

Respecifying social change: The obsolescence of practices and the transience of technology

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10 **Abstract**

11 This article proposes that social change, a fundamental topic in sociological theory, can be
12 productively revisited by attending to studies in ethnomethodology and conversation analysis
13 (EM/CA). We argue that the corpus of EM/CA research, from the 1960s until the present day,
14 provides details of the constitutive and identifying aspects of practices and activities that gradually
15 transform into descriptions of *obsolescent* practices and activities, and that this corpus can be
16 revisited to learn about the ways people used to do things. Taking landline and mobile telephony as a
17 case in point, we show that the subtle details of conversational practices are anchored in the
18 technology used as part of the contemporary lifeworld, and that they stand for the particularities of
19 routine social structures of their time period. We also discuss the temporal aspects of the
20 competences required on the part of members and analysts to make sense of encountered practices in
21 terms of their ordinary recognizability and interactional consequentiality, pointing to the anchoring of
22 social life in its historical time. Finally, we conclude by considering different ways of respecifying
23 social change by attending to various kinds of historicity and obsolescence of social praxis.

24 **1 Introduction**

25 In a 2005 paper on “maps and journeys,” Brown and Laurier offer a detailed description of travelers’
26 work with a paper map as part of a car journey. Among other aspects of the activity, the authors take
27 into account the positioning of the map as a material object incorporated in the social activities:
28 “When closed, it lies on Jane’s lap, and although she opens up the map and makes it available to Fay
29 (who uses it to point at), she does not move the map to the middle between them. ... Confirmations
30 of what they are seeing in common are marked by gestures: they point at features, bring out routes,
31 and are otherwise immersed in the tangle of marked roads on the map, with points and sustained
32 followings of their fingers. Because they are doing this naming and pointing together, should Jane
33 make a mistake, Fay can correct her, and vice versa” (Brown and Laurier, 2005, p. 27). Although the
34 analytic account is poignant and careful, the described activity might strike a current reader (i.e., in
35 2023) as somewhat dated, given the transition from paper maps to digital navigation devices. This
36 becomes apparent when one compares Brown and Laurier’s analysis with a more recent description

37 of “navigating with digital maps” provided fifteen years later by Smith et al. (2020, p. 229): “During
38 Bryn’s questions, Aled glances at the screen of his mobile device, maintaining the relevance of the
39 WWR app¹ as the basis for restating his proposal, ‘I think we (.) carry on’ [...] when Aled pauses
40 [...] he raises a pointing finger to the device’s screen and, at the same time, rotates it towards Bryn
41 and steps slightly backwards as Bryn closes in. His adjustment of the device angle enables both of
42 them to see their current location on the app and the suggested routes to the Roman camp. This deft
43 set of movements supports co-viewing of the smartphone’s screen, while simultaneously making it
44 relevant to the current navigational trouble.” Although the participants in both instances are involved
45 in a similar mundane activity of wayfinding with a map, their social practices, material tools, and
46 routine ways of working—preserved and represented in the quoted descriptions and in the remainder
47 of the two papers—are significantly different. Such noticeable transformations in everyday and
48 professional activities over time provide grounds for the main arguments of the present paper.

49 Social change is one of the central and perennial topics of sociology and the social sciences
50 (Sztompka, 2000; McLeod and Thomson, 2009). The very foundations of the discipline rest on the
51 recognition of profound transformations in the established common ways of life, experienced from
52 the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries with the onset of industrialization, urbanization, and the
53 related emergence of “modernity” (Ballard and Barnett, 2023). Narrative conceptualizations of
54 history emerged in Europe around the same time (Koselleck, 2004; White, 1973), since a reflexive
55 historicity is a cornerstone of modern society that—as a “self-describing object” (Luhmann, 1992)—
56 also produces accounts of itself with regard to collective pasts and futures. Such reflections of social
57 change are often connected to its assessment, applying and variously favoring conceptions of
58 progress, decline, or continuity (Weeks, 2007). May (2011, p. 367) points out that “a focus on the
59 everyday allows us to view social change not simply as a top-down process generated by
60 ‘extraordinary’ events but as something that also results from our mundane ‘ordinary’ activities.”
61 Aligning with her suggestion, this article extends an invitation to scholars in the social sciences to
62 consider research in ethnomethodology and conversation analysis (henceforth EM/CA)² as offering a
63 distinct and valuable historical perspective, although the studies are rarely conceived or conducted as
64 investigation of history or social change as such (Lynch, 2009; Pekarek Doehler et al., 2018).

65 Our aim is twofold: first, to outline a praxiological respecification of “social change” as a focal topic
66 of the social sciences, and, second, to offer a novel look at the corpus of studies of practical action
67 and practical reasoning collected within EM/CA. These studies address the lived interactional present
68 and the endogenous time of locally organized social settings, explicating the ways in which
69 recognizable scenes of everyday life are produced. We argue that in doing so, EM/CA research also
70 inevitably and unavoidably—though mostly inadvertently—provides accounts of practices that are
71 reflexively entrenched in the exogenous time of social processes. *First*, with regard to the
72 respecification of social change, we develop EM’s central strategy: “while taking up recognizable
73 topics in philosophy and social theory, ethnomethodology makes a deflationary move to respecify

¹ WWR stands for *Walking with Romans*, a digital “guide app ... developed to facilitate physical and historical access to a little-visited site” (Smith et al., 2020, p. 226).

² EM and CA are approaches that have developed in sociology of the 1950s and 1960s, mainly in the work of Harold Garfinkel and Harvey Sacks (Garfinkel, 1967, 2002, 2022; Sacks, 1963, 1972, 1992; Garfinkel and Sacks, 1970). The aim of EM/CA is to describe and explicate the systematic ways by which people produce orderly events and actions in social interaction. It takes as its distinctive phenomenon members’ methods of practical reasoning and practical action in everyday and specialized social settings (Livingston, 1987; Lynch, 1993), and the organization of talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 2007). For more recent developments, see, e.g., Button, Lynch, and Sharrock, 2022; Maynard and Heritage, 2022; Sormani and vom Lehn, 2023; Haddington et al., 2023.

74 them praxiologically” (Lynch, 2022). As Button points out, EM (and CA) is interested in
75 foundational sociological matters in an alternate way: “it wished to make them investigatable,
76 available for enquiry. In holding them up for scrutiny, and in working through the implications of
77 that enquiry, ethnomethodology came to respecify foundational matters” (Button, 1991, p. 5). We
78 argue that research in EM/CA, viewed in retrospect, makes social change as a foundational matter of
79 social science visible and investigatable. Therefore, we aim at articulating some blind spots of theories
80 of social change (e.g., Eisenstadt, 1964), and provide a distinct perspective *vis-à-vis* more recent mid-
81 level conceptions on technology-related social change in Science and Technology Studies (e.g.,
82 Sørensen, 2006; Wyatt, 2008). Relatedly, regarding our *second* aim, we propose that the corpus of
83 EM/CA studies can be conceived as offering a distinct historical perspective on society. From
84 EM/CA’s corpus of empirical studies, gathered over more than 60 years, we learn not only about
85 “how people actually do things” (Livingston, 2008, p. 842) but also how people *used to* actually do
86 things, as practices that were once unproblematic and taken for granted gradually become outdated.

87 Commenting on an assignment he gave to his students in 1960s on observing people as they are
88 “exchanging glances,” Harvey Sacks (1992, Vol. I, p. 94; emphasis added) also contemplated the
89 historical dimension of everyday life: “I know that people can do this, I’ve watched it many times,
90 and I take it that you’ve seen it also. ... [But] it could have been the case that everybody came back
91 and said ‘No, I never saw that happen.’ And that’s possible. It might be *something that’s dying out. A*
92 *thing that our forefathers had. Like God.*” To grasp this inherently and inevitably transient character
93 of social praxis in current societies, this article introduces, lays out, and illustrates the notion of
94 *obsolescence*. Findings of EM/CA become obsolescent in the sense that they capture particulars of
95 social practices in terms of their constitutive and identifying details, but at the same time these
96 described particulars always consist of things of the past, and they might comprise former ways of
97 life that are no longer to be found in the world. Once social practices are encountered—documented
98 *in vivo* or in published literature—as obsolete, one encounters social change as an aspect of everyday
99 life, ingrained in its details.

100 Reflections of social change in scientific and everyday discourses are often tied to technological
101 development (Button, 1993; Bittner, 1983; White, 1962), and sociology considers technology both as
102 “an agent and an object of social change” (Kinsley, 2023, p. 250). In this paper, we also approach the
103 theme of social change through a focus on how technological objects are “made at home in the world
104 that has whatever organization it already has” (Sacks, 1992, Vol. II, p. 549). In resonance with the
105 proposition of Deppermann and Pekarek Doehler (2021, p. 131), our case here is telephony: the first
106 machine-mediated synchronous interpersonal exchanges, which are themselves a novelty in human
107 history. Through secondary analysis of materials from CA studies on landline and mobile phones, in
108 the following two sections we provide grounds for the introduction and explication of the notion of
109 obsolescence. Subsequently, in the remainder of the text, we conceptually respecify this notion from
110 an EM perspective, reflecting on how such empirical materials can be “made sense of” as documents
111 of the past by both members and analysts.

112 **2 Mobile and landline telephony: Emerging obsolescence**

113 Modern telephony was born and subsequently evolved quickly in the latter part of the nineteenth
114 century through a series of innovations that led to telephone calls being transmitted with lines,
115 thereby earning them the name “landline telephone,” which continued as the reigning form of
116 telephony for the next hundred years. Though within “landline telephony” there were several steps of
117 development, such as the automation of switchboards (which made the “central ladies” redundant),
118 telephone etiquettes evolved and were standardized in a step-by-step manner in varying national and

119 linguistic contexts. One aspect of the evolving telephone etiquette was how to answer and open the
120 conversation (Hopper, 1992). Following Schegloff (1968), there emerged within CA a tradition of
121 telephone conversation opening studies, which demonstrated the local patterns and regularities of
122 openings in a number of countries and languages (e.g., Hakulinen, 1993; Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1991;
123 Lindström, 1994). It appears that in the course of the development of telephony, call openings had
124 been conventionalized and highly standardized, involving strong regularities but also a linguistic and
125 cultural sensitivity (Arminen and Leinonen, 2006).

126 For instance, the Finnish opening pattern of landline calls had become robustly canonized. It can be
127 estimated that well over 90% of calls had the same pattern (Arminen and Leinonen, 2006). Finnish
128 calls were opened with a self-identification that was an answer to a summons, which in landline
129 telephony was a telephone ring summoning hearers to respond by picking up the receiver.
130 Canonically, the answerer's first turn received a reciprocal self-identification from the caller, which
131 followed a greeting. After the return of the greeting, the call was ripe for the initiation of the topic of
132 the call. Excerpt 1 below presents a case in point (C = caller; R = answerer; data is from the Finnish
133 Department Data archive, University of Helsinki, Finland):

134

135 (1) (Arminen and Leinonen, 2006, p. 342)

- 1 R: (0.5) Mäki:>sellä<((the ending is said quickly))
(0.5) at Mäki:>nen<((at + family name))
- 2 C: n:o: M:irja tässä hei. .hh[hh .hh
[] Mi:rja here hi:. .hh[hh .hh
- 3 R: [no \$he:ih\$=
[[] \$hi::h\$=
- 4 C: =#e# no ku- #ö# kuule tuota: mmh ö m- meinasin
=#e# [] li- #uh# listen e:rm mmh uh m- I meant
- 5 kyssyy paria asiaa ku taas >neuvoa tartte:
to ask couple of things as again >I nee:d advice

136

137 For our purposes, the first line is the crux of the matter. First of all, there is a pause in the beginning,
138 and an impatient reader might doubt the accuracy of the notation. Notably, though, the landline calls
139 were opened when the call recipient picked up the telephone receiver (though there was some
140 variation in the design of telephone apparatuses). As the recordings of calls were set to capture the
141 whole call from the opening of the line to its closing, there tended to be a brief moment—not really a
142 silence, but a low noise marking the connection made on the line, presumably standing for the
143 moment when the answerer had picked up the receiver, opening the line. In the landline call opening,

144 the line-opening sound³ was part of the opening, indicating that the receiver had been picked up and
145 the answerer was about to speak; in this way, the initial pause belongs to the answerer, as transcribed
146 here. It also stands for the technical possibilities and limitations of landline telephony.

147 The linguistic content of the rest of the first line includes a self-identification that can notably vary.
148 Here, the answerer utters a family name and a case marking that indicates location. The opening thus
149 displays the call to have reached a certain family at their location. In that way, this opening line,
150 which is not atypical, is also in this part indexical to the type of technology used; that is, the landline
151 calls were connected between points in the telephone network, and here the speaker vocalizes their
152 spatial point in the network. Furthermore, the use of family name indicates that the telephone
153 belonged to the family. It also opened varying trajectories for the call, depending on who would turn
154 out to be the intended recipient. Hence, the opening was indexical both to the particularity of
155 technology in its time and to the particularities of social formation, revealing that the technology use
156 was not individual but based on units that shared a telephone, such as families or offices.⁴ Thirdly,
157 the answerer's first line did not show orientation to the caller's identity. That is, the analogue
158 telephone ring—the summons—did not carry information of who the caller was. Given the
159 anonymity of the summons, the answerer had to respond without knowing who the caller was or what
160 the reason of the call was. This lack of knowledge was imprinted in the analogue landline call
161 openings, irrespective of whether they were based on self-identification, as in numerous countries in
162 Europe, or included a voice sample, as in Anglo Saxon countries (Arminen, 2005). The lack of
163 knowledge of the caller and of the call topic is hugely salient in that it shows that the parties on the
164 phone lacked a connection and awareness of those who were outside of the proximity of their own
165 location. Though this may not appear much of an observation, it pinpoints a significant aspect of the
166 lived life of its time.

167 It is also notable that in the era of landline telephony there appeared aspirations to reach beyond the
168 limits of the horizon of the moment. Garfinkel reflected on these aspirations through a tutorial on
169 telephone summons, where he asked his students to tape record a phone ringing that is audibly
170 summoning them, or someone else, or nobody in particular, etc. (Garfinkel and Wieder, 1992).⁵
171 Schegloff (1986) also paid attention to the answerer's potential orientation to knowing who is calling.
172 Mostly, answerers gave a voice sample "hello?," which did not display knowledge of the caller's
173 identity; the answerers could also greet the caller with "hi," displaying their "super-confidence"
174 (Schegloff's term) in who was calling.⁶ In this way, the explication of the lived practice of the time

³ In spy movies, or when a Westerner was staying in an Eastern-bloc hotel, one would listen immediately if the line-opening sound was accompanied with a silent click.

⁴ Over the course of the history of telephony, the network grew denser as the number of points increased. Praxiologically, were we to explore this aspect of archived recordings, this would also have a correlate in telephone communication practices.

⁵ In classic comedy films, there are several scenes of a call recipient believing they know who is calling already on the basis of the summons, leading to numerous comical developments due to a presupposed caller identification.

⁶ Were we to critically study classic comedies (note 5 above), we might note that some of the types of confusion would not have happened had the receiver opened the line with the super-confident style, revealing that they had presumed to know who had called. Alternatively, the receiver may have intentionally hidden their presupposition of the callers' identity. This scenario would set up these comedy scenes for "strategic interaction," where the actors' try to hide aspects

175 discloses correlations with socio-technical historical moments. Notably, both Garfinkel and Schegloff
176 in their studies on telephone summons traded on the technology of its time and exposed the
177 technology users' taken-for-granted assumptions of that world. Bjelić (2019) even suggests that call
178 recipients demonstrated a particular capability to orient a telephone ring to be from a particular caller,
179 which stands for the lifeworld of landline call recipients. Following Sacks, we may say that here the
180 EM/CA studies have articulated a historical moment of the way how preceding generations have
181 acted (up to the 1980s).

182 **3 The vanishing lifeworld of landline telephony**

183 Landline telephony stood for the lived world where remote communication took place between
184 designated fixed points. This required practices that parties used for communication between the
185 points when telephony was not available. As a case in point, a childhood recollection of one of the
186 authors (JM) captures the life lived in-between the telephone network points:

187 *Growing up in Central Europe in the early 1990s, I remember that we spent a lot of time playing*
188 *outside with other kids from the neighborhood, in the concrete streets of the housing*
189 *development. While spending an afternoon with friends away from home, kids usually had the*
190 *duty of “reporting themselves,” for the parents to know that their child is all right. I remember*
191 *that we did this by ringing the doorbell and saying through the speaker something along the*
192 *lines of “I am just reporting myself,” and the parent usually specified that you had to come*
193 *back at a certain time, typically for dinner, or maybe come home immediately and do your*
194 *homework. This practice was, as I remember it, common and mundane. Most of us did it and*
195 *we gave it no second thought as we often accompanied each other for such a quick “reporting”*
196 *at home.*

197 All these practices underwent profound changes when mobile telephony emerged.⁷ Wireless
198 technologies started to quickly evolve in the 1970s and 1980s, and their standardized forms diffused
199 at a record-fast speed in the 1990s, largely replacing landline telephony. Mobile telephony led to
200 numerous changes in phone calls that could be traced already in the openings (Arminen and
201 Leinonen, 2006; Weilenmann and Leuchovius, 2004; Laursen and Szymanski, 2013). Mobile call
202 openings typically resemble what Schegloff (1986) called super-confident landline call openings.
203 Most mobile phones, being based on digitized telephone systems, allow the receiver to gain access to
204 the caller's number so that the answerer may know who is calling before answering the call. If the
205 caller's number is listed on the answerer's mobile phone contacts list, then the caller's name may
206 appear or a personalized ringtone may sound. Consequently, the answerer—for a good reason—can
207 be super-confident about who is calling (though only if the call comes from the listed number). The
208 answerer thus may tailor their answer accordingly, as seen in the excerpt below. (T = caller; S =
209 answerer; data archived, IA, University of Helsinki, Finland)

of their knowledge due to strategic reasons (Goffman, 1969). A wider point here is that historically varying epistemic ecosystems open up different action possibilities, including for “strategic” actions.

6

⁷ In an ideal world, we could next show how “reporting” has become reconfigured with mobile technologies. Indeed, reporting practices are common in mobile telephony: people both “report” their whereabouts and are also held responsible for that over the phone (Arminen, 2006; Arminen and Leinonen, 2006). In a way, example (2) below also develops that direction. We do not really dwell on that aspect. In reality, we have a limited number of pre-teenagers' calls that offered relevant material for a strict comparison of the reporting practices in question. We must return to the emerging reporting practices on another occasion.

210 (2) (Arminen, 2005, p. 651)

1 S: no moi,
prt. [greeting]
[] hi

2 (0.3)

3 T: no mo:i,
prt. [greeting]
[] hi:.

4 (.)

5 T: ooks sää lähössä,
are you((informal)) about-to-go ((idiom))
are you leavin,

6 (.)

7 S: e,
neg.
no,

211

212 In comparison to a landline call opening, we can notice several distinctive features here. First, the
213 ubiquitous mobile technology is individualized, compared to landline telephones that were shared
214 with others. In Finnish mobile calls, it is not uncommon to start the answer to the summons with a
215 speech particle “no.” Basically, the Finnish “no” is untranslatable, at least into English,⁸ but it is a
216 speech particle that is both backward- and forward-looking. In other words, through “no” the
217 answerer gives the answer as having been responsive to a recognized action and also initiates a
218 transition to a new stage in the conversation. A reader may pay attention to the fact that in the
219 landline call the same particle was initially used by the caller notifying the answer and initiating the
220 next move (see (1) line 2). It appears that this shift is a systematic change toward a novel social
221 practice (Arminen, 2005; Arminen and Leinonen, 2006). In this way, in mobile calls the answer to
222 the summons that allows the recipient to get to know who is calling is designed as a move for an
223 already ongoing interaction. Unlike landline calls, the recipient design of the call begins already in
224 the answer to the summons, which makes a recipient-designed response relevant. Reciprocally, the
225 caller may also assume who is likely to answer, as mobile phones are personal, unlike collective
226 landline phones. Consequently, the greeting exchange happens between parties who know each other,
227 and there is no need for identification work, voice samples, or self-identifications. After the exchange
228 of greetings, the anchor position for the reason for the call is established (line 5). The opening is thus
229 systematically truncated in comparison to analogue landline openings.

230 Nevertheless, as with landline telephony, the subtle details of the conversational practice correlate to
231 the technology used; in that way, they also stand for the particularities of the routine social structures
232 of their time. Mobile telephones are wireless and miniaturized, allowing ubiquitous communication.

⁸ Arminen and Leinonen (2006) have extended the discussion of “no” and its untranslatability; see, in particular, note 5. Other studies of “no” include Sorjonen and Vepsäläinen (2016) and Vepsäläinen (2019).

233 Already in the opening sequence, the participants display their reciprocal identification of each other
234 and the immediate readiness to move to discuss their current activities, arrangements, and locations.
235 That is, the epistemic ecosystem of telephones has undergone a profound change, from analogue
236 landlines to digital mobiles. The resulting outcome could be called the lifeworld of “connected
237 presence” (Licoppe, 2004). Ubiquitous communication technologies enable social exchanges
238 between people beyond the bounds of time and location; no less importantly, they merge mediated
239 and co-present relations, forming a presence that is connected to online realms beyond the immediate
240 moment. Compared to the lifeworld of landline telephony, the pervasive communicative access
241 between individuals incorporates offline and online environments, making contact potentially
242 ceaseless and all-encompassing and also transforming family practices from the previous era of
243 communication between the points (Lahikainen and Arminen, 2017).

244 **4 The analytic relevance of obsolescence**

245 The analytic relevance of obsolescence can be demonstrated with the help of a case in which it has
246 been missed. That is, EM/CA studies do not automatically guarantee a sensitivity to historical
247 changes, for to be alert to emerging obsolescence requires scholarly expertise. Empirically, analysis
248 must be rigorous and strict to reveal the changes in interactional practices that have made some
249 aspects of the former practice obsolete. Without sufficient understanding of the former interactional
250 practice, the analyst may not be able to apprehend the relevancy of details that have replaced some of
251 its aspects. The changes in interactional practices are also related to and comprise a consequential
252 part of the historical alteration of lifeworlds.

253 In their comparison of landline and mobile call openings, Hutchby and Barnett (2005, p. 147) stated
254 that “far from revolutionizing the organization of telephone conversation, mobile phone talk retains
255 many of the norms associated with landline phone talk.” Using our terminology, for these authors the
256 landline calls, their associated norms, and the lifeworld based on communications between the
257 network points had not become obsolete. To make their point, they demonstrate the structure of
258 mobile call openings, starting from the extract below. In line 3, the answerer responds to the
259 summons (lines 1–2) and receives “how are you” (line 3), after which the answerer makes the first
260 initiation for the topical talk (line 4) (SB = answerer, Irene = caller):

261 (3) (Hutchby and Barnett, 2005)

1		((summons))
2	SB:	Hello
3	Irene:	Hiya: ba::by
4	SB:	You a 'right what's hap'ning
5	Irene:	↑What's going on
6	SB:	°Nut'en man
7	Irene:	How was ya day::

262

263 To defend the all-encompassing power of the landline calls and their lifeworld, Hutchby and Barnett
264 (2005, p. 157) state that in the mobile call openings there appears to be nothing “mobile”; if there are
265 changes to landline call openings, these changes are not pervasive, but just “subtle details of the
266 organisation of interaction.” There appears to be at least six subtle details in these openings that stand
267 apart from the landline call openings (Arminen, 2005): These include: 1) Answering a mobile phone
268 summons differs prosodically from the answers to summons of landline telephones. The Anglo

269 Saxon landline answers to the summons “H’llo?” were typically produced with a rising intonation
270 (marked with ?), which Schegloff (1968) calls a voice signature. In Hutchby and Barnett’s data (or
271 any other mobile phone data), there is no trace of voice signature prosody. 2) In landline calls, the
272 answer to the summons is not a greeting, and the greeting exchange follows it, but that is not the case
273 in mobile call openings. 3) In landline calls, either the answerer has to identify the caller or the caller
274 has to identify themselves. In mobile calls, the conversational identification work has largely become
275 obsolete for the caller, as the digital mobile system provides caller identification. There is a
276 conversational work of recognition, but no work of identification (see also Button et al., 2022, p.
277 88).⁹ 4) In landline calls, the answerer and caller display a reciprocal recognition before the topic
278 initiation. In mobile calls, this recognition work is found already in the call opening. The flat “hello”
279 works as a greeting and is responded to with a greeting conveying the recognition of the caller, both
280 in English (extract 3) and Finnish (extract 2) examples. 5) The landline calls were made between the
281 spatial points of the network, which made it relevant for the caller to disambiguate whether the right
282 person in the network had been reached. Parties in ubiquitous individualized mobile telephony are
283 relieved from the disambiguation task. 6) Due to all the aspects above, the opening sequences of
284 mobile calls became systematically radically reduced compared to landline telephone opening
285 sequences. This does not mean that there was no perseverance of interactional practices between
286 landline and mobile call openings. Exchanges of greetings (both in Finnish and English data) and
287 how-are-yous (in English data, as previously) do take place, but technologically afforded
288 identification and ubiquity of calls have enabled the emergence of a set of new practices, as listed
289 above, amounting to the obsolescence of a lifeworld of communication between network points.

290 At this point we can formulate some preliminary conclusions. First, the “subtle details of call
291 openings” are part of the complex orchestration of intersubjectivity. If we fail to pay attention to
292 these, we risk also missing the achieved sense of action in interaction, and we may not grasp the
293 relevance and consequentiality of the action. Second, the analysts’ action ascriptions are
294 consequential. If we state that there is no salient difference between landline and mobile telephony,
295 we also claim that no significant social change has happened. When there is no social change, there is
296 also no obsolescence. The world in which there is no history—or social change, or differences
297 between historically altered social practices—is a world where all cats are grey. Researchers need to
298 carefully attend to elaborate details of practical action, while articulating the lifeworld contextures of
299 the described practices and their inevitable embeddedness in sociohistorical environments.

300 **5 Grasping the past: Historical unique adequacy**

301 Our comparison of routine practices in landline and mobile telephony has shown that a social change
302 can be made visible as a contrast between the past and the present. If a researcher is interested in
303 social change, then the focus will be on novelties in social conduct, though continuities may also
304 exist. It is the intertwining of familiar and strange, the tension between the surprising and the well
305 known, which provides for the visibility of social change in everyday praxis. The ability to see a
306 practice as *obsolescent* (or, conversely, as *contemporary*) opens a possibility to grasp its historicity,
307 but that is not a taken-for-granted competence. When a person encounters something that one has
308 never seen happening (e.g., in an old movie) and is unable to understand what is going on, the
309 experience as such does not open a vision of history and social change. One needs to have sufficient
310 practical or theoretical expertise to recognize a practice for what it is, and only afterwards is one able

⁹ Similarly to how self-driving cars are capable of traveling without human activity, digital telephone systems identify the caller without human input. While self-driving cars are still in a test phase, digital telephone systems have been in operation for some time.

311 to articulate and disambiguate the embeddedness of the practice to its sociohistorical environments,
312 beginning to see a society with a history.

313 Encountering empirical materials from former times, such as writings, photos, audio, or video
314 recordings, requires an ability to grasp and understand the social practices that are captured in these
315 materials. Phenomenal features of social activities can be *preserved* for recognition and analysis
316 (Mondada, 2006), but it is always necessary for the analyst to be able to make sense of them.
317 Essentially, the analyst is dealing with the problem of retrospective sense-making in terms of
318 “actors” that are divided from them by the passage of time. A certain bit of conduct that was a
319 recognizable social practice in the past may lose this recognizability, and just how it is consequential
320 in a particular moment of interaction becomes lost. This raises interesting questions about the
321 possibility of “intersubjective understanding” across extended periods of time, and about building
322 coordinated social action with materials provided by temporally distant actors as predecessors (see
323 Schutz, 1967; Goodwin, 2018). The concept of the past depends on the relevance of the past for the
324 present “here and now.” A praxiological respecification of this central element of social change is
325 related to a consideration of the historical dimension of *the unique adequacy requirement of methods*.

326 In ethnomethodology, the unique adequacy requirement of methods refers to the routine recognition
327 and production of local orders of social activities. As Garfinkel and Wieder (1992, p. 184, our
328 emphasis) put it, “ethnomethodology is concerned to locate and examine the concerted vulgar
329 *uniquely adequate competencies* of order* production.”¹⁰ The enactment of methods of order
330 production, or social practices, is uniquely adequate when the courses of action are recognizable for
331 members and can be “taken seriously” by them (Garfinkel, 2022, p. 28)—or, as Hofstetter (2022)
332 explains, “unique adequacy means being situated as some plausible local member.” It is a
333 prerequisite for adequate analysis done by analysts both *lay and professional* (Garfinkel and Wieder,
334 1992, p. 183)—that is, not only by professional researchers (e.g., sociologists, ethnographers, or
335 conversation analysts) but also by practitioners themselves in the studied settings, as they participate
336 in concerted activities. Our earlier excursion into the development of telephony illustrates that as a
337 competence in routine recognition and production of local order, unique adequacy has a historical
338 dimension. For instance, what counts as adequate in landline telephony might not be adequate in
339 mobile telephony. The skills for mundanely competent use of a technology, or *production* of social
340 practice, may become obsolete, but they are still required for a *recognition* of that social practice in
341 empirical materials from a former world, even if these practices are encountered as things of the past.
342 Button, Lynch, and Sharrock (2022, p. 75) point out that the methodological requirement of unique
343 adequacy is “far from unique” to EM, being also incorporated in other disciplines, including the
344 study of history (see, e.g., Kluback, 1956; Simmel, [1907] 1977; Schwartz, 2017). Our proposal in
345 this article moves toward a respecification of historical understanding as a practical recognition and
346 production of potentially obsolescent practices, topicalizing “members’ reportable-observable
347 production of the work itself” (Button, Lynch, and Sharrock, 2022, p. 75).

348 In preliminary studies of an early “chatbot” LYRIC in the late 1960s (see Eisenmann et al.,
349 forthcoming), working with printouts of interactions between the user and the machine, Garfinkel
350 (1969, p. 3) noted “the difference between availability of ‘docile texts’ and texts available as a ‘first
351 linear time through’ as contrasting phenomenal features of ‘conversing’ in man-machine

¹⁰ Regarding “order” spelled with an asterisk, an endnote explains: “Spelled with an asterisk, order* is a collector and a proxy for any and every topic of logic, meaning, method, reason, and order. It stands in for any and all the marvelous topics that are available in received lingo and received topics in intellectual history. Of course these include the lingo and studies in the endless arts and sciences of practical action” (Garfinkel and Wieder, 1992, p. 202).

352 conversations.” We understand this remark as proposing a distinction between lived sense-making
353 work, embedded in a lifeworld, that goes on “in real time” and “in situ” when interacting with such a
354 program (as “first linear time through”), and—on the other hand—the retrospective sense-making
355 work involved in reading the transcript of user/machine interaction without a lifeworld correlate (as
356 “docile texts”). This insight, highlighting the difference between the retrospective reading of a
357 transcript and the lived experience of the situation, is also inspiring for considering EM/CA materials
358 more broadly in the respecification of social change. Eventually, the recordings of practical actions
359 and practical reasoning provided as EM/CA’s “data,” which made possible the transcripts with regard
360 to landline and mobile telephony, can be read as texts that capture practices that are currently present
361 or represent documents of a social history. Transcripts can be read as docile texts without a lifeworld
362 correlate, or they can be explored as subtle details of lived historical practices by opening up the
363 social embeddedness of interactional practices.

364 Our own analytical commentary above has been written in a way that highlights the historicity of
365 practices, with the very comparison of telephone practices becoming the topic. Describing social
366 activities, such as talking on the phone, requires a grasp of the sociomaterial reality in which they are
367 done. Our analysis above supplies and enables such a grasp for a contemporary reader by providing
368 contextual information that would not be necessary for an observer with a routine competence in the
369 production of the described activities. Historically embedded practices are therefore made
370 recognizable as meaningful actions for the readers, but the description alone does not allow for a
371 proper reenactment (Sormani, 2016) of the interactional work. Sufficiently explained practices can
372 make sense to observers, analysts, and readers of analytic accounts, even when these practices are not
373 available anymore as something that they could themselves enact. Going through EM/CA’s corpus of
374 studies, the historicity of members’ uniquely adequate competence is available as the encountered
375 strangeness of everyday practices that are no longer accessible in their full, lived presence; these are
376 practices that used to be taken for granted (e.g., opening a landline phone call) but have become
377 obsolete and outdated, even while still being recognizable as meaningful for enactment of that
378 practice. In the case of an obsolete practice, “mis-reading” the EM/CA descriptions as instructions
379 (Garfinkel, 2002, p. 149) would be part of creating a member in a world of everyday praxis that no
380 longer exists. Such considerations lead us to various possibilities for a respecification of social
381 change as visible in captured details of routine practical action.

382 **6 Multiple paths in the respecification of social change**

383 EM/CA undertakes “a detailed study of social practices as a solution to the great theoretical problems
384 of meaning and order” (Rawls, 2002, p. 3), which also include the classical theme of time and
385 temporality (Rawls, 2005). So far, we have focused in this paper on arguing that EM/CA studies can
386 be seen as a form of unintended, inadvertent, yet unavoidable social history. As a by-product of
387 describing the here and now of a lived world, accounts of social praxis become historical accounts as
388 the world they describe goes by. The intrinsic value of these analytic accounts rests in the fact that
389 they describe social praxis ahistorically (i.e., without *a priori* consideration of historical development
390 as part of the “context” in which it happens). We propose that this constitutes a first path for
391 respecifying social change by a retrospective consideration of the corpus of EM/CA’s detailed studies
392 of social activities as a resource to learn about obsolescent practices, such as the practices related to
393 landline telephony, wayfinding with paper maps, or writing with a typewriter. This is related to focus
394 on how “history gets done” in the temporality, sequentiality, and local historicity of social activities
395 and their accumulative dimension (see Meyer and Schuttpelz, 2018, p. 196, in their discussion of
396 Goodwin, 2018).

397 Moreover, in recent years, the historicity of social practices has been systematically examined in
398 “longitudinal studies” in CA (Pekarek Doehler et al., 2018; Deppermann and Pekarek Doehler,
399 2021). In their introduction to the first edited collection of this line of research, Wagner et al. (2018)
400 discuss two “pioneering studies on change over time”: Wootton’s work on the development of a
401 child’s requests, and Clayman and Heritage’s research on changes in the organization of journalists’
402 questioning in presidential news conferences (see, e.g., Wootton, 1997; Clayman and Heritage,
403 2023). Our discussion of historical unique adequacy and practical obsolescence may bring further
404 insights into this domain of study. We highlight the issue of recognizability (i.e., the routine visibility
405 of the practice under consideration as a practice that is doing a particular action, such as *requesting* or
406 *asking a question*), and the visibility of a practice as obsolescent. A practice is recognizable as
407 achieving an action in a particular sociohistorical setting, and the routine recognizability of a practice
408 in turn contributes to the constitution of just that “sociohistorical setting.” This is tied to the issue of
409 comparability, and above all what constitutes a warrant for a “vertical comparison” (i.e., studying the
410 development of practices; see Zimmerman, 1999). As proposed by Norman N. Holland ([1978] 1993,
411 p. 192), “We detect the sameness by seeing what persists within the constant change of our lives. We
412 detect the difference by seeing what has changed against the background of sameness.” The practical
413 ability to see social change in the details of everyday life is interwoven with the ability to see what
414 remains unchanged, and to presuppose social structures such as individuals (e.g., who acquire
415 conversational skills such as requesting) and institutions (e.g., within which speakers ask questions).
416 Watson (2008, p. 210) points out that before being employed in professional analysis, comparison
417 and contrasting are already members’ methods: “we can see ordinary interlocutors as ‘practical
418 comparative sociologists’, making comparisons of categories or activities and working up contrasts
419 on those bases.” This also leads to our final point.

420 In order to identify and locate moments when the obsolescence of social practices becomes
421 demonstrably consequential for the participants, one may also look at how members themselves
422 orient to potentially obsolescent practices. This would allow us to investigate *emergent obsolescence*
423 and capture the moments when previously commonplace practices are becoming obsolete,
424 questionable, or disconnected from their sociohistorical environment. An example of the visible
425 obsolescence of everyday practical knowledge could be a Twitter post by a mother who was (in the
426 early 2020s) watching the TV series *Friends* (shot in the 1990s) with her daughter and had to explain
427 many things that were taken for granted by the series creators but are not taken for granted any
428 longer, including “what pagers were, and how they worked,” or “why secretaries answer office
429 phones.”¹¹ Many replies to the original post provide further material. Figure 1 is an illustrative
430 instance.

¹¹ Available on-line at: <https://twitter.com/rebeccamakkai/status/1515467051959304193> (accessed 10. 8. 2023).



Replying to @rebeccamak

Phoebe is seeing a guy in season 3 and he gets to the coffee shop and he says

“is there a phone here for me to check my messages?”

She says “yeah! Do you need a quarter?”

He says “no, I always keep one in my sock”

This dialogue is almost indecipherable in today's world

5:15 AM · Apr 17, 2022

431

432 *Figure 1. A comment on a Twitter post about the TV show Friends and some of the obsolescent*
433 *practices it captures.*

434 An investigation of similar exchanges and accounts can provide an opportunity for a careful study of
435 social change in the minutiae of everyday life, where new practices are discovered, invented, and
436 sometimes praised, while old practices may be abandoned, problematized, and even ridiculed.
437 EM/CA's programmatic attention to detail (Garfinkel, 2022; Macbeth, 2022) may allow us to
438 account *just how* these processes of social change occur in the lived interactional time of our
439 everyday lives, while not being explicitly approached as “history” in the classical sense of a
440 meaningful series of events and their disciplined study.

441 “History” in this classical sense can also become a subject of EM/CA's deliberate focus, though it
442 still holds true that “ethnomethodologists do not seem at home working on history” (Leudar and
443 Nekvapil, 2011, p. 69). The major work on the local production of history remains Lynch and
444 Bogen's (1996) book on the Iran-Contra hearings, which shows how people establish, maintain, and
445 contest “the past” in courtroom interactions. Following Lynch's later suggestion to focus on “the
446 practical and interactional production, reading, and establishment of documentary details” (2009, p.
447 98), Whittle and Wilson (2015, p. 58) turned their attention to the work of people tasked with
448 “making history,” concluding that EM should aim at “explicating the practical actions
449 (ethnomethods) through which versions of past events are worked up, worked on, and eventually
450 ‘settled.’” Using CA, Burdelski (2016) analyzed stories of personal experiences of World War II in
451 guided tours at a Japanese-American museum with regard to the narrators' positioning as individuals
452 and as collectivity members. He found that stories of personal experience told by docents are used as
453 devices for identity construction, which encourages participation from visitors and helps achieve the
454 educational goals of the visit. In all these studies, history as a professional discipline becomes a topic
455 of research, which is a related but tangential perspective *vis-à-vis* our aims in this article, where we
456 instead emphasize the inherent historicity of all social life, and the possibility of its perhaps
457 unexpected discovery in EM/CA studies that are radically focused on the here and now.

458 **7 Concluding discussion**

459 A text on “an archaeology of the office” published by *The Economist* in October 2022 concludes:
460 “Real archaeologists need tools and time to do their painstaking work: paint brushes, trowels, sieves
461 and picks. Corporate archaeology is easier: you just need eyes and a memory of how things used to
462 be. But you also need to be quick. As more and more workplaces are revamped for the hybrid era,

463 now is the time to take a careful look around the office. You may see something that will soon seem
464 as dated as pneumatic tubes, typewriters and fax machines.” Indeed, social practices that are
465 technically mediated or augmented furnish us with highly illuminating topics, as they tend to undergo
466 the most notable transformations, which occasionally can be swift and radical. In this article, we have
467 suggested that as an aid for our “eyes and a memory of how things used to be,” one can revisit
468 studies that were written as minute descriptions of an everyday world once present and taken for
469 granted. Exploring the boundaries of sociological theory and ethnomethodology/conversation
470 analysis (EM/CA), this invitation includes a shift in perspective by looking at EM/CA studies as a
471 peculiar version of social history, in addition to their significance as studies of the structures of lived
472 experience. Such a shift in perspective can be illuminating and worthwhile for scholars in social
473 sciences more generally, as well as for researchers who conduct EM/CA inquiries themselves.

474 When we look at the wide spectrum of existing EM/CA studies, we can get a sense of the potential of
475 EM/CA as a discipline dealing with history and social change. There has been a lively tradition of
476 studies on “institutional interaction,” which will soon reveal many ways of how things were once
477 done (Arminen, 2017). There is a long list of institutions that have undergone profound changes in
478 past decades, from control rooms to police work, and from offices to classrooms. Numerous
479 institutional practices have been captured and analyzed by EM/CA researchers. The circumstantial
480 lived detail of social activities examined in EM/CA is undergoing rapid transformations—when
481 offices become paperless, police officers carry cameras, control and technical support rooms are
482 transported to other continents, and students are provided with digital tools. As an outcome of such
483 processes of social change—more or less technologized—we have a plethora of thorough and
484 systematic studies of practices that are no longer practiced. Inadvertently, EM/CA studies also
485 capture cultural changes: past civil politeness toward politicians, explicit assumptions of gender roles
486 occupied by husbands and wives, or AIDS therapy from a time when there was not yet HIV.¹²
487 Finally, recent EM/CA studies of new practices established during the COVID-19 pandemic have
488 also captured a historical reality, as many of these practices (e.g., greeting with elbow bumps; see
489 Mondada et al., 2020) may have already become a thing of the past, since the lifeworld in which
490 these practices were meaningful is no longer there.

491 In this context, our paper has considered the notion of obsolescence of social practices as a way to
492 gain access to the inherent historicity of social life, while at the same time praxiologically
493 respecifying the fundamental sociological topic of social change. Further work in this direction could
494 investigate whether there are different kinds of obsolescence, as one could expect that the
495 obsolescence of a social practice might range from marginalization and disappearance to total
496 incomprehensibility. One may see a particular action (e.g., a greeting or a request) done in an
497 obsolescent fashion while still recognizing it as that action, or one may see past conduct that is void
498 of any meaning, having become completely obsolete. As a whole, were EM/CA able to articulate a
499 path from the emergence of new social practices to their routinization and habituation, it would
500 capture glimpses of the historicity of human agency, which is beautifully propounded by Annie
501 Ernaux ([2008] 2022, p. 205): “The questions that arose with the appearance of new technologies
502 were cancelled out as their use became second nature, and required no thought. People who didn’t
503 know how to use a computer or a Discman would become obsolete, like those who couldn’t use a
504 phone or washing machine.” The skilled ability to use a technological object in a routine, mundane,
505 unremarkable way is related to the uniquely adequate competences that comprise the practical
506 accomplishment of professional and everyday activities, such as talking on the phone, following a

¹² The notion of HIV (human immunodeficiency virus) was formulated later than AIDS (acquired immunodeficiency syndrome). Therefore, there was “AIDS” before “HIV” was discovered.

507 map, or doing laundry. As we discussed above, the “unique adequacy requirement of methods” has a
508 historical dimension that must be considered in specifying the complex relations between members’
509 practical knowledge and the possibility of its recovery from analytical accounts and descriptions.

510 The historical perspective that accentuates social change poses certain challenges for EM/CA studies.
511 As mentioned, much of the EM/CA research concerns history and social change only inadvertently
512 and under a particular reading. Researchers may have a fine-grained sophisticated grasp of the subtle
513 nuances of interactional practices but possess only limited resources to reflect the linkage of social
514 interaction to the passage of sociohistorical “Big Time” (Button, 1990). The notion of obsolescence
515 may provide solutions and insights related to some general challenges in “longitudinal CA”
516 (Deppermann and Pekarek Doehler, 2021; Pekarek Doehler et al., 2018), such as the partial nature of
517 the data, the comparability of phenomena across collections from different time periods, and issues in
518 documenting and explaining change in social practices.¹³ Taking into account the obsolescence of
519 practices as a members’ phenomenon repositions these methodological issues as topics grounded in
520 the historical particularity of the examined social activities, putting forward the encounters with
521 social change and “vertical comparison” as something that participants themselves deal with.
522 Ultimately, respecifying social change means that we also must respecify what we consider to be
523 “history,” or historically relevant, or historically constituted. When we return to Sacks’ (1992, Vol. I,
524 p. 94) contemplation of the historicity of practices—“A thing that our forefathers had. Like God”—
525 we may also read it as related to the familiar sociological thesis of secularization. Were we to recover
526 and respecify the sense of history and social change available or assumed in the studies that have
527 already been done in EM/CA, we would not run out of work too soon.

528 The classical sociological tradition of studying social change was burdened with troubles. Although it
529 was able to portray nuanced degrees of social evolution, “the concrete contours” and
530 “crystallizations” of change remained undetermined, and scholars were restricted to “indicate ranges
531 of possibilities” (Eisenstadt, 1964, p. 386). Later, narrower meso-level approaches, such as
532 domestication of media and technologies (e.g., Sørensen, 2006), enabled a finer grasp of emerging
533 social practices. As Sørensen (2006, p. 55) summarizes “the impact of mobile telephony”: “What is
534 new is that one should be accessible everywhere and at all times.” Domestication is a metaphor of
535 taming the beast, making it known, familiar, stable, and docile. As such, the perspective catches the
536 meso-level social change, but it risks losing the radical aspects of change. When people appropriate
537 new practices, they do not just tame artifacts and technologies, but also make previous practices and
538 identities obsolete. EM/CA may retain sensitivity to emerging new practices as it studies the ways in
539 which people make relevant objects and artifacts for their actions, which may, however, appear as if
540 the technologies themselves (e.g., landline and mobile phone) featuring in the formation of action
541 had vanished (see Button, 1993). Technical features tend to become oriented to by the participants
542 only when there is a problem, when something fails to work, and parties reorient to find out what to
543 do next, or reason about the nature of the problem to get around it or repair it (Kosurko et al., 2023;
544 Tiilikainen et al., 2023). And even when there is a technical problem, it is not self-evident that
545 interactants treat the problem as a problem, as they may make use of it, and utilize the “problem” for
546 their own purposes (Rintel, 2013). Therefore, the monocausal versions of technological determinism
547 seem to fail (see Ogburn, 1947; Wyatt, 2008).

548 The inevitable counterpart of obsolescence is persistence, offering a complementary perspective of
549 focusing on the emergence of new practices. As soon as EM/CA findings are somehow connected to

¹³ We would like to thank one of the anonymous reviewers for suggesting this point.

550 sociohistorical reality, the analyst is bound to take stances; if the analysis is completely detached
551 from the sociohistorical world, it remains purely technical. By looking at telephony, and
552 technologized interaction more generally, we have intentionally prioritized change over stability for
553 the purposes of illustration. Indeed, many social practices—if they ever become truly obsolete—
554 remain remarkably stable over time. To stress the salience of “obsolescence,” we have not yet
555 discussed variabilities of “obsolescences” or their degrees, not to mention the closely related topics of
556 perseverance of social practices, or the appearance of novel and innovative ones. Throughout,
557 nevertheless, we have argued that such questions should, first and foremost, be answered empirically.
558 If our paper provides inspiration for a further respecification of social change in the sense discussed
559 above, then its purpose has been fulfilled.

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725

726 **Appendix: Transcription conventions (based on Jefferson, 2004)**

727 [] Overlapping talk.
728 (.) Micro-pause.
729 (2.2) Pause in seconds.
730 . Final intonation.
731 >yes< Notably faster talk.
732 <no> Notably slower talk.
733 (but) Estimated hearing.
734 () Inaudible segment.
735 a:: Vocal prolongation.
736 Re- Cut-off.
737 ↑ Higher pitch.
738 = Rapid continuation (latching).
739 .hh/hh Inhalation and exhalation.
740 n(h)o Laughter particle within word.
741 THAT Louder volume.
742 that Hearable emphasis.