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Research Article

Turn-taking in Cooperative Board Games: A Study of Speech Act Clusters

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Abstract

Effective speaking in group interactions is crucial for foreign language learners, yet many Japanese EFL students struggle with self-selection (i.e., speaking without direct invitation). This study adopts a corpus pragmatics approach to analyze speech act clusters used among L1 English speakers during cooperative board game play, which involves convergent decision-making. By identifying common speech act patterns, the study aims to establish language targets that promote interactive utterances, to help learners self-select more effectively in group discussions. Transcriptions from YouTube of board game play were annotated for speech acts using DART v.3 (Weisser, 2019a, 2019b) and analyzed with AntConc (Anthony, 2020) to identify clusters. Results indicate that acknowledging others' utterances is common when interlocutors self-select, while explicit opinion elicitation is rare. These insights can guide the development of materials that support group decision-making, such as consciousness-raising frameworks or guided practice, and offer a method for creating materials for other communicative contexts.

外国語学習者にとってグループ交流での効果的な発話は重要だが、日本人EFL学習者の多くは自己選択（直接誘われずに発話すること）に苦戦する。本研究は、コーパス語用論的アプローチで、収束的意思決定を伴うボードゲーム協力プレイ中の英語母語話者の発話行為クラスターを分析する。YouTubeからのトランスクリプトをDART v.3 (Weisser, 2019a, 2019b)でアノテーションし、AntConc (Anthony, 2020)で分析した結果、自己選択時には他者の発話を認める行為が多く、意見の引き出しは稀であることが示された。これらの知見は、意識喚起フレームワークやガイド付き練習など、集団意思決定を支援する教材の開発に役立ち、他の文脈の教材作成にも応用できる。

The ability to participate effectively in group discussions is a key goal in foreign language learning. The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) acknowledges this by distinguishing between "spoken production" and "spoken interaction" (Council of Europe, n.d.). At the B2 (upper-intermediate) level, L2 users should be able to take turns effectively, both initiating and responding in discussions. This distinction is also reflected in Japan's Ministry of Education (MEXT) guidelines for English education at the junior high and high school levels (MEXT, n.d.).

Board games have been recognized as valuable collaborative language learning tasks (Chung, 2013; Hastings, 2023; York et al., 2019). Cooperative board games, in particular, encourage information exchange and opinion-sharing as players strategize toward a common goal with game play decisions. The repetition of limited possible actions in the game lowers lexical demands, allowing learners to focus on meaning rather than vocabulary constraints.

As Williamson (2022) notes, those unable to adjust to turn-taking norms in cross-cultural communication often speak less and less often during meetings. For Japanese university students, difficulty in self-selecting turns may hinder participation and result in marginalization in globalized workplaces. Beyond vocabulary and grammar, these students must learn to initiate discussion effectively. While cultural norms and individual differences may play a role, raising awareness of how pragmatic moves fit into discussions can help learners engage more actively. If students recognize available utterances for self-selection and the signals that invite participation, they may become more comfortable taking turns without needing an explicit invitation to speak.

This study applies a corpus pragmatics approach to identify frequent speech act combinations in L1 cooperative board game play. The next section outlines key research areas: board games and tasks in language education, turn-taking, speech act theory, and corpus pragmatics. The methodology details the transcription and annotation procedure, while the results present the frequent speech act clusters. The discussion addresses the study's implications and limitations.

Literature Review

Board Games in Language Education

The use of board games in language education aligns with a task-based approach to language teaching. Ellis (2003) defines "tasks" as work plans involving linguistic activity with a primary focus on meaning to achieve a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome with learners using their available linguistic resources. Long (1989) highlighted information distribution (e.g., two-way information flow) and *goal orientation* (e.g., *closed goal orientation* with a small range of possible solutions) as task design features that promote collaboration and language use to negotiate decisions and solve problems. These principles support cooperative board games as communicative tasks.

While games often foster competition, cooperative board games require group members to work toward a shared, common goal (e.g., firefighters with different skill sets or tools working to extinguish fires and rescue victims). Similarly, in research on "cooperative learning," Johnson and Johnson (1994) identified "positive interdependence" and "individual accountability" as essential principles for collaborative learning. Meta-analyses by Hattie (2009) reported high effect sizes (0.54 and 0.59, Cohen's D) for cooperative learning compared to competitive and individual approaches. Thus, cooperative game play not only provides language practice but also promotes effective learning.

Studies on learning with board games highlight divergent and computational thinking in discourse. York et al. (2019) found that Japanese university students did not pre-read the English tabletop game rules, leading the teacher/researchers to develop a structured 90-minute lesson sequence: (1) pre-play rule learning, (2) recorded gameplay, (3) analysis of recordings, and (4) reporting. Surveys indicated that non-linguistic goals in the board game positively affected student attitudes, though excessive L1 Japanese use was noted. In tabletop role-playing games (TRPGs), Chung (2013) linked creative divergent thinking to fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration, with TRPG players scoring higher in divergent thinking tests. Berland and Lee (2011, as cited in Hastings, 2023, p. 44) examined group discourse in Pandemic gameplay, categorizing it into "computational functions such as conditional logic, algorithm building, debugging, and simulation." Conaway and Rouault (2023) found that several high frequency word clusters used in cooperative board games matched those in Handford's (2010) corpus of business meeting communications, a recognized L2 user need.

Turn-taking in Conversation

In a pioneering study analyzing turns in English conversation, Sacks et al. (1974) have presented 14 patterns for turn-taking (see Appendix A). For the analysis of conversations, Schegloff (2007) further explains two foundational points. Speaker turns are comprised of "turn-constructional units" (TCUs) that perform a specific action, and transition to the next speaker typically occurs at a "transition-relevance place" (TRP). In research comparing turn-taking in conversations, for English Furo (2001) found fewer backchannels, more overlaps and interventions, and features of intonation to keep the speaker from being interrupted. Conversely, the Japanese conversation data in Furo's study showed more backchannels (and even strategies to invite them) and few overlaps or interruptions.

In multi-speaker discussions, there are several ways in which the next speaker may be decided. One method of determining who is to speak next is for a participant to nominate themselves to speak, which is called self-selection. Another method is for the current speaker (or another participant) to nominate the next speaker, which can be done by explicitly inviting the speaker to speak or through body language (Wong & Waring, 2021). In the experience of the authors, Japanese university students have a tendency to rely on conventions such as seating arrangements (e.g., speaking in clockwise order) or expecting nomination by the teacher while rarely engaging in self-selection.

Speech Act Theory

In using language to communicate and express themselves, people are not only employing words and grammatical structures; they are also performing actions with their utterances. These actions performed via the utterances are called "speech acts" (Yule, 1996, p. 47). As an early nod to the more recent interdisciplinary focus around applied linguistics, the two pioneers of speech act theory were philosophers John Austin and John Searle. In the 1960s, Austin proposed a taxonomy of speech acts with three parts: (1) locutionary acts - saying something meaningful or in a literal sense, (2) illocutionary acts - saying something with an intended, conventional force, and (3) perlocutionary acts - what we achieve or effect in the listener by what we say (as cited in Félix-Brasdefer, 2019). The five macro-types of speech acts in Searle's (1976) taxonomy are shown with examples in Table 1. Declarations are speech acts that change the broader current environment. Representatives (assertives) are assertions of what the speaker believes. Expressives present what the speaker feels or express a psychological state. Directives are speech acts used to get the listener to do something. Commissives create an obligation on the speaker to take some future action. Although all five types of speech acts occur in the information exchange, bargaining, and agreement phases of the communication and decision-making in business negotiations (Gardani, 2018), a more finely defined taxonomy at the micro level of speech acts would be useful in conducting language research. Additionally, Austin (1962) recognized that the successful performance of an illocutionary act involves co-construction by the speaker and listener based on both understanding the utterance and responding to it.

Table 1

Speech Act Taxonomy: Five General Functions of Speech Acts

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S=speaker X=situation	Examples
Declarations	words change the world	S causes X	words used in an institutional role
Representatives	make words fit the world	S believes X	assertions, facts, descriptions
Expressives	make words fit the world	S feels X	pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, sorrow
Directives	make the world fit words	S wants X	commands, orders, requests, suggestions
Commissives	make the world fit words	S intends X	promises, threats, refusals, pledges

Corpus Pragmatics

In pragmatics, determining a speaker's illocutionary force can be labor-intensive, requiring analysis of the utterance and its context. Consequently, studies often focus on small text samples. Conversely, corpus linguistics seeks generalizable results using large datasets analyzed with software tools. Rühlemann (2019) describes corpus pragmatics as merging the computational search capabilities of corpus linguistics with the detailed interpretive analysis of pragmatics. He identifies two analytical approaches: form-to-function and function-to-form.

The form-to-function approach involves searching a corpus for a word or phrase (form) and analyzing concordances to determine their usage and associated speech acts. For instance, Adolphs (2008, as referenced by Rühlemann, 2019) analyzed collocations of *why don't you*, finding differences in usage when suggesting versus questioning.

In contrast, the function-to-form approach begins with speech acts (functions) to examine their contextual exemplification (form). Originally, this required the labor-intensive task of coding the corpus by hand with tags representing speech acts. Weisser (2015) introduced Dialogue Annotation Research Tool (DART), a software program that automated parts of the process for annotating dialog transcripts with speech act tags, arguing it outperformed existing annotation methods. Later, Weisser (2020) proposed a more nuanced speech act taxonomy, enabling distinctions between communication genres based solely on speech act tags, a feat unachievable with traditional taxonomies.

In their very detailed guide, *From Corpus to Classroom*, O'Keeffe et al. (2007) proffer that "interesting examples of pragmatic specialisation can be found when we look at small corpora of data from specific social interactions" (p. 163). Because such interaction data is from a very specific context of use, these patterns may not be noticed in a large corpus. The hypothesis of the authors is that with a speech act annotation such as DART, a corpus can be searched for clusters of speech acts, much like corpus linguistic analysis allows for the identification of words that frequently co-occur. Following this approach, this corpus-based, exploratory study was designed to address the following research questions: Does self-selection for turn-taking occur more frequently in board game play than the nomination of others? Which speech acts occur most frequently in decision-making during board game play? Which sequences of speech acts (speech events that involve more than one speaker taking a turn) are most frequent in the negotiations for board game play decisions?

Methodology

To create the speech act-annotated corpus for this study, multiple software packages were used. Establishing a proof of concept for this technological method of language analysis required adjustments to the output formats for compatibility between the steps. Below is a description of the software and the steps needed to facilitate the analyses of this or other spoken interaction genres.

Selection of the YouTube Video

From the Missclicks YouTube channel, which features people joining remotely to play a different board game each episode, the video "Flash Point - Ep. 6 Gameplay - Table Flippin Games" was selected to create the corpus. This 90-minute video features four L1 speakers of English playing the cooperative board game "Flash Point Fire Rescue" with one of the players appearing to have more experience with the game than the others. A multi-player video was chosen to offer more variation and complexity in speaker transitions. Each player had a separate microphone, aiding audio transcription.

Audio Transcription

The first step in creating the corpus was transcribing the audio. While YouTube provides transcripts, they often lack diarization (speaker labeling), which is essential for annotating speech acts. The online tool Jimaku Editor for File, developed by Hidehito Aoki (n.d.), was used to transcribe and edit the audio.

Voice Recognition and Diarization

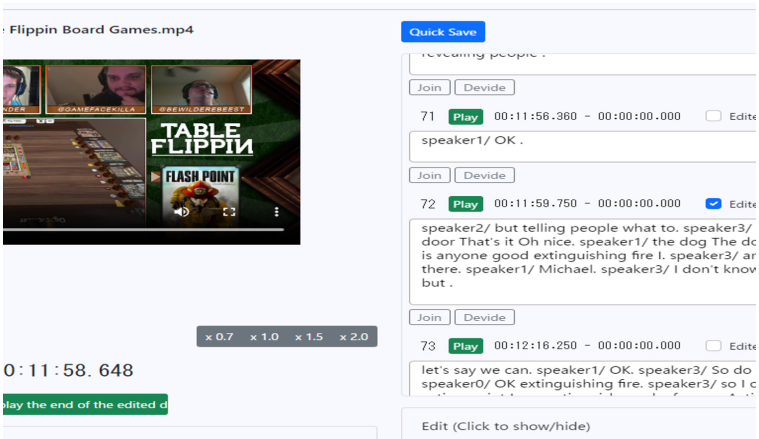
Jimaku Editor for File utilizes the Amivoice Cloud Platform for speech-to-text transcription, which offers 60 free minutes per month. After setting up the API key, the video file was loaded, the language was selected, and speaker diarization (labeled as speaker01, speaker02 etc.) was enabled by entering the number of speakers. The "Get Speech Recognition Results" option generated the English transcription of proficient L1 speech.

Transcription Editing

Editing involved comparing the transcribed utterances on the right side of Jimaku Editor for File with the audio preview on the left, which is shown in Figure 1. Once all corrections were made, the transcript was saved as a text file. For more details on using the tool, refer to Aoki (2022).

Figure 1

Jimaku Editor for File UI



Speech Act Annotation

The next step in the process was to annotate the transcript with speech acts. The Dialogue Annotation & Research Tool (DART) v3 (Weisser, 2019a, 2019b) was used to tag the transcript with speech acts. The software, its manual, and taxonomy can all be downloaded freely.

Preparation of Transcripts for Annotation

The text file produced by Jimaku Editor for File is not in a format that can be used by DART v3. While the text file displays the start of each turn with the speaker label (speaker1/), DART v3 requires each turn to be labeled in an XML markup language format. XML (eXtensible Markup Language) is a text-based format for organizing and storing data in a way that is both human-readable and machine-readable, using customizable tags to label the data to aid analysis. Each turn was marked with a tag that denotes both the sequence of the turn in the conversation and the speaker label (<turn="X" speaker="speakerx">). Also, for ease of editing later, each utterance within a turn was moved to a new line. Finally, a closing tag was added to the end of the turn (</turn>). While these transformations could also be performed by hand, Chat GPT 4o was employed to automate this process. See Appendix B for Chat GPT prompts. Lastly, a header was added to the top of the file so that it could be read into DART v3. As shown below, the *dialogue id* refers to the specific file and the term *corpus* specifies the group of files that you would like to analyze together.

<?xml version="1.0"?>

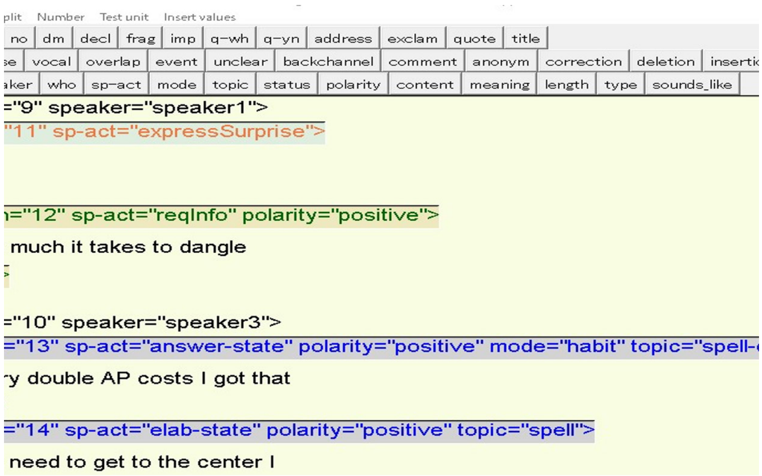
<dialogue id="file_name" corpus="corpus_name" lang="en">

Speech Act Annotation

In DART v3, a new file was created, and the reformatted transcript was imported. Under the "Annotation" menu, "Pragmatic" was selected for speech act tagging. The output includes tags for semantic topics, negation, punctuation, syntax, and speech acts, which is shown in Figure 2. See Section 4 of the DART v3 Manual (Weisser, 2019a) for further details.

Figure 2

DART v3 UI and Output



Speech Act Cluster Identification

Preparation of Annotated Transcripts for Cluster Analysis

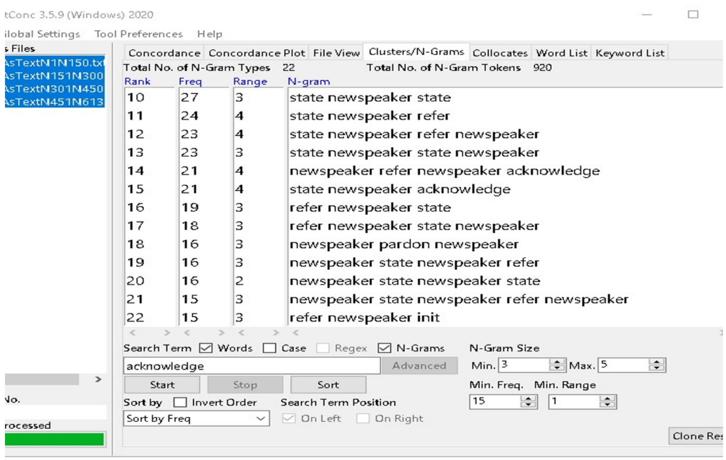
DART v3 can count individual speech acts but lacks cluster analysis capabilities. For this, AntConc 3.5.9 (Anthony, 2020) was used. To enable AntConc to recognize speech act tags as words, a simple transformation was performed to move brackets around the tags. The speaker label (e.g., speaker01) was also standardized to "newspeaker" to better capture clusters involving speaker changes. Removing the unnecessary tags from DART v3 and repositioning the brackets was performed using automated prompts in Chat GPT 4o (Appendix B).

Identification of Speech Act Clusters

The reformatted DART v3 output was imported into AntConc 3.5.9, using the n-grams tool. As shown in Figure 3, the minimum n-gram size was set to 3 to capture sequences with at least two speech acts and one speaker change, and the maximum was capped at 5 to eliminate infrequently appearing combinations. Figure 3 also shows the ranked frequency results of n-gram analysis in Antconc. As mentioned above, three-tag clusters (e.g., *state newspeaker state*) show a speech act by one speaker followed by the speech act of a different speaker.

Figure 3

AntConc UI and Output



Results

Although this study only analyzed one 90-minute video of cooperative game play, it produced 613 turns that were analyzed in DART v3, tagging 917 speech acts—a significant quantity to provide proof of concept for this method of transcribing audio, annotating speech acts, and identifying speech clusters. From direct observation of the video and the calculated frequencies of the various speech acts and speech act clusters, it is possible to answer the three research questions for this sample.

Prevalence of Self-selection

In response to RQ1, self-selection to speak was much more prevalent than nominated speaking. Nominations of others *reqinfo* and *direct*, respectively representing the speech act of requesting information and telling someone to do something are only the ninth and tenth most frequent speech acts, with fewer than 25 occurrences each (see Figure 4).

Direct nominations by name of the next speaker were primarily observed at the very beginning of the game, when the host was welcoming a new guest.

Gillyweed: I am joined with Ogreyonder and Gamefacedkilla who are my cohosts, and Moeshka, who is our guest this week. How are you?

Bewilderbeast: Doing Alright. How about - I'm looking forward to playing.

In some instances of asking questions regarding the rules of the game, although not explicitly nominated by name, the player who was most familiar with the game tended to respond to questions as well as follow-up questions without much speaking from other players.

Gillyweed: Ok. I'll go first. So what am I doing?

Gamefacedkilla: So you're going to spend your action points.

Gillyweed: I've got four?

Gamefacedkilla: and. yes you have four. And you can do anything on your reference card.

After all players became familiar with the game, during game play self-selection to speak was used more commonly than the nomination of others. Three or more players were also noted participating in exchanges rather than being limited to question and response patterns in dyads.

Bewilderbeast: Oh no. You're all gonna hate me.

Ogreyonder: What is it?

Gillyweed: Where is that?

Ogreyonder: Did you kill Chad?

Bewilderbeast: The fire's right there.

Gamefacedkilla: Whoah.

Gillyweed: Ah.

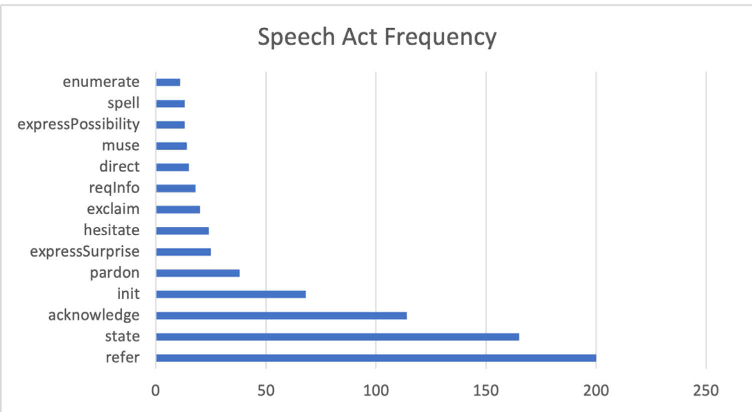
Ogreyonder: Laughter.

Gamefacedkilla: No. but it's just smoke.

Gillyweed: Wait. If it's smoke it's fine

Figure 4

Frequent Speech Acts (SA)



Frequency of Speech Acts

Figure 4 shows the frequencies of the speech acts identified in the cooperative board game play. *Refer*, *state*, *acknowledge*, and *init(iate)* were the four most frequent speech acts labeled using the DART taxonomy. These four accounted for over 500 of 917 identified speech acts. The speech act *refer* indicates using deictic reference which means using words that are only clear from the context such as *now*, *there*, or *you*. For the speech act *state*, the speaker is conveying information, while *acknowledge* signals understanding. The speech act *init(iate)* is for when a speaker starts a new phase of the dialog. As the board game and its conditions are known to all players, referring to things with deictic speech is frequent. Similarly, in order to play the game, especially when rules are not well known, conveying information takes up a large portion of communication. In order for the game to move forward, information about the game also must be acknowledged before a decision is taken by a player. After each assessment of the game's condition and acknowledgement of the next play to be made, initiating acts are used to introduce the next round of play.

Frequent Speech Act Clusters

Figure 5 shows the most common combinations of speech acts as identified using AntConc's n-gram function. The speech act clusters in the left column are those that include a speaker change (denoted by *) in between speech acts. The speech act clusters in the right column are by one speaker who holds the floor. Although information exchange is an important aspect of cooperative board game play, question and answer patterns indicated by *reqinfo*answer* were relatively infrequent in the corpus with only 10 occurrences. Instead, players tended to share information about the rules or conditions of the game as indicated by the clusters *refer*refer* (87), *refer*acknowledge* (37) and *state*state* (27). For speech act clusters by one speaker, three of the top four most frequent were "acknowledgement" of the previous speaker's contribution—a frequent precursor to sharing information or commenting about the state or condition of the game. *Reqinfo abandon* represents when a speaker has asked for information but performs another speech act without receiving an answer or without finishing the question. Such abandonment of information requests was often related to self-talk while planning a move, or suddenly noticing something more important than the question asked.

Figure 5

Frequent SA Clusters

Freq.	SA Cluster (2 speakers)	Freq.	SA Cluster
87	refer * refer	13	acknowledge state
30	refer * acknowledge	12	acknowledge refer
27	state * state	11	init(iate) state
24	state * refer	10	acknowledge init(iate)
21	state * acknowledge	10	reqinfo abandon
19	refer * state		
15	refer * init(iate)		
12	acknowledge * acknowledge		
10	acknowledge * init(iate)		
10	reqinfo * answer		
10	state * pardon		

Note. Speaker change is indicated by * .

Discussion

The results of this study provide a corpus-based breakdown of speech act frequency and clusters of speech acts in cooperative board game discussions among L1 English speakers. While the single-game sample limits generalizability, the large number of turns allowed for a proof of concept of the method to extract and code speech acts from board game chat audio on YouTube.

Nominations for others to speak predominantly occurred in what Handford's (2010) six-stage business meeting model refers to as the "opening of meeting." Self-selection for speaking turns is seen as a natural transition but is subject to felicity conditions (Kasper, 2006; Searle, 1972) related to propositional, preparatory, sincerity, and essential conditions. Additionally, as seen in business English research (Nelson, 2006), frequent collocates exhibited non-random patterning.

Limitations

While DART v3 allows relatively quick and easy annotation of a corpus, the accuracy of annotation for this corpus taken from one 90-minute video has only been validated in a limited manner by the authors. Some may also argue, as does Kasper (2006), that the illocutionary force cannot be determined without incorporating information directly from the speaker about their intentions. Also, while there are similarities between cooperative board games and business situations, the low stakes nature of games may influence how communication is patterned.

Directions for Further Research

Future research could compare turn-taking behaviors and speech act frequency in this dataset with discussions among English learners playing in their L1 and L2. Further analysis could identify recurring word clusters associated with specific speech acts and examine syntactically incomplete or semantically empty fragments in the interaction which, as O'Keeffe et al. (2007) suggest, contribute to "pragmatic adequacy and integrity." Establishing this tagging procedure also enables comparisons across different game types and communication genres.

Implications for Teaching

The obvious implication is that business English materials and teaching should not focus only on single lexical items of vocabulary but also on the unique combinations that better represent language in use from the actual business world. As Handford (2010) notes, the key in "doing business" is not about language ability, but rather the ability to maneuver within a community of practice. Additionally, language educators must help students become aware that interruption strategies (for self-selection) and elicitation strategies (for the nomination of others) which are often focused on in textbooks for discussion and meetings are not so prevalent in authentic language use. Cooperative board games provide a closed task with frequent repetition of pragmatic moves and language use in the game play decisions. This reduced cognitive load allows learners to perform the tasks and self- and peer-assess performance where "the comprehension and/or production of meaningful messages may spur motivation for students to continue learning beyond the language program" (Van den Branden, 2021, p. 323). Additionally, as part of formative learning, teachers can adapt interventions for gaps or obstacles in performance, such as providing a transcript review or offering a form-focused drill in the post-task stage based on the top self-selected language clusters used in the game. Finally, if cooperative game play can prompt the use of the relevant speech act clusters needed in co-created discourse, then board games can serve as an engaging, task-based pedagogical tool to provide learners with experience in the decision-making exchanges they will face in the future.

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Appendix A

Turn-Taking in English Conversation

14 recurring patterns of turn-taking in English conversation

1. Speaker-change recuts, or at least occurs.
2. Overwhelmingly, one party talks at a time.
3. Occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief.
4. Transitions (from one turn to the next) with no gap and no overlap are common.
5. Turn order is not fixed, but varies.
6. Turn size is not fixed, but varies.
7. Length of conversation is not specified in advance.
8. What parties say is not specified in advance.
9. Relative distribution of turns is not specified in advance.
10. Number of parties can vary.
11. Talk can be continuous or discontinuous.
12. Turn allocation techniques are obviously used.
13. Various 'turn constructional units' are employed.
14. Repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn-taking errors.

(Sacks et al., 1974)

Appendix B

Chat GPT 4o Prompts for Text Reformatting

Reformatting Jimaku Editor for File Output for Use in DART v3.

Prompt: I have a text file that needs to be reformatted. Please do the following steps:

1. Replace Speaker Labels: Convert all instances of speaker labels like "speaker0/" to XML-style tags such as <turn n="x" speaker="speakerx">, where "x" is the sequential count of turns in the discourse, not just for each speaker.
2. Add Closing Tags: Append </turn> at the end of each turn to properly close the XML tags.
3. Format Utterances: Ensure each utterance within a turn that ends with a period (.) starts on a new line to enhance readability and organization of the text.
4. Three-Line Formatting: Structure each turn into three lines:
   - The first line contains the opening <turn> tag with attributes.
   - The second line contains the dialogue or text of the turn.
   - The third line contains the closing </turn> tag.
5. Sequential Turn Counting: Ensure the "n" attribute in the <turn> tag accurately reflects the turn number in the entire dialogue sequence, ensuring it captures the flow of the conversation from start to finish.

Reformatting DART v3 Output for Use in Antconc

Prompt: I have an XML file containing <turn> elements, and I need to transform the data as follows:

1. Locate all <turn> elements in the XML.
2. Change the speaker attribute to "newSpeaker" for each <turn> element.
3. Within each <turn> element, locate any child elements containing the sp-act attribute.
4. For each child element with an sp-act attribute:
   - Extract the value of the sp-act attribute.
   - Extract the text content of the element.
5. Format the output as follows:
   - The first line for each <turn> should be "newSpeaker".
   - The second line should be the sp-act attribute value.
   - The third line should be the text content of the element enclosed in angle brackets (<>).
   - For subsequent elements within the same <turn>, repeat steps 4 and 5 without the "newSpeaker" line.

Example Input:

```
<turn n="4" speaker="speaker0">
  <dm n="4" sp-act="expressSurprise">
    Oh
  </dm>
  <dm n="5" sp-act="pardon">
    sorry
  </dm>
  <decl n="6" sp-act="state" polarity="negative" topic="spell">
    I didn't realize you
  </decl>
</turn>
```

<turn n=”5” speaker=”speaker3”>
<decl n=”7” sp-act=”state” polarity=”positive” topic=”spell”>
That’s all I do I just look it over
</decl>
</turn>
<turn n=”6” speaker=”speaker2”>
<dm n=”8” sp-act=”muse”>
well
</dm>
</turn>

Desired Output:

newSpeaker
expressSurprise
<Oh>

pardon
<sorry>
state
<I didn’t realize you>

newSpeaker
state
<That’s all I do I just look it over>
newSpeaker
muse
<well>