

2015年度

H 英 語 問 題

注 意

1. 試験開始の指示があるまでこの問題冊子を開いてはいけません。
2. 解答用紙はすべてHBの黒鉛筆またはHBの黒のシャープペンシルで記入することになっています。HBの黒鉛筆・消しゴムを忘れた人は監督に申し出てください。(万年筆・ボールペン・サインペンなどを使用してはいけません。)
3. この問題冊子は16ページまでとなっています。試験開始後、ただちにページ数を確認してください。なお、問題番号はI～Vとなっています。
4. 解答用紙にはすでに受験番号が記入されていますので、出席票の受験番号が、あなたの受験票の番号であるかどうかを確認し、出席票の氏名欄に氏名のみを記入してください。なお、出席票は切り離さないでください。
5. 解答は解答用紙の指定された解答欄に記入し、その他の部分には何も書いてはいけません。
6. 解答用紙を折り曲げたり、破ったり、傷つけたりしないように注意してください。
7. この問題冊子は持ち帰ってください。

マーク・センス法についての注意

マーク・センス法とは、鉛筆でマークした部分を機械が直接よみとって採点する方法です。

1. マークは、下記の記入例のようにHBの黒鉛筆で枠の中をぬり残さず濃くぬりつぶしてください。
2. 1つのマーク欄には1つしかマークしてはいけません。
3. 訂正する場合は消しゴムでよく消し、消しきずはきれいに取り除いてください。

マーク記入例：

A	1	2	3	4	5
	○	○	●	○	○

(3と解答する場合)

I. 次の文を読み、下記の1～10それぞれに続くものとして、本文の内容ともっともよく合致するものを、各イ～ニから1つずつ選び、その記号を解答用紙の所定欄にマークせよ。

Frank Croul was the Police Commissioner of Detroit, Michigan, from 1909 to 1913. Then, as now, the city was the heart of the American auto industry. Car companies such as Ford, Studebaker, Packard, and Cadillac were all headquartered there, and as Croul saw an ever-increasing number of cars buzzing around the city streets, he wondered if they might have some use in his line of work.

He wasn't the first person to contemplate such a possibility. In 1899, the city of Akron, Ohio, paid the Collins Buggy Company \$2,400 (\$65,000 today) for a battery-powered patrol wagon, complete with a stretcher, a cage for prisoners, electric headlights, and a gong. America's first horseless police vehicle left a lot to be desired. Weighing 5,000 pounds, it had a top speed of just 16 miles per hour and a range of 30 miles before the batteries had to be recharged. A year after it was built, an angry mob pushed it into the Ohio Canal during a race riot. Though the wagon was returned to service, the city never bothered to build another one.

As Croul could tell from watching the traffic in front of his office, motor vehicles had improved a lot since 1899. Cars with gasoline engines had none of the problems with range that older electric cars had. Now that automakers had been building them in quantity for nearly a decade, gas-powered automobiles were becoming quite reliable. Some, like Ford's Model T, were even affordable. Croul thought the time was right to buy a car for the Detroit Police Department. But when he asked the city for money to buy one, they turned him down. Croul was adamant. He was so sure that "police cars" had a future, he bought the department a Packard with \$5,000 of his own money—more than \$100,000 today.

Croul's hunch proved to be correct. His Packard was a lot more useful than Akron's electric patrol wagon. It was speedy and reliable, needed less care than a police horse, and it allowed police to get to the scene of an emergency faster than if they went on foot or in a horse-drawn wagon. After just four months, the city reimbursed Croul for the Packard and made plans to buy six more cars. These proved so economical to operate—less than half the cost of the horses and wagons they replaced—that by 1913, even the city dog catcher had his own truck. Detroit's

last horse-drawn vehicles were phased out forever.

Even in those very early days police cars were also known as “patrol cars.” But they didn’t do much patrolling, because there was no way to communicate with them once they were away from the station. Police radios hadn’t been invented yet, so patrol officers had to wait at the station for emergency calls to come in. Then, as soon as they finished with one call, they had to return to the station to wait for the next one.

Early police cars were almost indistinguishable from other cars. They were typically dark in color and might have the word “POLICE” or “P.D.” hand-painted in small letters on the driver and passenger-side doors, but that was about it. They had no extra lights—early automotive electrical systems couldn’t power them—and what few sirens there were had to be cranked by hand. The Detroit Police Department didn’t bother with sirens; it issued its motor vehicle officers “loud-sounding whistles.”

New York City’s first police cars were convertibles, to enable citizens to see the officers’ police hats so that they’d know they were police cars. Patrol officers were under orders to keep the top down so that the hats could be seen, unless a superior officer gave special permission for the top to be put back up. Rain or even snow was no guarantee that permission would be given.

By the late 1920s, some departments were beginning to use police cars with special paint schemes. The New York Police Department’s cars had green bodies, white roofs, and black front fenders. The California Highway Patrol, founded in 1929, preferred white cars with black roofs. It wasn’t until the 1930s that a style began to appear in police departments all over the country: black cars with white doors and roofs—the first “black and whites.”

Police cars began adding spotlights for extra visibility as soon as the electrical systems could handle them, but red police lights didn’t become common until the 1930s. The first ones were made from tail lights—which explains why they were red—and were mounted on the front fender, the front bumper, or the roof. Some cars had them in pairs, and others had an extra light mounted on the front right fender, facing rightward, that read “PULL OVER” or “STOP” when lit, which was used to stop speeding drivers.

The first 360-degree rotating “ball” light, called the Beacon Ray, was introduced by the Federal Sign and Signal Company in 1948. Red (and later blue) ball lights remained popular through the late 1960s, when they began to be replaced with horizontal “light bars” that included multiple rotating lights, mirrors to reflect their light forward or wherever else it was needed, and a siren.

For all the changes that police cars have gone through in their first 100 years, one thing has not changed. Police cars have always been modified versions of standard automobiles, nothing more. Automakers didn’t even offer special law-enforcement upgrades (such as improved brakes, tires, steering, and suspension components) until Ford added them to its first “Police Package” cars in 1950. General Motors, Chrysler, and other major American automakers soon followed, and American police cars have been made that way ever since. So far, none of the Big 3 automakers have ever designed a “purpose-built” police car from scratch, because annual police car sales are too small to justify the expense.

1. The underlined word “they” (first paragraph) refers to

- イ. cars.
- ロ. car companies.
- ハ. city streets.
- ニ. police.

2. The underlined sentence “America’s first horseless police vehicle left a lot to be desired” (paragraph 2) means that the first horseless police vehicle

- イ. had many strengths.
- ロ. was desired by many communities.
- ハ. had many weaknesses.
- ニ. was less desirable than earlier vehicles.

3. The passage suggests that Frank Croul
- ㄱ. earned money from selling police cars.
 - ㄴ. was the first person to build a police car.
 - ㄷ. drove Detroit's first police car.
 - ㄹ. made a good prediction about police cars.
4. The underlined word "adamant" (paragraph 3) is closest in meaning to
- ㄱ. defeated.
 - ㄴ. determined.
 - ㄷ. fortunate.
 - ㄹ. sympathetic.
5. Early police cars did not do much patrolling because
- ㄱ. it was easier to walk to the scene of a crime.
 - ㄴ. gasoline was very expensive.
 - ㄷ. police cars didn't have radios.
 - ㄹ. there weren't so many crimes at that time.
6. The description of early police cars indicates that they
- ㄱ. were quite different from normal cars.
 - ㄴ. had no electric power.
 - ㄷ. were difficult to drive.
 - ㄹ. cost less to use than horse-drawn vehicles.
7. The underlined word "schemes" (paragraph 8) is closest in meaning to
- ㄱ. messages.
 - ㄴ. patterns.
 - ㄷ. strategies.
 - ㄹ. techniques.

8. The passage suggests that police cars began to look similar in different parts of the country during the
- イ. 1920s.
 - ロ. 1930s.
 - ハ. 1940s.
 - ニ. 1960s.
9. One theme of the passage is that police cars
- イ. are easy for automakers to sell.
 - ロ. have helped to reduce crime.
 - ハ. are based on standard automobile design.
 - ニ. have not changed much in the last 100 years.
10. The most appropriate title for this passage is
- イ. The History of the Police Car.
 - ロ. Police Car Designs in America.
 - ハ. Frank Croul: Police Commissioner.
 - ニ. Police Cars and Urban Law Enforcement.

II. 次の文を読み、下記の1~10それぞれに続くものとして、本文の内容ともっともよく合致するものを、各イ~ニから1つずつ選び、その記号を解答用紙の所定欄にマークせよ。

One of the most striking—and unsettling—experiences I've ever had is to travel to a place I've never visited before, then travel back along the same route. The trip out always seems to take longer than the trip back—not just a little longer, but much, much longer. I vividly remember traveling by car a few summers ago to a town in Eastern Ontario that I had never been to before, expecting that each twist and turn of the lakeside road I was following would be the one to finally reveal my destination, hoping that the top of every hill should provide a glimpse of a church tower, yet I drove and drove and drove with nothing but farmers' fields on one side and docks and beaches on the other. By contrast, the trip back the next day was a very different story, a brisk little drive completely free of tension or insecurity.

The effect is most striking when you're driving, but it will work if you're riding a bicycle or even walking; speed isn't as crucial as having a destination. It's too awkward to call this the "time there / time back difference," so I've named it the "tourist illusion"—it works when the outgoing trip is a first-time excursion to a place an uncertain distance away and the return trip must retrace your steps. As long as the speed you travel remains more or less the same, the effect is profound, even shocking, and represents a dramatic disruption of the human ability to keep time.

Unfortunately, explaining exactly why the trip back seems so much speedier is a little tricky. For one thing, unlike visual illusions, where you can revisit the experience whenever you want, this illusion is different every time you experience it, and by definition, can't be exactly repeated. Second, the psychology lab doesn't provide a lot of help in interpretation, at least partly because the experience usually lasts hours, an uncomfortably long time to run an experiment.

However, there is some research that suggests what might be going on. First, a crucial part of the tourist illusion seems to be ignorance of exactly where and how far the destination is. It doesn't have to be complete ignorance—you usually know roughly where you're going and when you're likely to get there—but it doesn't work nearly as well if you have detailed knowledge, like a map or a set of landmarks. The voyage must be somewhat mysterious, which demands that you pay close

attention to every feature of the landscape along the way.

From my own experience, I'd say that anticipation, expectation, and attention all might have played a role in the dilation of time during the outgoing trip. When you're thinking of nothing other than time, it expands, as captured by the proverb, "A watched pot never boils." We know that this phenomenon works over long periods of time as well. Children waiting for Christmas, with all their mental resources focused on the slow approach of the big day, are the perfect example—time drags endlessly. Yet the hours of Christmas morning flash by.

Richard Block at the University of Montana is an acknowledged expert in this area. In his research Block has focused on how context, including the physical setting and emotional state of the person, influence the perception of time. For instance, Block has run many experiments over the years that have convinced him that if you perform two tasks that are pretty much identical, you will, at some later point, judge the first of the two to have taken longer. Block has pointed out that it's a little surprising that the first of two experiences should in retrospect seem to have lasted longer, because as memory fades, events should drop out of the earlier version first, making it seem shorter. But because the first experience introduces a new context and the second simply continues it, the first experience seems longer.

In other studies Block has shown that if the context of a task is changed but the amount of information stays the same, estimates of time spent change accordingly. One such study involved two tasks, one of which was simple (identifying which of a series of words are capitalized), and the other harder (picking out those words that described a part of the human body). Those students who did just one task, either the simple or the hard, judged less time to have passed than those who had to switch back and forth between tasks. Block has found the same effect when he temporarily moves students out of the room and into the hall between tests, or into a different room altogether. The more changes, the longer the estimated time. By changing the surroundings or the way information is presented, Block has been able to eliminate the illusion that the first of two experiences always seems the longer.

These experimental results make it easier to fathom the tourist illusion. Whether driver or passenger, it's easy to imagine the situation: you know you're heading toward a goal, but you have no idea exactly when you will reach it or,

indeed, what it looks like—it's a name of a place and not much more. As the experience unfolds, you're devoting most of your attention to the changing landscape, your own fatigue and anticipation, each new street sign, the impatience of the children in the back seat, or your explanations to your partner as to why it's taking so long. There are numerous sights, sounds, and feelings, each of which comes with a context automatically attached. All of these contexts will become part of your memory of the outgoing trip. While it seems like your attention to ongoing events should make time go by unnoticed, the fact is that your attention is all about time: "When do we get there?"

The return trip is an entirely different story. You've been there before, and as a result it will be more difficult for each scene or event to qualify as a new memory. The old oak tree on the hill is already stored as a memory of the outgoing trip, and although you will recognize it, it won't qualify as a new memory. You don't even bother reading the same road signs that preoccupied you on the way out. Attention is focused on other things, now that the crucial part of the trip is over. Although the return trip takes just as much time as the outgoing trip, the perception of that time is completely different.

1. The author refers to his trip to a town in Eastern Ontario (first paragraph) to illustrate

- ㄠ. differences in perception.
- ㄡ. his love of the countryside.
- ㄢ. the difficulties of taking road trips.
- ㄣ. his own style of facing challenges.

2. All of the following conditions are necessary for the tourist illusion to occur EXCEPT that

- ㄠ. the trip is the first time to visit a particular destination.
- ㄡ. the traveler doesn't know the precise location of the destination.
- ㄢ. the trip must be taken by car.
- ㄣ. the traveler must return home by the same route.

3. The underlined word “dilation” (paragraph 5) is closest in meaning to
- イ. advantage.
 - ロ. expansion.
 - ハ. measurement.
 - ニ. reduction.
4. Richard Block’s experiments suggest that
- イ. context has little influence on memory.
 - ロ. anticipation makes time appear to go faster.
 - ハ. older memories always fade faster than newer ones.
 - ニ. the novelty of a task makes it seem longer.
5. In Block’s experiment with a simple and hard task, the group that judged more time to have passed
- イ. did the simple task only.
 - ロ. did the hard task only.
 - ハ. did both tasks.
 - ニ. did neither task.
6. Block would probably agree that the tourist illusion occurs because the return trip
- イ. involves fewer new contexts than the outgoing trip.
 - ロ. takes less time than the outgoing trip.
 - ハ. involves more new contexts than the outgoing trip.
 - ニ. takes more time than the outgoing trip.
7. The underlined word “fathom” (paragraph 8) is closest in meaning to
- イ. abandon.
 - ロ. comprehend.
 - ハ. experience.
 - ニ. question.

8. The passage suggests that the tourist illusion
- イ. shows that the sense of time is subjective.
 - ロ. is less common among experienced travelers.
 - ハ. shows that clocks are not always reliable.
 - ニ. is easy to study experimentally.
9. The main purpose of this passage is
- イ. to explain how emotions influence perception.
 - ロ. to encourage people to take trips more often.
 - ハ. to explain why the tourist illusion occurs.
 - ニ. to encourage people to overcome their illusions.
10. The most appropriate title for this passage is
- イ. Recent Research on Everyday Illusions.
 - ロ. Why Car Trips Take So Much Time.
 - ハ. Time Perception and Modern Tourism.
 - ニ. How Journeys Affect the Sense of Time.

Ⅲ. 次の1～6それぞれの空所を補うのにもっとも適当なものを、各イ～ニから1つずつ選び、その記号を解答用紙の所定欄にマークせよ。

1. A: How may I help you?

B: I just missed my flight to San Francisco. I'm in a big hurry to get to a meeting.

A: You'll need to wait six hours for the next flight, I'm afraid.

B: ()

A: I'm sorry. The computer system is showing no other openings.

イ. Are you sure there's nothing sooner?

ロ. Where will it fly to?

ハ. Are there any tickets left?

ニ. Do you think I can make it in time?

2. A: Who are you inviting to the dinner party this weekend?

B: Tom, Jane, Mariko, and Ken.

A: That's all?

B: ()

イ. The dinner will be quite simple.

ロ. They might have other plans.

ハ. And you too, of course.

ニ. That's all I know of.

3. A: Let's have another meeting next week to discuss this issue.

B: Okay, but I'm only free Tuesday morning.

A: Well, Tuesday doesn't work for me next week.

B: ()

イ. Me neither. How about Thursday?

ロ. Let's work together on this issue.

ハ. I'll look forward to seeing you then.

ニ. Then how about later in the month?

4. A: I'm thinking of volunteering for the 2020 Summer Olympics in Tokyo.
B: That sounds great!
A: But I'm not sure what kind of job I can do.
B: Don't worry! ()
- イ. There will be a support center near the main stadium.
ロ. Language skills will vary from one volunteer to another.
ハ. You will probably need to fill out an application form.
ニ. There will be plenty of things for people with enthusiasm.
5. A: Wow! So many beautiful stores and restaurants!
B: Yeah, I like this shopping mall. It just opened last month.
A: Shall we try one of those restaurants for lunch?
B: ()
- イ. I'm afraid they're all sold out.
ロ. Do you know how to find them?
ハ. Sure, that's a good idea.
ニ. You're not so hungry yet?
6. A: I got accepted at all the law schools I applied to.
B: That's pretty amazing. Your friends must be envious.
A: But now I can't decide which one is for me!
B: ()
- イ. You're lucky to have that problem.
ロ. Aren't your friends supporting you?
ハ. There's no way to decide that.
ニ. Why not write the schools a letter?

IV. 次の1～8それぞれの空所を補うのもっとも適当なものを、各イ～ニから1つずつ選び、その記号を解答用紙の所定欄にマークせよ。

1. How many times () you? You have to get enough sleep if you want to stay healthy.

イ. am I telling ロ. could I tell ハ. have I told ニ. will I tell

2. Many of the library's resources are () online, through a link on the University website.

イ. accessible ロ. comprehensible ハ. feasible ニ. possible

3. To help pay for tuition, Martha is working part-time at the local supermarket every () weekend.

イ. alternate ロ. different ハ. other ニ. same

4. Josh solved the geometry problem () a few hours of effort.

イ. by ロ. for ハ. from ニ. with

5. The craziest ideas often () to be the most interesting and useful ones in the long run.

イ. bring about ロ. come down ハ. show up ニ. turn out

6. Janet has been studying hard this term and has () finished her senior thesis.

イ. closely ロ. mainly ハ. nearly ニ. tightly

7. Luckily, I found my passport () the papers on my desk.

イ. about ロ. among ハ. inside ニ. within

8. Sarah's interests lie in academics, so it's no () trying to persuade her to work for our firm.

イ. meaning ロ. purpose ハ. time ニ. use

V. 次の空所(1)~(6)それぞれにもっとも適当な1語を補い、英文を完成せよ。解答は解答用紙の所定欄にしるせ。

Michael: If you could make any kind of invention, (1) would it be?

Jennifer: I would invent a machine that cooks healthy meals for me whenever I'm hungry. I just (2) a couple of buttons, and the meal's ready in 5 minutes!

Michael: Sounds good. I think a lot of people would like one of those.

Jennifer: I'm living by myself in an apartment now, and when I get home from work I'm just too tired to cook a decent meal for myself. I often (3) up buying pre-made meals at a convenience store.

Michael: I do that too sometimes. They have a pretty good selection now.

Jennifer: Oh sure, but you know those pre-made dinners can't be so healthy. I've (4) 7 kilograms since I started working last August!

Michael: Maybe you should get some more exercise.

Jennifer: Definitely. But as (5) as I'm not eating a more balanced diet, it'll be hard to lose any weight.

Michael: Did you know they have a farmers market every Saturday in the downtown area? The local farmers sell lots of fresh vegetables and fruit, and the prices are reasonable. That might be a good alternative (6) you make your "healthy meal invention."

Jennifer: Thanks for the advice. I'll check out the market this Saturday.

【以下余白】