

平成 19 年 度

京 都 大 学 経 済 学 部 第 3 年 次  
編 入 学 試 験 問 題

外 国 語

- ※ [英語]・[独語]・[仏語]  
のうちから、選択した2か国語  
についてそれぞれ1問につき、  
1枚の解答用紙を使用すること。

間違って問1・問2を逆に解答した場合  
および、出願時に登録した外国語以外を  
解答した場合は無効となります。

平成 19 年 度

京 都 大 学 経 済 学 部 第 3 年 次  
編 入 学 試 験 問 題 (英 語)

※問題は2問あります。

※解答は1問につき、1枚の  
解答用紙を使用すること。

第1問

以下の英文のすべてを和訳しなさい。

Across the advanced capitalist countries, economic growth has been quite sluggish over the last twenty-five years, at least by the standards of the golden postwar era. At the same time, income disparities have increased. In the United States, low-income families experienced a steady decline in real income from the late 1970s through the first half of the 1990s. This decline came to an end as employment growth accelerated in the course of the 1990s, but inequality remains an enduring legacy of the last quarter century. In some European countries, labor market institutions have constrained inegalitarian market forces and welfare states have to a greater extent compensated low-income families, but these achievements seem to have been accompanied by more sluggish employment growth. Are we caught in a situation in which governments can no longer do much to improve the economic prospects of low-income workers and their families?

This book explores public policy issues related to economic growth, employment, and income distribution by means of cross-national comparison. For all the talk of globalization in recent years, it remains meaningful and quite instructive, I believe, to analyze national economies and to compare them. Such an exercise strikes me as particularly appropriate in view of the current disengagement in the "war of the models." In Europe, Margaret Thatcher became the figurehead of radical pro-market forces in the 1980s, advocating an embrace of the American model. Politically, this movement ran out of steam in the early 1990s, paving the way for a more pragmatic and incremental approach to economic reform. On the other hand, foreign models seem to have disappeared almost entirely from American public debate as Germany and Japan have been overcome by economic and political difficulties. To hail either of these countries as a model for America, as many did in the 1980s, would today seem quite ridiculous. Are there no longer any alternative models to be admired and perhaps emulated? I shall try to make the case that there is still a viable European model of welfare capitalism, but this model is different from the German model of the 1980s.

平成19年度 第3年次編入学試験問題 (英語)

第2問

以下の二問 (A, B) から一問を選択し、解答しなさい。

Choose either A or B.

A. Arbitrarily choose any phenomenon(a) relating to Economics or Management, and specify any region(s) or country(ies). First, define the major concepts of the phenomenon(a); second, describe how this phenomenon(a) has developed; third, what problems has this phenomenon(a) created; and, finally, explain why this phenomenon(a) will become a major concern of economists/managers in the future. Your answer must be written in English.

B. 次の文章 (Classical Management Theorists: Fayol and Taylor) を読み、以下の問いに日本語で答えなさい (固有名詞もしくは概念は英語使用可)。

1. Fayol および Taylor に関する文章の要約をすること (2名分合わせて解答用紙1ページ程度)
2. Thomas S. Kuhn の文章を読み、その主張に基づいて、上記 Fayol もしくは Taylor のどちらかを選んで批判をすること。

1. [John B. Miner, "Classical Management Theorists : Fayol and Taylor" in Organizational Behavior, Foundations, Theories, and Analyses, Oxford Univ. Press, 2002] (p. 63-70)

Fayol (1949) set forth 14 such principles of management. Behavior in accord with them will contribute to a more effective organization. The list is not exhaustive, but they apply widely. Regarding them, Fayol said: "This code is indispensable. Be it a case of commerce, industry, politics, religion, war, or philanthropy, in every concern there is a management function to be performed and for its performance there must be principles, that is to say acknowledged truths regarded as proven on which to rely" (1949, pp. 41-42).

1. Division of work. Division of labor or specialization at the worker and managerial levels reduces the number of objects to which attention must be given and therefore yields increased quality and quantity of output for the same amount of overall effort. There are limits beyond which division of work should not be carried out, however. How these limits may be determined is not clearly specified.
2. Authority and responsibility. Managers should exercise authority, both as it derives from the office held and as it derives from the intelligence, experience, and other personal qualities of the manager. At the same time, responsibility must be commensurate with authority in that rewards and penalties accrue, depending on how effectively authority is used. Determining and measuring the authority of a

平成19年度 第3年次編入学試験問題 (英語)

given manager as it relates to a particular outcome and establishing appropriate sanctions are viewed as major difficulties. Fayol recognized the underlying measurement problems here: he also recognized a natural tendency to seek authority and avoid responsibility. In neither case does he present a solution, other than to call for integrity and moral character.

3. **Discipline.** Discipline is a condition for effective operation of a business. It consists of obedience, application, energy, behavior, and outward marks of respect, all given on the basis of some formal or informal employment contract between the individual and the firm. To function as it should, discipline requires good managers, clear and equitable agreements, and the judicious application of sanctions such as warnings, fines, suspensions, and other, similar disciplinary actions.
4. **Unity of command.** An individual should receive orders with regard to a particular action from one source only. Dual command is to be avoided. Examples of situations where dual command may arise are superiors bypassing subordinate managers to direct that manager's subordinates, two friends or family members both heading up a firm, unclear boundaries between two departments at the same level, and conditions of role ambiguity in general.
5. **Unity of direction.** Unity of direction applies to coordination of effort and is a principle of organizations. A group of activities having the same objective should be placed under a single head and a single plan. Fayol does not discuss the bases for differentiating objectives that might be applied here.
6. **Subordination of individual interests to general interest.** For effective functioning, the interests of the organization as a whole must take precedence over those of individuals or groups. Subordination of interests is one basis for reconciling conflicting interests. In some instances, interests of a different order appear to have equal claims. Such conflicts must be reconciled rather than being permitted to continue. Possible means to this end are the firmness and good example of managers, fair agreements, and constant supervision.
7. **Remuneration of personnel.** Insofar as possible, payments should be fair and equitable, should reward well-directed effort, and should not exceed reasonable limits. Various methods of achieving these goals are discussed, but without any clear resolution. One index of effective remuneration is that the pay agreement affords satisfaction to employer and employee alike, but it is recognized that this may not be possible. There is a need for precise definitions and operationalizations of concepts such as fairness, reasonable limits, and the like.
8. **Centralization.** The amount of centralization, as opposed to decentralization, should be optimal for the particular concern. Contingency variables are firm size, personal character of the manager, manager's moral worth, reliability of subordinates, and

平成19年度 第3年次編入学試験問題 (英語)

condition of the business. The degree of centralization may vary considerably, depending on the relative potential effectiveness of the manager or subordinate. Fayol's formulations in this area are not specific, but he does recognize a number of relevant contingency factors.

9. **Scalar chain.** In the simplest case, communication should occur up and down the scalar chain of authority – in figure 3.1 from E1 up to A, and if necessary, back down to E2. But vertical communication through this many steps may consume too much time. Where speed is essential, firms should resort to what has been called Fayol's gangplank – horizontal communication authorized by managers at the next higher level. This, too, is indicated in figure 3.1. In general, Fayol seems to think that horizontal communication should be used more widely than it is. (中略)

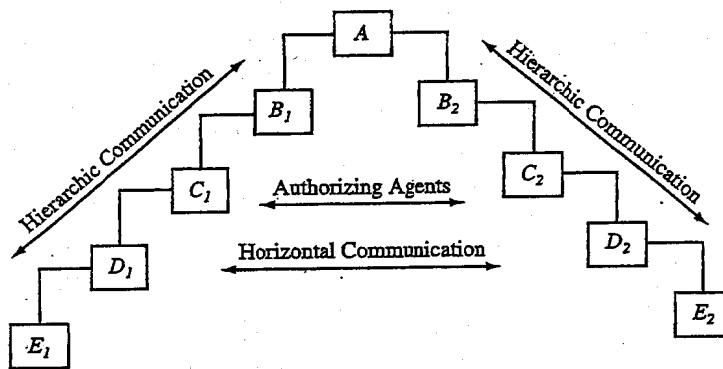


FIGURE 3.1 Fayol's scalar chain and the gangplank

10. **Order.** To avoid loss of material, there should be a place for everything and everything in its place. In addition, the prescribed place should be one that facilitates the carrying out of necessary activities. However, the principle of order applies not only to material things, but also to people. Thus there should be an appointed place for each employee, and each employee should be in that place. Again, the appointed place should be appropriate to the task to be performed. This principle means good organization and selection, and it implies the existence of an organization chart.
11. **Equity.** Employees should be treated with kindness and justice, which together equal equity. The object is to elicit devotion and loyalty in return. Ideally, a sense of equity will permeate the whole scalar chain.
12. **Stability of tenure of personnel.** Employees and managers alike need time to settle into their jobs before they can achieve maximum performance. They should be given

平成19年度 第3年次編入学試験問題 (英語)

this opportunity, and thus considerable stability of personnel should prevail. A lack of stability is both a cause and effect of poor management. At the same time, there can be too much stability. In common with all the other principles, stability of tenure of personnel is also a question of proportion. No specific guidelines for establishing when the correct proportion exists are given, however.

13. Initiative. Initiative is thinking out a plan and executing it, as well as having the freedom to do these things. Initiative of this kind should be encouraged; it is particularly valuable to an organization in difficult times. The manager who facilitates the initiative of subordinates is far superior to the manager who does not, because initiative can serve as a source of both satisfaction and motivation.
14. Esprit de corps. Essentially this is a principle of unity. Harmony should be fostered and conflict minimized. Unity of command is one means to this end. Fayol comes out strongly against the application of such ideas as "divide and conquer" in the organization. Creating dissension among one's subordinates thwarts coordination and teamwork. Verbal communication should be used whenever possible because, being two-way, it permits rapid resolution of conflicts. Written communication often fosters conflict.

Taylor's (1856-1915) Scientific Management

Taylor's four principles of management are these:

1. Develop a science for the work of each person. This involves determining how the work can best be performed by experimenting with it, conducting motion and time studies, and often applying mathematical formulas.
2. Scientifically select the best individual for the job, train that person to be able to perform the job better and better, and finally pay higher wages than ever before to reward the increased productivity.
3. Cooperate with the workers to ensure that the work is in fact done in the prescribed manner; make the knowledge of the job (principle 1) and the worker selected (principle 2) come together. This should include, but not be limited to, providing for increased earnings for those who follow the prescribed methods most closely.
4. Divide the work so that activities such as planning, organizing, and controlling are the responsibility of management; the worker, in contrast, has the responsibility for doing. This division is predicated on the assumption that most workers do not have the capability to create the science of their work.

平成19年度 第3年次編入学試験問題 (英語)

2. [Thomas S. Kuhn, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed, U. of Chicago, 1962, p. 23-24]

In a science, . . . a paradigm is rarely an object for replication. Instead, like an accepted judicial decision in the common law, it is an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions.

To see how this can be so, we must recognize how very limited in both scope and precision a paradigm can be at the time of its first appearance. Paradigms gain their status because they are more successful than their competitors in solving a few problems that the group of practitioners has come to recognize as acute. To be more successful is not, however, to be either completely successful with a single problem or notably successful with any large number. The success of a paradigm – whether Aristotle's analysis of motion, Ptolemy's computations of planetary position, Lavoisier's application of the balance, or Maxwell's mathematization of the electromagnetic field – is at the start largely a promise of success discoverable in selected and still incomplete examples. Normal science consists in the actualization of that promise, an actualization achieved by extending the knowledge of those facts that the paradigm displays as particularly revealing, by increasing the extent of the match between those facts and the paradigm's predictions, and by further articulation of the paradigm itself.

Few people who are not actually practitioners of a mature science realize how much mop-up work of this sort a paradigm leaves to be done or quite how fascinating such work can prove in the execution. And these points need to be understood. Moping-up operations are what engage most scientists throughout their careers. They constitute what I am here calling normal science. Closely examined, whether historically or in the contemporary laboratory, that enterprise seems an attempt to force nature into the preformed and relatively inflexible box that the paradigm supplies. No part of the aim of normal science is to call forth new sorts of phenomena; indeed those that will not fit the box are often not seen at all. Nor do scientists normally aim to invent new theories, and they are often intolerant of those invented by others. Instead, normal-scientific research is directed to the articulation of those phenomena and theories that the paradigm already supplies.

(中略)

. . . scientific revolutions are here taken to be those non-cumulative developmental episodes in which an older paradigm is replaced in whole or in part by an incompatible new one (P. 92)

(中略) Successive paradigms tell us different things about the population of the universe and about that population's behavior (p. 103). ■

平成 19 年 度

京 都 大 学 経 済 学 部 第 3 年 次  
編 入 学 試 験 問 題 (独 語)

※問題は2問あります。

※解答は1問につき、1枚の  
解答用紙を使用すること。

第1問

次の文を日本語に翻訳しなさい。

Der US-Mittelstand sieht seine Jobs in akuter Gefahr. Diese Erkenntnis hat grosse politische Sprengkraft. Für Amerikaner ist der Arbeitsplatz noch in einem weit höheren Ausmass wichtig als in Europa. Nicht nur das Prestige, auch die soziale Sicherheit hängt davon ab. Ob Krankenkasse oder Pensionskasse, beide werden vom Arbeitgeber bezahlt. Ohne Job ist der Durchschnittsamerikaner nur einen Schritt entfernt vom Abstieg in die Unterschicht.

Deshalb wird der chinesische Elefant die amerikanische Politik in den kommenden Jahren nachhaltig beeinflussen. Jetzt schon glaubt niemand mehr daran, dass die Doha-Runde noch gerettet werden kann. In Sachen Freihandel werden in den nächsten Jahren sehr kleine Brötchen gebacken werden. Das heisst nicht, dass ein Rückfall in den Protektionismus unmittelbar bevorsteht. Aber es bedeutet, dass die euphorische Phase von «Mit der Globalisierung wird alles gut» definitiv zu Ende ist.

第2問

(A), (B), (C), (D)の文を日本語に翻訳しなさい。

(A) Der Mensch ist ein freidenkendes, tätiges Wesen, dessen Kräfte in Progression fortwürken\*; darum sei er ein Geschöpf der Sprache!

Als nacktes, instinktloses Tier betrachtet, ist der Mensch das elendeste der Wesen. Da ist kein dunkler, angeborener Trieb, der ihn in sein Element und in seinen Wirkungskreis, zu seinem Unterhalt und an sein Geschäfte zeucht. Kein Geruch und keine Witterung, die ihn auf die Kräuter hinreißt, damit er seinen Hunger stille! Kein blinder, mechanischer Lehrmeister, der für ihn sein Nest baue! Schwach und unterliegend, dem Zwist der Elemente, dem Hunger, allen Gefahren, den Klauen aller stärkern Tiere, einem tausendfachen Tode überlassen, steht er da! Einsam und einzeln! Ohne den unmittelbaren Unterricht seiner Schöpferin und ohne die sichere Leitung ihrer Hand, von allen Seiten also verloren ---

(B) Doch so lebhaft dies Bild ausgemalt werde, so ists\*\* nicht das Bild des Menschen – es ist nur eine Seite seiner Oberfläche, und auch die steht im falschen Licht. (C) Wenn Verstand und Besonnenheit die Naturgabe seiner Gattung ist, so mußte diese sich sogleich äußern, da sich die schwächere Sinnlichkeit und alle das Klägliche seiner Entbehrungen äußerte. (D) Das instinktolose, elende Geschöpf, was so verlassen aus den Händen der Natur kam, war auch vom ersten Augenblicke an das freitätige, vernünftige Geschöpf, das sich selbst helfen sollte und nicht anders als konnte. Alle Mängel und Bedürfnisse als Tier waren dringende Anlässe, sich mit allen Kräften als Mensch zu zeigen; so wie diese Kräfte der Menschheit nicht etwa bloß schwache Schadloshaltungen gegen die ihm versagten größern Tier-Vollkommenheiten waren, wie unsre neue Philosophie, die große Gönnerin der Tiere, will, sondern sie waren ohne Vergleichung und eigentliche Gegeneinandermessung seine Art! Der Mittelpunkt seiner Schwere, die Hauptrichtung seiner Seelenwirkungen fiel so auf diesen Verstand, auf menschliche Besonnenheit hin, wie bei der Biene sogleich aufs Saugen und Bauen.

\* fortwürken = fortwirken      \*\* ists = ist es

(Johann Gottfried Herder, *Abhandlung über den Ursprung der Sprache*, 1770)

平成 19 年 度

京 都 大 学 経 済 学 部 第 3 年 次  
編 入 学 試 験 問 題 (仏 語)

※問題は2問あります。

※解答は1問につき、1枚の  
解答用紙を使用すること。

第1問

以下のフランス語を日本語に訳しなさい。

Le point de départ de la théorie de l'agence est donné par un texte publié en 1976 par Jensen et Meckling dans le *Journal of Financial Economics*. Pour ces auteurs, il existe dans toutes les firmes managériales une divergence d'intérêt potentielle entre les actionnaires et les managers non propriétaires. Les deux parties étant liées par une *relation d'agence*. Pour Jensen et Meckling, « il existe une relation d'agence lorsqu'une personne a recours aux services d'une autre personne en vue d'accomplir en son nom une tâche quelconque ». Dans le cadre de la relation d'agence actionnaire/dirigeant, le principal (l'actionnaire) va confier l'*usus* de son droit de propriété à un agent (le gestionnaire), à charge pour ce dernier de gérer conformément aux intérêts de son principal. Comme le précise la théorie des contrats, chacune des deux parties a en fait intérêt à participer à l'échange car les actionnaires ont besoin du capital humain possédé par les dirigeants et ces derniers ont besoin des capitaux que détiennent les actionnaires.

La théorie de l'agence appréhende l'entreprise comme un véritable nœud de contrats au sein duquel s'établit l'ensemble des relations entre les différentes parties prenantes (les « *stakeholders* », parmi lesquels on trouve tous ceux qui ont une créance légitime sur la firme : actionnaires, dirigeants, cadres et salariés, fournisseurs, clients, banques et autres prêteurs, collectivités locales, l'État...). Les théoriciens de l'agence focalisent leur attention sur la relation actionnaires/dirigeants considérée comme source potentielle des conflits d'intérêt les plus importants.

第2問

次のフランス語を全文和訳しなさい。

La concurrence constitue, de toute évidence, un facteur dynamique fondamental dans tout processus d'individuation psychosociale. La critique de l'économie étatisée s'appuie, à juste titre, sur les effets de contre-performance et de démotivation caractéristiques des pays communistes pour démontrer que la concurrence des intérêts individuels est la condition de toute vitalité économique.

Pourtant, l'organisation capitaliste de la concurrence, au stade actuel de l'idéologie ultralibérale, produit elle aussi désormais, et massivement, de la démotivation et du « pessimisme », comme le déplorent parfois les responsables politiques – outre le fait qu'elle engendre des monopoles capitalistiques.

Les citoyens d'Europe craignent ce qu'ils vivent de moins en moins comme une construction de l'Europe et de plus en plus comme sa destruction parce qu'ils se méfient, avec raison, de l'idée fautive et dangereuse selon laquelle on pourrait constituer l'Europe en mettant les pays en concurrence les uns avec les autres. Comment imaginer qu'une communauté puisse *se constituer* en

mettant les peuples qui devraient la constituer uniquement *en concurrence, c'est-à-dire en opposition* ?