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# The Structural Relationship of Life Conditions of Atomic-bomb Sufferers, as Revealed Through the Interviews Conducted in Hiroshima Area

1

### by Masayoshi Chūbachi

The Ministry of welfare made a study of the life and health of the atomic bomb sufferers at Hiroshima and Nagasaki in November, 1965, and a part of its results was published in February and November, 1967.

The author took part in this study. He also participated in the interview conducted by Hiroshima City in April 1966. On the basis of these experiences, the author reexamined the published results of the investigations in 1965; also he made an analytical study of the interview result obtained in 1966. And he derived the following 5 points:

(1) The actual conditions research, made by the Ministry of Welfare, concluded that the living of the atomic-bomb sufferers in general is not much different from that of other ordinary people. But it seems that such a sweeping conclusion can not be drawn out of this research;

(2) Considering in terms of the structural reconstruction of family relationship, the degree of people's reestablishment in Hiroshima community, and the restoration of their economic standard during the rehabilitation period following the end of War, we looked into the time when the sufferers became capable somehow to manage their affairs. And we found that in proportion to the seriousness of the damage made to the health of the bombed, and to the health or life of their family members, as well as to the gravity of the destruction effected in the area in which they happened to live, their recovery was retarded. The result was that they failed to take advantage of the postwar prosperity in the process of reconstruction of Hiroshima, and were slow in their economic activities;

(3) Generally, principal breadwinners were more killed or worse hit. The result was that the household duties were often carried by other family members, especially wives were heavily burdened with the responsibilities for life;

(4) As compared with ordinary bombing, the atomic bombing made a more uniform damage regardless of social class, high and low. But the rehabilitation seems to be very much quicker with the high class than with the low one;

(5) Surveying the whole structure of social classes composed of the atomicbomb sufferers, the class stratification has not fully recovered its prebombing conditions, in spite of the flourishing state of Hiroshima as a whole.

Labor and Capital Relationship and Trade Union Movement in the Monopoly Formation Period, as seen Through the Cotton Industry of England (II)

Continued from the work presented in the last issue of this Magazine, this essay aims at clarifying the characteristics of the trade union in cotton industry, and examining the manner by which the labor-capital relationship came into being as an industrial problem at the time when monopolistic capitalism was being formalized.

In Section I, what significance the cotton industry trade union played among the so-called New Model Unions, that are generally known as the Victorian type of trade union, is considered, especially making a study of its organization and policies as compated with those of the Amalgamated Societies of Engineers.

In Section II, there is studied the developmental process of cotton industry union proceeding from the free competitive stage to the monopolistic stage of cotton industry, and are observed its distinctive features in each of the two stages. In other words, how the conflict of interest among the cotton industry workers engaged in different kinds of jobs, for example, the antagonism between the old hand-mule spinners and their newly installed superintendents, or that between the handloom weavers and the powerloom weavers, as happened in connection with the application of the Blackburn List.'

In Section III, there are examined the conflicts of interest or the contradictions among the various types of cotton industry workers, which naturally became more marked in the midst of the intensified labor and capital antagonism with the advent of the monopolistic stage after the panic of 1873.

## by Kanae Iida

In other words, we consider the opposing but at the same time cooperative relationship between the spinners who were decidedly in a superior position as against the piecers who were subordinated to them, - the relationship between the cardroom amalgamation and the cotton spinners' union. And in the last place, there is discussed the complicated relationship between the cotton industry workers' union and the textile industry workers' union.

## Worsted Industry in Norfolk in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries

### by Minoru Yasumoto

Worsted industry in Norfolk began to appear in the rural area, the northeastern section of the county in the thirteenth century, and extended over the whole eastern half of the county in the fourteenth century; but it was always confined to the county. The city of Norwich was rather late in introducing the industry and yet since the end of the fourteenth century had been the centre of the industry until the late eighteenth century when the worsted industry was transfered from East Anglia to the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Before considering the development of the worsted industry in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the author will touch briefly on the social and economic environment of Norfolk. Norfolk in the later Middle Ages had two main types of farming. The contrast between the two types of farming was so sharp that the fundamental distinctions should not be disregarded in considering the later development of the worsted industry. One is the "Woodland" type of farming in the eastern part of the county and the other is the "Champion" type of farming in the western part. In the "Woodland" region of the county, freeholders formed more than a third of the whole landholding population. The type of settlement in this region was characterized by a hamlet or isolated farmstead and small manors rather than a nucleated village with large open field. A weak manorial framework permitted a rapid growth of rural population which favoured rural industries and only a few lost villages were seen in the fourteenth century. Moreover, the lack of any strong manorial control made early piecemeal enclosures possible.

On the contrary, in the "Champion" region, in the western half of the county, there existed large manors possessed by ecclesiastical lords with rigid manorial customs, open fields and Sheep-Corn-Husbandry. Open field and communal husbandry in this region remained until the late eighteenth century. In the thirteenth century, the ecclesiastical lords in this region experienced a retreat of settlement and oppressed the remaining tenants by imposing raised money rents or more labour services. Particularly in Breckland, in the south-western part of the "Champion" region, marginal land in the Middle Ages-there was a serious retreat of settlement in face of marginal conditions. Besides, there were many "to-be-lost" villages in Breckland in which there were fewer than ten householders. The existence in this region of a particular arrangement for sheep, the "fold-course-system", made the pace of the growth of piecemeal enclosures slow because of the opposition of the manorial lords, the "fold-course" owners, who resented encroachment on their grazing rights. The existence of a social system, such as described above, which favoured the growth of rural industries, caused the worsted industry to be centred in the eastern section of Norfolk, the "Woodland" region.

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Worsted cloth, different from the coarse woollen cloth produced in the west and the north of England, was a lightweight cloth valuable for export to warm southern countries, such as Spain, Portugal and France. The extent of the home market in worsted clothes in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries cannot be easily ascertained but worsted clothes seem to have been sold mainly in East Anglia and south-eastern England.

The characteristic feature of the organization of the worsted industry in the rural area of Norfolk in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries was the absence of a putting-out system which generally prevailed in the woollen industry. As far as the country weavers were concerned, their trade was of small scale and therefore they did not put out their wool to be combed and spun or their yarn to be woven. Such large putting-out clothiers as Thomas Spring of Lavenham in Suffolk or William Stumpe of Malmesbury in Wiltshire did not exist in the rural area of Norfolk. As a result of this lack of a putting-out system, even at the end of the fifteenth century, the worsted industry in the rural area was organized by "a series of consecutive links" (K. J. Allison) of wool producers—wool chapmen—spinners —yarn middlemen—weavers—merchants. The wills and probate inventories

3

4

of the country weavers reveal that their trade was small scale, letting the value of crops and animals take a high percentage in the total value of inventories.

However, these weavers owned more looms than the clothiers of the west and the north of England; for example, three of the worsted weavers in the rural area of Norfolk possessed six looms, while most of the clothiers in the West Riding of Yorkshire owned not more than three looms. This may be due partly to the fact that because a large part of the worsted clothes woven in the rural area were sold white and unfinished, the rest had to be sent for finishing to the city of Norwich, thereby making weaving an important job in the rural area of Norfolk. . . .

The development of the worsted industry in the city of Norwich was quite different from that in the rural Norfolk. The fact that as early as 1511, the orders passed that no worsted weavers might employ a loom outside his dwelling place proves well that a putting-out system on a large scale was already established in Norwich. Again, the testamentary inventories of the city weavers reveal clearly that in the late sixteenth and the early seventeenth centuries, Norwich weavers had far more looms than the Wiltshire and the Yorkshire clothiers, nine weavers out of the twenty-eight examined owning more than six looms. One of the largest weaver, who owned fourteen looms, employed seven looms outside his workshop. According to the presentment made before the Mayor by a warden of the worsted weavers gild, Norwich weavers employed more apprentices than the ordinance allowed (there were nine master weavers who employed more than five apprentices in their workshops), which is a further proof of the large scale trade of the city weavers. It may be safely said that the worsted industry in Norwich in the early sixteenth century was fairly stimulated by the expansion of the overseas markets. In fact, the overseas demand for the traditional worsted was at its height in the 1520's.

As mentioned above, the worsted industry in the city of Norwich flourished in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, while the woollen industries had died gradual deaths in almost all the corporate towns and boroughs in England. The city of York, for example, had experienced a sharp decline of admissions to the freedom and rise of emigration of master craftsmen of the textile industry since the end of the fourteenth century. Norwich, on the other hand, attracted many new citizens during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. One of the reasons why Norwich could maintain a

prosperous cloth industry, while most of the corporate towns and boroughs saw a decline in textile industry was that the worsted weavers and the merchants of Norwich had succeeded in establishing certain Companies outside the rigid system of the craft gild. The Hatters Company and The Russelles Weavers Company were established about the middle of the sixteenth century by the weavers and merchants who occupied the important positions in the governing bodies of these Companies.

In the early sixteenth century, however, Norwich had to face competition About this time, the Elizabethan Government turned its eyes to the

from the Netherlands which had established their own worsted industry by this time. Antwerp, especially, had been importing wool produced in Norfolk and exporting finished products which proved finer than those of England. Therefore, in 1564, the city authorities decided to request a royal licence permitting some thirty Dutch and Walloon master craftsmen, who had emigrated from the Netherlands because of the intolerant policy of the Duke of Alva, to reside in the city so that the "New Draperies" could be made in Norwich. After that, about four thousand foreigners were invited, resulting in the immediate recovery of the worsted industry in Norwich. southern countries of the Continent as the overseas markets of English clothes in the northern countries were lost. As the southern countries had been vital markets for the traditional worsted clothes of Norfolk since the fourteenth century, the change of the industrial policies of the Elizabethan Government favoured the growth of the worsted industry in both Norwich and the rural Norfolk.

Although the descendants of the Dutch and Walloon refugees were forced to emigrate to more tolerant lands-New England and Holland-because of the religious policies of Archbishop Laud and a large amount of capital was withdrawn from worsted manufacture in Norfolk, those who had been driven abroad were invited to return after the Puritan Revolution. Thus, the worsted industry, "New Draperies" this time, was restored its former vitality and once more achieved national importance.

In this way, Norfolk and the city of Norwich had almost a monopolistic position in the production of the "New Draperies", until the late eighteenth century when the worsted industry transfered from there to the West Riding of Yorkshire. But the county of Norfolk soon came forward to distinguish itself playing a great role in the Agricultural Revolution.

5