CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the review of research and literature related with the topic, which is grammatical cohesion in “xxx: return of xander cage (2017)” movie. Literally, this chapter supports the concepts and backgrounds in the previous chapter. There are four points of sub chapter here and the first one is about grammatical cohesion and function, as basic study of language that correlated with the context sentence. The second sub chapter is about grammatical cohesion. It helps the reader to have the clear about grammatical cohesion by reviewing related research. Then for the next sub chapter about “xxx: return of xander cage (2017)” movie. It discusses about the perspective and argument about grammatical cohesion; meanwhile the researcher has different point of view that is elaborated into chapter IV. The but last not least, the sub chapter is about grammatical function. This mobilization era there are many grammatical function offers by providers in the movie. However, this research is focused into grammatical cohesion; then the researcher know about context sentence as the additional tools.

2.1. Cohesive Devices

Grammatical devices are tools of cohesion to create unity of meaning within a text. In the text, cohesive devices are in the form of words, utterances, phrases that exist in the text to correlate one element to the other element. The concept of cohesive devices is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning
that exist within the text. And that define it as a text. It proves that cohesive devices are needed in a text to make it meaningful. Without cohesive devices, the text is meaningless.

According to Muslimah (2007) “Cohesive devices are certain words or phrases and their location within the discourse will activate a set of assumptions as to the meaning of what has gone before hand or will generate a set of expectations to what may follow”. From this opinion can be conclude that how important cohesive device in forming a meaning in sentence.

Some studies in analyzing cohesive devices are done by the experts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) and De Beaugrande are the two experts in cohesive devices study. The theory of Halliday and Hasan is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 The Diagram of Halliday and Hasan’s Cohesive Device.
Based on figure 2.1 on Halliday and Hasan’s theory, cohesive devices are divided into two characteristics: endophora (refers to textual meaning) and exophora (refers to situational meaning). Endophora has two kinds; they are anaphora and cataphora in which anaphora is if the relation presupposes something that has gone before, while cataphora is when a relation is presupposed by something in the following part. Halliday and Hasan also say that cohesive devices are divided into two types; that are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion consists of four kinds, namely reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction, where as lexical cohesion consist of two kinds, namely reiteration and collocation.

2.1.1 Grammatical Cohesion

A cohesive tie which is shown through grammar is called as grammatical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion are forms of cohesion realized through grammar (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:6). Grammatical cohesion is divided into four kinds, they are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction that will explained below.

A. Reference

Halliday and Hasan state that reference is a semantic relation between an element and the others in the text in which the interpretation of the element involves the act of referring to a preceding or following element. Further, they
differentiate the reference into two parts; they are exophoric reference which reference.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) classify reference into three types, they are: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. The category of personal consist of three classes of personal pronouns, possessive determiners (usually called “possesive adjectives”), and possesive pronouns. The examples of personal reference are: I, me, my, mine, you, your, yours, we, us, our, ours, he, him, his, they, their, theirs, them, one, one’s, it, its, she, her, hers.

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity (near, far, neutral,time), e.g. this, these, that, those, here, now, then, there, and the. Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity, e.g. same, equal, identical, identically, such, similar, so, similarly, likewise, other, different, else, differently, otherwise, more, fewer, less, further, additional, so+ quantifier (e.g. so many), better, comparative adjectives, and adverbs, etc.

The explanation above will be firmed by the examples as follows.

1. We’re going to the party to the party tonight. This’ll be our second outing for month (demonstrative reference).

   The pronoun “this” presuppose to the word “we’re going to the party tonight”.

2. It’s the same cat as the one we saw yesterday (comparative reference).
Comparative reference is used in that sentence namely the word “same” to point forward to the referent “the one we say yesterday”.

3. There was a brief note from Susan. She just said, I am not coming home this weekend (personal reference).

The pronoun “she” and “I” presuppose the proper name “Susan” in the preceding sentence.

B. Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another in a text. It is a relation between linguistic items, such as words, phrases, and clauses. Substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. In terms of the linguistic system, substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:88-89).

There are three types of substitution, that are: nominal (one, ones, same), verbal (do), and clausal (so, not) substitution. The substitute one/ones in nominal alway functions as a head of a nominal group. The verbal substitute is “do”, and it functions as head of a verbal group. Some examples below support the explanation above:

1. I lost my way in the galleries. The same thing happened to me.

(Nominal Substitution).

The meaning of the second sentence is “I also lost my way in the

2. Thought I’d finished with the toughest assignments. They didn’t tell me about this one. (Nominal Substitution).

3. I don’t know the meaning of half those long words, and, what’s more, I don’t believe you do either. (Verbal Substitution).

“Do” in this sentence substitutes for “know the meaning of half those long words” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:112).

4. Everyone seems to think he’s guilty. If so, no doubt he’ll offer to resign. (Clausal Substitution).

“So” in this sentence substitutes for “he is guilty” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:134).

C. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is used to indicate omission of part of a quotation. Ellipsis is used to replace words omitted from the middle of a quoted sentence (paul and Goione:263-264). Ellipsis consist of three parts namely nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis.

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis involves the upgrading of a word functioning as deictic, numerative, epithet, or classefier from the status of modifier to the status of head. Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group.
Clausal ellipsis has a two-part structure consisting of modal element plus propositional element. The examples of ellipsis:

1. How did you enjoy the exhibition? – *A lot* (of the exhibition) was very good, though not all. (Nominal Ellipsis).

   The “of the exhibition” on the parenthesis above is actually omitted from the sentence. Some words are omitted, but it can be understood.

2. What have you been doing? – *swimming*. (Verbal Ellipsis).

   “I have been” is omitted. Therefore, it called as verbal ellipsis. It should be “I have been swimming”.

3. What was the Duke going to do? – *Plant* a row of poplars in the park. (clausal Ellipsis).

   In the answer, the modal element is omitted: the subject “Duke” and, within the verbal group, the finite operator “was”.

**D. Conjunction**

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 303) state that conjunction is on the borderline of the grammatical and lexical cohesion. It means that the set of conjunctive elements can probably be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but such an interpretation involves lexical selection in terms of meaning. Conjunction consist of five categories: additive, adversative, causal, temporal, and other conjunction.
Additive conjunction is expressed by the word and, and also, nor, and...not, or, or else, furthermore, in addition, besides, alternatively, incidentally, by the way, that is, I mean, in other words, for instance, thus, likewise, similarly, in the same way, on the other hand, by contrast, etc.

The causal relation consists of the words so, then, hence, therefore, consequently, because of this, for this reason, on account of this, as a result, in consequence, for this purpose, with this in mind, for, because, it follows, on this basis, arising out of this, to this end, in that case, in such an event, that being so, under the circumstances, otherwise, under other circumstances, in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this, otherwise, in the other respect, aside from this, etc.

Temporal conjunction includes then, next, after that, just then, at the same time, previously, before that, finally, at last, first...then, at first...in the end, at once, thereupon, soon, after a time, next time, on other occasion, next day, an hour later, meanwhile, until then, at this moment, up to now, etc.

The example of each:

1. **And** i all this he met no one. (Additive).

2. **Yet** he was hardly aware of being tired. (Adversative).

3. **So** by night time the valley was far below him. (Causal).

4. **Then**, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest. (Temporal).
2.1.2 Lexical Cohesion

Crystal (1995: 118) state that to study the lexicon of English, accordingly, is to study all aspects of the vocabulary of the language-how words are formed, how they have developed over time, how they are used now, how they relate in meaning to each other, and how they are handled in dictionaries and other word books. There are two kinds of lexical cohesion namely reiteration and collocation. Reiteration consist of repetition, synonym, hyponym, metonym, and antonym. All those kinds are explained below.

A. Reiteration

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, and a number of things in between the use of synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate. There are five kinds of reiteration; they are repetition, synonym, hyponym, metonym, and antonym.

1. Repetition

Repetition is the act of repeating exactly the same word as has been mentioned before.

Example:

1. There’s a girl cooking that pan.

The girl’s going to burn if she’s not careful. (Repetition of “girl”).
2. **Synonym**

Synonym is lexeme which has the same meaning, a definition which sounds straight forward enough (crystal, 1995: 164). Synonym deals with sameness of meaning, more than one word having the same meaning, or alternatively the same meaning being expressed by more than one word (Jackson, 1988: 64). Synonym is an expression with the same meaning of the words.

Example:

1. There’s a *girl* cooking that pan. The *lad’s* going to burn if she’s not careful. (Synonym).

3. **Hyponym**

Hyponym refers to the hierarchical relationship between the meanings of lexemes, in which the meaning of one lexeme is included in (under) the meaning of another lexeme (Jackson, 1988: 65). Hyponym is a subordinate, specific terms whose referent is included in the referent of a superordinate term (Finnegan, 2004:189).

Example:

1. My mother was in supermarket for *fruit*. She bought a fresh *apple*.

Apple is hyponym (subordinate) of the fruit (fruit is superordinate).

4. **Metonym**

Metonym is a relathionship of part versus whole.
Example:

1. After a hard storm two days ago, the leaking *roofs* need to be repaired. However, the *house* is in good condition.

The relationship between roofs and house is between part and whole.

5. **Antonym**

Antonym deals with oppositeness of meaning, words with opposite meaning of various kinds (Jackson, 1988: 64). Antonym is words which are in some sense opposite in meaning.

Example:

1. In that terrible situation, the *old* people did not want to take a risk. But the *young* were braver.

B. **Collocation**

Collocation deals with the relationship between word on the basis of the fact that these words often occur in the same surroundings or are associated with each other (Renkema, 1993: 39). Jackson (1988: 97) explains that collocation refers to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expectancy; the words regularly keep company with certain other words. The examples are such as: fish...water, orchid....fragrant....flower, hospital.....doctor...blood, etc.
2.1.3 The Movie: XXX:Return Of Xander Cage (2017)

XXX:Return Of Xander Cage (2017) movie is a produced by Joe Roth that published in United States in 2017. It is an American biographical film directed by D.J Caruso. It is based on the previous films, which were distributed by Columbia Pictures, the film was released by Paramount Pictures on January 20, 2017, in 2D, RealD 3D and IMAX 3D. This also marks the first film produced by Revolution Studios in ten years since 2007’s The Water Horse: Legend of the Deep. The film received mixed reviews from critics and grossed over $346 million worldwide against a production budget of $85 million, making it the highest-grossing film of Revolution Studios and in the franchise.

This movie tells about secret agents which found dangerous something by the enemies, but it are inside people also know chronology this story. The tool can be fall some satellite on the sky then show the object. It is called Pandora’s box to destroy something in the land. But again on the last Xander Cage can give solution this to end.