CVC  
ca:b  ‘yawn’
CVVC  
nail  ‘plough’
CVCC  
soND  ‘trunk of elephant’
CVCC  
hu:ns  ‘goose’

Structure  
(C)  
V  (C)  (C)  (C)  (C)

In all these the vowel constitutes the peak of a syllable and forms vocalic cluster within the same syllable. In the case of consonant clusters they occur in between the syllables that mean they form syllable boundaries resulting in abutting.

Now considering the syllable as the basic constituent of an utterance we can say that the whole utterance is a sequence of syllables. Any Ho utterance can be represented by the general structure.

#  V  { V  (C)  }  CV  [VC]  #

The di-, tri-, tetra-, penta- and hexa- syllabic forms confine to the above structure and they all show open- and close-type syllables.

Morphology

Noun

In Ho noun stems are classified into three classes, namely substantives, pronouns and numerals. Of these, substantives are further categorized into non-derived and derived noun stems and the non-derived noun stems are divided into animate nouns and inanimate nouns.

Animate nouns

All those noun stems, which in addition to the genitive suffixes and post positions, can take dual and plural number suffixes kin and ko respectively belong to the category of animate nouns. These number suffixes are also marked in the verb phrase in the case of third person subject and object. Example

Teom  ‘wolf’
tu:?  ‘squirrel’
ho  ‘human being’

kuid  ‘vulture’
Tua:u  ‘cuckoo’

Inanimate nouns

The inanimate noun stems differ from the animates by not taking suffixes for number and are not marked in the verb phrase. In cases where the duality or plurality is to be emphasized upon they may take such suffixes. Example

Duki  ‘urine’
ji:  ‘soul’

ula:  ‘vomit’
tetAM  ‘thirst’

Gender

The animate nouns undergo genderisation basing on the sex differences conveyed through meaning of the words.

Masculine

kua  ‘male’
kuma:M  ‘maternal uncle’
honja:r  ‘father-in-law’
bor  ‘groom’

sa:ND seta  ‘dog’

sa:ND si:m  ‘cock’
ruda miNDi  ‘sheep’ (M)
keDa:  ‘buffalo’ (M)

Feminine

era:kui  ‘female’
hatom  ‘maternal aunt’
hana:r  ‘mother-in-law’
nama era  ‘bride’
eMga sata  ‘bitch’
eMgasim  ‘hen’
eMga mINDi  ‘sheep’ (F)
moisi  ‘buffalo’ (F)
Number

Ho has three way distinction of number, namely, singular, dual and plural. The singular is unmarked -$\phi$ and dual and plural are marked by -$kiM$ and -$ko$ respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ipil -$\phi$</td>
<td>ipil-$kiM$</td>
<td>ipil-$ko$</td>
<td>'star'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guyu -$\phi$</td>
<td>guMu-$kiM$</td>
<td>guyu-$ko$</td>
<td>'hut'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:Di -$\phi$</td>
<td>ka:Di-$kiM$</td>
<td>ka:Di-$ko$</td>
<td>'key'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joTTo -$\phi$</td>
<td>joTTo-$kiM$</td>
<td>joTTo-$ko$</td>
<td>'coconut leaf'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uli -$\phi$</td>
<td>uli-$kiM$</td>
<td>uli-$ko$</td>
<td>'mango'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The dual and plural suffixes may only be used with inanimate objects. Nouns denoting family relations take te before the dual and plural suffixes.

(Dual) guMgu-te-$kiM$ ‘father’s (elder) brother’
(Plural) guMgu-te-$ko$ ‘father’s (elder) brother’
(Dual) misti-te-$kiM$ ‘younger sister’
(Plural) misti-te-$ko$ ‘younger sister’

Cases

There are eight cases in Ho. Of these, nominative and accusative are not marked. All the other cases use specific markers.

Dative

The suffixes are two namely -$tare$, -$tate$. These are used with animate nouns where indirect object is not included in the verb. Example

ho-$tare$, ho-$tate$ ‘to the human being’
giti-$tare$, giti-$tate$ ‘to the sand’
sirjan-$tare$, sirja-$tate$ ‘to the nature’

Instrumental

The suffix is -$te$. It occurs with all inanimate nouns. Example

gila:si-$te$ ‘with glass’
domga-$tes$ ‘with boat’

Ablative

The suffixes are -$te$, -$taete$, -$paete$.

These are grouped under two categories, namely definite and indefinite. The first two belong to definite category and the latter one to indefinite category. Example

haTia-$taete$ ‘from the lane’
biqli-$paete$ ‘from the vicinity of the magician’
a:r paete ‘from near the yoke’
oi-$paete$ ‘from near the book’

Genitive

The suffixes are -$a$, -$ren$, -$rea$

These convey the senses of possession, partitive and relation.

{-$ren$} $\sim$ -$ren$, -$rea$, -$a$

kira:mi-$ren$ ‘of the clerk’
kamila:-$rea$ ‘of the goldsmith’
da:Ndie-$a$ ‘of the broker’

Locative

The suffixes are -$re$, -$tare$, -$pare$

These are used divergently, namely, definite and indefinite. Example

hasa:$re$ ‘in the soil’
so$Lopo$-$pare$ ‘in the vicinity of the road’

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The above suffixes have three variants, namely, *te*, *tate* and *pate* respectively and these indicate location and motion.

**Vocative**

The suffixes are *-ate*, *-atea*. Example

*ate ho*  ‘oh, man’  
*aTea kiyōTa*  ‘oh, fisherman’

*ate ra:ja:*  ‘oh, Raja’

**Pronoun**

In Ho, there are two types of pronouns, namely, personal pronoun and non-personal pronouns. The personal pronouns are three- first, second and third showing three way number distinction, namely, singular, dual and plural. The first person dual and plural also show inclusive and exclusive distinction. Pronouns denoting the inanimates do not have dual and plural. The forms of personal pronouns are as below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I <em>aiM</em> ‘I’</td>
<td><em>alaM</em> ‘we’</td>
<td><em>abu</em> ‘we(inclusive)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II <em>am</em> ‘you’</td>
<td><em>abhin</em> ‘you(non-honorific)’</td>
<td><em>alc</em> ‘we(exclusive)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III <em>ai</em> ‘he/she’</td>
<td><em>akiM</em> ‘he/she’</td>
<td><em>ake</em> ‘you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>nia</em> ‘it’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The formation of all the personal pronouns is made by prefixing a non-personal /a-/ which is a free form marker. The exception to this general rule are the third person singular human and non-human forms. When the pronominal subject is emphasised it can occur independently with free form marker /a/ as prefix and emphasis marker /ge/ as suffix.

**Non-personal pronouns**

The non-personal pronouns are interrogative, indefinite and demonstrative pronouns.

**Interrogative pronoun**

Animate-  *okoe*  ‘who’

Inanimate-  *okona, cikana*  ‘what’

*cilekama*  ‘what sort of’

These pronouns are declinable like the others. But the dual and plural forms of the animate interrogative pronoun are - *okoetkiM* and *okoeteko* respectively. The adjectival forms, namely, *okoM*, *cikan* and *cilekan* are used before animate and inanimate nouns alike.

**Indefinite pronoun**

These are obtained from the indefinite adjectives *jan*, *eTa* and *ja* in the same way as demonstrative pronouns are formed from demonstrative adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>jan</em>  ‘any’</th>
<th><em>ja</em>  ‘any at all’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>jani</em>  ‘any one’</td>
<td><em>jai (ge)</em>  ‘any one at all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>jana</em>  ‘anything’</td>
<td><em>jakiM</em>  ‘anything at all’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>eTa</em>  ‘other, another’</th>
<th><em>ja</em>  ‘any at all’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>eTai</em>  ‘another one’</td>
<td><em>jaa</em>  ‘anything at all’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eta</em>  ‘another thing’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Demonstrative pronouns

These pronouns are formed from the demonstrative adjectives ne ‘this’ en ‘that’ and ter ‘that far away’, by the addition of -i, -kiM, -ko when animate objects are denoted and by the addition of the neuter form ‘a’ when inanimate objects are indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demonstrative pronouns</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>‘this’</td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>nikiM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>‘that’</td>
<td>ini, eni</td>
<td>inkiM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ter</td>
<td>‘far off’</td>
<td>teri</td>
<td>enkiM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All these forms can be declined in the same way as nouns and personal pronouns.

The word leka ‘like’ is added to the demonstrative adjectives to form compounds. By adding the simple personal forms -i, -kiM and -ko and the demonstrative pronouns ni, nikiM and neko we get the compound forms. Burrows treats them as compound demonstratives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nilekai</td>
<td>NilekakiM</td>
<td>Nilekako</td>
<td>‘any animate thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nilekani</td>
<td>NilekankiM</td>
<td>Nilekanko</td>
<td>like this’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inilekai</td>
<td>InilekakiM</td>
<td>Inilekako</td>
<td>‘any animate thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inilekani</td>
<td>InilekankiM</td>
<td>Inilekanko</td>
<td>like that’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terlekai</td>
<td>TerlekakiM</td>
<td>Terlakako</td>
<td>‘any animate thing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terlekani</td>
<td>TerlekankiM</td>
<td>Terlekanko</td>
<td>like that(‘far off’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjectives

Adjectives in Ho are of two types. These are simple and derived adjectives.

Simple adjectives -∅

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>saben</th>
<th>‘all’</th>
<th>etka</th>
<th>‘bad’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mara:M</td>
<td>‘big’</td>
<td>KaDubaM</td>
<td>‘curved’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osa:r</td>
<td>‘broad’</td>
<td>Rea</td>
<td>‘cold’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ikir</td>
<td>‘deep’</td>
<td>Ro?</td>
<td>‘dry’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rokka:</td>
<td>‘fresh’</td>
<td>Lolo</td>
<td>‘hot’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Derived adjectives

- n bugi ‘good’  - n > bugin ‘good’
- an bilk – an > bilkan ‘kind’
- akan (used in perfect participle) bul – a kan ‘to drink’> bulakan ‘drunk’
- a (dropped when occurring with numerals) baria> bar ‘two’  apia > api ‘three’
- gelea > gel ‘ten’ etc.
- sa (suffixed to the numerals to get proportional forms) mid – sa? > mid sa? ‘once’

First syllable is duplicated to get distributives

bar> ba-baria < baria ‘in twos’
Numerals

Ho numeral system is similar to other Munda languages. The simple numerals are counted from one to ten. The higher numerals are counted as multiples of twenty. The Ho forms are listed below.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{miad} & \quad \text{‘one’} \\
\text{apia} & \quad \text{‘three’} \\
\text{moa} & \quad \text{‘five’} \\
\text{aca} & \quad \text{‘seven’} \\
\text{area} & \quad \text{‘nine’} \\
\text{hisi} & \quad \text{‘twenty’}
\end{align*}
\]

The form \text{miad} has two more alternative forms, namely, \text{puNua/eob} (used with all nouns except animals) and \text{aer} (used only with names of animals). Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{puNua hon} & \quad \text{‘first child’} \\
\text{aer miun} & \quad \text{‘first calf’}
\end{align*}
\]

The higher numerals are obtained by multiplying twenty. Example

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{‘40’} & \quad \text{barhisi} & \quad \text{as} & \quad 20\times2=40 \\
\text{‘60’} & \quad \text{apihisi} & \quad \text{as} & \quad 20\times3=60 \\
\text{‘100’} & \quad \text{moahisi} & \quad \text{as} & \quad 20\times5=100
\end{align*}
\]

The forms \text{puNua/eob} and \text{aer} also function as the ordinal forms. For fractionals the original Ho forms are lost and the corresponding Oriya forms are borrowed and used as such.

Verbs

The verb roots in Ho are of two broad classes, namely, transitive and intransitive having different sets of tense and aspect markers. Below are presented the tense and aspect markers.

[Transitive verb]

- Present
- Past
- Future
- Imperfect
- Perfect

Not overtly marked: The copula is directly added to the root

- \text{tantaiken}
- \text{akad, tad}

[Intransitive verb]

- Present
- Past
- Future
- Imperfect
- Perfect

Not overtly marked. The copula is directly added to the root

- \text{tantaiken}
- \text{akan}

Structure: \{Verb Stem\} + Tense + \{Copula etc.\}

Conjugation of verb \text{seno} ‘to go’

Present tense \text{seno} - \text{-tan-}

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{seno-e-tan-a-iM} & \quad \text{‘I am going’} \\
\text{seno-e-tan-a-m} & \quad \text{‘you are going’} \\
\text{seno-e-tan-a-e} & \quad \text{‘he/she is going’}
\end{align*}
\]

Dual

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{seno-e-tan-a-ben} & \quad \text{‘you two are going’} \\
\text{seno-e-tan-a-kiM} & \quad \text{‘they two are going’}
\end{align*}
\]

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Plural
seno-e-tan-a-pe  ‘you are going’
seno-e-tan-a-ko  ‘they are going’

Past tense { - ked - }

Singular
seno-ked-a-iM  ‘I went’
seno-ked-a-m  ‘you went’
seno-ked-a-e  ‘he/she went’
seno-ked-a  ‘it went’

Dual
seno-ked-a-laM  ‘you and I went’
seno-ked-a-liM  ‘he/she and I went’
seno-ked-a-ben  ‘you two went’
seno-ked-a-kiM  ‘they two went’

Plural
seno-ked-a-bu  ‘you and I went’
seno-ked-a-le  ‘they and I went’
seno-ked-a-pe  ‘you went’
seno-ked-a-ko  ‘they went’

In Intransitive verbs, the past tense markers are ken and ean in place of -ked-.

Future tense

In future tense the copula is directly added to the root.

Singular
seno-e-a-iM  ‘I will go’
seno-e-a-m  ‘you will go’
seno-e-a-e  ‘he/she will go’
seno - e – a  ‘it will go’

Dual
seno-e-a-laM  ‘we(two) will go’
seno-e-a-liM  ‘he/she and I will go’
seno-e-a-ben  ‘you two will go’
seno-e-a-kiM  ‘they two will go’

Plural
seno-e-a-bu  ‘you and I will go’
seno-e-a-le  ‘they and I will go’
seno-e-a-pe  ‘you will go’
seno-e-a-ko  ‘they will go’

Aspect/Imperfect  { -taiken- }  Example
seno-e-taiko-a-iM  ‘I was going’
seno-e-taiko-a-ben  ‘you two were going’
em-ako-taiko-a-bu  ‘you and I were giving to them’
hisi Ta: ka:re ne minko-e akriMko tana  ‘he is selling these calves for twenty rupees’
Perfect  \{ -a akad- \} Example
seno-akad-a-iM    ‘I had gone’
seno-akad-a-m     ‘you had gone’
seno-akad-a-e     ‘he or she had gone’
seno-akad-a       ‘it had gone’
seno-akad-a-laM   ‘you and I had gone’
seno-akad-a-riM   ‘he/she and I had gone’
seno-akad-a-ben   ‘you two had gone’
seno-akad-a-kiM   ‘they two had gone’
seno-akad-a-bu    ‘you and I had gone’
seno-akad-a-le    ‘they and I had gone’
seno-akad-a-pe    ‘you had gone’
seno-akad-a-ko    ‘they had gone’

The alternative perfect marker \{ -tad \} is used only with the animate direct object.

Conditional  \{ -redo \}
Present        seno-e-tan-redo-liM   ‘if I am going’
Imperfect     seno-etan taikenredoiM ‘if I was going’
Perfect       senoakadredoiM      ‘if I had gone’
Past          senokedredoiM       ‘if I would have gone’
Future        senoeredoiM        ‘if I will bring it’

Prohibitive  \{ -a:lo- \} It is generally followed by indicative future.
a:lom senoa     ‘don’t go’
a:lom gitia     ‘don’t sleep’
a:lom rapudea   ‘don’t break it’

Interrogative  \{ -ci \} It is placed at the end of the sentence.
haTTem senoea na:ci? ‘did you go to the market?’
aIMlom hujua ci?    ‘will you come with me?’

Negative  \{ ka- \} It is placed immediately before the verb.
kaiM senoetana     ‘I am not going’
kaam emakaia       ‘you have not given it to him’
ne daru ka go?otana ‘this tree is not dying’

Auxiliary verb  \{ mena- \} ‘to be’
Singular
menaiMga          ‘I am’
menamea           ‘you are’
menaeea           ‘he/she is’
mena              ‘it is’

Dual
menalaMga         ‘you and I am’ etc.
menaliMga         ‘he/she and I am’
menabena          ‘you two are’
menakiiMa         ‘they two are’
Plural

menabua  ‘you and I are’
menalea  ‘they and I are’
menapea  ‘you are’
menakoa  ‘they are’

/ mena/ is also used to express possession. Example
aina miad seta menae  ‘I have got a dog’

Adverb

Adverbs are categorized into a) adverb of time b) adverb of place and direction c) adverb of quality and d) adverb of manner

Adverb of time

tisiM  ‘to day’
gapa  ‘tomorrow’
meaM  ‘the day after tomorrow’
dinsi  ‘every day’
ne sirma  ‘this year’
kalom  ‘next year’
huju ca:NDu?  ‘next month’
haT mutid  ‘every week’

Adverb of place and direction

nenre  ‘here’
enre/enta  ‘there in that place’
leMgaTi: pa:re  ‘on the left hand’
sirmare  ‘above the top’
bitarre  ‘inside’
japare  ‘near/close by’
taiomere  ‘behind’
canabre  ‘at the end’

Adverb of quality

tsu  ‘much’
timba  ‘very much’
huriM  ‘a little’
ciminaM  ‘how much’
oNDo  ‘again’

Adverb of manner

aujate  ‘quickly’
borote  ‘timidly’
maite  ‘softly’
kurkure  ‘angrily’
hapalekate  ‘quietly’
nelolekate  ‘visibly’

Syntax

Ho is a SVO type of language and Ho sentences are phrase based.

Phrases

Syntactically, the phrases are divided into four main groups, namely, noun phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase and verb phrase.

Noun Phrase (NP)

The noun phrases are generally endocentric and rarely exocentric. A noun phrase may be either attributive, additive, appositional or a vocative.

Attributive (NP)

Herein, noun the head of the construction receives modifiers as numerals, possessives and emphatic particles attributively. Example

ne kua  ‘this male child’
enu daru  ‘that far off tree’
isu pura? cauli  ‘sufficient rice’
maid koDa seta  ‘(any) one dog’
bar darukiM  ‘two trees’
daru rea? oe  ‘bird of the tree’
ain seta  ‘my dog’
merom-o  ‘even the cattle’
gaLa atom  ‘the riverside’

oe -ge  ‘only the bird’
kuahon -do  ‘the young boy’

Additive (NP)
The additive NP have two heads juxtaposed. Here, the connector is optional.
uri? merom  ‘cattle’
kolohon ci kuithon  ‘boy or girl’
ram oDo sita  ‘Ram and Sita’
kula: ad uri?  ‘tiger and the bull’

Appositional (NP)
Here, two nouns function as attributes to each other. Example
giria hatu  ‘the village giria’
simplipahaD buru  ‘the hill Simplipahar’

when used with identifiers: am bugin kua  ‘you, the good boy’
Loga, etken ho  ‘Loga, bad man’

Vocative (NP)
Vocative may be identified by intonation. Example
am hoko  ‘you men’
ate mamu  ‘my uncle’
am sepeD  ‘you bachelor’
jia: MO  ‘oh! grand mother’
elo uNDi  ‘oh! my younger brother’

Adjective phrase (AP)
Herein, the combination of words or morphemes may be replaced by a single word of the
category of adjective with in a clause or sentence. Example
ne gonke daru  ‘tree of this master’
bi:r ra? daru  ‘tree of the jungle’
daru rea jo  ‘fruit of the jungle’
sustren era:  ‘wife of Susi’

with intensifier:
ne isu mara:M daru  ‘this very big tree’
oDo uiu  ‘more anxious’
mara:M ja?  ‘big perhaps’
huDiM- huDim  ‘very small’

Adverb phrase
Herein, combinations of free and dependent morphemes which form adverb phrases are replaced
by a single word of the category of adverb within a sentence. The adverb phrases are of locative and
temporal types.

Locative phrase
The locative phrases have the relators -re, -tare and -pare and their variants -te, -tate and
-pate-
kami-tate-ruda:  ‘to return from the work’
daru-tare-rakab  ‘to climb on a tree’
bi:r -re seno  ‘to go into the forest’

Temporal phrases
Here also relators -re, -tare and -pare are used for adverb of time and these are suffixed to
nouns or adjectives. Examples
seta: -re  ‘since morning’
musin  ‘one day’
main-main  ‘slowly’
holatare  ‘since yesterday’
moa-ma  ‘five days’
jur-jur  ‘very smooth’
Verb phrase (VP)

Herein, a phrase can be substituted by a single word of the category of verbs. The verb phrases are of three types: 1) with infinitives, 2) with intensifiers and 3) with imperative markers. Example

\[
\text{jom eTe} \quad \text{'to begin to eat'} \\
\text{dola seno? aiM} \quad \text{'let me go'} \\
\text{kamiToDa} \quad \text{'to continue to work'} \\
\text{mar seno?pe} \quad \text{'you may go'}
\]

Description of types of sentences

Ho sentences may be broadly classified into two categories, namely, minor sentences and major sentences.

Minor sentences are those which are structurally deviant but acceptable. They occur in isolation and thus differentiated from clauses or phrases. It can be either incomplete or stereo-type. On the other hand, major sentences are those which are structurally and semantically well-formed. They are classified as simple, compound and complex depending upon the clausal structure within their frame.

A simple sentence may be either a statement, question, command or request. Each of these in turn may take any of the three voices - active, passive and reflexive and they have their own intonational pattern. Again, it can be either affirmative or negative.

A compound sentence takes more than one principal clause and thus it will have more than one finite verb and the subject may be either same or different.

Sentences which have one independent clause and one or more sub-ordinate clauses are complex sentences. It has only one subject and one finite verb. Example

\[
\text{doMgolte senoeakotacte sermaM bar hokiM rua: kanakiM} \\
\text{'only two men who went to Sirsi have returned'} \\
\text{akoa miNDimeromko jomkotaiken kula haturenko holako jalomkia} \\
\text{'yesterday the villagers trapped the tiger which used to eat their sheep and goats'} \\
\text{gusina giTitantaiken oare kumbukobukedako} \quad \text{'the thieves make a hole in the wall of the room in which the owner was sleeping'}
\]

Brief Sociolinguistic Information

The earliest notice for any of the language of the Munda group was, perhaps, that of Ho language only, when S.K. Tickell published his work entitled “Grammatical Construction of the Ho Language” in the Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1840 (Vol. IX, Part-II). After that a number of studies on this language were made and published in the form of articles as well as books and monographs.

So far as dialects activities, use in mass-media and in basic educations are concerned there is nothing significant to mention in the HO language. Production of grammer and the dictionaries, etc. are very marginal, although quite recently some concerted efforts have been made to prepare teaching materials for primary schools. However, they are yet to be put to practical use. This language uses Roman, Devanagari and Varankshite scripts, the last one being a system said to be devised by a native speaker of this language. Scholars like Pinnow and Norman Zide, however, have differences of opinion regarding the originality of the script system produced by the native scholar.

All India Radio services in the state of Orissa broadcast occasional programs in this language. This language, however, finds a prominent place in the religious activities and rituals connected to the Hindus as well as Christians. However, other than home domain, the only place where it is used is rural local markets where the native speakers use this language.
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<td>Campbell, George</td>
<td>1874</td>
<td><em>Specimens of Languages of India</em>, Calcutta.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Nottrott, A.</td>
<td>1905</td>
<td><em>Grammar of Kol Language</em>, Ranchi.</td>
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JUANG
S. Rajendran

Introduction
Family affiliation
Juang belongs to Central Munda group of Austro-Asiatic family of languages. Juang is located in the Keonjhar and Dhenkanal districts of Orissa State.

Statistical Data: Language, Mother Tongue and Bilingualism – 1991 Census

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<th>JUANG (LANGUAGE)</th>
<th>JUANG (MOTHER TONGUE)</th>
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Bilingualism:

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<th>Total Number of Speakers</th>
<th>Total Numbers of Bilinguals</th>
<th>Major Languages of Bilingualism</th>
<th>Total Number of Trilinguals</th>
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Earlier Works
Grierson (1891 – 1926) following Sten Konow, presented a sketch of Juang language in very brief in Linguistic Survey of India volume-IV. Later on Finnin (1960), Mahapatra (1962) Matson (1962) and Dasgupta (1978) each contributed to the grammar of Juang. Matson’s work is not different from Mahapatra’s except that he has added a syntactic sketch of the Juang language. Dasgupta’s work distinguished two dialects of Juang spoken in the districts of Keonjhar and Dhenkanal of Orissa. Besides, a primer magazine, named, ‘Banakua’, Bhubaneswar published “Juang Grammar” in July, 1978 under the editorship of Shri Upendra Misra. The book is written in Oriya script.
Juang has two major regional dialects, namely, Keonjhar dialect of Juang and Dhenkanal dialect of Juang and the latter is more influenced by Oriya than the former.

**Grammatical sketch**

**Phonology**

**Phonemic inventory**

**Segmental phonemes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
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<tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Retroflex</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
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<td>Affricate</td>
<td>m</td>
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<td>Spirant</td>
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</table>

**Suprasegmentals**

**Length**

Long vowels are not attested intra-morphemically. They are attested only inter-morphemically. Example:

- [gatake] 'he says'
- [ga:take] 'I say'

From Morpho-phonemic point of view the long vowels are taken as geminated vowels /ii/, /ee/, /aa/, /oo/, /uu/

**Nasalization**

A vowel is nasalized when preceded or followed by /N/. Nasalization occurs also as a free variant in a vowel preceding or following any nasal consonant. Example:

Predictable nasalization

-gaNI:D/ [gãRiʔ] 'fly'

/bONO/ [bÔRO] 'wasp'

Free variation

-mu:a/ [mu:a] ~ [mu:a] 'new'

/DiM'O/ ~ [DiM'O] 'gave'

**Unpredictable nasalization -- contrast with non-nasalized vowels**

-/bÔro/ [bÔrO] 'whirlpool'

/bOrO/ [bOrO] 'smeared'

/bûi/ [bûi] 'mother'

/bui/ [bui] 'book'

Herein, unpredictable nasalization is phonemic while predictable nasalization is allophonic.

**Major allophonic distribution of Vowels**

(i) All the vowels bear a palatal off-glide before a palatal consonant followed by a consonant or word juncture and also before /a/ and /O/ in the case of /i/ and /e/.

(ii) All the vowels bear a palatalized onset following a palatal consonant.

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