



英 語 問 題

注意事項

1. 問題用紙は、12 ページある。
2. 解答用紙に印刷されている受験番号が正しいかどうか、受験票と照合し確認する。
3. 解答用紙の所定の欄に氏名を記入する。
4. 解答は、すべて解答用紙の所定の欄にマークするか、または所定の欄に記述する。
5. 解答は、必ず鉛筆又はシャープペンシル(いずれもHB・黒)で記入する。
6. 訂正は、消しゴムできれいに消し、消しくずを残さない。
7. 解答用紙は、汚したり折り曲げたりしないこと。また所定以外のところには、記入しない。
8. 問題に指定された数より多くマークしない。
9. 解答用紙は、持ちかえらない。
10. 問題用紙は、持ちかえる。
11. 試験時間は、70 分である。

(マーク記入例)

良い例	悪い例
	

I つぎの英文を読み、あとの問いに答えなさい。

Several professors at Texas A & M know something that generations of teachers have (1) been able to guess at: whether or not students are reading their textbooks. They know when students are skipping pages, not highlighting important parts, not taking notes — or simply not opening the book at all.

The dean of the school of business, Tracy Hurley, said that although it seems like the faculty members are spying on the students, it is being done for good reasons. In fact, the members of the faculty are testing a new piece of technology that allows them to check students' progress with digital textbooks. This project is being carried out in eight other colleges as well as Texas A & M.

The main college publishers have already been collecting data from millions of students who use their digital educational materials for some time. CourseSmart does more than that. It (A) each professor with full information on each and every student in the class. It is a new approach, which is already affecting how teachers teach and how students learn. There is a plan to introduce the system more widely from the next academic year. However, some critics question how well this system measures learning.

One of the instructors in management at Texas A & M, Adrian Guardia, found a problem (2) a student who seemed to be doing well. His test grades were good and CourseSmart reported his “engagement index” was also good. But the instructor saw that the student had opened his textbook only once. Mr. Guardia teaches 70 students in three classes. He questioned whether the student was really learning if he only opened his textbook once, the night before the test. He decided to counsel the student on his study habits.

Students do not see their engagement index scores (B) a professor shows them. However, the students know that the digital books are checking on how they are studying. For a few students, merely being told their number is a shock. One student, Charles Tejeda, got a C on his last quiz but he realized that

he was struggling in class when he got a low CourseSmart score. “They caught me,” Mr. Tejada, 43, said. He has two jobs and three children, and can only study late at night. “Maybe I need to focus more,” he said.

CourseSmart is owned by a group of major publishers who see this technology as a way to keep their control over the market. By offering faculty and administrators a constant stream of data on how students are performing they hope CourseSmart will keep them at the top. In the old days, teachers knew whether or not students understood the course content from the (3) on their faces. Now some classes are completely (4) and teachers don’t see their students. The CourseSmart information could give the colleges early warning about which students might fail their courses and tell teachers if the whole class is not able to follow the course. Eventually, this data will be returned to the publishers, to help them prepare new editions of their digital books.

Publishers and writers have dreamed of such feedback that could help them to improve on how they target their sales and improve the efficiency of their editing. Several big publishers are probably already collecting this kind of data, but they will not say what they are going to do with it. In the pre-digital era publishers did not know how their books were being used. Sean Devine, the chief executive of CourseSmart, said, “Before this, the publisher never knew whether a particular chapter of the book was even looked at.” More than 3.5 million students and educators use CourseSmart textbooks and these are producing a huge (C) of data about particular chapters of each of the digital books.

Students have some (5) of the system. Some students complained that they needed better information on the analysis of their reading. Others said their scores suffered because they took notes on paper rather than digitally. Some students also commented that there were problems with the software. For example, the student who was studying at the last minute said that he had opened the textbook several times, not just once. Mr. Guardia was not convinced about these complaints, and CourseSmart said it knew of no problems with its software.

Professor Chris Dede, a specialist in learning technologies at Harvard's Graduate School of Education, is worried about the quality of the data CourseSmart is producing, even though he believes analytics are important in the classroom. Other problems with CourseSmart are that students could play games with its note-taking or highlighting functions and, by so doing, change the results of the data. A student could improve his or her engagement index score by (D) the book open while doing something else, for example. Professor Dede suggests that it could be harmful if teachers believe (1. CourseSmart, 2. most, 3. scores, 4. to, 5. from, 6. much, 7. of, 8. mean, 9. the) the students.⁽⁴⁾

However, Mr. Devine of CourseSmart suggests that this is just a (E) and that in the end the system will show how well students have used the textbook. He insists there is a connection between how the students use the textbook and how successful they are as students. But there is also a connection between what is thought to be happening and real success. For example, Hillary Terres is a good student but she has a low engagement index score. This is probably because she puts her notes into a computer file and they are not being checked by the system. She is a student of Mr. Guardia. She is worried that, "If he looks and sees that I am not working as much as he thought then he might have a negative image of me. His opinion of me really (6). Maybe I need to change my study habits." After two months of using the system Mr. Guardia's students are scoring well on quizzes and assignments, but their engagement index scores are low. He thinks, "Maybe this course is too easy and I need to challenge them a bit more."⁽⁷⁾ Or maybe the textbooks are not as good as I thought."

問 1 文脈から考えて、(1)～(6)に入る最も適切な語を選びなさい。

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| (1) A. never | B. ever |
| C. only | D. rarely |
| (2) A. by | B. with |
| C. as | D. in |
| (3) A. experiments | B. experiences |
| C. experts | D. expressions |
| (4) A. virtual | B. interpersonal |
| C. blind | D. unconscious |
| (5) A. merits | B. criticisms |
| C. techniques | D. advantages |
| (6) A. matters | B. evolves |
| C. worsens | D. improves |

問 2 文脈から考えて、(A)～(E)に入る適切な英単語(一語)を書きなさい。最初の一文字はすでに解答欄に与えられているので、その文字を繰り返して書かないこと。

問 3 下線部(ア)の発言の理由として、最も適切なものを選びなさい。

- A. The faculty members are able to know who has cheated in quizzes with the new technology.
- B. The faculty members require publishers to get access to private information on students secretly with the new device.
- C. The faculty members are aware that they are deceiving students with the new software.
- D. The faculty members could get information about the degree to which students engage themselves in preparing for classes with the new system.

問 4 下線部(イ)を意味の通る適切な英文にするため、()内の単語を並べ替えるとき、5番目と8番目にくる単語をそれぞれ選びなさい。

問 5 下線部(ウ)の発言の理由として、最も適切な理由を選びなさい。

- A. Students do better in their course work than the results from the new system suggests.
- B. Students' engagement index scores are compatible with those for quizzes and assignments.
- C. The students tend to form wrong images about the teachers using the new system.
- D. The new system has improved the students' scores for quizzes and assignments more than expected.

問 6 本文の内容を考え、この英文のタイトルとしてふさわしくないものを一つ選びなさい。

- A. The Teacher Knows if You've Done the E-Reading
- B. Merits and Demerits of Digital Textbooks
- C. Digital Materials Could Change Students' Study Habits
- D. Confrontation between Teachers and Publishers over New Technology

II つぎの英文を読み、本文の内容に合うように、最も適切なものをA～Dの選択肢から選び、文を完成させなさい。

In Japan in the late nineteenth century, the metropolitan lower classes, especially the poor, tended to concentrate in ghettos, but as the twentieth century progressed, these dense settlements of the poor gradually dispersed. The poor tended to occupy low-lying areas that were not properly provided with water and drains, did not have fresh moving air, and suffered from high humidity. And despite the high population density, the low wooden apartment buildings that housed the poor were built along dark, narrow lanes rather than ordinary wider and more open streets. Overcrowded, poorly lit, damp, and stinking, the urban slums fostered crime and disease. They were hardly a promising environment for busy working women who were seeking to establish households and raise children.

The 1890s were in the middle of a period when there was a lack of housing and rents were high. At this time urban lower-class women and their families lived in cheap hotels or single-story row houses consisting of five-to-ten household units, hidden away in lanes behind the main streets. A poor household, as a rule, lived in one room measuring two meters by three meters or three meters by four meters, while a working-class family might occupy two small rooms. Quite often two households or one household plus unrelated persons shared the same living space.

Not only did the living spaces of the urban underclass lack private toilets, baths, and water supplies; many did not have windows or cooking facilities. Needless to say, under these living conditions it was not easy for employed women to manage cooking, laundry, cleaning, and childrearing. Nonetheless, shared facilities such as wells and public baths, which charged admission, had some advantages. They provided opportunities for women to socialize as they did laundry, washed dishes, and bathed their children. And no single woman bore responsibility for the daily maintenance or cleaning of the facilities.

By the end of the 1930s, poor and working-class women and their families tended to occupy larger living spaces, often with tiny kitchens, electricity, and

private toilets. And they owned more household goods — bedding, dining tables, and things for cooking. Overall, the material aspects of urban lower-class women's home lives changed during the early twentieth century. These changes made it easier for working-class women to perform household tasks at home.

Yet one may also ask whether these new improvements truly served the interests of urban lower-class women. Cooking and washing clothes and dishes at home alone instead of in company with other women may have isolated these women. So, it can be argued that doing household tasks in the home, due to the greater availability of household items after the 1920s, limited the social life and increased the workload of poor women. These women were already under pressure to look after their households and care for their children.

As society became aware of middle-class ideals of home life for married women, this may have begun to transform ideas of what being a woman should be. These new ideas changed the daily practices of urban lower-class women, particularly those who worked and whose households were less likely to require an income from the wife.

In the domestic world of lower-class women, even the poor were able to buy more goods as the twentieth century progressed. Knowing who made the decisions about purchases and who actually bought goods for the home is critical in understanding the power structure in the household. It is probable that women who worked at home making things for factories to sell, or who worked for themselves, had the power to buy things rather than those women who did domestic work at home with no pay.

During the late Meiji era, urban lower class families spent a large part of their income on basic essential goods— 68 to 70 percent on food and 10 to 19 percent on housing. Many poor families did not own their sleeping mats or covers. They rented them. Many families bought leftover food, including rice. This was cheap and convenient to buy and many families, as mentioned above, had no cooking facilities. Working-class budgets for these years were similar to those of

the poor in that they spent a large part of their income on food. Working-class families also had regular debts that built up over time. However, they were able to spend more money on better housing and on non-essential goods such as newspapers, books, and educational fees.

By the 1920s, poor urban women spent 45 to 50 percent of their household budget on food compared to 60 percent before this period. For working-class women this had fallen to under 40 percent. Lower-class families also spent less on housing, while spending on newspapers, baths, educational fees, gifts, and entertainment increased. Lower-class women became less focused on the daily struggle for survival, and they were able to spend more on clothing, education, and entertainment.

1. In the late nineteenth century in Japan the lower classes lived in places where
 - A. working women, who were trying to raise their children, were encouraged.
 - B. large numbers of other poor people also lived with their families.
 - C. wide open streets, running water, and other conveniences could be found.
 - D. many tall buildings and lots of fresh air were the main features of life.

2. The reason why people shared living spaces in the 1890s was that they
 - A. liked living in cheap hotels, hidden away in lanes.
 - B. thought it was unsociable not to have their families living with them.
 - C. had community spirit and wanted others to share living space with them.
 - D. couldn't afford to have enough accommodation just for themselves.

3. Shared living gave lower-class women
 - A. private toilets, baths, and water supplies that were necessary for family life.
 - B. cooking, laundry, cleaning, and childrearing areas, away from other people.
 - C. space and time during which they could communicate with others.
 - D. the chance of using free public baths and wells.

4. Working-class women at the end of the 1930s
- A. were forced to go out to work because their husbands didn't earn enough.
 - B. lived in private houses with more space and all the facilities of modern times.
 - C. owned their homes that were filled with furniture and other household items.
 - D. did household tasks at home and had an easier time there than before.
5. Concerning the position of women after the 1920s, the important question is:
- A. How far were women's lives limited by the need to live in private housing?
 - B. Would women achieve equality at work or at home with men in the near future?
 - C. Was the income of these women badly affected by working in public houses?
 - D. Could lower-class women afford the new luxuries that they had?
6. The effects of the middle-class ideals were
- A. to create chances for lower-class women to make careers for themselves.
 - B. to make women surer of themselves in the wider world and less dependent.
 - C. to free women from the slavery of domestic work and the control of their husbands.
 - D. to change the idea of women as independent workers to women as wives in the home.
7. As the lives of the lower-classes became richer,
- A. those who made the decisions about what to buy became more important in the home.
 - B. the women doing domestic work at home were able to control the budget and decided what to buy.
 - C. workers who made things at home to sell started to earn less money than others in the family and didn't buy things for them.
 - D. women who worked for themselves used the money they earned to have a good time rather than for the family.

8. As for poor families and working-class families in the late Meiji era, the difference between them lay in the fact that
- A. the poor tended to spend most of their money on food and housing.
 - B. the working-class had regular debts that got bigger as time went on.
 - C. the working-class used more of their budgets to live in better accommodation.
 - D. the poor saved up money by buying leftover food and renting their bedding.
9. The change in the lives of the lower-classes that had taken place by the late 1920s was that
- A. the percentage of spending on food by poor women was lower than that of working-class women.
 - B. the percentage of the household budget spent on food and housing decreased.
 - C. households began spending too much money on luxury goods instead of on necessary goods.
 - D. lower-class women didn't care about struggling for survival and gave up trying to live economically.
10. The best title for this text is:
- A. The rise of sociable and financially independent women in Japan in the twentieth century
 - B. Changes in the lives of Japanese women between the Meiji period and the twentieth century
 - C. Women and work: The evolution of women from domestic servants to modern entrepreneurs
 - D. Poverty and its effects on the lives of families in Japan in the past and present day

Ⅲ つぎの会話文を読み、1～5の文が入る最も適切な箇所を(A)～(H)から選び、会話文を完成させなさい。

1. My smile meant that I was sorry and wanted you to stop getting angry.
2. But how do you make exceptions for urgent calls?
3. I'd never thought about that.
4. I only smile when I think of something good.
5. That's why I get irritated because I can't do it here.

Three students are discussing what they like and don't like about social manners in Japan. Meiwen is from China, Giwon is from Korea, and Michi is from Japan.

Giwon: I don't know why it's not allowed to talk on my cell phone in the train.
It's really inconvenient.

Michi: The rule is there to protect others on the train from listening to your conversation. It can be annoying, especially when people talk loudly. (A)

Giwon: I see that. But if there is something urgent, then I should be able to make or take a call.

Meiwen: (B) What you call urgent may not be urgent for me.

Michi: Yeah, I might think calling a friend to say I'll be late to meet up is urgent.

Giwon: I guess you're right. It's just that in Korea we can chat on the phone in the train. (C) There are just so many rules.

Meiwen: That's what I think, too. Sometimes I get frustrated with all the paperwork that's necessary for doing something simple like getting a parking place for my bicycle by the station. I have to go to the city office and fill in the forms to get a special license. I can't even do it by mail or through the Internet.

Michi: (D) It just seems normal to me.

Giwon: Of course, you're Japanese, but it's strange for us.

Meiwen: Don't you ever get mad when things like that happen?

Michi: Maybe, a little. But then I just think it can't be helped and smile.

Giwon: Exactly. I mean, why do Japanese people smile when they are annoyed or frustrated?

Meiwen: Do you remember last week, Michi, when we had that argument about your being late for our lunch date? You apologized and then smiled! What was all that about?

Michi: Well, we just don't like confrontations. (E)

Giwon: But why didn't you just tell her that?

Michi: Because I expected her to understand.

Meiwen: I suppose I've been in Japan long enough to understand this kind of non-verbal communication, but it still annoys me.

Michi: Don't you do that in China or Korea? (F)

Giwon: Sometimes my mom expects me to understand what she's thinking, but then I am her son and know her pretty well. But other than her, I always make my feelings clear, unless it hurts someone. (G)

Michi: There you go then. Japanese people are sensitive to others' feelings and want to avoid hurting them. That's why we don't state the obvious. Instead we smile.

Meiwen: Don't you think that's a bit strange, though?

Giwon: Yeah. (H) What about lunch?

Michi: Oh yes. Let's go to the Indian restaurant down the street. I could just do with a curry.

Meiwen: Now you've put a smile on my face, too!
