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慶應義塾大学入学試験問題

総合政策学部

外国語

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1. 試験開始の合図があるまで、この問題冊子を開かないでください。
2. この冊子は全部で24ページです。ドイツ語Ⅰ（選択）は2ページから5ページ、フランス語Ⅰ（選択）は6ページから9ページ、英語Ⅰ（選択）は10ページから12ページ、英語Ⅱが14ページから17ページ、英語Ⅲは18ページから23ページです。試験開始の合図とともにすべてのページが揃っているか、確認してください。ページの欠落・重複があった場合には、直ちに監督者に申し出てください。
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## 英語 I (選択)

次の文章に関して、空欄補充問題と読解問題の二つがあります。まず、[31]から[40]の空所を埋めるのに、文脈的に最も適切な語を1から3の中から選び、その番号を解答欄(31)から(40)にマークしなさい。次に、内容に関する[41]から[45]の設問には、1から4の選択肢が付されています。そのうち、文章の内容からみて最も適切なものを選び、その番号を解答欄(41)から(45)にマークしなさい。

- 1            Generally, people don't like being unable to make sense of things; we are curious, and we want to understand the world around us. Science can answer many of the questions that once confused us, and while we don't always have the answers, now, more than at any point in our history, we have the capacity to accurately explain and understand all manner of phenomena. With that in mind, why do people believe in conspiracy theories, even when there is evidence to show that they are incorrect? Why are conspiracy theories so prevalent today—and what is a conspiracy theory?
- 2            “A conspiracy theory is a belief that two or more actors have [31](1. quarreled 2. coordinated 3. surrendered) in secret to achieve an outcome, and that exposing this conspiracy is of public interest,” Karen Douglas, a professor of social psychology at the University of Kent in the UK, told me in an email. This interpretation is supported by Hugo Drochon, a professor of political theory at the University of Nottingham in the UK. “At its core, a conspiracy theory is a belief that there is a small group of [32](1. laughable 2. powerless 3. shadowy) people who control everything in the world. This is why we get conspiracy theories about climate change being fake news. It's because conspiracy theorists believe an evil group wants to control us,” Drochon told me. Conspiracy theories “begin with us trying to understand complex events,” according to Daniel Jolley, a University of Nottingham professor of social psychology. “Conspiracy theories arguably offer simple solutions to complex problems.”
- 3            Douglas suggested that such notions often flourish when people need answers in times of [33](1. normalcy 2. stress 3. abundance). “Conspiracy theories tend to emerge when important things happen that people want to make sense of,” she said. “In particular, they tend to emerge in times of crisis when people feel worried and threatened. They grow and thrive under conditions of uncertainty.” Douglas added that “it is difficult to argue all conspiracy theories are malicious,” and said that often conspiracy theories [34](1. stem 2. escape 3. take) from people wanting to try to make sense of difficult situations.
- 4            In terms of what makes a theory spread, Jolley explained that several elements need to be in [35](1. place 2. doubt 3. range). “The event or overarching issue needs to be significant, the conspirators need to be realistic (i.e., a tightly formed group), and the ground needs to be fertile.”

Simply put: a conspiracy theory needs to appeal directly to people who will be willing to believe it, at a time when they're likely to believe it, and there needs to be a group to blame. "Take COVID-19 as an example," Jolley continued. "It is a significant event that people are trying to understand. The ground was fertile because COVID [36](1. bred 2. imitated 3. soothed) feelings of uncertainty and anxiety. These aspects meant conspiracy theories grew and thrived."

5           So, what distinguishes a conspiracy theorist from someone who is merely [37](1. stoic 2. platonic 3. skeptical)? "The difference for conspiracy theorists is that no amount of new information will challenge the core belief," Drochon said. But why do people [38](1. shoot down 2. break up 3. fall for) certain conspiracy theories? "We desire to feel in control, feel certain, and feel close to those similar to us, and a conspiracy theory can enable this," Jolley said.

6           Are there certain groups of people who are more likely to believe in conspiracy theories? "You'll find conspiracy theorists across all [39](1. goals 2. walks 3. celebrations) of life, but there are some who are more susceptible," Drochon said. "It's about exclusion, or a feeling of exclusion; maybe not having a job or being single, for example," he added.

7           According to Douglas, we all have the potential to believe in conspiracy theories if the conditions are right. "Research suggests people are attracted to conspiracy theories when one or more [40](1. financial 2. psychological 3. biological) needs are frustrated. The first of these needs is epistemic—related to the need to know the truth and have clarity and certainty. The other needs are existential, which are related to the need to feel safe and to have some control over things that are happening, and social, related to the need to maintain our self-esteem." Because of this, no one is entirely free from the lure of a conspiracy theory.

—Based on Phelan, J. (2022). "Why do people believe in conspiracy theories?" *Live Science*.

[41] Which of the following best summarizes the problem proposed by the author in paragraph 1?

1. The scientific method can be used to find facts that prove or disprove conspiracy theories.
2. Despite the ability of science to clarify our world, many people still accept conspiracy theories.
3. Because science cannot explain some phenomena, people inevitably resort to conspiracy theories.
4. The definition of “conspiracy theory” is vague and must be refined before examining other issues.

[42] According to Jolley and Douglas, conspiracy theories can arise when

1. people try to comprehend difficult or worrying issues.
2. only a few individuals have power over everything.
3. large organizations cooperate to implement secret plans.
4. idealists attempt to expose corruption to the public.

[43] Which of the following is *not* one of the conditions for conspiracy theories to spread described in paragraph 4?

1. The theory accuses specific people or organizations.
2. The theory addresses an issue of importance.
3. The theory appears at the right time and place.
4. The theory explains something that science cannot.

[44] According to Drochon, what are two characteristics of people who believe conspiracy theories?

1. inflexibility, self-esteem
2. inflexibility, isolation
3. independence, isolation
4. independence, self-esteem

[45] According to Douglas what can we probably say regarding belief in conspiracy theories?

1. Even quite intelligent people may be attracted to conspiracy theories in certain situations.
2. Humans need knowledge, safety, and self-image, which conspiracy theories cannot provide.
3. Belief in conspiracy theories is usually the result of overuse of social networking sites.
4. Without more research it is impossible to say who will or will not accept conspiracy theories.

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## 英語Ⅱ

次の文章に関して、空欄補充問題と読解問題の二つがあります。まず、[46]から[55]の空所を埋めるのに、文脈的に最も適切な語を1から3の中から選び、その番号を解答欄(46)から(55)にマークしなさい。次に、内容に関する[56]から[60]の設問には、1から4の選択肢が付されています。そのうち、文章の内容からみて最も適切なものを選び、その番号を解答欄(56)から(60)にマークしなさい。

- 1 In a business negotiation, two polar-opposite errors are common: reaching agreement when it wouldn't be wise to do so, and walking away from a mutually beneficial outcome. How can you avoid these traps? One way is through careful preparation that includes an analysis of the ZOPA, or zone of possible agreement in business negotiations.
- 2 The "agreement trap" describes the [46](1. tendency 2. urgency 3. privacy) to agree to a deal that is inferior to your BATNA, or best alternative to a negotiated agreement. That is, we sometimes reach agreement even though a significantly better deal is available to us elsewhere. Negotiators can fall victim to the agreement trap for a number of reasons, according to researchers Taya R. Cohen (Carnegie Mellon University), Geoffrey J. Leonardelli (University of Toronto), and Leigh Thompson (Northwestern University). First, one party may successfully hide the fact that a proposed deal would not be in the other party's best interest. For example, a contractor might attempt to significantly [47](1. overcharge 2. overcome 3. overrun) a homeowner when bidding for a renovation project. Second, parties may be reluctant to walk away from an inferior deal due to the significant time, money, and energy they've invested in the negotiation process. This phenomenon, known as escalation of commitment, was first identified by the University of California at Berkeley professor Barry M. Staw. Because past negotiation costs cannot be recovered, we shouldn't consider them when deciding [48](1. whether 2. whom 3. why) to commit further in a negotiation, economists tell us. Yet abundant research suggests that we will be driven to try to recover our losses. Third, a desire to strengthen the relationship and please the other party may prevent us from recognizing that it's time to walk away, according to Cohen and her team.
- 3 What causes negotiators to walk away from deals that are superior to what they could achieve elsewhere? This error tends to be [49](1. detached from 2. rooted in 3. stabilized by) a phenomenon that Harvard Business School professor Max H. Bazerman calls the mythical fixed pie of negotiation. We often believe that in distributive negotiation, there is only a limited amount of resources to share, so one person wins and the other loses. While this is true sometimes, like when people are deciding on a price in a market, it doesn't happen very often. [50](1. Therefore 2. However 3. Hereafter), in most business negotiations, many more issues than price are involved, such as delivery, service, financing, bonuses, timing, and relationships.

4 Negotiators fall victim to the mythical fixed pie mindset when they fail to recognize that they have the ability to make tradeoffs across issues. That is, one party could compromise on an issue they value less in exchange for a concession from the other party on an issue they value more. Avoiding these twin [51](1. proposals 2. peaks 3. perils)—either accepting a weak deal or walking away from a great one—begins with thorough preparation for negotiation, including reaching an accurate understanding of the ZOPA in business.

5 Your ZOPA analysis should begin with a consideration of your best alternative to a negotiated agreement, or BATNA, write Roger Fisher, William Ury, and Bruce Patton in their essential negotiation text, *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In*. Your BATNA is the course of [52](1. action 2. time 3. classes) you would take if you do not reach agreement in the current negotiation. For instance, if you decide not to accept less than \$70,000 per year for a particular job offer, your BATNA (if you cannot negotiate this salary) might be to accept a different job, to look harder for other opportunities, or to go back to school. Your BATNA is “the only standard which can  you both from agreeing to terms that are too unfavorable and from rejecting terms it would be in your interest to .

,” according to Fisher, Ury, and Patton.

6 In addition, it’s important to analyze the other party’s BATNA. By exploring the other party’s alternatives—whether through research or by asking them questions directly—you can gain a realistic sense of what to expect from the negotiation. BATNA analysis helps you [53](1. omit 2. determine 3. neglect) each party’s **reservation point**, or walk away point, in your negotiation. If there is a set of resolutions that both parties would prefer over the impasse, then a ZOPA exists, and it would be best for you to reach a settlement. [54](1. For example 2. Furthermore 3. Nevertheless), if a job candidate would accept an offer between \$70,000 - \$80,000 per year, and an organization is willing to pay between \$65,000 - \$75,000, then a ZOPA of \$70,000 - \$75,000 exists. (Issues other than price can and should be incorporated into the ZOPA as well, such as vacation time and work assignments.)

7 If, by contrast, there is no [55](1. overlap 2. conflict 3. gap) between the two (or more) parties’ reservation points—for example, if the job candidate will accept no less than \$70,000, and the organization will pay no more than \$65,000, then no ZOPA exists, and both sides would be better off pursuing their BATNAs. Through a rational analysis of the ZOPA in business negotiations, you will be better equipped to avoid the traps of reaching an agreement for agreement’s sake and viewing the negotiation as a pie to be divided.

—Based on Shonk, K. (2024). “How to find the ZOPA in business negotiations,” *Program on Negotiation, Harvard Law School*.

[56] Which of the following reasons is *not* mentioned by the author as a cause for negotiators falling into the agreement trap?

1. As a result of the considerable investment put into the negotiation process, parties might be hesitant to abandon the deal.
2. A desire to quickly finalize negotiations might lead to a party accepting terms that are less than ideal as speed overshadows consideration.
3. One side might intentionally withhold information from the other party, knowing that the suggested agreement would actually be disadvantageous to them.
4. Because people want to deepen connections and make others happy, it is difficult for them to leave a negotiation.

[57] Which of the examples below best illustrates distributive negotiation mentioned in paragraph 3?

1. The general working conditions of a job contract
2. The exact amount a buyer will pay for a used car
3. The specifics of a buyer/supplier contract
4. The details of an international trade agreement

[58] Select the most suitable words to fill in the blanks labeled  and  in paragraph 5.

1. [A] protect            [B] accept
2. [A] distract           [B] negotiate
3. [A] exclude           [B] overlook
4. [A] prevent           [B] reject

[59] Which of the following definitions most accurately describes the term 'reservation point' as used in paragraph 6?

1. The average number of concessions or trade-offs that a negotiator plans to make during the negotiation to ensure a constructive process
2. The total amount of time a negotiator is prepared to invest in the negotiation process before deciding to conclude the discussions
3. The maximum value or outcome that a negotiator hopes to achieve in a deal, aiming to secure the best terms possible
4. The lowest acceptable value or condition a negotiator will agree to before deciding to reject the deal and look for other options

[60] Which of the following best matches the author's final argument?

1. Understanding the ZOPA helps everyone feel happy with the deal, instead of trying to end the negotiation quickly.
2. Knowing the ZOPA makes sure that each side gets a fair share, but doesn't just stop deals in order to finish the process of negotiation.
3. Considering the ZOPA helps negotiators avoid giving up too much and stops them from seeing negotiation as a simple division of resources.
4. Thinking about the ZOPA is good for getting the most out of a deal, and it stops the risk of taking a deal just for the sake of splitting resources.

## 英語Ⅲ

次の文章に関して、空欄補充問題と読解問題の二つがあります。まず、[61]から[80]の空所を埋めるのに、文脈的に最も適切な語を1から3の中から選び、その番号を解答欄(61)から(80)にマークしなさい。次に、内容に関する[81]から[90]の設問には、1から4の選択肢が付されています。そのうち、文章の内容からみて最も適切なものを選び、その番号を解答欄(81)から(90)にマークしなさい。

- 1 Sportswashing is a new term that has become a mainstay of media reporting around the World Cup in Qatar. It refers to the ways in which a country invests in sports to promote its reputation on a global stage and deflect or distract attention away from less favourable perceptions of its actions and institutions. Yet, despite its current high profile, sportswashing has a relatively recent history. It first appeared in relation to a sporting event just seven years ago, when the human rights campaigner Gulnara Akhundova wrote an article for a UK newspaper criticising the fact that the European Games, a high-profile athletics event, were being held in Baku, Azerbaijan, in Central Asia, despite the country's poor human rights record. In the last two years, the use of the term has [61](1. dropped 2. skyrocketed 3. fluctuated) in the English-language media, with 550 mentions in 2019 and over 800 in 2021. In this comment piece, I first briefly outline the past cases of sportswashing, before discussing the possible reasons for the rise of the term as well as its [62](1. utility 2. clarity 3. longitude) and shortcomings.
- 2 The metaphor of washing has a long history when it comes to [63](1. forwarding 2. forecasting 3. foregrounding) notions of deception, cover-up, and distraction. For instance, whitewashing refers to the covering up of crimes, crises, and forms of [64](1. coalition 2. corruption 3. consensus) involving both political and corporate actors. Next comes greenwashing, which rose to [65](1. prominence 2. prosperity 3. power) in the early 2000's, and points to forms of communication that are designed to generate positive beliefs about an organisation's environmental record. Greenwashing is now an established term in both academia and mainstream media reporting and has been used to reference everything from the cover up of [66](1. defective 2. automated 3. neutral) systems (as in the case of the car manufacturer Volkswagen in 2015) to attempts by companies to cause confusion by setting up their own activist groups to support their endeavours.
- 3 The growing visibility of 'greenwashing' has encouraged others to [67](1. shelve 2. adapt 3. initiate) the washing metaphor and apply it to new areas of socio-economic and political life. Most recently, this would include pink-washing and vegan-washing, which refer to corporations and governments that emphasise their support of LGBTQ and animal rights issues, respectively, to brand themselves as tolerant and [68](1. obsessive 2. exclusive 3. progressive), and thereby appeal to key consumer markets.

4           When assessing the use of the ‘washing’ metaphor over time, we see that it has shifted in two interesting ways. First, it has moved from a [69](1. primary 2. fictional 3. neutral) concern with the activities of corporate actors to also focus on governmental organisations. This highlights the extent to which building **reputational capital** has become a key objective for a growing range of non-commercial institutions in an era of [70](1. intensifying 2. diminishing 3. imitating) globalisation and digitalisation. Second, there has been a shift away from attempts at outright concealment to practices of consociation, that is, attempting to associate a country with more positive events, activities, or people. This latter shift partly explains why sport has become such an attractive means to a variety of states across the world who are looking to (re)build their reputation or [71](1. frustrate 2. abandon 3. engage) key constituencies, whether policymakers, socio-economic elites, or consumers.

5           The rapidly growing profile of sports and sporting mega events, such as the World Cup, is a partial response to both political, economic and technological changes since the second world war, but particularly since the [72](1. advent 2. departure 3. stagnation) of digital technologies in the late 1990s. Sport matters because it plays a significant role in the lives of large numbers of people around the world and can be used to target the attention of particular groups, national, class-based, gender, age and so on. [73](1. Although 2. Contrastingly 3. Moreover), in a fragmented media landscape, it is also one of the few remaining forms of ‘content’ that can bring together large audiences. This makes it as attractive to media companies and sponsors as it does to governments and states.

6           Therefore, when trying to assess the value of sportswashing as a concept, we can first point to the way it highlights the growing significance of image and reputation management in an era defined by global integration and, [74](1. in summary 2. by contrast 3. above all), the impact of digital technologies. In the latter case, the flow of information associated with these technologies makes concealment much more of a challenge, even for the most powerful of states. Therefore, as we briefly noted above, one of the key contributions of sportswashing is that it [75](1. moves away from 2. comes up with 3. zooms in on) the idea of concealment or cover-up associated with whitewashing and earlier conceptions of greenwashing. It also specifically draws attention to the ways in which connections with sports are used in processes of consociation and deflection. In short, if Saudi Arabia is being discussed in relation to a well-run, high-profile golf or tennis tournament, then it isn’t only being associated with an appalling human rights record, an unjust political system or resource [76](1. allocation 2. preservation 3. exploitation).

7 Indeed, the role of various media organisations and platforms in these wider debates, whether as [77](1. youths 2. advocates 3. talents) or critics, is worthy of further attention. This is particularly the case in relation to sports fans who can play a key role in supporting an owner or organiser that they believe is likely to offer their athletes, team, or sport greater success.

8 A critical approach, in calling into question the records and activities of states, is also important but such a perspective cannot, however, only be limited to particular actors. For instance, it is notable that the term sportswashing tends to focus on a narrow range of non-Western actors, the most notable of which are Russia, Saudi Arabia, and China. This does not mean giving up all judgement, but if sportswashing is to become more than **an empty slogan**, it needs to be applied to other parts of the world as well, [78](1. unless 2. where 3. less) relevant. For example, we need to ask whether an event like the 2012 London Olympics could ever be labelled as sportswashing, given that it arguably involved a former imperial power looking to raise its profile abroad and domestically, perhaps, deflect attention away from a deeply unpopular programme of economic hardship?

9 We also [79](1. reject 2. require 3. acquire) better ways of evaluating the impact (or otherwise) of sportswashing. Some of the current debates seem to assume that the hosting of an event or purchase of a sports club naturally leads to favourable reviews or attitudes, whether among fans of a given club or the sport in general. Research around the hosting of mega events has shown a good deal of resistance from a range of sources. Therefore, we need to actively investigate who supports and who resists, through what means and [80](1. symbols 2. outcomes 3. channels) and to what ends. It would also be good to know more about the kinds of **reputational capital** that are generated by such associations with sporting events, organisations, and personalities and to what extent they persist over time.

10 Whether it can clearly add to our understanding of these processes, beyond a few news headlines, requires longer-term studies to assess public attitudes over time. But in helping to focus more attention on the ways in which sport is used to deflect and distract from some evil activities of governments and other stakeholders around the world (both Western and non-Western), it has already served a useful purpose.

—Based on Skey, M. (2022). “‘Sportswashing’: how the washing metaphor evolved beyond the idea of a cover-up,” *London School of Economics Business Review*.

[81] Based on the information in paragraphs 1-3, what is a common feature of the washing metaphors mentioned?

1. They involve promoting transparency in organisational practices to key stakeholders.
2. They are used to distract from or obscure negative aspects by manipulating public opinion.
3. They focus on making genuine improvements in environmental, social, or economic policies.
4. They are strategies solely used in sporting contexts to avoid public scrutiny and oversight.

[82] The main function of paragraphs 2 and 3 is to

1. provide background information.
2. show contrasting examples.
3. outline a range of solutions.
4. illustrate a conceptual model.

[83] Which of the following summaries best captures the two main changes about the ‘washing’ metaphor outlined in paragraph 4?

1. It has broadened to encompass not only businesses but also NGOs, and has transitioned from transparency to hiding negative actions.
2. It has extended to include public institutions and moved from hiding actions to creating more active associations for a better image.
3. It has evolved from corporations to targeting non-commercial entities and changed from publicising wrongdoing to associating with charities.
4. It has shifted from addressing issues within corporations to dealing with overall reputation, moving from financial transparency to private scandals.

[84] Which of the following statements about sport in paragraph 5 is most consistent with the author’s argument?

1. Sport is important due to its widespread appeal across diverse populations globally and can focus on specific demographics.
2. In the digital age, sport has become a driver of technological innovation, influencing advancements in broadcasting and advertising.
3. Sport acts as a bridge between states in diplomacy and helps to facilitate open dialogue and cooperation through sporting events.
4. The economic influence of sport is profound, with major events like the World Cup generating substantial revenue for host nations.

[85] In the context of paragraph 6, what is the purpose of mentioning Saudi Arabia?

1. To call for a ban on a nation's involvement in big events based on its human rights record
2. To clarify the role of managing public opinion through major events for diplomatic purposes
3. To imply that participation in high-profile events might solve underlying issues and controversies
4. To demonstrate how involvement in prominent events can shift focus from adverse perceptions

[86] What does the author imply about sports fans?

1. Fans can be influenced by the media to focus solely on success, which makes their support ineffective in times of controversy.
2. Fans are irrelevant to the success of their teams because the team owners have total control over the outcomes and performance.
3. Fans might overlook or support controversial actions by those in charge if they think it would benefit whom they support.
4. Fans always support the most ethical choices made by the owners, regardless of any success achieved or potential benefit.

[87] What does the phrase 'an empty slogan' mean in paragraph 8?

1. A label used to describe events that lack controversy
2. A criticism that is directed only towards current global powers
3. A term that justifies a targeted focus on many countries
4. A concept that lacks substance or meaningful application

[88] The author mentions 'reputational capital' in paragraphs 4 and 9. Which of the following best captures the meaning of this term?

1. The goodwill and positive image a country gains by investing in sports
2. The financial profits a country earns from hosting sporting events
3. The media coverage and public relations efforts a country uses to promote its sports
4. The significance of sports in a country's culture and diplomacy

[89] Which of the following actions is *not* proposed by the author in paragraph 9?

1. Assessment of economic advantages
2. Evaluation of the impact's duration
3. Study of public reactions
4. Analysis of image benefits

[90] The main message the author conveys in the final paragraph is

1. that existing research alone is sufficient to fully understand how sport influences public views on government activities.
2. that since government actions are usually well-documented and scrutinised, any potential impact of sport on how these actions are perceived by the public is negligible.
3. that although more research is needed, the current focus on how sport diverts attention away from government actions has proven valuable.
4. that government activities should always be transparent and that sport does not influence or alter the public's perceptions of these actions.

総

(下書き用)