A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ENGLISH AND URDU AFFIXES

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ABSTRACT

This research is an endeavour to compare the affixes of both English and Urdu languages. The researcher's intention is to distinguish those categories of affixes that show similarities in both the languages. Comparison between the two languages is made throughout the research. Though English and Urdu are totally different languages, but their grammars enjoy some similarities, which help in terms of comparative study. Word formation or lexical morphology is a type of morphology and affixation is a process of word-formation, which plays an important part in any language. New words are being created every day and it is mostly because of affixation. This process also shows the flexibility and richness of a language, that how English and Urdu have borrowed affixes of foreign origin and how they are used so commonly with native words in such a way that they seem to be the part of that language. In this research prefixes, infixes and suffixes, which form nouns, adjectives and verbs, are being discussed in detail. Moreover, the researcher has selected only those affixes, which are used commonly. There are also a number of dead affixes, which are no longer used to create new words. But only living and productive affixes are being mentioned in this research. Examples are drawn not only from English and Urdu, but other languages as well, for instance, Persian, Hindi, Turkish and Arabic, to make some aspects and terms clear and understandable.

INTRODUCTION

The present research is related to 'A Comparative Study of English and Urdu Affixes’. Due to the limited time, the researcher is concerned only with the morphological analysis of English and Urdu affixes. Language can be studied at least two points of view: its use or its structure language structure is the concern of linguistics. Linguistics is the science of language and it covers various aspects of language. e.g. phonetics, grammar and semantics. The study of grammar is important in order to know, how language works. There are two possible approaches in studying grammar. Either to start with the sentences and come down progressively to the smallest units, or to start with the smallest units and work up to the sentences. Most traditional grammarians follow the second approach and they divide grammar into three parts:

(1) Phonology          (2) Morphology          (3) Syntax (Liles, 1972)
Basically, the history of Western grammar began with the ancient Greeks described the structure of the language. Then the Romans stepped into this grammatical tradition and they translated Greek names for the parts of speech and grammatical endings into Latin, some of which are still found in modern grammar (e.g. nominative, accusative etc). But the Greeks and Roman grammarians were unable to explain how languages are related to one another. Some grammarians tried to establish the differences or similarities in words and word order in various languages. It gave rise to comparative grammar which became the dominant approach to linguistic science in the 19th century.

In the present research, only one aspect of grammar, that is Morphology is being discussed, as the topic, is related to this field. Different linguists define morphology in different ways. According to P.H. Matthews: 'Morphology is simply a term for that branch of linguistics which is concerned "with the forms of words" in different uses and construction' (1991, p 3). 'Morphology is the study of morphemes, which are made up of phonemes' (Liles, 1972,. p. 141). John Lyons defines morphology in these words: 'Morphology deals with the internal structure of word-forms' (1968, p. 194). Frank Palmer says: 'Morphology is essentially the grammar of words and deals with the forms of words' (1984, p 99).

So, morphology accounts for the internal structure of words. Morphology can be divided into two main branches.

(i) Inflectional morphology
(ii) Lexical morphology or word-formation

Inflectional morphology deals with the use of morphemes that can change grammatical function. While 'lexical morphology deals with the formation of new lexemes from given bases' (Bauer, 1983, p.33).

1.1 History of Word-Formation

The grammar of Sanskrit language is the earliest extant grammar, which was compiled by the Indian grammarian Panini. This analysis of Sanskrit language showed how words are formed and what parts of words carry meaning. Present-day knowledge regarding word-formation shows little advance on Panini's. In fact the early years of 20th century show a lack of interest sin morphology, while a great surge in linguistic studies showed itself. A de Saussure's distinction between synchrony and diachrony had a profound effect on linguistic studies. This distinction made the study of word-formation impossible, where synchrony and diachrony are considered together.
American structuralism had not been interested in word-formation. Its main interest had been in units smaller than words. While Transformational Generative grammar, which came into vogue later, had been interested in the structure of phrases and sentences.

With the publication of Chomsky (1970), the study of word-formation became important. At the same time a number of works on word-formation by different scholars came to the forefront. The study of word-formation is in a constant change and flux. It is at the same time expanding. Researchers are introducing new theories and viewpoints and they are trying to blend synchrony and diachrony, morphology and phonology, syntax and semantics (Bauer, 1983).

So, from the time of Panini, linguists have been trying to explore new facts of this field. After the analysis of Sanskrit, linguists started to analyze the classical languages of the West in this light. After their interest and understanding of other languages they found it necessary to group the languages into different types. Languages are classified genetically as well as typologically. A genetic classification assumes that certain languages are related to one another, as they have evolved from a common ancestral language. While typological classification takes into account the similarities in language structure. Typological classification include two types:

(i) Lexical typology   (ii) Grammatical typology

Lexical typology is based on similarities in vocabulary structure. Grammatical typology is, on the other hand, based on the grammar of a language. According to Jean Aitchison (1986. p.64) each language has different number of morphemes per word and also a different way of combining morphemes within a word. On the basis of this criterion, in the beginning of the 19th century, linguists tried to group the world's languages into three different morphological or typological categories.

(1) Isolating or analytical languages
(2) Agglutinating languages
(3) Fusional or flectional languages

In isolating languages words usually consist of single morpheme, like Chinese in which each meaning has a different, its own word. The relationship between the words can be seen through the word order. English is an isolating language, for example.

'Will you please let the dog out now.'
It is a request and if the word order is changed, like,

‘You will let the dog out now.’
The sentence is changed into an order or command. In agglutinating languages, words are not fused together and they can be easily divided into morphemes. For example is Turkish, which has:

- Av (house)
- Avda (in the house)
- Avlar (houses)
- Avlarda (in the houses)

A fusional or flectional language is one in which morphemes are fused together in such a way that they cannot be separated and each word seems a whole in itself but it is possible to have a range of different meanings. For example, the inflection 'us' at the end of the Latin word 'Taurus' indicates three qualities that a) it is masculine b) singular c) subject of the sentence. But it is not possible to separate these three aspects.

Some linguists include another type in this typology that is 'Incorporating Languages'. An incorporating language is one in which direct objects, indirect objects and other elements of a sentence like subject, tense etc, are incorporated into the verb as one word. For example, in Swahili:

Hatukuiwanunulia

Which means, 'We did not buy them for them’. It looks like one word but its components are:

- ha (negative)
- tu (we)
- ku (indicator of past)
- vi (them, objects)
- wa (them, meaning people)
- nunulia (buy for)

This classification of languages is out of date because no language purely fits into one morphological category. A language like English is isolating in one way or agglutinating in another way.

English is an isolating language in a way that word — order has primary importance in it, and it also uses 'agglutination' in a limited way. For example, in words such as:

lov-ing-ly faith-ful-ness

As far as Urdu language is concerned it has mixed morphological processes. Just like English, it is an isolating language, in which word order is given importance. For example:

Rahat nay kitāb parhi

If the word order of this sentence is changed, then it will make no sense.

Kitāb parhi nay Rahat

While in Latin, which is a fusional language, if the word order of a sentence is changed, the sentence will not lose its meaning.
‘Nero interfacti Aggripinum’

has the same meaning as this sentence

‘Aggripinum interfacit Nero’

Urdu language is neither agglutinating nor fusional, in the sense as Latin is. Urdu fits in the category of isolating languages, but at the same time it is an inflectional language in which the word can change its meaning, form and function if extra morphemes or affixes are added to the root or stem of the word. Urdu morphology and syntax is simple with only two genders and two basic noun cases; but it has a complex verb system.

1.2 Processes of word-formation

In English there are three ways through which a new word can be made:

Composition

Which means to join together two existing words to form a compound. For example

\[ \text{tea} + \text{pot} \rightarrow \text{teapot} \]

Derivation or Affixation

Through which a new word is made out of an old one by means of adding some prefix or suffix which is not a word in itself, but plays an important role in combination.

For example,

\[ \text{re} + \text{birth} \rightarrow \text{national} \]

Conversion

Which means to change the word class of a base without changing its form. For example, ‘zero affixation’ in drive V and drive N. Similarly, in sheep singular and sheep plural the same three processes of word-formation can be found in Urdu language as well.

Composition or Compounding

Which means the addition of one base to another. For example,

\[ \text{گھر بار} \rightarrow \text{Jān pehchān} \]

\[ \text{رگڑا جھگڑा} \rightarrow \text{ragra jhagra} \]

\[ \text{چچ پچچ} \rightarrow \text{chup chap} \]

\[ \text{جب بار} \rightarrow \text{ghar bār} \]

There are different ways of combining two roots to make a compound word in Urdu. Sometimes there is the addition of \( \text{و} \) (wao) between the two bases. For example,

\[ \text{امیر و غرب} \rightarrow \text{Ranj-o-alam} \]

\[ \text{باغ و بار} \rightarrow \text{subh-o-shām} \]

\[ \text{زین و عام} \rightarrow \text{bāgh-o-bahār} \]

\[ \text{امیر و غرب} \rightarrow \text{ameer-o-ghareeb} \]
Affixation or Derivation

Affixation or derivation can or cannot change the word class and meaning of the word. For example, the word (ﺭﺍﺟہ rāja) is a noun, and after the addition of the prefix (ﻣﮩﺎ maha) it remains noun. While with the addition of the suffix (ﻧﺎک nāk) in (ﺧﻮﻑ ﻥﺎک khouf nāk) it changes the word (ﺧﻮﻑ khouf) from a noun to an adjective.

Conversion

In conversion the form of the word remains the same, while the base of the word changes its class. For example, the word (بﻮﻟﯽ boli) in:


who jānwaron ki boli samajhti he

is used as a noun, while in the second sentence, (بﻮﻟﯽ boli) is used as a verb.


who oonchi āwāz mein boli

Similarly, there are some words in Urdu, which retain their form in some particular. For example, the word (ﻣﺮﺩ mard) is used as singular as well as plural in both these sentences.


chār mard kamray mei dākhil howay

in aurton kei sāth eik mard jā’i ga

But there are some cases in which (ﻣﺮﺩ mard) can be used as a plural noun the addition of the suffix (ﺭں aun) to the base. For example,


in mardaun nay āj hi wāpis jāna he

Same is the case with some other words as (ﻗﻠﻢ kalam), (ﺩﻩﻮﻝ dhol), (ﮔﻬﺮ ghar), (بﺎپ bāp), (ﺟﺎنﻮﺭ jānwar). It is clear through the observation of the rules of singular and plural of Urdu that it is possible to assign the suffix (ﺭں aun) to the majority of nouns of Urdu, to make them plural in certain circumstances. These rules will be discussed later in chapter four.

After having discussed the types and rules of word-formation, it is important to note that these rules are important, in order to study the grammar, for two reasons. First one is that, it is easy to recognize the grammatical class of a word by its structure. For example, the word 'creation' can be easily recognized as a noun because it ends in the suffix '-ions'. Similarly, in Urdu the word (ﺩﺭﺩ dard angez) is an adjective because the suffix (ﺍﻧﮓز angez) added to it. The second reason is that,
these rules make us to realize that the application of grammatical rules is flexible in the sense that the native speaker of any language may transfer words from one class to another class. Either with the use of affixes or without them (Leech, Svartvik, 1972, p. 976).

Basically, the purpose of this research is,

1. To observe closely the rules of word-formation of both English and Urdu languages.
2. To give an insight into the rules of Arabic, Hindi and Persian word-formation, as it is known that Hindi and Urdu are actually slightly different dialects of the same language.
   The main difference between the two languages actually lies in their vocabulary sources, scripts and religious traditions.

   Urdu has many words of Arabid and Persian origin and is written in Persian-Arabic script. Similarly, English has different periods of development and evolution. For example, Old English period, Middle English period and Modern English period. English has many words of other languages, like, Latin, Greek and French. The words which are borrowed from these languages, usually, follow the rules of these languages in word-formation, especially in derivation or affixation.

This research consists of 'Introduction', which deals with morphology, its types and word-formation, its history and its processes. The second chapter 'Literature Review' is related to the various terms and their definitions, supported by references and examples. The results and conclusion are discussed in the last chapter.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Grammar is a vast field of linguistics and a large number of linguists have been trying to explore new facts of this field for the past centuries. The study of parts of grammar, including morpho-phonology, morphology and syntax, is important in order to study the history of any language:

   English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. It is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language and by more people than any other except Chinese. It has periods of evolution, Old English period. Middle English period and Modern English period. Old English was highly synthetic or inflected, while a shift towards a more analytic structure can be found in Middle English. Modern English is analytic or relatively uninflected. During the early part of the Modern English period, vocabulary was enlarged as a result of the use of one part of speech for another. English had borrowed many words from other languages, e.g. Renaissance brought many new words into English from Greek and Latin.

   As far as Urdu is concerned, it is a national language of Pakistan and is virtually identical to Hindi. Urdu vocabulary differs from Hindi as it has adopted many words from Persian and Arabic. It
basically started to diverge from Hindi in 16th century when Islam spread in India and spread widely during the reign of mughal emperors in sub-continent.

The history of the two languages shows the flexibility and richness of English and Urdu, that how they have evolved from a variety of different languages. Word-formation forms a major part of morphology and the present research is primarily about ‘derivation’ in both Urdu and English languages. As morphology deals with the study of morphemes, so it is better to start with morpheme and work up progressively to the types of morphemes and their further subdivision. According to "Frank Palmer" (1984, p. 99)

"Morpheme is a linguistic form that bears no partial phonetic, semantic resemblance to any other form."

Morpheme can be divided into:

A morpheme which can occur alone, independently, is called a 'Free morpheme' or a root, e.g. cat, man, go, live, etc. However, a 'Bound morpheme' is one, which can only occur in a word — form with at least one other morpheme. E.g. the 's' in “Cats" cannot occur independently. It represents the plural bound morpheme and it must be added to a root or base. Root, stem and base are different terms used for that part of word which remains when all affixes have been removed.
Root

A root is a basic part of a word which cannot be further analysed when all affixes either derivational or inflectional are removed. It always remains present in a lexeme and generally has a clear meaning, e.g. in the word 'unrecognizable'; 'un' is a prefix while 'able' is a suffix added to a root 'recognize'. Similarly in compound words it is possible to have more than one root, e.g. wheel chair, football etc.

Stem

The term stem is used in case of inflectional morphology. When all inflectional suffixes are removed, what remains behind is called a stem. For example, in the word 'agreements', 'agreement' is a stem, and in the word-form 'agreed', 'agree' is a stem. In the case of compound words like teapots, footballs, the stems are teapot and football, though they contain two roots.

Base

A base is a central part of word without prefixes and suffixes. Any root or stem can alternatively be called a base.

2.1. Affixes

An element which is added to a word is known as affix and the process, involved, is called affixation. Affixation can be defined by two characteristics. Firstly, the resultant form which is called a derived form-will consist of the base, the form to which the operation is applied-plus an additional morpheme. e.g. 'touchable' consists of the base 'touch' and the derivational morpheme 'able'. Secondly, the additional morpheme (the affix) will be constant; it will remain the same whatever the base is to the operation is applied (Matthews. 1991)

Affixes are divided into these categories:

2.1.1 Prefixes

'A prefix is a syllable or syllables put at the beginning of another word to change its meaning-to make another word' (Dale. Glanze (contr.) 1981, p.28).

e.g.  de + frost.

2.1.2 Suffixes

'A suffix is an element which is added after the base, sometimes without, but more usually with, a change of word class' (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik. 1985.p.1520)

e.g. nation + al

2.1.3 Infixes

An infix is a form which is usually attached inside a base (Bauer, 1983). Infixation is unknown in English, and quite rare throughout Indo-European. Non-Indo-European languages have
infixation. For example, in Tagalog, /Pi:lit/ means 'effort' and with the insertion of /um-/ it becomes /Pumi:lit/ which means 'one who is compelled'. Similarly, in Bontoc, 'fikas' means 'strong' and 'fum-ikas' means 'he is becoming strong'. 'um' is an infix which is being inserted inside the word.

As infixes are not found in English, but the nearest of this are the internal changes like take — took, goose — geese.

Urdu language has a limited number of infixes, for example, ﺍﮨﻞ (alif) and و (wao) in the plurals.

\[
\text{wafd, wafood, tasveer, tasāveer}
\]

Infixed are also found in playful construction such as 'abso-bleeding-lutely'.

In all the processes of affixation, either prefixation, suffixation or infixation, the derived form consists of the base and an additional morpheme. In infixation, infix is inserted between the word, it breaks the internal structure of the word. While in prefixation or suffixation the base retains its structure (Matthews, 1991, p. 133).

English prefixes are bound morphemes, while suffixes are bound as well as free morphemes. While in Urdu language both suffixes and prefixes are bound as well as free morphemes. For example the prefix ﺍﮨﻞ (ehel) in ﺍﮨﻞ ﻧﻈﺮ (ehl-e-nazar), ﺍﮨﻞ ﮨﻤﺖ (ehl-e-himm) and ﺍﮨﻞ ﮨﻤﺖ (ehl-e-himm) are morphemes, for they can be used independently. Similarly suffix ﭽﺴﻨﺪ (pasand) in ﭽﺴﻨﺪ ﮕﺴﺎﺗ (zada) is free and ﭽﺴﻨﺪ تﺮﻗﯽ (taraqi pasand) is free and ﭽﺴﻨﺪ (zada) in ﭽﺴﻨﺪ ﮕﺴﺎﺗ (zada) and ﭽﺴﻨﺪ (zada) is a bound morpheme.

Affixes are divided on the basis of their position and their grammatical value. So they are categorized as:

(i) Inflectional suffixes
(ii) Derivational affixes.

2.1.2.1 Inflectional suffixes

‘The bound forms which occur with one form class or another, and which indicate the grammatical relationships of the form classes to the rest of an utterance, constitute the inflection of a language’ (Hall, 1967, p. 145).

Inflectional suffixes are used to define any part of speech class in a language. Modern English is relatively uninflected language. Inflectional suffixes are used to express such features as plurality, possession, past tense, third person singular and aspect.

Plurality : hens
Possession : Jane’s
Past tense : played
Third person Singular : plays
Progressive: coming
Perfective: taken
Comparative: darker
Superlative: darkest

The chief purpose of inflection is to fit that word, with which they occur into the grammatical class of the language. For example, the stems with which plural and possessive inflections are attached belong to the 'noun class' and the stems which occur with progressive, -ing, perfective, -en or -n, past tense inflection —ed, and third personsingular —s belong to the 'verb class'. Similarly, the suffixes —er and —est indicate that the stem belongs to the 'adjective class'.

One inflectional form can replace another inflectional form only but they cannot be added to each other. In Urdu the suffix 

\( \text{نا} \) (na) is used with the verbs in infinitive. For example,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ابنا} & \quad \text{jāna} & \quad \text{bolna} \\
\text{āna} & \quad \text{jāna} & \quad \text{bolna}
\end{align*}
\]

The roots are \( \text{ا} \) (ā), \( \text{جا} \) (jā), \( \text{بول} \) (bol).

Apart from the possessive inflections, the words \( \text{کا} \) (ka) and \( \text{کی} \) (ki) are also used to indicate possession, in Urdu. In case of plural, singular nouns form their plural through the addition of the suffix \( \text{اں} \) (ān) and \( \text{یں} \) (ein).

For example,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{کتابی} & \quad \text{تصویری} & \quad \text{لڑکی} \\
\text{Kitābein} & \quad \text{kitāb} & \quad \text{tasveerein} & \quad \text{tasveer} & \quad \text{larkiān} & \quad \text{larki}
\end{align*}
\]

In Urdu plurals are also formed through the process of infixation, for example.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{شواہد} & \quad \text{شہید} & \quad \text{ناقویل} & \quad \text{ناقل} \\
\text{shawāhid} & \quad \text{shāhid} & \quad \text{naqool} & \quad \text{naqal}
\end{align*}
\]

The rules of English and Urdu singular, plural will be discussed later in chapter four.

As far as the present tense is concerned, in Urdu usually the inflectional suffix \( \text{تا} \) (tā) for masculine and \( \text{تی} \) (ti) for feminine is used with the root. For example.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{کہانی} & \quad \text{کہانی} & \quad \text{سوتانی} & \quad \text{سوتانی} \\
\text{khāti} & \quad \text{khāta} & \quad \text{sotī} & \quad \text{sota}
\end{align*}
\]

Similarly, there are inflectional suffixes as well as auxiliary verbs in Urdu which can be attached to the verb root to indicate past tense and aspect.
2.1.4 Derivational affixes

Derivational affixes can be both, prefixes as well as suffixes. Derivational affixes may be followed by other suffixes, which can be derivational or inflectional or they may be final in the group to which they belong. For example, the word ‘agreements’, ‘agree’ is a root to which a derivational suffix ‘-ment’ is added and it is further followed by an inflectional suffix ‘-s’. Other examples of derivational affixes are:

- re
take
- unhappy
- victimized

English, unlike Urdu, is a sex-based language. Pronouns and name of the person usually denote the gender, but in some cases the derivational suffix ‘-ess’ indicates the gender. For example,

Actress    waitress    lioness

While, on the other hand, Urdu has a number of derivational suffixes denote gender. For example, 

noon in

dhoban    dhobi    sunāran    sunār

and in

sherni    sher    reechhni    reechh

The difference between inflection and derivation can be understood through this table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>Derivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Involves few variables in a closed system</td>
<td>2. May involve many variables in an open system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Characterized by high commutability within the word-form</td>
<td>3. Characterized by low commutability within the word-form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Typically has low commutability within the sentence</td>
<td>4. Some types show high commutability within the sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Marks agreement</td>
<td>5. Does not mark agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Is marked further from the root than derivation</td>
<td>6. Is marked closer to the root than inflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Typically does not show gaps in the paradigm</td>
<td>7. Typically shows gaps in the paradigm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Typically semantically regular</td>
<td>8. Typically semantically irregular (Bauer, 1983, p.29)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Derivational affixes are further divided into two categories:

2.1.4.1 Class-maintaining

Class-maintaining affixes are those which produce a new form of the word that belongs to the same class to which the base or root belongs. For example:

- mini dress
- malnutrition
- Christendom
- boyhood

‘mini-’, ‘mal-’, ‘-dom’, and ‘-hood’, are class-maintaining affixes. Examples of class-maintaining affixes in Urdu are:

- جنمندن (janam din) is a noun and when the prefix جنم (janam) is added to it, it remains noun. Same is the case with باورچیخانہ (bāwarchi khāna) and مہاراجہ (maha rāja).

2.1.4.2 Class-changing

Class-changing derivational affixes are those which produce a derived form of another class. For example,

- ensnare
- ablaze
- national
- teacher

‘en-’, ‘a-’, ‘-al’, and ‘-er’ are class-changing affixes. ‘Snare’ is a noun while ‘ensnare’ is a transitive verb. ‘Nation’ is a noun changes into an adjective after the addition of ‘-al’. Similarly, ‘teach’ is a verb while ‘teacher’ is a noun.

In Urdu there is a number of examples of class-changing affixes. For example.

- سریلنا (surila)
- پتھرنا (pathrāna)
(sur) is a noun and becomes an adjective when the suffix (ila) is added to it. Similarly, (pathar) is a noun and (pathrāna) is a verb. According to Robert A. Hall (1967, p. 176) derivatives can be divided into two types:

1) Primary derivatives

Here primary means, not involving a stem, that is including forms which are bound on derivational level, and secondary means involving one or more than one stems, that is forms to which affixes can be attached. In a primary derivative, for example,

receive          include

either of their elements can be called a stem. Yet 're-', in 'receive' and 'in-' in include are derivational affixes and 'ceive' and 'clude' are derivationally bound forms and can be called base. Other examples are:

deceive    conceive    reject    eject

On the other hand, in secondary derivatives, one component is easily recognizable as stem and the other one is as derivational affix of either kind. For example,

manhood        man + hood
actor           act + or
teacher         teach + er

Similarly, in Urdu, the words

مہاجن          دشوار
mahājan        dushwār

are the examples of primary derivatives and the examples of secondary derivatives include:

سر + شام          سر + شام
sar-e-shām        shām + sar
bud mizāj          mizāj + bud
زئ + شمور        zei shao'oor + zi

According to another linguist R. W. Zandvoort (1972, p. 290) there are two groups of prefixes and suffixes. This grouping is based on the fact that either they can or cannot be used in the
formation of new words. The first group is called 'Productive' or 'Living', while the other one is called ‘Dead or unproductive'. Examples of unproductive prefixes and suffixes are 'for-', as in 'forget', 'forgive'; 'with-', as in 'withdraw'; '-ant' or '-ent', as in 'servant', 'different'

Affixation or derivation is the most common process of word-formation. The rule of affixation is that the word should retain its meaning when all kinds of affixes have been removed from it, for example, it is not possible to make a word خودی (khudi) with the help of the prefix خود (khud). Similarly, not the word بیل (beil) with the prefix بی (bei) because when the prefixes خود (khud) and بی (bei) are removed, what remain behind areی (i) and ل (l) which do not have any meaning.

The basic terms around which the whole research revolves has been discussed in this chapter. For this purpose, the researcher consulted different books of different linguists. 'English Word-Formation' by Laurie Bauer, 'A Handbook of English Grammar' by R.W. Zandvoort, P.H. Matthews', 'Morphology' and 'A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language' by Randolph Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik have been the great source of help in terms of English affixes, while in terms of Urdu affixes, 'Nai Urdu Qwaid' by Ismat Jawed and Maulii Abdul Haq's 'Qawaid-e-Urdu' helped a lot. The reference of other books is given in the bibliography at the end. The dictionaries of English and Urdu, including ‘Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary' and Feroz-ul-Lughat have also been a great source of help in conducting this research.

CONCLUSION

In this research the researcher has endeavoured to identify peculiarities of affixes in Urdu and English and has discussed the linguistic similarities and differences between affixes of both languages. Interesting results have been drawn after this comparative study. Affixes are very much part of a grammar and have an effect on language. The basic purpose of conducting this was to have a knowhow of the grammars of both languages.

Urdu morphology is simple as well as complex at the same time. In Urdu it is not easy to categorize each and every thing as in English. For instance, English has clear-cut eight parts of speech:

(i) Noun (ii) verb (iii) adverb (iv) adjective
(v) pronoun (vi) preposition (vii) conjunction (viii) interjection

While Urdu has only three parts of speech:

(i) noun (ii) verb
(ii) preposition (postposition)
Adjective and pronoun are the sub categories of noun, and interjection and conjunction are the categories of preposition in Urdu. Sometimes it is not easy to draw a line between adjectives and nouns. Adjectives, which are formed through affixation, can also be used as nouns.

Secondly, Urdu has gender of animate as well as inanimate things, while English does not have them. In English pronouns, he, she, it and the name of a person is the only guide to indicate gender. While in Urdu, not only pronouns but verb also helps to indicate the gender of a noun. Number and gender are very much related to each other in Urdu, for example, masculine singular nouns form their plural (in case of after postposition) by adding 'ن' (on) to them. (gharon men), (dana'on ne) and feminine singular nouns form their plural through replacement of 'ن' (an) or 'ن' (en) with 'ن' (on), for example, (larkyon ko).

Unlike Urdu, English has an irregular system of gender, only the derivational suffixes ‘ess’ and ‘ette’ are used to form regular feminine nouns, for instance, 'usherette' and 'tigress'. Thirdly, English language does not have infixes as such. The nearest of this category of affixes are the changes and replacement of vowels within the words, for instance.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{take} \\
\text{took} \\
\text{goose} \\
\text{geese}
\end{array}
\]

On the other hand, Urdu has a limited number of infixes, for example, 'ا' (a) in (urāna), (urma) and 'ئ' (e) in (mel), (mil). Prefixes of English. For example, 'in-', 'ir', 'im-', 'dis-', 'un-' etc are bound morphemes, but Urdu has prefixes are bound as well as free morphemes, for instance, 'تَنگ' (tang), 'پس' (past), 'پاک' (pāk), 'بلند' (buland) are all free morphemes.

Apart from these few differences, the categories of affixes in both the languages are more or less the same. The researcher has also taken into account the etymological aspect of the affixes as both English and Urdu are derived from a variety of different languages. The present research is a limited study of affixes because of the limitation of words and time. Further research could be done in this field as a great variety of affixes exist in both the languages.

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**


