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 kiŋ ma ‘ginger’ and haŋ kuŋ ‘shrimp’.

Keywords  
affixation, prefixes, suffixes, compound words, Hakka

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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, que se utiliza con los términos de parentesco o de dirección. Los sufijos más interesantes se utilizan con el género de los animales (ku1, ‘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, ‘jengibre’ 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 ‘father’s brother and father’s father = god of land’ and mien⁴ sam¹ ‘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>‘ผู้ใหญ่’</td>
<td>‘table cloth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) maw¹ kiok⁵</td>
<td>毛脚</td>
<td>‘รากผม’</td>
<td>‘hair root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) tʰien¹ kiŋ¹</td>
<td>天弓</td>
<td>‘รุ้งคินน้ํา’</td>
<td>‘rainbow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tʰew⁴ jin²</td>
<td>豆仁</td>
<td>‘เมล็ดถั่ว’</td>
<td>‘bean seed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ŋa² sot⁵</td>
<td>牙刷</td>
<td>‘แปรงสีฟัน’</td>
<td>‘a toothbrush’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ŋiet⁵ piaŋ⁴</td>
<td>月</td>
<td>‘ขนมสำหรับไวพระจันทร์’</td>
<td>‘moon cake’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) tsu³ ŋin³</td>
<td>主人</td>
<td>‘เจ้าของบ้าน’</td>
<td>‘owner of the house’</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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) pʰak⁶ maw¹</td>
<td>白毛 “ผมขาว” grey hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hon² sam¹</td>
<td>寒衫 “เสื้อคลุมกันหนาว” overcoat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cold + coat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) pʰak⁶ tsuk⁵</td>
<td>白粥 “ข้าวต้ม” porridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>white + porridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) tsʰon² tsʰiek⁶</td>
<td>长席 “เสี่ยง” long mat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>long + mat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) saŋ¹ kuo²</td>
<td>生果 “ผลไม” fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>raw + 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.

### Verb + Noun → Noun or V+N → N

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) hok⁶ kaw³</td>
<td>学校² “โรงเรียน” school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) hok⁶ tʰon² ha¹</td>
<td>学堂 下 “โรงเรียน” school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>study + room for specific purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) son⁴ mieŋ⁴ sin¹ saŋ¹</td>
<td>祀命先生 “หมอ” fortune-teller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tell one’s fortune + teacher/master</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Literary language.
(4) soj⁴ muk⁵ fon⁷ 醫目房 “ห้องนอน” ‘bedroom’
sleep + room

(5) saŋ¹ ŋit⁵ 生日 “วันเกิด” ‘birthday’
birth + day

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) kiŋ⁵ ɲia² ɲin² 脚眼仁 “ต้นมือ” ‘ankle’
foot + eye + kernel

(2) kiŋ⁵ tsan⁴ kut⁵ 脚趾骨 “ต้นเท้า” ‘heel’
foot + heel + bone

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

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

(5) muk⁵ tsɨp⁵ maw¹ 目汁毛 “บ่าย” ‘eyelashes’
eye + juice + hair

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

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

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

(1) pʰa² ɲi⁴ si⁵ 扒耳屎 “ไม่เอาเถ้า” ‘ear picker’
rake up + ear + excrement
Verb + Verb + Noun $\rightarrow$ Noun or V + V + N $\rightarrow$ N

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

Noun + Verb + Noun $\rightarrow$ Noun หรือ N + V + N N $\rightarrow$

(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) tsi⁴ m⁴ suj³ 浸水 ‘soak’ "แชจุม"
sink + water

(2) tʰat⁵ ɲin² 告人 ‘tell obvious lies’ "โกหก"
lie + human

(3) kʰon⁴ pʰian⁴ 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 (ve-"หมดแล้วล้มตัว")
drop + goods hicles, animals' back)

(6) mi⁴ suj³ 潜水 ‘to dive’ "ลับน้ำ"
dive + water

(7) hoŋ⁴ tsʰoŋ² 跳床 ‘to rise from bed’ "ตื่นได้แล้ว (ตกจากเตียง)”
Verb + Verb or verb complement

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

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

(3) tʰaŋ\(^1\) taw\(^4\)  
    ‘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\(^1\)  
    ‘magnanimous’  
    ใจกว้าง
    big + locality

(2) haw\(^3\) tʰaŋ\(^1\)  
    ‘melodious’  
    ไพเราะ
    good + hear

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

(4) tʰaj\(^4\) sit\(^6\)  
    ‘greedy’  
    ตะกละ
    greatest + eat

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

(6) tʰaj\(^4\) saŋ\(^1\)  
    ‘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 ?a¹ 阿 is a prefix used with kinship terms and person names to identify a closed relationship or to express intimacy with somebody.

Examples:

(1) ?a¹ pa¹ 阿爸 “父” ‘father’
(2) ?a¹ me¹ 阿妈 “母” ‘mother’
(3) ?a¹ ko¹ 阿哥 “兄” ‘older brother’
(4) ?a¹ saw³ 阿嫂 “嫂” ‘female in-law’
(5) ?a¹ kap⁵ 阿甲 “甲 (祖先)” ‘name of people’
(6) ?a¹ pʰo² 阿婆 “婆” ‘grandmother’
(7) ?a¹ tsi³ 阿姊 “姊” ‘older sister’
(8) ?a¹ pak⁵ 阿伯 “伯” ‘uncle’

Prefix ?an³ 恒 is placed before verbs or adjectives in order to emphasize a stronger meaning than normal.
Prefix 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) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ sî}^1 \text{ k\'u}^3 \) 老婆 “老婆” ‘wife’
(2) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ t\'uj}^4 \) 老人 “老人家” ‘old people’
(3) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ p\'ak}^5 \) 老伯 “老人家” ‘elderly’
(4) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ k\'u}^1 \) 老公 “妹” ‘husband’
(5) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ t\'aj}^1 \) 老弟 “弟” ‘younger brother’
(6) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ moj}^4 \) 老妹 “妹” ‘younger sister’
(7) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ sî}^6 \) 老实 “老实” ‘honest’
(8) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ sî}^2 \) 老成 “老成” ‘careful’
(9) \( \text{law}^3 \text{ sî}^1 \text{ saj}^1 \) 老先生 “老先生” ‘old teacher’
Examples:

(1) law⁴ haj³  老蟹  “ปู”  ‘crab’
(2) law⁴ fu³  老虎  “เสือ”  ‘tiger’
(3) law⁴ tsʰu³  老鼠  “หนู”  ‘rat’

Prefix ʔ.pi² 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) ʔ.pi² kian⁴  唔见  “ไม่ + เห็น = หาย”  ‘lose’
     not + see
(2) ʔ.pi² lan⁴ li⁴  唔伶俐  “ไม่ + สะอาด = สกปรก”  ‘dirty’
     not + bright
(3) ʔ.pi² tʰuŋ³  唔同  “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง”  ‘different’
     not + same
(4) ʔ.pi² pʰian²  唔平  “ไม่ + เรียบ = ขรุขระ”  ‘rough’
     not + flat
(5) ʔ.pi² tsʰiŋ1 tsʰi³  唔清楚  “ไม่ + ชัดเจน = คลุมเคลือ”  ‘vague’
     not + clear
(6) ʔ.pi² jaŋ²  唔赢  “ไม่ + ชนะ = แพ้”  ‘to be defeated’
     not + win
(7) ʔ.pi² jit⁵ joŋ⁴  唔一样  “ไม่ + เหมือน = แตกต่าง”  ‘different’
     not + same
(8) ʔ.pi² woj⁴ nan²  唔会难  “ไม่ + ยาก = ง่าย”  ‘easy’
     not + difficult
(9) ʔ.pi² ki⁴ tet⁵  唔记得  “ไม่ + จำได้ = 忘”  ‘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 “มี โรค = ป่วย” ‘sick’
   have + disease
(3) jiw¹ mian² 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 鈺 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male, while suffix ma² 嫂 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 嫂 “ไก่แม่” ‘hen’
   chicken + suffix (female)
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 嫚  “ชี”  ‘ginger’

(2) \( taw^1 ma^2 \)  
刀 嫚  “มีด”  ‘kitchen chopper’

(3) \( li^2 ma^2 \)  
笠 嫚  “กระ”  ‘a bamboo hat’

(4) \( set^5 ma^2 \)  
虱 嫚  “โร”  ‘louse’
Suffix kuŋ¹ has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) ni² kuŋ¹ 蚂公 “มา” ‘ant’
(2) ha² kuŋ¹ 蝦公 “กุ้ง” ‘shrimp’
(3) san¹ ha² kuŋ¹ 山蝦公 “แมงป่อง” ‘scorpion’
(4) hian³ kuŋ¹ 蠻公 “ไสเดือน” ‘earthworm’

Suffix ku³ has a meaning that is sometimes not related to gender but it is used to complete a noun.

Examples:
(1) si¹ ku³ 須姑 “หนวด” ‘moustache’
(2) nen⁴ ku³ 乳姑 “เต้านม” ‘breast’

Suffix ha¹, 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</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ʔam¹ ha¹ 庵下</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) hok⁶ tʰoŋ² ha¹ 学堂下</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:

\[ N + \text{suffix ʔe}² \text{ 里} \]

(1) ka¹ ʔe²  
家里  “ ในบ้าน”  ‘in a house’

(2) sim¹ (tu¹)ʔe²  
心肚里  “ ในใจ”  ‘in a heart’

(3) su³ ʔe²  
手里  “ ในมือ”  ‘in a hand’

(4) san² ʔe²  
城里  “ ในเมือง”  ‘in the city’

(5) tʰoj⁴ ʔe²  
袋里  “ ในกระเป๋า”  ‘in a bag’

(6) ho² ʔe²  
河里  “ ในแม่น้ำ”  ‘in a river’

(7) tʰien² ne²  
田里  “ ในนา”  ‘in a rice field’

(8) san³ ʔe²  
山里  “ ในป่า”  ‘in a forest’

(9) wok⁶ ʔe²  
锅里  “ ในหุง”  ‘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:

\[ N + \text{suffix tʰew}² \text{ 头} \]

(1) kut⁵ tʰew²  
骨头  “ กระดูก”  ‘bone’

(2) ŋit⁵ tʰew²  
日头  “ พระอาทิตย์”  ‘sun’

(3) kuon⁴ tʰew²  
罐头  “ กระป๋อง”  ‘tin, canister’

(4) kin¹ tʰew²  
肩头  “ หัวไหล่”  ‘shoulder’

(5) kiok⁵ tʰew²  
锄头  “ จ้อม”  ‘hoe’

(6) wok⁶ tʰew²  
锅头  “ กระทะ”  ‘pan’
Examples:

(7) sak⁶ tʰew² 石头 “หิน” ‘stone’
(8) pu³ tʰew² 斧头 “ฆวน” ‘axe’
(9) tsem¹ tʰew² 砧头 “เจง” ‘chopping block’
(10) tsim³ tʰew² 枕头 “หมอน” ‘pillow’

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.

N + suffix

(1) η³ tsi³ 女子 “กําลี้” ‘daughter’
(2) tsʰi³ tsi³ 娘 “กําหล่” ‘wife’
(3) sin² tsi³ 臣子 “กํานมา” ‘bureaucrat’
(4) jan⁴ tsi³ 晏子 “กําจ” ‘diplomatic agent’
(5) sin¹ ne³ 身子 “กํางกาย” ‘body’
(6) san⁴ ne³ 扇子 “กําด” ‘fan’
(7) lam² me³ 盧子 “กํะกํา” ‘basket’
(8) sam² me³ 蟑子 “กําจิ้น” ‘cricket’
(9) η² le³ 魚子 “กําปลา” ‘fish’
(10) jap⁶ ?e³ 叶子 “กําใบ” ‘leaf’
(11) lu² ?e³ 炉子 “กําเต้า” ‘stove’
(12) laj⁴ ?e² 直子 “กําจะ” ‘son’
(13) sen¹ ?e3 星子 “กําดาว” ‘star’
(14) wo² pit³ ?e³ 禾鶉子 “กํากระจาด’ ‘sparrow’
(15) tsa¹ ?e³ 遮子 “กําม” ‘umbrella’
(16) pʰan² ?e³ 盘子 “กําผน” ‘plate’
(17) kuo³ ?e³ 果子 “กําผลไม” ‘fruit’
(18) tʰu⁴ ?e³ 兔子 “กํากระดาษ” ‘rabbit’
(19) pʰonⁱ ?e³ 蟹子 “กําเพื่อง” ‘shell’
Suffix 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 "หนุ่มเข็ม” ‘handsome man’
(2) lian^4 moj^4 tsaj^3 靚妹仔 "สาวนะ” ‘beautiful girl’
(3) so^2 tsaj^3 傻仔 "หนูน้อย” ‘stupid man’
(4) se^4 tsaj^3 细仔 "เด็กชาย” ‘boy’
(5) moj^4 tsaj^3 妹仔 "เด็กหญิง” ‘girl’

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 鰤哥 "ปลาดุก” ‘catfish’
(3) wu^1 liaw^4 ko^1 乌鹩哥 "นกขุนทอง” ‘grackle’
(4) sa^2 ko^1 蛇哥 "งู” ‘snake’
(5) se^2 lo^2 ko^1 蛞蜞哥 "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 鈴 and kuŋ¹ 公 are used to indicate male while suffix ma² 嫂 is used to indicate female.

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