南山大学大学院
入学試験問題集

社会科学研究科

経営学専攻

2024年度

NANZAN
UNIVERSITY

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２０２４年度南山大学大学院 社会科学研究科 経営学専攻（２０２４年４月入学）
２０２４年度南山大学大学院 社会科学研究科 経営学専攻（２０２４年９月入学）
＜博士前期課程＞一般入学試験

（２０２４年２月２４日実施）　　試験科目：論文（経営管理論）　　配点：100 点

（問　題　紙）

以下の２つの設問に回答しなさい。
※各設問につき、解答紙に記した設問番号から書き始め、２ページ以内に収めること。

（１）ビジネスシステムについて、以下の問いに答えなさい。
・ビジネスシステムがどのようにして自社の競争優位を生む戦略なのかを説明しなさい。
・ビジネスシステムを設計するうえで重要なポイントを３つ説明しなさい。
・ビジネスシステムとして成功している具体的な企業事例を１つ挙げ、説明しなさい。

（２）ポーターのファイブ・フォース・モデルについて、以下の問いに答えなさい。
・ファイブ・フォース・モデルを図と具体例をもとに説明しなさい（図は罫線を無視して描いて構わない）。
・経営資源学派の観点からファイブ・フォース・モデルの長所と短所を説明しなさい。

（２０２３年７月８日実施）　試験科目：論文（マーケティング）　配点：100 点

問1　以下の用語をすべて説明しなさい。

1. ワンツーワン・マーケティング
2. PEST 分析
3. アンゾフの製品市場グリッド
4. グローバル・マーケティングにおける現地化と適応化
5. 手段―目的連鎖モデル
6. 取引コスト

問2　イノベーションにはいくつかの種類があると言われている。連続的イノベーション，非連続的イノベーション，漸進的イノベーションの違いを述べ，それぞれの事例をあげよ。

問3　商業におけるパワー関係，つまり特定の相手を統制する局面におけるパワー関係について以下の問いに答えよ。

1. 商業において独立した企業間であるにもかかわらずパワー関係が発生する要因を述べよ。
2. そのひとつの例として流通系列化がある。流通系列化とはなにかを述べ，例をあげよ。
3. 流通系列化の課題を述べよ。

問4　要素技術のブランド化について次の問いに答えよ。

1. 要素技術のブランド化は，成分ブランディングともいわれるものである。これの意味と事例を述べよ。
2. なぜ要素技術のブランド化がおこなわれるのかを述べよ。

２０２４年度南山大学大学院 社会科学研究科 経営学専攻（２０２４年4月入学）
２０２４年度南山大学大学院 社会科学研究科 経営学専攻（２０２４年9月入学）
＜博士前期課程＞一般入学試験

（２０２４年2月２４日実施）　試験科目：論文（マーケティング論）　配点：100点

問1　以下の用語をすべて説明しなさい。

1. プロダクト・ライフ・サイクル
2. PESOモデル
3. 準拠集団
4. ダイナミック・プライシング
5. コーズ・マーケティング

問2　マス・マーケティング，セグメント・マーケティング，ワン・トゥ・ワンマーケティング，それぞれの違いを，実例をあげながら説明せよ。

問3　家電流通における流通系列化について以下の点について述べなさい。

1. 戦後の家電の流通系列化の特徴を説明せよ。
2. 現在の経営環境下における，家電の流通系列化の課題を説明せよ。
3. 家電メーカーの立場にたち，その課題へいかに対応すべきかについて，あなたの考えを述べなさい。

問4　ブランド管理について以下の点について述べなさい。

1. A型ブランド管理とO型ブランド管理の違いを，説明せよ。
2. SNSが普及した現在において，企業が複数ブランドをいかに管理すべきかについて，あなたの考えを述べなさい。

（２０２４年２月２４日実施）　試験科目：英語（経営管理論）　配点：１００点

（問　題　紙）

設問　以下の英文を読んで次の問いに答えなさい。

問１　下線部（1）を日本語に訳しなさい。

問２　下線部（2）を日本語に訳しなさい。

問３　下線部（3）を日本語に訳しなさい。

問４　下線部（4）を日本語に訳しなさい。

問５　下線部（5）を日本語に訳しなさい。

SPRING WAGE OFFENSIVE OR *SHUNTO*

(1) One unique part of collective bargaining in Japan is that of the "spring wage offensive" or *shunto* abbreviated from *shunki chinage toso*, which is usually concentrated in spring of each year. Started in 1955, it has become a regular event for the Japanese employers and trade unionists to conduct negotiations for the annual wage increase during this period of the year and employees in both public and private sectors participate. This novel approach of bargaining is an outcome of the perception of the leaders of *Sohyo* that employees are weak on the bargaining table because union leaders are all full-time employees and tend to avoid open confrontation with management. Consequently, it devised the *shunto* as a tactic to overcome the weakness of labor unions and to strengthen their bargaining power by making their demands and negotiations all at the same time regardless of the enterprise or the industry. *Shunto* is based on the idea that several enterprise unions within the same industry, all more or less of the similar size and importance, should coordinate their bargaining strategies. Under the leadership of industrial federations, they harmonize their wage demands and schedule their negotiations in the spring of each year.

The main offensive is done in the spring, but its preparation is done throughout the year. (2) The choice of spring as the peak time of the offensive is that in Japan the fiscal year runs from April to March. The national budget, which determines salary of employees in the public sector, also starts from April. Therefore, it becomes easier for the employer to adjust increases in wage costs with other operational plans and programs. When one wage offensive is over, individual unions review their own activities, and set forth the basic ideas for the next spring offensive. From June to early October, they organize their regular conventions and decide annual action plans with particular emphasis on the next year's spring wage offensive. (3) National trade union centers set up the *Kokumin Shunto Iinkai* or "Peoples Spring Offensive Joint Struggle Council" around the middle of October to exert concerted influence. This committee coordinates programs and schedules of their member industrial federations, which in turn do the same for their member enterprise unions. It releases a White Paper in December on the next wage offensive and places the standard of demands of wages with the statement of specific figures. Since the basic objective of *shunto* is to improve real wages consistent with the performance of the national economy and to compensate for inflation, the council puts emphasis on two factors in support of its demand. These are: (a) increase in the cost of living and the consequent need of revision of the wage level, seasonal bonus, and retirement benefit, and (b) expected improvement of standard of living expressed in terms of quality of life (*ikigai*) and quality of working life. A counter White Paper is published by the Federation of Employers' Association which rebuts the demand of the worker's side by raising the question of productivity-based principles for wage determination. It advocates wage increases within the limit of real economic growth but excluding the portion attributable to the increase in employment. It also criticizes unions' policy for securing wage increases sufficient to cover the rate of inflation on the ground that such an approach will lead to cost-push inflation (JIL, 1986).

After that the spring wage offensive gains momentum national labor centers and the Joint Struggle Council plan their schedules and tactics for struggle and select the industry which will be the 'pacesetter' of the offensive. (4) In February and March, industrial federations hold their general assembly or central committee meeting to decide on the details of wage demands in view of the general guidelines set by the national centers. The enterprise unions submit their demands to employers and start negotiations all at the same time in March. In the meantime, leaders of the national centers and the Joint Struggle Committee submit their policy related demand to the government for tax-cut and appeal to the Diet to make policy by upholding the interest of the working class.

The success of *shunto* depends on the performance of activities in the pace-setter industries. Until the 2000s, the steel industry where the *tansan* organized 59 percent of workers, and the private railroads where the *tansan* organized 70 percent of employees are taken as the 'primary pace-setters'. Vigorous campaigns, such as public demonstrations to attract mass-opinion, marches in the downtown, rallies in the public halls, etc. are organized, and strikes are scheduled in the pace-setting industries. However, scheduling of strikes does not necessarily mean work-stoppages, and (5) a survey of the Ministry of Labor shows that incidence of strikes during *shunto* is very low and affect about one-fifth of the unionized enterprises. Many negotiations are undertaken to reach a final settlement. The period is normally ten to fifty days from the day of submission of the demand until the final settlement, and on an average three to ten negotiations are held. ------

(出典：Khondaker, M. R., *Japanese Style Management*, Kyushu University Press, March 2023より抜粋)

問1 以下の英文を日本語にしなさい。

Omni-social presence

In its early days, social media activity was mostly confined to designated social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter (or their now-defunct precursors). However, a proliferation of websites and applications that primarily serve separate purposes have capitalized on the opportunity to embed social media functionality into their interfaces. Similarly, all major mobile and desktop operating systems have in-built social media integration (e.g., sharing functions built into Apple's iOS). This has made social media pervasive and ubiquitous—and perhaps even omnipotent—and has extended the ecosystem beyond dedicated platforms.

Accordingly, consumers live in a world in which social media intersects with most aspects of their lives through digitally enabled social interactivity in such domains as travel (e.g., TripAdvisor), work (e.g., LinkedIn), food (e.g., Yelp), music (e.g., Spotify), and more. At the same time, traditional social media companies have augmented their platforms to provide a broader array of functionalities and services (e.g., Facebook's marketplace, Chowdry 2018; WeChat's payment system, Cheng 2017). These bidirectional trends suggest that the modern-day consumer is living in an increasingly "omni-social" world.

From a marketing perspective, the "omni-social" nature of the present environment suggests that virtually every part of a consumer's decision-making process is prone to social media influence. Need recognition might be activated when a consumer watches their favorite beauty influencer trying a new product on YouTube. A consumer shopping for a car might search for information by asking their Facebook friends what models they recommend. A hungry employee might sift through Yelp reviews to evaluate different lunch options. A traveler might use Airbnb to book future accommodation. Finally, a highly dissatisfied (or delighted) airline passenger might rant (rave) about their experience on Twitter. While the decision-making funnel is arguably growing flatter than the aforementioned examples would imply (Cortizo-Burgess 2014), these independent scenarios illustrate that social media has the propensity to influence the entire consumer-decision making process, from beginning to end.

Finally, perhaps the greatest indication of an "omni-social" phenomenon is the manner in which social media appears to be shaping culture itself. YouTube influencers are now cultural icons, with their own TV shows (Comm 2016) and product lines (McClure 2015). Creative content in television and movies is often deliberately designed to be "gifable" and meme-friendly (Bereznak 2018). "Made-for-Instagram museums" are encouraging artistic content and experiences that are optimized for selfie-taking and posting (Pardes 2017). These examples suggest that social media's influence is hardly restricted to the "online" world (we discuss the potential obsolescence of this term later in this paper), but is rather consistently shaping cultural artifacts (television, film, the arts) that transcend its traditional boundaries. We believe this trend will continue to manifest, perhaps making the term "social media" itself out-of-date, as it's omni-presence will be the default assumption for consumers, businesses, and artists in various domains.

This omni-social trend generates many questions to probe in future research. For example, how will social interactivity influence consumer behavior in areas that had traditionally been non-social? From a practitioner lens, it might also be interesting to explore how marketers can strategically address the flatter decision-making funnel that social media has enabled, and to examine how service providers can best alter experiential consumption when anticipating social media sharing behavior.

(出典：Appel, Gil, Lauren Grewal, Rhonda Hadi & Andrew T. Stephen, 2020, "The future of social media in marketing", Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 48, pp.79–95)

問２　以下の英文を日本語で要約しなさい。

著作権の関係により掲載しておりません

著作権の関係により掲載しておりません

著作権の関係により掲載しておりません

（出典：Alemany, Luisa, and Vermeulen, Freek, "Disability as a Source of Competitive Advantage." Harvard Business Review, Jul/Aug2023, 101, 4,
<https://hbr.org/2023/07/disability-as-a-source-of-competitive-advantage>）

問1　以下の英文を日本語で要約しなさい。図は要約しなくてもよい。

Our proposed conceptual framework reflects communication models (Lasswell 1948; Shannon and Weaver 1949) and their component characteristics, related to (1) the sender of a message (influencer in our research context), (2) the receiver of the message (influencer's followers), and (3) the message itself (influencer's marketing post). Specifically, we investigate whether engagement elasticity is moderated by selecting influencers who post more or fewer posts (influencer activity), provide original content (originality), or have more or fewer followers (follower size); targeting follower networks with different levels of follower–brand fit; and posting content with distinct degrees of post positivity and sponsor salience, or content that relates to new product launches (see Figure 1).

From this framework, we derive two research questions:

1. Does consumer engagement increase in response to influencer marketing spend?
2. Can marketers enhance engagement elasticity by strategically selecting influencers and their followers, as well as managing their content? That is, how do influencer-, follower-, and post-related factors interact with influencer marketing spend in affecting consumer engagement of the sponsored post?

To address these questions, we obtained data from a large influencer marketing platform (Data Provider) that enables firms to select and pay online influencers to share sponsored posts about their brands and products on various social networks. We gather rich data about sponsored posts, which appeared on a prominent social network and were transacted through the Data Provider in October 2018; the gathered information includes each post's sender (i.e., influencer), receiver (i.e., followers), and message characteristics. This data set is unique in several ways compared with the data that support prior studies (e.g., Hughes, Swaminathan, and Brooks 2019). It features a more diverse group of online influencers, spanning a broader range of campaigns, brands, and categories (i.e., 5,835 influencer marketing posts related to 1,256 campaigns written by 2,412 influencers, sponsored by 861 brands in 29 categories). With access to influencer cost data for each post, as well as 24-hour lagged engagement data (e.g., number of reposts), we can estimate influencer marketing effectiveness in terms of engagement elasticity to establish the incremental contribution that influencer marketing spend makes for fostering engagement.

This research contributes to extant literature in several ways. First, as mentioned, recent studies note various consumer and firm outcomes of influencer marketing (e.g., Bharadwaj et al. 2022; Hughes, Swaminathan, and Brooks 2019) (Table 1), but most of them do not account for the costs of generating those outcomes. As Batra and Keller (2016, p. 136) argue, "marketers must evaluate marketing communications … against their cost to arrive at the most effective and most efficient communications program." Therefore, this study empirically examines the effectiveness of influencer marketing spend (i.e., pay-per-post) for generating consumer engagement, as measured by engagement elasticity. Our results reveal that increasing the influencer marketing budget can increase consumer engagement: Ceteris paribus, a 1% increase in influencer marketing spend increases engagement by .457%. By assessing and comparing influencers' engagement elasticities and base engagement levels, we also establish how firms can allocate their budgets optimally. On average, the firms in our data set could increase consumer engagement by 16.6% if they allocated their budgets proportional to these elasticities and base engagement levels, rather than their current allocations.

Second, we apply a communication model (Lasswell 1948; Shannon and Weaver 1949) as an alternative to the theories adopted in prior research (Table 1), which offers a more comprehensive assessment of how factors related to the sender (influencer), receiver (followers), and message (influencer marketing post) lead to varied influencer marketing effectiveness. These categories of factors are central to campaign designs, which generally require selecting effective influencers and follower groups to target, as well as defining effective posts. Selecting influencers who transmit more original posts than posts created by others and with larger networks of followers, along with incorporating more clickable mentions and links in the sponsored posts, enhances effectiveness. Sponsored posts that announce new product launches diminish effectiveness because of the potential risks and advertising clutter involved with new products. This overarching communication model also sheds new light on follower–brand fit, a relatively less studied receiver factor, and reveals the promising potential of leveraging big data to make effective targeting decisions (Nelson and Webster 2016).

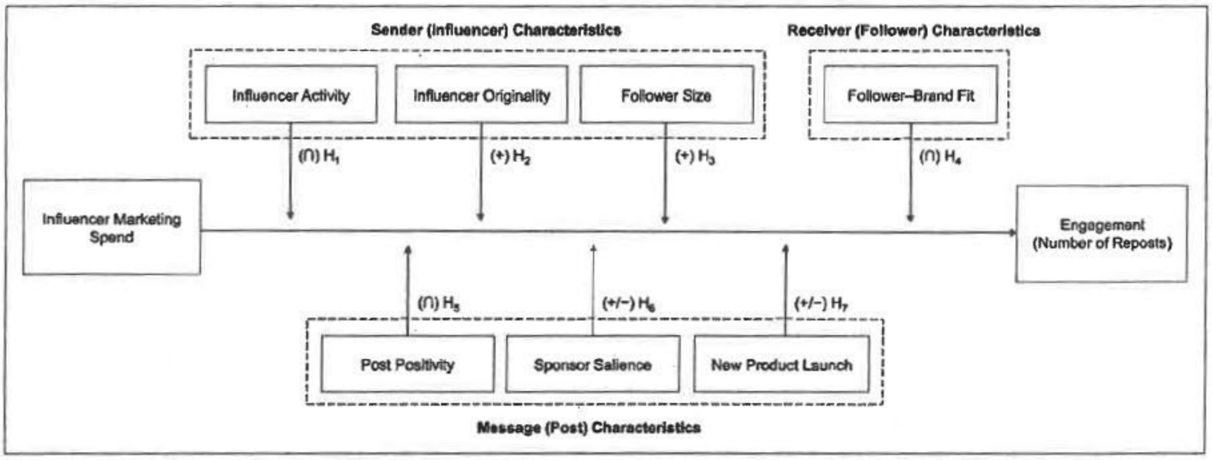

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of influencer marketing effectiveness.

Third, influencer marketing agreements empower influencers to transmit brand-related information to target consumers, which differs from traditional brand- or user-generated content. This research establishes evidence of inverted U-shaped moderating effects of influencer activity, follower–brand fit, and post positivity. In turn, we suggest that firms should select influencers who display medium levels of posting activity rather than those who post too frequently. This insight also helps reconcile some mixed findings in previous studies (Stephen et al. 2017; Suh et al. 2010). A prevailing view in celebrity endorsement literature suggests that brand fit is a strong indicator of effective communication (Bergkvist and Zhou 2016), but we determine that followers with a high degree of shared interests with the brand may not be the best group to target with influencer marketing. Finally, adding nuance to previous literature that suggests positive content is more viral (Berger and Milkman 2012), our analysis indicates that a blend of positive and negative content can increase engagement elasticity by 5.6% (22.4%), compared with content that is one (two) standard deviation(s) higher in positivity. These nonlinear effects help clarify some unique tensions that arise in influencer marketing campaigns: Followers know influencers are paid, but influencers still need to appear authentic, display leadership, and provide communication value to those followers (Leung, Gu, and Palmatier 2022).

出典：Fine F. Leung, Flora F. Gu, Yiwei Li, Jonathan Z. Zhang, et al., "Influencer Marketing Effectiveness," Vol.86, Nov 1, 2022

問２　以下の英文を日本語で要約しなさい。

著作権の関係により掲載しておりません

（出典： Robertson T, S., The Resale Revolution. *Harvard Business Review*, Nov/Dec 2023, pp.82-91）

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