English Module

the faculty of Social and Economic Sciences



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MODUL BAHASA INGGRIS UNTUK FAKUTAS ILMU SOSIAL DAN EKONOMI

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- 1. English for Students of Social and Economics
- 2. English for Specific Purposes
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ENGLISH MODULE FOR THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC SCIENCES

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PREFACE

This module is a prototype English coursebook intended as an effort to provide more suitable instructional material in the teaching of English as a general subject in Yogyakarta State University. Rigorously based on English for Specific Purposes and Communicative Language Teaching Methodology, this course book has been developed under the following views:

- 1) That there should be a main English coursebook provided for English as a general course in each study program/faculty.
- 2) Such English should be orientated to the students' needs for English relevant to their subject matters in each study program/faculty.
- 3) English as a general subject should ideally be taught by subject-matter lecturers/ instructors in each study program/faculty.
- 4) Instructors should take their role as co-lecturers or language consultants to students when linguistic information and problems need to be explained.

This coursebook is an accomplishment of subject matter lecturers in collaboration with the language consultants of the Centre for Language Development and Services, Yogyakarta State University, through selective and careful validation processes. Instructors may use this material in its present form, emphasizing certain sections considered most relevant to their students. It is equally possible to select certain lessons within the module and add with their own materials to fulfill the semester requirements.

Hopefully, this protoype text can be used widely as the main course materials in the university, and lecturers can evaluate how effective the book is to facilitate the students' learning. Thus improvement to this course book can be made from year to year. Acknowledgements of gratitudes are addressed to the Indonesia International Education Foundation (IIEF) in Jakarta, Rector of the Yogyakarta State University, Deans of Faculties, Heads of Study Programs, and Director of the Language Development and Services Centre for making possible the production and dissemination of this coursebook.

August 2007 Samsul Maarif, M. A. Head of the PPBI-P3B Yogyakarta State University

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TELEVISION: HOW IT AFFECTS US

A. Reading

General Comprehension

In this section you are given a text to read. You should first read it through, even if you do not understand it all, looking especially at the way it is set out in paragraphs. This will give you a general idea what it is about and how it is arranged.

Now look at the following questions and read the passage through to find the answers. Remember that you do not need to understand every word in order to answer the questions. You will probably need to read it several times.

- 1. What is the text about?
- 2. What does the writer say about television?
- 3. What is the main idea of the first paragraph?
- 4. What is the main idea of the second paragraph?
- 5. Why does the writer use the phrase *on the other hand* to begin the second paragraph?



How does television affect our lives? It can be very helpful to people who carefully choose the shows that they watch. Television can increase our knowledge of the outside world; there are high-quality programs that help us understand many fields of study: science, medicine, the arts, and so on. Moreover, television benefits elderly people who can't often leave the house, as well as patients in hospitals. It also offers non-native speakers the advantage of daily informal language practice; they can increase their vocabulary and practice listening.

On the other hand, there are several serious disadvantages to television. Of course, it provides us with a pleasant way to relax and spend our free time, but in some countries, people watch the "boob tube" for an average of six hours or more a day. Many children stare at a TV screen for more hours each day than they do anything else, including studying and sleeping. It's clear that the tube has a powerful influence on their lives and that its influence is often negative.

Recent studies show that after only thirty seconds of TV, a person's brain "relaxes" the same way it does just after the person falls asleep. Another effect of television on the human brain is that it seems to cause poor concentration. Children who view a lot of TV can often concentrate on a subject for only fifteen to twenty minutes; they can pay attention only for the amount of time between commercials!

Another disadvantage is that TV often causes people to become dissatisfied with their own lives. Real life does not seem as exciting to these people as the lives of actors on the screen. To many people, TV becomes more real than reality, and their own lives seem boring. Also, many people get upset or depressed when they can't solve problems in real life as quickly as TV actors seem to. On the screen, actors solve serious problems in a half-hour program or a thirty-second commercial.

Detailed Comprehension

Now read the passage carefully, looking up anything you do not understand, and answer the following questions.

- 1. To what kind of people can television be very helpful?
- 2. In what ways can television programs benefit people?
- 3. Who can't often leave the house?
- 4. How can television programs benefit non-native speakers of a foreign language?
- 5. Why are children's studying and sleeping activities affected by television?
- 6. Why does television seem to cause poor concentration?
- 7. Why does television often cause people to become dissatisfied?
- 8. Why do some people find their lives boring?
- 9. In what situation do people get upset?
- 10. Why do actors on the screen can solve serious problems quickly?

B. Vocabulary

Prefixes

In the above text we can find the words *minicomputer* and *microcomputer*, which have the same base, that is, *computer*. The prefix *mini*- is used before nouns to form nouns which refer to something which is a smaller version of something else. The prefix *micro*- is used to form nouns that refer to something that is a very small example or fraction of a particular type of thing. Therefore a minicomputer is a small computer and a microcomputer is a very small computer. Can you show the meaning of each of the following words?

minibus	minicab	miniskirt	minitour	minicompo
microbiology	microchip	microcosm	microfilm	microorganism

There are other prefixes that add meaning to a word, and they are added not only to a noun. They can be added to other words of different parts of speech. Look at the following examples.

Base	Word	Prefix		Meani	ng
write	rewrite		re-		'again' 'before'
historic war	prehistoric postwar		pre- post-		fafter
social	antisocial	anti-	ροσι-	ʻagain	
spell	misspell	mis-		ʻwrong	gly'
stop	nonstop		non-		'without'
agree	disagree	dis-		'not'	
usual	unusual		un-		'not'
complete	incomplete	in-		'not'	
possible	impossible	im-		'not'	



One word is missing in each of the following sentences. The missing words are in the list. Find the best word to complete each sentence.

- 1. Thousands of demonstrators marched to the capital city shouting "No more war!"
- 2. If a teacher students, they will be confused because students always expect their teachers to give them the correct information.
- 3. Most students use the library's collection because these books contain important information for their studies.
- 4. Before industrialization, this was an agricultural society, but after years of being an industrial society it is becoming a society.
- 5. Most birds can fly, so the ostrich is an bird because it cannot fly.
- 6. I made a lot of mistakes in my letter, so I will the letter before I send it.
- 7. My homework is because I did not have time to finish it.
- 8. People often her name because there are many different ways to write it.
- 9. We know very little about life in times because the people who lived in those times did not know how to write.
- 10. Some people think he is because he likes to stay alone and does not like to talk to other people.

C. Grammar

Parts of Speech

Sentences in English consist of words arranged in sequence and they are not arbitrarily arranged. There are rules to construct sentences. Before we discuss the rules in details, we have to identify word classes or families.

Every word in the English language belongs to a family. That family is called the part of speech. For example, *write*, *read*, and *listen* belong to the same family. They are all **verbs**. The words *floor*, *street*, and *tree* belong to the same family. They are all **nouns**. The words *careful*, *diligent*, and *happy* belong to the same family. They are all **adjectives**. We can still add many other examples.

The knowledge of parts of speech is important because each has a certain function in a sentence. We cannot put a word anywhere we like in a sentence. It must be placed in a particular position in a specified order.

There are nine main parts of speech in English (Some books say there are eight and some say ten). They are the **noun**, **pronoun**, **verb**, **adjective**, **adverb**, **article**, **preposition**, **conjunction**, and **interjection**. It is necessary to know the "job" of every word in a sentence because it conveys some meaning.

Nouns

A noun is a word used for a person, place or thing, for example *John, Mother, sister, city, town, village, chair, pencil,* and *table*. Nouns can be classified into several types, depending on the basis for the classification. We can have proper nouns, common nouns, collective nouns, abstract nouns, countable nouns and uncountable nouns.

Pronouns

A pronoun is a word used to replace a noun or noun phrase. Usually when a noun or noun phrase has been used once, a pronoun is used to avoid repetition of the same noun or noun phrase. Pronouns can be classified into personal pronouns (e.g. *he, she, they*), emphatic and reflexive pronouns (e.g. *himself, herself, themselves*), demonstrative pronouns (e.g. *this, that, these, those*), interrogative pronouns (e.g. *where, when, how*), relative pronouns (e.g. *which, who, whose*), indefinite pronouns (e.g. *someone, something, everyone*), distributive pronouns (e.g. *each, either, neither*), and reciprocal pronouns (e.g. *each other, one another*).

Verbs

A verb is a word which expresses the action carried out by the subject of a sentence (*The man eats*; *The man runs*; *The man thinks*), or connects the subject of a sentence to things about the subject (*John has become a lawyer*; *John will be a lawyer*; *The books are thick and heavy*).

Adjectives

An adjective is a word that describes a noun or a pronoun either by pointing out one of its qualities (the *red* dress, *blunt* instruments, a *long* pole) or by limiting its reference (the *only* desk, *ten* kilometres, the *first* road). Some common adjectives possessive adjectives (*my*, *his*, *her*), descriptive adjectives (*careful*, *excellent*, *happy*) and demonstrative adjectives (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*).

Adverbs

An adverb is a word that gives more information about when, how, where or in what circumstances something happens (e.g. *now*, *quickly*, *there*). There are different kinds of adverb (which is discussed in a later section).

Articles

The words *a*, *an*, and *the* are articles. As a part of speech, articles are considered adjectives because they modify nouns. There are two classes of articles: indefinite and definite articles. *A* and *an* are indefinite articles and *the* is the definite article.

Prepositions

A preposition is a word that links a noun or a noun equivalent (a pronoun or gerund) to another word by expressing such relationships as location (e.g. *at*, *in*, *on*, *over*), direction (e.g. *to*, *across*, *towards*), time (e.g. *before*, *after*, *during*) or purpose (e.g. *to*, *for*).

Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word which is used to join words (John *and* Mary, slowly *but* carefully), phrases (the plays of Shakespeare *or* the music of Mozart) and clauses (I like him *because* he is kind). Conjunctions are classified into coordinate and subordinate conjunctions. *And*, *but*, and *or* are coordinate conjunction and *because*, *if*, and *when* are subordinate conjunctions.

Interjections

An interjection is a word or a phrase which is introduced into a sentence as an exclamation of emotion (*Ouch! Oh dear! Good heavens!*) or to attract attention (*Psst, Hey! Hi!*).

Now complete the following sentences with your own words. The part of speech of each word is shown in brackets.

- 1. My two children always fight with (reciprocal pronoun)
- 2. Jane does not like ... sister. (possessive adjective)
- 3. There ... a few passengers in the bus. (verb)
- 4. ... books are from the university library. (demonstrative adjective)
- 5. The program for the computer will be recorded on the (noun)
- 6. The object ... running business is to make money. (preposition)
- 7. ... all businesses suffer from bad debts. (adverb)
- 8. Interest has to be paid whether the business is profitable ... not. (conjunction)
- 9. There is a loss at the time of sale, ... good procedures can largely eliminate. (relative pronoun)
- 10. ... wholesale organization needs to keep sufficient stock in all categories to be able to supply its customers. (article)

Now identify the parts of speech of all the words used in the above sentences. Look up your dictionary if necessary.



GREEK AND ROMAN HISTORIOGRAPHY



Read the text carefully.



Herodotus

Greek And Roman Historiography

History, in its broadest sense, is the totality of all past events, although a more realistic definition would limit it to the known past. Historiography is the written record of what is known of human lives and societies in the past and how historians have attempted to understand them. Of all the fields of serious study and literary effort, history may be the hardest to define precisely, because the attempt to uncover past events and formulate an intelligible account of them necessarily involves the use and influence of many auxiliary disciplines and literary forms. The concern of all serious historians has been to collect

and record facts about the human past and often to discover new facts. They have known that the information they have is incomplete, partly incorrect, or biased and requires careful attention. All have tried to discover in the facts patterns of meaning addressed to the enduring questions of human life.

In the 5th century BC Herodotus, who has been called the father of history, wrote his famous account of the Persian Wars. Shortly afterward, Thucydides wrote his classic study of the Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta. These men recorded contemporary or nearcontemporary events in prose narratives of striking style, depending as much as possible on eyewitness or other reliable testimony for evidence. They concentrated on war, constitutional history, and the character of political leaders to create pictures of human societies in times of crisis or change. The recognition by contemporaries of the extraordinary accomplishment of both historians gave their works an authority that influenced succeeding historians. They too would prefer recent events, consider visual and oral evidence superior to written (used only in ancillary ways), and assume that the most significant human expression was the state and political life. Antiquarian research into religion, customs, names, and art, based on documentary sources, was also part of Greek and Roman culture but was allied chiefly to philosophy, biography, and areas of specialized learning and was excluded from the main traditions of political history. No specialized training was considered necessary for historiography. The historian's education was that of any cultivated man: careful reading of general literature, followed by the study of rhetoric, the art of fluent and persuasive use of language that dominated ancient higher education. The ideal historian would combine rigorous truthfulness and freedom from bias with the gift of developed expression.

In the 4th century BC Xenophon, Theopompus of Chios (born about 378BC), and Ephorus continued the main traditions of Greek historiography in the Hellenistic period and extended its scope. Polybius, in the 2nd century BC, explained Roman history, political life, and military successes to his fellow Greeks, a subject also taken up by Strabo the geographer and Dionysius of Halicarnassus in the following century. The history of the Jews was placed in its Hellenistic and Roman context by Flavius Josephus, a Jewish aristocrat of Greek culture, who also defended and explained Jewish religion and customs. In the same period Plutarch wrote his biographies of famous Greeks and Romans, emphasizing dramatic, anecdotal materials in his depiction of exemplary character—individual lives regarded as illustrations of moral choices—and its effect on public life.

The prestige of Greek as a language of art and learning was so great that the first Roman historiography, even by Romans, was written in Greek. Cato the Elder was the first to write Roman history in Latin, and his example inspired others. Sallust, impressed by the work of Thucydides,

developed a brilliant Latin style that combined ethical reflections with acute psychological insight. His political analysis, based on human motivation, was to have a long and pervasive influence on historical writing. At the same time, Cicero, although not himself a historian, defined the prevailing ideals of historiography in terms of stylistic elegance and traditional moral standards applied to the events of public life. Latin historical writing continued in this mode with Livy, Tacitus, and Suetonius.



Cato the Alder

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Nancy F. Partner

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Exercise

Answer the questions based on the text above.

- 1. What are the important of history and historiography?
- 2. Why did people call Herodotus as the father of history?
- 3. Who is Thucydides?
- 4. What are the main traditions of Greek historiography in the Hellenistic period?
- 5. What are the differences between the Greek and Roman Historiography?
- 6. Who is Cato the Elder?
- 7. How did Latin historical writing develop?
- 8. Is it true that Greek and Roman historiography emphasised in political history?

B. Vocabulary

Singular and Plural Nouns

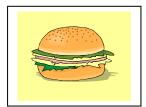
		Plural
Regular	Singular	
For most words, simply a final –s is added to form the plural	song, hat, book, hand, bag, etc.	songs, hats, books, hands, bags, etc.
Final <i>-es</i> is added to words that end in <i>-sh</i> , <i>-ch</i> , <i>-s</i> , <i>-z</i> , <i>-x</i>	dish, watch, class, buzz, box, etc	dishes, watches, classes, buzzes, boxes, etc
For words that end in -y If -y is preceded by a vowel, only -s is added If -y is preceded by a consonant, the -y is changed into -i and -es is added	toy, boy, etc baby, lullaby, etc	toys, boys, etc babies, lullabies, etc
Some nouns that end in –o, final –es is added to form the plural Some nouns that end in –o, final –es is added to form the plural	echo, hero, potato, etc auto, video, radio, etc	echoes, heroes, potatoes, etc autos, videos, radios, etc
Some nouns that end in $-\boldsymbol{o}$,	volcano, zero, tornado, etc	volcanoes/volcanos,

either final –s or–es can be		zeroes/zeros, tornadoes /
added to form the plural		tornados, etc
Some nouns that end in -f, simply final -s is added to form the plural	belief, chief, roof, etc	beliefs, chiefs, roofs, etc
Some nouns that end in -f or -fe, final -ves is added to form the plural	half, leaf, knife, life, etc	halves, leaves, knives, lives, etc
Some nouns have the same singular and plural forms	deer, fish, series, sheep, species, etc	deer, fish, series, sheep, species, etc

Irregular	Singular	Plural
The noun have irregular plural forms	man, woman, child, ox, mouse, foot, goose, etc	men, women, children, oxen, mice, feet, geese, etc
Some nouns that English has borrowed from other languages have foreign plurals	criterion, cactus, vertebra, analysis, index, bacterium, datum, etc	criteria, cacti/cactuses, vertebrae, analyses, indices/indexes, bacteria, datum/data, etc

Write the plural forms of these words and make a sentence for each word!

1.	rug	11. sandwich
2.	photo	12. crisis
3.	syllabus	13. shelf
4.	cake	14. mango
5.	medium	15. thesis
6.	monkey	16. tooth
7.	tax	17. memorandum
8.	ring	18. course
9.	phenomenon	19. piano
10.	fox	20. river





Modal Auxiliaries

1. May

a. Permission

<u>may</u> has the same meaning with <u>be allowed to</u>

Example: You may go home now

You are allowed to go home now.

<u>May</u> I borrow your book?

Am I allowed to borrow your book?

b. Possibility

may has the same meaning with perhaps or it is possible that

The train is not coming yet now. He <u>may</u> come late

Perhaps, he come late

It is possible that he come late.

Note: *might* has the same meaning with *may*, but *might* is quite formal and polite

2. Can

a. Permission

<u>Can</u> has the same meaning with <u>be allowed to</u> or <u>be permitted to</u>

Example: Can I borrow your pen?

Am I allowed to borrow your pen?

Am I permitted to borrow your pen?

b. Capability

<u>Can</u> has the same meaning with <u>be able to</u>.

Example: I can to do it.

I am able to do it.

c. Sometimes

<u>Can be</u> has the same meaning with <u>sometimes</u>

Example: He *can be* very stubborn.

He is *sometimes* very stubborn.

Note: <u>could</u> has the same meaning with <u>can</u>, but <u>could</u> is quite formal and polite

3. Must

a. Obligation

<u>Must</u> has the same meaning with <u>have to</u>.

Example: She *must* leave this class now.

She *has to* leave this class now.

b. Probability

<u>Must be</u> has the same meaning with <u>is is very probable that</u>.

Example: He left the school an hour ago. He *must be* at home now.

<u>It is very probable that</u> he is at home now.

4. Should

a. Obligation

Should has the same meaning with ought to

Example: The exam comes nearer. So, you *should* study harder.

you *ought to* study harder.

b. Advice

Example: You should eat a lot of vegetables

c. Expectation

Example: The teacher explain the lesson carefully. The student *should* understand it.

d. Probability

Example: Because it is raining heavily, he *should be* late.

5. Will

Future time

Will has the same meaning with *be going to*.

Example: We will go to the dentist tomorrow.

We <u>are going to</u> go to the dentist tomorrow.



Fill in the blank with appropriate words.

Ex	Example: It looks like rain. We (close) the looks like rain. We should close the windows and the looks like rain.	
1.	1. You (answer) the call. It (be)	important.
	2. Sally is looking at the test paper the teacher just returned. S	
	not) the test.	
3.	3. Sorry, I didn't understand. (Repeat, you)	what you said?
1.	4. When I was younger, I (run) ten miles w	ithout stopping. But now I (run,
	not) more than a mile or two.	
5.	5. It's not look like Rossy to be late. She (be)	here an hour ago. I
	hope nothing bad happened.	-
5.	6. A: Where are you going?	
	B: I (go) to the library. I (find)	any books about
	History of Indonesia.	
7.	7. Microwave ovens make cooking fast and easy. If y	you have one, you (cook)
	this noodle in three minutes.	
3.	3. The teacher called on Sam in class yesterday, but he kept lool	king out the window and didn't
	respond. He (daydream)	
9.	9. You (clean) this room before your	mother gets home. She'll be
	angry if she sees all this stuff all over the floor.	
10.	10. I returned a book to the library yesterday. It was two	o days overdue, so I (pay)
	a fine of Rp. 1000,-	





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This module has been selectively and carefully tried out for validation in the Faculty of Social and Economic Sciences. The material has adequately covered:

- * essential skills for reading comprehension
- * reading texts of various topics in the social and economic sciences
- * grammatical structures most needed in academic English
- * vocabulary items related to social and economic sciences
- * a substantial number of content and language exercises
- * interesting illustrations and decorations

Best to be used for individual studies, group works, or teacher-guided classroom interactions

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