A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF INTERPERSONAL MEANING IN DISCOURSE: SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS AND METADISCOURSE THEORY

TIẾP CẬN NGHĨA LIÊN NHÂN CỦA DIỄN NGÔN: SO SÁNH LÝ THUYẾT SIÊU DIỄN NGÔN VÀ NGÔN NGỮ HỌC CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG

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Abstract - This article compares the approaches to interpersonal meaning in discourse from two theoretical frameworks: Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Metadiscourse (MD). The study employs synthesis, description, and comparison as its main research methods. Through theoretical analysis and application to discourse, the article highlights key similarities and differences between the two frameworks. Both theories examine discourse beyond the clause or sentence level, addressing how spoken and written discourse construct interpersonal relationships in language use. However, while Metadiscourse focuses mainly on lexical and functional aspects within sentences or utterances, Systemic Functional Linguistics extends the analysis to more abstract dimensions such as exchange structure, moves, and speech roles. The integration of these two frameworks may yield certain insights into exploring the interaction between communicating participants.

Keywords - Interpersonal Meaning; Interpersonal Metafunctions; Interaction; Discourse Analysis

Tóm tắt - Bài viết so sánh việc tiếp cận nghĩa liên nhân của diễn ngôn từ hai khung lý thuyết là Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng hệ thống (NNHCNHT) và Siêu diễn ngôn (SDN). Tổng hợp, miêu tả và so sánh là ba phương pháp chính được sử dụng để nghiên cứu trong bài viết này. Trên cơ sở miêu tả lý thuyết và ứng dụng vào phân tích minh họa bình diện nghĩa liên nhân của diễn ngôn, bài viết khái lược các điểm tương đồng và khác biệt của hai lý thuyết này. Cả hai lý thuyết đều mở rộng phạm vi phân tích vượt ra ngoài câu, cú pháp hay phát ngôn, hướng đến diễn ngôn nói và viết nhằm làm rõ quan hệ liên nhân trong giao tiếp. SDN xem xét khía cạnh từ vựng và chức năng trong chu cảnh giao tiếp, trong khi NNHCNHT phân tích các yếu tố trừu tượng hơn như sự trao đổi lượt lời, hệ thống đánh giá và chức năng hội thoại. Sự kết hợp giữa hai khung lý thuyết này có thể mang lại những ý nghĩa nhất định trong khám phá sự tương tác giữa các chủ thể giao tiếp.

Từ khóa - Nghĩa liên nhân; siêu chức năng liên nhân; tương tác; phân tích diễn ngôn

1. Introduction

Discourse is studied not only in linguistics but also across many other fields such as philosophy, anthropology, literature, cultural studies, and sociology. Within linguistics, the interpersonal meaning of discourse has been examined by many scholars in order to explore how humans enact interaction in texts. This helps us understand how people use language to communicate and to establish and maintain social relationships in specific contexts.

Interpersonal meaning reflects interactants' position, attitudes, and evaluations of one another. Accordingly, interpersonal meaning encompasses how writers (or speakers) choose linguistic strategies to maintain communicative effectiveness. Although approached from different perspectives, the interpersonal meaning of discourse helps us understand how people establish and sustain relationships and present themselves in communication. It is a multifaceted concept and plays an important role not only in linguistics but also in many other areas of society. For this reason, this article aims to systematize and illustrate how theories approach interpersonal meaning in discourse.

To achieve this aim, we select two theories - Hyland's MD [1] and SFL as conceptualized by Martin & Rose [2] and Martin & White [3] - based on their shared level of analysis (discourse). While SFL focuses on how language enables negotiation through affect and attitude (within the appraisal system), MD clarifies how writers interact with and guide readers in the process of text construction. This combination puts forward a more comprehensive view of interpersonal meaning. On this basis, the article addresses the following research questions:

(i) What aspects of discourse do MD and SFL emphasize when approaching interpersonal meaning?

(ii) What are the similarities and differences between these two theories in their approaches to the interpersonal meaning of discourse?

2. Overview of interaction in linguistics

Interpersonal meaning has been investigated across a range of fields. Catherine Garvey [4] was the first to introduce the term "interpersonal meaning" in a study of child language and pragmatics. She argues that interpersonal meaning is formed through the interpretation of speakers' and listeners' behavior. That is, interpersonal meaning represents an important aspect of an individual's social competence. However, Garvey [4] also notes that although interpersonal meaning is shaped under non-linguistic conditions, linguistic formulations still exert a considerable influence on participants' behavior. In other

words, even when interpersonal meaning originates from non-linguistic factors, it remains strongly affected by linguistic factors.

In psychology, Horowitz and Post [5] conducted a study of interpersonal meaning based on adjectives describing patients' psychological problems. Using multidimensional analysis, the adjectives used by patients can be categorized into a group expressing behavioral problems or a group carrying interpersonal meaning. Adjectives with interpersonal meaning convey important information about how an individual interacts with others and the difficulties they face in social relationships. The results of this study have substantial implications for the diagnosis and treatment of psychological problems.

Language, whether spoken or written, aims to realize human interaction and to construct interpersonal relations in communication [6]. In traditional grammar and Western structuralist linguistics, linguists focused primarily on inherent issues related to grammar, lexis, and phonetics. From around 2000 onwards, research on interaction in language increased markedly, with efforts to establish correlations between grammar and talk-in-interaction, especially in conversation analysis [7]. During this period, conversation-analytic studies concentrated on turn-taking interaction but paid relatively little attention to interaction as instantiated in language itself.

The emergence of functionalism created many opportunities for research on interaction in language [8]. Unlike structuralism, which emphasizes abstract structural rules and the autonomy of grammar, functionalism developed as a parallel tradition but shifted the focus to language use and its practical communicative functions. Functional linguists began to concentrate on interpersonal issues in language in use, first and foremost on how language is used to build and maintain social relationships. This tradition not only clarifies semantic and structural aspects of language but also provides a solid theoretical foundation for modern linguistic research [9].

In the 1960s, M. A. K. Halliday and subsequent generations also addressed interpersonal meaning within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). This theory posits that every language system realizes three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. According to Halliday [10], the interpersonal function of language lies in speakers' interaction in communication, enabling the establishment and maintenance of relationships between people. A key question is: "Through what distinct forms is interpersonal meaning expressed?" [11]. Halliday argues that interpersonal meaning tends to "flow through the clause," being pervasive rather than confined to any single structural component [11]. In a similar vein, Halliday and Matthiessen [12] proposed various classifications related to interpersonal meaning in syntax. Building on and extending this work, Martin [13] developed the concept of "interpersonal prosody" as the realization of evaluative meaning at the lexicogrammatical stratum in discourse. The Appraisal theory developed by Martin and White [2] aims to explore dimensions of interpersonal meaning.

Also approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse, Hyland proposed the concept of "metadiscourse," viewing writing or speaking as social interaction. Metadiscourse holds that communication is not merely an exchange of information, goods, or services, but also involves the participants' character, attitudes, and assumptions [1]. Metadiscourse is defined as "discourse about discourse," referring to the ways authors' or speakers' linguistic choices in texts are used to interact with recipients [14]. Accordingly, Hyland's interpersonal model of metadiscourse comprises two types of resources: interactive metadiscourse and interactional metadiscourse. With the markers realizing these two types of metadiscoursal interaction, the interpersonal meaning of discourse is constructed.

3. Research methods

This article adopts qualitative methods, including synthesis, description, and comparison. The synthesis method enables us to collect information from multiple sources, including linguistic theories and previous studies related to interpersonal meaning. The descriptive method is employed to analyze and illustrate examples in accordance with the theoretical frameworks. The comparative method plays an essential role in examining the concerns of the two linguistic theories in their approaches to interpersonal meaning in discourse.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse in systemic functional linguistics

Martin and Rose [1] argue that interpersonal meaning in discourse is instantiated through two major systems: Appraisal and Negotiation. The Appraisal system indicates that a speaker's evaluation can be realized through three modes: Attitude, Graduation, and Engagement. From this overarching theoretical framework of interpersonal resources at the discourse level, Martin and White [2] developed Appraisal Theory to investigate the Appraisal system. The Negotiation system reflects interaction between participants, that is, the "exchange" occurring between them. Negotiation analysis addresses speech function, its grammatical realization through Mood, and responses in communication. Moreover, Negotiation is also realized through moves and exchanges in discourse.

4.1.1. The appraisal system

Appraisal expresses the participants' Attitude in discourse, yet it cannot operate as a meaning-making system without the supporting components of Graduation and Engagement. Graduation enables different degrees of Attitude to be expressed, from low to high, thereby allowing more precise representation of the speaker's feelings or evaluations. Engagement, by contrast, concerns the source of Attitude and functions as a resource through which viewpoints and stances are enacted in a particular discourse. These three components constitute the Appraisal system from the SFL perspective (Figure 1).
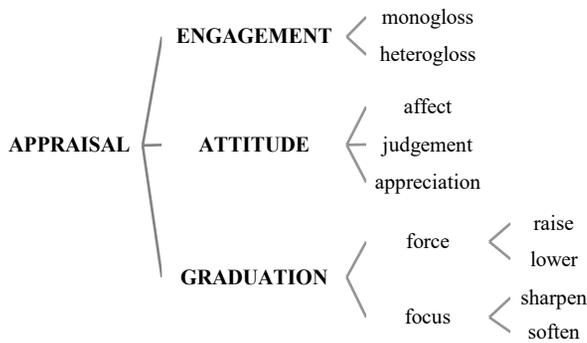
Figure 1. Overview of the appraisal system[3, p.38]

(i) Attitude

This subsystem reflects the speaker's emotions, evaluations, or comments about things, phenomena, or other people. Attitude is central to conveying interpersonal meaning, enabling listeners/readers to recognize the speaker's/writer's standpoint and emotions.

Example (1): The terrible events of the past week have left us with feelings –in order of occurrence – of *horror*, *worry*, *anger*, and now, just *a general gloom*. (Source [15])

Example (2): Worse, this *is a mean* administration, *a miserly, mingy, minatory* bunch if ever there was one. (Source: [16]).

In Example (1), the speaker directly expresses negative feelings through "horror", "worry", "anger", and "general gloom". These expressions register the speaker's shocked attitude in discourse. In this way, the speaker shares their feelings with the audience, creating empathy. In Example (2), the audience can recognize the speaker's evaluation of another person's behavior through "mean", "miserly", etc. These negative words are used to express the speaker's viewpoint.

(ii) Graduation

This subsystem specifies the degree of Attitude expressed in discourse. Through Graduation, speakers/ writers can adjust how they express feelings - from mild to intense, from low to high - allowing listeners/readers to perceive more accurately the intensity of emotion or evaluation. Consider the following two examples:

Example (3): They don't play **real** jazz.

Example (4): They play jazz, **sort of**. (Source [3])

The Graduation at work in these examples is termed Focus. "Real" in Example (3) "sharpens" the focus of the definition of "jazz", implying that they do not play jazz in a standard sense. Accordingly, the speaker suggests that "they" do not meet the speaker's standards for what counts as "jazz". By contrast, "sort of" "softens" the definition, expressing a cautious attitude toward the speaker's own assessment.

Example (5): Prices have sky-rocketed.

Example (6): The water dribble from the tab. (Source [3]).

The two examples above show upward (Example 5) and downward (Example 6) scaling through metaphorical imagery. "Sky-rocketed" not only describes price increases but also amplifies the meaning, emphasizing that the rise is sudden, strong, and high in degree. Meanwhile, "dripped" narrows the meaning of the action, illustrating water flowing with very weak intensity, in drops. This type of Graduation is termed Force, because it increases or decreases the "weight" of evaluation, adjusting the speaker's assessment and enabling the audience to perceive the intensity of the described situation.

(iii) Engagement

This subsystem concerns how speakers/writers interact with listeners/readers, displaying involvement and increasing the degree of "openness" in discourse. Engagement not only reflects the source of Attitude but also indicates how "open" the speaker is to accepting different viewpoints as participants engage in an abstract process of interaction.

Example 7 shows that the writer begins by asserting with certainty that what is said is true ("we're not making this up"), then uses a set of projections and quotation marks to cite and accuse terrorism ("an American passenger said he heard one of the men calling himself a 'Bosnian terrorist.'"). The writer ends cautiously by placing in parentheses what was actually said.

Example (7): Meanwhile (and we're not making this up), two Indian nationals on a flight from Singapore to Hong Kong were detained at Changi Airport after an American passenger said he heard one of the men calling himself a 'Bosnian terrorist.' (The man in fact said he was a 'bass guitarist.') (Source [15]).

With these three subsystems, the Appraisal system provides a robust theoretical framework for analyzing the expression of emotions, attitudes, and the degree of "openness" to other participants' involvement in interaction through discourse. These components not only help speakers/writers convey interpersonal information but also facilitate connection, interaction, and mutual understanding among communicative participants.

4.1.2. The negotiation system

Negotiation occurs only in spoken discourse models where interaction among communicative participants takes place. In written discourse or other monologic discourse, the Negotiation system does not play a core role in establishing interpersonal meaning. In their argument, Martin and Rose do not deny the existence of "interaction" between discourse participants and others such as readers or listeners [2]. Clearly, however, such "interaction" does not drive the back-and-forth process in discourse. Therefore, in written discourse or other monologic discourse, Negotiation does not truly occur. Martin and Rose [2] indicate that this system focuses on three main components: speech function (Figure 2), exchange, and move.

Example (8):

Sannie: We're not so worried about your past.

Coetzee: - No of course not. (Source [2])

Example (9):

Sannie: Are you leaving?

Coetzee: - Of course I'm leaving. (Source [2]).

Figure 2. *Overview of speech functions [2, p.226]*

In Example (8), Sannie and Coetzee negotiate through an adjacency pair to exchange information, yielding the speech functions "statement–acknowledgement". However, Example (9) records negotiation between Sannie and Coetzee to exchange information, but realized through the speech functions "question–answer". These examples show that Sannie and Coetzee exchange information rather than goods-and-services. The moves in both examples also proceed sequentially: Sannie initiates and Coetzee responds. Thus, the Negotiation system in discourse is concerned with exchange content (goods-and-services vs. information), moves (sequentiality or alternation), and the function of utterances.

4.2. Approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse in Metadiscourse theory

Hyland [1] particularly emphasizes that MD is a tool by which writers engage readers and produce persuasive, coherent texts. Therefore, its essence is interaction in texts. From the MD perspective, interpersonal meaning does not self-evidently exist as an inherent part of language; rather, it is purposefully realized. In MD, interpersonal meaning is formed through a set of linguistic resources that writers use to "interact" with readers in order to express attitudes, viewpoints, or stances in discourse. Accordingly, Hyland argues that: "Metadiscourse is a term for those self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers (or listeners) as members of a particular community" [1].

Hyland affirms that MD embodies an interpersonal dimension and demonstrates how interactive resources (used to organize texts to facilitate comprehension) and interactional resources (used to express the writer's attitudes and viewpoints) are employed to establish and maintain relationships with readers [1]. Based on English-language analyses, Hyland classifies interactive and interactional markers as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Classification of interactive and interactional markers [1, p.49]*

Resource	Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Transitions	Express relations between main clauses	*and, furthermore, thus, therefore, in contrast, but,...*
	Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	*to summarise, my purpose is, let us return to...*
	Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	*see fig.2, next...*
	Evidentials	Refer to information from other texts	*according to, X states...*
	Code glosses	Elaborate propositional meanings	*it means, in other words...*
Interactional	Hedges	Withhold commitment and open dialogue	*may be, might, perhaps...*
	Boosters	Emphasize certainty or close dialogue	*definitely, obviously...*
	Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to proposition	*surprisingly, fortunately...*
	Self mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	*I, my, our...*
	Engagement markers	Explicitly build relationship with reader	*you, your...*

4.2.1. Interactive resources

Interactive resources include five types of markers: transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses.

(i) Transitions

These markers signal relations such as addition, causality, and contrast among pieces of information in line with the author's reasoning, as realized in discourse. They are often expressed through conjunctions. However, these markers do not merely perform syntactic functions. They are MD markers that help construct internal abstract relations in order to build discourse.

Example (9): *Sara is a brilliant student. **In addition**, she is a responsible mom.*

Example (10): *Harmison returns to the attack, **but** he overpiches and Jacobs punches him straight down the ground for four lovely runs.*
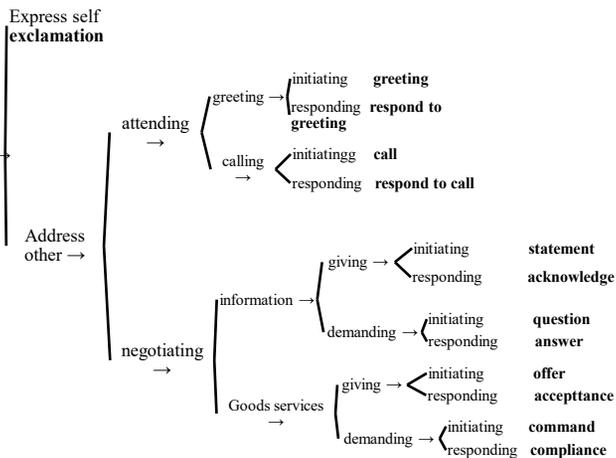
In Examples (9) and (10), "In addition" and "but" register the writer's intention to arrange information so that it is easier for readers to process. In this way, the writer interacts with the reader through the medium of discourse.

(ii) Frame markers

These markers signal elements of discourse structure. Notably, MD frame markers help establish a chain of argument. They indicate the purpose of the discourse and cue transitions related to the content to be presented subsequently.

Example (11): ***First**, preheat the oven to 190 degree C. Lightly grease 10 muffin cups, or line with muffin papers.*

The MD marker "first" in Example (11) performs a

function of direct interaction with the reader. The writer anticipates readers' expectations and explicitly marks links among content segments.

(iii) Endophoric markers

These markers refer to other parts of a discourse. They support readers' comprehension and further reinforce the writer's viewpoint by pointing to information already mentioned or about to be mentioned. In this way, writers can guide readers in the manner they intend.

Example (12): *The birds were flying **above** the clouds.*

Example (13): *The results from the first experiment, as discussed **above**, indicate a significant correlation between X and Y.*

In Example (12), "above" merely describes content information. By contrast, in Example (13), "above" functions as a marker of the organization of the text. This distinction is important because it directly helps readers interact with and grasp the text structure effectively.

(iv) Evidentials

Evidentials refer to external sources of information as a strategy for strengthening the writer's argument. This strategy reinforces the argument by referring to other authoritative sources.

Example (14): The train will arrive at platform 3 **according to** the updated schedule.

Example (15): ***According to** the latest report from the World Health Organization (WHO), the prevalence of non-communicable diseases is on the rise globally.*

With "according to" in Examples (14) and (15), the writer frames the information and indicates its basis. As a result, the writer can directly address readers' need for verification.

(v) Code glosses

These markers elaborate or provide additional information through alternative expressions, with the purpose of explaining or illustrating the preceding information. This indicates that the writer anticipates how readers will interact with the information.

Example (16): *The company's latest financial report indicates a significant negative cash flow. **In other words**, they are spending more money than they are taking in.*

In Example (16), the writer's effort to support readers' uptake of information is evident. This reflects the writer's understanding of the target readership.

4.2.2. Interactional resources

Similarly, interactional resources include five types of markers: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers.

(i) Hedges

These markers indicate the writer's acknowledgment of multiple potentially opposing viewpoints regarding the information presented. They emphasize subjectivity in evaluation and open up room for discussion of the topic.

Example (17): *The study's results **appear** to support the hypothesis.*

Example (18): ***It could be argued that** the economic reforms have not yet reached their full potential.*

These markers reveal the writer's stance toward the information. Consequently, readers have space to express their own viewpoints, including viewpoints contrary to the writer's. This is how writers proactively maintain and preserve their relationship with readers.

(ii) Boosters

These markers allow writers to express certainty about information. The use of boosters plays an important role in affirming a position and calling for readers' agreement.

Example (19): *The data **clearly** demonstrates a significant increase in carbon emissions over the past decade.*

Example (20): ***There is no doubt** that technological advancements have transformed modern society.*

These expressions show the writer's initiative in proposing to close down discussion of an issue, because they are fully confident in their position. Through boosters, the writer seeks to persuade and draw readers to align with their stance.

(iii) Attitude markers

These markers reveal the writer's attitudes and emotions toward the content discussed. They are not intended to judge the truth or falsity of the information; instead, they convey subjective feelings such as surprise, agreement, disappointment, etc. In English, these markers are often realized by verbs, adverbs, or adjectives expressing attitude.

Example (21): *We hope that the new policy will alleviate the financial burden on low-income families.*

Example (22): *Unfortunately, they could not manage to come on time.*

Example (23): *The lack of transparency in the committee's decision-making process is disturbing.*

Attitude markers such as "hope", "unfortunately", and "disturbing" in the examples above allow writers to directly express subjective affective states, such as expectation, regret, or unease. An important point to note is that attitude markers express emotion and stance from the writer's perspective toward the discourse content rather than on the basis of logical argumentation.

(iv) Self-mentions

These markers indicate the writer's presence in discourse. They are typically realized through first-person pronouns. Writers use self-mentions as an intentional choice to present their perspective as clearly as possible.

Example (24): ***My** analysis suggests that further research is needed to fully understand this phenomenon.*

Example (25): *In this paper, **we** propose a new model for understanding consumer behavior in online environments*

The use of "my" and "we" is a way for writers to construct their presence in discourse. With self-mentions, writers can mark their presence in order to interact with readers effectively.

(v) Engagement markers

These markers explicitly address readers with the aim of attracting attention and calling for participatory action from readers in constructing the discourse.

Example (26): *As **you** can see from the data in Table 1, the trends are quite pronounced.*

Example (27): ***Consider** the implications of these results for public policy.*

Engagement markers demonstrate the writer's proactive effort to involve readers in the discourse. In other words, these markers help build a two-way channel of interaction between reader and writer.

4.3. Comparative results

4.3.1. Similarities in approaching discourse

The descriptions above indicate similarities between the two theories in approaching discourse, centering on two main points: (i) both address not only the clause/sentence/utterance level but also aspects beyond that scope; and (ii) both approach spoken and written discourse in exploring interpersonal relations in language in use.

First, SFL attends to realizations at the clause level and, from there, generalizes interpersonal features of discourse. As illustrated in Examples (1)–(7), the analyses focus on expressions at the below-clause level. This shows that SFL is concerned with lexicogrammatical realizations when examining interpersonal features in discourse. Moreover, when approaching spoken discourse, the Negotiation system focuses on aspects beyond the clause itself, by analyzing speech function, exchange content, and turn structure. These dimensions are no longer confined to clause-level realizations, as can be observed in Examples (8)–(9). Similarly, MD is concerned with expressions at the sentence/utterance level (Examples 17, 19, 25, 26, 27) and even expressions that extend beyond the traditional scope of sentence/utterance (Examples 10, 11, 16).

Second, both SFL and MD approach spoken and written discourse. The SFL model proposed by Martin and Rose [1] approaches discourse through two meaning-making resources: Negotiation and Appraisal. The Negotiation system provides a theoretical basis for exploring interpersonal relations in spoken discourse (Examples 8, 9). Correspondingly, the Appraisal system provides a theoretical basis for exploring interpersonal relations in spoken discourse (Examples 1, 2, 4, 7) as well as written discourse (Examples 3, 5, 6). MD is likewise constructed without separating spoken from written language in analysis. The illustrative examples above (10–27) are not restricted to any specific spoken or written discourse. Accordingly, MD is concerned with the functions of linguistic resources in use within a particular context. Farahani [17], Zahro et al. [18], and Zhang [19] are scholars who apply MD in analyzing genres of both spoken and written discourse. This provides clear evidence of the flexibility and dynamism of this theory in approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse.

4.3.2. Differences in approaching discourse

In approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse, the analyses show that the two theories share similarities while also exhibiting differences. The most salient difference lies in the content of analysis of linguistic units. MD also addresses aspects beyond the sentence/utterance boundary, yet it ultimately remains at the surface level of lexis or its function within the sentence/utterance. By contrast, SFL approaches the interpersonal meaning of discourse not only at the surface level of lexis or its function within the sentence/utterance but also in more abstract aspects that go beyond lexis, such as exchange, move, and speech function. This indicates that the analytical scope of SFL is broader than that of MD. The illustrative Examples (10)–(27) are analyzed on the basis of lexical resources, suggesting that MD analysis can hardly move beyond the lexical domain. However, SFL enables analysts to observe the dynamic surface of language in use. The exchange of goods-and-services or information can determine language functions as well as surface structure. Turn organization in spoken discourse helps establish the structure of conversation. These aspects all go beyond the scope of ordinary lexical analysis in discourse analysis.

Hyland also acknowledges that MD can be realized in various ways and by linguistic units of different lengths, from individual words to entire clauses or complete sentences [20]. This suggests that the linguistic units realizing MD fall within the material of the sentence, that is, they are expressed only through lexical resources. In other words, MD theory does not enable analysts to identify discourse features beyond lexical resources in the way that the Negotiation system in SFL does.

Overall, SFL and MD are similar in that both approach interpersonal meaning at the discourse level in both spoken and written texts. However, they differ in analytical scope: MD focuses on lexical resources in the communicative context to identify interaction, whereas SFL more comprehensively investigates turn structure, speech function, and the appraisal system, offering a more holistic and dynamic view of language in use.

5. Conclusion

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Metadiscourse (MD) are two important theoretical frameworks that propose analytical perspectives on interpersonal meaning in language studies. Appraisal Theory comprises three subsystems - Attitude, Graduation, and Engagement - providing tools for analyzing evaluative elements in discourse. The Negotiation system focuses on exchange, moves, and speech function. MD theory proposes two sets of interactional resources - interactive and interactional - which help to explore interaction between communicative participants.

Both frameworks approach discourse beyond the sentence boundary, encompassing broader dimensions. They also examine both spoken and written discourse in order to investigate interpersonal relations in language in

use. However, they mainly differ in what is taken as the object of analysis for linguistic units. Specifically, MD emphasizes explicit interactional dimensions in texts, whereas SFL aims to explain the dynamics of interpersonal meaning-making as a systematic social process. This article remains limited in that it has not compared more fine-grained aspects of the two theories. This is considered a feasible direction for future research to capture in greater detail how these theories can be applied in approaching the interpersonal meaning of discourse.

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