P. PERUMALSAMY

1. INTRODUCTION

Ho is listed as a Non-Scheduled language in the Census record, appears as a language as well as Mother Tongue in the successive Census enumerations. Ho language is spoken majorly in Jharkhand state and it is followed by other states such as Odisha, West Bengal, Bihar and Chhattisgarh. Its last decadal [2001-2011] growth rate is 36.32%. Among the total strength of Ho speakers in Jharkhand 4,66,693 speakers are monolinguals.

1.1 FAMILY AFFILIATION

Ho Language is classified under Kherwarian group of Munda branch of Austro-Asiatic subfamily of Austric family (Grierson, 1906). The recent studies indicate that Ho language may be placed under Northern Munda group. The Table is given in following page.
1. 2 LOCATION

In Jharkhand state, the Ho people are mainly concentrated in Paschimi Singhbhum district followed by Purbi Singhbhum. They are also present in Bokaro, Ranchi and Dhanbad districts. The places where Hos are found abundantly are as follows:

*Chakradharpur, Noamundi, Jhinkpani, Kumardungi, Chaibasa, Majhgaon, Tant naga, Manjhari, Jagnanahtpur.*

In Bihar state, Ho speakers are found scantily in *Katihar, Paschim Champran, Samastipur* and *Patna* districts.
### 1.3 SPEAKERS’ STRENGTH

Distribution of Ho as a Language in India, States and Union Territories as per 2011 Census is given below.

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[342]
Distribution of Ho as a Language in Jharkhand state and its districts as per 2011 Census is given below.

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Distribution of Ho as a Mother Tongue in Jharkhand state and its Districts as per 2011 Census is given below.

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Distribution of Ho and its Bilingual and Trilingual status in Jharkhand state as per 2011 Census is given below.

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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>TELUGU</td>
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<tr>
<td>BENGALI</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HINDI</td>
<td>662</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ODIYA</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>SANTALI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KURUKH/ORAON</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GONDI</td>
<td>44</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>HINDI</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KHARIA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. 5 SOCIOLINGUISTIC SITUATIONS

Ho language is used among the members of the family in home domain predominantly. It is also used with their relatives. In the villages where Hos are living high in number, Ho language is used in the market as well.

Ho language is used with kith and kin during the occasions such as conducting rituals, ceremonies and festivals. Ho peoples’ supreme deity is ‘Sing bonga’.

Ho language has a rich oral tradition. It has folk songs and tales. Some of the efforts had been taken to see that Ho has a written form. Hos tried to write Ho language in Roman, Devnagari and Varankshite scripts (written languages of the world: pp 890). It seems the Ho people devised Varankshite script. Poetry, fiction, hymnals and song are written in Ho language and got published. Some of the grammar books on Ho language are written in Hindi. Similarly, Ho-Hindi-English dictionary is also available.

The All India Radio, Ranchi broadcasts the programmes in Ho language for 30 minutes a week. The programmes are mostly songs, short stories, day-to-day happenings etc. Other than home and religious domains, the use of Ho language is restricted. It is not taught in schools.
Ho people speak Hindi, Oriya, Bengali and English languages besides cognate Santali language as their second language. The people who live in Bihar speaks Hindi, in West Bengal border speaks Bengali and in Orissa border speaks Oriya as their second languages respectively. The educated people speak English as well.

1.6. REVIEW OF EARLIER LITERATURE

The Linguistic Survey of India (1906) by Grierson places Ho as a dialect of Kherwari language along with Santali, Mundari and so on. In 1971, Nigam classifies Ho as a mother tongue, which were fairly returned from Bihar and Orissa in 1961 Census.

Mundari language, a close cognate of Ho language, is studied by Sinha (1975) and the grammar book was published. In 1975, S. Bhattacharya also conducted a survey on Ho language and highlighted very important phonological and Morphological features of it.

Deeney (1975) has brought out the Grammar and vocabulary of Ho. He has analyzed the language systematically and identified the features. The features were highlighted in the form of lessons. However, the phonological part is given less importance.

Suresh, (2002) has brought out a gist grammar of Ho language spoken in Odisha state. The present study deals with the Ho language spoken in Bihar state.
2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interacts with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

The phonological system of Ho language is presented below based on the data collected data.

2.1. PHONEMIC INVENTORY

Part of the phonological study of a language involves looking at data (phonetic transcriptions of the speech of native speakers) and trying to deduce what the underlying phonemes are and what the sound inventory of the language is. Thus, the phonemic inventory of Ho shows the distinctive sound units occurring in Ho speech. Both the segmental and suprasegmental phonemes of Ho are presented in the following inventory. There are 27 phonemes of which 22 are consonants 5 are vowels. Length and Nasalization is phonemic.

2.1.1. SEGMENTAL PHONEMES

Vowels

There are five vowel phonemes in Ho language. They are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td></td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Consonants

There are twenty-two consonant phonemes in Ho language. They are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Retroflex</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stop</strong></td>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fricative</strong></td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nasal</strong></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lateral</strong></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td>L</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Flap</strong></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semi vowel</strong></td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2. SUPRA SEGMENTAL PHONEMES

Length and Nasalisation features are considered as suprasegmental phonemes.

**Length**

Length and Nasalisation features are considered as suprasegmental phonemes. Length is phonemic in Ho language. Examples:

1. *oye* ‘tear: cloth’
   
   *o :ye* ‘bird’

2. *onDo* ‘and’
   
   *o : nDo* ‘repeat’

3. *ada* ‘half’
   
   *ada :* ‘ginger’

4. *kua* ‘female’
   
   *ku :a* ‘fold: arms’

5. *cuTu* ‘mouse’
   
   *cu :Tu* ‘penis’
Nasalization

Nasalization of vowels occurs in this language. It is phonemic because one can have meaning difference between the oral and nasal vowels. Examples are given below.

1. \( kua \) ‘female’ \( kũa \) ‘well water’
2. \( meD \) ‘eye’ \( mẽD \) ‘iron’
3. \( myu \) ‘calf’ \( mũi \) ‘ant’

Glottolization

The vowels pronounced, are sometimes glottalized. Glottalization is phonemic in Ho language because this process gives contrasting minimal pairs. Examples are given below.

1. \( seta \) ‘dog’ \( setá \) ‘morning’
2. \( la: yi \) ‘belly’ \( lé \) ‘tongue’
3. \( a :nDu \) ‘anklet’ \( á :ndi \) ‘marriage’

2.2. PHONEMIC DESCRIPTION AND DISTRIBUTION

Vowels

The Ho vowels are five in number. They are \( i, e, a, o \) and \( u \). The vowels have length as well as nasal features sometimes.

Phonemic Contrast

1. \( ni :l i \) ‘honey bee’
   \( ni:la \) ‘blue’
2. \( kui \) ‘girl’
   \( kua \) ‘female’
3. \( pu :l \) ‘bridge’
   \( pu :li \) ‘nose ring’
4. \( ente \) ‘then’
   \( enta \) ‘there’
5. enko  ‘they’
enako  ‘those’

6. gaw  ‘wound’
gawa  ‘evidence’

7. ta :1a  ‘middle’
tu1a  ‘measure: volume’

8. koa  ‘man’
kua  ‘female’

**Phonemic distribution**

/i i/

The high front vowel *i* occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. The lengthened vowel also occurs in the three positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

*i*pi1  ‘star’
*isi*  ‘twenty’
*itir*  ‘massage’
*ibil*  ‘thick’
*i: m*  ‘liver’
*i: ka: ka*  ‘anus’

**Medial**

*aril*  ‘snow’
*bir*  ‘forest’
*bisri*  ‘hawk’
*disum*  ‘state’
*apiye*  ‘three’
The mid high front unrounded vowel e occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. Its lengthening counterpart occurs in all three positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>era</td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enko</td>
<td>‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>entarap</td>
<td>‘defence’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eMa</td>
<td>‘female’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esupure</td>
<td>‘man’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ë: tam</td>
<td>‘extinguish’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Medial**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gena</td>
<td>‘slope’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biley</td>
<td>‘cat’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[353]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>phoneme</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>tete</code></td>
<td>‘cricket’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>geDem</code></td>
<td>‘cut: meat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>re :D</code></td>
<td>‘root’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>he :D</code></td>
<td>‘weed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>he: nde</code></td>
<td>‘darkness’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Final**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>phoneme</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>lée</code></td>
<td>‘tongue’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>kuile</code></td>
<td>‘coal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>go’e</code></td>
<td>‘dead’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>apiye</code></td>
<td>‘three’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ice :</code></td>
<td>‘pinch’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**/a/**

The low central vowel a occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. The vowel a also occurs in three positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>phoneme</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>alu</code></td>
<td>‘potato’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ara</code></td>
<td>‘brown’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>amru:d</code></td>
<td>‘guava’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>asur</code></td>
<td>‘demon’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>anja :</code></td>
<td>‘hurry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a :si</code></td>
<td>‘beg’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a :nDu</code></td>
<td>‘anklet’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>a :luti</code></td>
<td>‘lip’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Medial

hasa ‘clay’
ranDi ‘widow’
hatom ‘maternal aunt’
gara ‘river’
hasu ‘disease’
tayen ‘crocodile’
da :si ‘maid’
ba :lu ‘bear’
ka :Ta ‘leg’
ga :ma ‘rain’

Final

buRa ‘old’
soya ‘rotten’
dēwa ‘priest’
mula ‘reddish’
ada : ‘ginger’

/o/  
The mid high back unrounded vowel o occurs in initial, medial and final positions. It’s lengthening counterpart oː also occurs in all three positions. Examples are given below.

Initial

ote ‘earth’
oyer ‘swim’
omon ‘germinate’
ojon ‘weight’
The high back rounded vowel $u$ occurs in initial, medial and final positions. The lengthened vowel $u:$ occurs in all positions. Examples are such as
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>umbul</td>
<td>‘shade’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>udar</td>
<td>‘lend’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ulli</td>
<td>‘mango’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uː nDu</td>
<td>‘hole’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uː pi</td>
<td>‘cockroach’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūː r</td>
<td>‘skin’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medial</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pukat</td>
<td>‘mist’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luga</td>
<td>‘nest’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dukki</td>
<td>‘grief’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gunDi</td>
<td>‘cow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuTi</td>
<td>‘coast’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buːTi</td>
<td>‘navel’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruːtu</td>
<td>‘flute’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buːlu</td>
<td>‘thigh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buru</td>
<td>‘hill’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha su</td>
<td>‘disease’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haː ku</td>
<td>‘fish’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuː lpu</td>
<td>‘lock’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caTTu</td>
<td>‘cooking pot’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uru</td>
<td>‘beetle’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uRu</td>
<td>‘worry’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nasal vowel

The nasalized vowels occur in initial, medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

.inspect ۳ی:ل "feather"

inspect ū: r "skin"

inspect ę: tam "erase"

**Medial**

.inspect cę: ی "wave"

.inspect kōRo "duck"

.inspect saĩl "bison"

.inspect gāun "mother’s younger sister"

**Final**

.inspect hasũ "pain"

.inspect hā : "hoof"

Consonants

**Phonemic contrasts**

1. .inspect ipil "star"

.inspect ibil "thick"

2. .inspect ete "from"

.inspect eTa "other"

3. .inspect otaem "press"

.inspect oTa: yem "abound"

4. .inspect haTiM "serve: food"

.inspect huRiM "little finger"
5. *bo: rca* ‘spade’
   *bo: rsa* ‘courage’

6. *uDu* ‘imagine’
   *uRu* ‘worry’

7. *gara* ‘river’
   *goRa* ‘ground’

8. *gera:n* ‘boundary’
   *geraM* ‘groan’

**Phonemic distribution**

/ \p\ /

The voiceless bilabial stop *p* occurs in initial, medial and final positions. However, the occurrence in final position is not frequent. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- *pila* ‘spleen’
- *pu: nDi* ‘garlic’
- *patta :* ‘leaf’
- *paiTy* ‘work’
- *paRaw* ‘study’

**Medial**

- *apiye* ‘three’
- *topa* ‘bury: a thing’
- *apasoro* ‘love’
Final

\textit{udup (ga: nDa)} ‘index (finger)’

\textit{si: p} ‘stir’

/\textit{b}/

The voiced bilabial stop \textit{b} occurs in all three positions namely initial, medial and final, compared to the initial position, the occurrence of this phoneme in other two positions, is limited. Examples are given below.

Initial

\begin{align*}
\textit{ba: nda} & \quad \text{‘dam’} \\
\textit{baba} & \quad \text{‘paddy’} \\
\textit{be: Ma:} & \quad \text{‘tomato’} \\
\textit{bariye} & \quad \text{‘two’} \\
\textit{boka} & \quad \text{‘pierce’}
\end{align*}

Medial

\begin{align*}
\textit{sombond} & \quad \text{‘betroth’} \\
\textit{ku: mbu} & \quad \text{‘rob’} \\
\textit{sobo i: m} & \quad \text{‘dagger’}
\end{align*}

Final

\begin{align*}
\textit{jere: b} & \quad \text{‘kiss’} \\
\textit{a: ca: b} & \quad \text{‘yawn’} \\
\textit{tirub} & \quad \text{‘bow the body’} \\
\textit{(meD) a porob} & \quad \text{‘(eye) lash’}
\end{align*}

/\textit{t}/

The occurrence of voiceless alveolar stop \textit{t} found in three positions but predominantly in initial position. Examples are given below.

[360]
The occurrence of voiced alveolar stop /d/ found in the initial, medial and final positions but frequently in initial position. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- *tu:* ‘sting’
- *tula* ‘measure: volume’
- *talka* ‘heel’
- *tasaD* ‘grass’
- *toDim* ‘shoot: an animal’

**Medial**

- *tata* ‘grandfather’
- *ataM* ‘clever’
- *gitil* ‘sand’

**Final**

- *boo: t* ‘ghost’
- *ca: t* ‘ceiling’

---

The occurrence of voiced alveolar stop /d/ found in the initial, medial and final positions but frequently in initial position. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- *da’a* ‘water’
- *diriM* ‘horn’
- *dama* ‘drum’
- *duraM* ‘sing: a song’
- *doDo* ‘shake: head’

**Medial**

- *a’a: ndi* ‘marriage’
- *ko: nda* ‘dumb’
The voiceless retroflex stop $T$ occurs in initial, medial and final positions. However, in the initial position its occurrence is limited. Examples:

**Initial**

- **Tēyo** ‘wolf’
- **Tuppi** ‘cap’
- **Tope koRo** ‘swan’

**Medial**

- **daTTa** ‘tooth’
- **ku: nTu** ‘pillar’
- **moTra** ‘beans’
- **mu :Ta** ‘fat’
- **bu :Ti** ‘navel’

**Final**

- **keonT** ‘boat’
- **miyaT** ‘one’
- **ra: piT** ‘blink: eyes’

The voiced retroflex stop $D$ occurs initial, medial, and final positions. Examples are given below.
The voiceless palatal stop $c$ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. The occurrence in the initial position is predominant. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

Duki ‘urine’

DiyaM ‘liquor rice’

Deraím ‘twist’

**Medial**

ca: nDu ‘moon’

sa: nDi ‘male’

ma: nDi ‘food’

ci: Di ‘stair case’

**Final**

ruguD ‘pebble’

hambuD ‘embrace’

nogoD ‘sweet’

he: D ‘weed’

/e/
The voiced palatal stop /j/ occurs in initial and medial positions.

**Initial**

- joro ‘tap’
- jo ‘fruit’
- jiraw ‘rest’
- ja: Mi ‘bamboo’
- ja: TTi ‘mat’

**Medial**

- haija ‘cholera / diarrhoea’
- moja ‘glove’
- panji ‘astrologer’
- da: rji ‘tailor’
- siki: lije ‘(mosquito) net’

The voiceless velar stop /k/ occurs in initial, medial and final positions. The occurrence in the final position is very marginal. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- kui ‘girl’
- ko: ‘crane’
- ka: kom ‘crab’
ku: la ‘tiger’
kakla ‘sound’
ku: mu ‘dream’

Medial

pu΄ kaT ‘mist’
sokwa ‘valley’
siki : ‘mosquito’
toMka ‘churning rod’

Final

narak ‘hell’

/g/ The voiced velar stop g occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. However, the occurrence in the final position is very limited. Examples are given below.

Initial

gai ‘monkey’

 ga: nTi ‘bell’
gawa ‘evidence’
gi: ti ‘sleep’
golei ‘circle’

Medial

luga ‘nest’
paga ‘rope’
saLgam ‘carrot’
Final

taluwa: g  ‘sword’

/s/

The voiceless alveolar fricative $s$ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

Initial

sokwa  ‘valley’

si: $r$  ‘nerve’

sa: $r$  ‘arrow’

sa: dom  ‘horse’

Medial

isi  ‘twenty’

bisi  ‘venom’

asur  ‘demon’

tasaD  ‘grass’

Final

do: $s$  ‘fault’

rã: $s$  ‘kind’

bôs  ‘decendants’

/h/

The voiceless glottal fricative $h$ occurs in the initial and medial positions. Examples are given below.

Initial

hapad  ‘leech’

$h$ oko  ‘public’
The bilabial nasal /m/ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

### Initial

- **merom** ‘goat’
- **moRa** ‘corpse’
- **meD** ‘eye’
- **mayo: m** ‘blood’
- **myu** ‘calf’

### Medial

- **kama: r** ‘blacksmith’
- **ri: mil** ‘cloud’
- **dama** ‘drum’
- **kuma: r** ‘potter’
The alveolar nasal /n/ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- *nala*: ‘earn’
- *nir*: ‘run’
- *niyem*: ‘rule’
- *nariye :l*: ‘coconut’

**Medial**

- *ra: nu*: ‘medicine’
- *ba :nam*: ‘sarangi’
- *a: ndu*: ‘anklet’
- *cu :na*: ‘lime stone’
- *jo :no*: ‘broom’

**Final**

- *ho: n*: ‘kid’
- *sa: n*: ‘fuel’
- *amon*: ‘bud’
- *tayen*: ‘crocodile’
The retroflex nasal $N$ occurs in the medial position only.

**Medial**

- $sa:\text{NDi}$ ‘male’
- $hu\text{NDi}$ ‘tall’
- $li:\text{NDu}$ centipede’
- $gu\text{NDi}$ ‘cow’
- $le\text{NDeD}$ ‘earthworm’
- $mi\text{NDi}$ ‘sheep’
- $ge\text{NDa}$ ‘snail’

The velar nasal $M$ occurs in the medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Medial**

- $si\text{Mki}$ ‘latch’
- $ja\text{:Mi}$ ‘bamboo’
- $be\text{:Ma:}$ ‘tomato’
- $je\text{Ma}$ ‘red’
- $la\text{MDa}$ ‘hinder’

**Final**

- $bi\text{:M}$ ‘snake’
- $ja\text{M}$ ‘bone’
- $raba\text{M}$ ‘coldness’
- $mara\text{M}$ ‘giant’
- $kiri\text{M}$ sell’
The alveolar lateral /l/ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions.

**Initial**

- *lolo* ‘heat’
- *la: yi* ‘belly’
- *li: mbu* ‘lemon’
- *le’ em* ‘lick’

**Medial**

- *ji: lu* ‘flesh’
- *ulli* ‘mango’
- *ule* ‘vomit’
- *talka* ‘heel’

**Final**

- *gitil* ‘sand’
- *ju: l* ‘flame’
- *kortal* ‘cymbal’
- *kamol* ‘blanket’

The retroflex lateral /L/ occurs mostly in medial position. An exception, one occurrence is found in initial position. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- *Lim dara* ‘neem tree’

**Medial**

- *saLgam* ‘carrot’
- *si: ga: La* ‘fallow land’
The alveolar flap \( r \) occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- \( ra: \ mi \) ‘myna’
- \( ra: \ si \) ‘soup’
- \( raba: \ n \) ‘cold’
- \( ru: \ tu \) ‘flute’
- \( ru: \) ‘beat a drum’

**Medial**

- \( a: \ ril \) ‘ice’
- \( diriM \) ‘horn’
- \( uru \) ‘bettle’
- \( harsi \) ‘mirror’

**Final**

- \( bir \) ‘forest’
- \( nidir \) ‘white ant’
- \( si: \ r \) ‘vein’
- \( oyar \) ‘swim’

The retroflex flap \( R \) occurs in the medial position predominantly and in the final position occasionally. Examples are given below.
The bilabial semi vowel \textit{w} occurs in the medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Medial**

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{hu: RiM} \quad \text{‘young’}
  \item \textit{ba: duRi} \quad \text{‘bat’}
  \item \textit{aRagar} \quad \text{‘hyena’}
  \item \textit{moRa} \quad \text{‘corpse’}
  \item \textit{kaRsom} \quad \text{‘lin’}
  \item \textit{poRoso} \quad \text{‘jack fruit’}
\end{itemize}

**Final**

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{laR} \quad \text{‘bread’}
  \item \textit{birho: R} \quad \text{‘hill people’}
\end{itemize}

\textit{/w/}

The bilabial semi vowel \textit{w} occurs in the medial and final positions. Examples are given below.

**Medial**

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{swa: n} \quad \text{‘perfume’}
  \item \textit{ga: rwa} \quad \text{‘cage’}
  \item \textit{jowa} \quad \text{‘cheek’}
  \item \textit{gawa} \quad \text{‘witness’}
  \item \textit{cawDa} \quad \text{‘breadth’}
\end{itemize}

**Final**

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{saja: w} \quad \text{‘decorate’}
  \item \textit{jiraw} \quad \text{‘rest’}
  \item \textit{paRa: w} \quad \text{‘study’}
  \item \textit{gaw} \quad \text{‘wound’}
\end{itemize}
The palatal semivowel /y/ occurs in the initial, medial and final positions. The occurrence is felt predominantly in medial position. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- yiDem ‘track: an animal’
- yuiyana ‘sink’

**Medial**

- dayi ‘elder sister’
- o: ye ‘bird’
- doya ‘back’
- mayaM ‘hip’
- miyaT ‘one’
- oyal ‘miser’

**Final**

- biley ‘cat’
- dubuy ‘buttock’
- somoy ‘time’

2.3. MAJOR ALLOPHONIC DISTRIBUTION

Allophones are condition specific (dependent) variants of a phoneme. Allophones of a phoneme occur in mutually exclusive environments. Allophones do not affect the functional identity of the phoneme in the language. So this is a phonetic variant of a phoneme in a particular language. Although a phoneme's allophones are all alternative pronunciations for a phoneme, the specific allophone selected in a given situation is often predictable. Ho language has following types of allophonic variations.
Vowels

The close mid front vowel \( e \) has two variations:

\[ [E] \] Mid low front unrounded short vowel occurs after bilabial sounds

\[ /e/ \] [A] Mid central vowel occurs after lateral sound or after front vowel

\[ [e] \] Mid high front unrounded vowel occurs elsewhere

Examples are given below.

\[ /ˈkuile/ \] \([\text{kuil}A]\) ‘coal’

\[ /ˈlee/ \] \([\text{l}A\text{e}]\) ‘tongue’

\[ /ˈkuley/ \] \([\text{kul}A\text{y}]\) ‘hare’

\[ /ˈbiley/ \] \([\text{bil}A\text{y}]\) ‘cat’

\[ /ˈbe/ \] \([bEˈ]\) ‘spit’

\[ /ˈbe:/M:a/ \] \([bE:M:a\text{ }]\) ‘tomato’

\[ /ˈape hisi/ \] \([\text{apE hisi}]\) ‘sixty’

\[ /ˈesupure/ \] \([\text{esupure}]\) ‘many’

\[ /ˈeratani/ \] \([\text{eratani}]\) ‘actress’

\[ /ˈente/ \] \([\text{ente}]\) ‘then’

\[ /ˈmerom/ \] \([\text{merom}]\) ‘goat’

Mid high back rounded vowel \( o \) has one variation:

\[ [O] \] Mid low back rounded vowel occurs after bilabials and word in final position

\[ /o/ \] \([o]\) Mid high back rounded vowel occurs elsewhere
Examples:

\[ o: nDO \quad /o:\ nDo/ \quad \text{‘repeat’} \]
\[ bO: l \quad /bo:\ l/ \quad \text{‘lamp’} \]
\[ sobOD \quad /soboD/ \quad \text{‘soak’} \]
\[ roko \quad /roko/ \quad \text{‘fly’} \]
\[ ote \quad /ote/ \quad \text{‘earth’} \]

Consonants

The voiceless palatal stop has one variation:

\[ c^h \quad \text{The aspirated voiceless palatal stop occurs mostly after back vowels} \]
\[ c \quad \text{The unaspirated voiceless palatal stop occurs elsewhere.} \]

Examples:

\[ c^h oke\] \quad /cokoe/ \quad \text{‘little’} \]
\[ c^h aka\] \quad /cakaD/ \quad \text{‘cheat’} \]
\[ c^h uTu\] \quad /cuTu/ \quad \text{‘mouse’} \]
\[ mo: c^h\] \quad /mo: c/ \quad \text{‘whisker’} \]
\[ ca: t\] \quad /ca: t/ \quad \text{‘ceiling’} \]
\[ cakka:\] \quad /cakka:/ \quad \text{‘wheel’} \]

The alveolar nasal \( n \) has two variations:

\[ n \quad \text{The dental nasal occurs before the alveolar stop} \]
\[ n / \quad \text{The palatal nasal occurs before the palatal stops} \]
\[ n \quad \text{The alveolar nasal occurs elsewhere} \]

Examples:

\[ en\] \quad /ente/ \quad \text{‘then’}
2.2. CLUSTERS

Vowel clusters

It refers to more than one adjacent vowel sounds occurring within a word. The vowel clusters are found in initial, medial and final positions. The vowel clusters in the initial position is found limited whereas in other positions they occur frequently. Examples are given below.

**Initial**

- **aira pi: Di** ‘ancestors’
- **au u: tana** ‘belch’

**Medial**

- **baute** ‘elder brother’
- **kuihon** ‘daughter’
- **kuile** ‘coal’
- **soan** ‘scent’
- **Dain** ‘devil’
- **tauyi** ‘milk: a cow’
- **paiTy** ‘work’
- **tu: am** ‘beam’
Consonant clusters

A consonant cluster is a combination of two or more non-identical consonants within a syllable which have no intervening vowel and that generally occurs in the initial, medial and final position of a word.

Initial

The initial consonant clusters available in Ho language are as follows:

- stop + semi vowel
- fricative + semi vowel
- nasal + semi vowel etc.

Examples:

- pyjama ‘pyjama’
- syu: tanko ‘cultivate’
- myu ‘calf’
The medial clusters available in this language are as follow:

**nasal + stop**

- *hende* ‘darkness’
- *se: Mkel* ‘fire’
- *samtal* ‘plain’
- *uNDite* ‘younger brother’
- *junjui* ‘land lizard’

**stop + stop**

- *mo: TTa* ‘fat’
- *ettom* ‘right arm’
- *haccu* ‘sneeze’
- *eseTki* ‘disappear’
- *tappa* ‘wash: clothes’

**flap + stop**

- *girja* ‘church’
- *korto* ‘axe’

**flap + nasal**

- *ma: rmar* ‘scorpion’

**lateral + stop / lateral**

- *la: ITen* ‘lantern’
- *ku: lpu* ‘lock’
- *ulli* ‘mango’
2.5. SYLLABLES

A syllable is a unit of organization for a sequence of speech sounds. A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (usually a vowel), and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered the phonological “building blocks” of words. They can influence the rhythm of a language, its prosody, its poetic meter and its stress patterns. The syllabic structure of Ho language is of four types—monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic and tetra syllabic.

Monosyllabic

A word that consists of a single syllable is called a monosyllable (and is said to be monosyllabic). The monosyllabic structure is as follows.

\[ CV \]
\[ k\dot{u} \quad \text{‘cough’} \]
\[ CV : \]
\[ ti : \quad \text{‘hand’} \]
\[ CV:C \]
\[ ho:n \quad \text{‘kid’} \]
\[ V:C \]
\[ i:m \quad \text{‘liver’} \]

Other examples:

\[ ka : \quad \text{‘crow’} \]
\[ ma : \quad \text{‘mother’} \]
\[ bi:M \quad \text{‘snake’} \]
\[ ù:r \quad \text{‘fur’} \]
\[ be’ \quad \text{‘spit’} \]
**Disyllabic**

A word that consists of two syllables is called Disyllable (and is said to be disyllabic). The disyllabic structure of *Ho* is as follows:

- **$V$-CV**
  - u-le
  - ‘vomit’

- **$V$-CVV**
  - i-yal
  - ‘feather’

- **$CV$-$CV$**
  - go -$Ra$
  - ‘ground’

- **$CV$: -$CVC$**
  - ri :- mil
  - ‘cloud’

Other examples:

- lo -$lo$
  - ‘heat’

- na :- ki
  - ‘comb’

- bu-$ru$
  - ‘hill’

- o- te
  - ‘earth’

**Trisyllabic**

A word that consists of three syllables is called a Trisyllable (and is said to be trisyllabic). The structure of trisyllabic words is as follows:

- **$CV$-$CV$-$CV$**
  - po- R o-so
  - ‘jack fruit’

- **VCV-$CV$-$CVV$**
  - apo-so-rai
  - ‘love’

- **CVC :-CVC**
  - cen-tu:-rim
  - ‘vermillion’

Other examples:

- jo-nom-din
  - ‘birth day’

- sa-mud-dar
  - ‘sea’

- to-len-me
  - ‘tie’

- de:k-kar-ke
  - ‘read’

- sa-saM-$ro$M
  - ‘yellow’
**Tetra syllabic**

A word that consists of four syllables is called a Tetrasyllable (and is said to be Tetrasyllabic). The tetra syllabic structure of *Ho* language is as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CV-CV-CV-CV</td>
<td>ca-ka-le-ka</td>
<td>‘taste’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CV-CV :C-CV-CVV</td>
<td>pa-Ra: w-ta-nai</td>
<td>‘learn’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CVC-CV-CVC-CV</td>
<td>sak-ki-Dek-na</td>
<td>‘freeze’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other examples:

- *ku:m-bu:-yi-na*  ‘theft’
- *ga :n-Di-ru :-tu*  ‘flute’
- *pu:n-Di –has-sa*  ‘lime’
3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

It is a possible phonological variation with the addition of some bound morpheme when there is change in the phoneme of the base morpheme, the change is known as morphophonemic change. There are various Morphophonemic changes in Ho language, these can be

Transfer of check pattern from one vowel to other

When the mood marker -a follows long checked vowels, the check is transferred from the original vowel to the mood marker -a.

Example:

\[ \text{tunDú: ‘to end’} + a = \text{tunDu: wá} \]
\[ \text{Tó: ‘to hit’} + a = \text{To: wá} \]

The above change is taking place only before the long vowels indicating passive form (ó: or ú:). In other cases, it does not occur.

\[ \text{senó ‘to go away’} + a = \text{senówa} \]
\[ \text{hujú ‘to come’} + a = \text{hujúwa} \]

Insertion of a consonant j

In certain cases, the checked vowel - é when followed by another vowel like -a, then the consonant – j is inserted before the checked vowel.

Example:

\[ \text{goé ‘to kill / die’} \]
\[ \text{goé + yana} = \text{gojeyana ‘killed’} \]
\[ \text{die past. marker} \]
\[ \text{ri: te hook gojeyana} \]
\[ \text{debt for people dies + past mar} \]

‘On account of debt people died’
4. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology deals with words and their declensional patterns as well as verbs and their conjugational patterns. Morphology of Ho is discussed under Noun, Verb, Adjectives and Adverbs.

In other words, Morphology is the study of the grammatical structure of words and the categories realized by them. Morphology studies the smallest grammatical units of language, and their formation into words, including inflection, derivation and compounding. Morphology of Ho language will be discussed as follows:

4.1 NOUN MORPHOLOGY

4.1.1 WORD FORMATION

The word formation in Ho language is observed in the following ways:

i.) by prefixation
ii.) by suffixation
iii.) by reduplication
iv.) by echo formation

Prefixation

Some of the affixes are added to the existing word to have a new meaning. For example,

a. nena ka: jome taiya ‘This is not eatable’
   this  not   eat

b. ka: noi tiya : ‘Not drinkable’
   not   drink

Thus, by adding prefix ka: - denoting negativeness to an affirmative word jometaiya ‘eat’ becomes ka: jome taiya, ‘not eat’. In this manner, a new word formation (by way of prefixation) takes place in Ho language.

Suffixation

The suffixes such as plural suffix -ko, is added after the singular noun to have plural in number. For example:
seta  bu’ui tana  ‘The dog barks’

dog  barks

setako  bu’ui tana  ‘The dogs bark’

dogs  bark

Thus the plural suffix –ko is added to singular noun seta ‘dog’ to have plural noun setako ‘dogs’. In this way adding of a suffix helps to form a plural noun in this language.

**Reduplication**

A syllable is repeated as such to have a word in Ho language.

mise mise  ‘some times’

dur dur  ‘water fall’

In the above said examples one can see that the mono or disyllables are repeated as such to form a word.

**Echo words**

In Ho language one can find the echo formation in some of the words. An examples is given below.

kili mili  ‘various’

In the above said example, the first sound of the third syllable only varies but other sound patterns stand as such. In the above-mentioned manner some of the words are formed in Ho language.

**4.1.2 NOUN**

The Noun is a word class which takes number, gender and case markers. The nouns functions as a subject or an object in a construction and it denotes person, place, thing etc. The nouns in Ho language are either primary or secondary.

**Primary nouns**

Primary nouns are generally mono morphic. Examples:
Secondary nouns

Secondary nouns are nouns that are derived from other already existing nouns. They are generally bimorphic or polymorphic.

Examples:

1. buru di: ri ‘rock’
   hill
2. eMa sim ‘hen’
   sa: nDi sim ‘cock’
3. o’a ‘house’
   pukka o’a ‘building’
   i: i: teya o’a ‘toilet’

Animate nouns

ma : ‘mother’
ba: ba ‘father’
ko’a ‘man’
erata: ni ‘woman’

The following examples show how the words are generated from one to other.

1. ho: n ‘kid’
   ba: lee ho:n ‘baby’
   siTi: ya ho:n ‘boy’
2. _ho_ ‘husband’
   _hoko_ ‘people’
3. _ko’a / kowa_ ‘man’
   _nama kowa_ ‘bride groom’

**Non human nouns**

   _mui_ ‘ant’
   _biley_ ‘cat’

**Inanimate nouns**

   _hoyo_ ‘air’
   _bir_ ‘forest’
   _siMi_ ‘sun’
   _gama_ ‘rain’
   _ũ: r_ ‘fur’

**Number**

_Ho_ language has three-way distinction of number. They are

1. singular
2. dual and
3. plural

Singular is unmarked, dual is marked with suffix _-kiM_ and plural is with _-ko_. In Ho language, _it_ is observed that the number marker is also observed with the object of the sentence.

1. _ni: se: ta_ ‘This is a dog’
   dog
2. _enkiM bariya se: takiM_
   there dual marker two dog dual marker
   ‘There are two dogs’
3. enko apiya se: tako
	hree pl. marker three dog pl. marker

‘There are three dogs’

The animate and inanimate nouns, both take number markers uniformly.

a. henakiM bariya owakiM
	hese two houses

‘These are two houses’

b. inkiM bariya gunDi urikiM
	here two cows

‘There are two cows’

**Gender**

The gender system in Ho language is marked with two-way distinction, i.e., grammatical and lexical.

**Grammatical**

Grammatically, the masculine nouns, generally ends with the vowels –e and –a.

Examples:

ba: ba ‘father’
tata ‘grandfather’
ko a ‘man’
baute ‘elder brother’

The feminine words mostly ending with the vowel –i and sometimes -a.

kui ‘girl’
ha: mbuDi ‘co wife’
da: di ‘grandmother’
da: si ‘maid’
ma: ‘mother’
era ‘wife’

**Lexical**

The following words are used in *Ho* language to make the gender distinction in human beings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>baute</td>
<td>dayi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘elder brother’</td>
<td>‘elder sister’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u: nDite</td>
<td>unDi kui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘younger brother’</td>
<td>‘younger sister’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>siTiya ho: n</td>
<td>kui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘boy’</td>
<td>‘girl’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nama kowa</td>
<td>nama era</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘bride groom’</td>
<td>‘bride’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ho: n,</td>
<td>ho :n era</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘son’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honsed</td>
<td>kui ho: n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘daughter’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa: nDi</td>
<td>eMa / kui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘male’</td>
<td>‘female’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koa</td>
<td>erata: ni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘man’</td>
<td>‘woman’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ho:</td>
<td>era</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘husband’</td>
<td>‘wife’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ba: ba</td>
<td>ma:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘father’</td>
<td>‘mother’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>munnuren ho</td>
<td>munuren buDiera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘old man’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender variations in Non-human**

The non-human gender distinction is marked with *sa: Ndi* for male and *eMa* for female.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sa: nDi</em> ke: ra</td>
<td><em>eMa</em> ke: ra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘He buffalo’</td>
<td>‘she buffalo’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>sa: nDi</em> sim</td>
<td><em>eMa</em> sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘cock’</td>
<td>‘hen’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The young ones are referred with ‘*ho: n*’

*ho: n sim* ‘chicken’
Case


Nominative Case

Nominative case marker in Ho is Ё. Examples:

a. *rama menkeDa aMa ho: n gappa jamsedpureya serno*

   Rama said my son Tomorrow Jamshedpur to go will

   ‘Rama said “His son will go to Jamshedpur tomorrow”

b. *rama møy Takka laccumane emeia*

   Rama five rupees Lakshman-to gave

   ‘Rama gave five rupees to Lakshmana’

Accusative case

The accusative case marker is -i in Ho.

a. *ragu bizarre kumbu: i sapkiye*

   Raghu bazaar-in thief - acc. caught

   ‘Raghu caught the thief at the market’

b. *ini hakkete darui ma΄ae: tana*

   He axe by tree-acc. cut

   ‘He cut the tree by axe’

Instrumental case

The instrumental case marker is -te in Ho. Examples:

a. *owa´a kicote dalakkana*

   house tiles by roof made ‘The roof is made up of tiles’

b. *hakkete darui ma´e: tana*
axe by  tree acc.  cut

‘He cut the tree by axe’

**Dative case**

The dative case is marked with -tee.

a.  *ekka skultee senoana*

   Ekka school-to went

   ‘Ekka went to the school’

b.  *ba: nDra gapa ja: mseDpur tee senoa*

   Bandra tomorrow Jamshedpur– to go will

   ‘Bandra will go to Jamshedpur tomorrow’

**Locative Case**

The locative case marker is -ree/-re.

a.  *kerayaD daruree dubakana*

   parrot tree on sitting

   ‘The parrot is sitting on the tree’

b.  *kiatabko jamseD purre sumaT namoa’*

   books Jamshedpur – in only available

   ‘The books are only available in Jamshedpur’

**Ablative case**

The ablative case marker is -ete.

a.  *setaetee gamaetana*

   morning since raining

   ‘It has been raining since morning’
b. setaete nen pa: Toye paRa: wetana

morning since this lesson studying’

‘He has been studying this lesson since morning’

**Possessive Case**

The possessive case marker is -a or -ya.

a. nenado laccumiya bagan

this is Lakshmi’s garden

‘This is Lakshmi’s garden’

b. aMa caikle Tayre hoyo banowa

my cycle tyre air no

‘My cycle’s tyre has no air’

c. abu’a ha: tu iskul bukite paiTitana

our village school well functioning

‘Our village school is functioning well’

**Vocative Case**

*ei, ah, sh* are used to express vocative.

a. *ei! hujume*

‘O! come here’

b. *sh hapanpe*

‘Sh! Don’t talk’

c. *ah! asuntena*

‘Ah! pains (here)’

**Post positions**

There are some post positions which occur in between the subject and object nouns such as –lo’o ‘between’, -banredo ‘or’ in Ho language. Examples are exemplified below:
1. hindusta:n onDo pa:kista:n lo’o laDa:yi hobauyana
   India and Pakistan between war was
   ‘There was a war between India and Pakistan’

2. nikiM banredo apiya kuahonko owa senope
   two or three boys home go
   ‘These two are three boys go home’

4.1.3 PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a pro-form which functions like a noun. It can also take number, gender and case markers like the noun. But the functional difference between a noun and a pronoun is that the pronoun cannot take any determiner and pronoun can be used in all persons whereas a noun always refers to the third person. The following types of pronouns are available in Ho. They are:

1. Personal
2. Possessive
3. Demonstrative
4. Indefinite
5. Interrogative

Personal Pronouns

ain ‘I’, ale ‘we’, am ‘you (sg)’, ape ‘you (pl)’, a’e ‘he/she’, ako ‘they’, are some of the personal pronouns in Ho. Their bound form is without their first vowel a- i.e. in bound form the y loss the initial a-.

a. nelme taneM ‘I see you’
   see pr.ten I
b. nelme tanale ‘We see you’
   we
c. hon nelme tanaye ‘The child sees you’
d. nelme tanako ‘They see you’
   they

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Possessive Pronouns

The possessive pronouns are: *aMa* ‘my’, *ama* your (sg), *apeya* your (pl) *Akawa* ‘their’ and so on. –*a* is added with the personal pronouns to have possessive one.

a. *aMa owa* ‘my house’

b. *ama owa* ‘your (sg) house’

c. *apeya owako* ‘your (pl.) houses’

d. *aya owa* ‘his house’

e. *akawa owako* ‘their houses’

Demonstrative Pronouns

*nena* ‘this’, *ena* ‘that’, *nenta* ‘here’, *enta* ‘there’ are some of the demonstrative pronouns used in Ho.

a. *nena mara: M patta* ‘This is a large leaf’

b. *enadoka mendo nena* ‘Not that one, but this’

c. *nenta aiM hujuktana* ‘I come here’

d. *enta: aiM seno* ‘I go there’

Indefinite Pronouns

The pronouns, which denote not definite thing, are used in Ho. They are *joka* ‘some’ *jana* ‘something’ *ja: ta: re* ‘everywhere’ *sabenmu: l* ‘everywhere’ etc.

a. *ini joka poisae namtana* ‘He wants some money’

he some paisae wants
b. *nenaete onDoge janariyo emaMgme*
   this besides again something else give
   ‘Besides this, give me something else’

c. *ja: ta: re baMai iye*
   ‘He is nowhere’
   anywhere no he

d. *sabenmu: liMg nalkeDa*
   ‘I looked it for everywhere’
   everywhere I to see past

**Interrogative pronouns**

\(c^hikana\) ‘what’, *okoe* ‘who’ *okoea* ‘whom’ are some of the pronouns used as interrogative pronouns.

a. *nena c^hikanako meta?*
   ‘What is this called?’
   this what called

b. *nage hujulen hoko Okoeteko?*
   ‘Who are these men who came just now?’
   Now came men who are

c. *ini okoea sadom?*
   ‘Whose horse is this?’
   This whose horse

### 4.1.4 Adjectives

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun referent. In Ho language the adjectives precede the nouns. They do not show any variations to the gender or number.

a. *bugin kuaho: n*
   good
   ‘The good boy’

b. *bugin kuiho: n*
   good
   ‘The good girl’
Classification of Adjectives

Ho adjectives can be classified as qualitative and quantitative.

**Qualitative adjectives**

- **keRe** ‘different’
- **humu:** ‘dirty’
- **koce** ‘crooked’
- **râ: sa** ‘delight’
- **emma:nda:ri** ‘honest’
- **boro** ‘fear’
- **cakaD** ‘false’
- **rokage** ‘fresh’

**Quantitative**

- **sabinko** ‘all’
- **minDoge** ‘alone’
- **sosta** ‘cheap’
- **ikki: r** ‘deep’
- **bara:bari** ‘equal’
esupure  ‘many’
lattar  ‘low’
jokalika  ‘few’

4.1.5 NUMERALS

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun referent.

Cardinal

The cardinal numbers, one to ten, are expressed with individual words.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>miyaT</td>
<td>‘one’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bariye</td>
<td>‘two’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apiye</td>
<td>‘three’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upuniye</td>
<td>‘four’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōya</td>
<td>‘five’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turue</td>
<td>‘six’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a: yie</td>
<td>‘seven’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iruLiya</td>
<td>‘eight’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arie</td>
<td>‘nine’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel’eya</td>
<td>‘ten’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ten plus numbers are expressed with the base form of ten [gel] plus the required word of the number. This continues up to nineteen.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gel  miya</td>
<td>‘eleven’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel  ba: riye</td>
<td>‘twelve’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel  api: ye</td>
<td>‘thirteen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel  upuniye</td>
<td>‘fourteen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gel moyā</td>
<td>‘fifteen’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
gel turue ‘sixteen’
gel a: yie ‘seventeen’
gel iruliya ‘eighteen’
gel areya ‘nineteen’

Twenty is expressed by the term ‘isi’. The other higher numbers are:

isi geleya ‘thirty’
ba: r hisi ‘forty’
ba: r hisi geleya ‘fifty’
ape hisi ‘sixty’
ape hisi geleya ‘seventy’
upue hisi ‘eighty’
upu hisi geleya ‘ninety’
mōi hisi ‘hundred’

Above twenty is formed in the following way.

isi geleya ‘thirty’


twenty ten

ba: r hisi ‘forty’

two twenty

ba: r hisi geleya ‘fifty’

two twenty ten

**Ordinal**

The ordinal positions are expressed in the following way:

pailte / ayarte ‘first’

pail canabe ‘second’
baro canabte  ‘third’

canabuttarte  ‘last’

It may be assumed that canabis the last one as well as it denotes the sense of the following.
pail  canabte  ‘second’

first  follower

**Fraction**

Fraction is expressed in the following terms:

- upun hana TiM  ‘quarter’
- tala  ‘half’
- apehanaTiM  ‘3/4th’
- pura  ‘full’
- miyaDtala  ‘one and half’
- bariya  ‘two’
- miyaDo upun hanaTiM  ‘one and quarter’
- miyaDo apehanaTiM  ‘one and 3/4th’

### 4.1.6 CLASSIFIER

The classifier is used for classifying the numerical objects or a noun. It appears in Ho language, the numeral classifier varies according to the human, non-human and inanimate nouns. Examples are given below.

- apiye  ga: Di  ‘three cars’
- api  daru  ‘three trees’
- apê  caNDu  ‘three months’
- ape  hoko  ‘three men’
- bariye daru  ‘two trees’
- bar  caNDu  ‘two months’
4.2 VERB MORPHOLOGY

4.2.1 VERB

Verb is a word class that marks Tense-Aspect-Modal-Personal markers distinguished by number and gender. Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association etc.

4.2.1.1 FINITE VERB

The base of the verb is inflected to tense to become finite. Example:

a. seno ‘to go’

b. senotana ‘I go’

go pre. ten.

c. seno’ana ‘I go’


d. seno a ‘I will go’

fut. Ten.

When an intransitive verb takes the object, -ui the intransitive base gets changed into -a :, the transitive base. Example:

a. se: ta bu’uitana ‘The dog barks’

dog barks

b. se: ta bilai’e bu’a: tana ‘The dog barks at the cat’

cat at
**Tense**

Simple: Present

The present tense marker is *-tana*. It is observed that the change in person (first, second and third do not affect the verb pattern. Similarly, the number. However, these changes are reflected in the post position of object.

a. *bazarteM senotana* ‘I go to the market’
   
   market to I go + pre.ten

b. *bazar telaM senotana* ‘We (two) go to the market’
   
   we two (incl.)
   
   telim

   we two (excl.)

   *bazar tebu (incl.) senotana* ‘We (pl) go to the market’
   
   we (pl)

   tele (excl)

   we (pl.)

d. *bazar tem senotana* ‘You (sg) go to the market’
   
   you (sg.)

e. *bazar teben senotana* ‘You (two) go to the market’
   
   you (two)

f. *bazar tepe senotana* ‘You (pl) go to the market’
   
   you (pl.)

g. *bazar tele senotana* ‘He/she/it goes to the
   
   he/she/it market’

h. *bazar tekiMg senotana* ‘They (two) go to the
   
   they (two) market’
Past

The past tense marker is -yana/-ana.

a. *bazar teM seno’ana*  ‘I went to the market’
   past mark
b. *bazar telaM senoyana*  ‘We (two) went to the market’
   we (incl.)
c. *bazar tebu senoyana*  ‘We went to the market’
d. *bazar tem senoyana*  ‘You (sg.) went to the market’
e. *bazar teben senoyana*  ‘You (wo) went to the market’
   you (two)
f. *bazar tepe senoyana*  You(pl.) went to the market’
   you (pl.)
g. *bazar te’e senoyana*  ‘He/she/it went to the market’
   he/she/it
h. *bazar tekiMg senoyana*  ‘They (two) went to the market’
   they (two)
i. *bazar teko senoyana*  ‘They (pl.) went to the market’
   they (pl.)

Future

The future tense marker is - a.

a. *bazar teM senoa*  ‘I shall go to the market’
b. *bazar telaM senoa*  ‘We (two) [incl] shall go to the market’
c. *bazar tebu senoa* ‘We(pl.) shall go to the market’
d. *bazar tem senoa* ‘You (sg.) shall go to the market’
e. *bazar tekiMg senoa* ‘You (two) shall go to the market’
f. *bazar teko senoa* ‘You (pl.) shall go to the market’
g. *bazar tee senoa* ‘He/she/It will go to the market’
h. *bazar tekiM senoa* ‘He/she/It (two) will go to the market’
i. *bazar teko senoa* ‘They will go to the market’

**Continuous: Present**

The present continuous tense is expressed with the same tense marker as simple present, *-tana*

a. *paRaw tanaiM* ‘I am reading’
   *read*
b. *uliM jometana* ‘I am eating a mango’
   *mango I eating*
c. *ulibu jometana* ‘We are eating a mango’
   *mango we eating*

**Past**

The past continuous is expressed in the following way:

1. The present tense marker *-tana* becomes *-tan*
2. Instead of the last vowel *-a* in *tana*, *-Taikena* is added

Examples are given below.

a. *bazar teM senotonTaikena* ‘I was going to the market’
b. *bazar tem senotonTaikena* ‘You(sg.) were going to the market’
c. *bazar te’e senotonTaikena* ‘He/she/It was going to the market’
Future

The future continuous marker is expressed in the following way:

verb base + future tense marker + kano / keno + person + number marker + Taina

Examples are given below.

a. bazarte senoakanogim Taina  ‘I shall be going to the market’
b. bazarte senoakanogelaM Taina  ‘We (two) shall be going to the market’
c. bazarte senoakanogebu Taina  ‘We(pl.) shall be going to the market’
d. bazarte senoakenogemTaina  ‘You(sg.) shall be going to the market’
e. bazarte senoakenogee Taina  ‘He/she/It will be going to the market’

Perfect: Simple

The simple perfect tense is expressed in the following way:

The o / a in the verbal base is dropped; - lena is added in its place instead.

Examples:

a. bazar teM senlena  ‘I have gone to the market’
b. bazar teben senlena  ‘You (two) have gone to the market’
c. bazar te’e senlena  ‘He/she/it has gone to the market’
d. bazar teko senlena  ‘They have gone to the market’

Past perfect

The marker - Taikena is added to the simple present perfect tense marker to make it past. However the vowel - a is dropped in this process.

Examples:

a. bazar teM senlen Taikena  ‘I had gone to the market’
b. bazaar tem senlenTaikena  ‘You(sg.) d gone to the market’
c. bazaar tekiM senlenTaikena  ‘They (two) had gone to the market’
Future perfect

The future perfect is expressed in the following way:

honaM + personal + number markers + verb base + simple future marker

Examples are given below.

a. bazarte honaM eM senoa ‘I shall have gone to the market’
b. bazarte honaMben senoa ‘You(two) shall have gone to the market’
c. bazarte honaM ko senoa ‘They shall have gone to the market’

Perfect Continuous: Present

The marker -kaMe mena is added to the verb base to express the present perfect continuous tense. The person, number markers follow this one. Examples:

a. bazarte sena kMe mena añ ‘I have been going to the market’
b. bazarte senakaMe menabe ‘You(two) have been going to the market’
c. bazarte senakaMe mena kowa ‘They have been going to the market’

Past perfect continuous

The past perfect continuous tense is marked with

verb base + kaM + Person, Number, Marker + Taikena

Examples:

a. bazarte senokaMi M Taikena ‘I had been going to the market’
b. bazarte senokaMben Taikena ‘You (two) had been going to the market’
c. bazarte senokaMgeko Taikena ‘They had been going to the market’

Future Perfect Continuous

The future perfect continuous tense is expressed in the following way:

verb base + kaM + person, number, markers + Taiyua

Examples:

a. bazarte sena kaM eM Taiyua ‘I shall have been going to the market’
b.  bazarte senakaM e ben Taiyua ‘You (two) shall have been going to the market’

c.  bazarte sena kaMepe Taiyua ‘They shall have been going to the market’

Mood

Mood expresses the attitude of the speaker towards what he is saying in terms of the degree or kind of reality in terms of the indicative, imperative, subjunctive, obligatory, dubitative and permissive of the propositional content of the sentence.

Indicative Mood

a.  gapa ha: tutele senowa ‘We shall go to the village tomorrow’
    tomorrow village we shall go

b.  otere cikana omano kana? ‘What is grown in the field?’
    field in what grow

c.  k'am huju jakeD nentareiM Taina ‘I will stay here until you come’
    you come until here I stay

Imperative Mood

The imperative marker –me is added with the verb.

a.  nenta hujume ‘Come here’
    here come + imp. mark

b.  swaete kajime ‘Speak slowly’
    slowly speak imp. mark.

c.  kitab a: gu uraeme ‘Bring back the book’
    book bring back imp. Mark

Subjunctive Mood

a.  sa damko honaM aparob Taiken redoko apir yana
    horses if wings had if fly
    ‘If horses had wings they would have flown’
b. \textit{paRaw} \textit{ken redoe} \textit{pa:s keDa honaM} \\
studied if he pass would \\
‘If he studied he would pass’

4.2.1.2 NON-FINITE VERB

Infinitive

- \textit{te} or \textit{lagiDte} are the two markers used to express the infinite sense of the action.

1. \textit{amlao paiTiteM senoa} ‘I will go with you to work’ \\
you with work infinite 1\textsuperscript{st} p.m. go

2. \textit{miTay jome lagiDte kuahoneM acui: tana} \\
sweet eat to child I make \\
‘I make the boy to eat the sweets’

Verbal Noun

The verbal noun is formed by inserting a marker -\textit{n} - on the verbal base. This is illustrated with the following examples:

\textit{goe} ‘to kill’ \textit{gonoe} ‘death’ \\
\textit{eTe} ‘begin’ \textit{eneTe} ‘beginning’ \\
\textit{ta: ui} ‘stretch’ \textit{tana: ui} ‘stretching’

Sentence level illustrations :

a. \textit{merome goe ki: ya} ‘He killed the goat’ \\
goat kill

b. \textit{gonete ka po: ca a} ‘We cannot escape from death’ \\
death not escape

c. \textit{mi: TiM naw baje eTeiyoa} ‘The meeting will start at 9 O’clock’ \\
meeting 9 O’clock start will
d. nam sirma eneTere rabaM Taina

new year beginning cold have

‘In the beginning of New Year we have cold’

**Gerund**

- *tan* is added to the base of word to have the gerund. Example:

  aTakar - ‘to know’

  aTakaretan - ‘knowing’

1. kaa kiM sama lugagiya mena bugitekiM aTakaretante

   the parents empty nest that well they knowing

   esudakkute akiMa lugataakiM hujuura lena

   great sorrow they nest there came back

   ‘The parents came back sadly to their nest, knowing well that they would find it empty’

**Participle**

The participle marker in Ho is –*kan*. Examples:

1. yu:akan jokoe halaMkeda

   fallen fruits collected

   ‘She collected the fallen fruits’

2. chapa:kan kitabko bukite paRaw daiyua

   printed books good read are

   ‘Printed books are easy to read’

**4.2.1.3 CAUSATIVE VERB**

The causative marker -*icui / icci* is added to the verb
a. *rama hujulagiDte krisnae acui: tana mendo krisnatara*

Rama come for Krishna-obj make but Krishna

*samoy banoa*

time

‘Rama makes Krishna come but Krishna has no time’

b. *miTay jome lagiDte kuahoneM acui: tana*

sweet eat to the boy I make

‘I make the boy to eat the sweet’

### 4.2.1.4 AUXILIARY AND MODAL VERBS

**Auxiliary**

- *tana* ‘present continuous tense form’, *-kana* ‘past perfect tense marker’ are used to express the temporal effect along with the verb base.

a. *ini gitiekante paRaw tana*

he read pre.con.m.

‘He is lying down and reading’

b. *aya juRtae sena kena*

she friend +obj go pt. perf.

‘She had gone to her friend’

**Modal**

The modals such as *-daiya* ‘may’, *-dayaDa* ‘could’ are added with the verb base.

a. *ini naāwe huju daiya*

he now still come may

‘He may still come’

b. *nen paiTi jaiioe rika dayaDa*

this work anyone do could

‘Anybody could do this work’
4.2.1.5 NEGATIVE VERB

The negative sense is expressed before the base of the verb along with the person, number markers.

a. aiM senoteya Taikana mendo kaiM senoyana
   I go to had but not I go did
   ‘I had to go but I did not go’

b. ale senoteya Taikena mendo kale senoyana
   we (excl.) not we
   ‘We had to go but we did not go’

4.2.1.6 COMPOUND VERB

More than one roots are fused together to form one compound verb:

a. huju + ura = hujuura
   ‘come back’
   come back

b. seno + tab = senotab
   ‘go quickly’
   go quick

a. bauiM baruiteya hujuura lena
   my elder brother forest from come back + pt.m.
   ‘My elder brother came back from the forest’

b. gameitantee owatele senotabe yana
   rain was because house to we go quickly pt.m.
   ‘We went to the house quickly due to rain’
4.2.1.7 PASSIVE FORMATION

The passive voice is formed in the following way:

1. - etee ‘by’ is added to object noun
2. - o the passive marker is added to the verb. Examples:

Active Voice

a. ho: n laM tami: tana ‘We [two] beat the boy’
   boy we two beat pre. ten.

Passive Voice

b. ho: n aLaM etee tamotana ‘The boy is beaten by us’
   the boy us by beaten

Active Voice

c. ho: n em tami: tana ‘You (sg.) beat the boy’
   the boy you (sg) beat pre. ten.

Passive Voice

d. ho: n am ete’e tamotana ‘The boy is beaten by you (sg.)’
   the boy you (sg) by beat pre. ten.

4.2.1.8 TRANSLITIVITY

The object of the sentence takes -e marker and the verb gets changed according to the
person and tense.

Intransitive

1. se: ta bu’i: tana ‘The dog barks’
   dog bark pre. ten.
Transitive

2. \textit{se: ta} \textit{bilaye} \textit{bua: tana}
dog cat – obj. barking ‘The dog is barking at the cat’

3. \textit{ini} \textit{janaw} \textit{oyeko’e} \textit{goea}
he always birds obj. kill ‘He always kill the bird’

4.2.2 ADVERB

Adverbs are the classes of words, which are used to modify the verb. Adverbs are semantically divided into different groups as follows. The adverb, which qualifies the verb, generally precedes the verb in Ho language.

Time:

The time adverb precedes the verb.

a. \textit{car} \textit{baje} \textit{canap} \textit{hujume} ‘You come after four O’clock’
   four o’ clock after come

b. \textit{aiM} \textit{hujuu} \textit{ayarte} \textit{ko} \textit{senoyana}
   I come before they go perfect ‘They had gone before I came’

Other Examples:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{tara siMi} ‘afternoon’
  \item \textit{jokaga:Di} ‘after wards’
  \item \textit{on Domise} ‘again’
  \item \textit{a: yerte} ‘before’
  \item \textit{jawge} ‘daily’
  \item \textit{basiyem} ‘clock’
  \item \textit{ayupaM} ‘evening’
  \item \textit{di:n} ‘day’
\end{itemize}
Number

The numeral adverb precedes the verb.

a.  
mi  cenDu: re  dōsi  ulaMhobauoa

one  month  thirty  days  has

‘A month has thirty days’

b.  
aNDiya  uri  bariyae  diriM  ana

bull  two  horns  has

‘The bull has two horns’

Place

The placial adverb precedes the verb.

a.  
oye  boo  setantee  apiryana

bird  head  over  flew

‘The bird flew over the head’

b.  
kam  huju  jakeD  nentareiM  Taina

you  come  until  here  I  stay

‘I will stay here until you come’

Manner

The manner adverbs precede the verb.

a.  
rama  keDetee  nire:  tana

‘Rama runs quickly’

quickly  runs
b. *kajiko sapa sapa oleme* ‘Write the words neatly’

Other Examples:

- *amatalaM* ‘kindly’
- *kakala* ‘loudly’
- *suwe suwe ete* ‘slowly’
- *sarige* ‘truly’

**Other adverbs**

The other adverbs such as directional, measurement etc. are listed below:

**Direction adverbs**

- *siMi o: l* ‘east’
- *tunDu* ‘end’
- *kaTTa cambara* ‘south’
- *bo opa* ‘north’
- *ta la re* ‘middle’
- *saMin* ‘far’
- *ba: har* ‘out’
- *kōnye pa* ‘left side’
- *jappa* ‘near’

**Measurement adverbs**

- *sa ben muli* ‘area of’
- *ji: liM* ‘length’
- *ha na TiM* ‘part’
- *ti: n ko: n* ‘triangle’

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Quantitative adverbs

The quantitative adverbs precede the verb.

a. *ape sabenko misate tamipe* ‘You all together beat him’
you (pl.) all together him beat him

b. *barojakeD ote si: ben* ‘You both plough the field’
two both land plough

4.2.3 PARTICLE / CLITIC

Particle
Some of the words that used as particles are as follows:

- *eya* ‘yes’
- *ka* ‘no, not’
- *bano* ‘no, not (in certain contexts)’
- *alom* ‘not’
- *honaM* ‘a word added in conditional sentence to indicate that the condition is not realized’

Clitic

- *do* is used in the conditional clause.
  - *banredo/ karedo* ‘or’

a. *aben baro banredo / karedo apeyahoko misate baba irape*
you two or three men together paddy cut
  ‘You two or three together cut the paddy crop’
  - *onDo* ‘and’

b. *olae hujulena onDoe senoyana*
yesterday he came and he went
  ‘He came yesterday and went away’
4.2.4 ECHO WORD / REDUPLICATION

Echo word

In echo words, the first consonant of the following word changes into another one.

kilimili  ‘various’
daTa buTa  ‘gum’

Reduplicate words

The word repeats as the same of preceding one.

suwe suwe  ‘slow’
taMan taMan  ‘separate’
dur dur  ‘water fall’
ku: r ku: r  ‘fury’
mise mise  ‘sometimes’
maraM mara: M  ‘wide’
5. SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages and rules governing the order of combining the words to form sentences in a language. In Ho language, the sentences are found in different types. It is so simple as follow sometimes:

*seta bu' uitana*  ‘The dog barks’

dog    barks

The above sentence consists of the subject and the intransitive verb only.

Sometimes, the sentence is possible without the obvious verb as well.

*nena aña kitab*  ‘This is my book’

dog    barks

On other occasions, Ho sentence consists of a subject, object adverb as cited in the following example:

*aña ho: nera bakkaire minai a*

my    daughter    garden in    is

subject    object    verb

‘My daughter is in the garden’

Sometimes, the Ho sentences are having more number of words (consisting of phrases and sentences) as follow:

*añi ini’ nel teM senl enre giti akene Taikana*

I    him    see to I    went when    sleep    cont.    pt. Ten.m.

‘He was sleeping when I went to see him’

Like discussed above, Ho language has different types of sentences.
5.1 ORDER OF WORDS IN SENTENCES

The sentence pattern of Ho language is as follows:

Subject + object + verb

a. aMa miyaD owa mena ‘I have one house’
   I one house have

The number marker is added to the object to make plural.
b. aMa upuni: ya owako mena ‘I have four houses’
   house + pl.m.

The case marker is added to the object of the sentence.
c. aMa owate senome ‘You go to my house’
   to

Analysis of a simple sentence

ini jokapoisae namtana ‘He wants some money’
He some paise obj. wants
Subject : ini ‘he’
Predicate : namtana ‘wants’
Enlargement : joka ‘some’
Object : poisae ‘paise’

Noun Phrase

Noun + Noun

1. aya ote ‘His field’
   his field
2. kuitini: ya kanci ‘The basket of woman’
   woman of basket
3. aMa era’a kanci ‘The basket of my wife’

Adjective + Noun

1. bugin hon ‘The good child’
   good child

2. bugin kuahon ‘The good boy’
   boy

3. bugin kuahonko ‘The good boys’
   Boys

Verb phrase

1. nenta hujume ‘Come here’
   here come

2. otere dubme ‘Sit on the floor’
   floor on sit

Adverb phrase

1. swaete kajime ‘Slowly speak’
   slowly speak

2. keDete alam kaji: a ‘Don’t speak loudly’
   loudly don’t speak

5.2 DESCRIPTION OF TYPES OF SENTENCES

Interrogative sentence

The interrogative words cikanreya ‘why’ okon ‘where’ oko ‘whose’ are occur in the sentence initial position or just after the subject.

a) cikanreya am senotana ? ‘Why are you going?’
   why you going
b) *nena cikanako meta?* ‘What is this called?’

what called

c) *ni okonete huju akana?* ‘Where has he come from?’

he where from come

d) *ini okoea sadom?* ‘Whose horse is this?’

whose

**Imperative**

The imperative marker -me is added to the verb to and comes last of the sentence.

a. *kajiko sapa sapa olem* ‘Write the words neatly’

words neatly write

b. *kitab a: g u r a e me* ‘Bring back the book’

book bring back

c. *owate senoame onDo hujuurame* ‘Go home and come back’

home go and come back

**Negative**

The negative sentences are made up of the two words *alom* and *ka*, which are inserted in the affirmative sentences.

1. *neleka alom kajie* ‘Don’t say thus’

thus not

2. *aiM nena kaiM ri: kadaiyu* ‘I cannot do this’

I this not can

3. *nena ka hobadaiyu* ‘It is impossible’

It not possible
Causative

1. *Taka emame lagiD miDoaM acui: tana*
   
   money give to some one I make
   
   ‘I am making someone give you money’

2. *moĩ Takka nalatani emei lagiD miDoe acui: tana*
   
   five rupees worker give to someone make
   
   ‘She is making someone give five rupees to worker’

Co-ordinate

The words such as onDo ‘and’ mendo ‘but’ are used to co-ordinate this different sentences into one.

1. *eMa kaa jaromemutiD biM*
   
   hen crow egg lay everytime make
   
   *lugatatee rakaba onDo jaromkoe uDea*
   
   nest to climbed and eggs obj. ate
   
   ‘Everytime the hen crow laid the eggs, the snake climbed upto the nest and ate the eggs.

2. *ale senoteya Taikana mendo kale senoyana*
   
   we (excl.) go had but not we
   
   ‘We had to go but we did not go’
5.3 DESCRIPTION OF PATTERN OF SENTENCES

Simple

This is expressed without any embedded clause, i.e. only main clause is present.

1. *nena aMa owa*  ‘This is my house’
   
   this my house

2. *aya ho: nerako nenta: re kowa*  ‘His daughters are here’
   
   his daughters here are

Complex

Complex sentence has one main clause as well as one or more subordinate clause.

1. *aM ini nelteM senlenre gitiakene Taikana*  
   
   I him see went when sleeping was

   ‘He was sleeping when I went to see him’

2. *sadamko honaM aparob Taikanredoko apirya: na*  
   
   horses if wings had if flown

   ‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

Compound

The compound sentence has many embedded sentences into one (many complex sentences in one sentence). The connective words such as *ini* ‘for whom’, *onDo* ‘and’ are used to compound many complex sentences into one.

1. *en darureya kukurure miyaD hende biM Taikena,*  
   
   that tree’s hole in one black snake lived

   *ini kaa kiM esupurakiM borowaytanTaikena*  

   for whom birds great fear pt. ten.

   ‘In one of that tree’s hole a black snake lived for whom they (birds)feared greatly’
2. *eMa kaa apir a: duyana onDo sonariya miyan*

mother crow fly down past mark. and gold of one

*hisir go’okeDte aemena dari pa: te swe sweteye*

chain beak carry by his live tree towards slowly

*apirtanTaikena*

fly started

‘The mother crow flew down and picked up one gold chain in its beak and started to fly towards the tree on which she lived’


“Among the spreading branches of a banana tree lived a crow and his wife, the crow – hen. In the nest were four little eggs which the parents guarded with great care. In a hollow of that tree – trunk lived a black snake whom the crows feared greatly. Every time the crow – hen laid her eggs the snake crawled up to the nest and ate the up”.
“nen hende biM nendunao aña jaram koe jomere nen darure
this black snake this time also my eggs – obj. eat if this tree in

onDo’do kaiñ Taina.alaMa luga eTa taare laM bai’te obawa”
longer no I live our nest somewhere we build to must

mente eMa sa: nDi kaaekajiaDa
like this hen crow said

“‘If the black snake eats up my eggs this time also, I refuse to live in this tree any longer. We must build our nest somewhere else,’” said the mother bird to her husband”.

alaM nenta’are esupuradinlaM TaikeDa sa: nDi kaamenkeDa,
we two this place many days lived male crow said

“añ aña owa bage: teya onDo eTa ta’are Tainteyakaiñ sanaM tana’.
I my house leave to and other place in live to not I wish

ena kiM jagar tanre akiM latar japalrege pôm pôm saRikiM
this they while they two below near snake sound

ayum keDa. en saRi reya ma: ne kiM somja: wyana. akiMajaramko
heard that sound of means they knew their eggs

hardu ui tan lo luga re kiM dubha: payana. hende biM luga
protect obj. pre them nest in their sat helplessly past black snake nest
We have lived here a long time. I can’t bear to desert my home and go to live elsewhere, “said the crow. While they were talking, they heard a hissing sound just below them. They knew what the sound meant. They sat helplessly in the nest trying to protect their eggs. The black snake crept higher and closer to the nest. Then with a loud hiss he tried to strike at the birds who flew away in terror. One by one, the black snake swallowed the eggs.”

“We have lived here a long time. I can’t bear to desert my home and go to live elsewhere, “said the crow. While they were talking, they heard a hissing sound just below them. They knew what the sound meant. They sat helplessly in the nest trying to protect their eggs. The black snake crept higher and closer to the nest. Then with a loud hiss he tried to strike at the birds who flew away in terror. One by one, the black snake swallowed the eggs.”

The parents came back sadly to their nest, knowing well that they would find it empty. The crow said, “I must find a way to try this murderous snake”.

“The parents came back sadly to their nest, knowing well that they would find it empty. The crow said, “I must find a way to try this murderous snake”.

this/him how kill can him his biting deadly like this
huRiMjiyengee eMa kaa kajikeDa.

desperation with wife told

“How can you ever fight him? His sting is so deadly, said his wife in despair”.

sa: nDi kajikeDa, “alom uRu: a, dulaD, aña miDojuDi

husband said don’t worry dear my one friend

mineiya, ini ita: re esupura bisiyaM biM koe goe teya

is him with many poisonous snake. Acc kill to

budimena ente miyan eTa darutee apiryana endaru subare

idea having then one other tree to flew that tree under

aya dulaD juRi tuyu Taikena.

his dear friend jackal lived

““Don’t you worry, my dear, I’ve got a friend who is cuning enough to destroy the most poisonous of snakes,” said the crow, and off he flew to another tree under which lived his dear friend, the jackal”.

biM jaromko cilika barabarie jomkeDamena tuyu

snake eggs how always ate that jackal

ayumkeDree menkeDa juRiM, kur kur onDo jumbuikoa

heard when obj said friend cruel and greedy pl.

dunDu jana: w bugi ka hobaua alom boreya, añ ini

and always good not happen don’t fear I him

goji: teya añ uRu: gu joka: keDa

kill to I think already past mar
“When the jackal heard how the snake always ate up the eggs, he said, “My friend, those who are cruel and greedy always meet with a bad end. Have no fear, I’ve already thought of a plan to destroy him”.

"sa: nDi kajikeDa, " o! ena cikanatana kaji yaïme?". ente husband said O that what is say to me then eTa ‘ ako ayumtageya menaborete tuyu haTTammaTTamte other people hear may that fear with jackal whispering aya juRi kajiyaïya, am biM gojilagiD cikanamrikayate his friend said you snake kill to what you do hobaua mentaya sa: nDi kaa aya eratae apir urayanaonDo should husband bird his wife flew back and cikana rikateaye kajiyaïya. kaa kaji keDa, “nena musukilpaiTitana what do to sub-mar told crow said this risky work alaM esu husiyar te laM Tainte hobaua we very careful to we be have to

“Oh, do tell me what it is,” said the crow. Then the jackal, fearing he might be overheard, whispered to his friend what he should do to destroy the snake. The crow flew back to his wife and told her about the plan. “It is rather,” said the crow”. “We’ll have to be very careful”.

eMa kaa borsa: tee kajikeDa, ‘aïna jaramko harduui mother bird bravely said my eggs save lagiD sabena aïn rikeya ‘

to whole I do

“I’ll do anything to save my eggs,” said the mother bird bravely”.  

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en canab inkiM en disumren raja owa pa: te kiM
that after they that country of raja palace towards pl. (two)
apiryana. ra: ja owa akiM mena daruite purasaniMrekaTaikena
flew palace their lived tree from much far in not was
inkiM raja owa ‘ are ‘ a bakkairea miyan mara: Mbanda
they king palace’s in garden in one big pond
japakiM beTakeDa enta: re ra: j kuma: ri / ra: ja owarenkuitanko
near reached there palace women / palace ladies
oRan tankiM nelTo keTkoa. en kuitanko akowa sonare ‘ a
bath take they see past that ladies their golden
hisirko moMa hisirko onDo eTasiMarko bandaku Tireko
chains pearl and other ornaments pond edge in pl.
emtaD Taikena. eMa kaa apir a: duyana onDo sonariya
put had mother crow fly down past and gold of
miyan hisir go ‘ o keDte aemena daru pa ‘ ate swesweteya
one chain carry beak past by his live tree towards slowly
api tan Taikena raja owa pa: ra tanko kaa sonariya hisirgooakate
fly started palace guards bird golden chain carrying
apirtenko nelkiyi: te akowaa so: Takoko sapKeDa onDo kaa ko
flying saw they are clubs hold past and crows
kakiki: a kaa sonariya hisir miya darureya kukuru reyutaD ko
chased crow golden chain one tree of hole in drop pt. pl.
nelki: ya. horotanko koyete miDo (miDo horatani ) hisir iDlagiD te
saw guards among one chain to take for
“So off they flew towards the place of the king of the country. The palace was not far from the tree in which they lived. They approached a big pond in the palace garden where they saw the royal ladies having a bath. They had laid to their golden chains, pearl necklaces and other jewellery on the edge of the pond. The mother bird flew down, picked up a gold chain in her beak and started flying slowly towards the tree in which she lived. When the palace guards saw the bird flying off with the gold chain, they took up their clubs and chased the bird. They saw the bird drop the chain into the hollow of a tree. One of the guards climbed up the tree to get the chain. As he put his hand inside the hole to get the chain, he saw a black snake curled up there. With one hard stoke of his club he killed it and that was the end of the black snake”.

“The crow and the crow-hen lived in that tree happily afterwards and had many little baby crows”.
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