## Introduction to Sahbę

An introduction and reference grammar for
the Sahbę language

## CHRISTIAN EVANS

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## Introduction

I created the Sahbę language for u/roipoiboy's March 2021 Speedlang challenge on r/conlangs and the related Discord server. As it was mentioned that the very first Segments challenge phonology would meet the phonological requirements of the challenge, I took what my submission and tweaked it a bit to make it feel a bit more like something I'd create from scratch. It marks one of a few big attempts l've made at creating an a priori language.

The inspirations I took for the language include: Kanien'kéha, which is one language from a number that are spoken by people in a class on language reclamation and revitalization contemporary with creating the language; Japanese, in the form of particles that dictate the roles of noun phrases and also as partial inspiration for the open pronoun system; and general bits-n-bobs I mixed together from various other languages.

God bless Awkwords for helping me create sentence-esque strings of words, Conor Quinn for his technique for teaching English-speakers to pronounce [h] in coda position, and for the now defunct Bazaar Spices for keeping me high on Svanetian salt.

## Phonology

Sahbę has a relatively uniform phonemic inventory consisting of a series of stops that contrast in voicing, a series of voiceless spirants, two approximants $/ \mathrm{w} /$ and $/ \mathrm{I} /$, and the nasal consonants $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$. It distinguishes four points of articulation: bilabial, coronal, dorsal and glottal.

|  | Bilabial | Coronal | Dorsal | Glottal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stop | p b | t d | k g |  |
| Spirant | f | s | X | h |
| Approximant | w | l |  |  |
| Nasal | m | n |  |  |

The language has a standard five-vowel inventory, also distinguishing nasalized versions of three of them. Nasalized vowels are indicated in the orthography by the addition of an ogenek, which is called a dani "foot" in the language. The high vowels are not nasalized and, when in an environment that would cause them to become nasalized, are lowered to [ẽ] and [õ] respectively.
High Back

| High | i | u |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Mid | e ẽ | o õ |
| Low |  | a ã |

In addition to plain vowels, there are also several rising and falling diphthongs. These include ae [ai], oe [oij], and ei [ei], as well as ua [ua], uo [uo] and ue [ue]. All diphthongs can also be nasalized, indicated in the orthography by writing the core vowel with the nasal diacritic (i.e. ąe [ãi], uę [ưẽ]).

Generally, words are initially stressed when mono- or bisyllabic. In words with more than three syllables, it's the even syllables that carry stress, with primary stress on the second syllable of the word.

Some syllables break the regular stress patterns of Sahbę. These might be morphemes like the collective suffix -tá or foreign loanwords whose stress pattern was also loaned
into the language, for example gale "boat". As can be seen in the examples, the syllable that carries the stress that breaks the pattern is marked with an acute accent called a kebǫe "thief".

## Alternations

Sound changes in Sahbe are relatively easy to predict based on their conditioning environments. For the most part, these changes are the results of nasalization, intervocalic softening and spirantization following high vowels.

The most obvious change is the devoicing and subsequent deletion of high vowels, which is responsible for geminate consonants and NP clusters. When a high vowel /i/ or /u/ occurs between two voiceless consonants or a nasal consonant and a voiceless stop, that vowel becomes unvoiced. If it is a nasal consonant and a stop consonant or two of the same voiceless consonants have a voiceless vowel between them, it's deleted. For example, the underlying phonemic structure of the perfect form of the verb hixe "to burn" is /hike-hti-te-he/, but it has the surface form hixehtte "burned", with the second /i/ falling out between the two /t/.

The treatment of $/ \mathrm{h} /$ is another change that causes chain reactions. The only environment in which /h/ remains unchanged is initially. When it appears in coda position, it often slightly increases the length of the preceding vowel and gives it an aspirated release. It could also be described as preaspiration of the following consonant. Between vowels, /h/ is invariably dropped, causing diphthongs to arise as vowels collide. In the event two identical vowels occur next to one another as a result of this change, one of them is deleted.

The first of two other changes that are reflected in the orthography is the voicing of voiceless plosives before nasal vowels, which is a change that can be seen in the name of the language, Sahbee. The name is actually just the word sahbę "speech, language" which is also the infinitive of the verb "to speak" (present form sahpe, aorist form sahpexa, perfect form sahpehtte). Spirants besides $/ \mathrm{s} /$ and $/ \mathrm{h} /$ are also voiced before nasal vowels, but they don't change orthographically. In summary:

| Phonemic | Before Nasal | Written |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /p/ | $[b]$ | b |
| /f/ | $[v]$ | $f$ |


| /t/ | [d] | d |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| /k/ | $[\mathrm{g}]$ | $\mathbf{g}$ |
| $/ X /$ | $[\mathrm{b}]$ | $X$ |

The second change that is reflected in the writing is the spirantization of plosives after high vowels. This change affects both voiceless and voiced plosives. An example of this change can be seen when applying the collective suffix -tá to the word kali "woman", producing kalisá "womankind". All plosives transition to the spirants that correspond to their place of articulation and voicing, except for $/ \mathrm{d} /$, which become [ $[1]$, and $/ \mathrm{g} /$, which is deleted after /u/, but becomes [h] after /i/.

| Phonemic | After High Vowel | Written |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /p/ | $[f]$ | f |
| /b/ | $[\mathrm{v}]$ | $\mathbf{f}$ |
| /t/ | $[\mathrm{s}]$ | $\mathbf{s}$ |
| /d/ | $[\mathrm{l}]$ | I |
| /k/ | $[\mathrm{x}]$ | $\mathbf{X}$ |
| /g/ | $\varnothing$ or $[\mathrm{h}]$ | h |

The next most prominent sound change is the denasalization of nasal consonants intervocalically. When they occur between vowels both $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$ nasalize the vowels that occur before and after and transition to [ w ] and [h], respectively. This sound change feeds the aforementioned voicing change and an example has already been presented in the form of the infinitive suffix -e. Though it's only a simple nasal vowel, the underlying form of the suffix is *-ne added to the verb stem's thematic vowel -e. So the phonemic form of sahbę "to speak" is /sahpene/, transitioning in pronunciation from [sahpene] to [sahpẽhẽ] to [sahbẽhẽ] and ultimately to [sahb̊ẽ].

Noticeable in the accent of speakers is a process of lenition that affects consonants between vowels. For stop consonants, this surfaces as partial voicing or spirantization,
depending on if the phoneme affected is a voiceless or voiced consonant. For example, tuatá "rocks" is pronounced [tuaḍa] and kąba "branch, arm" is pronounced [kãßa]. This change also affects the phoneme /I/, which is turned into an alveolar tap [r].

## Grammar

In a snapshot, Sahbe is an agglutinative language that inflects its nouns for number and definiteness, its verbs for aspect and mostly follows a nominative accusative alignment. It relies upon particles rather than affixes to indicate the semantic roles of its noun phrases and recognizes multiple classes of noun and verb.

## Nouns

The language has several types of common nouns, the simplest of which consists of just a plain CVCV root, such as sasa "girl". More common than these bare root stems are nouns that are derived from verbs in the form of the infinitive or participles.

The infinitive of a verb, characterized by the suffix -e, can stand as a noun referring to an instance of that action or that action as a whole. The name of the language is an example of this, where the original meaning of sahbe "to speak" has broadened to "speaking, speech" and finally to "language".

Participles are the other common source of nouns from verbs. There are four participles attached to verb stems with their final $\mathbf{e}$ changed to $\mathbf{o}$ : -ni, the present active participle, -ną, the present passive participle, -hti, the past active participle, and -hdã, the past passive participle. Each of these can be used as an adjective, but also as a noun:

| Participle | Example | Adjective | Noun |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Present Active | hixǫe | "burning" | "torch" |
| Present Passive | hixohą | "(being) burned" | "kindling" |
| Past Active | hixohti | "burned" | "altar" |
| Past Passive | hixohdą | "(been) burned" | "ash" |

## Pluralization

Sahbę recognizes several categories of noun, which surfaces as differences in how nouns are pluralized. All nouns are singular when following numbers, except Class 3.

Class 1 nouns are nouns that are root nouns and are considered animate, including words like kali "woman", taxa "water", and kiwi "bird". These nouns are all pluralized
through reduplication of the initial syllable, so the examples given would become kakali "women", tataxa "waters", and kixiwi "birds".

Class 1a nouns are those that are root nouns, but are considered inanimate and form their plurals with a suffix -tá. This means that tua "rock" gives tuatá "rocks" and dohta "wood" gives dohttá "[various kinds of] wood". This class also includes all foreign loanwords.

Class 2 nouns are participles that all form their plurals with the suffix -bi. This suffix is used with all participles, regardless of whether past or present, active or passive. For example, giloe "seer, fortuneteller" becomes giloebi "seers, fortunetellers" and polehdą "child, fruit" becomes polehdąbi "children, [multiple] fruit".

Class 2a nouns are participles that are treated as mass nouns, such as hixohdą "ash". These nouns are generally not pluralized in general use, but might take the suffix -tá when there are multiple instances of the mass noun being referred to. The example hixohdą "ash" is a good example of this, as culinary ash is popular with speakers, requiring vendors to speak about their hixohdątá "[various kinds of] ash" offerings.

Class 2 b nouns are infinitive verbs which invariably take -si to form plurals. For example, sahbę "language" gives sahbęsi "languages" and gilę "sight, signal" gives gilęsi "sights, signals".

Class 3 nouns are those that are thought of as natural pairs and can include nouns from all other categories, such as dani "foot", xąhlọe "judge, caller", taxąwębę "quenching". These words all form their initial plural with the suffix -li, which indicates that it's a pair (danili "[two] feet", xąhlọeli "[two] judges, callers", taxąwębęli "[two] quenchings"). The dual form can be further expanded by adding the suffix -tá, which refers to multiple pairs of the noun (danilisá "pairs of feet", xąhlǫelisá "pairs of judges, callers", taxąwębęlsá "pairs of quenchings"). With numbers, the singular or dual form can be used to indicate lone nouns or pairs.

## Definiteness

The unmarked form of the noun is always definite. To indicate that a noun is indefinite, the ignorative wo is added after any plural markers. Orthographically, it is not written independent of the noun it's modifying.

[^0]| Definite | Translation | Indefinite | Translation |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| peli | "the fire" | peliwq | "a fire" |
| pepeli | "the fires" | pepeliwo | "some fires" |
| dohtu | "the wood" | dohtuwq | "some wood" |
| dohtte | "the [kinds of] <br> woods" | dohttewo | "some [kinds of] |
|  |  |  | wood" |

## Pronouns

Pronouns are an open class in Sahbę. Any noun can be used as a pronoun if suffixed with one of the two pronoun forming suffixes. The first of these is the speaker-reference suffix -me, which can be observed in the general first person pronoun omme "l". Other examples of this suffix allow the speaker to identify themselves in specific ways and could be translated into English by the phrase "Speaking as a..., I...", for example a young woman who wanted to emphasize that she was speaking from the position of someone of her gender to use a first person pronoun sąsąwę derived from the noun sąsa "girl".

The second pronoun forming suffix is the non-speaker-reference suffix -se. Applied to the same noun roots above, the pronouns qwose "themselves" and sąsase can be derived. Pronouns derived with this suffix cover all second and third person pronouns.

With those two suffixes, a slew of pronouns can be formed. The following table contains a large list of potential pronouns, but by no means is exhaustive.

| Noun | Translation | Pronoun | Translation |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kali | woman | kalęwę | I, as a woman... |
| kali | woman | kalise | she |
| sąsa | girl | sąsąwę | I, as a girl... |
| sąsa | girl | sąsase | she |


| gilọe | seer | gilomme | I, being wise... |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gilǫe | seer | gilọese | they [who are wise] |
| da | big | dąwę | I, as a large person... |
| da | big | dase | your majesty |
| Iolo | here | Iolǫwe | I, we here... |
| Iolo | here | Iolose | the ones here |
| feda | cold | fedąwę | I, being cold... |
| feda | cold | fedase | the cold ones |
| dego | earth | degǫwę | we (people of the same region) |
| dege | earth | degose | you, they (farmers) |

Pronoun choice is influenced by personal preference and politeness, but there are some which are common and correspond generally to English pronouns. These are outlined in the table below.

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Person | omme | wamme |
| 2nd Person | golose | wąese |
| 3rd Person | kalise | kakalise |
|  | tuase | tuatáse |

## Thematic Particles

Rather than using cases to indicate the thematic roles that noun phrases fill, Sahbę has a collection of particles that serve the same purpose. These particles appear immediately after the noun phrase to which they apply and before any postpositions, if present. This has the added benefit of nearly all noun phrases being punctuated by either a thematic particle or postposition, making them easy to identify. The complete inventory of thematic particles appears in the following table.

| Name | Form | Use Cases |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Nominative | su | Marks the subject of an <br> intransitive verb and the <br> agent of a transitive verb |
| Experiential | seq | Marks the experiencer of of <br> sensory verbs |
| Genitive | li | Marks a possessor and <br> can be used with certain <br> postpositions to indicate <br> motion from somewhere |
| Dative | me | Marks an indirect object <br> and can be used with <br> certain postpositions to <br> indicate motion to <br> somewhere |
| Locative | da | Marks location at <br> something and can be <br> used with certain <br> postpositions to indicate <br> location |

Note that the object of a transitive verb receives no explicit marking.

## Adjectives

Adjectives and other nominal modifiers such as relative clauses or postpositional clauses always precede the nouns that they modify, without exception. This is because
the final element of a noun phrase is always considered the head, so if an adjective were to follow its noun, speakers would perceive it as the primary head. For example, mexoe owo "the killing person (murderer)" would be confused with owo mexoe "the personal killer (assassin)".

## Modifiers with Particles

If a modifier is constructed using a thematic particle, such as the genitive li or the locative da, it will precede any simple adjectives that describe the noun. If the order is ignored, the adjective will be perceived to be modifying the noun phrase marked by the particle.

## kebọe li feda taxa

"the thief's water"
feda kebọe li taxa
"the cold thief's water

## Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are formed by taking a fully formed clause and removing the nominative or experiencer argument. The subordinating particle ga is then added after the clause. At this point, the clause can be treated like a noun, so the genitive particle li is added to make the clause modify the noun of the main clause.

## Kalise su tasatáwo me pehtte taxa.

"She put water into some cups."
[Tasatáwo me pehtte taxa] gą li sąsa su hife.
"The girl who put water into some cups is running."

## Adverbs that Modify Adjectives

There is no difference between adjectives and adverbs in Sahbe, however, when used as an adverb, the treatment of the adjective in question is different. a sequence of two or more adjectives in a row sets up an adjective with an adverbial modifier, as in da suala "very beautiful", which is literally big beautiful. If, instead, a speaker was wanting to use both of those words as descriptors for a noun, the conjunction gala "and' must appear between them, as in da gala suala hixpewo "a big and beautiful beacon" versus da suala hixoewo "a very beautiful beacon".

## Verbs

Sahbę recognizes and divides its verbs into intransitive and transitive categories and then further into verbs that require the nominative marker or the experiential marker. Unfortunately for learners, there is no distinction in the shape or pronunciation of these categories, so they must be learned with the verb. Each of these is marked for one of three aspects, either present, aorist or perfect.

The present form of the verb is created by adding -he to the verb root, which in most cases will result in it surfacing as the bare root. For example, the verb galabe "to join, unite" has the verb root galabe- and becomes galabehe > galabe in the present. The present is used for actions that are ongoing or will occur in the future.

The aorist is represented by the suffix -xa added to the verb root. To continue the example, the aorist of galabe is galabexa. The aorist is used to speak about the past when it's not clear if the action was completed. It's also used to describe things that are done habitually and to express general truths.

## Kebọe su hifexa.

## Omme su gedexa taxa.

Kikiwiwo su hehlexa.
"The thief ran."
"I drink water."
"Birds fly."

The perfect has its origins in the past active participle, marked by -hti, and the conjugated copula te. These two suffixes come together because of high vowel deletion, resulting in the surface form -htte. Continuing the example, we end up with the perfect form galabehtte.

## The Copula

Unlike all other verbs, the copula tę can be used as a normal verb or as a clitic in the present tense and, perhaps more noticeably, doesn't require the use of thematic particles. This is especially prevalent in existential clauses like Omme sahnoete "I am a man".

The copula is also used in constructing the passive voice. To passivize a verb, it is changed into one of its two passive participles ending in either -ną or -hdą which follows the conjugated form of the copula. In order to reintroduce the agent of the verb, the agent is placed before the participle with the genitive thematic particle appearing between them.

Sąsa su kepe taxawo.

Taxawo te [sąsa li] kepehdą.
"The girl takes some water."
"The water is taken [by the girl]."

## Negation

Negation in Sahbę is indicated by a change in word order and the optional presence of the word gą at the beginning of the sentence. At an earlier point in the language's history, negation was tied to a strategy to indicate the evidentiality of a statement by beginning the statement by saying "I don't hear..." or "I don't see...", using the defunct negative adverb ba. The word gą complementized the following clause which followed the VSO structure of matrix clauses. Over time, speakers used an insubordination strategy, dropping the evidential piece of the structure, to form negatives:

## Omme su ba kule gą kepe sąsa taxawo.

"I don't hear that the girl takes some water."
"The girl isn't taking some water."

Note that the nominative thematic particle is dropped in the negative. The original structure still exists in the language and can be seen in statements like Omme su kanne ga te tuase lolo "I know that it's here", but sentences like that can no longer undergo insubordination. Also note that negating a sentence like the last example also involves the modern negation strategy.

## Omme su kanne gą te tuase lolo.

I NOM know-PRES that be.PRES it here
"I know that it's here."
gą kanne omme gą te tuase lolo.
that know-PRES I that be.PRES it here
"I don't know that it's here."

## Questions

Simple yes-no questions in Sahbę are easily formed by adding the question particle he to the end of a sentence with an upwards intonation.

Sąsa su kepe taxawo.
"The girl takes some water."

Sąsa su kepe taxawo, he?
These questions are answered by repeating the conjugated verb, either with or without the marker of a negative phrase gą. So for the example above, a person could respond Kepe to mean "Yes" or gą kepe to mean "No".

For other questions, the language employs an ignorative noun wq, which is the same as the suffix that marks a noun as indefinite. This noun is used in the main clause and the part of the question that contains the meaning is placed into a subordinate clause, following the word gą. In order to change the information being queried, thematic particles are employed following the ignorative.

Kiwi su gede taxawo.

## Wọ te gą gede kiwi?

Ẉ̨ da te gą gede kiwi taxawo?

Wq li te gą gede kiwi taxawo?

Wọ gisę da te gą gede kiwi taxawo?
"The bird is drinking some water."
"What's the bird drinking?"
"Where is the bird drinking water?
"Why is the bird drinking water?"
"When is the bird drinking water?"

## Translation Tasks

## 1429th Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day

The door almost closed because of the wind.

## Begą sę nua tepe fęwǫhdą lihą sihga.

[beyã sę nưa teb̊e fẽwõhḍã lihã sihg̊a]
door EXP almost become-PRES close-PPP because wind

## 1428th Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day

Big mobs of people fought each other there.

## Qwǫtá li da sulǫhąbiwo su golo bahtexa qwǫtáse.

[õwõ'ta li da sulõhãßiwõ su goro bahtexa õwõ'tase] person-PL GEN big gathering-PL-INDEF NOM there fight-AOR themselves

## 1427th Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day

They walked straight past each other.
Sahnǫebise ${ }^{3}$ su sahnehtte ǫwǫtáse me gęsi.
[sahnõißßise su sahneht:e õwõ'tase me gẽsi]
they NOM walk-PERF themselves DAT past

## 1426th Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day

[He] is seeking to take a pear, [and] took one, but is afraid.
Sahnǫese su sage dannusíwọ kebę, gala hąwą kepehtte, tu hąssu da galate.
[sahnõise su saye dan:u'siwõ kebẽ gara hãwã keb̊eht:e tu hãs:u da garadod he NOM seek-PRES pear-INDEF take-INF and one take-PERF but fear LOC with-COP

## 1425th Just Used 5 Minutes of Your Day

The road is closed because the train is going to come.

## Sahnę fęwǫhdąte lihą tuanedę ${ }^{4}$ su mide.

[sahnẽ vẽwõnḍãḍe lihã tưaneðẽ su miðe] road closed-COP because train NOM come-PRES

[^1]
## Charts

## Noun Pluralization

|  | Dual | Plural | Compound |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Class 1 | - | CV- | - |
| Class 1a | - | -tá | - |
| Class 2 | - | -bi | - |
| Class 2a | - | -tá | - |
| Class 2b | - | -si | - |
| Class 3 | $-l i$ | - | -lisá |

## Thematic Particles

| Name | Form | Use Cases |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | su | Marks the subject of an <br> intransitive verb and the <br> agent of a transitive verb |
| Experiential | se | Marks the experiencer of of <br> sensory verbs |
| Genitive | li | Marks a possessor and <br> can be used with certain <br> postpositions to indicate <br> motion from somewhere |
| Dative | me | Marks an indirect object <br> and can be used with <br> certain postpositions to <br> indicate motion to <br> somewhere |
| Locative | da | Marks location at <br> something and can be <br> used with certain <br> postpositions to indicate <br> location |

## Verb Conjugation

| Name | Form | Use Cases |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | -he | Refers to ongoing actions <br> or actions that will occur in <br> the future |
| Aorist | - Ra | Refers to actions in the <br> past that may or may not <br> have been completed, and <br> to habitual actions. It also <br> is used for stating general <br> truths |
| Perfect | - -htte | Refers to actions in the <br> past that have been <br> completed |
| of the Ignorative |  |  |


| "who" | wQ qwo |
| :--- | :---: |
| "what" | wq |
| "where" | wq̣ da |
| "when" | wq̣ gisę da |
| "why" | wq li |
| "how" | wq dę da |
| "which" | wq |


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ A traditional ceremony to serve justice amongst Sahbę speakers would require two Xąhlǫe, or "callers". The word comes from the verb xąhlę "to call" and refers to the manner in which they would call out their ruling on whatever issue was set before them. If they were in complete opposition, no action would be taken.
    ${ }^{2}$ Traditional smithing required two instances of quenching the worked metal to set it.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ Sahnǫebise is a plural 3rd person pronoun that is formed from the word sahnǫe "man". Ergo, this usage refers to exclusively men.
    ${ }^{4}$ Tuanedę is a compound noun comprised of tua "stone" and nedeq "snake". Being a modern coinage, it resists the usual denasalization that affects $/ \mathrm{n} / \mathrm{intervocalically}$.

