$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Na'viin a Nutshell } \\
\text { by NeotrekkerZ }
\end{gathered}
$$

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## Chapter 1: The Alphabet

### 1.1 Vowels

Vowels in Na'vi are everything. They indicate a new syllable, and can in fact be syllables all by themselves. Na'vi has the following vowels: a, ä, e, i, i, o, u; aw, ay, ew, ey; ll, rr. They are pronounced the way an American would pronounce the following:

| Vowel | Sounds Like |
| :---: | :---: |
| a | a in father, o in dog |
| ä | a in cat, tan, bad |
| e | e in when, send |
| i | tree, sea, me |
| i | i in chin, wind, sip |
| o | o in wrote, so, toe |
| u | boot, lute, moon |
| aw | ow in tower, ou in sound |
| ay | eye, bye, why |
| ew | oa in oasis, reversed; eyo in Na'vi |
| ey | say, make, raisin |
| ll | ll in allow; a soft l |
| rr | a rolled r in Spanish, but stronger |

Tip: Think of ay, ew, ey, 11 , and rr as single entities even though they are composed with two letters.

Language Note \# 1.1: 11 and rr can only come at the end of a syllable beginning with a single consonant. No consonant can follow it and be part of the same syllable. So, trr day is one syllable and allowed; but lrrtok smile would be two syllables lrr.tok, not lrrt.ok, and something like trrm or tspll could not be words.

### 1.2 Consonants

There are 20 consonants in Na’vi: f, h, k, kx, l, m, n, ng, p, px, r, s, t, ts, tx, v, w, y, z, and '. The consonants $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{j}$, and q do not exist and the consonants g and x cannot exist by themselves. They are pronounced as you would expect in English with the following exceptions:

| Consonant | Sounds Like |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{kx}, \mathrm{px}, \mathrm{tx}$ | $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$ but with a 'pop" |
| ng | ng in sing |
| r | tt in little, bt in subtle, dd in cuddle |
| ts | ts in tsunami |
| ' (glottal stop) | the pause in uh-oh |

Tip: As with the vowels, think of $\mathrm{kx}, \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{px}, \mathrm{ts}$, and tx as single entities.

Language Note \#1.2: f, h, ts, s, v, z can only be at the beginning of a syllable. So a word like yuf is not possible.

Language Note \#1.3: Only f, ts, and s can appear with other consonants. So words like fmetok to test and sngel garbage are allowed, whereas a word starting with "pr" would be forbidden.

Language Note \#1.4: Only the following consonants may end a syllable: px, tx, kx, p, t, $\mathrm{k},{ }^{\text {' }}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{ng}, \mathrm{r}$, and l .

### 1.2.1 Lenítion

Lenition is the changing of one consonant into another for the ease of pronunciation. In Na 'vi lenition occurs when you make the plural form of a noun or when you add certain adpositions to words(see section 7). The following consonants undergo lenition under these circumstances:
$\mathrm{px}, \mathrm{tx}, \mathrm{kx} \rightarrow \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}$ respectively
$\mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{f}$
$\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ts} \rightarrow \mathrm{s}$
$\mathrm{k} \rightarrow \mathrm{h}$
$' \rightarrow \varnothing$ (vanishes)

## Chapter 2: Nouns

Nouns have two genders: masculine and feminine. They can be distinguished by the use of the suffix -an and -e respectively. For example, tsmuk sibling becomes tsmukan brother or tsmuke sister.

Language Note \#2.1: Word stress can also indicate different meanings in words.
Consider the word tute. If the stress is on the first syllable (tute), it means person, but if the stress in on the second syllable( tute), it means female. And if you were curious, male is tutan, not tutean.

Language Note \#2.2: The stress remains on the same syllable regardless of the addition of prefixes, suffixes or infixes. On monosyllabic words it is obvious. For words with more than one syllable, the stressed syllable will be underlined, when known.

There is no "a" or "the" in Na'vi, so a noun like atxkxe land could translate as land, a land, or the land.

### 2.1 Plurals

Na'vi has, in addition to a general plural, special plural forms for two and three of a thing. To form a plural, simply attach the corresponding prefix to the noun. Consider:

|  | Prefix | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nari eye | me+ | menari (two) eyes |
| kelku bome | pxe+ | pxehelku (three) homes |
| tokx body | ay+ | aysokx bodies |

Tip: All plural prefixes cause lenition, hence they are written with a " + " sign following them. Any prefix that does not cause lenition will be written with a "-" sign after it. When a noun is pluralized with ay+ and lenition occurs, you have the option to drop the prefix. This is known as the short form of the plural:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ancestor pizayu } \rightarrow \text { ayfizayu } \rightarrow \text { fizayu } \quad \text { both mean ancestors } \\
& \text { cliff 'awkx } \rightarrow \text { ayawkx } \rightarrow \text { awkx } \quad \text { both mean cliffs }
\end{aligned}
$$

Language Note \#2.3: Some plurals have a form of vowel contraction:
'eylan friend $\rightarrow$ meylan two friends
'ekong beat $\rightarrow$ pxekong three beats
not meeylan
not pxeekong

Language Note \#2.4: There is no short plural form for ' $\mathbf{u}$ thing. It is always ayu (never u). And for words beginning with 'rr or ' ll , no short plurals and no lenition ever (it would violate LN\#1.1 otherwise):

```
me'Rrta two Earths not meRrta
mì 'Rrta in/on Earth not mì Rrta
```


### 2.1.1 Plural Matching

When matching plurals, you have the option to match for number, or not. Regardless, never mix plural prefixes when describing something:

| Moe lu meharyu | We are teachers | OR |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Moe lu karyu | We are teachers | BUT NOT |
| Moe lu (ay)haryu |  |  |

### 2.2 Noun Formation

Nouns can be created from other words with the use of the prefix tì-. As examples, we have the noun tikawng evil coming from the adjective kawng meaning bad, evil; we also have tirey life from the verb rey to live.

### 2.2.1 The suffixes -yu and -tu

The suffix -yu is attached to a verb in order to form a noun representing the person who performs the verb:

```
to bunt taron }->\mathrm{ taronyu bunter (literally, one who hunts)
to weave täftxu }->\mathrm{ täftxuyu weaver (one who weaves)
```

The suffix -tu attaches to a noun to mean the person who does/makes the noun, similar to the way -yu works on verbs:
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { visual art } & \underline{\text { reltseo } \rightarrow} \boldsymbol{\text { reltseotu }} & \begin{array}{l}\text { artist } \\ \text { part }\end{array} \\ \text { hapxi } \rightarrow \text { hapxitu } & \text { member }\end{array} \quad$ (one who makes visual art)
There is one instance of -tu attaching to a verb: spe'etu captive, but at this point it's more of an exception, not a rule.

# Chapter 3: Pronouns 

### 3.1 The Basics

The standard singular pronouns I, you, he/she are oe, nga, po respectively. They behave exactly like nouns in respect to plurality. So, you is menga referring to two people; they is pxefo referring to three people; and ayoe would mean we in a general sense or when the number of people being referred to is not specifically two or three.

Language Note \#3.1: Po can mean be or she WITHOUT the gender suffixes. ONLY include them when what you are saying is ambiguous without them.

### 3.2 Excluding and |ncluding

In addition to the normal pronouns, Na 'vi has different forms for excluding and including the person with whom you are speaking. All the forms you have seen thus far exclude the person. For example ayoe means we(but not you).

The inclusive forms are easy, just tack on an $\mathbf{n g}$ to the exclusive forms. Therefore, we (the two of us) is oeng; we(the three of us) is pxoeng; and we(group) is ayoeng.

Armed with all this information we can construct the complete pronoun table:

|  | Singular | Dual | Trial | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ Exclusive | oee | moe | pxoe | ayoe |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ Inclusive |  | $\underline{\text { oeng }}$ | pxoeng | ayoeng |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ Person | nga | menga | pxenga | aynga |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ Person | po | mefo | pxefo | ayfo/fo |

Language Note \#3.2: Awnga is an alternative form of ayoeng that is more colloquial, but means the exact same thing.

Language Note \#3.3: There is also the pronoun fko meaning one or they in the general sense (such as "one must be strong if one wants to survive on Pandora).

Language Note \#3.4: To create indefinite pronouns add the suffix -o to a noun:

| thing | ' $\mathbf{u} \rightarrow \mathbf{\text { 'uo }}$ | something |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| person | $\underline{\text { tute } \rightarrow \boldsymbol{t u t e o}}$ | somebody, someone <br> place |
| tseng $\rightarrow \underline{\text { tsengo }}$ | somewhere, someplace |  |

Language Note \#3.5: There are two remaining pronouns tsa'u and tsaw in Na'vi. They both can mean that thing or $i t$, and both can be used interchangeably, though with differences in endings. Tsa'u behaves normally (see chapter 4), but tsaw drops its $\mathbf{w}$ when any suffix is placed on it (example in 3.3).

### 3.3 Possession

In English, possession is formed primarily through the use of the apostrophe: Jake's avatar, the tree's branches. With pronouns me becomes my, we becomes our, etc. The possession is formed with the suffix -yä if the noun ends in a vowel (not $\mathbf{o}$, or $\mathbf{u}$ ), and -ä if the noun ends in a consonant (or the vowels $\mathbf{o}$, or $\mathbf{u}$ ):

Palulukan-ä kllpxiltu Thanator's territory
'ite-yä tsko daughter's bow

Omatikaya-ä kelku The Omatikaya's home only known exception Kxu-ä fya'o Harm's way not kxu-yä

The possession can also mean of the: $\underline{\text { txep-ä }}$ atan the light of the fire (or fire's light)
Word order does not matter, so atan txep-ä would mean the same thing.
Language Note \#3.6: For pronouns ending in ng, an extra $\mathbf{e}$ is added before the suffix:

## ayoeng $\rightarrow$ ayoeng-eyä our

Language Note \#3.7: For pronouns ending in a or $\mathbf{o}$, this $\mathbf{e}$ causes a vowel contraction:

| nga $\rightarrow$ ng-eyä | your |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fo $\rightarrow$ fe-yä | their |  |
| tsaw $\rightarrow$ ts-eyä | its | Drop the w first before adding suffixes. |

Language Note \#3.8: You can drop the -ä ending for colloquial/informal speech if you so desire.

## Chapter 4: Cases

### 4.1 The Ergative and Accusative

When the subject (nouns/pronouns) of a sentence performs some action (verb) that affects another thing (direct object), special endings must be placed on the subject (called the ergative) and the direct object (called the accusative) to indicate role. The endings are as follows:

|  | Ends in Vowel | Ends in Consonant |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Ergative | $-\mathbf{1}$ | $-\mathbf{i l}$ |
| Accusative | $-\mathbf{t} \mathbf{( i )}$ | $-\mathbf{i t}$ |

As an example, consider the verb yìm to bind in the following sentences:
I bind. $\quad \underline{\text { Oe yìm. No direct object, so no ergative. }}$
I bind her. Oe-1 yìm po-ti. Direct object, so use the erg/acc.
We e(you and I) bind her.
Oeng-al yìm po-t.
You bind the banshee.
Nga-1 yìm ikran-it.

Language Note \#4.1: Looking at the $2^{\text {nd }}$ sentence, you will see that the $\mathbf{i}$ on the accusative ending is optional, hence why it is written in parentheses above. Choose whichever sounds better to you in your particular sentences.

Language Note \#4.2: Remember this is only true when the direct object ends in a vowel. You could not remove the $\mathbf{i}$ in $\underline{\mathbf{k} k r a n i t ~ i n ~ t h e ~} 4^{\text {th }}$ sentence as that would result in ikrant, and " nt " is not a possible consonant cluster to end a syllable (LN\#1.3). And for those of you thinking this could work if the direct object somehow ended in $f$, $t$, or $s$, see LN\#1.2.

Language Note \#4.3: Regarding the inclusive pronoun forms: the ng that we tacked onto the exclusive forms comes from nga (oeng essentially means I'm including you in "we" for example). When one of these pronouns takes an ending (ergative, accusative, or dative), the a reappears in place of what you would expect (See the $3^{\text {rd }}$ sentence above: oeng-al, not oeng-ill).

### 4.2 The Dative

The dative is employed when a $3^{\text {rd }}$ party (indirect object) is affected by the subject performing an action on a direct object. Here are the endings:

|  | Ends in Vowel | Ends in Consonant |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Dative | $-\mathbf{r ( u )}$ | -ur |

Now for some examples with yìm to bind and ting to give:

## I bind ber to bim. Oe-1 yìm poe-ti po-r.

You bind the banshee to the tree. Nga-l yìm ikran-it utral-ur.
We give the land to them. Ayoe-1 tìng atxkxe-t fo-ru.
The dative also makes appearances in special verb constructions (see below).
Pronunciation Note: When oe is by itself or at the end of a word (e.g. moe), each vowel is pronounced individually; when it has an ending (oeyä, oel, oeti, oeru) or occurs in the middle of a word the vowels are pronounced as "we" in wept, went, or wed. Finally, in the dual and trial forms, regardless of whether there's an ending, the vowels are pronounced individually. So, oe has two syllables, oel has one syllable, pxoe has two syllables and pxoel also has two syllables. If you hear someone pronounce oeru as "ohehroo" instead of "wehru," they are speaking formally.

### 4.3 The Suffixes-ri and -iri

These suffixes are used to form the topical. Because the topical causes so much confusion, and since anything phrased with the topical can be said without it (with notable exceptions, see section 9.9), the best advice I can give is to not learn it at all, at least for now. I've included it here for completeness only. Focus your efforts elsewhere.

## Chapter 5: Verbs

Verbs in Na'vi are not conjugated for person. So I am, you are, he is, are oe lu, nga lu, and po lu, respectively.

Tip: When using the verb lu to be, the subject never takes an ending.

Language Note \#5.1: Use lu in all instances of to be except for when you are talking about being at a specific location. In that case use the verb tok:

I am at home.

## Oe-l kelku-ti tok.

Verbs are modified for different tenses, however, through the use of infixes. There are two infix positions: the first for tense $<1\rangle$, the second for mood $<2>$. They are placed before the vowels of the second to last and final syllables, respectively. This is why vowels in Na 'vi are so important. When the verb has only one syllable, the two infixes are placed next to one another in their respective order:

| Archetype | Number of Syllables | $\ln$ fix positions |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| emza'u to pass (a test) | 3 | $\mathbf{e m z}<1>\mathbf{a}<2>\mathbf{u}$ |
| 'i'awn to stay, remain | 2 | $'<1>\mathbf{i}^{\prime}<2>\mathbf{a w n}$ |
| omum to know | 2 | $<1>\mathbf{o m}<2>\mathbf{u m}$ |
| hum to leave, depart | 1 | $\mathbf{h}<1><2>\mathbf{u m}$ |

### 5.1 Tenses

In an effort to keep linguistic terminology to a minimum, I will just start doing examples with the verb taron to bunt.

| Infix | Meaning | Form | Translation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| <ay> | will verb | tayaron | will bunt |
| <iy> | will verb soon <br> about to verb | tìyaron | will soon bunt <br> about to bunt |
| <er> | be verbing | teraron | is/am/ are bunting |
| <im> | just verbed | timaron | just bunted |
| <am> | verbed | tamaron | bunted |
| <ol> | bave verbed | tolaron | have bunted |

Language Note \#5.2: There are alternate forms of the two future tenses which are <isy> and <asy>. They are used (optionally) to indicate determination to bring about something: Oe tsw<isy>ayon. I will fly soon.

Language Note \#5.3: Na'vi can form combination verbs with the forms nounverb or verbverb. When this occurs the infix rules apply to the primary verb only. As examples:

```
ral meaning + peng to tell }->\mathrm{ ralpeng to interpret
yom to eat + ting to give }->\mathrm{ yomting to feed
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ralp }<1><2>\text { eng } & \text { "tell" meaning } \\
\text { yomt }<1><2>\text { ing } & \text { "give" eat }
\end{array}
\]
```


### 5.1.1 Special Contractions

Some verbs start to look funny when put into certain tenses. When this happens, contractions are used to make the pronunciations better and clean up their appearances. Consider the following two circumstances with plltre to speake and frrfen to visit:
I have spoken
You are visiting

Oe $\mathrm{p}<$ ol>txe Nga frrfen

Not $\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{ol}>$ lltxe
Not $\mathrm{f}<\mathrm{er}>$ rrfen or $\mathrm{f}<\mathrm{er}>$ fen

The difference in the forms is due to where the stress is in the word. Infixes never affect the stress of a verb, so in the case of plltxe, you have a contraction of the l's; but in frrfen, the $\mathbf{r}$ contraction would affect the stress, so it's prohibited and you default back to the original word.

### 5.1.2 Compound|nfixes

To form compound tenses you need compound infixes. Here they are:

| Infix | Combo | Meaning | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| <aly> | ay + ol | will have verbed | Oe $y<a l y>o m$ sre nga pähem trray. I will have eaten before you arrive tomorrow. |
| <ary> | ay + er | will be verbing | Po s<ary>op trray. I will be traveling tomorrow. |
| <ily> | ì + ol | will soon have verbed | Oe tsaheyl s<ily>i ikran-ur. I will soon have bonded with an ikran. |
| <ìry> | ì + er | will soon be verbing | Nga tsw<ìry>ayon mì saw. You will soon be flying in the sky. |
| <irm> | im + er | was just verbing | Oe $\mathbf{p}<$ irm $>$ lltwe nga-ru tsa-teri. I was just speaking to you about it. |
| <ilm> | l m +ol | have just verbed | Po-l ultxar<ilm>un tawtute-ti. She bas just encountered a skyperson. |
| <arm> | $a m+e r$ | was verbing | Oe-1 v<arm>irä ‘upxaret. <br> I was spreading the message. |
| <alm> | $\mathrm{am}+\mathrm{ol}$ | had verbed | Fo-l $\mathrm{fp}<$ alm>il teri fmawn. They'd thought about the news. |

These still occupy $<1>$, so you can combine them with moods, if you so desire.

### 5.2 Moods

Conveying mood is really straightforward. If you are happy about doing the verb use the infix <ei> and if you are unhappy about doing the verb use the infix <äng>. Remember that these occur in the $<2>$ spot:

I am flying (yay!) Oe tsw<er>ay<ei>on
I will stop (ugh!) $\quad \mathrm{Oe} \mathrm{ft}<\mathrm{ay}><$ äng $>$ ang
Tip: The letter combination äng does not always indicate mood. For example, there is the verb pängkxo to chat, converse. Looking at it you will see that äng is not in the correct infix position. Furthermore you could never have the word pkxo (LN \#1.3).

In addition to these two, there is also the evidential infix <ats> that is used to convey uncertainty or indirect knowledge:

## You might want to tell her. $\quad \mathbf{N g a} \mathbf{n}<$ ats $>$ ew $\mathbf{p}<\mathbf{i v}>$ eng po-ru.

They must have gone to the river. Fo-1 ke tok fitseng-it. Fo-l k<ol><ats>ä ne kilvan.
You also use it when commenting on another person's state of being (since you can't know for certain how they are): $\underline{\mathbf{O e}} \mathbf{~ s t i ~ I ' m ~ a n g r y ~ B U T ~ P o ~ s t < a t s > i ~ H e ~ i s ~ ( s e e m s ~ t o ~ b e ) ~ a n g r y . ~}$

Mood infixes do not compound like tenses, so you can only use one at a time.

### 5.3 Modal Verbs

There are three modal verbs in Na'vi: zene must, to bave to, tsun can, to be able to, and new to want. You cannot have a direct object with must or can, so when using these verbs the subject never takes an ergative ending:

| I must go. | $\underline{\text { Oe zene }} \mathrm{k}<\mathrm{iv}>$ ä. | Never oe-l zene kivä |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| You can go. | Nga tsun k<iv>ä. | Never nga-l tsun kivä |

New has the exact same form, but it can also take a direct object (you can want "something"). This leads to a less common, but equally valid form:
$I$ want to go $\quad \underline{\mathrm{Oe}}-1$ new futa $\mathrm{k}<\mathrm{iv}>$ ä.
I want you to go away Oe-l new futa nga kä neto.
Futa has no literal translation, it's just there as a place holder: In the first sentence above, you want "something" and that something is "to go." More about futa in chapter eight.

### 5.4 The <iv> infix

The <iv> infix is with modal verb combinations, hence its appearance in every kä to go above. You put it in the first $<1>$ infix position always. It is also used to express a wish or hope in the future: ' $<\mathbf{I v}>\mathbf{o n g} \mathbf{N a} \mathbf{N} \mathbf{v i !}$ Let Na'vi bloom!

Language Note \#5.4: When a sentence with "want verb" has a direct object, the direct object takes the accusative suffix even though the subject does not take the ergative:

| Oe | new | '<iv>eyng | ng-eyä | tìpawm-it. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| want | to answer | your | question. |  |$\quad$ tìpawmit, not tìpawm

Compare this sentence with the last example of section 5.3. If the subject of both clauses is the same, you can omit it, but now since there's no explicit direct object as there is in 5.3, you don't have the ergative ending on oe.

This infix also means would:
I would return if I could stay longer $\quad \underline{\mathbf{O}} \mathrm{t} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { c }}<\mathrm{iv}>$ ätxaw txo oe tsivun '<iv>i'awn nulkrr Would you tell me the truth? $\mathbf{P}<$ iv>eng nga-1 oe-ru tìngay-it srak?

The infix is used with verb(s) in clauses following fte so that and fteke lest.
I'm coming (in order) to belp you $\quad \underline{\mathbf{O}} \mathbf{z}<\mathrm{er}>\mathbf{a}$ 'u fte oel srung $\mathbf{s}<\boldsymbol{i v}>\mathbf{i}$ ngat.
Finally, it is used with tsnì clauses. See section 8.1.4.

### 5.4.1 Compound <iv> infixes

Welcome to perhaps the most difficult section in the guide. The hardest part will not be writing the Na 'vi, but accurately interpreting it into English. For these combinations the <iv> part of the infix represents a possibility, while the other infix takes care of the tense:

| Infix | Combo | Meaning | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { <iyev> } \\ & \text { <iyev> } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | iv + ì | Future Possibility | k<iyev>ame (goodbye) <br> May (we) see (each other again) in the future. |
| <ilv> | iv + ol | Past Possibility | Nìrangal oe k<ilv>ä fo-hu. If only I had gone with them. |
| <irv> | iv + er | Present Possibility | Txo oe $\mathbf{k}<$ irv>ä po-hu, nga $1<i v>u$ nitram. If I were going with her, you would be happy. |
| <imv> | $\begin{aligned} & \text { iv + am } \\ & \text { iv + im } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Past Possibility | Txo ayoe $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{imv}>$ aron nga-hu, ke $\mathbf{f l}<\mathrm{iv}>$ ä nga. If we bunted with you, you wouldn't succeed. |

Tip: Nìrangal is used to express unattainable wishes, or at least wishes that the speaker considers unattainable (If only; ob that, etc) and only takes <ilv> or <irv>.

One of the biggest problems in translating these types of statements into Na 'vi is that most English speakers don't get it right in English to begin with. To demonstrate, consider the sentence If he was here, be would tell you the truth:

Take a second to read it again, does it sound right to you? Almost anyone you ask would say this is correct. It's not. By saying "if," you have created a counterfactual statement (a possibility) which requires the subjunctive tense. The correct version of the statement above would be If he were here, he would tell you the truth.

Why does this matter you ask? Imagine you're translating the incorrect statement without really thinking about it. You would get $\mathbf{T x o}$ pol $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{am}>$ ok fitseng-it, po $\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{iv}>$ eng ngaru tingay-it. In the correct version tamok would be tivok.

This becomes even more difficult when you start compounding tenses. Compare:

| Ob that I was going with you | Nìrangal oe $\mathbf{k}<$ arm $>$ ä nga-hu | WRONG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Ob that I were going with you | Nìrangal oe $\mathbf{k}<$ irv>ä nga-hu | RIGHT |

Ob that I were going with you Nirangal oe $\mathbf{k}<$ irv>ä nga-hu RIGHT
Now for the really hard example (try to translate it before reading on): Ifyou badn't been eating when we arrived, we could bave cooked something.

The first step is to notice where the focus is in the sentence. Here it's on the arrival (<ol>). That's the concrete event. Everything else is a possibility related to it. Now let's look at "you." When the arrival occurs you are eating. The act coincides with the arrival. So despite the fact that it sounds like it's a past possibility (<ilv>) it's actually a present possibility (<irv>; remember the focus is on the arrival). Another way of saying this part of the sentence would be "if you weren't eating." Finally the last part of the statement: "could have" is also "would have been able to" which is a past possibility (<ilv>), and since "cook" follows this modal verb, it takes the usual <iv>. Putting it all together we get: Txo nga ke y <irv>om krr a ayoe p <ol>ähem, ayoeng-il ts<ilv>un '<iv>em 'uo-t. For krr a, see section 8.1.2.

### 5.5 Creating Verbs

The auxiliary verb si can be paired with nouns to form verbs in Na'vi:
nari eye $\rightarrow$ nari si to watch out, be careful
eltu brain $\rightarrow$ eltu si to pay attention
uvan game $\rightarrow$ uvan si to play (a game)
All infixes go inside si, and when a sentence has an si verb, the object takes the dative ending:

Oe pamrel si ay+lㅢu-ru. I write words.
Eltu si karyu-ru! Pay attention to the teacher!
Tip: If the dative bothers you here, think of "X si Y " as "engage in the X -activity to/for Y."

Language Note \#5.5: When two i's wind up together due to infixes, no contraction occurs. Instead, $\mathbf{y}$ is inserted between them. Consider irayo si to thank. You thank someone because you are happy with whatever it is they did. So you would employ the <ei> infix: Oe irayo seiyi nga-ru I thank you.

Tip: You "give thanks" to someone, so that "someone" is the indirect object. Think of the subject here, and indeed with all si verbs, like you do with zene and tsun. If you don't like this, then just say irayo thanks.

Language Note \#5.6: In many cases si sounds like it could mean to do/ make but it cannot be used as such by itself. The closest verbs we have for "to make" is txula to build and ngop to create.

### 5.6 The "self" |nfix <äp>

There are no words for myself, yourself, etc in Na'vi. They are achieved through the infix <äp> that is always put in a special position $<0>$ which immediately preceeds $<1>$. Consider yur to wash and tse'a to see:

I wash myself $\quad \underline{\mathbf{O e}} \mathbf{y}<a ̈ \mathbf{p}>\mathbf{u r}$
You will wash yourself $\quad$ Nga $\mathbf{y}<a ̈ p><$ ay $>$ ur
They saw themselves(ugh!)
Ay+ $\underline{\text { fo }}$ ts<äp><am>e'<äng>a
Language Note \#5.7: Tse'a is to see in a physical sense. Kame is to see into (beyond the physical sense).

### 5.7 The Causative |nfix <eyk>

This infix, which also occurs in the $\langle 0\rangle$ position, is used in the construction "to force/make verb." In this construction, the one who "is forced/made" is put in the dative:

| It makes you think. | Tsa-l fp<eyk>il nga-ru. | Not nga-ti |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| He made me build it. | Po-l oe-ru tx<eyk><ol>ula tsa-t. | Not oe-ti |

It can also be used to allow verbs that normally don't have direct objects in Na'vi to take direct objects. Compare:

| I begin | Oe sngä'i | No direct object |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| You start the game | Nga-1 sng<eyk>ä'i uvan-it | direct object |
| Nothing will change | Ke'u ke l<ay>atem | No direct object |
| Evil changes you | Tì-kawng-il l<eyk>atem nga-t | direct object |

Language Note \#5.8: These types of verbs are known as intransitive. Some are strictly transitive (take a direct object) and some can be both, depending on context. Here's the list of verbs that we know to be strictly intransitive:

| hahaw | to sleep | latem | to change |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sngä'i | to begin, start | syaw | to call |
| tätxaw | to return | tem | to shoot |
| tsun | to be able to, can | yomting | to feed |
| zene | to bave to, must |  |  |

Language Note \#5.9: It's useful to think of si verbs as intransitive, but remember that when it comes to direct objects, they have their own constructions (section 5.5). Only use <eyk> with them if you specifically want the "force/make" meaning. Also, since their direct objects take the dative, the person being forced takes the accusative instead:

I make you write a book.
Oe-1 pamrel $\mathrm{s}<$ eyk $>\mathrm{i}$ nga-ti puk-ur.

### 5.8 Commands

To command someone to do something you can either use the standard form of the verb, or use an <iv> infix with the verb:

Go away! Kä neto! $K<i v>a ̈$ neto!

Protect The People.

## Hawnu Omatikaya-ti. Omatikaya-ru tì-hawnu s<iv>i.

The first sentence is the straightforward construction. The second is an si verb construction with the noun form tihawnu. It is also what Eytukan says to Neytiri in the movie.

### 5.8.1 Negative Commands

There are a few ways to negate a command. The first, most commanding, and most useful is with rä’ä:

## Don't be afraid!

Txopu rä’ä si!
Don't be a moron! Skxawng rä'ä lu!
For a softer tone, use zenke. This carries the implication of obligation:
You're leaving! You mustn't go. $\quad$ Nga $\mathbf{h}<\mathrm{er}>\mathbf{u m}$ ! Nga zenke $\mathbf{k}<\mathrm{iv}>$ ä.
Note the difference between this and $\mathbf{N g a} \mathbf{k e}$ zene $\mathbf{k}<\mathbf{i v}>\boldsymbol{a}$ You don't have to go/you need not go.

### 5.9 Tense vs. Aspect (Optional)

I will not be marking the stress of the words in this section and before beginning I want to reemphasize the fact that this section is completely optional. Even if you want to learn it, I STRONGLY suggest not even looking at it until you have read through chapter eight. This section will have some linguistic terminology; there is no way around it.

Looking back at sections 5.1 and 5.1.2, I grouped basically every infix together and called them tenses. This is not actually true, though the examples given are reasonable approximations for most situations. The infixes <ol>, <er>, and <arm> are not actually tenses, they're aspects.

The first thing to note is that the purpose of a tense is to relate one time period to another. In the sentence $\mathbf{O e} \mathbf{y}<\mathbf{a m}>\mathbf{o m}$ trram krr a nga $\mathbf{p}<\mathbf{a m}>$ ähem I ate yesterday when you arrived, you're relating the two events that happened the day before to the present. Furthermore you are also relating the two events temporally to one another as viewed from your present (they both happened at the same time in your past). You're viewing the events from an external perspective. Aspect is concerned with, well, the "aspects" of an event itself from an internal viewpoint. Taking the above example again, if we were to say $\mathbf{O e} \mathbf{y}<\mathrm{ol}>\mathrm{om}$ trram krr a nga $\mathbf{p}<\mathrm{ol}>$ ähem, we are now "physically" at that moment instead of the present.

The aspect <ol> is known as perfective, meaning it puts you in the moment, but still views an action as complete from within that moment. To go inside that action further, we have the past imperfective aspect <arm>. This zooms in on the action. Consider the differences in the following short story:

Trram oe $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{ol}>$ aron. Na oe $\mathrm{t}<$ arm>aron, oel $\mathrm{ts}<\mathrm{ol}>\mathrm{e}$ 'a palulukanit. Oe txopu
 tsw<arm>ayon ulte oe poru sy<ol>aw. Po k<ol>kä ulte 'awsiteng moe $t<o l>a ̈ t x a w ~$ ne Kelutral.
Yesterday I bunted. As I was hunting, I saw a thanator. I was afraid, so I ran away. While I was running, I saw Neytiri flying and I called to her. She descended and together we returned to Hometree.

Tolaron establishes the setting and the main event as a whole.
Tarmaron puts us inside the main event itself and allows us to explore what happens.
tsole'a, txopu soli, tolul, and kolkä are what happen within the main event.
Tarmul puts us inside a secondary event within the main event.
Tsole'a, is what happens in the secondary event.
Tswarmayon puts us inside what happens in the secondary event.
Syolaw takes us out of the secondary event, putting us back in the main event.
Tolätxaw completes the main event.


Now compare this story to something similar with tense:
Trram oe $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{am}>$ aron, oel $\mathrm{ts}<\mathrm{am}>\mathrm{e}$ 'a palulukanit ulte $\mathrm{t}<\mathrm{am}>$ ätxaw ne Kelutral. Yesterday I bunted, I saw a thanator and returned to Hometree.

In the first story it seems like you're right there on the ground with the narrator, you experience things as he does. The second story feels detached and clinical, like someone is reading a fact sheet to you: movie versus picture. You also don't know in the second story how the events relate to each other. Did you see the thanator during the hunt? Is it the reason you returned to Hometree? Or are they all just separate events that happened yesterday? You don't know without more information.

## Chapter 6: Adjectives and Adverbs

### 6.1 Adjectives

When you describe something with the verb to be, it's really straightforward:
The sun is yellow Tsawke lu rim
The skies are blue Saw lu ean
The girl is pretty Tute lu sevin
When you don't use lu, you must attach an -a- to the side of the adjective closest to the noun it modifies:

| yellow sun | tsawke a-rim |
| :--- | :--- |
| blue skies | ean-a saw |
| beautiful night | $\underline{\text { lor-a txon }}$ |

Tip: Lor is used to describe a thing, sevin is used to describe a person (see above).
Language Note \#6.1: When the adjective begins or ends with a, vowel contraction occurs:
large branch apxa vul not apxa-a vul

### 6.1.1 Creatíng Adjectives

The prefix le- is used to create adjectives:
$\operatorname{trr}$ day $\rightarrow$ letrr daily
fpom peace, well-being $\rightarrow$ lefpom happy, peaceful, joyous
Language Note \#6.2: Use lefpom to describe things. For people use nitram. And to describe your internal state use 'efu to feel: Oe 'efu som I'm hot.

Language Note \#6.3: When an adjective with le- is before the noun it modifies, put an a on it as expected. But when the adjective appears after the noun it modifies you don't need the $\mathbf{a}$ as the le- already indicates its role:
dangerous animal lehrrap-a ioang or ioang lehrrap

### 6.1.2 The Active Participle Infix <us>

This infix, which is placed in the $<0\rangle$ location, turns the -ing form of the verb into an adjective:
tswayon to fly $\rightarrow$ tsw<us>ayon flying
fyawintxu to guide $\rightarrow$ fyaw<us>intxu guiding
tswusayon-a ikran the flying ikran
atan a-fyawusìntxu guiding light

### 6.1.3 The Passive Participle |nfix <awn>

This infix, which is placed in the $<0\rangle$ location, turns the past tense form of the verb into an adjective:
tungzup to drop $\rightarrow \mathbf{t}<$ awn $>$ ungzup dropped
sop to travel $\rightarrow \mathbf{s}<$ awn $>$ op traveled
tawnungzup-a txewk dropped club
tute a-sawnop nitxan well-traveled person

Tip: Remember, these are adjectives, so the -a- is needed.

### 6.2 Adverbs

There's really not much to say about adverbs other than how to create them. Use the prefix nì- to do so:
the noun tìngay truth $\rightarrow$ nìngay truly
the adjective ftue easy $\rightarrow$ niftue easily
Tip: Don't automatically think "adverb" when you see nì. There's nìn to look (at).

### 6.2.1 Mind Your Manners

To describe the manner in which you do something combine nì- with fya'o and the appropriate adjective. As an example, consider Po poltxe nilaw. This could be translated as She spoke clearly or Clearly, she spoke. It's ambiguous what you're saying. However, with our formulation it becomes unambiguous: Po poltxe nifya'o a-law. She spoke clearly (she spoke in a clear manner). More examples:

| letrrtrr | ordinary $\rightarrow$ nìfya'o letrrtrr | in an ordinary manner |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hiyik | funny/strange $\rightarrow$ nifya'o a-hiyik | in a strange (or funny) manner |

## Chapter 7: Adpositions and OtherPrefixes

### 7.1 Adpositions

Adposition is just a fancy term for a thing that can appear before or after a word. It is the speaker's choice. They can represent many different types of words. In Na’vi, adpositions that come before the word they complement are separate, distinct entities. If they follow the word they complement, they are attached to the word as a suffix. For example, the word for and, sì can be used as follows:

## Ontu sì kinam

nose and knee
ay+li'u horensì
words and rules
Language Note \#7.1: sì is used to connect two things. To connect two sentences use ulte.

Here is the list of known adpositions, marked for lenition:

| Adposition | Meaning | Adposition | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 酋- | under | na- | like, as |
| eo- | before, in front of | ne- | to (direction) |
| fa- | with (by means of) | nemfa- | inside |
| fkip- | up among | pxaw- | around |
| fpi+ | for (the benefit/ sake of) | pxel- | like, as |
| ftu- | from (direction) | pximaw- | right after |
| hu- | with (accompaniment) | pxisre+ | right before |
| $\underline{\underline{10}}$ +ä+ | by, via, following | ro+ | at (location) |
| io- | above | sìn- | on, onto |
| ka- | across | sre+ | before (time) |
| kip- | among | ta- | from |
| kxamlä- | through | takip- | from among |
| lok- | close | tafkip- | from up among |
| luke- | without | teri- | about, concerning |
| maw- | after (time) | $\underline{\text { uo- }}$ | behind |
| mì+ | in | vay- | up to |
| mikam- | between | wä+ | against (opposition) |
| mungwrr- | except |  |  |

Language Note \#7.2: Lenition only occurs if the adposition precedes the word. The adposition ilä may have the stress on either syllable.

### 7.2 OtherPrefixes

These prefixes attach to the front of a word they modify normally. You have already seen a few (section 2.1). The list is below marked for lenition, when known:

| Prefix | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| ay+ | (general) plural |
| fi- | this |
| fay+ | these |
| fra- | every |
| me+ | 2 of a thing |
| pxe+ | 3 of a thing |
| tsa- | that |
| tsay+ | those |

### 7.3 Questions

Question words are formed with the special particle -pe+. As indicated it may be placed as a prefix or a suffix, but when used as a prefix it causes lenition:

| Na'vi | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| peu, ‘upe | what? (thing) |
| pesu, tupe | who? |
| pefnel, fnepe | Which kind? |
| pefya, fyape | how? |
| pehem, kempe | what? (action) |
| pehrr, krrpe | when? |
| pelun, lumpe | why? |
| peseng, tsengpe | where? |
| polpxay, holpxaype | How many?/What number? |
| pìmtxan, hìmtxanpe | How much?/ What amount? |

Language Note \#7.3: When the question can be answered with a yes/no, the sentence that asks the question must have srak(e); and for isn't it? or right? use kefyak:

How do you know this?
Did you build this?
That's the truth, isn't it?

Fyape nga-1 omum fi'u-ti?
Tx<ol>ula nga-l fi'u-t srak?
Tsaw lu tìngay kefyak?

Language Note \#7.4: These words can only be used for questions. If you want to use what, who, where, etc in the middle of a sentence as an adverb, you must use other words (See chapter 8).

## Chapter 8: Sentences

Up to this point, I have written the words in every sentence in the same order as English for the sake of clarity. Word order in Na'vi, though, is relatively free. For example the sentence The creature with the mighty beart is good could be written as follows:

| Swirä | txe'lanhu | a-fkew | siltsan | lu. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| creature | beart with | mighty | good | be |

Language Note \#8.1: When you say in Na'vi what would be a prepositional phrase in English, the noun in the prepositional phrase never takes an ending:
I'm speaking with the warrior. $\quad$ Oe $\mathrm{p}<\mathrm{er}>$ lltxe hu tsamsiyu.
There are some restrictions on word order though:

1. Possession words should appear directly on either side of what they possess:

| Lor |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| beautiful | mokri | peice |$\quad$| ber |
| :--- |

Her voice is beautiful.
2. Adjectives and adverbs should appear next to the nouns and verbs they modify:

| Fra'u-ti | $\underline{\text { omum }}$ | silronsem-a <br> everything | know |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| clever |  |  |  |$\quad$ daughter.

The clever daughter knows everything.
3. If you say "not verb," the ke goes before the verb:


I don't want you to go.
4. The part of the sentence you want to carry the most meaning/emphasis goes at the beginning, with the end representing a little more emphasis than the rest of the sentence. The particle nang, used to express surprise, also always goes at the end.

### 8.1 Complex Sentences

When two sentences are combined together, keep the words from each sentence on their respective side of the conjunction joining the two sentences:

| $\mathbf{F}<$ ay>rrfen | $\underline{\text { oe-1 }}$ | nga-t | $\underline{\text { ulte }}$ | $\underline{\text { oeng }}$ | 'awsiteng | käm<ay>akto. <br> will visit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $I$ | you | and | we | together | will ride out |  |

I will visit you and we will ride out together.

### 8.1.1 The Pronouna

This pronoun can be translated as that, which, or who. It is used to modify a noun much like the adjective a, except that the "adjective" now is a phrase and the pronoun is a separate entity:

Oe-1 <am>omum $\quad$| knew |
| :--- |
| $I$ |
| olo'eyktan-it |
| clan leader |

I knew the clan leader who just died.

Language Note \#8.2: In English, that is not always written, but in Na'vi it must be.
 I have heard the message [that] you bave sent me so passionately.

You can also use this pronoun in conjunction with the <er> infix as an equally valid alternative for <us>. Compare:

Toruk a-h<us>ahaw lu mi lehrrap. Toruk a h<er>ahaw lu mi lehrrap.
Both can be translated as $A$ sleeping Toruk is still dangerous.

### 8.1.2 When

When in non-question sentences is a krr or krr a depending on the clause it modifies:

| Nga | $\mathbf{p}<$ am>ähem a krr, fitseng | oe | ke | $\mathbf{1}<$ am $>\mathbf{u}$. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you | arrived | when | here | $I$ | no |
| was |  |  |  |  |  |

When you arrived, I was not here.

| $\mathbf{h}<\mathbf{a m}>\mathbf{u m}$ | oe | krra | nga | $\mathbf{z}<\mathbf{a m}>\mathbf{a} \mathbf{u}$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| left | $I$ | when | you | came |

I left when you came.

Tip: You can also use $\mathbf{a} \mathbf{k r r} / \mathbf{k r r}$ a for its literal translation (at) the time that.

### 8.1.3 The Many Faces of fi'u

By itself, fi'u means this thing:

This thing is hot.
He bas eaten this thing.

Fi'u lu som.
Po-l y<ol>om fi'u-t.

But when fi'u is used in conjunction with a, we have two special forms:
fi'u a $\rightarrow$ fwa
fi'u-t a $\rightarrow$ futa
These forms have no literal translation. They serve as place holders or markers for phrases that follow. Consider the following:

Law lu oe-ru fwa nga-1 new $z<i v>a ' u \quad a w n g a h u$.
clear be to me this you want to come uswith It is clear to me that you want to come with us.

What you are literally saying is "This you-want-to-come-with-us-thing is clear to me."
You have already seen how futa can work with the modal verb new, but here is another example:

| Omum | oe-1 | futa | tìfyawìntxu-ri oe-yä | p<er>ey ay $+\underline{\text { nga }}$ | nìwotx. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| know | I | this | guidance my | be waiting you | all |

I know you are all waiting for my guidance.
Here, you are literally saying "I know something" and that something is you are waiting for my guidance.

### 8.1.4 Tsnì, The Other"That"

With verbs like ätxäle si to request and silpey to hope you cannot use fwa or futa constructions as the verbs are intransitive:

I hope you will stay with us.
I request that he give it to ber.

Oe silpey tsnì nga ' $<i \mathrm{iv}>\mathrm{i}$ 'awn awngahu.
Oe ätxäle si tsnì po-l t<iv>ing tsa-t poer.

Note the subjunctive here because they are possibilities. Also important is that "the things" being hoped for or requested can function as sentences on their own. If the direct objects were simple things, you just use the normal construction:

I requested it.
Oe ätxäle $s<a m>i$ tsa-ru.

### 8.1.5 Where

Where constructions are made with the noun tseng(e) place. There are different ways of saying it, depending on your meaning. If you are saying where then it's relatively straight forward, just say the place that. If you want to say where to, then you need a place holder (like futa or fwa) to stand in for the $t$, achieved with the inanimate it tsaw. Consider the following two examples:

| Oe-l | ke | omum | tsenge-t <br> $I$ | not | po |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| know | where | she | tok. |  |  |
| be (at) |  |  |  |  |  |

I don't know where she is.

| Oe | tsa-ne ke | tsun | $\mathrm{z}<\mathrm{iv}>\mathrm{a}^{\prime} \mathbf{u}$ | a tseng-it | nga-1 | k<er>ä |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I | it to not | can | come | where | you | be going |

You are going (to) where I cannot come.
In the $1^{\text {st }}$ example you are basically saying I don't know the place that she is. It's exactly what you would write if you saying "I don't know the she's-at place" using a.

In the $2^{\text {nd }}$ example you are saying "I cannot come to it" where it is the place [that] you are going.

Tip: Remember that tsenget and tsengit above should be on the same side of as as ergative, as they are part of those clauses. Here's one more example:

| Fo | ts $<\mathbf{a m}>\mathrm{e}^{\prime} \underline{\mathbf{a}}$ | tseng-it a | k<am>ä | tsa-ne |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | saw | where |  |  |

They saw where I went (to).

### 8.1.6 How and Why

We don't have official formulations for these words when they are not being used for questions, but most use fya'o a the way that for how, and oeyk a the reason that for why:

| Omum | nga-1 | fya'o-t a | fko-1 | '<iv>em | fi'u-t | srak? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| know | you | the way that | one | would cook | this thing | yes $/$ no? |

Do you know how to cook this?

| Fo-1 | omum | oeyk-it a | nga | ftia | nitxan | fratrr. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| they | know | the reason that | you | study | much | everyday |

They know why you study so much everyday.

### 8.2 Streamlining Sentences

When two adjacent clauses have the same subject, you can drop the subject from the second clause:


The same deletion rule applies to direct objects, when it can be understood from context:
I saw something [that] I want.
Oe-1 ts<ol>e'a 'uo-t a (oe tsat) new.

## Chapter 9: Special Constructions

### 9.1 Names

In Na'vi, you don't ask someone what their name is literally. Instead, you use the general pronoun fko one, they: Fyape fko syaw nga-r How does one call you?

You answer the question with: Oeru syaw fko $\qquad$ . They call me $\qquad$ .

Language Note \#9.1: You call to someone, hence the use of the dative.
Tip: Use Nga-ru tut? to say And you?/ How about you?

### 9.1.1 Ma

Ma is used to address someone specifically. It carries no literal translation, it's just used to single someone out: Jake ma Jake

It is placed before the noun and any words that modify the noun: my friends ma oeyä eylan.
If you have multiple people you wish to address, you still use it only once: brothers and sisters ma smukan sì smuke.

Tip: If it helps, think of (but do not necessarily translate) ma as O. O my friends above.

### 9.1.2 The Other "Ma"

With words that represent groups of people, e.g. olo' clan, frapo everyone, etc. you can address them with ma or with -ya used as a suffix:

## Trr lefpom ma Amerika Good morning/day America Kaltxì frapo-ya <br> Hello everyone

It does not apply to plurals (e.g. never ay+sute-ya), and if you don't want to use it, ma works with everything.

### 9.2 There is

There is is achieved by using lu at the start of a sentence:
There are trees in a forest $\quad \mathbf{L u}$ ay+utral mì+ na'rìng
There hasn't been rain
Ke $\mathbf{l}<$ ol $>$ u tompa
There will soon be a new day
$L<i y>u$ mip-a trr

### 9.3 I Love You

The word for love, tìyawn comes from the adjective yawn(e) beloved. But you cannot make an si verb construction for to love. Instead, to say I love you it's Nga yawne lu oe-r which translates literally as "You are beloved to me."

### 9.4 How Do You Say "x" in Na'vi?

Translated literally as "in-Na'vi x becomes what?" this phrase is $\mathbf{X}$ nina'vi slu 'upe?

### 9.5 To Have

There is no direct word for to have in Na'vi. Instead, we use a special construction involving lu at the start of the sentence: Lu oe-ru ätxäle $I$ bave a request. It behaves much like "there is" above: "There is a request to me."

### 9.6 Let's Ko!

Ko is a particle used to solicit agreement: eh? don't you think? wouldn't you agree? (compare with kefyak in LN\#7.3) To say "let's verb," put it after the verb:

```
Let's ride!
Ok, let's use it. .
```


## Makto ko!

```
Tam, tsa-t sar ko.
```


### 9.7 Filled With Joy

This is more of an idiom than a special construction, but it's cool so I'm including it here. It's basically an si verb construction with the adjective teya full, with the implied meaning with satisfaction/joy:

Fwa sute a-txan fitxan $\mathrm{ft}<\mathrm{er}>\mathrm{i} \underline{a}$ li'fya leNa'vi oe-ru teya si. That people many so be studying language Na'vi fills me (The fact) That so many people are studying the Na'vi language fills me with joy.

### 9.8 Comparisons

Na'vi does not have the traditional English forms to compare two things. There is no way to express the eer in larger, for example. Instead, we use A to B lu adj:

A toruk is larger than an ikran. Toruk to ikran lu apxa.

Superlatives (largest in the above example) are formed with frato:
This tree is the tallest.
Fì-utral frato tsawl lu.
We also have words for best swey and worst ' $\mathbf{e}$ 'al.

### 9.9 Good Luck/Well Wishing

This is not so much a special construction, as it is an idiomatic use of a word. We begin with:

Good Luck!

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Lrrtok nga-r(u)! } & \text { or } \\
\text { Aylrrtok nga-r(u) } & \text { with implicit livu }
\end{array}
$$

The literal translations are "smile to you" and "(let there be) smiles to you," respectively. If you want to wish someone good luck with something, then you use the topical suffix (section 4.3):

Good luck with it. Tsa-ri nga-ru lrrtok.
Good luck with your friend.
Ng-eyä 'eylan-ìri lrrtok nga-r.
Literally, As for X smile to you."
And if you want to get really fancy: X-ri/ìri nga-ru lirtok $s<i v>i \underline{\text { Nawma Sa'nok! }}$
Literally, "As for X, the Great Mother smiles to you!"
Finally, for celebrations and the like (Happy Birthday!):
Smiles to you on your celebration!
Ftxozä-ri aylrrtok nga-ru!

### 9.10 Whether

In Na'vi you cannot say whether by itself, you must say whether or not. This is achieved with ftxey...fuke:

| Ayoe-ru mi | yawne | l<ay>u nga | ftxey nga | flä |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$ fuke.

We will still love you whether you succeed or not.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Will you belp us? } & \text { Srake ngal ayoer srung } s<a y>\mathrm{i} \text { ? } \\ \text { Will you help us or not? } & \text { Ftxey ayoeru srung } \mathrm{s}<\mathrm{ay}>\mathrm{i} \text { ngal fuke? }\end{array}$
We don't yet know if fuke can replace the function of srak, though in our only example it isn't there. Be careful not to confuse these statements with txo $i f$. For example, if you were to say I don't know if he is coming what you're really saying is I don't know whether or not he is coming, so you would not use txo.

### 9.11 Negatives

All negatives (except commands, see 5.8.1) are formed with some version of the ke particle:

| Particle | Usage | Example | Notes |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| ke | adverb | Oe ke lu '‘eveng! <br> I am not a cbild! | Placed before the verb it modifies |
| kehe | adverb | Kehe! Rä'ä 'ampi tsat! <br> No! Don't touch it! |  |

But when using "negative" words in Na'vi you must also place a ke before the corresponding verb:

| Na'vi | English | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| kaw'it | not...at all | Fayutral ke lu tsawl kaw'it. <br> Those trees aren't big at all. |
| $\underline{\text { kawkrr }}$ | never | Oe ke k<am>ä nga-hu kawkrr. <br> I never went with you. |
| $\underline{\text { kawtu }}$ | no-one | Ke lu kawtu a oe krrn<iv>ekx pohu. <br> There's no-one I'd rather spend time with. |
| $\underline{\text { kea }}$ | no $X$ | Oel ke new $\underline{\text { kea }}$ tompati $\underline{\text { trray. }}$ <br> I want no rain tomorrow/ I don't want rain tomorrow. |
| $\underline{\text { ke'u }}$ | nothing | Oeru ke tsranten ke'u set. <br> Nothing matters to me now. |
| vay set | still/ not yet | Oe-1 vay set ke $\mathbf{t}<\mathbf{o l}>\mathbf{e l}$ ti'eyng-it. <br> I still haven't received an answer. |

If you know French, these constructions should be familiar: ne...personne, ne...rien, etc.

## Chapter 10: Numbers

### 10.1 The Base Numbers

We begin with the numbers that form the foundation of the Na 'vi numbering system:

| Number | Na'vi | RemainderForm | Base Form |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 'aw | -aw |  |
| 2 | mune | -mun | me- |
| 3 | pxey | -pey | pxe- |
| 4 | tsìng | -sìng | tsì- |
| 5 | mrr | -mrr | mrr- |
| 6 | pukap | -fu | pu- |
| 7 | kinä | -hin | ki- |
| 8 | vol |  |  |

Once you go higher than eight, you've run out of fingers so you reset your base number to vol and start using the combining forms:
nine
twelve
volaw
vosìng
vol + aw
vol + sìng
one $8+1$
one $8+4$

Tip: Drop the $\mathbf{1}$ on vol when the remainder begins with a consonant.
When you get to numbers bigger than fifteen, just give the number of bases and add the remainder, if there is one:
sixteen
$\underset{\text { mervol }}{\text { mehin }}$

$$
\mathrm{me}+\mathrm{vol}
$$

two 8s
47

$$
\mathrm{mrr}+\mathrm{vol}+\text { hin } \quad \text { five } 8 \mathrm{~s}+7
$$

Language Note 10.1: The stress on these words is on the remainder form if there is one and on the base form otherwise. See above.

At this point I highly encourage you to write out the first 63 numbers and check them against the number chart in Taronyu's dictionary (See Epilogue).

### 10.2 Larger Numbers

This process basically repeats. So numbers up to 63 are done. Here are the other base numbers:

| 64 | zam |
| :--- | :--- |
| 512 | vozam |
| 4096 | zazam |

> Examples:
> $77=64+13=64+8+5=1 \mathrm{zam}+1 \mathrm{vol}+5 \rightarrow$ zamvomrr
> $777=512+4^{*} 64+8+1=1$ vozam $+4 \mathrm{zam}+1$ vol $+1 \rightarrow$ vozamtsìzamvolaw
> $10000=2$ zazam +3 vozam $+4 \mathrm{zam}+2 \mathrm{vol} \rightarrow$ mezazampxevozamtsìzamevol

Tip: If you get a double $m$, delete one of them.
Going the other way is even easier, just break it up:
zamtsìvosìng $=$ zam + tsìvo + sìng $=64+4 * 8+4=100$
By the way, if you want to say a number bigger than kizazamkivozamkizamkivohin you're currently out of luck.

### 10.3 Ordinal Numbers

In order to rank numbers ( $1^{\text {st }}, 2^{\text {nd }}, 3^{\text {rd }}$, etc) we have the ordinal suffix -ve. The forms are somewhat irregular:

| Na'vi | Rank | Notes on Form | Na'vi | Rank | Notes on Form |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'awve | first | long | vomuve | tenth | see 2 |
| muve | second | short | vopeyve | eleventh | remainder |
| pxeyve | third | long | vosive | twelfth | short remainder |
| tsìve | fourth | base | vomrrve | thirteenth | long |
| mrrve | fifth | long | vofuve | fourteenth | remainder |
| puve | sixth | base | vohive | fifteenth | short remainder |
| kive | seventh | base | mevolve | sixteenth | long |
| volve | eighth | long | mevolawve | seventeenth | see $9^{\text {th }}$ |
| volawve | ninth | remainder |  |  |  |

From this we can infer that the ordinal suffix cannot appear next to an $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{ng}$ (see short remainders). These are the confirmed ordinals, but the rules should extend to all numbers:

```
39 tsivohive (form like fifteenth)
64 zamve (form like sixteenth)
77\mp@subsup{7}{}{\mathrm{ th }}\mathrm{ vozamtsizamvolawve}
```


## Epilogue

Learning a language is a journey, unique to each person. But if you are wondering where to go from here, I would suggest the following:

1. If you haven't done so already, become a learnnavi member, introduce yourself, and start exploring the posts in the forums.
2. Ftiafpi has audio clips of him pronouncing Na'vi words. I've tried to include as many of those words in this guide as I could. Download them and start listening: http:// forum.learnnavi.org/audio/spoken-na\'vi-words/
3. Kaltxì Palulukan has created a fantastic activity book. It's available http://www.learnnavi.org/docs/Learn-Navi-Activity-Book.pdf.
4. Taronyu has created the most definitive dictionary, period. He updates it whenever we get new material, so check back every few days to make sure you have the current version: http://forum.learnnavi.org/intermediate/my-dictionary/. It's also on the main page.
5. Skawng has created several worksheets to practice Na'vi grammar. Many are in the activity book, but not all. Here's the link: http:// forum.learnnavi.org/intermediate/worksheets/
6. When you're ready, I have written a basic skills test: http://forum.learnnavi.org/your-projects-other-resources/navi-proficency-tests/ and an advanced Proficiency Exam: http:// forum.learnnavi.org/your-projects-other-resources/navi-proficiency-exam-7125/
7. Here are the letter and accompanying audio from Dr. Frommer. Listen to the master speak: http:// forum.learnnavi.org/news-announcements/a-response-from-paul-frommer!/
8. This guide may have been written by me, but the material is the result of thousands of posts and countless hours of debate and collaboration. The same goes for every project above and everything else you're likely to encounter that increases your knowledge of the language. We do these things for our love of Na'vi. So when you have a spare moment, give some karma to all the people who have worked to aid you in your journey.
9. Try to get others interested in the language. We all hope for the day when we can hear it walking down the street. 'lvong Na 'vi!
Kiyevame, ulte Eywa ngahu frakrr.

## Appendix A: Stock Phrases

| Na'ví |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fittrr lu trrpeve? | What day is it (today)? |
| Ftxozäri aylrrtok ngaru! | Happy Birthday! (or any celebration) |
| Fyape fko syaw ngar? | What's your name? |
| Ngaru lu fpom srak? | How are you? |
| hrh | lol |
| Ngaru tìkxey | You're wrong |
| Ngaru tìyawr | You're right |
| Nga yawne lu oer | I love you |
| ngaytxoa | sorry, my apologies |
| Oeru syaw fko X | My name is $X$ |
| ti'efumì oeyä | in my opinion |
| ti'i'avay krrä | forever, until the end of time |
| X nina'vi slu 'upe? | What's X in Na'vi? |
| Xri nga-ru lrrtok | Good luck with $X$ |

