THE COMPREHENSION OF ENGLISH LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS BY KUWAITI EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT: *This study aims to contribute to an understanding of the comprehension of lexical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners. Particularly, it attempts to investigate whether the participants' English proficiency level affects their comprehension of lexical collocations. The results showed that Kuwaiti EFL learners have little awareness of lexical collocations in English. Also, it showed that there were differences between the advanced and intermediate Kuwaiti EFL learners in terms of their comprehension of lexical collocations. However, these differences were not enough to be statistically significant. Furthermore, the most frequent types of errors and the possible reasons for their occurrence were identified. The types Adjective + noun and Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase were the most problematic in comparison with other types in both groups. On the other hand, Quantifier + noun was the least problematic type. It has been suggested that L1 interference plays a central role in the acquisition of lexical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners. Additionally, lack of knowledge of lexical collocations may also be a main reason behind such errors. The study recommended that English language teachers need to pay more attention to lexical collocations due to their crucial importance in second language acquisition.*

KEYWORDS: Collocations, Lexical collocations, Kuwaiti EFL learners, Error Analysis, SLA, Kuwaiti Spoken Arabic

INTRODUCTION

It has been argued that one of the most salient aspects of learning the vocabulary of a particular language is collocations. In recent years, several researchers have directed their attention to the acquisition of collocations by EFL learners belonging to different language backgrounds. A big number of researchers adopted the classification of collocations proposed by Benson et al. (1986). Mainly, they classified collocations into two categories, namely, grammatical collocation and lexical collocation. In a similar vein, McCarthy (1990: 12) pointed out that "in vocabulary teaching there is a high importance of collocation". Also, McCarthy (ibid) stated that "the relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary, and collocation is an important organising principle in the vocabulary of any language". Therefore, this paper is a serious attempt to: (1) examine the problems that Kuwaiti EFL learners encounter in the use of lexical collocations; (2) investigate whether the participants' English proficiency level has an impact on their comprehension of lexical collocations; and (3) identify the most problematic types of lexical collocation among the ones selected and account for them.

Literature review

Collocations and their importance in Second Language Learning (SLL)

Several researchers proposed different definitions of the term collocation in the relevant literature. For instance, Firth (1957: 183) posited that collocation is the elements that usually accompany words, whereas Woolard (2000: 29) posited that from a statistic point of view, in collocations, certain words are more likely to reoccur together as opposed to random occurrence which happens by chance. Similarly, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992:36) regarded collocations as high frequency combination of words.

It has been observed that collocations are considerably used in daily life conversations. However, mastering the use of collocations is viewed as an area of difficulty facing many EFL learners (Crystal, 1992: 105). Additionally, if a collocation is fixed to a certain degree, then it may be seen as an idiom i.e. a group of words that should be learned as a whole unit since its meaning is not inferred from the meaning of its individual components. Idioms are more difficult to learn as attested by different researchers (Crystal, ibid). Even advanced learners produce unsuitable or faulty collocations (McCarthy, 1990: 13). Due to their vital importance in everyday life conversations and the fact that they help EFL learners memorise the semantic area of a certain word and predict which words occur together, collocations have received extensive attention recently (Nattinger, 1988). Since they shift learners' focus from individual words to more complex structures that are used daily in social life, teaching collocations may result in enhanced communicative fluency in both speaking and writing (Nattinger, ibid). For instance, Halliday and Hasan (1976) indicated that collocations play a significant role in the lexical cohesion of a text. Therefore, mastering them can improve learners' writing skills.

Based on the previous literature, it can be seen that collocations contribute to the enhancement of learners' L2 word knowledge, language suitability, fluency, and accuracy.

Features and classification of collocations

There are two major factors that influence the range of items in collocations, these factors can be seen below as outlined by Beekman and Callow (cited in Baker, 1992: 50):

1. Word specificity: this means that the level of word specificity determines how broad or restricted the collocation range is, so the more general the word is, the broader its range and the more specific, the more limited its collocation range. For instance, it is anticipated that the verb *bury* would have a broader collocational range compared to any of its hyponyms e.g. *entomb or inter*. This is because you only *inter* people; however, feelings, treasures and faces are *buried*.

2. How many senses the item has: it is commonly known that the majority of words have many senses. These words have a tendency to attract various sets of collocates for every sense (Baker, 1992: 50). For instance, when the verb *run* operates under its sense of *provide*, it collocates with words such as *course* and *service*, whilst when it operates under its sense of *manage*, it collocates with words such as *business, institution*, and *company*. Moreover, collocations can be characterised by certain features. Specifically, their co-occurrences can be

predicted and their components cannot be changed, reversed or replaced. The main features of collocations were summarised by Boonyasaquan (2005: 11-13) as follows:

1. Collocations can be seen as a frequent co-occurrence of two words that do not allow another to intervene between them. For instance, the binominal *knife and fork* does not allow another word to be added and break their sequence. As a result, the combination of *knife, spoon and fork* is an unusual.

2. Collocations do not allow one of their components to be replaced by a synonym. For instance, *Kim makes a cake*, but not *Kim makes a pancake*.

3. Collocations as binominals do not permit their components to reverse their order since it is fixed. For instance, *men and women*, but not *women and men*. Also, *night and day*, but not *day and night*.

4. A number of collocations can be predicted. For instance, if a person hears a collocation *keen* and *shrug*, he/she will predict instantly that *on* and *shoulder* will come next respectively.

Most importantly, Benson et al. (1986) divided collocations into two major categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations, generally, may contain different combinations of nouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions or even grammatical structures like a clause or an infinitive. The main types of grammatical collocation were proposed by Benson et al. (1986). These types can be seen in the following table:

Table 1. Main types of grammatical collocation by Benson *et al*. (1986)

Type	Example
Noun + preposition	*Apathy towards*, *blockade against*
Noun + that–clause	They reached *an agreement that* they will merge their companies, he took *an oath that he would do his duty*
Noun + to- infinitive	she made *an attempt to* pass the exam, he felt *a compulsion to* see the doctor
Preposition + noun	She was *in agony*, they met *by chance*
Adjective + to – infinitive	He is *ready to go*, it was *necessary to work*
Adjective + preposition	He is *angry at* me, she is *fond of* children
Adjective + that- clause	It was *imperative that* we go, she was *afraid that* she would fail

Similar to grammatical collocations, the other major category i.e. lexical collocations include different co-occurrences of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. On the other hand, lexical collocations do not include prepositions, clauses or infinitives in their combinations. The following table summarises the main types of lexical collocation as described by Benson et al. (1986):

Table 2. The main types of lexical collocation by Benson et al. (1986)

Type	Example
Verb (which means action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase	Compose music, inflict a wound, set an alarm
Verb (which means eradication or cancellation) + noun	Withdraw an offer, crush resistance, revoke a license
Noun + verb	Bomb explode, storms rage, alarms

	go off
Adjective + noun	Crushing defeat, strong tea, kind regards
Quantifier + noun	Piece of advice, herd of cows, flock of birds
Verb + adverb	Appreciate sincerely, argue heatedly, apologize humbly
Adverb + adjective	Hopelessly addicted, closely acquainted, deeply absorbed

It is worth noting that grammatical and lexical collocations are viewed as the most frequent collocations in day-to-day speech, hence, their importance.

Major causes of collocational errors

In comparison to native speakers, non-native speakers exhibit different attitudes towards collocations. (Hoey, 2005). This is due to the fact that non-native speakers learn collocations in somewhat restricted contexts as opposed to native speakers. Hence, EFL learners need to be made aware of the difference between the grammaticality and acceptability of a sentence. They need to know that a sentence can be regarded as grammatical, yet not acceptable by speakers of that language.

Zarei (2002) indicated that Iranian EFL learners face many obstacles in learning certain types of English collocations. Zarei (2002) concluded that the most notorious types were: verb + noun, noun + noun, adjective + noun, and noun + verb combinations, in addition to idioms.

In another study, Koya (2005) showed that Japanese EFL learners encountered some difficulties with particular types of collocations including adjective + noun collocations. Many factors may affect the acquisition process of collocations by EFL learners (Koya, ibid). These factors include, but not limited to, L1 interference, language proficiency, arbitrariness, maturation, and teaching.

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study

Several pieces of research have been conducted to investigate the acquisition of English collocations by EFL learners. Based on the researcher's knowledge and experience as a lecturer and an assistant professor at Public Authority of Applied Education and Training (PAAET) and College of Basic Education (CBE) in Kuwait, the main principles that take the lion's share in many educational institutions focus mainly on syntax and other grammatical aspects of English. Hence, EFL learners are more or less aware of the grammaticality of English sentences. However, they pay little attention to their acceptability in terms of word combinations. Additionally, Arab EFL learners find it difficult to concentrate on repetitions of separate words as opposed to chunks of words, thus, this may hinder their communication with native speakers of English. These facts may allude to the importance of learning grammatical and lexical collocations by EFL learners.

On the basis of the above-mentioned, this study endeavours to explore Kuwaiti EFL learners' familiarity with lexical collocations. The initial hypotheses are: (1) English proficiency level plays a crucial role in the comprehension of lexical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners; (2) EFL learners' performance varies according to the types of lexical collocation; and (3) first language (L1) interference may contribute to EFL learners' errors concerning lexical collocations. .

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This study seeks answers to the following questions:

A) Does the English proficiency level of Kuwaiti EFL learners play a role in their comprehension of lexical collocations?

B) Do Kuwaiti EFL learners encounter problems with certain types of lexical collocation? If yes, why?

METHODOLOGY

The sample

The sample of the current study consisted of fifty Kuwaiti students at the Public Authority of Applied Education and Training (PAAET) and College of Basic Education (CBE), all were native speakers of Kuwaiti Spoken Arabic (KSA). The participants' ages ranged were between 18 and 28 (mean= 23). The researcher chose the participants randomly, and then divided them into two groups, namely, intermediate learners (IL) and advanced learners (AL). Their scores on English Placement Test (EPT) were taken into account in determining their English proficiency level. Specifically, the participants who scored 55-69 were considered IL, whilst those who scored 70 -85 were considered AL. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the participants in terms of their English proficiency level:

Table 1. The distribution of the participants in terms of English proficiency level

Number of participants	English proficiency level
25	Advanced
25	Intermediate

Concerning ethical approvals, the participants were informed that their data will be dealt with carefully and that their personal details will not be disclosed to anyone. It should also be noted that the participation in the study was voluntary. In addition, the participants were informed that they can withdraw their approval and stop the test any time with no consequences whatsoever. For confidentiality purposes, the participants were only asked to write their English proficiency level without their names. Finally, the researcher thanked the participants for their cooperation.

The test

Nicol (2007: 54) indicated that one of the most commonly used tests to measure participants' comprehension of a certain structure is the multiple-choice test. Therefore, the researcher opted for the multiple-choice test to check whether the participants are aware of lexical collocations in English. The test used in this study included seven types of lexical collocation (see Appendix 1). The researcher included three examples of each type of lexical collocations. Hence, the test included twenty one items.

The researcher ensured that the participants were acquainted with the meanings of the components of each type of lexical collocation. On the test, the participants were asked to choose between four alternatives that were designed in the following way: one correct answer (the lexical collocation), one wrong answer (closely related to the correct answer), one

distracter, and one I don't know option. The last option was used to reduce the probability of choosing a wrong answer which, in turn, increases the reliability of the test. The lexical collocations were collected from *Online Oxford Collocation Dictionary*. The frequency of the selected collocations was then checked in *the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)* to ensure their use in contemporary speech. The sentences utilised in the test were adapted from *COCA* with minor modifications to better suit the English proficiency level of the participants.

Error Analysis (EA)
The researcher analysed the participants' results based on Error Analysis (EA) approach which was used by Mitchell and Myles (2004) to explain errors pertaining to Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The two scholars indicated that this approach focuses on the types of errors made by second language learners and attempts to account for them. Mitchell and Myles (2004) indicated that the errors can be classified in terms of language proficiency level which includes knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of that language. They indicated that one of the most common causes of errors in SLA is L1 interference. Hence, EA attempts to explain the errors made by EFL learners in terms of the differences between L1 and L2 or lack of knowledge of L2 (Ellis, 2003: 133). Put differently, errors can be categorised as interlingual or intralingual (Saville-Troike, 2006: 38-39). Specifically, the former refers to errors caused by transfer from L1 to L2, whereas the latter refers to errors caused by aspects related to one language i.e. L1 only (Saville-Troike, ibid). In sum, the researcher adopted EA to elicit accurate and logical conclusions.

Statistical Analysis
The researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyse the results. In particular, means of the participants' answers were calculated for each group. The means were used to identify which type of lexical collocation among the ones selected is the most problematic for each group. In addition, the researcher used a t-test to: (1) confirm the first hypothesis i.e. English proficiency level plays a crucial role in the comprehension of lexical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners; and (2) check whether the differences between the two groups i.e. IL and AL were statistically significant.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned previously, a t-test was used to test the first hypothesis i.e. English proficiency level has an impact on the participants' comprehension of lexical collocations. The results clearly showed that AL (M=4.5) performed better than IL (M=3.7). The difference between the means of AL and IL was only (0.8). Hence, this difference was not enough to be statistically significant; the statistical significance (0.122) is higher than (0.05). This can be seen in table 4 below.

Table 4. results of t-test of differences between AL and IL

Level	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Advanced Learners (AL)	25	4.5	1.5	-1.144	48	0.122*
Intermediate Learners (IL)	25	3.7	1.3			

* Significance level > 0.05

Table 5 below shows the percentage of correct answers of each type of lexical collocation in terms of English proficiency level. The descriptive statistics shown in table 5 indicates that both AL and IL had little awareness of lexical collocations. The total average of correct answers of both groups was 41%. This means that the participants, whether AL or IL, have failed the test. Additionally, IL group obtained similar results to those of AL, especially on types like *Adverb + adjective* e.g. hopelessly addicted and *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase* e.g. inflict a wound.

Table 5. Percentage of correct answers in terms of English proficiency level

Vocabulary items	Number of correct answers %		Mean of total answers %
	Advanced	**Intermediate**	
Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase	35%	30%	32.5%
Verb (eradication or cancellation) + noun	50%	40%	45%
Adjective + noun	35%	25%	30%
Noun + verb	40%	30%	35%
Quantifier + noun	60%	50%	55%
Adverb + adjective	45%	45%	45%
Verb + adverb	50%	40%	45%
Mean of total answers%	45%	37.1%	41 %

With respect to the performance of AL and IL in relation to the types of lexical collocation, 30% of the participants provided correct answers on *Adjective + noun* e.g. strong tea and 32.5% on *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase*. These two types elicited the lowest percentage of correct answers. On the other hand, 55% of the participants supplied accurate answers on *Quantifier + noun* e.g. herd of buffalos, which was the highest percentage of correct answers. Looking back at the second hypothesis, the results demonstrated that the errors made by the participants on the test vary in terms of the degree of difficulty related to the type of lexical collocation. It is clear that the number of correct answers supplied by the participants was higher on some types compared to others, which in turn confirms the second hypothesis. For instance, the most problematic types for the participants were *Adjective + noun* (30%) and *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase* (32.5%) in comparison with other types. As far as the researcher is concerned, this could be due to L1 interference as many examples of these types have a misleading equivalent in Arabic which may incite the participants to translate the expression directly from L1. In other words, Arabic does not distinguish between the same nuances of meaning that exist in English. Using EA approach, the researcher analysed the following examples from KSA to shed light on the effect of L1 interference:

1. sawwaa   ḥaadiθ
   he.did   accident
 'he had an accident'

First of all, *had an accident* (sentence three of the test, see Appendix 1) is an example of *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase* type. Second of all, the use of the lexical collocation *did an accident* instead of *had an accident* in the above context may be due to L1 interference. *Had an accident* can be literally translated into Arabic as *did an accident* as explained above. Another example (sentence two of the test, see Appendix 1) can be analysed as follows:

2. sawwaa   γala<u>t</u>
   he.did   mistake/error
   'he made a mistake'

The lexical collocation *made a mistake* in example (2) is another instance of *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase noun + preposition* type. The use of the lexical collocation *do a mistake instead of *make a mistake* may be due to L1 interference; the participants translated the Arabic equivalent literally into English. The equivalent of *make a mistake* in Arabic is *sawwaa γala<u>t</u>*. Hence, since Arabic does not provide the same lexical items i.e. *made, had* which are found in English, the participants had no choice but to resort to literal translation and provide the only lexical item available to them in Arabic i.e. *did*.

Furthermore, the following error is an example of *Adjective + noun* type which may have also happened as a result of L1 interference. In particular, the use of *heavy coffee instead of *strong coffee* can be viewed as a direct result of L1 interference through literal translation from Arabic. Example (3) below sheds light on this interference:

3. ghawa   θagiilah
   coffee   heavy
   'strong coffee'

Since the Arabic equivalent is *heavy* not *strong*, it can be claimed that the participants chose *heavy coffee as opposed to *strong coffee*. Also, the participants may have opted for *heavy* and excluded *strong* entirely because they may have translated *strong* literally as *possessing physical power*. Thus, they may have been unaware of the other sense related to the adjective *strong* which can be used in other contexts i.e. *strong coffee*.

With respect to *Quantifier + noun* type, the participants scored the highest percentage of correct answers (55%). It can be argued that because there is no one-to-one equivalent in Arabic in all cases pertaining to this particular type, Kuwaiti EFL learners may have memorised the English lexical collocation as one unit. For instance, there is no equivalent to *piece* in the Arabic translation of the collocation *piece of advice* as follows:

4. ʔʕ<u>t</u>aani   na<u>s</u>ii<u>h</u>a
   he.gave.me   advice
   'he gave me advice / a piece of advice'

Since the Arabic equivalent is non-existent, it can be claimed that the participants memorised the whole collocation as one block. This may have helped them to score high on this type of lexical collocation.

Looking back at the third hypothesis, it is clear that L1 plays a central role in the comprehension of lexical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners, especially with *Adjective + noun* (30%) and *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase* (32.5%). These two types have a misleading equivalent in Arabic as explained above. Also, it can be argued that the participants paid more attention to the grammatical structure of the sentences, neglecting the meaning. Kuwaiti EFL learners have mostly been taught grammar (syntax) with less attention to meaning as the researcher mentioned in section 2.4. The types that have no one-to-one equivalent in Arabic are less problematic as students, in general, have to memorize the collocation as one unit.

CONCLUSION

Overall, Kuwaiti EFL learners have little awareness of lexical collocations in English. With regard to English proficiency level, it was clear that both advanced and intermediate Kuwaiti EFL learners show little awareness of this phenomenon. Furthermore, *Adjective + noun* and *Verb (action) + noun /pronoun/ prepositional phrase* were the most problematic types in comparison with other types in both groups**,** whereas *Quantifier + noun* was the least problematic type. This could be due to three reasons; first of all, Kuwaiti EFL learners have not been exposed to this phenomenon at schools; secondly, L1 interference plays a crucial role in the acquisition of lexical collocations. For instance, one may say that the phrase *had an accident* is the same as *made an accident* and *did an accident* despite the fact that the latter two phrases are not acceptable; and thirdly, Kuwaiti EFL learners do not have enough interaction with native speakers of English. As far as the researcher is concerned, for EFL learners to acquire lexical collocations and other phenomena such as euphemism, they need to be exposed to the target language and to interact with its speakers. As a result, teachers need to raise Kuwaiti EFL learners' awareness of lexical collocations in English and its crucial significance in day-to-day life conversations. Finally, it is recommended that several studies need to be conducted to (1) examine Kuwaiti EFL learners' ability to produce lexical collocations in English; and (2) measure the comprehension and production of grammatical collocations by Kuwaiti EFL learners.

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Appendix 1
The test
Educational level: _____
Question: choose the answer that best completes the following sentences:

1) We _____ to the conclusion that she must be telling the truth.
a. arrived   b. came   c. got   d. I don't know

2) I will not _____ the same mistake again!
a. do   b. race   c. make   d. I don't know

3) I _____ a car accident last year. It was a miracle I survived.
a. did   b. had   c. shot   d. I don't know

4) The dean has _____ all appeals with regard to the plagiarism cases.
a. rejected   b. hated   c. drowned   d. I don't know

5) Laila has always_____ her fears from others; she hates being weak.
a. dispelled   b. scattered   c. played   d. I don't know

6) The United States vows to_____ resistance after Iraq attack
a. arrange   b. push   c. crush   d. I don't know

7. Arabs, especially in the Gulf like _____ coffee.
a. heavy   b. strong   c. large   d. I don't know

8. Our roof needs repairing, so my mother called the construction company to come and give her a _____ estimate of the costs.
a. beautiful   b. strong   c. rough   d. I don't know

9. Even after Iraq's_____ defeat in the Gulf War in 1991, Saddam Hussein survived in power.
a. crushing   b. light   c. marvellous   d. I don't know

10. Bees_____ him in different parts of his body. I have no idea how he looks like now.
a. broke   b. bit   c. stung   d. I don't know

11. Seven bombs_____ on trains killing 207 people, and wounding more than 800.
a. destroyed   b. exploded   c. came   d. I don't know

12. Have you ever noticed? bees _____ as they work the flowers.
a. buzz   b. sing   c. walk   d. I don't know

13. What's the best _____ of advice you have ever been given?
a. part   b. pack   c. piece   d. I don't know

14. The girls saw a _____ of dogs running towards them and they ran for their lives.

a. pack   b. flock   c. part   d. I don't know

15. I expect to see a _____ of buffalos near the river in Africa.

a. flock   b. pack   c. herd   d. I don't know

16. Laila says that she is unable to give up smoking; she is _____ addicted.

a. sincerely   b. hopelessly   c. wonderfully   d. I don't know

17. I didn't expect John and Kim to be _____ acquainted with each other; they spent the whole evening talking on the terrace!

a. closely   b. nearly   c. angrily   d. I don't know

18. He had _____ welcomed his guests into his home in April. What a gentleman!

a. nicely   b. warmly   c. economically   d. I don't know

19. The newspaper has apologized _____ for printing false rumours about him.

a. deeply   b. unreservedly   c. socially   d. I don't know

20. The students' gift to their teacher at the end of the school year was appreciated_____ by everyone.

a. nicely   b. financially   c. sincerely   d. I don't know

21. The two managers argued _____ about the title of their next campaign without coming to an agreement.

a. heatedly   b. angrily   c. happily   d. I don't know

Appendix 2
Arabic sounds

Arabic consonants/vowels	Symbols	Description
ء	ʔ	voiceless glottal stop
ب	b	voiced bilabial stop
ت	t	voiceless dento-alveolar stop
ث	θ	voiceless inter-dental fricative
ج	j	voiced post-alveolar affricate
ح	ẖ	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
خ	x	voiceless uvular fricative
د	d	voiced dento-alveolar stop
ذ	ð	voiced alveolar fricative
ر	r	voiced alveo-palatal trill
ز	z	voiced alveolar fricative
س	s	voiceless alveolar fricative
ش	ʃ	voiceless alveo-palatal fricative
ص	s̱	voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative
ض	ḏ	voiced alveolar emphatic stop
ط	ṯ	voiceless dento-alveolar emphatic stop
ظ	ð̱	voiced alveolar emphatic fricative
ع	ʕ	voiced pharyngeal fricative
غ	γ	voiced uvular fricative
ف	f	voiceless labio-dental fricative
ق	q/g [1]	voiceless/voiced uvular stop
ك	k	voiceless velar stop
ل	l	voiced alveolar lateral

[1] These symbols represent the voiceless and voiced uvular stop.

م	m	voiced bilabial nasal
ن	n	voiced alveolar nasal
ه	h	voiceless glottal fricative
و	w	voiced labio-velar glide
ي	y	voiced palatal glide
/ َ /	a	low short central unrounded
/ ُ /	u	high short back rounded
/ ِ /	i	high short front unrounded
آ	aa	low long central unrounded
وو	uu	high long back rounded
يي	ii	high long front unrounded
و	o:	mid long back rounded
او	aw	low short front unrounded + labio-velar glide
اي	ay	low short front unrounded + palatal glide
يي	ee	mid long front unrounded