AN ASPECT OF REPRESENTING THE THREE BASIC SYNTACTICAL UNITS

Abstract. While morphology basically deals with the structure of words using the two basic units, a morpheme and a word syntax deals with different word groups that can be put into three main syntactical units – a phrase, a clause and a sentence. The two structures can be pointed out; a phrase structure based upon a head word and modifiers to qualify and quantify the meaning of a head, and a sentence structure that is based upon a predicator indicating an action or a state being and a subject indicating a doer of the action. These two are obligatory while some optionals can be added as well. In order to understand a syntactical description we have to be aware of the differences and the similarities of the two structures and the three basic syntactical units.

Key words: syntax, phrase, clause, sentence, structure, function

Definition of Terms

The domain of language called Syntax covers the structure of phrases, clauses and sentences, as well as the functions and meanings these units carry out in language. It provides us with patterns of putting words together into larger constructions such as phrases, which in turn form building blocks for yet larger constructions such as clauses and sentences. Words are put together in language in order to make the meanings of those words blend. It is often thought that simple thoughts come in simple sentences, but we more often make complex sentences so easily that we hardly realize we do so.

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A collection of grammatically-related words without a subject or without a predicate is called a *phrase* (Stageberg 1971). A *clause* is a collection of grammatically-related words including a predicate and a subject (though sometimes the subject is implied). Clauses are in a sense miniature sentences. Simple sentences contain only a single clause, while a compound sentence, a complex sentence or a compound-complex sentence contains at least two clauses.

The basic type of a sentence is the *simple sentence*. It contains only one clause.

John runs.

Usually, a sentence has a subject as well as a predicate and both subject and predicate may have modifiers represented by phrases (Quirk et al 1997).

The ice *melts* quickly.

*The ice (Subject) and melts quickly (Predicate)*

The ice on the river *melts* quickly under the warm April sun.

*melts quickly… (all Predicate) while The ice on the river is Subject*

Simple sentence can be quite long and it is a mistake to think one can tell it is a simple sentence simply by its length. When simple sentences are used, transitional phrases should be added to connect them to the surrounding sentences.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses (or simple sentences) joined by co-coordinating conjunctions like *and, but, or, neither…nor, either…or, so*.

France is a rich country, *but* it still has many poor people.

There are two special types of compound sentences. Rather than joining two simple sentences together, a co-coordinating conjunction sometimes joins two complex sentences, or one simple sentence and one complex sentence. In this case, the sentence is called a *compound-complex sentence* (Quirk et al. 1997):

**The package arrived in the morning, but the courier left before I could check the contents.**

The second special case involves punctuation. It is possible to join two originally separate sentences into a compound sentence using a semicolon instead of a co-coordinating conjunction:

**Sir Phillip E. Tracey had a serious drinking problem; when sober, however, he could be a formidable foe in the House of Commons.**

There are several types of syntactical relations involved in the syntactical descriptions of basic syntactical units:

- Determination is a relationship between determiners and the headword – *the book, that girl*, etc.
Modification is only used on a phrase level. Headword expresses a basic meaning, while modifiers quantify or qualify the HW – Read slowly, good enough, very nice.

Predication is a relationship which occurs between the subject and the predicate – That handsome boy is my friend.

Complementation occurs on a phrase or sentence level and it is usually expressed between a verb and an object. This relation is mandatory in PPs – I bought a book. At the cinema.

Coordination is used in all three levels and it represents a connection between two equal elements or coordinated structures. Usual coordination conjunctions are: and, or, nor, but – Boys and girls are playing in the park. My father is watching television and my mother is preparing dinner.

Nominal Phrases

A nominal phrase consists of a noun, a pronoun or a nominal with any associated modifiers, including adjectives, adjective phrases, adjective clauses, and other nouns in the possessive case and other adjectivals. Like a noun, a nominal phrase can act as a subject, as an object of a verb or verbal, as a subject or an object complement, or as a complement of a preposition, as in the following examples (Stageberg 1971):

Subject:

Small children often insist that they can do it by themselves.

Object of a verb:

To read quickly and accurately is Patrick’s goal.

Object of a preposition:

The arctic explorers were caught unaware by the spring break-up.

Subject complement:

Frankenstein is the name of the scientist not the monster.

Object complement:

I consider Garfield my favourite cat.

Since some verbals – in particular, the gerund and the infinitive – can act as nouns, these also can form the nucleus of a nominal phrase known as nominals:

Ice fishing is a popular winter pastime.

However, since verbals are formed from verbs, they can also take direct objects and can be modified by adverbs forming a non-finite clause. A gerund clause or an infinitive clause, then, functions as a nominal phrase consisting of a verbal, its modifiers (both adjectives and adverbs), and its objects:
Running a marathon in the summer is thirsty work.
I am planning to buy a house next month.

Like all phrases, the constituents of the English noun phrase can be analysed into both functional constituents and formal constituents. From a functional point of view, the noun phrase has four major components, occurring in a fixed order:

- **Determinative**, the constituent which determines the reference of the noun phrase in its linguistic or situational context
- **Premodification**, which comprises all the modifying or describing constituents before the head, other than the determiners
- **Head**, around which the other constituents cluster, and
- **Postmodification**, those which comprise all the modifying constituents placed after the head

Each functional component of a noun phrase (NP) can be further subclassified:

- **Noun Phrase**:
  1. **Determiner**
     - Predeterminer
       - Quantifier (*all, both, half*)
       - Multiplier (*double, twice*)
       - Fraction (*one-third, one-fifth*)
     - Central Determiner
       - Article – Definite (*the*) and Indefinite (*a, an*)
       - Pronoun – Deictic (*that, those*), Personal (*my, her*), Indefinite (*any, some*) and Interrogative (*which, whose*)
     - Postdeterminer
       - Number – Cardinal (*one, two, five*) and Ordinal (*first, fifth*)
  2. **Premodifier**
    - Noun (*science as in science project*)
    - Adjective Phrase (*very big, extremely hot*)
    - Participle (nonfinite clause) – ing Participle (*winning*) and –ed Participle (*tired*)
  3. **Head**
    - Noun (*Marie, information, children*)
    - Adjective (*rich, poor, bold, beautiful*)
    - Pronoun (*she, I, they*)
  4. **Postmodifier**
    - Prepositional Phrase (*in the afternoon*)
    - Relative Clause (*…who was reading that book*)
- Nonfinite Clause - -ing Clause (writing a letter), -ed Clause (shocked by the news), Infinitive Clause (to see)
- Complementation (than I, than that)

Depending on the context of situation, we can choose determiners and modifiers according to our needs in identifying and specifying the referent of NP. Sometimes we need several determiners and modifiers to clarify the referent (all my books in that box), and sometimes we need none at all.

**The Verbal Phrase**

The verb phrase (VP) (Stageberg 1971) in English has a noticeably different structure, since the information it carries about mood, tense, modality, aspect and voice is quite different from the information carried by a noun phrase. The verb phrase has two functional parts:

- The *auxiliary*, a grammatical morpheme carrying information about mood, tense, modality and voice
- The *main verb*, a lexical morpheme carrying its lexical information and usually an inflection.

**Auxiliary**

Modal (can, may, will, should, etc., followed by a base)

Perfect (forms of have, followed by –ed participle)

Progressive (forms of be, followed by –ed participle)

Support auxiliary (forms of do, followed by a base form)

**Adjectival Phrases**

An *adjectival phrase* is any phrase which modifies a noun, a pronoun or a nominal. Adjectival phrases are often constructed by using participles or prepositions together with their complements (Quirk et al. 1997.):

I was driven mad by the sound of my neighbour’s constant guitar practising.

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase “of my neighbour’s constant guitar practising” acts as an adjective modifying the noun “sound”.

My brother-in-law locked his keys in the trunk of a borrowed car.

Similarly in this sentence, the prepositional phrase “of a borrowed car” acts as an adjective modifying the noun “trunk”.

We saw Andrew dashing across the ballroom.
The **participle clause** “dashing across the ballroom” acts here as an adjective describing the proper noun “Andrew”.

We picked up the glasses **broken in the fight**.

In this sentence, the participle clause “broken in the fight” modifies the noun phrase “the glasses”.

There are four functional constituents in the adjectival phrase in English:

- Premodification, modifying, describing or qualifying constituents which precede the head
- The head, which is an adjective or participle serving as the focus of the phrase
- Postmodification, modifying constituent which follows the head
- Complementation, (the major subcategory of postmodification) the constituent which follows any postmodification and completes the specification of meaning implied by the head.

**Premodifier – Adverb Phrase** *(extremely, happily, too, very)*

**Head** – Adjective *(rich, poor, hot, beautiful)*, Participle –ed *(faded, tired, escaped)*, Participle –ing *(surprising, calculating, interesting)*

**Postmodifier** – Adverb *(enough or indeed only)*, Complementation – Prepositional Phrase *(for me)*, Infinitive Clause *(to see)*

**Adverbial Phrases**

A prepositional phrase can also function as an **adverbial phrase**, as in the following sentences (Quirk et al. 1997.):

**She bought a wonderful bag when she went to the shopping centre.**

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase *to the shopping centre* acts as an adverb modifying the verb *went*.

**Lightning flashed brightly across the summer sky.**

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase *across the summer sky* functions as an adverb modifying the verb *flashed*.

**In early October, Lily planted ten tulip bulbs; unfortunately, squirrels ate the bulbs and none bloomed.**

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase *in early October* acts as an adverb modifying the entire sentence.

**We will meet at the restaurant at 2:00 p.m.**
In this sentence, the prepositional phrase at 2:00 p.m. acts as an adverb modifying the verb phrase *will meet*.

**She was talking about the tasty meal.**

In this sentence, the prepositional phrase *about the tasty meal* acts as an adverb modifying the verb *was talking*.

The adverb phrase in English is nearly identical to the adjective phrase, with only the expected changes in form. In the adverb phrase, an adverb functions as head.

Premodifier – Adverb Phrase (*extremely, happily, too, very*)

Head – Adverb (*honestly, frankly, brightly*)

Postmodifier – Adverb (*enough or indeed only*) Complementation – Prepositional Phrase (*for me*), Infinitive Clause (*to see*)

### Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREMODIFIER</th>
<th>HEAD</th>
<th>POSTMODIFIER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quite</td>
<td>quietly</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>honestly</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so very</td>
<td>hard</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too</td>
<td>well</td>
<td>to see well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quickly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## The Prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase is a “non-headed” construction in English since no constituent functions as the centre of the phrase, the centre on which other elements depend. Instead, the structure is divided into two functional complements – the preposition followed by its complement. In general, a prepositional phrase expresses a relationship between the complement of the preposition and some other constituent of the sentence (Frank 1972).

Prepositional Phrase

Preposition – Single word (*under, with, to, in, for, by*)

Multiple words (*next to, instead of, due to*)

Complement – Adverb (*now, then*)

Noun Phrase (*her, the books, a little longer*)

Clause – ing clause (*winning the election*)

Relative Clause (*whoever wants it*)
Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREPOSITION</th>
<th>COMPLEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For</td>
<td>now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In</td>
<td>time</td>
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<tr>
<td>Next to</td>
<td>the table</td>
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<tr>
<td>into</td>
<td>the thick of things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>you read this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>slipping off to sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>running more than 100 miles in one week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>whomever it may concern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>what I can see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clauses and Sentences

While a phrase structure is focused on its Headword a clause and a sentence structure is based upon the duality of the obligatory subject and a predicator or verb.

There are several types of sentences and most of them can be decomposed into clauses.

Classification of sentences according to their function (purpose of communication):

- **Declarative** – *I don’t have a dog.*
- **Imperative** – *Close the door.*
- **Interrogative** – *Do you love me?*
- **Exclamatory** – *What a nice girl she is!*

Classification of sentences according to their function:

- **Simple sentences** – contain one full subject and predicate
  
  *He died a long time ago.*

- **Complex sentences** – consist of at least two clauses between which one is main and two or more subordinate clauses
  
  *Birds sing, whenever I look through the window.* (main or independent clause + subordinate clause)

- **Compound sentences** – at least two clauses
  
  *I was trying to get to the station but unfortunately the train had already left.*

- **Complex - compound sentences** – consist of two or more independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses
I was trying to get to the station which was pretty far away from my house, but unfortunately the train had already left.

If a clause can stand alone as a sentence, it is an independent clause as in the following example:

**Independent**

*The President is in Romania.*

Some clauses, however, cannot stand alone as sentences: in this case, they are dependent clauses or subordinate clauses. Consider the same clause with the subordinating conjunction “because” added to the beginning:

**Dependent**

*When the President is in Romania*

Let us see the following example:

**J**im won silver and **M**ary won silver.

Like Jim and Mary above, these clauses do not depend on each other; one does not hang from another; one is not nested in another. They are EQUAL and INDEPENDENT, but together they form a larger sentence.

Because they function together as equals, they are called **COORDINATE clauses**. Co- means *equal and together*. The –ordinate part of the word has to do with order.

As it was already mentioned, a sentence made of two or more coordinate clauses is called a **COMPOUND SENTENCE**.

A subordinate clause, the one that depends on another clause, is nested in another clause and hangs from another clause. The basic clause from which subordinates hang is the main clause. Subordinates can also hang from subordinates.

A subordinate clause consists of a **subject and predicate**, like any clause, and a **SUBordinator** – a word that acts as a sort of hitch.

Once the subordinator (hitch) is applied to a clause, the subordinate clause cannot roll along on its own as a sentence anymore.

*...because Danny was angry.*
A dependent clause or a phrase cannot stand alone as a sentence. They are therefore dependent on other words being added to create a sentence. An independent clause, by contrast, can stand alone as a sentence, or it can be combined with one or more other clauses or phrases to form a complex sentence, through the proper use of punctuation and conjunctions (Graver 1992).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause</th>
<th>Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cows eat grass.</td>
<td>Cows eating grass</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first example is a clause (since it contains the subject *cows* and the predicate *eat grass*)

What about *cows eating grass*? This nominal phrase could be a subject, but it has no predicate attached; the adjectival phrase *eating grass* shows which *cows* the writer is referring to, but there is nothing here to show why the writer mentions cows in the first place.

Clause

*Cows eating grass can be seen from the highway.*

This is a complete sentence again. The subject *cows eating grass* and the predicate *can be seen from the highway* form a complete thought.

Clause

*Run!*

This single-word command is also a clause, even though it does seem to have a subject. With a direct command, it is not necessary to include the subject, since it is obviously the person or people you are talking to; in other words, the clause really reads *(You) run!*

**Elliptical and Unusual Clauses**

EllipticalClauses are grammatically incomplete in the sense that they are missing either the relative pronoun (dependent word) that normally introduces such a clause or something from the predicate in the second part of a comparison. The missing parts of the elliptical clause can be guessed from the context and most readers are
not aware that anything is missing. In fact, elliptical clauses are regarded as both useful and correct, even in formal prose, because they are often elegant, efficient means of expression (the omitted words are noted in brackets below) (Quirk et al 1997):

Coach Peter knew (that) his team would be the best (that) he had coached in years.

Though (she was) sometimes nervous in court, she proved to be a good lawyer.

They knew (that) sometimes he could work longer than they (could work).

**Imperative sentences** (sentences that give a command or an order) differ from conventional sentences in that their subject, which is always “you”, is understood rather than expressed.

*Stand on your head. (You is understood before stand).*

Be careful with sentences that begin with “there” plus a form of the verb “to be”. In such sentences, “there” is not the subject; it merely signals that the true subject will soon follow.

*There were three stray kittens hiding under our porch this morning.*

If one asks **who?** or **what?** Before the verb (were hiding), the answer is **three stray kittens**, the correct subject.

**Clauses Functioning as Nouns, Adjectives and Adverbs**

A noun clause is an entire clause which takes the place of a noun in another clause or phrase. Like a noun, a noun clause acts as the subject, object complement or the complement of a preposition, answering the questions “**who(m)?**” or “**what?**”. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOUN</th>
<th>NOUN CLAUSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I know Latin.</td>
<td>I know that Latin is no longer spoken as a native language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first example, the noun “Latin” acts as the direct object of the verb “know”. In the second example, the entire clause “that Latin…” is the direct object. In fact, many noun clauses are indirect questions.

An **adjective clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase. Like an adjective, an adjective clause modifies a noun or
pronoun, answering questions like “which?” or “what kind of?” Consider the following examples:

**ADJECTIVE**

the red coat

**ADJECTIVE CLAUSE**

the coat which I bought yesterday

Like the word “red” in the first example, the dependent clause “which I bought yesterday” in the second example modifies the noun “coat”. Note that an adjective clause usually comes after what it modifies, while an adjective usually comes before.

In formal writing, an adjective clause begins with relative pronouns “who(m)”, “that” or “which”. In informal writing or speech, relative pronoun might be left out when it is not the subject of the adjective clause, but the relative pronoun in formal, academic writing should usually be included:

**Informal**

The books people read are mainly religious.

**Formal**

The books that people read are mainly religious.

**Informal**

Some fire-fighters never meet the people they save.

**Formal**

Some fire-fighters never meet the people whom they save.

An **adverb clause** is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adverb in another clause or phrase. An adverb clause answers questions such as “when?”, “where?”, “why?”, “with what goal/result?” and “under what conditions?” Adverb clause can replace an adverb in the following example:

**Adverb**

The Prime Minister gave a speech here.

**Adverb clause**

The Prime Minister gave a speech where the workers were on strike.

Usually, subordinating conjunctions like “because”, “when(ever)”, “since”, “after” and “so that” will introduce an adverb clause. Note that a dependent adverb clause can never stand alone as a complete sentence:

**INDEPENDENT CLAUSE**

**DEPENDENT VERB CLAUSE**
The first example can easily stand alone as a sentence, but the second cannot – reader will ask what happened “after they left the locker room”. There are also adverb clauses expressing the relationships of cause, effect, space, time and condition.

**Conclusion**

If the difference between dependent and independent clauses are understood, proper sentences will be written. We will also be able to form proper compound sentences (consisting of two or more independent clauses) and complex sentences (consisting or one or more dependent clauses and at least one independent clause).

Dependent clauses or phrases should not be left standing alone; these are sentence fragments, not sentences. Sentence fragments often contain a verb with no subject (creating a dependent clause or a phrase). The best way to avoid the problem is to be certain that every sentence has at least one subject linked to each verb. The problem can also be avoided by attaching the fragment to an independent clause with a conjunction, a comma or both. However, we have to be careful not to attach two independent clauses with a comma. This error is known as a comma splice. Dependent clauses left standing alone are often referred to as sentence fragments.

Phrases constitute sentences too: a phrase differs from a dependent clause because unlike the dependent clause it generally lacks a subject. However, like a dependent clause, it cannot stand alone and is dependent on a clause being added. The following are examples of phrases:

- **Affirming the trial court’s ruling** (Lack a subject for the verb “affirming”)
- **Having tried the case** (Lacks a subject for the verb “having”)

Any phrase can be turned into a sentence by combining it with an independent clause and one or more punctuation marks or conjunctions.

- **Incorrect:** The appellate court held that the evidence was inadmissible. Affirming the trial court’s ruling.
- **Correct:** The appellate court held that the evidence was inadmissible, affirning the trial court’s ruling

Two independent clauses should not be connected with a comma (“comma splice”). Two independent clauses, by definition, can each stand alone as a sentence. However, they cannot be pieced together with a comma. Instead, either a semicolon should be used, or the clauses should be separated out as two sentences.

- **Incorrect:** One cannot separate the emergency function from the other functions of a flight attendant, it is inherent in the job.
Correct: One cannot separate the emergency function from the other functions of a flight attendant. It is inherent in the job.

APPENDIX I

Incorrect Use of Phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHRASE</th>
<th>FORM</th>
<th>FUNCTIONS (ROLES IN BUILDING LARGER SYNTACTIC UNITS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|        | Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, etc. | - building block for clause or phrase  
- roles in other phrases: modifiers of head, complement of head  
- roles in clauses: subject, direct object, indirect object, adverbial, object complement, subject complement, etc. |

The appellate court ruled out for the plaintiff. Affirming the judgement of the trial court.

Solution #1:

The appellate court ruled for the plaintiff. It affirmed the judgement of the trial court.

Explanation: In the incorrect example above, the sentence fragment is created because there is no subject linked to the verb “affirming”. This problem can be solved by providing a subject. In the corrected version, the pronoun “it”, referring to the appellate court, is the subject of the verb “affirmed” (Kroeger 2005).

Solution #2:

The appellate court ruled for the plaintiff, affirming the judgement of the trial court.

Explanation: By placing a comma before affirming, the writer links the phrase to the independent clause on which it relies for its context.

Solution #3:

The appellate court ruled for the plaintiff and affirmed the judgement of the trial court.

Explanation: By placing the conjunction “and” before the phrase, the writer links the dependent clause to the independent clause on which it relies for its context.

APPENDIX II

Incorrect Use of Dependent Clauses
Incorrect:

The counsel for the defendant was called to the judge’s chambers. Because he had failed to file the complaint within the time provided in the statute of limitations.

Solution #1:

The counsel for the defendant was called to the judge’s chambers because he had failed to file the complaint within the time provided in the statute of limitations.

Solution #2:

The counsel for the defendant was called to the judge’s chambers. He had failed to file the complaint within the time provided in the statute of limitations.

Action: Do not link two independent clauses with a comma. This error, known as comma splice, can easily be avoided. Instead of using a comma to connect two independent clauses, either use a period to create two sentences, a conjunction to link the two clauses in one sentence, or (if the independent clauses are closely related) a semicolon to link the two clauses in one sentence (Graver 1992).

Incorrect:

The appellate court found that the constitutional prohibition against warrantless searches had been violated, it therefore remanded the case for a new trial.

Solution #1:

The appellate court found that the constitutional prohibition against warrantless searches had been violated. It therefore remanded the case for a new trial.

Explanation: Because the second independent clause can stand alone as a sentence, the writer can avoid the comma splice by replacing the comma with a period and capitalizing the word “it”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIT TYPE</th>
<th>FORM</th>
<th>FUNCTIONS (ROLES IN BUILDING LARGER SYNTACTIC UNITS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLAUSE</td>
<td>-finite, non-finite -independent (main), dependent (subordinate)</td>
<td>- building block for clause or phrase - clauses may take the roles of phrases within phrases (e.g. modifier) - clause may take role that phrase usually takes within another clause (e.g. subject or direct object) - dependent clause may modify main clause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Solution #2:

The appellate court found that the constitutional prohibition against warrantless searches had been violated, and it therefore remanded the case for a new trial.

Explanation: A conjunction such as “and” or “but” can be used to link two independent clauses; however, be sure to place a comma before a conjunction that introduces an independent clause.

Solution #3:

The appellate court found that the constitutional prohibition against warrantless searches had been violated; it therefore remanded the case for a new trial.

Explanation: When two independent clauses are closely related in substance, they can be linked with a semicolon.

Action: Use strong subject-verb formulations. Good writers provide their readers with strong subject-verb formulations early in their sentences. The result is vigorous writing that quickly gets to the point. Avoid beginning your sentences with phrases such as “there is” and “it is” in place of subject-verb formulations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Dragana M. Spasić

PREDSTAVLJANJE TRI OSNOVNE SINTAKSIČKE JEDINICE

Rezime

Rad se bavi jednim od aspekata sličnosti i razlika tri osnovne sintaksičke jedinice – sintagme, klauze i rečenice. Dok se morfološka istraživanja zasnivaju na strukturi reči uključujući dve osnovne jedinice, morfemu i reč, sintaksička istraživanja se bave strukturom i funkcijom različitih grupa reči koje se izražavaju kroz već gore pomenute tri osnovne sintaksičke jedinice. Radi što boljeg sintaksičkog opisa engleskog jezika važno je razumeti sličnosti i razlike izmedju dve osnovne strukture, strukture sintagme i strukture rečenice.

Ključne reči: sintaksa, sintagme, klauza, rečenica, struktura, funkcija.