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**A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC INVESTIGATION INTO EFL
LEARNERS' TECHNOLOGY-MEDIATED TASK
INTERACTIONS**

MASTER OF ARTS

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Esra Spahi

ABSTRACT

A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC INVESTIGATION INTO EFL LEARNERS' TECHNOLOGY-MEDIATED TASK INTERACTIONS

MA THESIS

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INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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Long-standing use of tasks in second language learning environments, including digital spaces, has been deemed to promote learners' interactional skills. Nevertheless, interactional dynamics in these contexts have largely remained unexplored due to the dominance of etic perspectives and a priori assumptions in interpreting the interactional data. The relatively scarce conversation analytic research focusing on the dynamics of task interaction in technology-mediated environments predominantly centers on the epistemic domain of the interaction. Against this backdrop, this study explores technology-mediated, task-based spoken interactions of advanced EFL learners. Employing Ethnomethodological Conversation Analysis, the study investigates how specific social action formats—with a particular focus on proposals—facilitate task progression. The analysis reveals a strong preference for proposal structures in task discourse, indicating a collective and egalitarian task dynamic. The interactional uses of these structures are primarily identified as to address problems such as epistemic gaps or contradictions to task rules, set the upcoming task agenda, endorse, challenge, and circumvent the preceding proposals. Evidence from turn-design and sequential unfolding reveals that the participants orient to the fine-grained distinctions between these formats in terms of their deontic strength. Further, while the participants orient to the screen as a semiotic resource to formulate their proposals, they also employ turn-design strategies to increase their deontic strength. This study contributes to our understanding of task-based interaction in digital spaces with a particular focus on the use of proposal structures to advance the task forward. Moreover, it contributes to the theoretical comprehension of how grammatical structures are utilized to perform specific social actions in digital environments, providing a foundation for future research. Implications for practitioners, task designers, and researchers are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Task-Based Language Learning, Technology-Mediated Task-Based Interaction, Conversation Analysis, Proposals

ÖZET

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENENLERİN TEKNOLOJİ ARACILI GÖREV ETKİLEŞİMLERİNİN KONUŞMA ÇÖZÜMLEMESİ YÖNTEMİYLE İNCELENMESİ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ
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Dijital ortamlar dahil olmak üzere ikinci dil öğrenme ortamlarında dilsel etkileşime dayalı görevler, öğrencilerin etkileşim becerilerini geliştirmek amacıyla kullanılmaktadır. Ancak bu ortamlardaki etkileşim dinamikleri, etkileşimsel verilerin incelenmesinde egemen olan teori güdümlü bakış açıları ve a priori varsayımlar nedeniyle tam anlamıyla keşfedilememiştir. Teknoloji aracılı görev temelli etkileşim dinamiklerine odaklanan nispeten az sayıdaki konuşma çözümlemesi araştırmaları, genellikle etkileşimin epistemik alanına odaklanmaktadır. Bu sebeple bu çalışma, yabancı dil olarak ileri düzeyde İngilizce öğrenenlerin teknoloji aracılı görev temelli sözlü etkileşimlerini incelemektedir. Çalışmada özellikle teklif yapılarına odaklanılarak, belirli sosyal eylem formatlarıyla görev ilerlemesinin nasıl sağlandığı incelenmektedir. Konuşma çözümlemesi analizi sonucunda, görev temelli etkileşim içerisinde teklif yapılarına bir eğilim saptanmıştır. Bu eğilim, kolektif ve eşitlikçi bir görev dinamiğini göstermektedir. Bu yapıların etkileşimsel fonksiyonları, epistemik boşluklar veya görev kurallarıyla çelişkiler gibi problemleri giderme, görev gündemini belirleme, önceki teklifleri onaylama, reddetme veya bu tekliflerin çevresinden dolanma olarak belirlenmiştir. Söz sırası tasarımı ve dizi düzeni kanıtlarına dayanarak, öğrencilerin bu formatları kullanırken yapıların deontik güçlerine dayalı ince ayrıntıları dikkate aldıkları gözlemlenmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin tekliflerini formüle ederken paylaşılan ekranı göstergebilimsel bir kaynak olarak kullandıkları ve tekliflerin deontik gücünü artırmak amaçlı söz sırası tasarımına dayalı stratejiler kullandıkları belirlenmiştir. Bu çalışma, özellikle teklif yapılarının kullanımına odaklanarak, bilgisayar destekli dil öğretimi ve teknoloji aracılı görev temelli dil öğretimi gibi çalışma alanlarına katkı sunmaktadır ve bu alanda gelecek araştırmalar için bir temel oluşturmaktadır.

ANAHTAR KELİMELELER: Konuşma Çözümlemesi, Görev Temelli Teknoloji Aracılı Dil Öğretimi, Görev Temelli Etkileşim, Teklif Yapıları

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

CA	: Conversation Analysis
CALL	: Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CLT	: Communicative Language Teaching
IC	: Interactional Competence
NoM	: Negotiation of Meaning
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
TBLT	: Task-Based Language Teaching
TM-TBLT	: Technology-Mediated Task-Based Language Teaching
TCU	: Turn Constructional Unit
TRP	: Transition Relevance Place
VMI	: Video Mediated Interaction

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1. INTRODUCTION

This study aims to analyze technology-mediated task-based interactional data obtained from the advanced learners of English at a state-run university located in the Blacksea Region of Turkey. The purpose of the analysis is to better understand and pinpoint the interactional strategies and mechanisms that the task-takers employ to co-construct their task discourse and advance the task forward. In contrast to much of the existing research on task-based interactions, which primarily center on the negotiation of meaning, this study adopts a conversation analytic perspective in examining task-oriented spoken discourse. The findings of this study could offer valuable insights for practitioners, particularly concerning task design in technology-mediated settings.

1.1 Background of the Study

The contemporary era is characterized by the pervasive integration of technology in all facets of our lives, with educational settings being no exception. Numerous scholars have highlighted the benefits of incorporating technology in learning environments (Chapelle, 2003, 2009; González-Lloret, 2011, 2020; González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). Although the integration of the available technology in learning environments is an old practice, the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 significantly increased this trend, leading to the widespread adoption of fully online or hybrid forms.

Teaching practices in SLA have been influenced by the development of several skill-oriented competencies (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Chomsky, 1965; Hymes, 1972). Among these is Interactional Competence (IC), a fundamental and complex competency that includes pragmatic competence under its umbrella. Given its intricate nature, IC relies heavily on multiple factors, including multimodal resources and interpersonal dynamics. Therefore, our understanding of IC is profoundly shaped by ethnomethodological conversation analytic research (Hall & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011; He & Young, 1998; Pekarek-Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015; Young, 2000, 2008). Thus far, research into task-based interaction in both face-to-face and digital environments has primarily centered on negotiation of meaning with a due focus on NS-NNS interaction

(Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Long, 1981; Pica et al., 1993; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Slimani-Rolls, 2005; Van Der Zwaard & Bannink, 2016; Wesche, 1994).

In response to this, leading researchers have called for a more robust methodology to distinguish between task-as-workplan and task-as-process, urging a shift towards focusing on task-as-process data to solidify the place of tasks as research constructs (Breen, 1987; Seedhouse, 1999, 2005b; Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009). Alongside this call, prominent scholars have also called for a reconceptualization of SLA, the notion of learners, and classroom discourse, emphasizing an evidence-based, emic (participant-relevant) perspective that prioritizes learners' actual interactional resources and the ways communication unfolds in classrooms as opposed to idealizing native speakers and defining learners as deficient communicators (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Kasper & Wagner, 2014). Consequently, a growing number of studies, including those in face-to-face and digital environments, have responded to these calls (Amri & Sert, 2022; Jenks, 2009; Jenks & Brandt, 2013; Markee, 2008; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Sert, 2015). The call for Conversation Analysis (CA) has been addressed in the examination of task-based interaction as well (Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b; Hellermann, 2007; Hellermann & Doehler, 2010; Jenks, 2007; Mori, 2002).

Nevertheless, most conversation analytic research in educational environments focuses on the epistemic domain (Balaman & Sert, 2017b; Gablasova et al., 2017; Sert, 2013). Social actions which are related to the deontic domain, such as requests, offers, suggestions, and proposals, are comparably under-researched.

Recent research on everyday social interaction has differentiated between suggestions, requests, offers, and proposals in terms of speakers' entitlement, the contingency of the responses upon recipients, the cost the action imposes, and the benefit the action supplies (Couper-Kuhlen, 2014; Davidson, 1984; Drew, 1984; Goodwin, 1980, 1990; Houtkoop-Steenstra, 1987). Significant attention has been devoted to the grammatical structures of proposals, revealing how they offer clues about the speaker's intent and the anticipated response. In-depth research and analysis of proposals in various contexts and scenarios have further elaborated on

their role in interpersonal interaction, joint decision-making, accountability, face management, and the negotiation of deontic rights and obligations (Clayman & Heritage, 2014; Robinson & Kevoe-Feldman, 2016; Stephenson, 2020; Stevanovic & Peräkylä, 2012; Stevanovic & Svennevig, 2015; Stivers & Sidnell, 2016; Zinken & Ogiermann, 2011). However, the analysis of these social actions within educational environments remains insufficient, with the exception of some notable research (Stephenson, 2020). Therefore, this study will inform the current line of conversation analytic research in the digital domains by putting specific emphasis on how co-participants move the task forward by particularly zooming in on several proposal structures (Couper-Kuhlen, 2014; Thompson et al., 2021).

1.2 Statement of Purpose

Digital technologies and online platforms have changed the traditional language classroom and methodologies. Among these, Technology-Mediated Task-Based Language Teaching (TM-TBLT) has been deemed a significant area of study due to its potential to provide engaging, interactive, and effective language learning experiences. However, our understanding of the interactional dynamics within TM-TBLT remains mostly limited to negotiation of meaning strategies.

With this in mind, this study aimed to investigate the interactional dynamics within TM-TBLT spoken discourse using ethnomethodological Conversation Analysis. It primarily focused on how the participants advanced the task forward and collectively achieved task progression, specifically zooming in on their use of proposals as social action formats. The findings from this study provide implications for language educators, task designers, and applied linguistics researchers. Particularly it may provide valuable insights for teachers who use task-based language teaching in online contexts and inform the design of educational technology platforms by shedding light on what is really happening in interaction in regard to the aforementioned issues. Furthermore, this study also contributes to the theoretical understanding of how grammatical structures are used to perform specific social actions in the technological context.

1.3 Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What specific social action formats do the participants use to facilitate task progression in their TM-TBLT interactions?
- 2) What are the interactional uses of the three most frequently observed social action formats during TM-TBLT interactions in the dataset?
 - a) When do these formats sequentially come into play in TM-TBLT discourse?
 - b) What does the uptake or response to these social action formats by the participants reveal about their interactional uses?
- 3) Looking at sequential placement and turn design, how are these three grammatical structures used differently in TM-TBLT, and what does this variation reveal about the communicative dynamics in this context?

1.4 Significance of the Study

The integration of technology in task-based language education is considered fruitful as it provides a rich and diverse semiotic environment for language learners. Situated in this broad context, this study has been conducted to achieve a deeper understanding of social actions, linguistic structures, and patterns in such technology-mediated, task-oriented contexts. Studying interaction in these environments is significant as it provides insights into real-time language use, contributing to the fields of second language acquisition, applied linguistics, and computer-mediated communication.

Furthermore, the outcomes of this study bear substantial significance for educators. The insights into how social actions, especially proposing formulations, are constructed with nuanced attributes of high-entitlement and low-contingency structures can enhance pedagogical methods within technology-enhanced teaching and learning contexts in several ways. First, educators can include learning activities that are specifically tailored to foster the skill of suggesting ideas, affording students opportunities to practice and refine their adeptness in this particular social action. By offering practices to employ both high-entitlement and low-contingency turn designs, instructors can facilitate a nuanced grasp of the intricate dynamics encompassing these frameworks. Second, educators can use examples from the study to help students understand the subtleties of language use.

They can emphasize how the strength and the social context of communication play a role in proposing ideas. This will make students more aware of pragmatic features and how language works in different situations, helping them create effective proposals. Lastly, educators can give specific feedback on how proposals are made. By pointing out instances where proposals could be stronger or better aligned with the context, students can improve their language skills and use more appropriate language in different situations.

In conclusion, these practical suggestions can help language educators refine their teaching strategies. This will empower students to communicate more effectively, understand social norms, and navigate pragmatic complexities in digital spoken interactions.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY AND RELATED RESEARCH

This study is situated at the intersection of three interrelated growing areas of research: a) Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition (CA-SLA), b) Technology-mediated task-based interactional research, c) Proposing as a social action and its relationship with grammar structures. The first part of this literature review will discuss the role of interaction in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The second section will highlight the significance and lay the grounds for using Conversation Analysis (CA) as a methodological approach in SLA. Subsequently, the third section of the review will examine the existing body of literature concentrating on task-based language learning and teaching, with a particular emphasis on task interaction and technology-mediated contexts. Lastly, the final section of this review provides an overview of how directive-commissive actions, with a particular focus on proposals, are achieved through language use, followed by a progressively refined focus on the studies that explore the use of grammatical structures to propose future joint actions in talk-in-interaction.

2.1 The Interaction Base for Second Language Acquisition

Linguistic theories have significantly influenced language teaching, learning, and testing practices. Our understanding of language was initially framed by Chomsky (1965), who differentiated between the inherent knowledge of language, termed “competence,” and the actual application of language in real-world scenarios, termed “performance.” However, Hymes challenged Chomsky’s perspective and introduced the concept of “communicative competence,” acknowledging not only lexical and grammatical knowledge but also the essential skills needed for effective participation in everyday communication, such as the awareness of context (Hymes, 1972). The Hymesian view strongly resonated in the development of language teaching methods, particularly fostering the growth and endorsement of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Similarly, building on the concept of communicative competence, Canale and Swain further refined the notion into distinct sub-competencies, instrumental in both teaching and testing applications (Canale & Swain, 1980). Their refinement included sociocultural competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence (Canale, 1983).

Among the various competencies flourished in relation to language proficiency, another critical component is Interactional Competence (IC). IC is characterized by its emphasis on the “co-construction of discursive practices by all participants involved rather than on a single person” (Young, 2000, p.5.). Kasper and Wagner (2011) also underline its cooperative nature by stating that IC cannot be understood as a mere intra-psychological trait but is inherently intertwined with interactive performance. He and Young (1998) initially conceived IC as a pragmatic extension of Hymes’s (1972) communicative competence under an umbrella term called discursive practices. These practices included the knowledge of “rhetorical scripts, certain lexis and syntactic patterns specific to the practice, how turns are managed, topical organization, signaling boundaries, and transitions within the practice itself” (He & Young, 1998, p.6). Young (2008) later introduced an expanded set of resources, including “identity resources, linguistic resources, and interactional resources” (p. 71). He defined interactional resources as “speech acts, turn-taking, repair, and boundaries.” (Young, 2008, p. 71).

Conversation analytic findings led to a reconceptualization of IC as they have shown that IC is a more complex phenomenon that can be seen as a set of skills and knowledge enabling individuals to effectively participate and navigate through social interactions. These intricate skills involve understanding the expectations and norms of specific social contexts and being able to adjust our actions accordingly (Hall & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011), the ability to identify and utilize common patterns within these contexts, including turn-taking, organizing actions, and structuring practices such as repair and sequence organization (Lee, 2006; Markee, 2008; Pekarek-Doehler & Pochon-Berger, 2015; Young, 2011). Importantly, it involves using a mix of linguistic, non-linguistic (such as eye-gaze or embodiment), prosodic, pragmatic, semiotic, and interactional tools to effectively communicate and interpret actions (Hall & Pekarek-Doehler, 2011).

The overview of the conceptual evolution of competencies underscores the salient role that interactional competence, among other competencies, plays in shaping the process and outcomes of language acquisition. Early research examining interaction was primarily driven by the Input-Interaction theory (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Long, 1981). This line of research mostly focused on

Negotiation of Meaning (NoM) and input modification studies. The Interactionist Approach (IA) is acknowledged by numerous scholars as a robust foundation of SLA in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) settings (Chapelle, 2003). Therefore, this approach has been implemented in the design of various functionalities of computer-based learning tools, such as offering subtitles for audio content and facilitating learner access to definitions through electronic dictionaries or glossaries (Hubbard & Levy, 2016). However, Input-Interaction research was criticized due to its heavy reliance on the quantification of NoM instances or their limited focus on linguistic structures by categorization of them (see Section 2.3.2 for further discussion).

As previously reviewed, the concept of IC and its evolution are closely tied to CA, both in terms of shaping IC's definition and in providing a practical methodology for studying IC in second language (L2) contexts. The sequential nature of IC as a construct aligns well with the analytical tools offered by CA, allowing researchers to deeply probe IC's underlying patterns through detailed analyses of turn-taking, repair, sequence organization, and preference organization. Consequently, our understanding of IC has been substantially enhanced from the CA-SLA perspective, which views learners' active engagement in interactional language as an instrumental resource for language acquisition (Markee & Kasper, 2004).

However, Conversation Analysis (CA) has also faced criticisms for its perceived inability to develop learning theories (Markee, 2008). In response, some researchers have incorporated larger learning theories to interpret CA findings, such as sociocultural theory (Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004), language socialization (Kasper, 2006), or situated learning theory (Hellermann & Cole, 2009). However, given CA's ethnomethodological foundations, certain scholars argue against merging exogenous theories with CA findings (Markee, 2008; Psathas, 1995).

In his pivotal article, Markee (2008) advocates for a theory-independent use of CA methodology within SLA. He introduces Learning Behavior Tracking (LBT), a framework devised to document the learning behaviors of second language learners. Additionally, Markee (2008) emphasizes the recent

reinterpretation of grammar, shifting from its definition as an innate or psycholinguistic attribute to an emergent, co-constructed phenomenon. To this end, this study adopts a neutral stance regarding learning theories, instead focusing on examining the interactional environment where proposing activities are situated. It emphasizes specific grammatical structures, understood as emergent mechanisms aiding the social action of proposing within a technology-mediated L2 learning setting. The study sets out to document learners' collective participation practices as they engage in "moment-by-moment orientation, making sense of co-participants actions, and fitting their own contribution to the sequential context" (Kasper, 2009, p. 31). This investigation allows us, as researchers and practitioners, to scrutinize how the interactional environment is shaped by learners' ongoing involvement in task-talk and their orientation to various semiotic resources within this context-specific setting.

2.2 Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition

The integration of CA and SLA, commonly referred to as CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee & Kasper, 2004), is a relatively recent development. CA methodology was not originated to explore how learning and development occur, but it had its initial roots in ethnomethodology and served as a critical approach to examining the local production of social order through interaction between individuals (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Garfinkel, 1967). On the contrary, traditional SLA research has largely been informed by other disciplines such as behavioral psychology (Skinner, 1986), generative linguistics (Chomsky, 1965), cognitive linguistics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1981), psycholinguistics (Long, 1981), sociolinguistics (Hymes, 1972; Labov, 1971), and sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978). Some of these disciplines are primarily focused on the internal cognitive processes that language learners undergo (e.g., generative linguistics, cognitive linguistics, etc.) The frameworks proposed under these disciplines often treat language as an isolated cognitive system and emphasize individual mental attributes like memory, attention, and learning strategies. Social factors, when considered, are typically seen as peripheral or external influences.

Other approaches that arose to this criticism, such as sociolinguistics and sociocultural theory, on the other hand, differ significantly in their analytic focus

and methodologies. Sociolinguistics, for example, when informing SLA, focuses on the relationship between language and society, primarily concerning how social variables like class, gender, or ethnicity impact language variation. Therefore, it often operates at a macro level, considering how larger social structures and patterns influence language learning and use. Sociocultural theory, on the other hand, emphasizes the crucial role of social interaction in the ontogenetic development of cognitive structures. It proposes that learning is a process of internalizing the cultural tools and practices of one's community, which is facilitated through social interaction.

These various paradigms, although they differ in their approaches regarding how language acquisition occurs, have a common point of bringing a theory-informed top-down perspective into explaining the language acquisition process. A major bulk of SLA research has long relied on existing classifications, schemas, or theories to impose on elicited language data in explaining target phenomena, neglecting emic (or participant-relevant) perspective. Furthermore, these approaches have no emphasis on the complex *in situ* engagements that take place between the learners during the learning process, ignoring shared cognition, common ground, co-operation, and co-construction (Goodwin, 1979, 2018; Tomasello, 2020) of understanding, dialogues or language data. Since the aforementioned approaches conceptualize language learning to occur primarily inside the minds of individuals, the vantage point is undermined to a black box within which it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to see what is happening, ignoring the situated context-dependent nature of language use, that happens undeniably “there” and visible (Wittgenstein, 1953), among the speakers.

The affordances CA brings about to address these criticisms in the field of SLA were first stressed by Firth and Wagner (1997) in their seminal publication. The authors criticized the widely taken stance toward second language learners as being “deficient communicators struggling to overcome an underdeveloped L2 competence, striving to reach the “target” competence of an idealized native speaker” (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 287), and they called for a greater emphasis on emic perspective to heighten our understanding of the contextual and interactional aspects of the language data. The concepts such as “native speaker,” “target

language,” “learner,” and “interlanguage” were called to be rethought with more emphasis on successful communication using available resources. Rather than providing exogenous theoretical explanations, they argued for an emic analysis of naturally occurring conversations using CA’s analytical tools. Their call for “reconceptualizing SLA” to balance the existing skewed picture received a lot of attention from many prominent scholars in the field of SLA (e.g., Canagarajah, 2007; Freeman, 2007; Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007; Mori, 2007).

Current research contributing to this strand continues to grow as CA is used to investigate face-to-face classroom interactions and learners’ spoken or text-based discourses in digital settings (Balaman, 2022; Brandt & Jenks, 2013; Duran et al., 2022).

2.3 Task-Based Teaching and Learning

Following the notable shift towards the communicative approach and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in SLA, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has attracted significant attention in learning and teaching practices. Several prominent scholars have recognized TBLT as significantly worthy of attention in language pedagogy (Bygate et al., 2001). Since its introduction in the 1980s, TBLT has undergone continuous refinement and expansion, as evidenced by a plethora of up-to-date literature (Ellis et al., 2019; González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014); This ongoing and expanding body of research affirms TBLT’s firmly established position in the field of SLA. In this section of the literature review, I will examine theoretical developments related to the contextual background of the task environment in which the participants performed the online tasks and the data collection procedures that were carried out. In order to do so, I will begin by examining the shift in the theoretical perspectives that specifically address task-based interaction. Subsequently, I will then redirect my focus onto the task environment and explore the theoretical foundations that inform technology-mediated tasks.

2.3.1 Defining and Classifying Tasks

2.3.1.1 Defining Task

Definitions of “task” and their outcomes in relation to pedagogical objectives have been extensively discussed in TBLT research. Consequently, numerous definitions and classifications have been proposed, taking into account various criteria, such as the non-linguistic aim of the task, its real-world relevance, and the theoretical approach employed in the study. To avoid lengthy and unnecessary discussion on defining what a task is, this review will only briefly cover some of the definitions proposed by prominent scholars in the field, followed by widely recognized task classifications. Then, it will address the critiques made about task definitions and classifications, followed by presenting Conversation Analytic suggestions to address these concerns.

Long (1985), for instance, defines a task as “the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between” (p. 89). Breen (1987) offers a more detailed definition which goes as follows:

“... any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning...” (p. 23)

Similarly, Ellis’s (2003) definition also emphasises the pre-planned structure: “task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed” (p.16). Finally, Nunan’s (2004) definition of task emphasizes the focus on meaning:

A piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interaction in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form (p. 4).

2.3.1.2 Classifying Tasks

Although a myriad of suggestions can be found for sorting types of tasks into different categories, there is no systematic way of conducting this process. Candlin (1987) explains this by stating that it's not possible to "offer anything other than implicit suggestions" as a criterion to catalog tasks under various types (p. 14). Therefore, the typology is "bound to be fuzzy-edged" and serves only a practical purpose (Candlin, 1987, p. 15). Although lacking in systematic ways, the practical advantages offered were deemed sufficient to generate various task typologies in the TBLT literature. While Nunan (2004) gives a focused and comprehensive review of task classifications, he also argues about his own distinction of tasks, as seen in the following table:

Table 2.1 Task types, adapted from Ellis (2003), Nunan (2004), Willis and Willis (2013)

Pattison (1987)	Prabhu (1987)	Richards (2001)	Ellis (2003)	Nunan (2004)	Willis & Willis (2013)
Questions and answers	Information-Gap activities	Jigsaw tasks	Focused task	Pedagogical Tasks	Listing
Dialogues and role plays	Reasoning-Gap activities	Information-gap tasks	Unfocused task	Real-world tasks	Ordering and sorting
Matching activities	Opinion Gap Activities	Problem-solving tasks			Matching
Communication strategies		Decision-making tasks			Comparing
Pictures and picture stories		Opinion exchange tasks			Sharing personal experience
Puzzles and problems					Projects and Creative Tasks
Discussions and decisions					Problem solving

As evident, many of the definitions reviewed so far share some common features, such as a focus on achieving communicative goals through language use while negotiating meaning, real-world connection, and reliance on a prior structural blueprint. Although some definitions include a minor emphasis on the task products (the emphasis on the analysis of task products (e.g., NoM instances), has also been regarded as problematic due to quantification and pre-conceived categorizations of them, further discussed in Section 2.3.2), both these definitions and classifications of tasks favor task-as-workplan over task-as-process. The term “task-as-workplan” corresponds to the proposed pedagogical or instructional blueprint, whereas “task-in-process” encapsulates the real-time pedagogical dynamics and occurrences within the classroom setting (Breen, 1989).

The overwhelming emphasis on the task-as-workplan has also been regarded as a prevalent issue by Seedhouse (1999, 2005b). He propounds that an undue focus on the task-as-workplan can cause researchers to overlook what’s happening in real-time in the classroom, where the data collection procedures are conducted. Seedhouse deems this a significant problem because it can affect the study’s construct validity (i.e., the ability to measure what it’s supposed to measure). Another point Seedhouse (2005b) makes is that the reliance on task-as-workplan strengthens the tendency to lean towards deductive categorizations (using pre-set categories) instead of inductive reasoning (creating categories based on the data observed). Ensuring the tasks’ construct validity, therefore, would be achieved by taking a more holistic approach towards TBLT, ie., scrutinously examining the task-in-process. This approach also shines a light on learners’ engagement in communicative events through their “ongoing interpretations of the instructional setting” (Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004, p. 510). This brings us to the question of how Task-Based Interaction (TBI) has been examined so far.

2.3.2 Task-Based Interaction

The call for focusing on communication in SLA research was initially answered by negotiation of meaning (NoM) and input modification studies, which aimed to enhance comprehensibility in interaction and improve language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991) This strand of research initially investigated input modifications produced by native speakers (NSs) when

conversing with non-native speakers (NNSs), a phenomenon referred to as foreign talk (e.g., Long, 1981). Later on, investigating the influence of tasks on interaction gained popularity, establishing the study of task-based interaction as a crucial aspect of SLA (Pica et al., 1993). This line of inquiry eventually evolved into an examination of tasks and their ability to encourage task-takers to modify their speech (e.g., Bygate, 2001).

The primary concerns in this body of research were comprehensible input, input modification, output, and noticing (Ellis et al., 2019). This group of studies focusing on TBI, which was informed by the Interaction Hypothesis, often employed cross-sectional and quantitative methods (Wesche, 1994). The primary objective was to validate task types by quantifying isolated episodes of talk, with a higher number of negotiation of meaning (NoM) episodes indicating a task's greater effectiveness in supporting language development. This approach eventually led to mapping out some dimensions of tasks that may affect the possible number of NoM instances in task talk. The following table illustrates these dimensions:

Table 2.2 Dimensions of tasks, adapted from Ellis (2000)

Task Dimensions	More Positive	Less Positive
Information exchange	Required (Information-gap)	Optional (Opinion-gap)
Information gap	Two-way	One-way
Outcome	Closed	Open
Task familiarity	Non-familiar	Familiar
Topic	Human/ethical	Objective/spatial
Discourse	Narrative	Description/expository
Cognitive complexity	Context-free; detailed information	Context-dependent; less-detailed information

This line of studies often faces several criticisms. First, they tend to focus on a single task dimension, such as the effect of a two-way as opposed to a one-way information gap on the instances of NoM. This approach neglects the complex interactions between different dimensions and their impact on meaning negotiation.

Therefore, an overview of these studies reveals conflicting results. For example, while some studies report two-way information gaps resulting in more communication adjustments (Long, 1981), others note that one-way information gap tasks may elicit either more NoM instances or offer more opportunities for genuine communication (Pica & Doughty, 1985; Slimani-Rolls, 2005). Secondly, these studies are typically product-oriented, focusing on the “text” resulting from a task rather than the process of task performance. Ellis (2003) pointed out that researchers often neglect how learners construct “discourse” as they perform a task. The problem with quantifying the negotiation of meaning instances is that it leads to neglecting the role of the quality of the interactional process (Long, 1996; Nakahama et al., 2001). Focusing primarily on the task-as-workplan and not sufficiently considering how task-takers interpret and construct the task-in-process may present a biased picture of task-based interaction. Furthermore, the instances of negotiation of meaning are analyzed under predefined categories that exclude the local context in which they are uttered (i.e., etc). Long’s (1981) three C’s - comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks - are the most well-known examples of these categorizations (refer to Ellis et al.’s (2019) for a more detailed examination). The problem with pre-established category systems is that they may limit our observations by enforcing predetermined classifications since they are devised as a result of observing interactions within specific contexts. As a result, the outcomes tend to conform solely to these classifications, leading to potential misrepresentations or ignorance of other authentic aspects of the interactional phenomena being studied (Psathas, 1995).

Addressing these criticisms would involve examining the interactional influence of task-as-workplan on task-in-process and considering task-takers’ interpretations and negotiations, ultimately providing a more comprehensive understanding of task-based interaction. Markee and Kasper (2004) argue that the emic approach adopted by Conversation Analysis (CA) studies explains meaning by paying attention to the local context in which the conversation takes place. Therefore, the call to balance the existing skewed picture was replied to by a conversation analytic perspective on TBI (inter alia, Hellermann, 2007; Hellermann & Doehler, 2010; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler, 2004; Mori, 2002; Young & Miller, 2004).

Seedhouse's (2004) conversation analytic approach identified specific characteristics of task-based interaction in English language learning classrooms, such as constraints on turn-taking, tendencies towards minimalization and indexicality, and the generation of various checks and self-repetitions. Due to the indexical nature of the tasks, Seedhouse (2004) claimed, that it is almost impossible to understand what's going on in the process by only relying on the blueprint. As a solution, Seedhouse and Almutairi (2009) proposed a framework for describing and analyzing task-oriented interaction, consisting of seven steps, including detailing the workplan, recording and analyzing the interaction, tracking task progress, and synthesizing the workplan, process, and outcomes. Researchers such as Hellermann and Doehler (2010) and Markee and Kunitz (2013) further maintain the advantages of such an approach by claiming that the sequential organization of talk-in-interaction can help redefine cognitive terms like attention, noticing, and understanding. This study contributes to this line of conversation analytic research by examining situated co-constructions of task-based discourse.

2.3.3 Technology-Mediated Task-Based Environments

The integration of technology into language classrooms has demonstrated promising developmental and sociocultural benefits, yet it has also been recognized that a more structured and theoretical approach to CALL is required to fully optimize the potential of CALL and design more effective computer-based activities (Lai & Li, 2011; Ziegler, 2016). In response to such a demand and amidst the growing TBLT and CALL studies, researchers began to explore the possibility of synthesizing the two branches of research. Several researchers have underlined the possible benefits and importance of drawing out theoretical underpinnings from TBLT and integrating them into CALL. Chapelle (2003), for instance, suggests that a promising approach to advancing the field of CALL is through analyzing learners' interactions with materials and other learners via classroom tasks. Ziegler (2016), on the other hand, emphasizes the symbiosis between the two by regarding tasks and technology as "ideal partners in a reciprocal relationship" and asserts that the integration of technology can augment TBLT and serve as an effective framework for research in CALL contexts (p. 137).

In the late 1990s and early 2000s, Chapelle was among the first to highlight the need for a more empirically grounded approach to CALL. She suggested that CALL research should not only be based on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory but also that researchers should employ research methods from instructed SLA to inform their studies and guide their pedagogical design (Chapelle, 1997, 1998, 2001). Her earlier work, for example, draws attention to several interactional features underpinned by SLA research (mostly NoM research) that could be transferred in computer-mediated environments, including the saliency of the target structures, facilitating modified interaction, offering modified input, providing opportunities for learners to notice their errors, and producing comprehensible output (Chapelle, 1998). In her later work, she proposed six criteria for the evaluation of CALL tasks: language learning potential, learner fit, focus on meaning, authenticity, positive impact, and practicality (Chapelle, 2001). Furthermore, she advocated that the language learning potential must be evaluated in relation to the tasks' facilitations of focus on form, modified interaction, and modified output. Another set of principles was suggested by Doughty and Long (2003), based on the ideal conditions of SLA and TBLT for distance language learning, providing CALL researchers with robust theoretical underpinnings on which to base their work on second language development in computer-mediated environments.

Rather more recently, González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) proposed five key features for successful integration of TBLT into CALL: primary focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner-centeredness, holism, and reflective learning. "Primary" focus on meaning denotes that any pre-planned focus on language forms must be hidden to promote incidental/implicit learning. Goal orientation refers to the design features that either promote communicative language use to achieve information transfer or produce a communicative or non-communicative outcome (e.g., a product result of language use in any modality or completion of an action such as booking a flight, etc.). Learner-centeredness emphasizes the necessity of tasks to address learners' needs and wants so that they can incorporate their various semiotic resources into the process. Holism draws attention to the tasks' real-world connectedness, a similar concept to Chapelle's (2001) authenticity. Finally, reflective learning highlights Deweyan (Dewey, 1938) principles of learning by

doing, focusing on learners' unique experiences of the task and their cycles of re-examination.

2.4 Proposing as a Social Action

As inherently cooperative beings, humans exhibit a level of collaboration that outstrips any other species, as articulated by Goodwin (2018): "The scale of human cooperation exceeds that of any other animal, extending far beyond kin ties." (p. 5). Similarly, Tomasello (2008) posits that "human communication is ... a fundamentally cooperative enterprise," which operates optimally within mutually recognized common conceptual ground and shared communicative goals (p. 6).

Distinguished studies in linguistics, psychology, and anthropology collectively underscore the notion that our collaborative tendencies are intrinsically linked with language use and its design within interpersonal interactions (Brown & Levinson, 1987; C. Goodwin, 2013; Grice, 1975). CA as a methodology has been instrumental in documenting how cooperation manifests in talk-in-interaction by shedding light on the processes where previous troubles in interaction are resolved mutually (Schegloff, 1997, 2000b) or how individuals favor cooperative responses that signal alignment and affiliation over non-cooperative responses that indicate disaffiliation or disalignment (Pillet-Shore, 2017; Pomerantz, 1984).

The recruitment of individuals to participate in a social action—effectively a solicitation of collaboration—can be accomplished through various means, both verbal and non-verbal. Non-verbal methods might involve initiating an activity or exhibiting difficulty with the action at hand (Kendrick & Drew, 2016; Stivers & Sidnell, 2016). Verbal strategies, on the other hand, might encompass explicit language-based requests, offers, or proposals (Couper-Kuhlen, 2014; Drew & Couper-Kuhlen, 2014).

Thus far, scholarly literature has approached the verbal study of proposals as part of a broader group that includes all these spectrums of actions designed to influence or steer another's course of action (Davidson, 1984; Drew, 1984; Maynard, 1984). Aligned with this approach, Davidson (1984) explores the nuances of responses to proposals alongside other actions such as invitations, offers, and requests. Drew (1984) predominantly focuses on invitations, albeit incorporating

proposals into his study peripherally. Similarly, Houtkoop-Steenstra (1987) analyzes responses to proposals, and her definition of proposals encompasses invitations, requests, offers, and alike.

Although she focuses on these social action types collectively, Houtkoop-Steenstra (1987) makes a binary distinction between the proposal types in terms of their timely orientation. The first type, termed “remote proposals,” are those that suggest actions planned for execution in the future beyond the scope of the current activity. The second type referred to as “immediate proposals,” calls for actions to be undertaken directly within the ongoing activity. It is crucial to clarify at this point that his study zeroes in on the latter category, that is, on proposals that can be promptly acted upon in the immediate context.

The current body of scholarly attention on proposals tends to take one of two distinct yet complementary directions. Certain studies address proposals as social actions that can manifest across a wide variety of linguistic forms without particular emphasis on specific ones (e.g., Asmuß & Oshima, 2012; Davidson, 1984; Robinson & Kevoe-Feldman, 2016; Stephenson, 2020). This category includes the body of research seeking to differentiate proposals from other recruitment-related social actions such as suggestions, requests, and offers. Although these studies acknowledge a common purpose across directive actions like suggestions, requests, orders, and proposals—namely, to persuade the recipient to perform some action—they also highlight their distinct attributes, such as the action’s desirability, necessity, and the speaker’s entitlement to issue these actions (Stevanovic & Svennevig, 2015).

In recent literature, the difference between proposals and other recruitment-related social actions has been examined in relation to concepts such as entitlement (Curl & Drew, 2008), relative deontic strengths of various social action structures (Stevanovic, 2013), and the agent and beneficiary of the action (Clayman & Heritage, 2014; Couper-Kuhlen, 2014). For instance, suggestions exhibit a joint future action but with a lesser degree of authority in contrast to stronger directive actions like orders, which are often phrased as direct commands, which display high entitlement and assume minimal defiance, if any (Stevanovic & Peräkylä, 2012). In addition to the contrast with suggestions, proposals also differ from requests and

offers in that they require the involvement of both the proposer and the recipients in decision-making, as well as consideration of potential gains from the decision (Clayman & Heritage, 2014; Couper-Kuhlen, 2014).

Alternatively, a separate strand of research centers explicitly on specified linguistic structures providing a more granular analysis (e.g., Hoey, 2022; Stivers & Sidnell, 2016; Thompson et al., 2021; Zinken & Ogiermann, 2011). This latter perspective, favoring an in-depth analysis of specific structures, informs the research direction of the present study. These specific grammatical structures define “social action formats,” (i.e., grammatical formats for sequentially and situationally specific actions, Fox, 2007). Therefore, in the following part of this section, firstly, prior studies on proposals that underline their distinctive status in comparison to other social actions will be covered. Subsequently, in section 2.3, the focus will shift to research paralleling this study, particularly those concentrating on precise grammatical structures.

The idea that highlights proposals are more egalitarian and distinctive compared to other forms of directives (i.e., they do not take granted the recipients’ alignment, but they sort of ask for it) was first addressed by Goodwin (1980) in her work on girl’s and boy’s directive sequences in their plays. She compared the influence of gender on how directive turns are shaped and suggested that while girls designed their directives in the form of proposals by adopting a weaker deontic strength, boys designed their directive turns in the form of imperatives or overt and powerful requests. In her results, Goodwin asserts that while girls format their language to stress a more equal right to decide between the hearers, boys tend to address more hierarchical power relations in their language (Goodwin, 1990).

In a more recent study, Stevanovic (2012) explores the roles of proposals within the context of joint decision-making in church planning meetings. The interactions she focuses on are dyadic interactions. The focal point of this study is the dialogic negotiation between the person who initiates the proposal and the recipient(s) in terms of their mutual rights and obligations in reaching shared decisions. Her analytic focus is more on how the decision-making process unfolds sequentially in reaching joint decisions. Stevanovic (2012) places considerable emphasis on the sequential unfolding of the decision-making process, specifically

prior to and after the proposal. She distinguishes several inherent mechanisms in these communicative exchanges, such as shared epistemic access to the proposed idea, the expression of agreement with the proposal, and the establishment of commitment as a critical component in finalizing the decision. She provides insights into the conditions under which proposals can sequentially be set aside and how the proposed actions are consequently realized. Her conclusion reframes the discussion from viewing the uptake of proposals as approvals or rejections to approvals or non-approvals.

Robinson and Kevoe-Feldman (2016) focus on conversational sequences in which individuals propose and solicit proposals. Their analytic focus is on the intricate social dimensions and the notion of accountability present in constructing such social actions. Their research uncovers a delicate balance between the social expectations attached to the acceptance of proposals, (i.e., risking of positive face), and the potential damage to one's negative face if these expectations aren't met. They further reveal that speakers frequently try to soften the impact of their proposals by acknowledging the decision-making autonomy of their interlocutors, even if it marginally increases the chances of rejection. Interestingly, their findings indicate solicitation of proposals as a more common practice than making proposals, as it mitigates potential damage to the face and respects the other person's autonomy, despite increasing the sequence length of the interaction and relatively releasing the control over the final outcome. However, they don't focus on specific grammatical structures, but their focus remains on the notion of accountability of such proposal sequences.

Furthermore, Stevanovic and Peräkylä (2012)'s analysis primarily focuses on proposals' relative deontic authority. They interpret deontic authority as an individual's right to influence another's prospective actions. They draw a distinction between two categories of actions, one being suggestions that are characterized by declarative assertions of a future plan, and the other being proposals formulated in a way that is more flexible and reflect a non-binding nature, dependent on the recipient's concurrence. Although they work on Finnish data, equivalent expressions are translated as "we could ...," "we should...," "what if we..." etc. They conclude that while both suggestions and proposals strive to

solidify a collective decision about a future plan, they differ in how they are received. Proposals are typically received in a way that anticipates individual approval, often expressed with agreeable responses (such as “That’s good.”) Conversely, suggestions tend to elicit reactions that signify information receipt tokens (I see) or compliance markers (Okay or All right). Consequently, it can be inferred that the subsequent course of action within a proposal is rendered contingent on the recipient’s endorsement.

In a rather closer setting to the current study, Stephenson (2020) explores the dynamics of peer interactions within group-based, task-oriented language assessments. In the context of such assessments, the author closely examines how examinees deploy directive sequences to shape the emergent conversational agenda, negotiate deontic rights, and respond to the subsequent imposed interactional obligations. Stephenson (2020) categorized the directives into two primary types: those accepted, endorsing the initiator’s deontic rights, and those rejected, circumventing the issuer’s deontic rights. His research unveils that the deontic strength of a directive could be softened through the speaker’s turn design. Directives indicating low entitlement (e.g., proposals, requests, suggestions) were frequently accepted, while high entitlement directives (e.g., need reports) were often rejected. The author also observes a nuanced deontic gradient in directive responses, suggesting that endorsement and rejection can offer varying degrees of deontic rights to the directive issuer.

2.4.1 Grammar of Proposals for Immediate Future Activities

The previously mentioned difference between suggestions and proposals are attributed to what Couper-Kuhlen (2014) argues as the agent of the referred action, (i.e., the person who supplies the “benefit” by doing the action, similar to Clayman and Heritage’s (2014) notion of “benefactor”), and the person who benefits from the action (i.e., the beneficiary). In her recent review of directive-commissive actions, including proposals, offers, requests, and suggestions in everyday face-to-face interactions, Couper-Kuhlen (2014) argues that proposals are different from the other actions because the benefactor and the beneficiary of the actions are both self (the person who utters the proposal, or the speaker) and the other (the person who will contribute or collaborate in doing the action, if shows endorsement, or the

hearer). Similarly to Goodwin's (1980, 1990) arguments on girls' directive sequences, Couper-Kuhlen (2014) argues that proposals contrast with other-directed actions such as offers or requests and provide a more symmetrical advocacy of joint action. The following table summarizes Couper-Kuhlen's framework related to directive-commissive actions:

Table 2.3 Distinctive dimensions of directive-commissive actions

	Agent of future action	Beneficiary of future action
Proposal	Self & Other	Self & Other
Offer	Self	Other
Request	Other	Self
Suggestion	Other	Other

Furthermore, Couper-Kuhlen (2014) acknowledges that social actions are multifaceted and intricate in nature. Consequently, it is important to note that numerous factors considerably influence action ascription, such as lexical choices, the sequential placement of a turn within the conversation, its association with broader projects and ongoing activities, and a myriad of additional situational elements. Despite the significance of these elements, she strongly posits that grammar plays a crucial role in shaping social interaction by offering recipients a basis for discerning the action initiated by a speaker. Furthermore, she contends that grammar facilitates this understanding early within the conversation, assisting recipients in formulating suitable responses.

Her overview of grammar structures that strongly indicate social action types are summarized in the following table: (see Couper-Kuhlen, 2014 p. 368 for the detailed version).

Table 2.4 Grammatical indicators of social actions

Structure	Request	Offer	Suggestion	Proposal
you should/ought to/have to/'d better X			6 (9%)	
I/we will X				9 (21%)
I would X			7 (11%)	
I/we can/could X				10 (24%)

I/we want/wish/need X	11 (13%)		
if you want/wish/need X		11 (17%)	
(you) X-IMP	35 (40%)		24 (38%)
don't (you) X	10 (11%)	9 (14%)	9 (14%)
will/would you X	11 (13%)		
can/could you X	7 (8%)		
do you need/want X		25 (38%)	
why don't you X		10 (15%)	4 (10%)
why don't I/we X			7 (17%)

Zinken and Ogiermann (2011) document the role of language specific grammar in formulating proposals and directives. Using video recordings of Polish families in domestic settings, the researchers analyze how the Polish impersonal modal declarative format “trzeba x” (“one needs to x”) is utilized in everyday tasks. They find that this grammatical construction is often employed by speakers to indicate an essential action for the progression of a broader ongoing activity, and thus enabling recipients to share responsibility. However, their focus is on more cross-linguistic comparison as they observe that these sequences are absent in English interactions. Their research potentially opens up a new direction for those interested in the correlation between language diversity and variations in human action and cognition.

Stivers and Sidnell (2016), explore the dynamics of joint activity proposals during children's unstructured play sessions. Grounded in conversation analysis, the study investigates the nature and function of two primary proposal formats - “Let's” and “How about”. The data for this study comprised video recordings from a university lab school, capturing around 40 hours of spontaneous play among children ranging in age from 4 to 8 years. The authors meticulously transcribed and analyzed these recordings, focusing particularly on instances of “Let's X “ and “How about X” that involved a proposal for an action or activity. Stivers and Sidnell's (2016) analysis reveals that “Let's X” is typically employed for introducing new activities that are unrelated to the current ones, while “How about” format is frequently used for suggesting minor modifications to ongoing activities. They note distinct patterns of body language, gaze, pitch, and prefaces associated with these two types of proposals. Importantly, the authors find that the stability of

these interaction practices allows speakers to subtly manipulate them for diverse communicative purposes. This suggests a high degree of reflexivity in the use of proposal formats. Furthermore, they underline that such manipulations require the interlocutors to share a common repertoire of practices. The study concludes by pointing out potential areas for future research, such as examining when children rely on proposals, requests, and activity initiations and investigating the usage of different proposal formats as children mature. This study provides invaluable insights into the complex dynamics of activity proposals among children, offering a critical lens through which to view their communicative practices and social interactions.

Thompson et al. (2021) conducted a study focusing on everyday face-to-face interactions among American English-speaking adults, specifically analyzing the usage of “Let’s,” “Why don’t we” , modal declaratives, and modal interrogatives. The authors argue that participants select among these grammatical formats based on their relative strength and the recipient’s inclination to accept the proposed activity. Their findings demonstrate that “Let’s” structures are employed when recipients have exhibited a strong willingness to engage with the suggested activity. On the other hand, modal declaratives are used when recipients have indicated a general disposition towards future joint activities without specifying a particular activity, unlike “Let’s” structures. Additionally, the authors suggest that modal declaratives may also arise after the recipients have taken a stance but encounter challenges in the process of continuing the agreed-upon joint activity. In conclusion, the authors argue that when proposing a joint activity, speakers pay attention to subtle variations in recipient dispositions, utilizing grammar as a means to achieve this. Thompson et al.’s (2021) study contributes to our understanding of how speakers strategically employ grammatical choices to navigate social interactions involving joint activities. Finally, the authors propose a cline representing the deontic strength of these four structures, which can be summarized in the following figure:

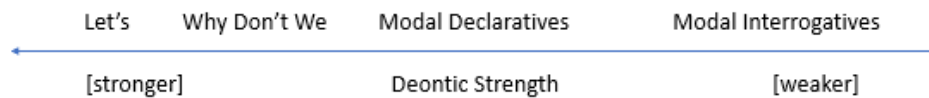


Figure 2.1 Deontic strength of proposals

Turning our attention to language learning environments, a substantial portion of conversation analytic research, both in traditional face-to-face settings and in technology-mediated contexts, is centered on the epistemic domain (Balaman & Sert, 2017b; Gablasova et al., 2017; Sert & Jacknick, 2015). This focus is to be expected as these environments often involve discussions around knowledge - who possesses what information, and so on. Prior studies on task-oriented video-mediated communication demonstrate that participants utilize a wide array of semiotic resources to accomplish tasks. These resources extend well beyond the basics of conducting web searches or visiting wiki pages, reaching into the interactive world of integrated text, audio, and video chat facilities offered by platforms such as Skype, Teams, Zoom etc. (Due & Licoppe, 2020). Earlier research has underscored the integral role of on-screen activities in online interactions. These activities serve as active semiotic resources, providing visual cues to facilitate shared understanding (Licoppe, 2017). Furthermore, the interfaces designed for these tasks play a significant role in orchestrating turn-allocation in these digital exchanges (Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b). However, it should be noted that the primary objective of these studies is to understand the role of video-mediated environments in the construction of knowledge, thus, they adopt an epistemic perspective.

In the domain of technology-mediated interaction research, the examination of social action formats in video-mediated environments represents a significant research gap. A notable exception is the work of (Balaman & Pekarek-Doehler, 2022; Pekarek-Doehler & Balaman, 2021), which examines the use of the social action format constructed in “let me X” formulations. Drawing upon Hoey’s (2022) study, which scrutinizes “let me x” formulation as a social action format enabling users to self-authorize an action in everyday face-to-face environments, Balaman and Pekarek-Doehler (2022) focus on how individuals navigate the challenges

presented in video-mediated interactions (VMI) within a complex digital-social ecology (Luff et al., 2003). Their work underscores participants' critical need to balance their attention between interacting with the other geographically remote participants and attending the on-screen information, e.g., when conducting online searches. Using data from task-oriented VMI, they illustrate how participants effectively employ "let me X/let's X" turn formats to convey their intention to momentarily disengage from the ongoing talk-in-interaction in order to focus on their on-screen tasks. The researchers contend that this practice serves as an efficient means of buying time, enabling participants to concentrate on their on-screen activities without disrupting the social dynamics of the interaction. In their longitudinal study, Pekarek-Doehler and Balamán (2021) further document how the speaker develops this practice over the course of four years as she elects several other verbal formats and settles on "let me X" format.

Within the context of video-mediated interaction, there appears to be a notable absence of studies focusing on the use of specific social action formats. While requests are extensively researched, particularly within the context of face-to-face communication within a variety of everyday and institutional settings (Eilola, 2023; Mondada, 2014; Rauniomaa & Keisanen, 2012; Raymond et al., 2021), other social actions, including proposals have largely remained under-researched. There are, however, notable exceptions to this trend in face-to-face contexts, also suggesting the need for broader scholarly attention in this area (Stephenson, 2020; Stivers & Sidnell, 2016). The hitherto limited attention to proposals could be attributed to their infrequent occurrence in everyday conversations. However, in educational contexts where planning and decision-making activities are abundant, proposals often hold a significant place.

Acknowledging the limited scope of studies focusing on proposals—both in face-to-face settings and in the context of directive-commissive actions in VMI interaction—the present study aims to fill this gap in literature. By focusing on proposing as a directive-commissive act, it sets out to document its occurrence as several specific grammatical social action formats within VMI interaction. The study aims to analyze how specific types of proposals—first person plural modal declaratives and let's proposals—function in propelling tasks forward, in

negotiating the interactional task agenda, and in engaging with screen-based resources and task documents. Furthermore, it seeks to understand their role in decision-making processes of quartet group interaction. This investigation, therefore, strives to enrich our understanding of an under-explored area, shedding new light on the intricate dynamics of interaction within VMI contexts.

2.5 Conclusion

This section aimed to situate the present study within the existing body of literature. In section 2.1., building on Chomsky's (1965) competence-performance distinction and transitioning into Hymes's (1972) communicative competence and other competency types in literature, the review highlighted the IC as a critical factor in effective language learning and its role in shaping SLA environments. It noted the contribution of CA in understanding and documenting IC, and underscored the role of interaction in SLA, particularly within technology-enhanced environments. Therefore, the review established the intent of the present study as to examine the interactional environment of proposing activities in a second language learning setting, focusing on emergent grammatical structures as mechanisms supporting this social action.

Section 2.2 discussed the interdisciplinary roots of SLA research, exploring its connection to various fields such as cognitive linguistics, generative linguistics, sociolinguistics, and sociocultural theory, each providing distinct perspectives on language learning processes. It then proposed an alternative way to look at learning environments in contrast to traditional SLA approaches, arguing their heavy reliance on etic theories in examining the complex, real-world interactions between learners, and thus neglecting the emic, participant-relative perspective to document co-construction of social actions, interactional unfolding of shared cognition, and the context-dependent nature of language use. It highlighted the groundbreaking work of Firth and Wagner (1997) in integrating CA with SLA, which challenged the perspective of second language learners as deficient communicators and instead emphasized the importance of naturally occurring conversations and emic perspectives for understanding language acquisition.

Section 2.3 explored TBLT and its implementation in the context of SLA. In its first subsection, namely Section 2.3.1, it discussed how task definitions and classifications have evolved, highlighting the shift in focus from task-as-workplan to task-as-process, emphasizing the importance of real-time classroom dynamics. Following this, Section 2.3.2 examined Task-Based Interaction research until its current state, critiquing previous research for its overemphasis on quantifiable outcomes, while advocating for an approach that pays attention to the quality and context of interactions, drawing on CA to provide a more comprehensive understanding of task-based interaction. Finally, the last subsection, Section 2.3.2 discussed the intersection of CALL and TBLT, emphasizing the need for a structured and theoretical approach to improve the effectiveness of language learning through technology. It reviewed the arguments of prominent scholars advocating for the integration of principles from TBLT into CALL, such as a focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner-centeredness, real-world connectivity (holism), and reflective learning. The section concluded with an argument that effective integration of TBLT and CALL can enhance each other, in turn, optimizing second language acquisition within technology-mediated task-based environments.

Section 2.4 introduced the concept of proposals as social actions, tying it to the innate human tendency for cooperation and language use. It underscored proposals' distinctive nature in the sense that they invite the recipient's agreement rather than imposing it. It then made a distinction between two main lines of research on proposals: those that examine the broad social function of proposals among other social actions without necessarily pinpointing specific grammar structures and other studies that take on more granular approach by focusing on specific linguistic patterns. Lastly, the section elaborated on recent studies demonstrating various dynamics and outcomes proposing in different social and institutional contexts, showing how deontic authority, entitlement, and face-saving play roles in the acceptance or rejection of proposals. The following subsection, namely, section 2.4.1. discussed how language structures such as proposals, offers, requests, and suggestions are used in social interactions in relation to grammar by reviewing Couper-Kuhlen's framework, focusing particularly on the roles of the benefactor and beneficiary in such interactions.

All in all, the review underscored the pivotal role that grammar plays in shaping social interactions, providing a review of existing research that examined the employment of grammatical structures in making proposals across various contexts, with a marked focus on face-to-face interactions. Lastly, Section 2.4.1. concluded by identifying a research gap regarding the use of proposals in educational video-mediated interactions and emphasized the importance of studying how grammatical formats are utilized as tools for social action in task-based discussions within educational settings and VMIs, to enhance our understanding of decision-making processes in task-oriented interaction.



3. METHODS

This chapter lays out the methodological grounds of the study. Section 3.1 covers the overall research design and the main basic principles of CA methodology. Following this, Section 3.2 explores the research context, including a detailed profile of the participants. Section 3.3. details the data collection procedures, elaborating on the design processes of the tasks and their applications, and the digital environment within which these tasks were performed. In Section 3.4, data transcription and analysis are described in detail. Section 3.5. covers the position of the researcher in the study. Lastly, by discussing the ethical guidelines followed while conducting the study, Section 3.6 concludes the methodology section.

3.1 Research Design

The present study is grounded in an ethnomethodological approach, using Conversation Analysis (CA) as its main methodological tool. Instead of imposing a preconceived theoretical framework, the study adopts an emic perspective, focusing on the participants' own understanding and experience of their social world. The data is explored line by line to uncover the micro-level interactional practices that participants employ in their language use.

3.1.1 Conversation Analysis

This section will outline Conversation Analysis (CA) as a research methodology to facilitate the collection of naturally occurring interactional data, the systematic examination of the data, and describing its organizational structure.

CA is a research methodology that focuses on the micro-level exploration of naturally occurring conversations. Its purpose is to “describe, analyze, and understand talk” as a fundamental and intrinsic characteristic of human social existence (Sidnell, 2010, p.1). As defined by Antaki (2011), CA provides an exhaustive analysis of language as it occurs within interactions, offering an analytic lens to understand the complexities of human communication. Emerging as a unique direction in sociology, CA draws inspiration from two key disciplines. The

first of these is Harold Garfinkel's work in ethnomethodology, which emphasizes the importance of "member's methods," the mechanisms individuals utilize to comprehend their social surroundings in everyday interactions (Garfinkel, 1967). The second foundation stone is Goffmanian sociology, a perspective centered on the presentation of "self" across a spectrum of everyday situations (Goffman, 1959, 1967).

Following the Goffmanian sociological and ethnomethodological traditions, Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson are acknowledged as the architects of this methodological approach (Sacks et al., 1974). Through detailed transcriptions and rigorous analyses, they developed the concept of "turn-taking" and various other systematic features of talk-in-interaction, offering an analytical framework to analyze what was previously deemed too chaotic to be systematically examined.

According to Sacks et al. (1974) and Seedhouse (2005a) the analysis of talk-in-interaction in CA is based on four main principles. The first principle posits that i) there is order at all points in interaction. Early approaches to linguistic studies, especially from the influence of Chomskyan linguistics in the 1960s, held the view that natural interaction was too chaotic to analyze effectively (ten Have, 2007). Unlike this approach, CA asserts that despite its complexities, interaction is "systematically organized, deeply ordered, and methodic" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.14). The second principle asserts that every utterance in interaction is both ii) context-shaped and context-renewing. The "context-shaped" part means that any given turn in a conversation must be understood within its specific context. The "context-renewing" aspect, moreover, signifies that each statement has the potential to influence the subsequent course of interaction. Therefore, participants design their turns based on their interpretation of the preceding turns. The third principle suggests that CA's analysis is iii) bottom-up and data-driven. That is, CA practitioners focus on the data devoid of any preconceived or theoretical assumptions. This includes approaching the data with an unmotivated perspective, suggesting an examination without pre-determined analytical objectives (Maynard, 2012; Schegloff, 1996). According to this principle, any assumptions should be

based on actual evidence from the recorded interactions, adhering to an emic or participant-relevant perspective. This approach allows the analyst to remain open to discovering new phenomena instead of simply searching for already recognized patterns (Psathas, 1990). Lastly, the fourth principle suggests that iv) “No order of detail can be dismissed, a priori, as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant” (Heritage, 1984, p. 241). This is to emphasize that small details, which might initially appear insignificant, may play a crucial role in shaping the progression of a conversation. To achieve such an objective, conversation analysts utilize meticulously transcribed video or audio recordings of naturally occurring interactions as their primary source of data. The transcripts of the recordings reflect micro-details such as conversational pauses, verbal and phonological details, and non-verbal actions.

Referring to the first principle, an intriguing question emerges as to how participants achieve an orderly, structured interactional organization. The CA research identified several mechanisms to answer this question. In their seminal study, Sacks et al. (1974) have revealed certain interactional structures that conversation analysts widely use to examine their data. These structures serve as tools used by the participants, guiding their responses and interpretations of each other's actions (Seedhouse, 2004). The following part of this section will touch upon four types of interactional organization identified in CA research: 1) turn-taking, (i.e., how participants know when to speak); 2) sequence organization, concerning how turns are connected; 3) overall structural organization, or how the conversation is arranged overall; and 4) repair, which deals with how participants handle misunderstandings or errors in conversation (Wong & Waring, 2010).

Turn-taking is a fundamental aspect of talk-in-interaction. To fully understand how turn-taking machinery operates, it is first necessary to identify several related concepts, such as turn constructional units (TCUs) and transition relevance points (TRPs). Sacks et al. (1974) argue that each turn is made up of TCUs. These are the smallest complete and meaningful units of talk, created by speakers using a variety of semiotic resources, both verbal and non-verbal. Unlike traditional language units like words, phrases, or sentences, which are often examined in isolation, TCUs are inherently context-sensitive and may encompass multiple modes of communication, including embodied ones. Within the ongoing

conversation, a piece of talk is recognized as a TCU when other participants perceive it as potentially complete at a specific point (Liddicoat, 2007).

The completion of each TCU introduces a transition relevance point (TRP), which marks a moment where a shift in speakership could potentially occur. The process of changing speakership is governed by specific rules related to turn allocation, as put forward by Sacks et al. (1974). Firstly, if the current speaker's turn is structured to nominate the next speaker, the chosen individual then earns the right to speak. Secondly, if the current speaker doesn't specify a successor, any participant has the opportunity to self-select and take their turn. Finally, if there's no self-selection, the current speaker may continue. As long as the same speaker continues, these turn-allocation rules are re-applied at each subsequent TRP until a speaker change takes place, ensuring a smooth and orderly flow in the conversation.

Conversational turns are built and completed in a sequential manner, each one contributing to a sequence of speech. These sequentially produced turns, at the same time, achieve social actions. Hence, social actions in a dialogue emerge sequentially along with their corresponding turns. A social action in a turn makes its adjacent turn conditionally relevant for another action (Schegloff, 1986). For instance, a greeting in one turn sets an expectation for a greeting in the next turn, a question asked in one turn makes an answer relevant in the next turn, etc. These paired turns are known as "adjacency pairs" (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Consequently, if the expected response in the second pair part (SPP) of the adjacency pair is missing, it denotes a "noticeable absence." When this happens, the owner of the first pair part (FPP) may infer a reason for this absence (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p. 45)

Within sequential unfolding of interaction, FPPs and SPPs that execute related actions (e.g., question-answer, request-granting, etc.) can be aided by additional auxiliary actions. In such scenarios, the FPP and SPP that carry out the principal action are termed as the "base adjacency pair." These helping actions (i.e., conversational expansions) can be incorporated before, in the middle of, or after these base adjacency pairs. Depending on their position within the dialogue, they

are classified as “pre-expansion,” “insert expansion,” and “post-expansion,” as represented in the given figure:

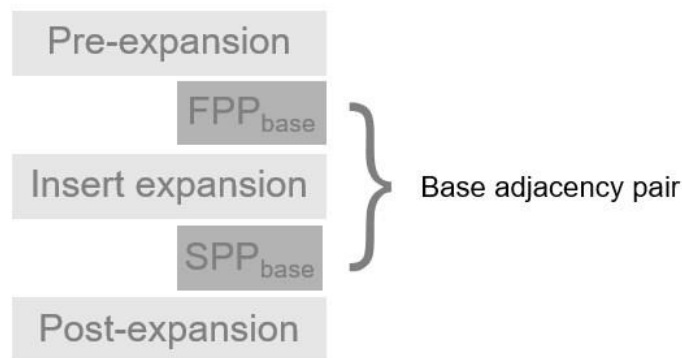


Figure 3-1 Sequence organization structure, adapted from Kendrick et al. (2020)

Thus, sequence organization mainly deals with the interconnectedness of turns and actions. On a broader level, more complex actions can be achieved through the combination of sequences (i.e., sequences of sequences). Similar to sequences of turns and actions, these nested sequences also unfold sequentially. These larger assemblies of intricate structures, which were referred to as “projects” by Schegloff (2007), constitute the overall structural organization aspect of CA.

Lastly, one crucial mechanism that deals with conversational troubles in conversation analytic research is repair. Repair is a comprehensive term that includes several mechanisms designed to address various kinds of problems in communication, which can manifest in speaking, hearing, or understanding processes (Schegloff et al., 1977). The essential function of repairs is to achieve intersubjectivity amongst participants and promote the progressivity of talk by rectifying the troubles that surface in talk-in-interaction.

Four principal repair practices, as delineated by Schegloff et al. (1977), are:

- i. Self-Initiated Self-Repair: The speaker identifies and corrects a problematic source within their own speech turn.
- ii. Other-Initiated Self-Repair: The recipient (or hearer) of the message signals a trouble in the speaker’s speech, and the speaker resolves it.

- iii. Self-Initiated Other Repair: The speaker recognizes and indicates a trouble, which is then resolved by the recipient.
- iv. Other-Initiated Other-Repair: The recipient not only points out but also resolves the problematic source.

CA research has shown robust growth since its early days, broadening its analytical scope to encompass everyday conversations in diverse social and institutional contexts. These range from interactions at suicide hotlines (Kevoe-Feldman & Iversen, 2022; Sacks, 1992) and legal spaces (Drew, 1992) to dialogues within medical settings (Maynard & Heritage, 2005), emergency call centers (Zimmerman, 1992) and family dinners (Mondada, 2009). A substantial portion of CA research has also been devoted to exploring face-to-face classroom interactions within educational settings, situating classroom interactional research as a distinct sub-field of institutional discourse (Huth, 2011; Jacknick, 2021; Sert, 2015). More recently, CA's application has extended to analyzing online interactions across varied modalities such as text-based audio or video chats (González-Lloret, 2011; Jenks, 2009; Jenks & Brandt, 2013; Tudini & Liddicoat, 2017). Such studies investigate various aspects such as turn-taking (Herring, 1999; McKinlay et al., 1994), repair strategies (Schönfeldt & Golato, 2003; Sharples, 1993; Tanskanen & Karhukorpi, 2008), and screen behaviors (Balaman & Pekarek-Doehler, 2022; Balaman & Sert, 2017a, 2017b). Notably, there has been a surge in literature investigating video-mediated interactions in educational settings using CA, a previously under-explored area (inter alia. Çimenli et al., 2022; Hampel & Stickler, 2012; Satar, 2016). This study aims to contribute to this line of research by concentrating on the relatively less-examined area of how educational tasks and task-talk are facilitated through the use of proposal structures.

3.2 Research Context

This study recruited 16 senior undergraduate students from the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of a university located in the Western Black Sea Region of Turkey. Admission to this program involves a rigorous selection process consisting of two staged central placement exams. The first exam (known as YGS or TYT) is an assessment of general aptitude, including disciplines such as

Turkish, mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry, history, and geography. The second, known as YKS-3 / LYS-5 or Foreign Language Test (YDT), is a language proficiency examination consisting of 80 multiple-choice questions centered on vocabulary and grammar knowledge, cloze questions, fill-in-the-blank questions, translation to mother tongue, and reading skills verification tasks such as checking paragraph coherence and completing dialogues. Notably, the YDT does not assess productive skills.

Upon enrollment, these students are further tested in the university's School of Foreign Languages. The exam made by the School of Foreign Languages maintains a similar emphasis on receptive skills as YDT, requiring students to achieve a score of at least %80 to proceed to the bachelor's program. Those scoring below this threshold are required to complete a one-year preparatory program. Therefore, it can be argued that the students already have quite high competence in their receiving skills. Once they start their education in the program, the ELT program itself is designed to enhance students' proficiency in all four language skills. The first year focuses on consolidating reading, writing, listening, and oral communication skills via dedicated courses. In their second year, students delve into specialized areas of English, including introductory courses on linguistics and English literature and methodological courses like theoretical approaches to second language teaching and Second Language Acquisition. The third year mainly comprises practical courses, such as teaching English to young learners, teaching language skills, and integrating literature into language teaching. The participants in this study, now in their senior year, have successfully completed three years of this comprehensive program. Despite their imminent transition into English teaching roles and their undeniably high degree of language competence, these students can still be regarded as advanced learners of English, especially considering that English is their second language. This claim can be based on several factors. Firstly, language learning is a lifelong, ever-evolving process. As such, these students continue to refine and adapt their English skills, both in formal educational settings and in everyday language use. Therefore, the transition from language learner to language teacher does not preclude the continuous learning of the English language. Moreover, advanced language learning involves more than

mere linguistic competence; it also encompasses pragmatic competence, intercultural competence, strategic competence, and other dimensions of language use. These competencies continue to develop even as the students approach the end of their formal education in English language teaching.

3.2.1 Participant Profiles

To form the participant group for this study, an open invitation was issued to senior undergraduate students of the English Language Teaching department, inviting them to participate in a series of four tasks in a technology-mediated environment. A total of 16 students volunteered to participate in response to this call. The ages of the participants ranged from 21 to 23. In total, 9 of the students were male, and the remaining seven were female. The participants were then requested to form four groups, each comprising four students. To facilitate this, a Google sheet was provided, allowing the participants to self-select their groups based on personal preference or mutual compatibility. As a result of this selection process, the groups were formed as follows: the first group was composed of CNB, NUR, MUS, and GOK; the second group comprised CAN, CUN, MUH, and ENS; the third group included AYS, CNS, BER, and UFK; and the final group consisted of SEV, TUR, YAV, and NID.

Upon the confirmation of the volunteer students' participation, an information session was conducted to provide the participants with a thorough understanding of the tasks they were set to undertake. This session served as an essential orientation, elucidating the nature of the tasks and what was expected of the participants. Additionally, during this session, written consent forms were distributed and collected, ensuring that all participants were fully aware of and agreed to the study's requirements. This process also provided an opportunity to discuss ethical considerations integral to the study, such as the security of the data collected and the confidentiality of participants' personal information. The participants were reassured that all data would be handled with the utmost discretion and that their personal identities would remain confidential throughout the study and in any subsequent publications.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection process for this study was conducted systematically over a six-week period. Before the data collection started, a week was dedicated to seeking approval from the ethics committee to ensure all aspects of the study were conducted within the appropriate ethical guidelines. Upon receiving the approval in the first week from Bolu Abant Izzet Baysal University Ethical Committee (see Appendix), a call for participants was issued to recruit senior English Language Teaching department students in the first week. The same week, the participants were selected among the volunteers to be enrolled in the study. In the second week, an informational meeting was held with the selected participants. During this meeting, the study's objectives, the nature of the tasks, and the expectations were explicitly communicated to the participants. This step also involved the distribution and collection of consent forms, establishing the participants' voluntary and informed agreement to partake in the study. The consent forms were carefully filed and archived, ensuring their confidentiality. The fourth week was dedicated to forming the groups and scheduling the task sessions. The formation of the groups was carried out independently by the participants, with each participant choosing their own group consisting of four members. Following this, each group was given the autonomy to select dates and times that were most suitable for them to complete their tasks, taking into consideration the availability of all their members. This procedure ensured maximum participation and a relaxed time schedule for each group to complete their tasks.

The execution of the tasks began in the fifth week, with each group completing the first two tasks in their scheduled sessions. This process continued until the end of the sixth week, when the groups completed the final two tasks. To further ensure the spontaneity and authenticity of the interactions, although all four tasks were hosted on a single website, each task was situated under a separate URL known only to the researcher. Participants did not receive these links to the tasks in advance of their meeting sessions. This decision was made to prevent any potential pre-planning or rehearsal of the tasks outside of the designated task-completion sessions. Upon the completion of the tasks, the researcher started the process of transcribing the recorded sessions in the seventh week. The transcription phase,

which extended well beyond the seventh week, was conducted verbatim first using the Jefferson transcription system (Jefferson, 1984). The product transcripts serve as the primary data source for the analysis conducted in this study. The following table provides a concise overview of the stages involved in the study's procedure.

Table 3.1 Timetable for the data collection procedure

Before the data collection	Application to the ethics committee
Week 1	Call for participant selection & Selection and recruitment of the participants
Week 2	Informative sessions and collection of the consent forms
Week 3	Forming the groups and scheduling the sessions
Week 4	Execution of Tasks 1 and 2 for all groups
Week 5	Execution of Tasks 3 and 4 for all groups
Week 6 & Beyond	Initiation of the orthographic transcriptions of the recordings by employing a rather flexible version of Jeffersonian transcription conventions (1984) (Appendix 1)

At the end of the sixth week, a corpus of advanced EFL learners' online synchronous video-mediated task interactions (VMIs) was compiled. According to Seedhouse (2004), a range of five to ten hours of classroom recordings can be considered as a benchmark for drawing meaningful conclusions based on the observed interactions for L2 classroom studies. In this study, the total duration of all sessions exceeded this measure; therefore, it can be stated that a robust corpus was compiled for analysis and interpretation. The extensive duration of the sessions, along with the diverse tasks undertaken by the participants, have facilitated a rich dataset that is expected to yield valuable insights into the nature of online synchronous VMIs among advanced EFL learners. The table presented below outlines the duration of the four task sessions completed by each participant group in this study. It showcases the time invested by each group in their respective sessions, with the cumulative time spent across all sessions and groups calculated in the "Total" row:

Table 3.2 Duration of recorded sessions

Week / Session		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
Week 1	Session 1	01:37:22	01:27:00	01:08:12	01:32:20
	Session 2	00:25:42	00:36:01	00:17:40	00:15:45
Week 2	Session 3	00:41:51*	00:19:59	00:31:20	00:21:01
	Session 4	00:44:11*	00:19:59	00:31:36	00:44:12
Subtotal		03:29:06	02:42:59	02:28:48	02:53:18
Total		11:34:11			

The task sessions were conducted via Zoom and recorded by the researcher. These recordings were securely stored on the researcher's local computer, ensuring data privacy and integrity. Despite occasional technical issues, such as difficulties in uploading PDF files to the system in the first task of the first group or the intermittent internet connection of some participants during the execution process of some tasks, the tasks were completed successfully and concluded with task achievement.

3.3.1 Task Design

In this study, various types of tasks were designed to stimulate interaction among the groups because the use of multiple task types may facilitate a more subtle investigation of the research questions. For one thing, the use of different task types provides an opportunity to examine how the interactional achievement of task progression and completion may vary across different task types and contexts. For another, this type of design choice may offer a richer combination of possible interactional patterns, allowing the researcher to observe a diverse range of communicative behaviors and strategies employed by the participants. Lastly, it can reveal the role of task type in shaping the interactional strategies and linguistic resources that participants draw upon. However, it is important to note that although several types of tasks were used in this study, the aim of the study is not to compare the interactional patterns between the emergent discourses from each task-type. Noting this, this section will elaborate on the task designs used in the study.

3.3.1.1 Task 1: Design and Execution of the Planning Task

The first task was designed as a collaborative planning activity aimed at eliciting language use in shared decision-making. The task involved filling out a travel itinerary PDF document. It was structured in three steps. First, the participants were asked to choose a location to visit among three options provided. Once the location was agreed upon, the participants were instructed to download a PDF file of the itinerary from the task interface. This itinerary was expected to be filled out collaboratively during the interaction, and upon task completion, uploaded back to the website. The task instructions emphasized the collaborative nature of the activity, encouraging participants to make decisions together. The participants were encouraged to use a variety of tools and resources available on the internet, without any restrictions imposed upon them. They were inspired to go out and explore real-world related information, such as official websites of places they were considering visiting or Google Maps to examine the proximity of these locations. This freedom to use additional resources mirrors real-world task conditions and strengthens the real-world connection of the task, which is deemed significant in TBLT research (Nunan, 2010). The itinerary, provided as a downloadable PDF document, consisted of several sections. For instance, participants were required to specify their trip dates and arrange departure and return transportation information, demanding them to explore actual flight, train, and bus schedules. They were also to identify at least two ‘must-see’ sites for each day and plan three meals per day, including the selection of dining venues and food choices for each participant. Moreover, the task involved choosing accommodation, requiring the provision of the hotel name, address, and cost of one-night accommodation. Lastly, participants were expected to calculate a rough budget for the trip, including ticket and accommodation costs for the entire group. This necessitated them to obtain the pricing information of their choices from the internet.

3.3.1.2 Task 2: Design and Execution of the Logical Puzzle Task

The second task was designed as a multi-way information gap activity in which participants were given individualized clues to solve a logical puzzle

collaboratively. To personalize each participant's clue, a login page was created. Upon logging in, each participant was presented with the same task instruction followed by a distinct, personalized clue related to the logical puzzle. The task required participants to verbally share their individual clues and collectively integrate the information to reach the correct solution. Below the task instruction, the task interface featured a task sheet for participants to record their deductions and make their selections from several drop-down lists. After submitting their choices by clicking on the submit button, participants received immediate feedback on the correctness of their solution. This logical puzzle task design was expected to foster a cooperative, problem-solving interaction, eliciting diverse language functions and revealing the participants' ability to navigate and negotiate the information-sharing process.

3.3.1.3 Task 3: Design and Execution of the Decision-Making Task

The third task was designed as a role-play activity, simulating a professional context to elicit complex, evaluative language and collaborative role-play interaction. Participants, positioned as experienced ELT teachers at a high school, were assigned the task of selecting a new English teacher from four applicants. The task was structured in three steps. First, participants were to download and examine the CVs of each candidate, which included detailed educational and work backgrounds. Second, participants were required to collaboratively select one teacher to employ at their school. This decision-making process involved discussing, comparing, and evaluating the merits of each candidate based on the information provided in the CVs. The task was designed to stimulate justification and shared decision-making in a role-play environment. The final step required participants to articulate their decision by filling in two text-box fields on the task interface. They were expected to state the name of the chosen applicant in the first field and provide their reasons for this choice in the second field. Overall, this decision-making task was designed to mirror a real-world professional scenario, providing rich data on the participants' interactional strategies and linguistic resources in a technology-mediated, task-based language learning context.

3.3.1.4 Task 4: Design and Execution of the Debate Task

The fourth task, designed as a debate activity, required participants to critically engage with the topic of education in Turkey. This task was structured to stimulate in-depth discussion, critical thinking, and collective decision-making among the participants. The task instruction prompted participants to first brainstorm and discuss the current problems in the Turkish education system, aiming to elicit a range of views and promote extensive dialogue. This stage of the task provided an opportunity for participants to share their perspectives and engage in open-ended, exploratory conversation. The second step required participants to collectively identify and prioritize the top five issues from their initial list. This stage of the task stimulated negotiation, decision-making, and justification of views as participants worked together to reach a consensus on the most critical issues. Finally, participants were asked to record their prioritized list of problems in five text boxes provided on the task interface and submit their responses.

3.3.2 Video-Mediated Interaction Environment

For this study, the chosen platform for facilitating and recording participant interactions was Zoom. The selection of Zoom was principally driven by its widespread use in Turkey during the pandemic-induced shift to online education. Given this context, the participants were already familiar with the Zoom interface, having extensively used it for their courses previously. Moreover, the researcher had prior experience with the platform, reinforcing its selection due to the pre-established familiarity. Along with familiarity, its user-friendly interface, offering simple controls for audio and video settings, allowed participants to engage with minimal technical disruptions. Furthermore, Zoom's screen-sharing feature was integral to the collaborative nature of the tasks. Importantly, the Zoom software has a feature that identifies and displays the active speaker, significantly simplifying the process of speaker identification during data analysis.

3.4 Transcription & Data Analysis

The study was conducted within a technology-mediated task-based learning environment, utilizing video-recorded interactions of sixteen participants divided into four groups, with each group completing four distinct tasks: a planning task, a

problem-solving task (a logical puzzle), a debate task, and a decision-making task. Recordings of these tasks served as the primary data.

Data transcription unfolded in several distinct phases. Initially, verbatim orthographic transcription was completed using the OTranscribe software. Upon completion of verbatim transcription, I engaged in an intensive familiarization process with the data. This involved repeated viewing of the video recordings and thorough examination of the orthographic transcriptions. Such repeated exposure facilitated the identification of recurring patterns and notable sequences of social actions. Furthermore, this phase also included the marking of participants' on-screen behaviors and their corresponding verbal descriptions and social actions within the transcript. At this point, it's crucial to note that the analytic foci were not pre-determined or finalized during the data collection phase. In line with established Conversation Analytic research methodologies (Stivers & Sidnell, 2012; ten Have, 2007), an initial stage of unmotivated looking was undertaken to identify potential patterns or points of interest emerging naturally from the data.

Upon thorough review of the data, it became apparent that proposals constituted a significant portion of the interaction, correlating strongly with on-screen activities. While other directive or performative structures such as requests and offers were present, they were notably less frequent. Actions typically expressed with "we" pronouns were also prevalent, aligning with Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) framework which categorizes directive-commissive actions based on their performing agents and potential beneficiaries.

Informed by Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) framework, directive-commissive acts were identified and used as a basis for mapping the entire task-interaction transcript. The table below provides examples of linguistic structures from the data that signify different social actions:

After these explorations, the focal structures were conclusively narrowed down to proposals. Within the linguistic constructs used to articulate proposals, three emerged as the most recurrent in the dataset. These structures were then

marked in the transcripts for an in-depth examination, enabling an understanding of their context of appearance and subsequently shaping the research questions. From the collections of these structures, several exemplars were chosen to typify their functions and the sequential environment of their occurrence.

The data analysis was conducted to stress an emic perspective by utilizing the interactional resources emergent from the data. The primary intent of the transcripts was to describe both the verbal discourse and the on-screen behavior of the participants in granular details. In pursuit of this, the transcription conventions proposed by Jefferson (1984) were applied to the selected extracts to illuminate the finer details of the interaction. For further depiction of on-screen behaviors, the transcription conventions outlined by Balaman (2019) were used.

Table 3.3 Transcription conventions for screen activities

Mark	Meaning
1#	Onset marker, indicates the beginning of the on-screen activity which continues until the offset point marker.
#1	Offset marker, marks the ending point of the on-screen activity.
1#...	Continuation marker, signifies the continuation of the on-screen activity.
Screenshots	Provide visual records of the participants' screens.
Circle	Marks the points on the screen where the participant holds the cursor still or clicks on.
Arrow	Denotes the direction of the cursor.
Descriptions	Unanalytical descriptions of the on-screen activities.

3.4.1 Selection of the Structures

While answering my first research question, given the centrality of language to the execution of social actions, I sought to identify the grammatical structures that serve as their linguistic vehicles. To this end, I concentrated on structures that are known to perform certain functions in conversation, such as making proposals, giving suggestions, making requests, and offering assistance. These included structures like “we can,” “let’s,” “do you need/want,” and “we should,” among others.

However, the aim was not to simply count instances of these structures but rather to identify their usage in the service of accomplishing social actions. Consequently, I applied a set of criteria for including or excluding instances of each structure. For instance, with “we will” or “we’ll,” I was specifically interested in its use as a tool for planning or deliberation about future actions. Therefore, I excluded formulaic instances such as “we’ll see” or “let’s see” which typically functions as a way of delaying a decision or expressing uncertainty, rather than committing to a future action. Likewise, I did not include instances where “we will” or “we can” appear in subordinate clauses (e.g., “so that we will...”), as these uses often serve different functions in the conversation. Similarly, the structures that stress the ability meaning of “we can,” (e.g., Can you see my screen? - Yes, we can) were omitted.

3.5 Researcher Positionality

Throughout the task execution process, the researcher was consistently present alongside the participants in all sessions, bearing the responsibility of recording the proceedings. It is crucial to note at this point that although the researcher was present for the purpose of recording the sessions, she did not partake in the interaction. Following a brief talk on task introduction and the provision of necessary links, the researcher kept her camera switched off throughout the entirety of the session. Only upon the students’ completion of the tasks did the researcher intervene again to stop the recordings. This ensured that the interaction between the

participants remained free from any conversational bias or influence that may be induced by the researcher intervention.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

The study followed standard ethical local guidelines of the ethics committee to which the thesis will be submitted. Upon the submission of the required documents related to the procedures of the research project at hand, and the data that will be collected, ethical clearance was granted from the committee with the protocol number 2021/421. Furthermore, to ensure full transparency and respect for participants' rights, consent forms were provided. These forms affirmed that: i) any recordings would solely be used for research purposes, ii) data access would be confined to those directly engaged in the research, iii) complete anonymity of participants would be maintained, iv) any information that could potentially identify the participants such as names and place names would be anonymized in the transcripts, and v) any visual content that could possibly risk exposing participants' identities would be blurred/edited. Once the participants were informed and agreed to these terms, they consented to take part in the study. To preserve their anonymity, pseudonyms replaced actual names in the transcripts.

4. RESULTS

This section presents the results of the study, with each subsection addressing a specific research question. Section 4.1. responds to the first research question, while Sections 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 address the second. The third question is addressed in Section 4.5. Finally, Section 4.6 provides a brief summary of the results.

4.1 Social Actions Formats

Table 4.1 Observed social action formats in the dataset

Format	Request	Offer	Suggestion	Proposal
you can/could			46	
you should/have to			5	
we should				146
we will / we'll				99
we need (to)	58			
we could				45
we can				261
let's				183
should we				20
do you need/want		9		
can you	54			
could you	3			
why don't you			1	
why don't we				4
how about/what about				39

Based on the analysis of the provided linguistic data, it is apparent that certain grammatical structures predominantly correspond with specific social actions within this context. The structures “you can/could” and “you should/have to” serve the function of making suggestions, indicated by their respective frequencies of 46 and 5. Meanwhile, “we should,” “we will/we'll,” “we could,” “we can,” “let's,” “should we,” “why don't we,” and “how about/what about” are primarily used for

making proposals, with frequencies of 146, 99, 45, 261, 183, 20, 4, and 39 respectively, showcasing the prominence of these structures in proposal-making. “we need (to),” “can you” and “could you” emerge as structures typically used for requests, as seen from their occurrence counts of 58, 54 and 3. The phrase “why don’t you” is found once, functioning as a suggestion. The structure “do you need/want” appears nine times in the context of an offer. The data overall indicates a strong preference for proposal-making structures, with fewer instances of suggestion and request forms.

Table 4.2 Ranking of the predominant proposal structures in the dataset

Format	<i>n</i>
we can	261
let’s	183
we should	146
we will / we’ll	99
we need (to)	58
how about/what about	39

Table 4.2 outlines the frequency of occurrence for several grammatical structures when used in the context of making proposals in the task interactions. The structure “we can” emerges as the most frequently used, with 261 instances. Following this, “let’s” is used 183 times, and “we should” is used 146 times. The structure “we will / we’ll” is also frequently used, with 99 instances recorded. The phrases “we need (to)” and “how about/what about” are used less frequently for making proposals, with 58 and 39 instances respectively. A shared feature among the most frequent proposal-making structures is the use of the collective pronoun “we,” suggesting a collaborative element in this context.

Table 4.3 Distribution of the “we can, let’s and we should” proposals among the tasks

Format	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Total
we can	200	11	9	41	261
let’s	125	23	28	7	183
we should	119	8	9	10	146

4.2 We Can

This section presents the detailed sequential examination of we can proposals by presenting three extracts. The first extract shows how these proposals are used in navigating various courses of action. The second explains their role as an endorsement mechanism. Lastly, the third extract portrays their use as a circumvention tool.

4.2.1 Navigating Potential Courses of Action

Extract 1 - Possibilities

1 CNB: what else can we do
2 (1.3)
3 near this place.
4 (1.7)
5 -> i think we can go to national 1# gallery?
6 (1.1) maybe? #1 (0.5) but it's going to (.)
7 close at (0.3) six.
8 (1.6) only in friday
9 (1.5) it's open [till:] nine
10 MUS: [hmm]
11 (2.1)
12 CNB: u:::::h
13 (3.1)
14 CNB: this one is too not open:::?
15 (3.7)
16 -> maybe we can spend time in the park.
17 -> (1.5) 2# this place #2 (1.2) we can wa:lk. taking-
18 -> ?maybe we can eat FOOD.
19 (1.2) having a lu- u:h lunch (.) maybe. (0.3)
20 lunch or dinner >i don't know<
21 MUS: .hhh \$d- dinner dinner\$ hahah .hhh

22 CNB: u:h- u:::h buraya breakfast yazmamiz gerekiyor
we need to write breakfast here

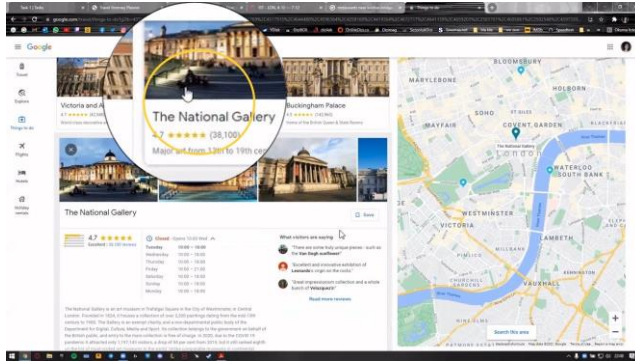


Figure 4-1 Screenshot 1

1# CNB moves his cursor to National Gallery from the map

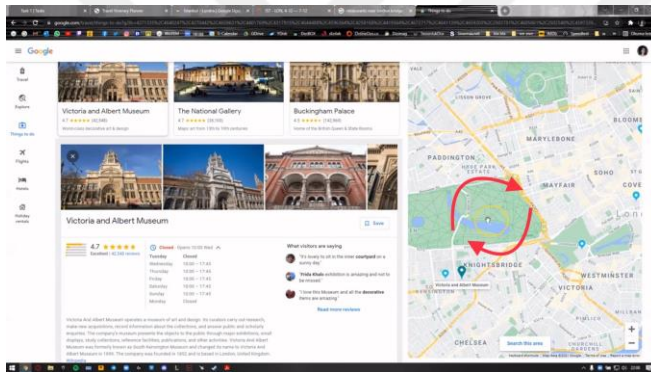


Figure 4-2 Screenshot 2

2# CNB draws circles around the park with the cursor

The extract commences with CNB issuing an open-ended inquiry about the upcoming activities in lines 1-3. Following 1.7 seconds of silence, CNB utters his first proposal, which is marked with a rising intonation, 1.1 seconds of pause, and two hedges: “I think” and “maybe” to visit the National Gallery in lines 5-7. In this turn, “maybe” serves as a mitigator of commitment to the proposed action while allowing room for negotiation or alternative suggestions, as the turn is also produced by “try-marking.” CNB then further marks his upcoming turn as contrastive by (but) and displays post-proposal uncertainty (Stevanovic, 2015) by mentioning the gallery’s operational days and hours (lines 6-9). MUS utters a listenership token and encourages continuation in line 10. Following a series of pauses, CNB continues to navigate on the screen and checks the operational hours

of various museums between lines 10-15. The talk during this time is filled with several pauses and a hesitation marker (u : : : : h). In line 16, CNB introduces another proposal with a “we can” structure, prefaced with a (maybe) hedge. After 1.5 seconds of silence, he circulates his cursor around the green area on the map (this place) and increments his previous proposal with another “we can” (we can walk). He then continues his turn (taking-) but abruptly cuts it off. Subsequently, he exchanges his turn into issuing another proposal with a “we can” in line 18. “Maybe” is again deployed in this turn, subsequently elaborated with alternative meal options, hinting at the speaker’s ongoing negotiation of the situation in lines 19-20. MUS’s response in line 21, accepts and selects one of the options offered by CNB. The topic is diverted by an abrupt topic shift by CNB’s utterance in line 22, which is a need statement pointing out that the breakfast part in the task sheet is missing.

Throughout the extract, it is observed that multiple proposals are articulated by a single speaker, that is, CNB, interspersed with several seconds of silence. The structure of these turns incorporates hedges which mitigate the assertiveness of the proposals. These turn designs foster collaborative construction of the impending activity by leaving room for inputs from other participants. As the conversation progresses, the focus shifts abruptly towards the task-specific need to include breakfast on the task sheet, which suggests that none of the earlier “we can” proposals had been responded to or oriented towards. This extract underscores the role of “we can” proposals as initiators of possible courses of action within the collaborative decision-making context.

4.2.2 Endorsing the Preceding Proposal

Extract 2 – What to eat

- 1 **SEV:** °okay:° for lunch (0.9)
- 2 **TUR:** 1# for [lunch]
- 3 **NID:** [lunch:]
- 4 (0.8) #1 (1.0)
- 5 **NID:** random coffee?

6 (1.1)

7 **TUR:** we didn't (0.2) wrote-(.) write it (0.3) did we? (0.8)

8 **NID:** we just==

9 **SEV:** =a random? (0.5) [we can make]

10 **NID:** [decide to go to] a random coffee.

11 (2.6)

12 **SEV:** maybe we just (0.3) get (0.3) um:::

13 (1.7) >like< bagels

14 (1.0) >was it bagels< ((inaudible))

15 **YAV:** maybe we can try >sum< (.) maybe

16 [we can just ea:t some cookies with coffee]

17 **TUR:** [((inaudible)) eat some street food]

18 (1.0)

19 **TUR:** or street food (0.5)

20 **NID:** um:: [street food]

21 **TUR:** [again?]

22 (2.5)

23 ->**YAV:** **yeah we >can< try street foods street foods yeah** (0.6)

24 **TUR:** hot dogs maybe

25 #2(2.3)

26 i'm not sure no:w \$huh hhh\$

27 (2.7)

28 \$we can try\$

29 (6.0)

30 **NID:** ahem

31 (2.2)

32 **SEV:** **2#** then i say hot dogs °for everyone°

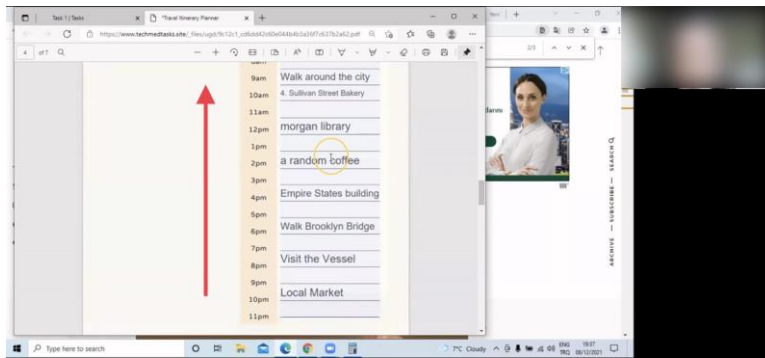


Figure 4-3 Screenshot 3

1# SEV scrolls up to the day 2 plan

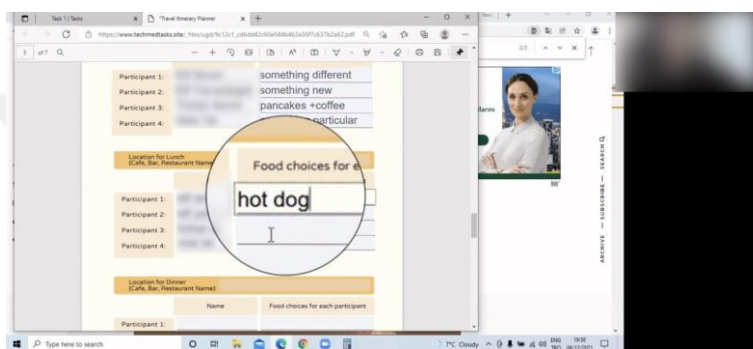


Figure 4-4 Screenshot 4

2# SEV types in “hot dog” for each participant

Initiating the conversation, SEV introduces the subsequent topic (line 1), which is echoed immediately by TUR and NID (lines 2 and 3, respectively). SEV then scrolls upwards on the screen to review the mid-day plan (#2). One second after SEV stops scrolling, NID alludes to their pre-noted activity on the task sheet, scheduled for 2 p.m. with rising intonation (line 5). After 1.1 seconds of silence, TUR takes the floor and expresses confusion and uncertainty with a tag question about whether a lunch plan was initially agreed upon or even recorded (line 7). In line 8, NID attempts to clarify by starting her turn with (we just-). This turn is latched by SEV’s turn in line 9, who first reiterates their previously written down statement with rising intonation (a random), and then she goes on to introduce a fresh proposal with a “we can” statement. Her proposition overlaps with NID’s attempt to complete her previous turn (line 10). Following the NID’s clarification in line 10, and 2.6 seconds of silence, SEV presents the rest of her proposal preceded by a hesitant “maybe,” which indicates a softer, less assertive proposal (lines 12-

14). She initiates a self-initiated repair in line 14, which doesn't draw any response from the participants. SEV's pattern of proposing is also followed by YAV, who uses "we can" in line 15 to suggest another alternative: eating some cookies with coffee. This overlaps with TUR's interjection of yet another option: street food (lines 16-17). A silence of a second is succeeded by TUR reasserting her proposed activity, emphasizing its potential as a choice. NID acknowledges the suggestion, signaled by (um:: [street food]) in line 20. TUR then increments her turn by uttering (again), alluding to a previous task conversation where street food was their chosen meal. After 2.5 seconds of silence, YAV's turn designed with "we can" leverages the previous proposal of street food. The use of "we can" here does not contain a hedge, and it serves as an endorsement of a previous proposal. Following a brief pause of 0.6 seconds, TUR narrows down the suggestion of "street food" to a more specific option, "hot dogs," in line 24. As SEV inputs the participants' names into the task document during lines 25-32, TUR expresses a post-proposal display of uncertainty that indicates less strong proximal deontic claim (Stevanovic, 2015) in line 26 but endorses her own proposal in line 28 (we can try). The extract concludes with SEV announcing the decision and typing it into the task document.

The extract provides an illustration of how a "we can" statement is used as an instrument for endorsing a preceding proposal. In this scenario, the "we can" utterance serves to bolster the legitimacy of the previous suggestion. The unfolding of the extract sheds light upon the impact of sequential placement on the functional dynamics of the turn. Subsequent to the affirmation via the "we can" endorsement, the conversational trajectory advances towards refining and building upon the agreed-upon proposition, finalizing the actualization of it. Therefore, this progression highlights the intricate interplay of proposing, endorsement, and actualization within the task dynamics. It is also worth noting that contrastingly to its use in line 23, the "we can" statements uttered prior to its role as an endorsement tool also operate as proposal devices, offering an array of potential actions for consideration. This supports the notion of the "we can" statement functioning as a mechanism for navigating prospective options, as also shown in the previous extract.

4.2.3 Shifting Action Trajectories

Extract 3 – Back to the hotel

1 CNB: what should we do in london.
2 (1.0)
3 british museum? 1#natural history museum? tower
4 of londo:n? (1.3).hhh um::: (0.6) victory museum?
5 national gallery? buckingham palace?1# 2#
6 (5.8) 2#
7 >so< they are quite close to us (0.6)
8 so i can say we can walk
9 (1.5)
10 and it would be much better if we walk
11 (2.3)
12 we can [see]
13 GOK: [by-]
14 CNB: uhm::: [the streets]
15 GOK: [by the way]
16 CNB: the- (0.6) views okay? (0.3)
17 GOK: by the way **maybe w- we can feel a little**
18 **bit tired after uh (.) flight and .hhh** (0.3)
19 **maybe we can (.) return the hotel and** (0.9)
20 **take a shower and (.) rest a little** (1.3)
21 CNB: okay (.) so you say after having breakfast
22 we should go to the hotel and take a showe:r
23 having [a nap]
24 GOK: [yeah] (0.5)
25 CNB: then going out (0.3)
26 GOK: huhuh (0.3)
27 CNB: okay? i'm good with it (0.6)
28 it's a good idea (4.4) how about you two

- 29 NUR? MUS?
- 10 (2.3)
- 31 CNB: okay NUR is okay with? it. MUS? (2.3)
- 32 MUS: a:lright (3.6)
- 33 CNB: so let's go back to hotel 3#...

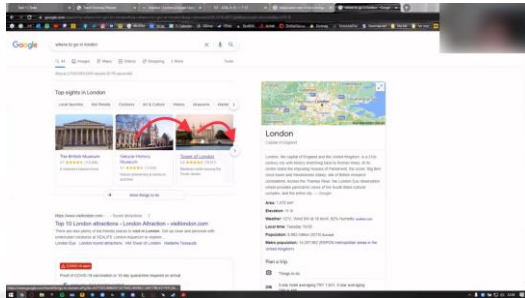


Figure 4-5 Screenshot 5

1# CNB navigates between the options as he lists them

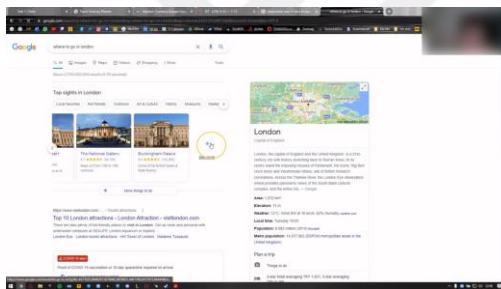


Figure 4-6 Screenshot 6

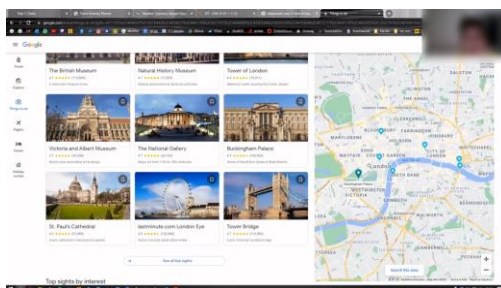


Figure 4-7 Screenshot 7

2# CNB clicks on “see more” and opens up amore detailed list along the map

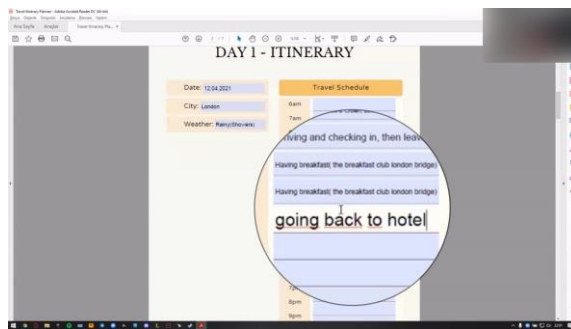


Figure 4-8 Screenshot 8

3# CNB types in “going to hotel” into the task sheet

Prior to the extract, NUR requests CNB to make a search on the internet regarding the potential places they may visit in London. The conversation in this extract begins with CNB announcing the topic of the upcoming talk. After 1 second of pause, he self-selects to continue his turn, listing a number of potential tourist spots in London that is visible on the screen (lines 2-4). Note that he constructs his turns by engaging with the screen. He then clicks on the detailed view option, and the map opens up on the screen. Subsequently, he accounts for the close proximity of these locations (line 7) and proposes that the group could walk to them (line 8). After 1.5 seconds of silence, he assesses the proposal he made in line 10 (*would be much better*). This “we can” formulation is introduced as a possible course of action and is strengthened by several accounts of the same type (lines 13, 14, and 16). Note that the design of CNB’s turns aim to maximize the benefits (Clayman & Heritage, 2014) of taking such an action for the group as they would be able to see the views and the city if they walk around to the target touristic areas. The “we can” proposition that serves as an account is momentarily interrupted by GOK in lines 13 and 15, with a turn-initial “by the way” to introduce a contrasting idea in line 17-20. Here, he initially accounts for his upcoming idea (lines 17,18) and proposes a different course of action: returning to the hotel for a rest. This new proposal, framed with “we can,” is indicative of an alternative way to shape their itinerary, hinting at its flexibility and open for group consensus. GOK’s suggestion is acknowledged by CNB in line 21-25 with a summarizing paraphrase, which also serves as a request for confirmation. The confirmation from GOK surfaces in lines 24 and 26. In line 27, CNB further reassures his acknowledgment of the proposal. The rest of the conversation features CNB gaining affirmation from the other group

members about GOK's proposal. Thus, the "we can" structure has initiated a new trajectory for the group's plans. Finally, in line 32, CNB ends the discussion with a decisive "let's" turn, echoing GOK's earlier suggestion and marking the transition to the next phase of the group's planning process.

This extract offers an illustration of how the expression "we can" is leveraged as a strategic tool for circumventing the group's projected course of action (visiting touristic places) into a new course (returning to the hotel). The proposal here plays an integral role in collective decision-making and guiding the group discourse. The expression does not serve as an outright rejection, instead, it subtly reroutes the proposed course into a new direction. This is achieved with a tactful construction of the turn design using hedges and an account. Furthermore, the extract also highlights an unfolding sequence of agreement solicitation following the proposal. Rather than presuming acquiescence, explicit agreement is sought from all group members. This emphasizes the co-constructed nature of their decision-making process and validates the shared ownership of the decision. Upon the interactionally co-constructed affirmation of the proposal, the suggestion is reiterated, and the action is finalized, but this time employing a proposition with a stronger deontic strength—"let's".

4.3 We Should

This section presents detailed analyses of "we should" proposals. This format will be examined through five representative extracts. The first extract shows that it initiates an action as an idea which is then endorsed and actualized. The second extract depicts its function as an endorsement tool. The third extract emphasizes its role in advancing the task forward on top of an endorsement strategy. Lastly, the fourth and fifth extracts will portray that these proposals are also used to address the problems that inhibit the task process.

4.3.1 Introducing an Onset

Extract 4 - Buckingham Palace

- 1 **BER:** where should we go:. (.) >on the< fi:rst day.
- 2 ((gulps)) (1.1) what should we do. (.)
- 3 -> ?i think we should visit the buckingham palace.

4 (0.8)

5 CNS: yes definitely.

6 (0.7)

7 AYS: yes (0.2) (??)

8 BER: i- it's our fi:rst day we: need to respect (0.8)

9 the culture. (0.8) so why? not go buckingham palace.

10 really

11 CNS: yes. let's go there (0.5)

12 BER: 1#°<uh let's go:>° #1 oh how [do you]

13 CNS: [bucking]ham palace

14 BER: pro2#nounce buckingham palace- spell sorry

15 (1.0)

16 u::h >hold on< (0.9) there was(1.1) #2 ((sniffs))

17 (1.1) buckingham

18 CNS: °buckingham° palace

19 (2.0) 3# (1.6)

20 BER: oh uhhh \$why can't i\$

21 CNS: hahah .hhh

22 BER: \$.hhhh that's\$ #3

23 AYS: i don't know haha

24 BER: thi- this one is correct right?

25 CNS: yes it's it-s correct I guess

26 BER: okay (.)

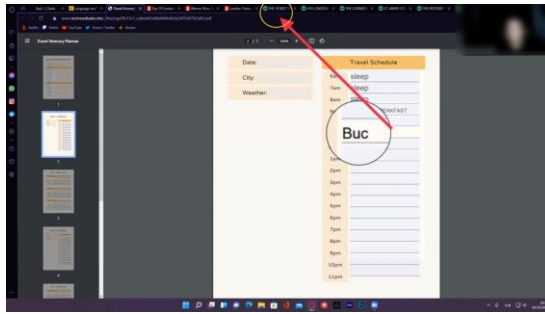


Figure 4-9 Screenshot 9

1# BER types “Buc” to the task sheet

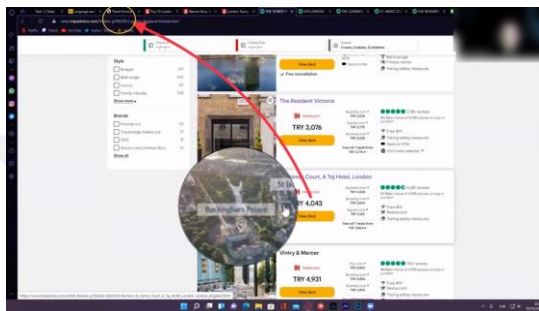


Figure 4-10 Screenshot 10

2# BER navigates through the tabs to find the spelling of “Buckingham,” locates it, holds the cursor still on the spelling

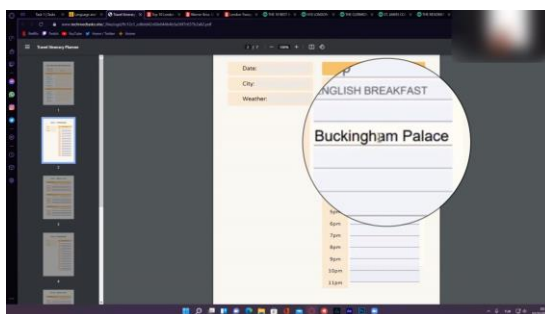


Figure 4-11 Screenshot 11

3# BER returns to the task sheet and types in “Buckingham Palace”

The extract begins with BER posing two successive wh-questions, the first one making a place reference and the second one making an action relevant (Koshik, 2015). In line 3, BER self-selects to respond to his own proposal with a “we should” type-conforming answer, suggesting a potential location, specifically, Buckingham Palace. A silence of 0.8 seconds follows this proposal, which is subsequently met with an agreement token from CNS. After a further 0.7 seconds

of silence, AYS also utters an agreement token. Between lines 8-10, BER solidifies his proposal with an account formulated as a need-statement (we need to respect the culture) and reformulates the same proposal with another structure (why not) . In line 11, CNS further highlights her alignment, this time combined with a “let’s” utterance. In line 12, BER echoes another “let’s” utterance, followed by the screen activity of typing the initial letters of Buckingham Palace, “Buc” into the task sheet. He then positions himself epistemically K- with a how question (Heritage, 2012a, 2012b) and initiates a screen search activity in lines 12-14 with a self-initiated self-repair, that continues until line 16. The screen activity showcases a series of tab-switches synchronically taking place with several seconds of silence, a hesitation marker, a wait request, and an incomplete utterance (lines 14-16). BER then locates and holds the cursor still right on the spelling in line 16. Right after this, he returns to the task sheet (#3, lines 17-18), and attempts to type “Buckingham Palace” into the task sheet (#4, lines 19-22). His initial shot ends up with a misspelling, which is responded to by a wh- question as a self-challenge in smiley-voice (Koshik, 2003) and laughter from CNS (lines 20,21). He then poses a confirmation request in lines (22-24), which is subsequently met with an alignment by CNS in line 25. The sequence closes with BER’s acknowledgment token in line 26.

This extract serves as an example of a proposal that introduces a new course of action with a “we should” directive. The proposal surfaces in the second position as a response to a wh-question, which initiates a topic shift. Prior to this idea, there is no discussion pertaining to the subsequent action within the dialogue. Note that the let’s sequences in lines 11 and 12 are uttered after the initial proposal made with “we should”. This will be further elaborated in section covering “let’s” proposals.

4.3.2 Endorsing the Preceding Proposal

Extract 5 – Ending the day

- 1 **CAN:** [i think] that’s the end of the day. (0.2) because
- 2 we’re gonna ea:t we’re gonna just (0.6) cha:t (.) we’ll
- 3 drink somethin’ (0.2) .hh and after >like<

4 ten p.m? (.) we have to sleep? (0.3) so:=

5 **ENS:** =yeah

6 **CAN:** so that we can just (0.3) stay up in the mornin’?

7 (0.8) a:nd (0.2) travel again

8 (1.0)

9 **ENS:** yeah that’s- that’s (0.2) a good idea

10 -> **we should (0.5) start to retreat now? (0.3)**

11 an:d (0.6) go- go to our hotel? (0.7) or

12 u:h an airbnb

 ((lines omitted))

26 **MUH:** yeah yeah (.) we are- we are too (0.5) tired (0.6)

27 i guess (0.5) >at the end of the day< (0.7)

28 **ENS:** yeah (0.3)

29 **MUH:** we-

30 (7.0)

31 just just u::h accommodation **1#**(0.4) maybe?

32 (5.0)

33 or ju- just hotels **#1** (.) maybe you can write

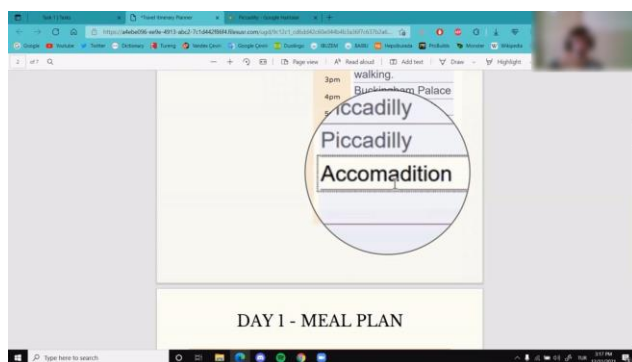


Figure 4-12 Screenshot 12

1# CUN enters “Accomadition” into the task sheet

Having already planned their travel itinerary from 10 a.m. to 8 p.m. prior to the second extract, the group now discusses the remainder of the evening. The extract initiates with CAN’s announcement, marking the closure of the day as the final activity. He outlines a series of activities, eating, chatting, drinking– and

provides an account for his suggestion of winding down the day in lines 2-7, emphasizing the necessity to rejuvenate for the upcoming day. This proposition is met with compliance in an intra-turn position by ENS in line 5. After a one-second pause in line 8, ENS complies and positively assesses CAN's announcement in line 9. Following the assessment, ENS endorses CAN's idea with a "we should" prefaced proposal and introduces a continuation marker (Nevile, 2006), suggesting potential locations for the end of the day. ENS's further substantiation in the following lines until 26 is omitted due to space concerns. In lines 26-27, MUH also aligns with CAN and ENS's prior talk and accounts for the group's state of need to rest. After ENS affiliation with MUH in line 28, MUH seizes the floor but cuts off his turn mid-way, giving way to 7 seconds of silence. During the first 6 seconds, CUN maneuvers between various tabs and finally returns back to the task sheet and clicks on the textbox (#1, line 30). After one second of silence, MUH suggests two candidate options concerning the task sheet's content in lines 31-33 interspersed with hedges and 5 seconds of silence. Before MUH completes turn in line 31, CUN begins typing "Accommodation" into the task sheet.

In this extract, the role of the "we should" prefaced utterance by ENS becomes evident as it operates as an endorsement of CAN's initial proposal. The "we should" statement propels the conversation forward, reaffirming the necessity of the suggested course of action. Later, the non-verbal, screen-based activity performed by CUN is witnessed as a step towards actualizing CAN's proposal. This reflects the co-constructive role of the "we should" prefaced utterance in transitioning abstract ideas into concrete and actionable plans. All in all, the extract underscores the potent function of the "we should" statement in shaping the task agenda by signaling endorsement.

4.3.3 Endorsing and Advancing the Preceding Proposal

Extract 6 - Airport

- 1 **CUN:** so u:h return info °i need°
- 2 **CAN:** we are gonna return from?-
- 3 (2.3)
- 4 probably (0.3) s:- some (.) airpo:rt (0.2)

5 near (.) cambridge **1#**(1.8)

6 if it **#1**exists?

7 (2.3)

8 heathrow and gatwick (0.2)

9 **MUH:** yeah ((>i think<)) **we should (.) pick heathrow**

10 (1.3)

11 it is closer **2#**(2.2) **#2**

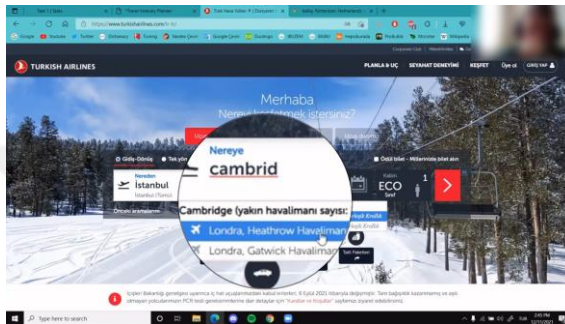


Figure 4-13 Screenshot 13

1# CUN types “cambrid” into the destination textbox and lists the airports

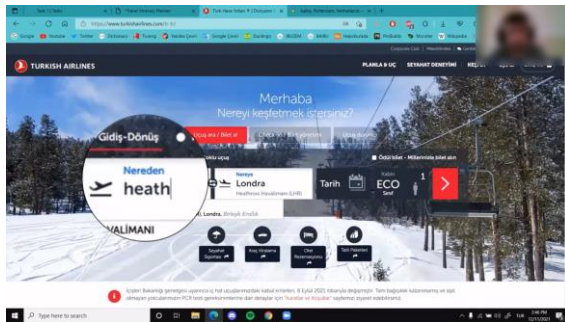


Figure 4-14 Screenshot 14

2# CUN types “heathro” into the departure textbox

The extract initiates with CUN’s so-formulation which serves as a topic structuring device indicating the forthcoming talk will be about the return information. He then structures a need statement to recruit help from the rest of the group (Kendrick & Drew, 2016). In line 2, CAN takes the floor and cuts his own turn abruptly after (from?-) creating an interactional space of a TRP of 2.3 seconds. He then continues to his previous turn in line 4 by presenting a potential

return location, with multiple pauses and hesitations in their utterance (probably (0.3) s:- some (.) airpo:rt (0.2) near (.) cambridge), followed by another turn that marks uncertainty of his previous guess in line 6. Right after CAN utters cambridge in line 5, CUN types “cambridg” into the destination. As a result, the airports near cambridge are listed visibly on the screen. After a 2.3-second pause, presumably used to review the listed airports, CAN repeats the list verbally in line 8. MUH’s next utterance, (yeah ((>i think<)) we should (.) pick heathrow), shows agreement to CAN and the “we should” proposal is in this instance used to construct another proposal onto the previous one and choose the closer option from the available list. Therefore, this utterance serves to both validate the preference for departing from an airport near Cambridge and specifies the next steps to take the closer one. After 1.3 seconds of silence, MUH provides a justification or an account for his choice. Following the justification, CUN types “heathro” into the textbox and chooses it.

This extract demonstrates the deployment of a “we should” statement serving as not only an endorsement of the preceding proposal but also advancing it forward. Therefore, it offers a vivid illustration of task co-construction occurring in real-time.

4.3.4 Problem Solving

4.3.4.1 Rectifying a Previous Action

Extract 7 – Ticket Cost

- 1 **TUR:** 1# #1°total ticket cost°
- 2 (2.2)
- 3 **TUR:** 2# it’s for each of us (0.3) I guess #2 (0.2)
- 4 **NID:** for four of you (0.5) uuh it said (0.3)
- 5 **SEV:** so-
- 6 -> **TUR:** i think we should write (0.2) the whole to- total
- 7 (0.3) uh price for the=
- 8 **NID:** =mhm=

9 **TUR:** =the first one a:nd the second one too
 10 **SEV:** do we have to do the math?
 11 (2.1)
 12 **TUR:** it's written for four of you here.
 13 (0.3)
 14 **NID:** i'm making it u::h=
 15 **YAV:** =i- i'm going to- i'm going to cal[culate]
 16 **NID:** [>i'm goin-<] mhm
 17 (1.0)
 18 **SEV:** 3#[yeah or (.) i can use the calculator]
 19 **TUR:** [it's not a big deal i guess we] can do it \$huh\$
 20 (0.8)
 21 **YAV:** so ?i'm going to write on chatbox i- i did
 22 by the way (0.9)
 23 **TUR:** okay
 24 (1.4)
 25 **SEV:** what?
 26 (1.0)
 27 **NID:** [thirty]
 28 **YAV:** [i] multiplied it (0.5)
 29 **NID:** thirthy eight thousand? (0.4)
 30 four hun[dred (.) thirty six
 31 **TUR:** [YAV- YAV] ha:s
 32 **SEV:** [(inaudible) because] i can't hear clearly (0.3) 3#
 33 **NID:** okay
 34 **TUR:** YAV has just written it [in the chatbox]
 35 **NID:** [YAV- uh yeah] YAV wrote: 4#
 36 (1.2)

37 YAV: #4 >alright< that's alright

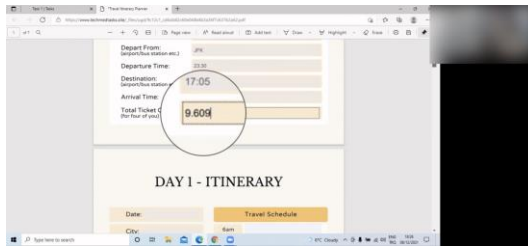


Figure 4-15 Screenshot 15

1# SEV pastes the ticket cost (9609) for one person into the task document

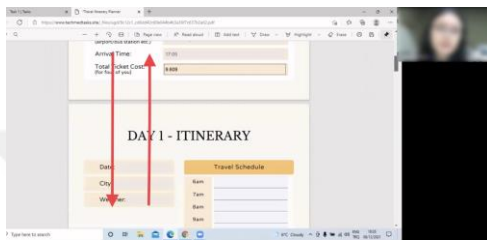


Figure 4-16 Screenshot 16

2# SEV scrolls down and then up right after TUR's turn in line 3

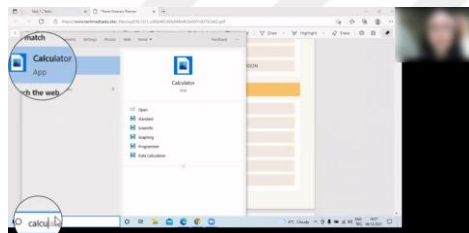


Figure 4-17 Screenshot 17

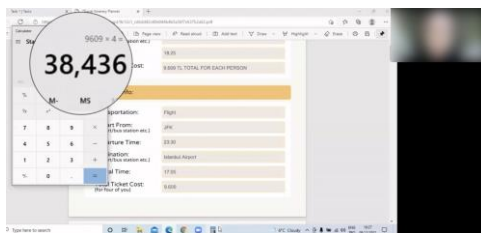


Figure 4-18 Screenshot 18

3# SEV types "calcu" into the search bar and then multiplies the result

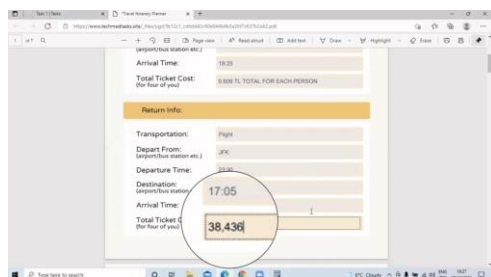


Figure 4-19 Screenshot 19

4# SEV copies and pastes the result of the multiplication (38,436) into the task sheet

The fourth extract begins with SEV pasting the price of one ticket into the total ticket cost input box on the task sheet. In line 1, TUR announces the activity in progress verbally, which establishes the topic of the upcoming talk. After 2.2 seconds of silence, during which SEV scrolls down to continue with the next part of the sheet, TUR's turn, designed with a hedge, indicates problematization about SEV's previous action in line 3. This is an other-initiated other repair that aims to address the problematic action. NID further clarifies the number of people the cost is associated with, referring to the task document in line 4. SEV then takes the next turn but cuts it off mid-way (so-). In lines 6-9, TUR formulates a "we should" prefaced proposal that makes explicit how to fix her initial problematization with a hedge. This is met with a latched agreement by NID in intra-turn position. SEV's interrogative formulation in line 10 potentially seeks confirmation on the proposed course of action. After 2.1 seconds of silence, TUR reverts to the task document and delineates the task requirements. This is followed by an offer from NID and YAV in lines 14 and 15 regarding making the calculation. After 1 second of silence, SEV acknowledges the offers with a pro-forma alignment, but does not affiliate with them; instead, she utters another offer (or i can use the calculator) to complete the action herself. This turn is overlapped with TUR's turn which minimizes the seriousness of the problem and their ability to overcome it (line 19). YAV further offers to supply the required information on the chatbox, which she confirms to have done in lines 21-22. TUR responds to this turn with an information receipt token, and SEV initiates an other-initiated self-repair (what) due to the technical difficulties, which she finally makes explicit later in line 32. YAV's endeavor to resolve the repair sequence is initially overlapped with NID's

explicit revelation of the answer (lines 27-28), NID subsequently reiterates her turn in lines 29-30 and explicitly vocalizes the answer. TUR further points out YAV's action in line 31, however, this is overlapped with SEV's problematization of technical difficulties. NID responds to SEV's problematization with an information receipt token, TUR initiates another attempt to continue with her previously overlapped turn in line 34 to point out that the answer is written in the chatbox. NID utters an agreement token and displays alignment to the previous turn in line 35. SEV then copies and pastes the calculation result into the textbox, as shown in the transcript. The sequence closes with an (alright) from YAV in line 37.

In this conversational extract, we observe an intricate interplay of collaborative problem-solving and strategic negotiation through the use of a "we should" preface. Here, this directive aims to correct the previous action - in this case, SEV's entry of a single-person ticket cost. Positioned immediately following an explicit problematization, the "we should" proposition provides a solution-oriented trajectory for the upcoming talk, transforming the identified issue into a cooperative call-to-action. Resistance to this proposed solution, as seen in SEV's turn in line 10, prompts further negotiation in the form of justifications or accounts, underscoring the group's commitment to shared task responsibility. As the conversation unfurls, we witness the realization of the initial "we should" directive. This extract offers an example of how problem-solving unfolds in task-oriented interaction.

4.3.4.2 Resolving Trouble in Task Progression by Shifting The Trajectory

Extract 8 - Start from the beginning

- 1 **MUH:** so (1.7) oh we- we figured? it out.
- 2 (2.5)
- 3 **MUH:** [(??)]
- 4 **CAN:** [let me ask] let me ask somethin' (0.7)
- 5 **MUH:** [(??)]
- 6 **CAN:** [whe:re] where is the blackmailer
- 7 (1.3)

8 **MUH:** >i don't know<
 9 (1.9)
 10 **CUN:** hhh (0.3)
 11 **ENS:** blackmailer is not on the (.) ground floor
 12 **CAN:** the blackmailer is in [the cell]
 13 **MUH:** [yeah i know]
 14 **CAN:** directly above tommy culprit
 15 (1.6)
 16 **CUN:** o zaman (0.2) second f[loor? o-
 then (0.2) second f[loor? o-
 17 **CAN:** [cannot? be on the ground floor. (0.6)
 18 **ENS:** oh
 19 (5.2)
 20 **MUH:** [\$so\$]
 21 **CUN:** [\$hhh] **i think we should start from hhh**
 22 **beginning hahah (0.6)**
 23 **MUH:** does (0.3) anyone ha:ve a clue (0.4)
 24 that says (.) tommy culprit is (0.3)
 25 in the first floor? (0.5)
 26 **CUN:** no
 27 (1.0)
 28 i don't have
 29 (3.0)
 30 **MUH:** so why did we put it
 31 **CAN:** i just can say that the: blackmailer
 32 cannot be in the glo- (.) the:
 33 >ground floor< (3.2)
 34 **CUN:** yes >blackmailer< must be some(.)where else
 35 (2.5)
 36 **i think we should start from the beginning (0.2) yes**

37 (1.0) .hhh

38 ENS: [okay

39 MUH: [(??)] everything (.) i'll

40 CUN: [ef-] (0.2) \$refresh the page\$.hhh

41 MUH: **1#** i'll refresh the page (.) okay **#1**

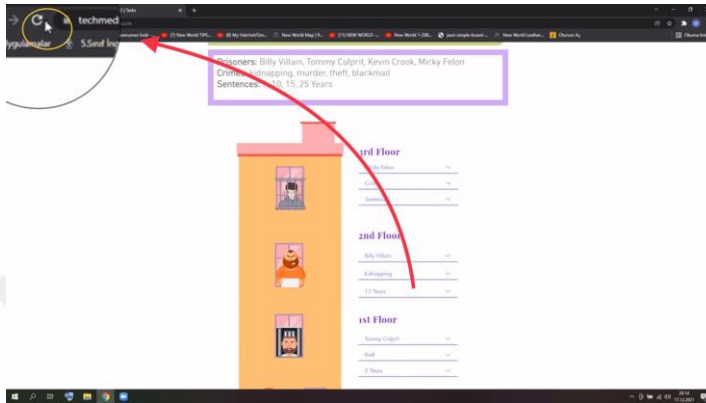


Figure 4-20 Screenshot 20

1# MUH refreshes the page

This extract is derived from the second task, designed to center on a problem-solving mission. It begins with MUH's so-prefaced statement that announces the group has resolved the puzzle (line 1), followed by a substantial pause of 2.5 seconds (line 2). After an inaudible turn by MUH, CAN subsequently initiates a pre-sequence, signaled by (let me ask somethin') (line 4), and then reveals the base sequence in line 6, which questions the placement of the blackmailer. As CAN later reveals, this question emerges due to a perceived contradiction with the clue he possesses (lines 12-14). MUH responds with a claim of insufficient knowledge (Sert & Walsh, 2013) to this question-formulated problematization (line 8). Thereafter, ENS further points out the impossibility of the blackmailer being on the ground floor (line 11). CUN attempts to suggest an alternative solution, but this proposition overlapped by CAN's reiteration of the constraints on the blackmailer's potential whereabouts (lines 16-17). ENS then articulates a change-of-state token (line 18). A 5.2-second silence ensues, eventually disrupted by MUH initiating a new sequence with a so-preface (line 20), which overlaps with CUN's "we should" proposal to begin afresh (lines 21-22). MUH then solicits confirmation about the existence of a clue implying the character

Tommy Culprit is on the first floor (lines 23-25), only to receive a negative response from CUN (lines 26-28). Following 3 seconds of silence, MUH subsequently poses a question that exposes the group's confusion over their previous determination (line 30). CAN reaffirms his previous statement about the blackmailer's location based on the clue he possesses, which problematizes the current solution (lines 31-33). CUN displays agreement with this assertion (line 34) and again repeats his "we should" proposal to restart the process (line 36). This proposition is aligned by ENS and MUH, and results in group consensus to refresh the page (lines 38, 40-41).

The extract illuminates the instrumental role of a "we should" proposal within a problem-solving case. The current solution devised by the group is in contradiction with the clues held by the participants, hence impeding the resolution of the problem. The proposal put forth by CUN acts as an intervention to this predicament, suggesting a course of action that projects to restart their efforts in finding a solution. The proposal, therefore, frames a pathway for the group to move forward. Towards the end of the extract, we see that CUN's suggestion gains acceptance and is subsequently enacted. All in all, the extract demonstrates how, emerging in response to a problematic state, these "we should" proposals function as instrumental tools to suggest a pathway out of the deadlock. In doing so, they play an important role in directing the group's decision-making processes.

4.4 Let's

4.4.1 Introducing an Onset

Extract 9 – The next agenda

- 1 **MUH:** >okay< so we picked our:: city (0.3) we:: (0.5)
- 2 all want to go (1.0) >to the london<
- 3 (2.5)
- 4 u:::h (0.4)
- 5 **CAN:** let's make our ?plans. (.) >what we're gonna<
- 6 do there
- 7 (2.7)
- 8 **ENS:** yeah okay? u::h
- 9 (1.3)

10 so what's (0.6) we have to what- what do we
 11 have to fill out first (.) u:h (.)
 12 transportation. (.) and how do we (0.3) get [to london]
 13 **MUH:** [actually] we need- we need departure date (.)
 14 and return date

The extract begins with MUH's announcement of the group's progress (lines 1-2), highlighting the group's collective decision to visit London. After 2.5 seconds of silence (line 3), and a hesitation marker (line 4), CAN interjects with a directive packaged as a "let's" proposal (line 5). By articulating "let's make our plans," he swiftly initiates a new action sequence that relates to an obvious task requirement - planning for their London trip. After 2.7 seconds of silence (line 7), ENS expresses confirmation with an alignment marker followed by a hesitation marker (line 8), indicating his agreement with CAN's proposal and readiness to proceed with the planning task. After 1.3 seconds of pause, ENS again self-selects to clarify the next step aligned with CAN's proposal, inviting the group to identify what they should tackle first (lines 10-11). After a brief hesitation marker in line 11, he pinpoints (transportation) as the next step in line 12. However, this suggestion is promptly adjusted by MUH (lines 13-14), who reorients the discussion towards setting the departure and return dates.

The dialogue preceding the next extract lays the foundation for understanding the function of the "let's" turn in the given context. Previously, MUS expressed hunger while they were examining a restaurant menu for a meal plan, which prompted CNB to issue an invitation for a meal at his place. This proposition steered the conversation away from its task orientation, transitioning it to an off-task talk as the participants began coordinating their schedules to identify a suitable day to meet.

Extract 10 - Back to the task

1 **CNB:** çarşambayı perşembeye bağlayan gün olur
 the day that connects wednesday to thursday is okay
 2 (1.0) eğer (0.5) hazırlamazsam (0.3) sunumu falan

if (0.5) i don't prepare (0.3) the presentation or
something
3 (0.6) o zaman olur
then it would work
4 (3.3)
5 tamam (0.1)
okay
6 **CNB: let's u::h (0.7)**
7 **NUR: i think we can [eat]**
8 **CNB: [cut the] (0.3) gibber=**
9 **NUR: =u:h at the restaura:nt (0.7) u:hm (0.5)**
10 **CNB: lupin's? (0.9)**
11 **NUR: no (0.2) hotel restaurant**

In lines 1-3, CNB assesses his options about scheduling a meeting time, suggesting a time slot that would be suitable. After a relatively long pause of 3.3 seconds in line 4, CNB closes the previous off-task sequence with a sequence-closing third (*okay*) (line 5). In line 6, CNB deploys a “let’s” structure with a hesitation marker to initiate a new action sequence. However, before he can complete his turn, he is overlapped by NUR’s talk (line 7). NUR’s turn, designed as a “we can” statement, signals an incoming proposal. However, similar to CNB’s cut-off proposal, her talk is overlapped with CNB’s attempt to finish his turn in line 8. CNB’s reorientation towards the task talk is explicitly marked with the completion of his “let’s” utterance in line 8. NUR’s finished turn in line 9 proposes they eat (*at the restaur:nt*), redirecting the discussion to the location of their meal. Following this, CNB orients to NUR’s proposition by seeking clarification with an other-initiated self-repair (line 10). NUR closes the repair sequence by specifying the (*hotel restaurant*) as the intended location.

Distinct from the “we can” and “we should” proposals, the “let’s” structures that initiate subsequent actions denote definitive, sharp transitions from previously concluded sequences to new ones. These types of “let’s” constructions do not

unfold as a result of any contextual discussion about negotiated decisions. Instead, they draw entirely on the evident task requirements, whether it is propelling the task forward, thus prompting the articulation of the next step, or shifting focus from an off-task talk to resume task progression. The absence of any accounts or softening hedges is attributable to the explicit nature of their purpose: task completion. This implies that the accounts for these utterances are already self-evident, and thus their usage is pretty straightforward.

4.4.2 Navigating on the Screen

Extract 11 - Synchronized Action

- 1 **BER:** hotel name saint james court (1.5) **1#** let's
- 2 **AYS:** taj (0.5)
- 3 **BER:** copy this one and paste it here **1#** (0.2) hotel
- 4 address .hh

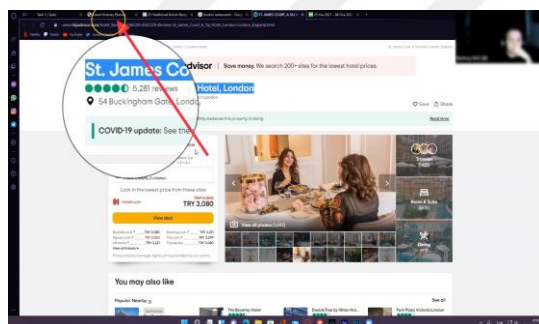


Figure 4-21 Screenshot 21

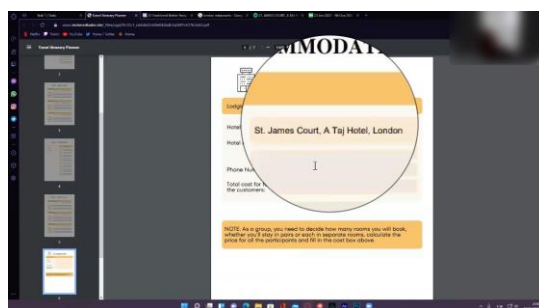


Figure 4-22 Screenshot 22

1# BER copies and pastes the name of the hotel into the task sheet

In this very brief extract, BER initiates the action of copying the hotel's name, "Saint James Court," and pasting it into the document. BER's action on the

screen (copying and pasting the name into the document) is simultaneous with his verbal direction. In line 2, AYS responds with a short turn, “taj,” which is the following part of the title on the hotel’s page. This response shows that AYS is following BER’s line of action, supporting the claim that the “let’s” turn in line 1 was a manifestation of the group’s shared attention and co-alignment in their activities. Finally, BER completes his “let’s” turn in line 3.

At this point, it’s critical to note the simultaneous completion of the copying and pasting action with the verbal articulation of the “let’s” turn. This concurrent occurrence provides evidence of a strong correlation between these sequences and on-screen activity. Moreover, this observation solidifies the claim regarding the intimate connection between the “let’s” proposals and the progression of tasks on the screen. It is also worth noting that despite BER being the sole individual navigating the screen activities, the use of “let *us*” conveys an intention for collective action and shared attention. Therefore, it can be claimed that these structures function as a mechanism to channel the group’s attention to a particular facet of the task to establish a shared focal point.

4.4.3 Problem Solving

4.4.3.1 Challenging an Idea and Endorsing the Previous Proposal

Extract 12 – How to go

- 1 **MUH:** so of course we will use (.) uuuuh (.) airplane?
- 2 (1.2)
- 3 **ENS:** airplane ouw (0.8) .hhh i- yeah >we could< (0.2)
- 4 use an airplane (0.6) u:h directly like from ankara or
- 5 **istanbul** (0.4) [to london?]
- 6 **MUH:** [yeah] but uh (0.2)
- 7 **ENS:** but we could also (0.5) u:hm (0.3) go: (0.6) to: uhm
- 8 (1.3) u:::h greece? (.) with a bus? (0.3) and then take
- 9 the train (.) to france ((ahem)) and then .hhh we could
- 10 (0.3) u:::h (0.2) go across the (.) uh march sea? (0.7)
- 11 with a boat (.) i mean (.) that could be fun (0.8)

12 **CAN:** we have only two days (.) **let's just [go]**

13 **MUH:** [yeah]

14 **CAN:** **directly to london and just (.) spend time there**

15 **MUH:** i agree i agree (0.5)

16 **ENS:** yeah u:h (.) the time is limited yeah right (.) okay

17 **[>let's choose the plane<]**

18 **CAN:** [it's a nice idea] but (.) it will be good if (.)

19 we ha:d >like< (.) week or a month (.) but for two days?

20 (0.3) it will be waste of time sitting in a train (0.3)

21 **MUH:** yeah

The extract begins with MUH's initial proposal for using an airplane as the mode of transport (line 1), triggering an extended sequence of proposals and responses. Following a brief pause of 1.2 seconds (line 2), ENS first acknowledges and aligns MUH's initial suggestion (yeah >we could< (0.2) use an airplane) by outlining two potential options: a direct flight from Ankara or İstanbul (lines 3-5). MUH's acknowledgment of ENS's contribution is followed by a contrast marker (but), however his turn remains unfinished. After this alignment in lines 3-5 ENS disaffiliates with the previous proposal offering a more adventurous journey involving multiple modes of transport via Greece and France (lines 7-11). He assesses his ideas at turn-final position (fun). CAN then takes the floor and addresses the impracticality considering the task criteria as an account and shows alignment to MUH's initial proposal of direct flight (lines 12-14). CAN's proposal to fly directly to London (line 12) gets acknowledged and aligned by MUH, (lines 13-15). ENS, then begins his turn by acknowledging the account given by CAN (line 16) and pivots his proposition in favor of air travel (line 17), thus aligning with the group consensus. CAN expresses alignment with ENS's previous proposal by a positive assessment then elaborates on the given account further, pointing out that it would be more feasible given a larger time frame (lines 18-20). The sequence closes with MUH's agreement (line 21), which solidifies the group's collective decision to opt for a direct flight to London.

The current extract features two distinct “let’s” constructions, each serving different purposes. The first instance (lines 12-14) acts as a circumvention mechanism against the preceding proposal, substantiated by the inclusion of an account. This is somewhat similar to the way “we should” statements can be used for circumvention; however, it stands in contrast to the circumvention with “we can” given that the account provided doesn’t stem from personal preference, but rather, it is closely tied to the task’s criteria. The second “let’s” (line 17) plays a different role—it acknowledges and endorses the preceding proposal.

4.4.3.2 Search for Information

Extract 13 – Quarantine (part 1)

1 **NUR:** by the way do you know the london has a quarantine
2 o:r something like tha:t
3 (2.0)
4 **MUS:** um:[: so
5 **CNB:** [hu::h you mean the:: (0.2) red list, yellow list, (.)
6 green li[st one?
7 **NUR:** [yeah yeah
8 (0.4)
9 yeah it [is important]
10 **CNB:** [let’s take a look at that]
11 (0.8)
12 okay (.) **let’s take a look at that**
13 (1.1).hh
14 uuh
15 (6.0) **1#...**
16 **MUS:** red list of countries and territo?ries
17 (5.2)

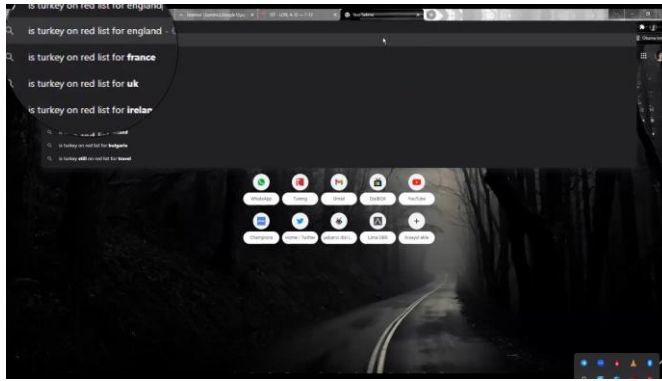


Figure 4-23 Screenshot 23

1# CNB types “is turkey on red list for england” to the search bar

The extract under analysis is drawn from Task 1. Prior to this extract, NUR, GOK, MUS, and CNB had already determined their intended destination: London. In lines 1 and 2, NUR initiates an interrogative request for information concerning potential travel restrictions to the selected location. Following two seconds of silence in line 3, MUS commences a response but his utterance of stretched receipt token is interrupted with an overlap. In line 5, CNB initiates a post-first insert sequence starting with a stretched change of state token (*hu: :h*) to affirm the reference point of “quarantine” in line 1. This is done by listing the UK’s traffic light system, which indicates different levels of risk for international travel (*red list, yellow list, (.) green li[st one]*). NUR, in turn, articulates an agreement token in line 7 (*yeah yeah*) succeeded by 0.4 seconds of silence. In line 9, NUR augments her turn by assessing the information (*it is important*). Her turn is overlapped by a *let’s* utterance from CNB partially in line 10. After 0.8 points of silence in line 11, CNB repeats his previous turn in line 12, due to the previous overlap. After this turn, there’s a very long silence in task-talk, more than 7 seconds (lines 13-15). This silence is accompanied by CNB’s click noises as he opens up a new tab to conduct an online search. This extensive silence is followed by CNB’s action of searching for countries on the UK’s red list (*#1*). His action continues until line 18 which will be examined in the second part of Extract 1.

This extract illustrates how a single “*let’s*” proposal is brought into play to address a problem. The question of quarantine requirements presents an obstacle to

the progression of the task, primarily because the group lacks the necessary information about the UK's travel restrictions. Consequently, the "let's" sequence emerges in response to this epistemic gap, initiating an online search to fill this gap. This sequence plays a dual role: it resolves the identified problem and simultaneously articulates the next course of action.

Extract 13 - Quarantine (part 2)

18 CNB: so (0.3) it says=
19 MUS: =ahem
20 CNB: turkey has been removed from red list (0.3) by
21 united kingdom o:n .hh september seventeenth (0.8)
22 so: i think we are clear to go
23 (1.1)
24 MUS: o:kay
25 CNB: but .hh (0.3) u:[:::~::~:h
26 ->NUR: [okay let's go] but uuh
27 [it (.) is a little bit old I think]
28 CNB: [we need to take some test f- COVID test first]
29 (1.7)
30 CNB: whadju say?
31 (1.2)
32 NUR: u::~:h this news is (0.4) a <little> old (0.6) i think
33 CNB: >september october november< it's uuh almost (.) one
34 and a half month (0.2) old (0.4)
35 NUR: yeah
36 (2.1)
37 CNB: u::~:h
38 (2.0) **#1** (2.1)
39 CNB: ((sniffs))
40 (1.2)

41 ->CNB: <let's check past twentyf:-> (0.4) past week= 1#

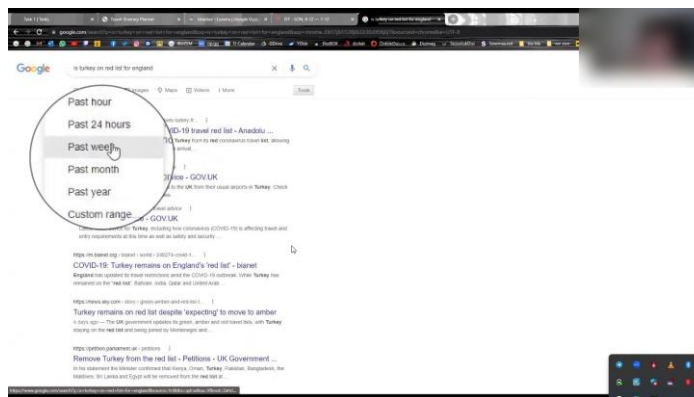


Figure 4-24 Screenshot 24

1# CNB clicks on “Any time” to filter the recent news, moves his cursor to “Past 24 hours” and then clicks on the “Past week”

The information search in the previous extract concludes with CNB directing the cursor towards the first search result. From lines 18 to 22, CNB reports the news concerning Turkey’s removal from the red list, additionally providing the date of the news (line 21). CNB’s (so) preface in line 22 marks the next sentence as a mitigated inference, introduces the upshot of the prior search sequence, and lays the ground for the subsequent action (G. Raymond, 2004). Essentially, it paves the way for the continuation of their initial selection. Following 1.1 seconds of silence in line 23, MUS delivers an acknowledgment token in line 25 (okay). In line 25, CNB introduces a but-prefaced turn to signal a further prerequisite to move on with the task, fully disclosed in line 28. This signaling, however, is overlapped by NUR’s turns in lines 26-27. Initially, NUR utters a pro-forma agreement and a “let’s” turn (okay let’s go), she then increments her turn with a but-preface to revisit the previously resolved issue in line 22 (Schiffrin, 1987). She calls into question the prior solution by assessing the news as old, with mitigation in line 27. Yet, since the turns in lines 27 and 28 were produced in overlap, CNB reveals trouble in hearing or understanding, followed by 1.7-second silence in line 30 (Schegloff, 2000a). This other-initiated self-repair sequence is resolved in line 32 by NUR’s reformulation of her previous turn. CNB shows neutral uptake of this assessment by simply counting the months to conclude how old the news is in lines 33-34. Upon NUR’s unmitigated alignment token in line 35, the conversation stalls for almost 7.8 seconds before a complete and meaningful turn is produced until line

41. In line 41, we observe CNB uttering a “let’s” turn. At this point, it’s crucial to note that before the let’s turn is uttered by CNB in line 41, CNB already starts to look up rather more recent news (2#) after around 4 seconds of silence between lines 36-38. He initially moves his cursor to “Past 24 hours” while uttering (twentyf-), he then cuts off the utterance to initiate a same-turn self-initiated self-repair by replacing (twentyf-) with (past week). As another let’s turn is produced, the second part of the first extract concludes at this juncture.

This extract presents two notable instances of “let’s” turns. The initial instance (line 26) signifies an agreement to a previously resolved obstacle impeding task progression. The subsequent instance bears a resemblance to the one observed in the first part of the extract. However, in this case, the “let’s” turn is uttered after the search for information has already been initiated on the screen. Consequently, this sequence serves not only to address a pre-existing problem and signal the next action but also functions to fill in the silence and drive the task-talk forward. This is crucial, as silences are generally viewed as disruptions in the turn-taking machinery (Stivers & Robinson, 2006). Furthermore, this extract illustrates that the speaker leverages the screen as a semiotic resource in constructing his turn, a fact evidenced by the self-initiated inter-turn repair.

Extract 13 – Quarantine (part 3)

42 **MUS:** =past week (0.5) past week (0.8),
43 **CNB:** hm:: (0.6) [hhhhh]
44 **MUS:** [no] (0.6) >wait wait wait<=
45 **CNB:** =.hhhh \$so we’re on the red list we cannot go to
46 london\$ haha[hah
47 **MUS:** [no
48 **NUR:** haha[hah
49 **MUS:** [no no] (0.4) °wai- °
50 **MUS:** .hh canada, denmark, finland [lichtenstein]
51 **CNB:** [let’s cancel the trip] okay (0.3)
((lines omitted))

57 CNB: \$okay\$.hh let's check u:h um:: (0.4) other (.) places=
 58 MUS: = hhh[hhh hahah]
 59 CNB: #1 [for example u::h] new york 1#
 60 MUS: [new york u::h]
 61 CNB: [let's check new york okay]
 62 MUS: new york ((??))
 63 (1.6)
 64 CNB: new york 2#
 65 (4.0) #2 (6.0)

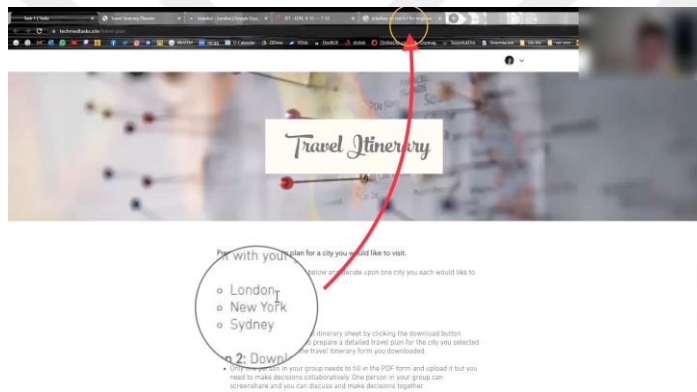


Figure 4-25 Screenshot 25

1# CNB goes back to the task webpage, holds his cursor over New York

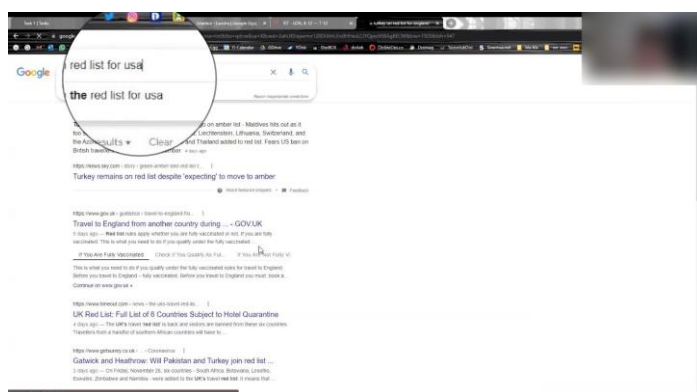


Figure 4-26 Screenshot 26

2# CNB navigates to the search page and replaces “england” with “usa” on the search screen

The third part of the first extract starts with the resolution of the previous action of information seeking. In line 43, CNB utters a receipt token (hm::) followed by turn-final laughter. Subsequently, in line 44, MUS responds with an unmitigated disalignment followed by multiple sayings (wait wait wait). CNB's laughter-prefaced declarative statement in lines 45-46 followed by another turn-final laughter, simultaneously serves as an audible announcement of the newly discovered information and a projection of a potential course of action: not going to London. It's worth noting that this humor acts as a form of mitigated disalignment with the initially planned course of action (traveling to London), and an affiliative move, preserving intersubjectivity within the group despite the unfavorable news (Priego-Valverde, 2021). Another multiple-saying turn is produced by MUS between lines 47-49. These utterances (no no no), typical of multiple sayings, often signal the previous course of action problematic (Stivers, 2004), while they allude to a larger course of action that involves multiple steps or stages. As the news of Turkey's placement on the UK's COVID traffic system's red list interferes with the previously decided course of action, the task's progression is hindered. In response to this, CNB utters another let's turn in line 51 (let's cancel the trip) as a potential solution to this problematization. However, as this utterance contravenes the task requirements, it is not oriented to by anyone in the coming turns, which are omitted in the transcript due to irrelevance and space concerns. A subsequent alternative solution is proposed by CNB in line 57, prefaced with an acknowledgment token in a let's formulation (\$okay\$.hh let's check u:h um:: (0.4) other (.) places=). Following this, a new destination, New York, is proposed in line 59. MUS repeats CNB's previous turn in line 60, after which, CNB reformulates his previous let's turn with greater precision in line 61. Following MUS's repetition of the destination in line 62, there is 1.6 seconds of silence. CNB enunciates a further repetition in line 64, simultaneously instigating the search on the screen. We can see that CNB goes on to replace "england" with "usa" in the text written in the search bar. This action is followed by 10 seconds of silence, retrieving information from the web.

The concluding part of the extract thirteen demonstrates three instances of the use of "let's" turns. The first instance is uttered in response to a problem that obstructs the progression of the task—specifically, the inability to travel to the

chosen destination. Despite its humorous delivery, this “let’s” turn is aimed at addressing the identified issue by suggesting an alternative solution to advance the task. It’s worth noting that although this turn shares some similarities with previous “let’s” sequences, it differs in that the problem it addresses isn’t an epistemic gap and thus does not instigate a search sequence. Nevertheless, it retains a similar problem-solving function to the turns seen in the first and second parts of the extract. The second and third instances of the “let’s” turns are strategically purposed to fill the epistemic gap and facilitate task progression. These turns are followed by a period of silence, during which information is actively sought. Consequently, this analysis underscores the multifunctionality of the “let’s” turns within task-oriented discourse.

4.5 Cases of Deontic Incongruence

Extract 14 – Negotiating the Trip Duration

- 1 **YAV:** i think i would just want to sleep (0.5) for hours
- 2 and hours and hours and hours=
- 3 **SEV:** yes but we should eat something (.) right?
- 4 (1.2)
- 5 **YAV:** .hhh ?yea::h we should alright yes
- 6 (0.6)
- 7 **SEV:** so we should find a place to eat for the first day
- 8 (1.5)
- 9 -> **TUR:** let’s say we::: (.) uh we (.) brought som:ething
- 10 from our .hhh ?homes for first day (0.3) \$hhh
- 11 we can stay at our home\$ for first day because
- 12 uh we know (0.5) .hhh u:h it’s uhm (.)
- 13 expensive city a:nd (0.3) we: (0.2) we did
- 14 s- u::h we to- took into account (0.8)
- 15 the foo::d (0.3) >et cetera< (0.6) i mean
- 16-> **YAV:** yes or we can just shop? .hhh an:: (.)cook
- 17 something in the house (0.3)

18 **NID:** mhm (1.1)
 19 **TUR:** [oh okay yes]
 20 **SEV:** [i think if we will]
 21 **??:** [i dunno] (0.2)
 22 **->SEV:** i think if we think about the money we should u:hm
 23 (0.8) limit our (0.6) visit there not money (0.9)
 24 so we will >stay there for< two weeks but (1.2)
 25 it's ?more expensive than the things we will eat
 26 so I think (0.5) if we think about the money? (0.3)
 27 we should stay there for a week
 28 (3.6)
 29 **YAV:** yeah that's why i said .hhh i think one week is
 30 enough because the more (0.2) the more days we
 31 stay- the more days we stay there .hhh (0.5) hhh
 32 uh so the more things that we should (.) that we
 33 should do so we're not going to stay at home
 34 .hhh (0.3) that's why (.) we::
 35 **SEV:** so we should=
 36 **YAV:** =>probably<=
 37 **SEV:** =make a decision here (0.5) should we stay for
 38 one week and spend as much as we can or (0.4)
 39 should we stay for two weeks (.) and (1.5) we
 40 think about (1.8) our u::m (0.9) >money< hhh
 41 **TUR:** budget (.) yes i think
 42 **SEV:** \$budget yes\$
 43 **TUR:** i think we should stay two weeks but we should limit
 44 our budget as much as we can and
 45 **NID:** =mhmm=
 46 **TUR:** =we shouldn't (.) u:h spend so much but we are

47 in new york and we should star- stay there (0.3)
 48 two weeks or one month i want i [want i think
 49 **NID:** [hahah
 50 **TUR:** i would like to stay there
 51 (1.3)
 52 **SEV:** actually?
 53 **YAV:** or-
 54 **SEV:** i would prefer (0.7) seeing everything and trying
 55 everything (.) one week rather than limiting myself
 56 while i was there (0.2)
 57 **TUR:** °hahah° i will choose (0.3) traveling a::nd u:h not
 58 limiting so much but (.) a little bit (0.2)
 59 i think we can: (.) cook u:h at our home and
 60 we can travel as much as we can
 61 (1.3) i think (0.4) i guess
 62 **SEV:** but it's expensive (0.2) for staying (0.2) more
 63 than one week rather than spending for food
 64 (1.1) so i think [we can travel in a week]
 65 **TUR:** [we have a chance here] please we should consider
 66 it (0.6) we have a chance to go new york (0.7)
 67-> **YAV:** i think we should vo:id this again: because
 68 democracy win:s .hhh
 69 **NID:** [hah::]
 70 **YAV:** [so:] (.) **NID** (.) what is your opinion one week
 71 or two weeks (0.9)
 72 **NID:** um:::: (0.8) i think one week is not (0.3) enough
 73 (0.2) but we:: (.) um we have (0.3) so much ?money.
 74 and (0.3) i wou- i would like to eat local meal
 75 there and (.) i would like to go:. ehm:
 76 (1.4) uhm: huh: (0.6) places o- what what i won't (.)

77 i don't know actually but? .hhh (0.3) i think (0.3)

78 uuh two weeks >yeah< huhuh:: (0.7)

79-> SEV: okay then (0.4) let's (0.2) uh (0.3) don't limit

80 ourselves (.) and (0.3) create our dream new york trip

81 (0.8) what do you think

82 (2.0)

83 TUR: you say that we should stay both two weeks and spend

84 (0.6) ho- how much (0.5) u:h we want [you say]

85 SEV: [yeah]

86 TUR: hhh okay

89 NID: hhahahahhh (0.3)

90 TUR: [we have a chan-]

100 SEV: [is everyone okay with] (0.4)

101 YAV: it will be utopic but we can [try

102 TUR: [ye:s] hahah::

103 NID: hahah:

104 TUR: \$it is too utopic but\$ hhh

105 (1.0) okay (0.7)

106 SEV: so we eat outside at first day (0.6)

107 TUR: alright

Prior to the extract, the group filled in the transportation information and moved on to planning of their first day in New York. The extract begins with YAV expressing a personal desire to sleep for extended periods after the flight (lines 1-2). However, SEV proposes that the group should eat, followed by a turn final tag question which asks for confirmation (line 3). YAV aligns with this proposal, acknowledging the necessity to eat (line 5). SEV then moves towards a concrete plan by proposing that they find a place to eat on the first day (line 7); thereby she narrows down and particularizes the scope of the proposed activity. After 1.5 seconds of silence, TUR introduces a cost-saving alternative to the first activity but with she constructs her proposal with a stronger formulation, “let’s” (line 9). She

then reformulates another version of her proposal with a weaker stance (we can stay at our home\$ for first day) . This proposal is formulated in a way that emphasizes the benefits to the group (saving money in an expensive city) and minimizes the perceived cost to the speaker (bringing something from home, staying at home). TUR uses a strategy of maximizing benefits to the group by highlighting the high cost of living in the city (lines 12-13) and the fact that they have taken into account the cost of food (lines 14-15). This is done to increase the perceived benefits of his proposal and make it more likely to be accepted. Without showing any alignment or commitment, YAV counters this proposal with an alternative cost-saving measure of shopping and cooking at home (line 16). This suggests that TUR's claim of authority to determine the group's actions with a stronger proposal formulation was not fully recognized or accepted by YAV. NID utters an alignment token (line 18) and TUR also aligns with this proposal (line 19). SEV introduces a new proposal to limit the duration of their stay to save money (line 22). She showcases another example of taking a benefactive stance, with presenting a course of action that is framed as beneficial to the group (saving money) and minimizing the perceived cost (shortening the stay). In lines 29-34 YAV supports SEV's proposal and adds that a longer stay would require more activities, which could increase costs, with a downgrading in line 36. With a so-prefaced we should formulation in line 35, SEV presents two options for the group to consider: a shorter, more indulgent stay or a longer, budget-conscious stay (lines 37-40). TUR advocates for a longer stay with a limited budget (lines 43-48). However, SEV expresses a preference for a shorter stay with more experience in the city (lines 54-56). Following this, TUR reaffirms her previous stance by reformulating a rather balanced approach of not limiting too much but also cooking at home (lines 57-61). Note that until TUR's turn in line 59 TUR and SEV formulate their preference in the form of "I" statements. Following this, with a turn initial but preface, SEV reiterates that the cost of a longer stay will be contradictory to a budget-conscious approach (62-64). In lines 65-66, TUR issues a plea by urging the group to consider the opportunity of staying there longer. This issue of diverging opinions necessitates a resolution for task progression. Therefore, YAV utters a "we should" proposal (see Section 4.3.4.) that suggests voting (lines 67-68). Since SEV

and TUR already took a stance on the issue, and YAV expressed alignment to SEV (lines 29-34) YAV asks for NID's opinion (lines 70-71). NID then expresses a lengthy preference for a two-week stay in lines 72-78. Now that the majority took a stance towards a longer stay, SEV utters a "let's" proposal to stay longer without limiting their budget. After a post-first insert expansion between TUR and SEV in lines 83-86, the group reaches a shared decision at the rest of the extract.

A close examination of the extract reinforces the previous findings concerning the functions of proposals (e.g., problem-solving) and prior interactional evidence in presenting a more assertive form of proposal via the use of "let's". Furthermore, this extract showcases TUR claiming stronger proximal deontic rights by formulating her proposal with a structurally stronger deontic form. She then downgrades her proposal using an additional "we can" structure, subsequently taking a benefactive stance towards bringing food from home by framing the counter-proposal costly. Notably, her "let's" utterance is treated as a non-binding proposition by YAV, which mirrors earlier instances of "we can" proposals. YAV's response to TUR's turn in line 16 is oriented to the framed cost of eating out. SEV then takes a benefactive stance on shortening the visit by orienting to the cost-effectiveness of the trip. The pronouncements of "we should" in lines 35 and 37 serve the purpose of problem resolution, facilitating the attainment of a mutually agreed decision following a series of individualized preferences expressed through "I" statements. Subsequently, the group concedes to not constricting their budget. The decision is eventually affirmed and finalized by SEV through a "let's" utterance.

Overall, while the analysis of the extract aligns with previous findings related to the functional connections with the grammatical structure of proposals, it also elucidates that: i) employing a stronger format may lead to deontic incongruence (i.e., the participant might appear to be claiming higher deontic rights than their actual deontic status), ii) the participants deploy strategies to enhance the perceived benefits and minimize the perceived costs of their proposals for the group. This

highlights how the act of proposing operates at the design level beyond the grammatical selection of the structure.

Extract 15 – When to get up

1 **CAN:** harry potter shop
2 (1.7)
3 -> **MUH:** yeah why not (0.5) **1#** but [not
4 **ENS:** [yeah
5 -> **MUH:** six a.m. (.) we should (0.7)
6 **CAN:** let me see where it is **#1** (0.6)
7 **MUH:** harry potter shop (0.5)
8 **CAN:** [oh it's also close]
9 -> **ENS:** [we should wake up at] (0.2)
10 **CAN:** [it's also close]
11-> **ENS:** [wake up]=
12 **CAN:** =to the (0.8) british museum
13 (2.2)
14 **CAN:** so will we stay around here so (0.6)
15 u:h the harry potter shop will (1.0)
16 can be also a good **2#** start **#2**
17 (2.5)
18 ??: okay=
19 **CUN:** =when do we get up (0.9)
20-> **ENS:** i think we should wake up at (.) uh six a.m
21 six a.m should be: (.) waking up (0.8)
22 **CUN:** okay
23 **3#** (1.0) **#3** (0.4)
24 **ENS:** uhm (0.3)
25-> **MUH:** isn't it t- too early?
26 (1.4)

27-> **CAN:** no: it's never too early (0.3) we have one day (0.4)

28 **ENS:** yeah but [we we already]

29 **CAN:** [(we??)] just waste time (0.7)

30 in the second day so? (0.7) the earlier we go?

31 (0.3) the better ?it is.

32 **ENS:** yeah and we u::h went to bed (.) the earlier day (.)

33 just so we could (.) wake up at (.) six a.m. remember?

34 (0.2) so it's fine (0.3)

35 **MUH:** yeah yeah

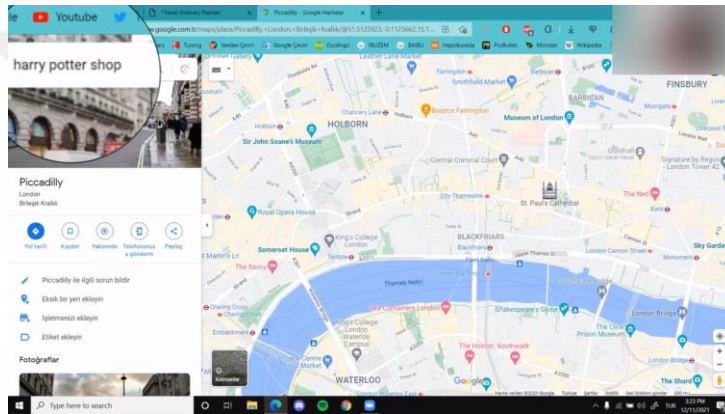


Figure 4-27 Screenshot 27

1# CUN types “harry potter shop” into the search bar

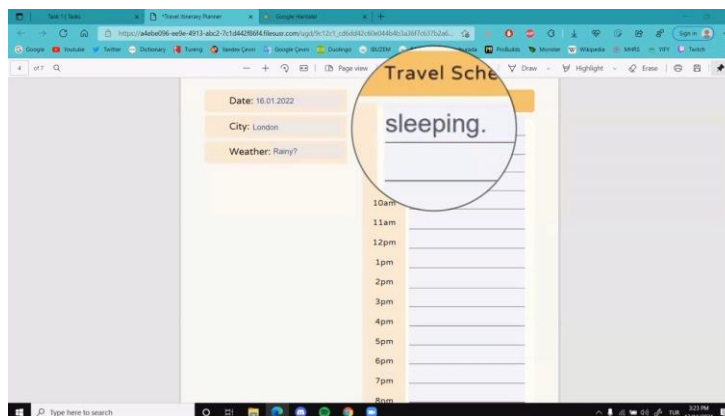


Figure 4-28 Screenshot 28

2# CUN enters “sleeping” into the task sheet

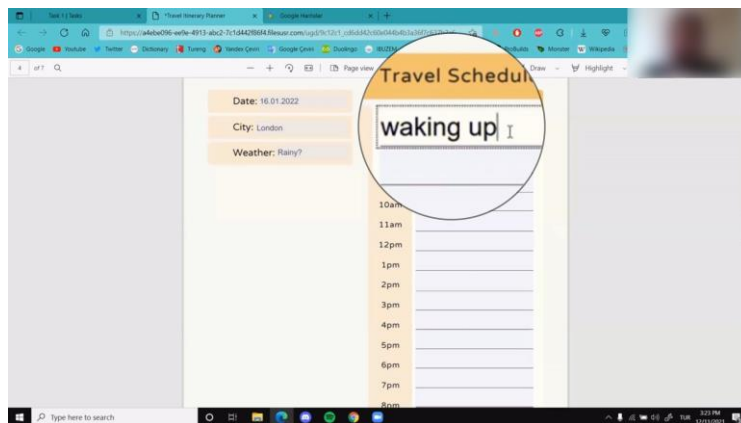


Figure 4-29 Screenshot 29

3# CUN types “waking up” next to 6am

The extract commences with CAN proposing a visit to the Harry Potter shop (line 1). After a pause of 1.7 seconds, MUH shows agreement with the proposal, and then with a but-preface, he takes a negative attitude about the time (*not six a.m.*) (lines 3-5). Subsequently, he initiates a proposal but cuts it off as CUN switches the shared screen to the Google maps view and inputs Harry Potter shop into the search bar (#1). CAN self-authorizes (Hoey, 2022; Pekarek-Doehler & Balaman, 2021) to check the location of Harry Potter shop on the map (line 6). Following this, he utters a change of state token and assesses its proximity as close to the British Museum (line 8). This turn overlaps with ENS’s attempt to propose a wake-up time (line 9). The overlapped turns are re-uttered by CAN and ENS in lines 10 and 11. CAN then suggests Harry Potter shop as a starting place (lines 14-16). Following 2.5 seconds of silence, an unidentified speaker aligns with CAN’s suggestion. Although CUN typed “sleeping” next to 6 a.m. before his turn (#2), CUN then solicits opinions about their wake-up time (line 19), to which ENS responds by proposing six a.m (lines 20-21). CUN aligns with this proposal, removes “sleeping” and concurrently enters “waking up” into the task sheet (#3). Subsequently, MUH assesses the waking hour in the form of a polar question (i.e., high contingency and low-entitlement form, line 25). Doing so, he showcases a negative benefactive stance with a reluctant claim of deontic authority over the group’s decision. After 1.4 seconds of silence, this move is met with outright rejection from CAN following an assessment with an account (line 27). ENS’s

alignment with CAN and his following but-prefaced utterance is overlapped by CAN's assertion. CAN draws attention to the earlier decision of the group regarding visiting the museums on the first day and wandering around in the second day ([we??] just waste time (0.7) in the second day so?), then he takes a positive benefactive stance towards waking up early by framing it would maximize their time (lines 29,31). ENS then self-selects and aligns with CAN. Following this, he further "reduces the cost" of waking up early by pointing out that they went to bed early, and he finishes his turn with a positive assessment (32-34). The extract concludes by MUH uttering two acknowledgment tokens and showing agreement with the final decision (line 35).

Extract 16 – How many days?

- 1 **CNB:** u::h let's make it four
- 2 (3.8)
- 3 so we are going on (0.6) saturday:? a:nd
- 4 >returning on< (1.8) monday?
- 5 **MUS:** [monday]
- 6 **CNB:** [let's ma]ke it (0.3) let's make it ?tuesday.
- 7 (2.1)
- 8 **MUS:** it makes three days (0.7) wait (0.6)
- 9 **CNB:** yes (0.3) it's going to be three days? but u::h
- 10 (0.5) i: am including the jetla:g and the: (.)
- 11 flight (0.8) u:::h (0.5) flight time? (1.0)
- 12 **MUS:** hm: (1.7) ?o:kay.

In the provided extract, the group is booking a plane ticket. The extract begins with CNB increasing the number of passengers to four adults (line 1). This action is marked by the use of the "let's" preface, followed by an immediate on-screen activity (#1). Following a TRP of 3.8 seconds (line 2), CNB outlines the proposed days of travel, from Saturday to Monday with rising intonation (lines 3-4). This elicits a confirmation from MUS in line 5. However, CNB subsequently proposes a modification to the plan, suggesting a return on Tuesday instead of Monday with

a “let’s” formulation, immediately followed by an on-screen activity (#2). Note that CNB does not wait for any confirmation from the other group members. After a pause, this time of 2.1 seconds, MUS points out that this makes the trip three days long, not two (line 8). He then issues a directive (*wait*). According to the task instruction, the participants were expected to plan a two-day trip to the target destination. In line 8, MUS is using factual information (the length of the trip), followed by a directive, to subtly resist CNB’s deontic authority to extend the trip to three days. MUS is orienting to the task rules as a source of deontic authority over CNB’s suggestion. In response, CNB utters an agreement token and acknowledges the duration of the trip (line 9), but subsequently justifies the extra day with an account (lines 10-11). MUS finally agrees with a sequence closing third “okay” (line 12), indicating deontic congruence. The previous lines of conversation show how deontic rights were negotiated and incongruences were managed, particularly in relation to the established task rule.

Extract 17 – Arriving the hotel

- 1 **CNB:** >so< (0.9) first (.) uhm::
- 2 (5.6)
- 3 dokuz otuzda indik (0.8) on bir gibi b-
- we landed at nine-thirty (0.8) let’s assume*
- 4 geldigimizi varsayalim **1#**
- that we arrived at around eleven*
- 5 (9.3) **#1**
- 6 u:::h **2#** going to hotel diyelim
- let’s say going to hotel*
- 7 (1.8)
- 8 **MUS:** **#2** arrival==
- 9 **CNB:** =(to) (0.3) make a check in
- 10 (3.0) **3#** (4.3)

11 GOK: **#3** i- is it=
 12 CNB: =so= (0.4)
 13 GOK: =taking a a hour (0.2) to arrive the hotel?
 14 (1.9)
 15 CNB: i just don't know (0.9)
 16 GOK: oh okay
 17 (1.3)
 18 CNB: should i change it?
 19 (1.3)
 20 GOK: no i think this is okay

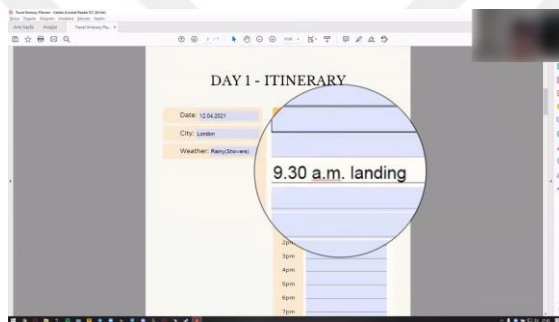


Figure 4-30 Screenshot 30

1# CNB types “9:30 a.m. landing” into the task sheet next to 9am

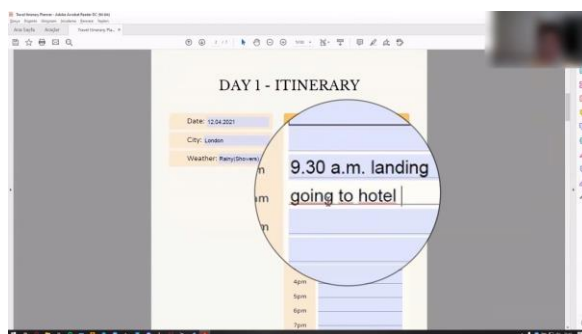


Figure 4-31 Screenshot 31

2# CNB enters “going to hotel” next to 10am

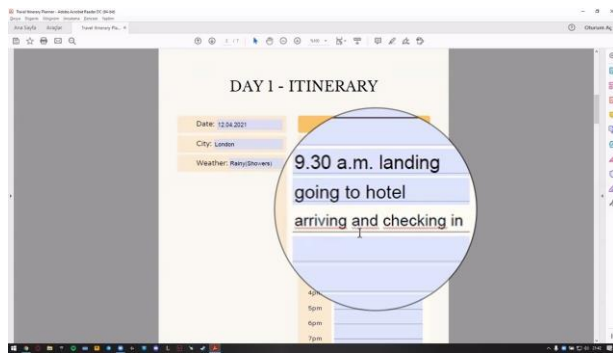


Figure 4-32 Screenshot 32

3# CNB enters “arriving and checking in” next to 11am

The extract begins with CNB’s so-prefaced turn, indicating a topic shift (line 1). This is succeeded by 5.6 seconds of pause, after which CNB articulates their time of landing and roughly suggests their arrival time at around eleven (lines 3-4). This is followed by a substantial pause of 9.3 seconds, during which CNB types their landing time on the task sheet (line 5, #1). CNB then inputs “going to hotel” while simultaneously verbalizing on-screen activity with “let’s” (line 6). This action constitutes a claim of deontic authority as CNB is both suggesting and documenting the next course of action (#2). MUS’s attempt to take the floor in line 8 is cut off by CNB’s turn, which further specifies their future action (line 9). This is followed by 7.3 seconds of silence, during which the CNB initiates the action of typing “arriving and checking in” into the task sheet (#3). Following this, GOK poses a question regarding the time it takes to arrive at the hotel (lines 11-13). With this turn, GOK is attempting to establish epistemic access (Stevanovic, 2013) to the knowledge CNB assumes beforehand (i.e., that it takes one hour to reach the hotel from the airport). Following a silence of 1.9 seconds, GOK’s formulation of this polar question is responded to by CNB with a claim of insufficient knowledge in line 15 (Sert, 2013), GOK then utters a sequence closing third with a change of state token (*oh okay*) . Despite GOK’s attempt to close the sequence in line 16, CNB initiates a non-minimal post-expansion by inquiring if he should modify the plan (line 18), which illustrates his perception towards GOK’s turn as a request for deontic authority. Nonetheless, GOK aligns with the previous suggestion in line 20,

indicating deontic congruence. The extract demonstrates that CNB orients to GOK's polar question formulation not simply as establishing epistemic access, but as a proximal claim of deontic rights.

4.6 Summary of the Findings

4.6.1 Social Action Formats

Section 4.1. provided an overview of the grammatical structures used as social action formats in the dataset. The analysis of the linguistic data supports that certain grammatical structures are predominantly associated with specific social actions. Structures such as “you can/could” and “you should/have to” are primarily used for making suggestions, while “we should,” “we will/we’ll,” “we could,” “we can,” “let’s,” “should we,” “why don’t we,” and “how about/what about” are used for making proposals. The phrases “we need (to),” “can you,” and “could you” are typically used for requests. The structure “do you need/want” is used in the context of offers. The most frequently used structures for making proposals are “we can,” “let’s,” and “we should,” all of which incorporate the collective pronoun “we,” indicating a collaborative element in the task interactions. The distribution of these proposal-making structures varies across different tasks, with “we can” being the most frequently used across all tasks.

4.6.2 We can

Section 4.2. explored the usage of “we can” prefaced proposals within technology-mediated task-based interactional context. The first and second extracts both depicted how “we can” proposals serve as a vehicle for introducing and exploring a line of potential actions. The first extract showcases a single speaker leveraging “we can” multiple times to propose a series of potential courses of action. This not only increases the likelihood of acceptance for one of the proposals but also signals the inherently weak deontic strength of these propositions. By offering multiple options, the speaker refrains from imposing any specific commitment to a single action. The second extract demonstrated a more distributed use of “we can” proposals. In this extract, multiple participants contributed various options. Again, these proposals were treated as options, rather than strong directives. Thus, despite

their differing dynamics, both extracts highlighted the use of “we can” as a tool for promoting an open, noncommittal act of proposing. The analysis of the second extract reveals an additional dimension of the “we can” phrase. Here, the phrase signals endorsement and reinforcement to a previously suggested course of action. Finally, the third extract showcased the use of “we can” to subtly reroute the projected course of action. By introducing an alternative to an action that was already in progress, it altered the trajectory of the task plan. Significantly, this shift was achieved subtly and tactfully, avoiding any overt confrontation or negation of the previous course of action.

In summary, this section overviewed the multifaceted usage of “we can” prefaced proposals in task-oriented interaction. It underscored the phrase’s role as a tool for proposal-making, endorsement of ideas, and subtly shifting conversation trajectories.

4.6.3 We should

Section 4.3. outlined “we should” proposals and their role in guiding, shaping, and resolving group discussions. The section examined five different conversational extracts, each serving as a representative example of the patterns observed in the data. The fourth extract showcased a “we should” proposal functioning as an initiator of a new course of action. Following an open-ended topic shift query, the proposal suggested Buckingham Palace as an option to visit. It introduced a new action trajectory and gained consensus among participants through a series of agreement tokens. The fifth extract demonstrated the “we should” prefaced utterance as an endorsement of a preceding proposal. In this extract, ENS issued “we should” to indicate acknowledgment and affiliation with CAN’s suggestion to conclude the day. The rest of the extract depicted the co-construction and actualization of the proposed and endorsed action. The sixth extract highlighted how the “we should” statement can serve a dual purpose of endorsing a preceding proposal while simultaneously advancing it. In this extract, MUH’s “we should” statement served as an agreement with CAN’s suggestion of considering an airport near Cambridge for return, and further specified Heathrow as the preferred choice due to its proximity. This instance exemplified how “we should” can be instrumental in validating an initial idea and also contributing to its refinement. In

the seventh extract, a “we should” statement is utilized to address a problem, guiding the talk into identifying and resolving an issue collectively. TUR’s statement using “we should” problematized SEV’s action which contradicts the task requirements, prompting the group to work together to resolve the mistake. This instance served as an other-initiated other repair directed to SEV’s previous action. The following sequential unfolding involved negotiation, offers to help, and collaborative actions to rectify the problematic action. Finally, the eighth extract revealed the role of a “we should” statement as strategic intervention in situations of deadlock in group problem-solving. When the group encountered a conflict between their current solution and the available clues, CUN issued a “we should” proposal to restart the problem-solving process, providing a potential pathway out of the deadlock. This proposition is eventually accepted and actualized by the group, demonstrating how “we should” proposals may serve to direct group decision-making and foster collective advancement, especially in problem-solving situations.

Overall, this section covered how “we should” proposals in task-oriented tetradic interactions can function in various ways. Firstly, they may serve as initiators and introduce new courses of action. Secondly, they can endorse and advance previous proposals. Fourthly, they may address problematizations, either by signaling a previous trouble to rectify or offering an alternative pathway to a current issue, guiding the group towards a resolution.

4.6.4 Let’s

Section 4.4. covered the role of “let’s” proposals in task-oriented interaction. The ninth and tenth extracts showed how “let’s” in proposals serve as marking transition points in task-talk, initiating new action sequences without arising from prior negotiations or discussions. Therefore, “let’s” structures at these sequential placements propel the task forward by drawing on evident task requirements. They lack accompanying accounts or softening hedges, and this might be due to the self-evident nature of the actions referred to in these proposals as they are required to achieve task completion. Therefore, these types of “let’s” proposals observed in the data are inherently straightforward and focused on task completion.

The eleventh extract showcased the use of “let’s” as closely correlating with on-screen activity, serving to synchronize on-screen actions with verbal descriptions and focus the group’s attention towards the action in progression. It highlighted the simultaneous occurrence of the verbal “let’s” directive and the physical action of copying and pasting content on the screen, which indicates that “let’s” is instrumental in aligning the group’s attention to a specific action. Even though only one individual is physically navigating the screen, the collective term “let us” signifies an intention for shared attention and collective action, establishing a common focal point for the group.

The twelfth extract depicted the first “let’s” as a circumvention mechanism, steering the discussion away from a previous proposal by referring to task criteria as an account. The second instance of “let’s” in this extract is used as an acknowledgment and endorsement of the preceding proposal. The versatility of the “let’s” construction is highlighted as it can be employed both to challenge and to support ideas in the decision-making process.

The thirteenth extract examined the employment of “let’s” as a conduit for bridging informational gaps and recruiting group efforts towards the resolution. This extract provides an illustration of the frequently recurring use of “let’s” as a response to problem-solving in task progression observed within the data. These problems could be a deficiency of knowledge hindering the current decision-making process or any other obstacle, such as verbal problematization of previous solutions, preventing the task from moving forward. The second part of this extract shows two distinct instances of “let’s”. The first instance serves as an agreement to proceed after addressing an issue impeding task progression. The second occurrence is similar to the one in the initial part of the extract, but here, the “let’s” phrase is employed after an information search has already been initiated on screen. This usage of “let’s” fulfills a tripartite function: it mitigates silence (generally

deemed disruptive in talk) and propels the discussion forward. Moreover, it aspires to resolve the problem arising from the problematization regarding the information received being outdated. Additionally, it bridges an epistemic gap by initiating a search sequence to learn about more recent quarantine requirements of other locations. Furthermore, it is evident from the extracts that the speakers refer to the screen as a semiotic resource to construct their arguments. In the second part of the last extract, CNB draws on the task website to issue the last “let’s” structure. In the third part of the last extract, CNB engages in self-correction orienting to the search screen interface as a semiotic resource.

All in all, the analyses illustrate the multi-dimensional role of “let’s” in task-oriented interactions. It acts as a transition marker, steering discussions from non-task to task-centered dialogues and indicating progression within the task. It also serves as a synchronizer, aligning verbal utterances with on-screen activities and focusing collective attention. Moreover, “let’s” functions as both a circumvention tool, diverting from less practical ideas, and an acknowledgment device, endorsing and supporting preceding ideas. Lastly, it is employed to bridge informational gaps and address problems.

4.6.5 Cases of Deontic Incogruence

Section 4.5 examined how participants navigated the cases of deontic incongruences. The fourteenth extract demonstrated that participants might employ a deontically stronger “let’s x” formulation even in the absence of prior interactional evidence indicating an inclination to accept the proposal. However, this is subsequently downgraded to a less strong format, and is treated as contingent upon approval of other participants. In the further unfolding section of the extract, the negotiation of deontic rights reveals that the participants use strategies to increase the maximize the benefits or minimize the cost of their proposals. This finding underscores that the deontic strength of the proposals can be increased not only by the choice of the grammatical structure, but also additional turn design features.

Similarly, in the fifteenth extract illustrated a case where a proposal in the “we should” format is challenged with a low-entitlement high-contingency form, questioning the benefits of the proposed action. This challenge is met with accounts

and positive assessments which frame the action as more beneficial through justifications. The extract concludes with the participant who challenges the action showing alignment with the initial proposal at the end of the interactional unfolding. This extract provides further evidence of the interactional strategies to justify a proposal.

The sixteenth extract showcased a participant invoking a task rule as a source of deontic authority, followed by the use of a directive to subtly resist the screen sharer's deontic authority to extend a trip to three days. The screen sharer then accounts for his action to justify his initiative.

The seventeenth extract illustrated a similar occasion, where an epistemic-oriented polar question addressed to the screen sharer's action is treated as a challenge to deontic authority by the screen sharer. This extract showcased that in task-based environments, shared epistemic access behind the decision had a significant effect on the negotiation of deontics.

In conclusion, this section suggests that, akin to the concept of "epistemic ticker" of Heritage (2012b), the participants consistently oriented to some "deontic ticker," similar in everyday conversations (Clayman & Heritage, 2014). Contrastingly to everyday conversation, however, in the task-based environment, however, this deontic ticker was influenced by the goal orientation and the task rules. The task rules were treated as the norms of the social environment, and apart from that, the participants oriented to the conversational exchange as equals. In other cases, the participants used strategies of i) increasing the benefits of the proposed action ii) reducing the cost of the proposed action.

5. DISCUSSION

This study set out to investigate the specific social action formats participants used to move the task forward. The findings align with Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) premises that certain grammatical structures are often favored when performing specific social actions, with first-person plural modals such as "we can," "we should," and "we could" frequently appearing in the context of proposals.

However, the dataset of this study reveals a stronger preference for proposal-making structures over suggestion and request forms, contrasting with Couper-Kuhlen's more evenly distributed findings. This discrepancy could be attributed to the source of the datasets, as Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) corpus is comprised of everyday interactions between Native American speakers of English. Given the context of the study, the interactions are task-oriented, requiring participants with evenly distributed deontic rights, resulting in a more egalitarian atmosphere. Moreover, participants show a preference for using collective "we" pronouns in proposal-making, underlining the collaborative nature of interactions in TM-T cxBLT. Furthermore, these findings pattern with Goodwin's (Goodwin, 1980, 1990)'s claims on proposals implying a more egalitarian stance over the proposed activity.

In the data, it is evident that participants attend to the constraints and affordances of VMI, thus aligning their interaction patterns accordingly. These patterns reveal that the activity of the screen-sharing creates a deontic asymmetry, as the only participant who has access to the task sheet and coordinates the screen is the screen-sharer. As a result, offers, suggestions, and requests are usually directed to the screen-sharer. These findings tell us that when conducting a task-oriented activity, the speakers tend to propose joint activities, and this, in turn, affects their grammatical choices and their constructions.

Revisiting Table 4.2., Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) distinction between the agent and the beneficiary of the action becomes somewhat blurred. While the agents of the actions are clear, the beneficiary of the actions, referred to as "other" in dyadic

interaction shifts to the group in this context. Since the aim is achieving task completion, the result of the actions benefits the entire group. This observation opens up potential avenues for further research. Although it lies beyond the scope of the current study, it highlights the need for further investigation into the nature of social actions and interactional patterns in TM-TBLT and group interaction contexts.

Despite the differing contexts, the findings of the current study align with Thompson et al.'s (2021) study on the grammar of proposals. They suggest that when a modal declarative format (i.e., deontically weaker format) is used, even though the recipients have indicated some willingness towards to participate in a joint activity, they have not a stance towards the specific proposal. The present study supports this finding, particularly regarding “we can” proposals.

Due to the complexity of presenting the results, Thompson et al. (2021) leave the choice between modal declaratives for future research. Nonetheless, this study differentiates between “we can” and “we should” statements. Particularly when addressing a problem, we should statements in the present dataset were reinforced with references to task rules to propose the next activity. On the other hand, “we can” proposals offered multiple potential courses of action, signaling a lack of commitment. This finding is congruent with preference-organizational features of recruitment-related actions, as the design of the turns are crafted to increase the likelihood of acceptance (e.g., suggesting several courses of action in the same turn and strengthening the turns with accounts). Unlike “we can” statements, “we should” proposals tended to be single propositions signaling commitment by the proposer. This is likely because “we should” proposals inherently tie the proposed future activity to an oriented-to valid account in relation to the context (i.e., task rule or task requirement), which is then evidenced in the interactional unfolding of the conversation. Therefore, based on the data, I argue that although a continuum of grammatical structures exists relative to their deontic strength, modal declaratives cannot all be placed at the same point on this continuum. I contend that “we should” proposals have more deontic force than “we can” statements, as both the speakers and recipients orient to “we can” proposals as non-committal. In contrast, “we should” turns are typically strengthened with task rules to enhance the

entitlement of the speaker and reduce the contingency on the recipients (Curl & Drew, 2008). This conclusion also suggests that the choice of grammatical structures imposes certain requirements on turn design. Examining the sequential development and turn designs, these findings are consistent with the previous displaying a preference for agreement in interaction (Sacks, 1987).

Furthermore, Thompson et al. (2021) posit that modal declaratives may be utilized to resolve problems that recipients have acknowledged. This study supports this idea, extending it to “let’s” proposals. The present study’s dataset reveals that “we should” and “let’s” proposals were frequently issued to solve previous problems or address epistemic gaps impeding the task progression. Moreover, Thompson et al.’s (2021) research reports that “let’s” proposals are typically used when acceptance is highly anticipated, with speakers adjusting their grammatical choices based on prior interactional evidence of the recipients’ propensity to accept the proposal. However, the current study’s dataset contains several instances where this adjustment is breached, a concept referred to as deontic incongruence by Stevanovic (2018). The dataset further reveals that “let’s” proposals are used to endorse ideas, resolve troubles, and even shift conversation trajectories. Nevertheless, these findings are not necessarily contradictory to Thompson et al.’s (2021) results. As mentioned, let’s proposals often indicate a topic shift by drawing on task rules and aiming for task completion. As such, the co-participants’ inclination to acceptance is already self-evident within the context. In everyday interactions, Thompson et al. (2021) argue that in such cases, the agreement is “assumed or attributed” (p. 141). Moreover, when the speakers breach these norms and use deontically stronger proposal to put forward a future activity without task-requirement evidence or an account, the participants orient to these statements within their deontic rights and challenge these actions, similar to deontically weaker forms (as in Extract 14).

Furthermore, the data under scrutiny found one use of “let’s X” to be a strategic tool to direct collective focus, foster shared attention, and align on-screen activities with verbal utterances. This finding adds a dimension to the growing body of literature on language use in digital environments. Particularly, this finding resonates with and extends the research of Balaman and Pekarek-Doehler (Balaman & Pekarek-Doehler, 2022; Pekarek-Doehler & Balaman, 2021) on the use of “let me” as a self-authorizing recalibration tool (see also Hoey, 2022). Both studies illuminate the function of these phrases in establishing agency (Kockelman, 2007) within a task-oriented context. Pekarek-Doehler and Balaman (2021) document that “let me” operates as a mechanism to self-authorize and signal incipient screen activity, thus enabling co-participants to anticipate the interactional unfolding. The present research identifies a similar dynamic with “let’s,” the screen sharers, possessing higher deontic rights in relation to screen activities due to their sole control over the shared screen, utilize “let’s” to strategically navigate the collective focus and actions of the participants.

In a rather similar context, Stephenson (2020) primarily focused on the use of directives as a means of setting the group agenda and negotiating deontic rights. While making no granular distinction between the used grammatical formats, Stephenson discusses how a directive can be used to curtail another member’s turn and propose a new interactional agenda. He introduces the concept of superficial deontic congruence, where a directive can be only partially accepted, and the enactment of the proposed interactional agenda can be delayed. Furthermore, he discusses the co-construction of directives, where multiple group members contribute to the formulation of a directive. This reflects the jointly co-constructed nature of task interaction and the equal distribution of deontic rights among the participants. Lastly, he explores how the introduction of a second directive can delay the proposed interactional agenda, at the same time circumventing the first speakers’ assertion of proximal deontic rights. Based on Stevanovic (2018)’s suggestion, Stephenson’s (2020) mainly sets his focus on the adjacency pairs that negotiate deontic rights. As such, he finds out that these directives can be used to

reject (i.e., challenge or circumvent), or accept (i.e., endorse) the FPP. While the findings of the current study are consistent with these results, by examining the broader sequential environment of these proposals, in addition to Stephenson's (2020) findings, it suggests that these forms are used to overcome problems that hinder the progression of talk and task. Furthermore, Stephenson (2020) points out that the design of a turn can mitigate the deontic strength of a directive and posits that the stronger directives (i.e., high entitlement and low contingency) tend to be rejected, whereas weaker directives (i.e., low entitlement and high contingency) tend to be accepted. In contrast, the current study finds no relation between the form of the directive and its likelihood of acceptance, with both deontic incongruence and congruence was observed with all the cases. However, the current study's dataset shows that not only the design of the turn may mitigate the deontic source of the proposal (including the choice of the modal verb or the grammatical structure), it may also strengthen the deontic strength of the turn by stating a positive benefactive stance, for example, minimizing the cost of the proposed activity or maximizing its benefits for the group. Interestingly, no examples were observed in the data where one speaker maximized the cost of another's proposal by directly framing it non-benefactive. Instead, in the case of a deontic incongruence, the speakers always maximized the benefits of their own proposals. Considering the CA research on preference organization, the observed patterns may be related to preference organizational features. However, to make a solid claim on such a preferential feature, further empirical research would be required. Moreover, as evidenced in Extract 7, the task rule can serve as a source of deontic authority, leading to the occurrence of deontic incongruence after an action is completed. In this case, this phenomenon occurs in the form of another initiated other repair, which is oriented to correct or set right a previous action instead of claiming deontic authority towards a verbal utterance. Hence, I call this type of incongruence "retrospective deontic incongruence".

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Overview of the study

As IC plays an important role in effective language learning and shapes the environments of SLA, examining the underlying structures of IC is of utmost importance. Thus far, traditional approaches to SLA have been critiqued for their heavy reliance on etic theories and neglect of the emic, participant-relative perspective. CA is proven to be instrumental in understanding and documenting IC, including technology-enhanced environments. Furthermore, a shift in focus from task-as-workplan to task-as-process in literature emphasizes the examination of quality and context of interactions, with CA playing a crucial role in providing a more comprehensive understanding of task-based interaction. Against this backdrop, the current study aimed to analyze technology-mediated task-based interactional data obtained from advanced learners of English. Adopting a conversation analytic perspective in examining task-oriented spoken discourse, diverging from the majority of task-based interactional research which primarily center on the negotiation of meaning, the objective of the study was to understand and pinpoint the interactional strategies and mechanisms that the task-takers employ to co-construct their task discourse and advance the task forward.

To do so, four different tasks were designed as external class activities, with senior students from an ELT department completing these tasks. The tasks were carried out on Zoom through a website designed and supplied by the researcher. The spoken data was thoroughly transcribed, following a series of steps including orthographic transcription, detailed Jeffersonian transcription, and the annotation of screen-based activities. The analysis of the interactional data revealed various social action formats the students employ to facilitate task progression and completion. Moreover, a tendency towards using proposal structures to promote egalitarian decision making and collective agency was evident. Therefore, a key focus within the study's context was determined as proposals as social actions. As proposals are tied to the innate human tendency for cooperation and language use, and previous investigation to proposals has revealed various dynamics and outcomes in different social and institutional contexts. Considering the grammatical connections of implementing specific social actions, the granular investigation was

narrowed down to the use of the most observed three proposal structures in the dataset. The granular analysis revealed how the design of the turn (i.e., both the choice of the grammatical structure and further strategies employed), deontic authority, entitlement, and contingency play roles in the acceptance or rejection of proposals.

The study concluded the following:

- The contrast to the distribution of social actions in everyday conversational data (Couper-Kuhlen, 2014) in favor of proposal structures in task discourse might be attributed to the egalitarian environment the participants engage in their decision-making tasks since their institutional identities did not differ.
- Furthermore, it was seen that Couper-Kuhlen's (2014) and Clayman and Heritage's (2014) distinction between the benefactors and beneficiaries of the actions were blurred, both because of the tetradic nature of the task discourse and the existence of the task rules. Since the interaction was not dyadic, the term beneficiary shifted to the group in this case. Furthermore, because of the existence of the task rules, the proposals were accepted or circumvented by considering the task rules rather than being beneficial for the receivers. This finding draws a distinction between everyday interaction and institutional discourse.
- Identification of frequencies of social action formats revealed that the most used proposal formats were "we can," "let's," and "we should."
- A closer investigation of these proposal formats revealed that these proposal formats were primarily used to move the task forward by introducing and navigating new courses of actions, resolving troubles, setting the upcoming task agenda, and endorsing and circumventing the preceding proposals. Overall, this finding supports Stephenson's (2020) research on face-to-face task interactions in a task-based assessment setting.
- Furthermore, the findings of the study highlight the multi-dimensional role of "we can," "let's" and "we should" in task-oriented interactions. "we can"

statements were used for navigating potential courses of actions, as well as endorsing and circumventing previous proposals.

- “Let’s” statements acted as transition markers, steering discussions from non-task to task-centered dialogues and indicating progression within the task. It also served as a synchronizer, aligning verbal utterances with on-screen activities and focusing collective attention. Moreover, “let’s” functions as both a circumvention tool, diverting from less practical ideas, and an acknowledgment device, endorsing and supporting preceding ideas. Lastly, it is employed to bridge informational gaps and address problems.
- On the other hand, “we should” proposals in task-oriented tetradic interactions can function in various ways. They may serve as initiators and introduce new courses of action, endorse and advance previous proposals, and address problematizations, either by signaling a previous trouble to rectify or offering an alternative pathway to a current issue, guiding the group towards a resolution.
- Another important finding from the data is that the speakers oriented to the fine-grained distinctions between these forms in terms of their deontic strength. The findings are overall in line with Thompson et al.’s (2021) findings in that these proposal structures “let’s,” “we can,” and “we should” could be placed in a cline in terms of their deontic strength. However, the data showed that modal declaratives cannot be placed at the same place within this cline because “we should” proposals were treated to have a valid account in terms of the speaker, which is then revealed in the interactional unfolding, and they mostly relied on task rules. Thus, they were strengthened in terms of the turn design. With this in mind, this study argues that “we should” structures are deontically stronger than “we can” statements.
- “We can” statements are found to be less deontically strong as they are treated as options and were circumvented with the same grammatically formulated proposal structures, both by the proposer and the respondents.

- Let's formats were found to be deontically strongest forms as they were formulated when there is strong evidence towards accepting the proposal (assumed, attributed or interactionally evident). Furthermore, they were usually in close proximity to the on-screen activity they verbally indicated. This is in support of Thomson et al.'s (2021) findings.
- Furthermore, the dataset revealed that in task-based interactions, participants navigate deontic incongruences—discrepancies in who has the right or authority to perform an action—using various strategies. These strategies include choosing grammatical structures considering their fine-grained distinctions, justifying proposals, and leveraging the proposal by invoking task rules.
- The participants' orientation to a “deontic ticker,” akin to Heritage's (2012b) concept of an “epistemic ticker,” is influenced by the goal orientation and task rules. This finding is another distinction that makes task-oriented interaction distinct from everyday interaction.
- When the task rules are not adhered to, participants employ strategies to increase the benefits of their proposals, reduce the cost of the action for the group, or maximize the cost of a counter-proposal. This finding highlights an interesting aspect of IC.
- Furthermore, the examined extracts reveal that the students formulate their proposals by drawing resources from the screen. As the task agenda and the proximal future actions are determined in close relation to directive-commissive actions in general, the on-screen activities were also signaled by proposals, especially when an endorsement followed. This finding tells us that the participants orient to the screen as a semiotic resource when co-constructing their task discourse. This is in support of previous research on digital spaces.

6.2 Implications for Practitioners

The study highlights the importance of understanding the interactional dynamics within TM-TBLT. This suggests that language educators and task designers should pay more attention to how students interact and negotiate the task agenda within these environments. This could lead to the development of more

effective teaching strategies and task designs that facilitate better interaction and communication among students. For instance, before the design of the task, practitioners might consider including guided instruction that prompts students to use different proposal structures, with specific attention to their fine-grained distinctions in terms of their deontic strength. Furthermore, when the students use deontically stronger formats, they must be aware that the interaction may unfold to reveal a deontic incongruence unless there's a shared epistemic access with the co-participants regarding the proposal or a valid account is previously mentioned.

The study also emphasizes the role of grammatical structures in performing specific social actions. This implies that language educators should not only focus on teaching grammar as a set of rules but also on how these grammatical structures are used in interaction. As the dataset reveals, the deontic strength of a turn can also be mitigated or strengthened by the design of the turn, in addition to the grammatical structure. Giving accounts for the proposed action, justifying the proposed action, and taking a benefactive stance, may increase the chance of the acceptance of a proposal. Furthermore, using a high-entitlement, low contingency form without the support of these interactional features may result in deontic incongruence, hence requiring more interactional work. These findings could help students better understand the practical applications of grammar and improve their interactional competence.

The findings of the study also suggest that the use of proposals is a crucial aspect of advancing tasks and achieving task progression. This implies that teaching students how to make effective proposals could be an important part of language instruction, especially in “convergent” tasks, that curtail joint problem-solving or decision-making, in which the participants may influence the interactional trajectories (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

Lastly, the study shows that the participants orient to a “deontic ticker,” which results in negotiating deontic rights in task-based interactions. This suggests that students should be taught how to negotiate these rights effectively, as this could enhance their ability to participate in and contribute to group tasks. This could be particularly beneficial in assessment situations where students are evaluated based on their ability to participate in group tasks.

6.3 Directions for Future Research

While this study has contributed significantly to our understanding of task-based discourse in terms of the pragmatic usages of specific structures, it also opens up various avenues for future research. As a response to the first research question, this study has mapped the observed grammatical structures in relation to social action formats in task-based discourse. However, in order to keep the scope manageable, the focus of this study was necessarily narrowed to the three most observed proposal formats, leaving other recruitment-related social actions, such as those indicating requests, offers, or suggestions, relatively unexplored. These social actions, while well-studied in everyday interactions, are less examined in educational environments, particularly within digital spaces. As such, there is a compelling need for further research into these social actions to enhance our understanding of the dynamics of digital educational environments and how these contexts influence on-screen interactions. In this regard, both grammatically oriented and action-oriented approaches to how these social actions are performed in technology-mediated educational environments would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the interactional dynamics at play.

Moreover, other proposal structures, such as “we could,” “should we,” and “can we,” warrant detailed examination. By investigating these formats in various contexts, we can further elucidate the similarities and the nuanced distinctions between these forms, the reasons and the interactional consequences for choosing each structure, and thus gain insights into how speakers and co-participants orient to their usage.

This study provides a snapshot of the interactional dynamics within a specific task-based teaching context. It relies on the data gathered within two weeks from four different groups. Longitudinal studies could provide further insights into how these dynamics evolve over time and how students’ use of grammatical structures and negotiation of deontic rights develop with increased exposure and practice.

Finally, replicating this study in different settings, such as synchronous versus asynchronous environments, and with learners of different proficiency levels could broaden the applicability of its findings.

7. REFERENCES

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8. APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Jeffersonian Transcription Conventions

Symbol	Name	Use
[text]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↑	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↓	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
...	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
(text)	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
((italic text))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

Adapted from Jefferson (1984) "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), Structures of Social Interaction, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

Appendix 2 Transcription Conventions for Screen Activities

Mark	Meaning
1#	Onset marker, indicates the beginning of the on-screen activity which continues until the offset point marker.
#1	Offset marker, marks the ending point of the on-screen activity.
1#...	Continuation marker, signifies the continuatuion of the on-screen activity.
Screenshots	Provide visual records of the participants' screens.
Circle	Marks the points on the screen where the participant holds the cursor still or clicks on.
Arrow	Denotes the direction of the cursor.
Descriptions	Unanalytical descriptions of the on-screen activities.

Adapted from Balaman (2019)

Appendix 3 Task 1 Interface



Prepare a two-day trip plan for a city you would like to visit.

- **Step 1:** Check out the list below and decide upon one city you each would like to visit with your group:
 - London
 - New York
 - Sydney
- **Step 2:** Download the travel itinerary sheet by clicking the download button below. You are expected to prepare a detailed travel plan for the city you selected in Step 1 by filling out the travel itinerary form you downloaded.
- Only one person in your group needs to fill in the PDF form and upload it but you need to make decisions collaboratively. One person in your group can screenshare and you can discuss and make decisions together.



- You are expected to take the trip *together with your group*. (i.e., depart and return together, travel together etc.)
- You can use google maps, google street view, or other resources on the internet through search engines while making your decisions.
- In your itinerary, you must include:
 - The trip dates,
 - Your departure and return transportation information by checking out the available flights, train, and bus schedules,
 - At least 2 must-see sites for each day (at least 4 or more for the whole trip),
 - At least 3 meal plans for each day (breakfast, lunch, and dinner) including the places (cafes, restaurants, and bars) and the food of your choice for each participant,
 - Your accommodation information (hotel name, address, and total cost for one-night accommodation),
 - Your rough budget to make this trip, which is the sum of ticket and accommodation costs for your whole group.
- **Step 3:** Select the the filled-out travel itinerary form by clicking the **add file** button below and upload it to the site.

SELECT FILE: *

ADD FILE +

UPLOAD

Appendix 4 Task 2 Interface

Prison Puzzle

You each see a different clue in the clue box below. Read your clue and tell it to your friends.

From the clues, can you work out the name, crime and sentence of the person on each floor?

For this activity, all four of you need to submit an answer. Select the correct responses on each dropdown below and click send.

You can use Google Jamboard, a word document or another program to visualize, take notes and and think together.

Your Clue:
Clue Loading...

Prisoners: Billy Villain, Tommy Culpit, Kevin Crook, Micky Felon
Crimes: kidnapping, murder, theft, blackmail
Sentences: 5, 10, 15, 25 Years



3rd Floor

Name:

Crime:

Sentence:

2nd Floor

Name:

Crime:

Sentence:

1st Floor

Name:

Crime:

Sentence:

Ground Floor

Name:

Crime:

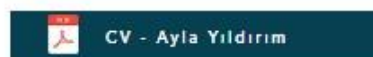
Sentence:

Appendix 5 Task 3 Interface



You are experienced ELT teachers at a reputable high school. Your school wants to hire an English teacher who will be teaching grades between 9 – 12. You are selected for the decision committee, and you have four applicants for the position.

1. Download and examine each CV below, read the bios of each candidate.
2. Select one teacher to employ in your school by discussing with the other committee members.
3. State your reasons about choosing the hired applicant and fill in the form below.



Hired applicant: *

Name:

Why did you choose this applicant?

SUBMIT

Appendix 6 Task 4 Interface



In your opinion, what are some important problems in the education system in Turkey? Discuss with your group, brainstorm about the present problems and list as many problems as you can think of. Then, among the list, choose the top five most important and list them from the most important to the least important.

- **Step 1:** Brainstorm about the problems in the education system in Turkey.
- **Step 2:** Select the top most 5 important ones and prioritize them.
- **Step 3:** Fill out the form below according to the list you came up with and click send.

Appendix 7 Ethical Committee Approval



**Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimlerde İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu**

Esra METİN

Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi,
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

Sayın Esra METİN,

“Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenenlerin Teknoloji Aracılı Görev Etkileşimlerinin Konuşma Çözümlemesi Yöntemiyle İncelenmesi” adlı İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kuruluna yapmış olduğunuz başvurunuz (Protokol NO. 2021/421) kurulumuzun 04.11.2021 tarihli ve 2021/11 toplantısında değerlendirilerek etik olarak uygun bulunmuştur. Bilgilerinize sunarız.