’
(8) ئa³ pak⁵ 阿伯 “阿伯” ‘uncle’

Prefix ئan³ is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Examples:

(1) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{kh}^3 \) 恁辛苦  “ลำบากเหลือเกิน”  ‘so difficult’
(2) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tuj}^4 \) 恁对  “พลิกฟื้นเกิน”  ‘so accidental’
(3) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{hiŋ}^3 \) 恁喘  “พึ่งเสีย”  ‘so loud’
(4) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{kh}^3 \text{hiŋ}^3 \text{tsor}^4 \) 恁强壮  “แข็งแกร่งเหลือเกิน”  ‘so strong’
(5) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{tiam}^3 \) 恁恬  “ใจสงบ”  ‘so calm’
(6) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{to}^1 \) 恁多  “มากมายเหลือเกิน”  ‘so much’
(7) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{t}^1 \text{ts}^2\text{hien}^2 \) 恁抵钱  “มีค่าเหลือเกิน”  ‘so precious’
(8) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{th}^1 \text{aj}^4 \) 恁大  “ใหญ่เหลือเกิน”  ‘so big’
(9) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{ts}^2\text{haj}^4 \text{ts}^2\text{haj}^4 \) 恁自在  “อิสระเหลือเกิน”  ‘so free’
(10) \( \text{ʔan}^3 \text{kaw}^1 \) 恁高  “สูงจัง”  ‘so high’

Prefix \( \text{law}^3 \) 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) \( \text{law}^3 \text{p}^1\text{ho}^2 \) 老婆  “ภรรยา”  ‘wife’
(2) \( \text{law}^3 \text{njin}^2 \) 老人  “คนแก่”  ‘old people’
(3) \( \text{law}^3 \text{pak}^5 \) 老伯  “พี่เลี้ยง”  ‘elderly’
(4) \( \text{law}^3 \text{kuŋ}^1 \) 老公  “สามี”  ‘husband’
(5) \( \text{law}^3 \text{th}^1\text{aj}^1 \) 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  “รอบคอบ”  ‘careful’
(9) \( \text{law}^3 \text{sin}^1 \text{saŋ}^1 \) 老先生  “คุณครูอาวุโส”  ‘old teacher’

Prefix \( \text{law}^4 \) 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 “หนู” ‘rat’

Prefix uffix 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) m̩² kian⁴ 唔见 “ไม่ + หัน = หาย” ‘lose’
   not + see
(2) m̩² laŋ² li⁴ 唔伶俐 “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก” ‘dirty’
   not + bright
(3) m̩² tʰuŋ³ 唔同 “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(4) m̩² pʰiaŋ² 唔平 “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ” ‘rough’
   not + flat
(5) m̩² tsʰiŋ¹ tsʰi³ 唔清楚 “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเคลือ” ‘vague’
   not + clear
(6) m̩² jaŋ² 唔嬴 “ไม่ + ชนะ = เท่า” ‘to be defeated’
   not + win
(7) m̩² jit⁵ joŋ⁴ 唔一样 “ไม่ + เท่า = แตกต่าง” ‘different’
   not + same
(8) m̩² woj⁴ nan² 唔会难 “ไม่ + อาย = ง่าย” ‘easy’
   not + difficult
(9) m̩² 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 “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 鈞 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix ma² 嬰 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 嬰 “ไก่"," เจ้า” ‘hen’
  chicken + suffix (female)

³ Literary language.
(2) ŋiw² ma² 牛 嫩 “วัวแม่” ‘cow’
cow + suffix (female)
(3) kew³ ma² 狗 嫩 “หมาแม่” ‘female dog’
dog + suffix (female)
(4) ?ap⁵ ma² 鸭 嫩 “เป็ดแม่” ‘female duck’
duck + suffix (female)
(5) ηoŋ⁴ ma² 懶 嫩 “คนบ้า (เพศหญิง)” ‘a women who is mad’
mad + suffix (female)
(6) ke¹ ku³ 鸡 觀 “ไก่ตัวผู้” ‘cock’
chicken + suffix (male)
(7) ŋiw² ku³ 牛 觀 “วัวตัวผู้” ‘ox’
ox + suffix (male)
(8) kew³ ku³ 狗 觀 “หมาตัวผู้” ‘male dog’
dog + suffix (male)
(9) ηoŋ⁴ ku³ 懶 觀 “คนบ้า (เพศชาย)” ‘madman’
mad + suffix (male)
(10) ?ap⁵ kuŋ¹ 鴨 公 “เป็ดตัวผู้” ‘male duck’
duck + suffix (male)
(11) ke¹ kuŋ¹ 雞 公 “ไก่ตัวผู้” ‘cock’
chicken + suffix (male)

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

Examples:
(1) kiŋ¹ ma² 姜 嫩 “ชี” ‘ginger’
(2) taw¹ ma² 刀 嫩 “มีดตัวผู้” ‘kitchen chopper’
(3) li² ma² 笠 嫩 “ตะน้า” ‘a bamboo hat’
(4) set⁵ ma² 虱 嫩 “กิ้ว” ‘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 蚊公 “แมลง” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 “กุ้ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san¹ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมงป่อง” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 蟻公 “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 頸姑 “หนวด” ‘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:
N + suffix
(1) wuk⁵ ha¹ (kʰua¹) 屋下 “(ที่) บ้าน” ‘(at) house’
(2) ?am¹ ha¹ 廟下 “(ที่) วัด” ‘(at) temple’
(3) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹ 学堂下 “(ที่) โรงเรียน” ‘(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:

\[ \text{N + suffix ʔe² 里} \]

(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) th⁴oj² ʔe² 袋里 “กระเป๋า” ‘in a bag’
(6) ho² ʔe² 河里 “แม่นา” ‘in a river’
(7) th⁴ien² ne² 田里 “นา” ‘in a rice field’
(8) san³ ʔe² 山里 “ภูเขา” ‘in a valley’
(9) wok⁶ ʔe² 鍋里 “กระทะ” ‘in a pan’
(10) su⁴ lim² me² 树林里 “ป่า” ‘in a forest’
(11) su³ ʔe² 水里 “น้ำ” ‘in water’

Suffix th⁵ew² 头 has a literary meaning of “head” but when it follows a noun, its function changes to complete a noun morpheme.

Examples:

\[ \text{N + suffix th⁵ew² 头} \]

(1) kut⁵ th⁵ew² 骨头 “กระดูก” ‘bone’
(2) njit⁵ th⁵ew² 日头 “พระอาทิตย์” ‘sun’
(3) kuon⁴ th⁵ew² 罐头 “กระป๋อง” ‘tin, canister’
(4) kin¹ th⁵ew² 肩头 “หัวไหล่” ‘shoulder’
(5) kik⁵ th⁵ew² 锤头 “จ้อม” ‘hoe’
(6) wok⁶ th⁵ew² 锅头 “กระทะ” ‘pan’
Examples:

N + suffix

(1) η³ tsi³ 女子 “ก๊กสาว” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰi³ tsi³ 妻子 “ก๊กยาย” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsi³ 臣子 “ก๊กแง่ม์” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsi³ 晕子 “ก๊ก” ‘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 蟑子 “จั๊กจั่น” ‘cricket’
(9) ɲ² le³ 鱼子 “ปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap⁶ ṭe³ 叶子 “ใบไม้” ‘leaf’
(11) lu² ṭe³ 炉子 “เตา” ‘stove’
(12) laj⁴ ṭe² 藪子 “ลูกชาย” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ṭe³ 星子 “ดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit⁵ ṭe³ 禾鶴子 “นกกระจอก” ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa¹ ṭe³ 隙子 “ร่ม” ‘umbrella’
(16) pʰan² ṭe³ 盘子 “จาน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ṭe³ 果子 “ผลไม้” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu⁴ ṭe³ 兔子 “กระต่าย” ‘rabbit’
(19) pʰon¹ ṭe³ 蝌子 “หอย” ‘shell’

Suffix tsi³ หรือ ṭe² 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 ṭe².
Suffix tsajʰ ไต๋ 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 tsaj³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) lian⁴ moj⁴ tsaj³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) so² tsaj³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) se⁴ tsaj³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) moj⁴ tsaj³</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ko¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hew²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) wat⁶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) wu¹ liaw⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) sa²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) se² lo²</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 駙 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 麥 is used to indicate female.

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