



# Contextual elaborations and shifts when adult L2 learners present and discuss workplace-related vocabulary

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## ABSTRACT

This study aims to contribute knowledge about how the meanings of words selected by students based on workplace experiences (placements) in basic adult L2 education were negotiated in classroom discourse. The study, conducted in the context of Swedish for Immigrants (SFI), drew inspiration from practice-based and ethnographic methodology. It focuses on a vocabulary assignment connected to students' placements at pre-schools and a hotel. The analysis was based on transcribed audio recordings and underpinned by the theoretical perspective of knowledge-building interaction. As a theoretical contribution to the field, the study develops the concepts of contextual elaboration and shifts. The findings show that some students successfully used placement experiences to contextualize their chosen words, while others found it challenging to contextualize abstract words. In the follow-up discussions, the teacher, and the students collaboratively and multi-contextually expanded on word meanings by exploring different collocations and contexts of use.

## 1. Introduction

This article focuses on an initiative in basic adult language education to integrate formal teaching with students' language learning opportunities outside the classroom. While the study has a specific focus on the integration of workplace experiences, it ties into research concerns also evident in other areas of adult language education about the social contexts provided for students in language programs to develop language and literacies (e.g., Haznedar et al., 2018; Rashid, 2020; Walldén, 2020)

This study is conducted within the government-funded Swedish for Immigrants (SFI) program, designed for adults who need basic knowledge of Swedish to participate in everyday life, society, work life, and further education (Skolverket, 2022). The completion of the education, which is free of charge, also provides access to studying Swedish as a second language on intermediate and advanced levels. The present study highlights a municipal SFI program striving to strengthen the ties between basic language education and the labor market by integrating formal teaching with learning experiences at placements in different branches, that is, different areas of work.

This endeavor mirrors the fact that the SFI program has increasingly shifted its emphasis to learning work-related language as a means to ensure employability (e.g., Lindberg & Sandwall, 2017; Rosén & Bagga-Gupta, 2013). However, the effort also responds to the more

general need for increased transfer between the adult language learning classroom and language use in other contexts (e.g., Lehtonen, 2017; Reinders & Benson, 2017; Wedin, 2023; Yates & Major, 2015). Previous research has indicated that such opportunities may be limited. For example, interview studies focusing on the experiences of SFI participants have shown that the students experience a gap between formal language teaching and the authentic need to use the target language in different social contexts (Ahlgren & Rydell, 2020). Furthermore, the relatively few studies that have focused on teaching SFI have found rare occurrences of target language use in cognitively challenging tasks (Shaswar & Wedin, 2019; Wedin & Norlund Shaswar, 2023).

While some international studies have shown that L2 learners can be supported to develop linguistic capabilities in work-life contexts, they have primarily focused on professional training programs with students who have already developed their target language proficiency beyond the basic level (Duff et al., 2002; Lehtonen, 2017; Lum et al., 2018; Moanakwena, 2021; Riddiford & Holmes, 2015). While some studies have focused on students' learning of specific language skills at workplaces, such as small talk (Yates & Major, 2015), requests (Li, 2000), refusals (Riddiford & Holmes, 2015), and jokes (Myles, 2009), these studies have not focused on vocabulary and teaching activities connected to workplace experiences. In the Swedish context, Sandwall (2013) showed that SFI students rarely used the target language at placements. The study also found a disconnect between the placements

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and formal teaching. Based on this, Sandwall proposed a pedagogy creating opportunities for transfer between the workplace and classroom contexts. However, both nationally and internationally, there is a lack of studies focusing on such attempts in the context of basic language education. Furthermore, the present study explores a novel conceptual approach to vocabulary discussions by employing the perspective of knowledge-building interaction to analyze how words and expressions were contextualized by the teacher and the adult students. In so doing, the study contributes to the field of vocabulary teaching and learning (see Section 1.1), with a particular focus on the utilization of placement experiences, while also bringing new perspectives and conceptual tools to research on knowledge-building classroom interaction (see Section 2).

This article reports on findings from a practice-based classroom study focused on an SFI orientation course that provided opportunities to practice the target language (Swedish) at work placements. According to the principles of collegial action research, the researcher collaborated with the teacher to design teaching activities. When sharing their experiences with each other and the researcher (Walldén, 2023), many of the students expressed that they received a valuable opportunity to practice Swedish outside the classroom, but their experiences varied both individually and according to their chosen branch. For the duration of the study, two iterations of the course (each lasting 20 weeks) were offered to two different student groups. Since students participating in the first course iteration found it difficult to mention words and expressions they had encountered at their placements, the vocabulary assignment was introduced in the second iteration to facilitate vocabulary retention and discussions about how words and expressions are used in different contexts. Based on an assumption of possible transfer between the placement and classroom contexts (Sandwall, 2013), the findings of the current article focus on classroom talk about words the students had chosen for the task.

This study aims to contribute knowledge about how the meanings of words selected by students based on placement experiences in basic adult L2 education are negotiated in classroom discourse. The research questions are as follows:

What contexts and experiences do the participants draw on to contextualize the meaning of the words?

What characterizes the oral presentations and discussions about various word meanings, particularly in terms of moving between different degrees of contextual elaboration?

The key term *contextual elaboration* will be further explained in Section 2.

### 1.1. L2 vocabulary development and teaching

Since the present study highlights a placement assignment related to vocabulary learning, this section focuses on research and concepts relating to vocabulary development and teaching. Based on research findings, vocabulary development is widely considered fundamental to L2 proficiency (e.g., Jeon & Yamashita, 2014; Nation, 2013; Zhang & Zhang, 2022). Although the common distinction between vocabulary *size* and *depth* has proven difficult to support in research (Schmitt, 2014), it is still an important consideration for teachers to support L2 learners in studying both a wide range of words and learning them well. While the basic link between form and meaning is relatively easily acquired for L2 learners, the deeper knowledge necessary for productive use is more challenging to achieve (Schmitt, 2014). This knowledge includes awareness of derivatives, collocations, and their use and frequency in different registers. Furthermore, a thorough understanding of a word's meaning requires knowledge about associations (synonyms, hyponyms, antonyms, etc.) and about the concept behind the word; that is, what is included in it and what it can refer to (Nation, 2013 p. 49). As Williams and Cheung's priming experiments (2011) indicated, contextual aspects of meaning, including collocations, associations with contexts of use, and polysemous aspects, cannot be transferred from L1 but must be

developed through L2 exposure. In particular, collocations and other forms of formulaic language are important parts of communicative competence, since they are necessary in order to understand native speakers and sound idiomatic in communicating (Henriksen, 2013; Wray, 2002).

While a lot of vocabulary is acquired incidentally through exposure, SLA researchers have argued that this process should be supported by explicit learning, which may involve selectively attending to vocabulary and using strategies for learning different aspects of the form and meaning of words (e.g., Ellis, 2015; Loewen, 2014; Nation, 2013). From the perspective of word-focused instruction, as derived from form-focused instruction (see Ellis, 2015), the learning of new vocabulary can be supported either by drawing the students' attention to features of words as part of communicative activities (*focus on form*) or by isolated activities that focus on words, such as through word lists or other vocabulary exercises (*focus on forms*, e.g., Laufer, 2010; Morton, 2015).

Furthermore, word-focused interaction may arise in the language learning classroom from students' questions about word forms and meaning. While such questions typically arise spontaneously and result in a brief focus on form exchanges (Waring et al., 2013), they may also occur as part of planned, language-focused activities. In a study of Swedish as a second language (SSL) teaching of intermediate adult learners (Walldén & Nygård Larsson, 2021a), students regularly posed questions about the figurative or formulaic language they encountered in a jointly read novel as part of a weekly activity. This generated substantial discussions in which the meaning of the expressions was negotiated between the students and the teacher. In this negotiation, language was an object of study, in line with a *focus on forms*, but the vocabulary items were determined by the students rather than the teacher. Furthermore, since the teachers often re-connected the expressions to characters or events in the novel, the activity can hardly be described as decontextualized. Although the activity highlighted in the present study has a similar character, it is based on placement experiences instead of the reading of a novel.

The relative scarcity of studies focusing on teaching contextual features of words may explain the fact that research has traditionally treated the teaching of vocabulary as secondary to teaching grammar (e.g., Chacón-Beltrán et al., 2010). However, studies have investigated learners' acquisition of collocations under different input conditions, which has shown the significance of students' receiving rich possibilities to negotiate what is involved in knowing the word, for example, by visual aids (Alamri, 2018; Naserpour & Zarei, 2021), concordance data (Kheirzadeh & Marandi, 2014) or possibilities to use the words in writing (Laufer, 2003; Naserpour & Zarei, 2021). Moreover, Henriksen (2013) raised the issue that the teaching might be focused on single words or present collocations in a decontextualized way.

As suggested by Schmitt (2010), teachers explaining vocabulary may use various strategies, such as providing definitions, explanations, associations, examples, or elaborations on a word's context of use. Furthermore, research on vocabulary explanations underpinned by conversation analysis has shown typical sequential structures, in which the teacher focuses on the word, contextualizes it by using it in a sentence, offers an explanation, and closes with a repetition (Koole, 2019; Morton, 2015; Waring et al., 2013). Waring et al. (2013) noted how the explanations can be either analytical – relying on talk – or animated using multimodal resources such as acting or gesturing. However, the above-mentioned studies have shown that the students' participation is generally limited to displaying understanding through short answers. Walldén and Larsson (2021a) found that while the teachers provided most of the discourse in explanations of figurative language, the students' contribution often served as a bridge between teachers' concrete examples and more abstract explanations.

## 2. Theoretical underpinnings

In the present study, I follow the sociocultural tradition of viewing the possibilities to develop language and literacies as socially situated (e.g., Baynham, 2006). It depends on the meaningful contexts provided for language learning and shared activities (see Vygotsky 1984), both inside and outside the classroom (e.g., Reinders & Benson, 2017). The latter includes the scaffolding provided in teaching situations (Woods et al., 1976), and the opportunities to co-construct meaning through the joint creation of interpretations and activities (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995). A key assumption is that classroom interaction is an important resource to scaffold second-language learners in developing their knowledge and active use of the target language. To highlight how words selected by the students were negotiated in their presentations and co-constructed in follow-up discussions, I draw on theoretical perspectives of knowledge-building interaction (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Maton, 2013) to explore how contextual aspects of word meanings (see Schmitt, 2014; Williams & Cheung, 2011) were negotiated in the classroom talk.

Following Hammonds and Gibbons (2005), teachers' way of engaging the students in interaction and elaborating on their contributions constitute a form of micro-level scaffolding that can support the students in achieving tasks and understanding concepts otherwise beyond their reach. Such teaching has been described in terms of *high challenge, high support* (Mariani, 1997) approaches, or *learning in the challenge zone* (Gibbons, 2006; see also Cummins, 2000). Specific interactional approaches relevant to the study at hand are to draw on students' prior knowledge and recast the students' contributions in a way more appropriate to the content or concepts studied. Another way to challenge the students is to create information gaps that give them opportunities to share specific information or experiences not known by their peers (e.g., Gibbons, 2006 pp. 47–48). In these ways, classroom interaction has a discourse-bridging potential by creating opportunities to move between everyday and specialized ways of making meaning through language. While this has been regarded as a desirable feature of teaching, interactional support is particularly important for second-language learners since they are still developing their proficiency in the target language while using it as a tool for learning (Nygård Larsson, 2018). In the present study, the learning concerns workplace-related words and expressions.

A related line of research which I draw inspiration from has employed semantic concepts of legitimation code theory (LCT) to study co-construction of meaning in classroom discourse from a knowledge-building perspective (Maton, 2013). From a LCT perspective, the interaction can be conceived and visualized as semantic shifts, between technical/abstract meaning and everyday meaning relating to a word or expression. For example, the word "church" carries both everyday meaning (seeing or entering a church building) and specialized meaning relating to, for example, different Christian dominations or architectural styles (see Walldén & Nygård Larsson, 2021b). In successful instances of interaction, the link between everyday and subject-specific meaning is made explicit so that the discourses can be bridged. Moreover, to provide substantial opportunities for using the target language in knowledge-building practices, the movements between and within discourses are achieved through the collaborative efforts of the teacher and the students based on prior knowledge and experiences (Macnaught et al., 2013; Nygård Larsson, 2018; Walldén & Nygård Larsson, 2021b). This potentially includes communicative experiences outside the classroom, such as at workplaces (see Reinders & Benson, 2017; Yates & Major, 2015). The extent to which workplace experiences, and other kinds of experiences, appeared to support the students in achieving the relatively challenging task of explaining word meanings to their peers is addressed by research question 1 (RQ1).

In this study, the LCT perspective has inspired the way the interactional exchanges are visualized (see Section 4) and discussed as movements on a scale. However, I do not employ the specific semantic scale of LCT and related concepts (such as semantic gravity and density) since

they are more applicable to words and expressions occurring in the context of subject-specific discourses, which are often well-defined from a linguistic and semantic perspective (e.g., Martin & Maton, 2017). Unlike content-area teaching, basic language education typically does not provide its own resources for contextualizing vocabulary (discussed in Morton, 2015). Instead, teachers and students may draw on a range of contexts to negotiate the meaning of words. For students in Swedish for Immigrants, everyday applications of words and concepts are not primarily a resource for learning subject-related content but a highly desirable learning outcome. Therefore, I have employed a data-driven approach to develop a scale of *contextual elaboration* (CE) – inspired by the semantic scale of LCT – and the related concept *contextual shift* (CS). These are used to answer RQ2 since they enabled me to flexibly consider how the participants negotiated contextual use of the students' chosen words and expressions in the interaction. Since the concepts operationalize my perspective on knowledge-building interaction in the present study, they will be further clarified in the Analysis section. The assumption is that contextual elaborations and shifts promoted by the teacher and the students can scaffold the understanding of the students' selected words and expressions and promote the students' substantial verbal engagement in the interaction (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). From the perspective of knowledge-building, it is beneficial if classroom discourse shifts between specific examples – narrowing down the meaning to a specific event or context – and more general or abstract explanations (Maton, 2013; Nygård Larsson, 2018).

## 3. Materials and methods

The following sections describe the design and methodological approach of the study, including information about the participants, data collection, ethical considerations, and analytical procedure.

The present study highlights municipally organized SFI teaching in a town in southern Sweden (see also Walldén, 2023). In this municipality, all SFI students chose one of three broadly defined branches: (1) education, healthcare, and nursing; (2) foods, restaurant, and service; or (3) industry, warehouse, and logistics. The present study focused on a recently developed elective orientation course that provided participants with placements in their chosen branch. The students visited placements on a weekly basis: two half-days throughout 13 weeks. Furthermore, the students had language lessons in which placement assignments were presented, prepared, and followed up on.

### 3.1. Field access

Prior to the study, I was approached by the teacher and project leader who later participated in the study. They knew my previous research and inquired about my interest in engaging in *on-going evaluation* (in Swedish, *följeforskning*) of the municipality's endeavor to integrate work placement with language learning goals in SFI teaching. The teacher and project leader took inspiration from a pedagogical model suggested by Sandwall (2013) building on increased transfer between classroom and placement contexts; this resulted in teaching activities such as students' discussing their language learning experiences at the placements and bringing artefacts, such as texts, from the placement into the classroom. The stated purpose of the course was not employability but provision of a "language practicum" (språkpraktik) that could promote students' language development in the broader sense.

In the beginning of the research period, I mostly acted as a participant observer. However, as the study progressed, I became increasingly involved in planning and partaking in teaching activities. This was the case with the activity focused on in the present article since I planned the activity and the assignment together with the teacher based on experiences from the previous iteration of the course (see also Walldén, 2023). However, our roles were separate throughout the research in the sense that I conducted the analysis and dissemination of findings while the teacher was responsible for the whole-class teaching. The on-going

**Table 1**  
Students presenting their vocabulary assignment.

Student	Placement	Swedish words	English translations
Mona	Preschool	putta tystlåten utforska	Shove Untalkative Explore
Silvana	Preschool	koordinator inkännande OB (obekväm arbetstid)	Coordinator Considerate Uncomfortable <sup>a</sup> working hours
Zeina	Preschool	härma krav plocka upp	Copy <sup>b</sup> (imitate) Requirement Pick up
Denise	preschool	novell krav hållbar	Short story Requirement Sustainable
Bahar	preschool	högläsning ramsa bildstöd	Read-aloud (nursery) rhyme Visual support
Ahmed	hotel	tömma bestick klämma taskig	Empty Cutlery Clip nasty, lousy

<sup>a</sup> Although *inconvenient* or *unsociable working hours* would have been more idiomatic, *uncomfortable* was chosen since it corresponds better to the way the Swedish word, *bekväm*, was negotiated in the interaction.

<sup>b</sup> *Copy* has a wider meaning than the translated Swedish word, *härma*, but was chosen to preserve distinction between *härma* and the more formal *imitera*.

evaluation entailed my sharing of major findings with the teacher and administration of the municipal SFI program.

### 3.2. Participants

The participant teacher had completed 60 ECTS credits in Swedish as a Second Language, which is twice the base certification requirement for SFI teaching. Moreover, she was certified for teaching French, and English at the upper secondary level. She had 15 years of professional teaching experience, predominantly in adult education. From her training and professional development, she was familiar with the notion of interactional scaffolding and felt confident that she was using this approach. As evident from some of the excerpts, and with a background as a language teacher in adult education, I participated in some of the discussions with the students as part of the practice-based approach of the study (see also Walldén, 2023).

In total 20 students participated in the study across two course iterations. The present study focuses on two lessons in the second iteration, in which 10 students participated. Six of them completed the vocabulary assignment that the lesson was focused on. These students are presented in the table below along with their placement. They all studied Course D which is the final course in the SFI program.

Table 1 presents the students, along with their placement type and chosen vocabulary items.

The one male presenter had his placement at a hotel, while all the female participants were placed at different preschools. Across the entire cohort, students were also placed at nursery homes, youth centers, warehouses, primary schools, and garages (see Walldén, 2023). However, preschool was the most common placement type.

### 3.3. Study design and data collection

Working together with an SFI teacher, I employed an interpretative, practice-based methodology inspired by ethnography (Fangen, 2005) and collegial action research<sup>1</sup> (Willis & Edwards, 2014). This involved

<sup>1</sup> This refers to action research conducted by a small group (Willis and Edwards, 2014), as opposed to research conducted by, for example, an individual or an entire organization.

teacher, myself, and, in instances not reported on in the current study, the municipal project leader. All three participated in the planning and conduction of the teaching with the shared goal that the placements and related assignments would promote students' opportunities for language development across different domains of language use (further detailed in Walldén, 2023). While the teacher and the project leader had already established their collaboration before the research was conducted, my role gradually changed from a participant observer (or evaluator) to more active involvement. While the teacher was not directly involved in the analysis of the data, I drew analytical inspiration from the teacher's reference to different domains of language use (see Section 3.5).

As part of the collegial and practice-based design, I participated in the planning of the vocabulary-focused activity highlighted in the present study. The purpose was to facilitate meaningful transfer between the placements and the formal language teaching according to the assumption that learning experiences inside and outside the classroom can mutually benefit each other (e.g., Lai et al., 2015; Sandwall, 2013). Before carrying out presentations of the assignment, the students were given a vocabulary sheet in which they were asked to write words they encountered at the placement, translate them into their first language, note the domain of language use (everyday domain, workplace, or area of work) they thought was most suitable, provide a synonym or explanation of the word in Swedish, and use it in a sentence written in Swedish. The sheet targeted aspects of vocabulary knowledge discussed in Section 1.1, such as knowledge of associations (synonyms), contextual use (branch or area of work), as well as explaining and using the word in writing. Both the sheet activity and the presentation assignment assumed that language-focused activities can promote students' recollection and awareness of the language they encounter (Laufer, 2010; Nation, 2013). As was the case with several other assignments given by the teacher throughout the course, the oral presentations also had the learning objective of developing students' speaking ability in Swedish. Furthermore, they were expected to create slide presentations according to a structure explained in Section 4.1.

While the total number of documented lessons during the placement period was 22, the data used in the present article primarily consisted of transcribed audio recordings of two lessons focused on the vocabulary assignment. Each lesson was 90 min in duration. The examples presented in the findings were translated from Swedish to English by the researcher. When possible, translations retain features of learner language to reflect the students' language use. In the transcripts, italics mark clear emphasis, while "x" denotes inaudible words. Parentheses are used for unsure transcriptions.

In the presentations of the findings, the students presenting their vocabulary are given pseudonyms. Since it was not always possible to identify individual students in the follow-up discussions, the students were otherwise numbered according to their participation in the excerpts.

### 3.4. Ethical considerations

The study followed the Swedish Research Council's (2017) guidelines for good conduct in research. Before the study, I sought the participants' informed consent. The students were informed, both orally and in writing about the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and the right to cease participation. The written information was reviewed together with the teacher and adapted to the expected language level of the students. Although the students had previously filled in multiple consent forms as part of their involvement in the municipal project, it was necessary to emphasize that the consent concerned research. In some cases, we provided additional explanations in other languages to secure informed consent. These were provided by the teachers or tutors who were proficient in the students' first or strongest languages.

Furthermore, the collection of data was guided by data minimization expectations of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR): to only

Movement on a scale of contextual elaboration

strong contextual elaboration		weak contextual elaboration	
<p><b>CE++</b></p> <p><b>puttas (to shove)</b>                      “Because in preschool they say don’t shove, don’t shove to the children. Motivation. It’s important to know to warn the children. For example, don’t shove. When you say don’t shove, they understand.”</p> <p><b>KRAV (requirement, ecological food label)</b>                      “I think it’s the cows. Are treated well. They get to be outside. Eat grass. They are not indoors. In a small, small. In a small, small place.”</p>	<p><b>CE+</b></p> <p><b>obekväm (uncomfortable)</b>                      “It could be a friend or someone in the family. You don’t feel quite right. You don’t know how it’s going to be.”</p> <p><b>högläsning (read-aloud)</b>                      “the teacher read with a loud voice so the children ehm hear and pronounce (x)”</p> <p><b>plocka upp (pick up)</b>                      “the children use it in the preschool when pick up or clean ... pick up books”</p>	<p><b>CE-</b></p> <p><b>obekväm (uncomfortable)</b>                      “he sleeps comfortably”                      “there is a conflict between two persons”                      “an uncomfortable situation”</p> <p><b>plocka upp (pick up)</b>                      “if you drop a pencil and pick it up called pick up”</p>	<p><b>CE--</b></p> <p><b>puttas (to shove)</b>                      “it means to push lightly”</p> <p><b>KRAV (requirement, ecological food label):</b>                      “ecological food”                      “without preservations”                      “not so many pesticides”</p> <p><b>högläsning (read-aloud)</b>                      “it means reading aloud”</p>

Fig. 1. Examples of classroom talk according to a scale of contextual elaboration.

collect information deemed as necessary to answer the research questions (Regulation, 2016/679). In particular, the study was designed to prevent the collection of information that could, by implication, be used to infer the participants’ ethnicity or other data considered sensitive according to GDPR and Swedish legislation (SFS, 2003:460). Therefore, I did not collect information about individual students’ home countries or first languages. The collected data is secured by an encrypted data storage service provided by the university.

3.5. Analysis

The analysis followed an iterative qualitative approach (Tracy, 2020) alternating between readings of the data and theoretical perspectives in light of the research questions. As it was utilized in the analytical process, the term *context* refers to a context of use or, more specifically, examples of how words and expressions are used in specific contexts and situations. Considering the practice-based nature of the study (Willis & Edwards, 2014, see also Walldén, 2023), I also drew inspiration from the teacher’s repeated references to different domains of language use based on the SFI curriculum, that is everyday life, work life, society, and further education (with an emphasis on the former two). Of course, there are no clear-cut borders between these broadly defined domains, but it is still possible to consider how specific interpretations and explanations offered by the participants related to these domains.

As a first step, I compiled the transcribed presentations and follow-up discussions and coded parts of data based on how the meaning of the targeted words was negotiated. Initially, I made a rudimentary and largely intuitive division into two columns between more and less contextually elaborated explanations provided by the teacher or the students. In the second step, the context-dependent meanings were color-coded according to (1) meanings depending on the context of

students’ placements, (2) meanings depending on a more general workplace context, and (3) meanings depending on other contexts. This made it possible to see the prevalence of different contexts drawn on in specific examples and explanations provided by the participants, and the shifts between contexts. These shifts are termed *contextual shifts* (CS) in the findings. The term refers to occasions in which the participants drew attention to a different meaning and associated it with a different situation or context of use. I also particularly marked instances in which the student had difficulty construing a context for the words they explained.

In the third step, the presentations and follow-up discussions were analyzed in-depth regarding elaboration and contextual grounding. This resulted in the scale displayed in Fig. 1, which draws inspiration from the LCT approach (Maton, 2013) to conceptualize classroom discourse but employs the novel concept of *contextual elaboration*. The scale is divided into four categories with fluid boundaries. The Swedish words the examples relate to are marked with bold font.

If the presentations or discussions provided concrete examples of the usage of a word or comments on its contextual use, their discourse was considered to be relatively contextually elaborated. The two different categories showing relatively contextually elaborated discourse are distinguished by the degree of elaboration. Examples classified as CE++ offer the strongest contextual elaboration, often characterized by specific examples elaborated over several clauses, for example, particular events the students observed at their placements. Moreover, acting out the meaning (see Waring et al., 2013) or using examples from personal experience was associated with CE++, for example, when employing the first person pronoun or otherwise referring to their lives (i.e., *my colleague, my mother*). In contrast, CE+ denotes less specific or elaborated examples. These still offered some specificity regarding the situations and persons involved, for example by referring to specific social roles (e.g., *teacher, in the family* etc.).

If the participants provided a minimal context for the word, for

contextual elaboration

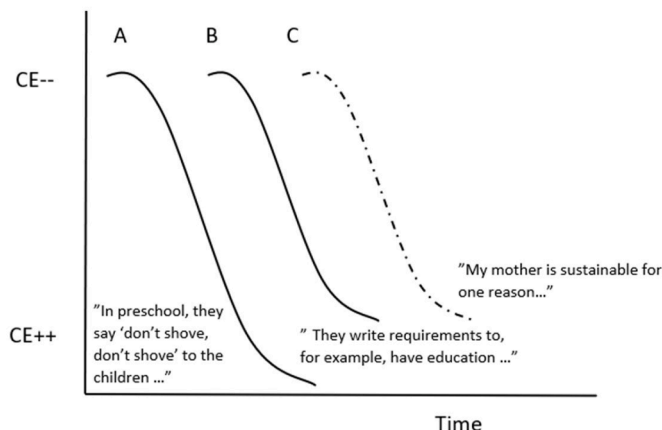


Fig. 2. Visualization of the students' presentations as contextual elaborations.

example by putting it in a single sentence conveying the general meaning, they were considered relatively weak in terms of contextual elaboration and classified as CE-. These examples employed unspecific classes of people (for example, *persons*) or generic pronouns (*they, someone, you*).

If the presentations or discussions provided a synonym or some other association without contextual elaboration, the discourse was coded as CE-, showing the weakest contextual elaboration. Sometimes, this entailed the use of specialized words and expressions.

As previously mentioned, the boundaries between the categories are fluid. It follows that the purpose of these is not to give a clear-cut determination of the contextual elaboration; rather they function as tools for exploring contextual shifts. I considered both the teacher's and the students' roles in achieving contextual elaborations and shifts. In the presentation of the findings, Excerpts 1–3 were chosen because they

4.1. Students presenting placement-related vocabulary

As preparation for the assignment, the teacher sketched a suggested disposition of slides on the whiteboard. It listed the following elements: a synonym/explanation, domain of language use, word class and morphology, a sample sentence, and a motivation for why the word was important. These were largely the same elements as in the table the students were supposed to use when documenting the words. As the following examples will show, the students adhered to the structure, but had some issues in deciphering what was meant by, for example, "explanation" and "motivation".

Following the proposed structure, the students often started their presentations by providing synonyms. As can be expected, these associations were generally not contextually elaborated and therefore coded as CE-. For example, Mona introduced *putta* (shove) as *knuffa lätt* (push lightly), while Silvana chose two synonyms to explain *inkännande* (considerate): *empatisk* (empathetic) and *lyssnande* (attentive). When presenting the nominalized compound *högläsning* (read-aloud), Bahar defined it by using the verb form: "it means *reading aloud*" (det betyder att *läsa högt*). In rare cases, students used more elaborate paraphrases, which provided more context. For example, Zeina explained *härma* (*copy* or *imitate*) as "it's when you do something and another does the same thing, then you call it copy". Similarly, Ahmed initially explained the word *clip* as "tool for holding something together". While these latter examples provide some context, these are still relatively unelaborated (CE-) since they rely on unelaborated definitions and unspecific participants (for example, *you, something*). Thus, the beginning parts of the students' presentations generally denoted weak contextual elaboration.

However, the students often moved on to more contextually elaborated examples. This is illustrated in Excerpt 1, with Silvana's explanation of *inkännande* (considerate). In all the excerpts, the original language wording (Swedish) is shown to the left.

Excerpt 1.

**Silvana:** Eh mening när en person har inkännande med kollegor, känner hen trygg och glad och utför arbete lättare. Mening eh motivering. Inkännande med kollegor på en arbetsplats är viktigt för ett gott samarbete. Jag var glad över att kunna se den på min praktikplats.

**Silvana:** Ah sentence when a person has considerate with colleagues, she feels comfortable and happy and performs work easier. Sentence ah motivation. Consideration for colleagues in a workplace is important for good cooperation. I was glad to be able to see it at my placement

were representative of the students' different approaches to performing the task of presenting and contextualizing their selected words (Section 4.1). Excerpts 4–7 were selected from follow-up discussions to show interactional exchanges that were particularly rich in terms of contextual elaborations and shifts (Section 4.2). Additionally, these discussions had distinct qualities, both regarding the chosen words and the way they were negotiated in the interaction. This is reflected in the subsection headings. When appropriate, the presentations and discussion will be analytically condensed as visualizations (see Figs. 2–4).

4. Findings

The first sub-section summarizes and exemplifies the students' presentations of the vocabulary. The second sub-section focuses on examples from follow-up discussions.

In the oral presentation, the student used almost the same wording as on her slides, including the keywords denoting the prompts provided by the teacher: "sentence" (mening) and "motivation" (motivering). In her chosen sentence, the student shifted the discourse to CE++ by putting *inkännande* in a workplace context, suggesting: "When a person has considerate with colleagues, she feels comfortable and happy and performs work easier" (när en person har inkännande med kollegor, känner hen trygg och glad och utför arbete lättare). This example illustrates challenge the students faced in providing idiomatic and unambiguously phrased explanations.<sup>2</sup>

Many students also found it difficult to interpret the expectation of motivating the chosen word. Silvana chose to motivate the importance of the quality the word described: "Consideration for colleagues in a

<sup>2</sup> *Inkännande* is rarely used as a noun and an added preposition, "med" ("with"), obscures the meaning that the student probably meant to convey about the benefit of considerate colleagues.

workplace is important for good cooperation. I was glad to be able to see it at my placement” (Inkännande med kollegor på en arbetsplats är viktigt för ett gott samarbete. Jag var glad över att kunna se det på min arbetsplats). While this may not have been the kind of motivation the teacher had in mind, it provided additional work–life contextualization of the meaning. Although the examples were not always easy to interpret, they offered stronger contextual elaboration.

All of the students connected at least one of the chosen words to a workplace context. An example is Zeina’s *krav* (requirement), with reference to job applications: “They write requirements to, for example, have education or experience” (Dom skriver krav att till exempel har utbildning eller erfarenhet). Ahmed gave the following example sentence for *taskig* (nasty): “he was really nasty against his co-workers” (han var jättetaskig mot sina medarbetarna). Some words invited examples from the workplace context of their chosen branch, such as *högläsning* (read-aloud). Bahar exemplified it as “the teacher read with a loud voice so the children ehm hear and pronounce (inaudible)” (att läsa högt till exempel läraren lärare läser med hög röst så att barnen eh hörar hur läraren läser och uttalar (inaudible)). Similarly, she explained the word *ramsa* (nursery rhyme) as “repeat the same word so the children will learn better” (repetera samma ord för att barnen ska lära bättre). These examples connected to her own choice of branch and, probably, also to experiences at her placement. Compared to the less elaborated phrasings

meeting requirements for sustainability) when she explained it as “what you need if you need, like, milk, meat and candy” (det man behöver om man behöver typ mjölk, kött och godis).

Denise, who also had difficulty explaining *krav*, formed a quite clear sentence when she explained *hållbar* (sustainable). However, as will be further explored in a coming section, she produced a non-standard collocation by using the word to describe a person: “My mother is sustainable for one reason because she raised five children on her own”) (Min mamma är hållbar av en anledning eftersom hon uppfostrade fem barn på egen hand). Similar to Silvana’s approach, these explanations were delivered exactly as written on the presentational slides. The evident difficulties are not surprising considering the challenging task of coming up with clear definitions and examples of abstract concepts without any interactional support. However, students who used placement experiences or examples from the work-life domain had more success.

Most students drew on experiences from the placement to explain chosen words. Some of these explanations were quite elaborate. This is exemplified in Excerpt 2 from Mona’s presentation, which initially focuses on the word *puttas* (to shove).

Excerpt 2.

<p><b>Mona:</b> Till exempel jag skrev en mening. Jag råkade putta till honom. Förstår ni den mening?  <b>Student:</b> Råkade /.../  <b>Mona:</b> Råkade. Råkade, det betyder eh. Jag ville inte men jag gjorde. Ja. Så. För att i förskolan dom säger “puttas inte, puttas inte till barnen. Motivering, det är viktigt att kunna för att varna barnen. Till exempel puttas inte.” När du säger “puttas inte” dom förstår. Och sen. Dom puttar inte. Tvåan, det är tystlåten. Tystlåten det betyder /.../ Som inte säger <i>mycket</i>. Som barnen. /.../ När barnen har <i>inskolning</i> barnen är tystlåten. Pratar inte och sen lite blyg också. Det är viktigt att kunna för att komma nära barnen och förstå dom. Till exempel man kan fråga till barnen varför du är tystlåten. Så. Och sen kanske barnen svarar och sen pratar. Ja.</p>	<p><b>Mona:</b> For example, I wrote a sentence. I happened to shove him. Do you understand this sentence?  <b>Student:</b> Happened to /.../  <b>Mona:</b> Happened to. Happened to. It means eh. I didn’t mean to, but I did. yes. So. Because in preschool they say “don’t shove, don’t shove” to the children. Motivation. It’s important to know to warn the children. For example, don’t shove. When you say, “don’t shove”, they understand. And then. They don’t shove. Second, it is untalkative. Untalkative, it means /.../ who don’t say <i>a lot</i>. Like the children. /.../ when the children have <i>acclimatization</i>, the children are untalkative. Don’t talk and then a bit shy as well. It’s important to know to approach the children and understand them. For example, you can ask to the children why you are untalkative. So. And then maybe the children answer and then talk. Yes.</p>
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the students used at the beginning of their presentations, these placement and general work-life examples contributed stronger contextual elaboration (CE+ or CE++). For instance, they used more specific participants (such as *teachers*, *children*, *colleagues*) instead of generic or indefinite pronouns (*you*, *something*, etc.).

In a few cases, the students found it difficult to provide adequate contextualization. When searching for the meaning of the word *krav* (requirement), Zeina discovered that it was also a common brand for ecological food (KRAV).<sup>3</sup> In the presentation, she seemed to conflate the general meaning (that is, *requirement*) and the specific meaning (foods

After clarifying the meaning of *råkade* (happened to) used in her sample sentence, she directly referenced experiences at her placement by stating, “in preschool they say ‘don’t shove, don’t shove’ to the children” (“i förskolan dom säger puttas inte, puttas inte till barnen”). Furthermore, she used the “motivation” prompt to explain that the word is important for warning the children and recounted how they cease the undesired activity when being told. With *tystlåten* (untalkative), she first gave a relatively weakly elaborated definition: “means ... who don’t say a lot”. However, she provided more contextual elaboration by connecting *tystlåten* to *inskolning* (acclimatization), a process specific to her chosen branch. Furthermore, she used the synonym *blyg* (shy) to describe how the children may feel. She also accounted for how the word is useful for understanding and contacting the children: “you can ask why they are untalkative ... and maybe the children answer”. In sum, the student used her experiences at the placements to significantly expand on the meaning of the words, which contributed to a strong contextual

<sup>3</sup> The name of the label, KRAV, is also the name of the organization responsible for the certification of organizations and brands using the label. It was originally named “Kontrollföreningen för alternativ odling” (“Control agency for alternative certification”).

elaboration (CE++).

Bahar offered another elaborate explanation building on placement experiences. The chosen word was *visual support*. Parts of her presentation are shown in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3.

**Bahar:** Bildstöd är den roligaste läraren använder bildstöd jätte jätteför. Därför att bilden hjälper barnen mycket och speciellt barnen som andra språk. Eh till exempel det finns bildstöd i förskola där jag jobbar och det finns när barnen gå in. Barnen ska förstå vad dom ska göra. Och det finns på bordet bild till mat till exempel. Olika mjölk och macka och dom barnen som kan inte. Dom förstår inte allt säger. Och läraren pekar på eh bilden och barnen förstår vad ska dom vill äta. Till exempel läraren frågar barnen vad vill du äta. Vill du äta macka?

**Bahar:** Visual support is the most fun the teacher uses visual support very very(x). Because the picture helps the children a lot and especially children with other language. Ehm for example, there is visual support in preschool where I work and there is when children go in. Children should understand what they should do. And there's on the table picture to food for example. Different milk and sandwich and the children that can't. They don't understand all say. And the teacher points at ehm the picture and the children understand what they want to eat. For example, the teacher asks the children what you want to eat. Do you want a sandwich?

Bahar explained that *visual support* is used particularly to support children with “other language” (andra språk), probably referring to L2 learners, and provided a concrete example of how teachers use visual support material to communicate with children at mealtime. She described a situation of choosing between “different milk and sandwich” and accounted for how the teacher communicated multimodally by verbal language, gestures, and the visual support image: “The teacher points at ehm the image and the children understand what they will eat ... For example, the teacher asks the children ... Do you want a sandwich?” The specificity of the example contributes to a strong contextual elaboration. Other students gave less elaborated examples from placements coded as CE+. Ahmed used “emptying the dishwasher” (tömma diskmaskinen) as a sample sentence for the chosen word *tömma* and described it as one of his workplace tasks. Furthermore, Zeina explained both *plocka upp* (pick up) and *härma* (copy) with reference to how the children copied phrases used by the teachers and had to pick up scattered books or toys.

Unlike the above-described examples from Silvana, Zeina, and Denise, the context-dependent examples provided by Bahar and Mona were not written on the slides but expanded on orally and more communicatively. While this may be a matter of presentational style, it seems likely that the placement experiences provided contextual support and a higher sense of engagement in completing the task.

This section has focused on how the students negotiated the chosen vocabulary in their oral presentation. Fig. 2 visualizes the findings by showing three profiles for contextual elaboration (Y-axis) as they progressed through the presentation (Time, X-axis). As previously shown, this typically involved moving from weak contextual elaboration to strong. This pattern is not surprising; it can generally be expected in explanations. In Fig. 2, (A) indicates a highly contextualized presentation of the word (CE++), often based on placement experiences (see Excerpt 2–3), while (B) illustrates students that provided some contextualization (CE+). (C) represents how some students experienced difficulties moving along the scale to explain the words according to the

expected pattern. This may be due to a limited understanding of the meaning or lack of linguistic resources to describe it.

After the presentations, the meaning of the words was often significantly expanded in interactional exchanges with the teacher and the students. This is highlighted in the coming section.

#### 4.2. Negotiating placement-related vocabulary in follow-up discussions

All the presentations were followed by discussions about the formal and semantic aspects of the chosen words. This section focuses on particularly rich examples of how the meaning of the words was negotiated and expanded in the interaction between the teacher and the students.

##### 4.2.1. Expanding on the form and meaning of a workplace-related fixed collocation

Silvana's presentation included the fixed collocation *obekväm arbetstid* (uncomfortable working hours), which carries a specific workplace-related meaning. In her presentation of the collocation, Silvana accounted for the morphology of the adjective *obekväm* (uncomfortable). After concluding the presentation, she initiated a discussion by making a morphology-related comment on the word. This was followed by a lengthy discussion that, unlike other examples, largely focused on the formal properties of the presented word. However, it also offered substantial elaboration on the contextual meaning of the collocation.

In her comment, Silvana admitted that she found two forms of it reflecting the two grammatical genders of Swedish: *obekväm* (common gender) and *obekvämt* (utrum gender). The teacher followed up on this by pointing out that it is followed by the adjective and offered an example from each gender showing the necessary congruence between the noun and the adjective: “en obekväm situation” (an uncomfortable situation) followed by “ett obekvämt samtal” (an uncomfortable conversation). She consolidated the examples to show congruence for numerus: “obekväma situationer eller samtal” (uncomfortable situations or conversations). Thus, the teacher separated a part of the fixed collocation *obekväm arbetstid* and recontextualized it with two other collocations that are not exclusively tied to the workplace domain. Since the primary focus was on grammar, the examples were not further elaborated, and coded as CE-. However, the teacher's sustained focus on form generated further examples with more elaborated contextualizations. This is shown in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4.



<p><b>Teacher:</b> Motsatsen är ju bekväm. [delar upp morfem, o/bekväm]. Bekväm är ju nåt som är bra. Till exempel en bekväm stol. [vickar på stol]. Är skönt att sitta på. En obekväm stol är <i>hård</i> och man vill inte sitta och. Så därför har vi "o" för att visa att det är motsatsen. Obekväma.</p> <p><b>Student 1:</b> Till exempel han sover bekväm.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Ja, han sover obekvämt. Det är hur han sover. Då är det adverb. Det talar om hur man sover. Beskriver verbet. Obekväm. Det är ju när man jobbar nätter, kvällar, helger.</p> <p><b>Student 2:</b> Det är negativ.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Ja, man använder det inte om vanlig. [skrattar] Normal. Man säger inte att jag jobbar bekväm arbetstid. Utan man använder <i>bara</i> ordet med en arbetstid som inte är den normala. Typ sju till fem.</p> <p><b>Student 3:</b> Hemma också. Vi har pratat nu om obekväm situation. Till exempel det finns konflikt mellan två personer. Vi kan också använda den på vardagsliv.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Ja, precis. Obekväm arbetstid använder vi ju om arbetsliv. Men precis. Tar vi bara <i>obekväm</i>. Om vi tar bort själva ordet. Har du rätt i Ahmed. Ja, absolut. Vi kan säga att det är en väldigt obekväm situation. Jag måste prata med. Det kan ju vara en vän eller nån i familjen. Nån som är. Nått svårt problem. Då är det en obekväm. Man mår inte riktigt bra. Man vet inte hur det ska bli. Då är det en obekväm situation. Ett obekvämt <i>samtal</i>. När man ska säga nått svårt till någon till exempel.</p>	<p>1 <b>Teacher:</b> The opposite is comfortable, right? [divides into</p> <p>2 morphemes, un/comfortable]. Comfortable is</p> <p>3 something good. For example, a comfortable chair.</p> <p>4 [wiggles on a chair]. Is nice to sit on. An uncomfortable</p> <p>5 chair is <i>hard</i>, and you wouldn't like to sit and. So, that</p> <p>6 why we have "un" to show it is the opposite.</p> <p>7 Uncomfortable.</p> <p>8 <b>Student 1:</b> For example, he sleeps comfortable.</p> <p>9 <b>Teacher:</b> Yes, he sleeps uncomfortably. It is how he</p> <p>10 sleeps. Then it's an adverb. It says how he sleeps.</p> <p>11 Describes the verb. Uncomfortable. It's when you</p> <p>12 work nights, evenings, weekends.</p> <p>13 <b>Student 2:</b> It's negative.</p> <p>14 <b>Teacher:</b> Yes, you don't use it for usual. [laughs]. Normal.</p> <p>15 You don't say I work comfortable working hours. You</p> <p>16 <i>only</i> use the word with working hours that are not</p> <p>17 normal. Like seven to five.</p> <p>18 <b>Student 3:</b> Also, at home. We have talked now about</p> <p>19 uncomfortable situation. For example, there is a</p> <p>20 conflict between two persons. We can also use it for</p> <p>21 everyday life.</p> <p>22 <b>Teacher:</b> Yes, exactly. Uncomfortable working hours, this</p> <p>23 we only use for work life. But exactly. If we just have</p> <p>24 <i>uncomfortable</i>. If we take away the word itself. You're</p> <p>25 correct, Ahmed. Yes, absolutely. We can say it's a very</p> <p>26 uncomfortable situation. I must talk with. It could be a</p> <p>27 friend or someone in the family. You don't feel quite</p> <p>28 right. You don't know how it's going to be. Then, it's</p> <p>29 an uncomfortable situation. An uncomfortable</p> <p>30 <i>conversation</i>. When you're going to say something</p> <p>31 difficult to someone for example.</p>
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She divided the words into morphemes on the whiteboard ("o/bekväm") and drew attention to how the prefix *o* marks it as the antonym of *bekväm* (cf. un/comfortable). Turning to the meaning of *bekväm*, she first gave the vague suggestion of "something good", denoting weak contextual elaboration (CE-). However, she proceeded by referring to how a comfortable chair may be "nice to sit on" while an uncomfortable chair is "*hard* and you wouldn't like to sit" (line 2–7, English excerpt). This drew attention to the tactile meaning of the word, compared to the more figurative usage in *uncomfortable situation* or *uncomfortable working hours*. The specific example of the chair entailed a shift to a strong contextual elaboration (CE++).

In the following discussion, the teacher and the student continued to explore contextual meanings while the teacher also provided grammatical explanations (see l. 9–10). The students contributed by offering different examples from the domain of everyday experience, *sova bekvämt* (sleeping comfortably, l. 8) and remarking on the semantic orientation of the word, "it is negative" (l. 13). In response to the latter, the teacher laughingly commented that there is no such expression as *bekväm arbetstid* (comfortable working hours) and pointed out "you *only* use the word with working hours that are not normal" (man använder *bara* ordet med en arbetstid som inte är den normala, l. 14–17). Thus, she drew attention to the fixed and contextual quality of the collocation. Student 3 initiated a *contextual shift* by suggesting that the expression can also be used in everyday life and referring to the previous example of *uncomfortable situation* (l. 18–21). The teacher repeated that fixed collocation is used in the work-life domain but admitted that "the word in itself" can be used in the way the student suggested. She also elaborated on the examples briefly provided in the earlier form-focused part

of the discussion, relating to uncomfortable situations and conversations (l. 22–31). These were coded as CE+ since they are less specific than the chair example and the examples relating to uncomfortable working hours (9–11).

At this point, several meanings of (*o*)*bekväm* have been negotiated, related to the chosen fixed collocation (*obekväm arbetstid*), the tactile meaning (*bekväm soffa*), and a common figurative usage (*obekväm situation*), which was expanded on further in the teacher's concluding comment (l. 28–31). While the teacher contributed most of the discourse, the discussion hinged on the questions and suggestions by the students, ranging from Silvana's form-focused comment which initiated the discussion, and other students' observations about (positive-negative) semantic orientation and usage in different domains. The discourse moved between contexts of use and highlighted both formal and semantic properties. Furthermore, the initial focus on form created the need for the figurative (such as *uncomfortable meeting*) and tactile (*uncomfortable chair*) examples that the students and the teachers elaborated on. Although most of the examples – apart from the chair example – were quite general in nature, they offered contextual elaboration. Through the different examples negotiated in the interaction, the discussion appeared to support a multi-faceted understanding of its meaning and contextual use, involving both a context-specific fixed collocation connected to the work-life domain and usage also relevant to other everyday contexts.

#### 4.2.2. Expanding on a contextual meaning outside the workplace domain

As shown in the previous section, the students found it challenging to contextualize abstract words as *krav* (requirement) and *hållbar*

(sustainable). Although the teacher never explicitly dismissed any of the students' attempts to explain their chosen words, she found reasons to re-visit some of the words. Excerpt 5 shows part of the discussion following Zeina's presentation of *krav*. At the teacher's request, the student showed a slide with her written explanation and a visual rep-

resentation of the label. Unlike Excerpt 4, this discussion had a sustained focus on a specific contextual meaning.

Excerpt 5.

Teacher: Jag tänker om du går tillbaka till krav. Nu kan ju det betyda.	1	Teacher: I thought if you go back to requirement. Now, this could mean.	2
Zeina: Ja en märke (bröd) eller.	3	Zeina: Yes, a label (bread) or.	3
Teacher: Ja det är ett märke. Vad betyder det märket?	4	Teacher: Yes, it's a label. What does that label mean?	4
Zeina: Till exempel det sitter på mjölk. Eller på kött. Det som till exempel nytt eller. Vad heter det. /.../	5	Zeina: For example, it's on milk. Or on meat. That like for example new or. What's it called. /.../	5
Teacher: När vi köper mat i affären. Ni går och tittar. Till exempel om det är mjölk där. På en del mjölkpaket står det så här. [pekar på KRAV-märke]. KRAV eller ibland står det KRAV-märkt. Tror jag. Vad betyder det? När ni köper. Ni kan välja att köpa mjölk där det står KRAV. Och ni kan välja att köpa mjölk där det inte står KRAV. Den här mjölken är lite dyrare. Finns ju på smör och.	6	Teacher: When we buy food in the supermarket. You go and look for. For example, if there's milk. On some milk packages, it says like this. [points at KRAV label] KRAV or sometimes it says KRAV-labelled. I think. What does it mean? When you buy it. You can choose to buy milk where it says KRAV. And you can choose to buy milk where it doesn't say KRAV. This milk is a bit more expensive. It's on butter and.	6
Zeina: För (x x) natur, natur.	7	Zeina: for (x x) nature, nature.	7
Student 1: Bättre service	8	Student 1: Better service.	8
Student 2: Ecolo ecology.	9	Student 2: Ecolo ecology. [said in English]	9
Teacher: Ja, jag är inte hundra procent eh vad KRAV. Det är tror jag att korna. Har det bra. Dom får vara ute. Äta gräs. Dom är inte inne. I ett litet litet. På en liten liten plats. /.../ Dom får bra mat. Så man ställer krav. Det finns krav på dom som har dom här eh korna. Att korna ska ha det bra.	10	Teacher: Yes, I'm not one hundred percent sure ehm about KRAV. I think it's the cows. Are treated well. They get to be outside. Eat grass. They are not indoors. In a small, small. In a small, small place. /.../ They get good food. So, you place requirements. There are requirements on the people keeping these ehm cows. That the cows should be treated well.	10
Student 2: Utan konservering.	11	Student 2: Without preservation.	11
Teacher: Ja precis. Jag vet inte exakt. Jag är inte expert.	12	Teacher: Yes, precisely. I don't know exactly. I'm not an expert.	12
Student 3: Ekologisk mat.	13	Student 3: Ecological food.	13
Teacher: Men du får bättre mjölk och korna har haft det bättre. Så man kan köpa. Ekologisk. Finns det nån skillnad på det [forskarens namn]? KRAV och ekologisk?	14	Teacher: But you get better milk and the cows have been treated better. So, you can buy. Ecological. Is there a difference, [name of researcher]? KRAV and ecological?	14
Researcher: Jag tror att i KRAV så. Jag tror att det finns både det här att djuren ska ha det bra men också att det ska vara något ekologiskt lantbruk. /.../	15	Researcher: I think that in KRAV. I think it is both about how the animals are treated but also that it should be some ecological farm. /.../	15
Zeina: När man söker jobb också dom har det.	16	Zeina: When you apply for jobs, they have it also.	16
Teacher: Ja, det är nåt annat. Men här är på mat.	17	Teacher: Yes, that is something else. But this is for food.	17
Student 4: Någon som har allergi eller nej?	18	Student 4: Someone with allergy, or no?	18
Teacher: Men ekologiskt är ju att det finns ingen gift. Inga farliga ämnen. Bara naturliga ämnen när du har odlat apelsiner eller tomater eller om det är kött.	19	Teacher: But ecological, that's when there are no toxicants. No harmful substances. Just natural substances when you have cultivated oranges, or tomatoes, or if it's meat.	19
Student 2: Utan fertilizer.	20	Student 2: Without fertilizer. [said in English]	20
Teacher: Ja, det är ut-	21	Teacher: Yes, it is with-	21
Student 5: Pesticider. Kan man säga. De har inte så mycket pesticider eller hur?	22	Student 5: Pesticides. You can say. They don't have as many pesticides, right?	22
Teacher: Ja konst. Vad heter det. /.../ Det finns inga farliga tillsatser. Det har odlats naturligt. Så det är ju när det gäller mat. Men sen kan man ju ställa krav när man söker arbete på någon. Det krav.	23	Teacher: Yes, arti. What's it called. /.../ There are no harmful additives. They've been cultivated naturally. So, this refers to food. But then you can place requirements when you search for work, on someone. That requirement.	23
Zeina: Varje en vecka för att jag söker jobb.	24	Zeina: Every week because I'm searching for work.	24
Teacher: Här är ju krav på maten. Att maten är bra. Och att korna har haft det bra. Sen kan man ställa krav på dig Ahmed när du söker arbete. Att du. Att du är empatisk, att du tar ansvar, att du är strukturerad. Att du har arbetslivserfarenhet. Det är att ställa krav för att vi vill anställa rätt person.	25	Teacher: Here, there are requirements on the food. That the food is good. And that the cows are well treated. Then, they can place requirements on you when you search for work. That you are empathetic, that you take responsibility, that you are structured. That you have work life experience. That is to place requirements because we want to hire the right person.	25
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## contextual elaboration

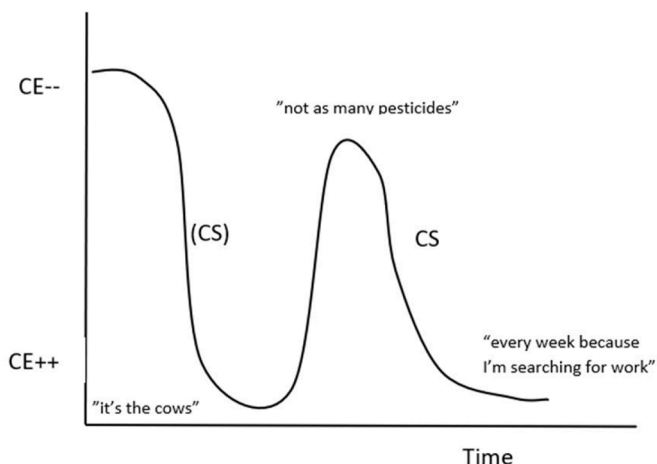


Fig. 3. Visualization of contextual elaboration of *requirement* (krav) in a follow-up discussion.

When asked by the teacher about the meaning, Zeina offered that *KRAV* is a label (märke) and explained that it can be found on milk or meat (l. 3–6). The teacher confirmed that it can be found in supermarkets and elaborated on the example of milk (l. 7–14). While pointing at the label shown in the student's presentation slide, she asked what it meant compared to milk packages that did not have the brand and commented on the price difference. The students (l. 15–17) responded with suggestions relating to something about nature (partly inaudible), service, and “ecology” (said in English by Student 2). The teacher admitted that she was not sure about the meaning of the label but gave the concrete example of cows being well treated by “being outside”, not in “a small, small place”, and given “good food”. She concluded by referring to the meaning of *krav* (requirement) in this context: “There are requirements on the people keeping these cows” (Det finns krav på dom som har dom här eh korna). With this concrete example,<sup>4</sup> the teacher provided a contextual elaboration (CE++) which clarified the meaning the student likely sought to provide in her presentation.

After this explanation, the students offered additional suggestions related to this meaning of *krav* (l. 25–28), such as “without preservatives” (utan konserveringsmedel) and “ecological food” (ekologisk mat). The teacher stated that she was unsure about the ecological aspect and asked the researcher, who suggested that the label indicates ecological food: “the cows should be well treated but there should also be some ecological farm”. Zeina attempted a contextual shift by stating that the word is used in applying for jobs, while Student 4 asked if it relates to allergies. The teacher maintained the focus on ecological food by using specialized wording (“no toxicants ... no harmful substances, just natural substances”) and providing common examples (“when you have cultivated oranges or tomatoes or if it's meat”). At this point, students introduced more specialized vocabulary (l. 42–45) by suggesting “without fertilizer” (using the English term) and “not so many pesticides” (inte så många pesticider). The teacher seemed to search for a technical Swedish expression<sup>5</sup> before phrasing it as food “without harmful additives” and “cultivated naturally”. In this part of the exchange, the teacher and the students negotiated the abstract concept of ecological food by providing examples and connecting it to specialized

<sup>4</sup> Cows in pastures are emblematic for Swedish “open landscapes” and often used in the marketing of ecological food.

<sup>5</sup> Although *pesticid* is used in Swedish, it is less frequent than the more common *bekämpningsmedel*. The teacher seemed on her way to suggest *konstgödsel*, which means artificial fertilizer.

## contextual elaboration

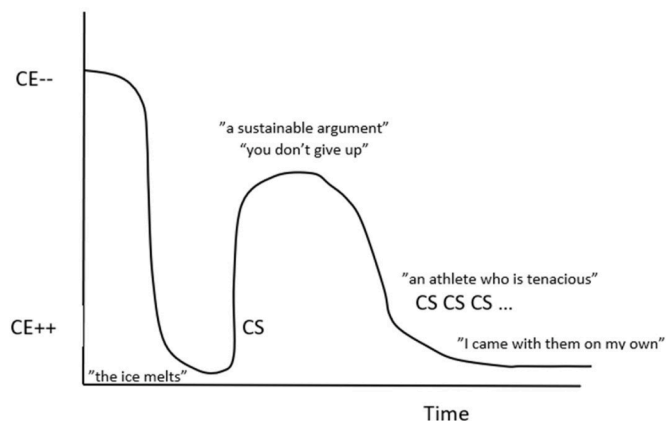


Fig. 4. Visualization of contextual elaboration of *sustainable* (hållbar) in a follow-up discussion.

vocabulary. Compared to the concrete example of cows and milk the teacher initially elaborated on, these latter examples offered weaker contextual elaboration (CE-), although interspersed with some concrete examples of ecologically produced food provided by the teacher.

Perhaps recalling Zeina's earlier attempt to change the topic, the teacher performed a contextual shift: “But then you can place requirements when you search for work, on someone” (Men sen kan man ju ställa krav när man söker arbete på någon). This general workplace example, coded as CE+, was followed by Zeina relating the personal experience of facing such requirements on a weekly basis, thus providing a stronger contextual elaboration (CE++): “each a week because I search for work”. The teacher maintained a strong contextual elaboration by concretizing different kinds of requirements: “you are empathetic, that you take responsibility, that you are structured”. She concluded by reinforcing the general contextual meaning “that is to place requirements because we want to hire the right person” (det är att ställa krav för att vi vill anställa rätt person). This brief negotiation of the work-life meaning contrasts with the more exploratory dialogic and sustained exchange about the *KRAV* label.

A profile of the discussion is shown in Fig. 3. It includes notations of contextual shifts (CS). Analogous to Fig. 2, *Time* (X-axis) refers to the chronological unfolding of the discussion which is also evident in Excerpt 5.

As previously discussed, the teacher prioritized unpacking the contextual meaning by concrete examples, while the student contributed semantic complexity by suggesting related specialized terms, thus re-packing the meaning of the word. As was the case in Excerpt 4, the students proposed contextual shifts, but in this case the teacher chose not to pick up on it until the end of the discussion (marked by parenthesis in the figure). The likely reason is that she wished to ascertain that the students grasped the context-dependent meaning Zeina attempted to communicate in her presentation. As a result of the sustained focus on the *KRAV* label, the workplace domain became relatively peripheral in the discussion.

#### 4.2.3. Searching for collocations expressing intended meaning

Excerpt 5 had showed a lengthy discussion that arose from a selected word the presenting students had issues explaining by themselves. On other similar occasions, the nature of the discussions differed as the students posed questions that probed possible contextual uses of the selected words which, in turn, generated discussions about semantically related words and collocations. One such instance followed Denise's presentation of the word *hållbar* (sustainable). A part of it is shown in Excerpt 6, which initially focuses on the notion of environmental sustainability.

## Excerpt 6.

abstract notion (CE++).

Student 3 performed a contextual shift (l. 14–16) by requesting an example “on humans” similar to the less successful one Denise had used

Teacher: Man pratar om hållbar miljö. Ni vet vi har problem med miljön. Med temperaturen som stiger i världen. Eh.	1	Teacher: They talk about sustainable environment. You know, we have problems with the environment. With the temperature rising in the world. Ehm.
Student 1: Jag läser att många is att. Hur kan man säga.	2	Student 1: I read that many ice, that. How can you say.
Student 2: Smält.	3	Student 2: Melt.
Teacher: Isen smälter så situationen med miljön är ohållbar. Den är inte hållbar för vi har en temperatur som stiger väldigt mycket. Vi märker nu. Det är ju fortfarande. Vi pratade om det förra gången. Sommartemperatur nästan. Ute fast det är slutet av november. Så vi har en ohållbar situation som vi vet inte riktigt hur fort det kommer gå. Isarna smälter. Eh. /.../	4	Teacher: The ice is melting so the situation with the environment is unsustainable. It is not sustainable because we have a temperature that's rising a lot. We notice it now. It's still. We talked about it last time. Almost summer temperature. Outside, though we're at the end of November. So, we have an unsustainable situation that we don't know exactly how fast it will go. The ice is melting. Ehm. /.../
Student 3: Ursäkta. Kan du skriva exempel på människor. Men inte som hon skriver där. Med hållbar. /.../	5	Student 3: Excuse me. Could you write an example about humans. But not like she writes there. With sustainable. /.../
Teacher: Man brukar prata om hållbar. Inte som egenskap. Inte om en människa riktigt tänker jag. En hållbar situation kan man säga. Hållbar eh. /.../	6	Teacher: You usually don't talk about sustainable. Not as a quality. Not quite about a person, I'd say. You could say a sustainable situation. Sustainable ehm. /.../
Student 4: Kan man säga min lärare har mycket hållbar med sin jobb. [många elever säger nej]	7	Student 4: Could you say my teacher has a very sustainable with her work? [several students say no]
Teacher: Hållbar planering kanske. Hållbar.	8	Teacher: Sustainable planning, maybe. Sustainable.
Student 5: Också man kan använda i domstol. /.../	9	Student 5: Also, you could use in court. /.../
Teacher: Ett hållbart beslut. Domstols.	10	Teacher: A sustainable decision. Court.
Student 6: Hållbart argument.	11	Student 6: Sustainable argument.
Teacher: Inte för att beskriva egenskaper. En situa-, ett hållbart argument. Ja! Ett hållbart argument till exempel. /.../	12	Teacher: Not to describe qualities. A situa-, a sustainable argument. Yes! A sustainable argument for example. /.../
Researcher: Ja, om man vill prata om personer kan man säga till exempel <i>uthållig</i> att man är en person som inte ger upp utan <i>orkar</i> mycket. Då är man <i>uthållig</i> . Och det har ju också med att hålla att göra. Man kan säga att en person är stabil, pålitlig kanske. Så man får nog använda lite andra synonymer här för person.	13	Researcher: Yes, if you'd want to talk about persons you could, for example, say tenacious, that you don't give up but can cope with a lot. Then you are tenacious. And that also have something to do with to hold. You could say that a person is stable, dependable maybe. So, you might have to use some other synonyms for person.
Teacher: Till exempel <i>uthållig</i> om vi pratar om egenskaper. Hur man är som människa. <i>Uthållig</i> det betyder att man klarar mycket. Det kan vara att man klarar mycket stress till exempel. Men det kan också vara en idrottsman eller -kvinna som är <i>uthållig</i> och <i>orkar</i> mycket utan att man blir trött. Då är man <i>uthållig</i> .	14	Teacher: For example, tenacious if you talk about qualities. How you are as a person. Tenacious, it means that you can manage a lot. It could be that you can manage a lot of stress for example. But it could also be an athlete who is tenacious and can cope with a lot without getting tired. Then, you are tenacious.
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The teacher introduced the collocation *hållbar miljö* (environmental sustainability) and rephrased it more concretely: “We have problems with the environment ... the temperature is rising” (l. 1–3). A student contributed something about ice (l. 4–5) and received support from another student through the word *smälta* (melt). The teacher confirmed that the ice is melting and used an antonym that had been discussed earlier: “the environment is unsustainable” (miljön är ohållbar). She also referred to the uncommonly warm November weather “almost summer temperature ... though we're at the end of November” (l. 6–13). Through these context-specific examples, the teacher and student collaboratively employed a strong contextual elaboration to explain an

in her presentation (“my mother is sustainable ...”). Unable to provide the requested “examples on humans”, the teacher explained that the word is not used “as a quality ... not about a person” (l. 17–19). The following part of the discussion unfolded similarly, with suggestions of how the word can be used to describe teaching, court decisions, and arguments (l. 17–28). Throughout, the negotiation of the meaning hinged on students' questions and suggestions which, through different contextual examples, explored possible collocations with the words. With a focus on how the word generally can be used to describe phenomena, the examples offered relatively weak contextual elaboration (CE-).

Since the students seemed to be searching for a word collocating with persons, the researcher suggested the word *uthållig* (tenacious, resilient, or tough) to describe “a person who doesn’t give up but can cope with a lot” (en person som inte ger upp utan orkar mycket). By stating that the word “also has something to do with *to hold*” (har ju också med hålla att göra), the researcher also drew attention to it containing the same root morpheme as *hållbar* (hålla, that is *to hold*). Furthermore, the researcher suggested *stabil* (stable) and *pålitlig* (dependable), which, unlike *hållbar*, have both sentient and non-sentient collocates (l. 29–35).

Compared to the initial discussion about *hållbar* (l. 1–13), these suggested associations from the researcher maintained a weak contextual elaboration since they were relatively abstract. However, the teacher provided more contextual elaboration (CE+) by offering additional elaboration on *uthållig*, which put it in relation to athletes and feelings of stress: “people who can manage a lot ... lots of stress ... athletes who can cope with a lot without getting tired”.

In the following discussion (not shown in the excerpt), the students applied the words that the researcher spontaneously introduced and offered several other exemplifications that contributed to a stronger contextual elaboration (CE++). Student 1 used personal experience by commenting on their migration experience: “I have two children and came with them on my own” – also adding that they “did not have language with [them]”. The student asked if they could apply *hållbar*

one in Fig. 3 but contains several contextual shifts that were taken up by the teacher and the researcher. As the general meaning of these were negotiated, there was less contextual elaboration.

The fact that both exchanges started by unpacking abstract concepts (KRAV-label, sustainable) and were concluded by contexts and examples connected to the students’ personal experiences and everyday life further indicates the responsiveness to different needs and domains of language use.

#### 4.2.4. Negotiating context-specific meaning based on placement experiences

Although some students elaborated quite successfully on the meanings of their selected words by referring to experiences at their placements (see Excerpts 2–3), the assignment did not include any expectations that the students would relate how they encountered the words. As evident from the previous sections, the most elaborated discussions (visualized in Figs. 3 and 4) did not primarily focus on placement experiences or the work-life domain in general. However, in one instance the teacher followed up a presentation by asking about the context (Excerpt 7). It concerned the word *taskig* (nasty) presented by Ahmed.

Excerpt 7.

<p><b>Teacher:</b> Ahmed, vill du berätta? Vem var det som var taskig?</p> <p><b>Ahmed:</b> Ja, det var en situation på den när en kund prata med min. Min kompis. I reception. Men han har den en <i>lång</i> diskussion med henne och han är inte nöjd. Han var onöjd. Så efter han gå. Efter han gick så hon säger till mig han är jättetaskig. Eh en annan gång jag höra en person som är också inte nöjd med. Med mat. Sa han att eh taskig mat.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Taskig mat.</p> <p><b>Ahmed:</b> Ja.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Att <i>maten</i> inte är bra. Ja. Oftast är det om en person. Och sen finns det kanske nån som använder det inom andra områden.</p>	<p><b>Teacher:</b> Ahmed, do you want to tell us? Who was being nasty?</p> <p><b>Ahmed:</b> Yes, it was a situation on that when a customer talked with my. My friend. In the reception. But he has that a <i>long</i> discussion with her and he is not satisfied. He was unsatisfied. So, after he leave. After he left, she said to me he was real nasty. Ehm, another time I hear a person who is also not happy with. With food. Said that ehm nasty food.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> Nasty food.</p> <p><b>Ahmed:</b> Yes.</p> <p><b>Teacher:</b> That the <i>food</i> wasn’t good. Yes. Most often, it’s about a person. And then there may be someone who uses it in other areas.</p>
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(sustainable) to describe themselves. The teacher confirmed that the student had gone through difficulties and suggested *uthållig* (tenacious) as an appropriate choice. She also mentioned the alternative *stabil* (stable), which Student 2 directly exemplified by contextually shifting to a medical situation: “for example a doctor ... the person is stable”. The teacher elaborated on the suggestion by offering the common collocation *stabil puls* (stable pulse) and describing the meaning more generally as “how it should be ... no changes”. Furthermore, the teacher contrasted this with an “unstable” (*ostabil*) person who “cries easily” and “changes how they feel a lot”.

As the conversation proceeded a student contextualized *stable* as “if he has a job, his whole situation becomes very stable” – confirmed by the teacher – and further suggested that “getting married becomes very stable”. The teacher’s swift response – “Or the opposite!” – led to general laughter and the student repeating the word *ostabil* several times. In sum, the students and the teacher collaborated to provide contextual elaboration of new words related to meanings the students wished to express. In doing so, they invoked several contexts ranging between everyday, work-life, and societal domains.

The contextual profile of the discussion (Fig. 4) is quite similar to the

When asked by the teacher “who was nasty?”, the student recounted the situation with a dissatisfied customer delivering a lengthy complaint about being labeled *jättetaskig* (real nasty) by a work colleague. Furthermore, he recounted a customer complaining about *taskig mat* (lousy food). These examples provided a strong contextual elaboration. The teacher seemed surprised by the latter collocation, as she stressed *mat* (food) before explaining that it mostly refers to persons and that it may sometimes be used “in other areas”.<sup>6</sup>

Aided by the teacher with the pronunciation, the same student contributed another word he had heard to describe food – *mäktig* – which commonly means *powerful* or *mighty*, but it is also used in collocations with food meaning *heavy* or *rich*. The teacher repeated it and asked about its meaning. Seemingly acquainted with the common meaning, the student suggested “really tasty” (*jättegod*) and “powerful” (said in English). While the teacher questioned the proposed contextual meaning

<sup>6</sup> Apart from describing behaviour (the first meaning listed in canonical dictionaries such as *Svensk ordbok*), *taskig* is also used more generally in informal language to express “bad” or “unsatisfactory”.

(“I would not use it ... as tasty”), she confirmed the common meaning, “a mighty person” (en mäktig person), and reworked it into the nominal form of the word: “a person who has power” (en person som har makt).<sup>7</sup> This relatively unelaborated example (CE-) prompted the student to provide more specific counterparts (CE+): *ledare* (leader) and *president* (president). The teacher contrasted this common meaning with the contextual one by explaining that it has a different meaning of “it is a lot ... you get full quickly”. She expanded on this by providing the example of eating cake: “it’s fatty ... it’s heavy” (det är mycket fett ... det är mäktigt). She summarized that the meanings are different and that it “might be good to know when you are working”.

After the researcher suggested that the word might describe one getting a bit *too* full, the teacher agreed and enacted the meaning by exclaiming and holding her stomach. She repeated the cake example, using the word *tung* (heavy) to describe the feeling of having eaten too much and clarify that it is not the same as tasty: “here, it doesn’t mean that it’s tasty, but it means that it gets heavy” (det betyder inte att det är gott här, utan det betyder att det blir tungt). The teacher’s use of personal pronouns (“I can’t eat that much ... I had way too much to eat”), exclamations, and gestures provided further contextual elaboration (CE++). She concluded that the word “almost becomes negative”, and thus drew attention to a difference in semantic orientation.

In the discussion of both *taskig* and *mäktig*, Ahmed’s placement experiences contributed to a strong contextual elaboration. It became evident how the words acquire a particular meaning when they describe *mat* (food). While the meaning of *taskig mat* is quite transparent in relation to the common meaning, and thus easily grasped, the meaning of *mäktig mat* was not understood by the student and required more extensive negotiation. From the teacher’s perspective, the placement experience also seemed to bring a sense of urgency to the successful interpretation of the contextual meaning.

## 5. Discussion

In this study, I have contributed knowledge about a language-focused activity consisting of presentations and discussions related to language the students’ encountered at different placements. The specific activity and the placement-focused orientation course the students had enlisted in both fall into a work- and employment-oriented paradigm that has been problematized as an overly narrow scope for basic language education (Lindberg & Sandwall, 2017; Rosén & Bagga-Gupta, 2013). However, research in adult second-language acquisition has also stressed the importance of offering adult L2 students contexts for language learning that can be fruitfully connected to formal language education (Duff et al., 2002; Lehtonen, 2017; Riddiford & Holmes, 2015; Yates & Major, 2015). Both nationally and internationally, there has been a lack of studies highlighting language-focused activities based on students’ placement experiences.

The findings relating to the first research question – “What contexts and experiences do the participants draw on to contextualize the meaning of the words?” – show that the presentations and discussions were not dominated by discourse relating to their placements or that the workplace domain was foregrounded at the expense of other domains of language use stipulated by the SFI curriculum (everyday life, society, education, etc.). In contrast, the students and the teacher drew on different contexts and experiences to contextualize the meaning of the words. This was apparent in the discussion about the fixed collocation *obekväm arbetstid* (uncomfortable working hours, Excerpt 4). While the workplace-specific meaning was clarified in the student’s presentation and briefly recapitulated by the teacher, the teacher and the students elaborated substantially on the meaning of *obekväm* (uncomfortable) in different contexts of use. They negotiated other collocations with

varying transparency, such as *uncomfortable chair* and *uncomfortable situation*, while noting that these, unlike *obekväm arbetstid*, can be used in the everyday domain. Thus, the contextual use of different collocations was clarified (see Henriksen, 2013; Schmitt, 2014).

The varying contexts that were drawn on were also apparent in the lengthy discussion about the words *krav* (requirement, Excerpt 5) and *hållbar* (sustainable, Excerpt 6). The teacher and the students evoked different contexts and related meaning, all of which seem highly relevant and responsive to adult language learners. In these meaning-focused discussions, the teacher and the students used experiences relating to environmental change, migration experiences, job applications (a mandatory activity for most students in SFI), civic institutions (healthcare, courts), and relationships. While the teacher, and sometimes the researcher, played an important role in clarifying contextual meanings, the students actively contributed and initiated contextual shifts based on their interests, experiences, and prior knowledge about the words. This dialogical characteristic of the discussion is important to scaffold knowledge building (Gibbons, 2006; Maton, 2013) and language learning opportunities (Wedin & Norlund Shaswar, 2019). Compared to a pre-designed curriculum of language items, or shorter, spontaneous language-focused discussions arising in the language classroom (Waring et al., 2013), it is likely that the design of the activity based on student-selected words and unique placement experiences promoted information gaps (see Cazden 2001; Gibbons, 2006) and a co-construction of meaning (see Jacoby & Ochs, 1995). Furthermore, both the presentations (Fig. 2) and the discussions arguably provided the students with a linguistic challenge that researchers have often found to be missing in the SFI program (Wedin & Norlund Shaswar, 2023). The negotiation of this task was supported by both the teacher’s (and sometimes the researcher’s) provision of interactional scaffolding and, at least for some of the students, the experiences of the words and expressions at the workplace.

Through the second research question – “What characterizes the oral presentations and discussions about various word meanings, particularly in terms of moving between different degrees of contextual elaboration?” – I have presented a novel approach to studying classroom discourse focused on word meanings in basic language education. From the knowledge-building perspective adopted in the study, successfully negotiating the meaning of the chosen words became a matter of moving on a scale between strong and weak contextual elaboration (see Fig. 2). As exemplified in Figs. 3 and 4, the follow-up discussions moved between concrete and contextually elaborated examples on the one hand and more abstract paraphrases on the other hand. The resulting pattern is analogous to the semantic waves described as conducive to knowledge-building in LCT research (see Maton, 2013) since they did not merely “unpack” the meaning of the words or expressions in simple language but shifted back to more abstract or specialized meaning. However, unlike content teaching focusing on students’ appropriation of concepts connected to subject knowledge (e.g., Maton, 2013; Morton, 2015; Cranwell & Westside, 2020; Nygård Larsson, 2018), a deep knowledge of words in L2 instruction entails a multi-contextual knowledge of meanings connected to the word (see Nation, 2013). As previously discussed, the follow-up discussions of the vocabulary presentations created rich opportunities to engage not only in shifts between weak and strong contextual elaboration but also in contextual shifts that further highlight context-dependent and polysemous meanings. This enabled the students to explore meaning and use of collocations relevant to functional language use in everyday contexts in knowledge-building exchanges responding to crucial learning goals in adult basic language education (e.g., Wedin, 2023).

An important question is what enabled the jointly achieved contextual elaborations. In some cases, such as in the presentations of *putta* (to shove, Excerpt 2) and *visual support* (bildstöd, Excerpt 3), the presenting students used the placement experiences to contextualize the meaning and move down the scale of contextual elaboration (Fig. 2). As discussed in the findings, it is likely that these experiences supported the students

<sup>7</sup> The pattern is the same as *might-mighty*. *Makt* (Swedish) and *might* (English) are cognates.

to successfully explain word meanings to their peers. While the follow-up discussions did not generally focus on students' placement experiences, one exception showed how contextual meanings of *taskig* (nasty) and *mäktig* (powerful) were illuminated based on a students' experiences at a hotel (Excerpt 7). Through the teacher's reactions and elaborations, the contextual nature of the collocations the student provided became clear. This confirms the importance of context in order to successfully understand collocations such as *mäktig mat* (heavy food). As noted by the teacher and the students, these context-specific meanings are not workplace-related but occur in everyday contexts.

Factors other than placement experiences also contributed to contextual elaborations and shifts. These included form-focused discussions requiring examples to provide context for derivatives of the words and students' observations about alternative uses of single words in collocations (Excerpt 4), students' questions about possible collocations to express an intended meaning (Excerpt 6), and, not least, infelicitous presentational attempts to convey contextual meaning (see Section 4.1). The teacher's orientation to establish a common understanding based on students' contribution – instead of, for example, labeling them in terms of correctness – was likely beneficial and aligns with the knowledge-building perspective adopted in the study. Furthermore, the teacher tended to repeat the focused words, according to explanatory patterns highlighted in previous studies (Walldén & Nygård Larsson, 2021a; Waring et al., 2013), and was explicit with contextual shifts, such as when changing the context for discussing *krav* (requirement) and *obekväm* (uncomfortable). This probably helped the student keep track of the different meanings.

While studies of classroom interaction inspired by LCT have often noted that the teacher often produces the abstract or technical meaning associated with academic language (Maton, 2013; Walldén & Nygård Larsson, 2021a), the discussion about *krav* (Excerpt 5) showed how the adult students contributed specialized vocabulary belonging to the same field such as *pesticid* (*pesticide*) and *ekologisk* (*ecological*). In response, the teacher shifted to a more strongly contextualized discourse by rephrasing the contributions in everyday language. This shows how the students contributed to the knowledge-building at both ends of the scale of contextual elaboration – both by concrete, elaborated examples, and specialized expressions. While it is not unexpected that adult students are able to make these kinds of substantial contributions to the discussions based on prior knowledge and experience, previous research on SFI teaching has indicated that such opportunities are rare (Wedin & Norlund Shaswar, 2023). In sum, the discussions show clear indications of interactional scaffolding and the students' substantial engagement in knowledge-building classroom discourse (Gibbons, 2006; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005).

### 5.1. Final conclusions

The study contributes to the field of vocabulary learning by focusing on classroom presentations and discussion of words and expressions the students encountered outside the classroom. This differs from more typical conditions in which the teacher selects and explains vocabulary items (e.g., Henriksen, 2013; Nation, 2013; Schmitt, 2010). The activity facilitated elaborated student-led explanations with reference to their experiences of the placements. Furthermore, the follow-up discussions brought rich attention to the meaning and contextual use of different collocations. This includes collocations arguably less likely to occur in formal teaching, for example, *mäktig mat* (heavy food) and *taskig mat* (nasty food). This indicates a transfer achieved between the classroom and learning experiences outside of it (see Reinders & Benson, 2017; Sandwall, 2013; Yates & Major, 2015) that enabled the negotiation of context-dependent meaning.

Moreover, the collaborative nature of the discussions brings a new facet to the understanding of language-focused teaching activities (e.g., Laufer, 2010; Nation, 2013). While it is common to make a distinction between activities positioning students as either language learners or

language users (Laufer, 2010), the studied follow-up discussions arguably promoted both positions. Firstly, they provided opportunities to develop knowledge of the relevant words. These discussions offered rich contextualizations which were primarily analytical (relying on talk, see Waring et al., 2013) but sometimes more animated, as the teacher acted out a context-specific meaning of *mäktig* (see Section 4.2.4) and made jokes relating to the meaning of *hållbar* (see Section 4.2.3). Secondly, in contrast to common patterns of vocabulary explanations shown in previous research (Koole, 2019; Morton, 2015; Waring et al., 2013) the discussions offered the students substantial engagement in classroom talk. This hybrid quality of the teaching may warrant further attention in future research.

This study has certain limitations. It is based on teaching activities in two lessons with a small student cohort that was unevenly distributed across two types of placements (different preschools and a hotel). A larger material based on a more diverse set of out-of-classroom learning experiences would probably have yielded further insight into different patterns and orientations in the interaction. However, the approach to studying the interaction, and the students' performance of the oral assignment, can be used in further studies exploring teaching that seeks to connect learning experiences outside the classroom with formal language education. Furthermore, the concepts of contextual elaboration and contextual shift can be used to study knowledge-building interaction about word meaning regardless of the context the words and expressions originate (inside or outside the classroom).

### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Robert Walldén:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

### Declaration of competing interest

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