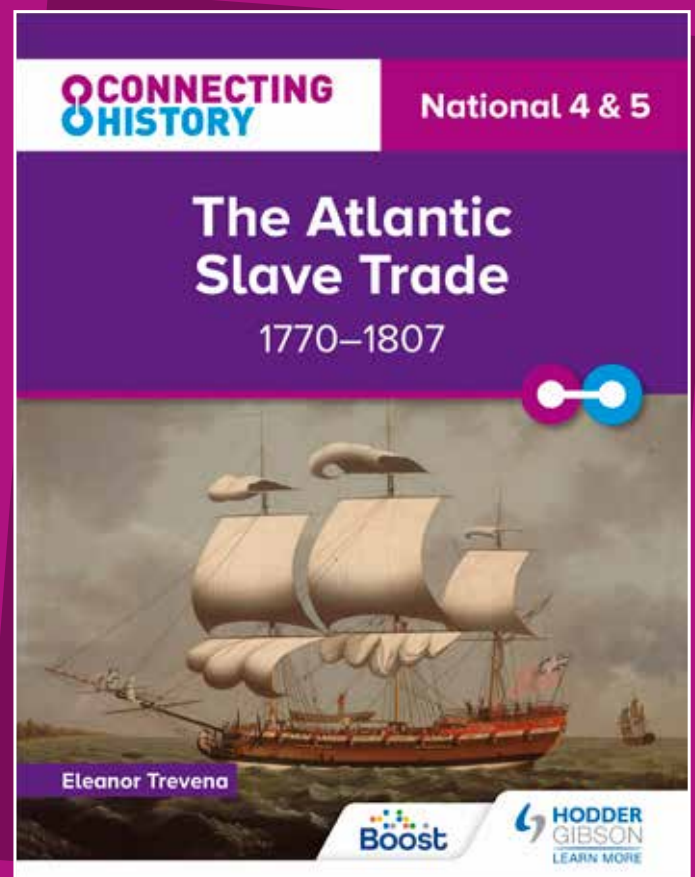
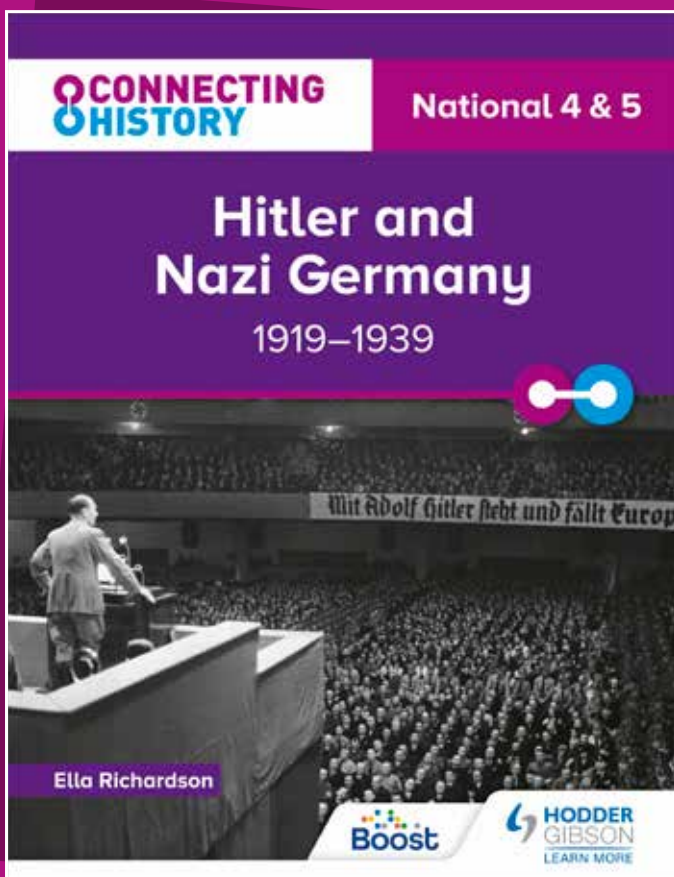


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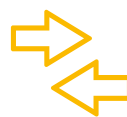
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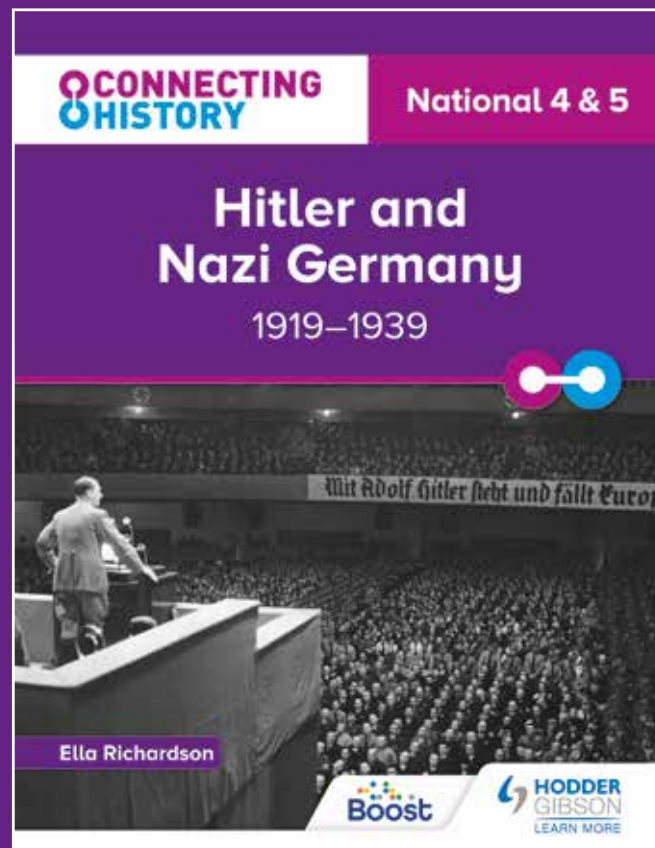
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# Connecting History: National 4 & 5 Hitler and Nazi Germany, 1919–1939



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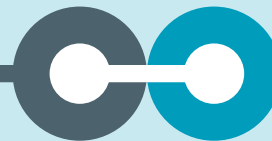
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# Chapter 1

## Weimar Germany, 1919–33

The aim of this chapter is to establish what the government of Germany was like following Germany's defeat in the First World War.

It will discuss the emergence of the new 'Weimar Republic', the democratic government that emerged after the German Kaiser, or emperor, abdicated following Germany's defeat and eventual surrender in the First World War.

### Link to the assessment

#### National 4 and 5

##### Key issue one: Weimar Germany, 1919–33

- The effects on Germany of the end of the First World War
- The Peace Settlement
- Opposition to the Treaty of Versailles
- The formation and characteristics of the Weimar Republic
- Attempts to overthrow the Weimar Republic: the Spartacist Revolt and the Beer Hall Putsch
- Economic problems of the Weimar Republic, 1919–33

This chapter sets out the nature of the new democratic German government. It highlights not only what the government was like, but also the challenges it faced. There are case studies focusing on specific revolts and challenges to the Weimar government, as well as an assessment of how well the government handled these events.

Together, this will allow you to respond to questions from key issue one, Weimar Germany, 1919–33.

### Note

Democracy is a system of government where citizens elect politicians to represent them.

*Today we take this system of government for granted. In 1918, however, it was a new concept in Germany.*

Important information and explanations are highlighted by the yellow 'Note' box

CONNECTING HISTORY: NATIONAL 4 & 5 HITLER AND NAZI GERMANY, 1919–1939

## Background

The First World War started in 1914 and ended in 1918. The war was a global one, with fighting happening in countries like France, Belgium, Russia and Turkey. All countries that fought suffered terrible damage and loss. Much of the fighting took place in France and Belgium. The Allies called this the 'Western Front'.

By late 1918 it had become clear that Germany was going to lose the war. The early stalemate of the first half of the war was a distant memory. New technology and tactics had led to military breakthroughs that ended the stalemate. In the final year of battle, the advantage had tipped in the Allies' favour. The entry of the USA to the war effort helped to secure Allied victory on the Western Front.

Seeing the balance of power shifting, the Germans launched an offensive, or military campaign, on the Western Front in the spring of 1918. German troops were successful in breaking through the British and French lines, but they soon ran out of ammunition and supplies. They then faced a huge Allied **counterattack** that successfully pushed German troops out of France and Belgium and back to Germany's borders.

### Note

- The Allied powers in 1918 included Britain, France, the USA and Italy.
- The Axis powers included Germany and Austria.



**Figure 1.1** German soldiers prepare for attack in 1918. Although the initial gains in the German 'spring offensive' were impressive, the army soon ran out of supplies.

The situation became increasingly desperate in Germany. The country was ruled by an emperor, **Kaiser** Wilhelm II. The Kaiser had near total control of all political decisions in Germany. He appointed the chancellor, who was the head of government. The Kaiser was also the head of state and head of the military.

In 1918, German naval commanders ordered a naval attack against the **blockading** British Royal Navy. This was a desperate move and it led to the Kaiser losing control. Soldiers and sailors refused to follow these orders. Instead, they set up Russian-style '**soviets**', or councils, to make decisions for themselves.

Seeing that he had lost control, Wilhelm II **abdicated**. Germany became a **republic**. This meant that Germany would have a **democratic** government, run by elected politicians, for the first time in its history. It also meant that it would not have a monarchy, or royal family. This was a huge departure from the traditional way that Germany had been governed.

The first action of this new, provisional government was to ask the Allied powers for peace.

In November 1918 an **armistice** was signed. Democratic elections were held in January 1919 and a peace treaty was concluded in June 1919 at the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris, France.

The new German democratic government was given the name 'Weimar Republic'. This is because it met in the city of Weimar, rather than the traditional capital, Berlin. Berlin was considered too dangerous a location for a government to meet.

This new government was disliked by many Germans and faced many early challenges to its existence. Yet, it managed to survive these challenges. By 1924, the Weimar Republic was entering a so-called Golden Age.

This chapter examines the impact of the war on Germany, including the Treaty of Versailles that formally ended the war. It also discusses what the Weimar Republic was like, and the challenges it faced between 1919 and 1933.

## 1.1 The effects on Germany of the end of the First World War

The First World War took place between 1914 and 1918. It was the result of years of tension between powerful empires. The war resulted in around 40 million casualties worldwide. It had a dramatic impact on all of the countries involved. Germany saw a large number of negative impacts from the war. Some of these impacts are explained below.

### 1.1.1 Social effects

Britain maintained a food blockade of Germany. This was carried out by the Royal Navy. It meant that food could not be shipped into Germany. This resulted in large-scale starvation.

While we do not know the true number of casualties, at least 426,000 German civilians died during the war. Some estimates have placed the figure at over 700,000. Most of these people died of starvation, hypothermia or disease.

There is also clear evidence that the diet of German civilians became more limited. By 1918, meat consumption had fallen to 12 per cent of pre-war levels. The winter of 1916–17 was called the 'turnip winter'. During that period, many crops failed or could not be grown in large enough supply, meaning turnips were almost the only food available.

### 1.1.2 Economic effects

Living conditions became much worse for the average German. Most families earned less money as a result of the war. For example, earnings fell by around 20 to 30 per cent. Moreover, the German currency (the mark) became less and less valuable. Between 1913 and 1918, the German mark lost around 75 per cent of its value. This process, when there is a general increase in prices and a fall in the purchasing value of money, is called **inflation**.

The war put a huge financial strain on the German government. It cost Germany around £8.4 billion, with only around 16 per cent of this money being recovered through tax. The German government had relied on winning the war, and paying its debts by acquiring money from defeated opponents. This plan failed, leaving Germany almost bankrupt.

Each section of a chapter ends with a key fact summary for recap and revision

Activities throughout each chapter consolidate and extend learning

Some sectors of the German economy did gain from the war. Certain industries made huge profits, especially heavy industry, which had been working to meet wartime demands. However, this caused resentment among ordinary Germans, who saw their living conditions getting progressively worse.

### 1.1.3 Military and political effects

Germany suffered very high losses in the war. It is estimated that around 2 million German soldiers were killed and over 6 million wounded, although precise figures are hard to come by.

The war also caused political tensions in Germany. Many left-wing Germans joined together to form the Independent Socialist Party (USPD). They wanted to start a communist revolution in Germany, much like the one in Russia the year before.

Other, more centrist, Germans strongly believed in democracy. They felt the war had been encouraged by nationalistic rulers who cared more about prestige than doing what was right for the country.

Some right-wing Germans believed Germany should push for a 'peace of victors', meaning the victor in the conflict dominates. They felt that Germany should try to keep possession of the lands the German army had captured during the course of the war.

These divisions, resulting from the conflict, had a significant impact on German politics in the aftermath of the First World War.

#### Key fact summary

##### The effects on Germany of the end of the First World War

- Millions of German military personnel were killed or wounded.
- Hundreds of thousands of German civilians died from starvation and hypothermia due to the British Royal Naval blockade.
- Falling earnings combined with rising inflation caused living conditions to worsen during the war.
- The war bankrupted Germany, and the government spent billions of marks that it could not repay.
- Some industries gained from the war, especially if they made materials in high wartime demand.
- The war caused political tension among Germany's citizens, who had differing opinions on how their country should be run.

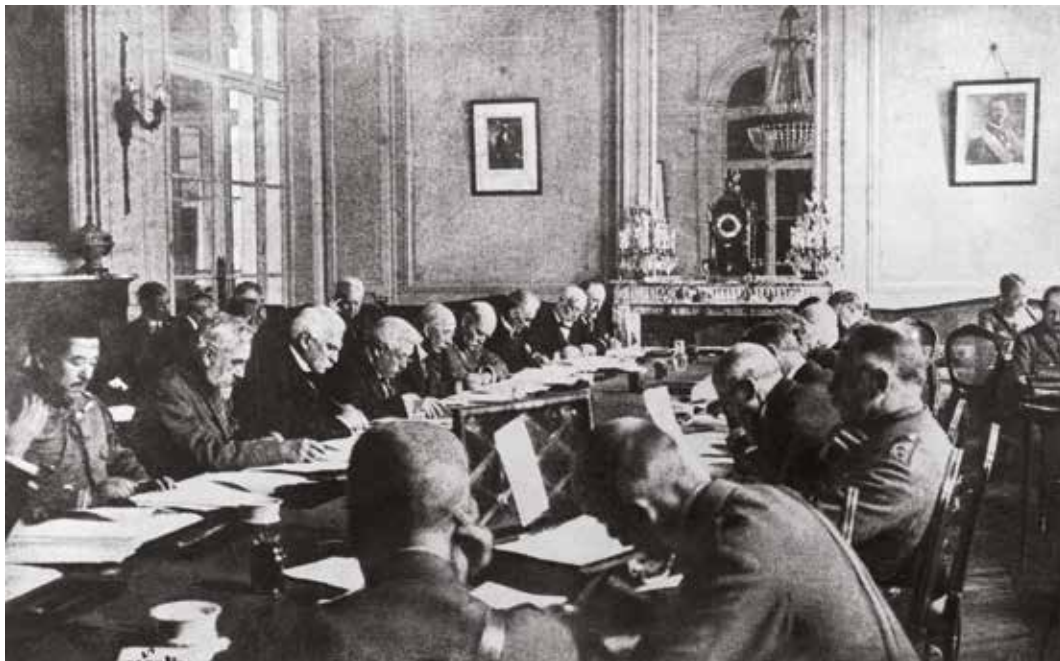
#### Activity

- 1 Write down a bullet point list of the effects on Germany of the First World War. Aim to come up with four effects, though you may be able to find more.
  - a) Rank the effects in order of how serious they were for the German government. 1 = most serious, 4 = least serious.
  - b) Justify why you chose to rank the effects in the order you did.



## 1.2 The Peace Settlement

In 1919, the leaders of the victorious Allied powers (Britain, France, Italy and the USA) met at the Palace of Versailles to discuss terms of surrender for Germany and its allies.



**Figure 1.2** A session of the representatives during the Paris Peace Conference – the result of their work was the Treaty of Versailles, which formally ended the First World War

Some Germans were quietly optimistic about the potential terms for a peace agreement. The Kaiser, whom many blamed for contributing to the outbreak of war, had fled Germany and was in exile. Germany had replaced its military **autocracy** with a democratic republic and people expected the Allies to treat the country less harshly as a result.

However, the terms of the treaty were far harsher than many had expected. The details of the treaty are included here. The reaction to the treaty is covered in the next section.

**Table 1.1** Treaty of Versailles, summary of terms

Area	Summary of treaty terms
Territorial losses (Europe)	<p>Losses without a <b>plebiscite</b>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Alsace-Lorraine to France</li> <li>● Eupen-Malmedy to Belgium</li> <li>● Posen and West Prussia to Poland</li> <li>● Memel to Lithuania</li> <li>● City of Danzig became a Free City.</li> </ul> <p>Losses following a plebiscite:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Northern Schleswig to Denmark</li> <li>● Upper Silesia and the Hlučín region</li> <li>● The Rhineland region was <b>demilitarised</b>.</li> <li>● The Saar region was placed under League of Nations control and administered by the French.</li> </ul>

Area	Summary of treaty terms
Military	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Army restricted to 100,000 soldiers</li> <li>● No conscription</li> <li>● No tanks or heavy artillery</li> <li>● Limited to 6 battleships, 6 cruisers, 12 torpedo boats and 12 destroyers. Remaining naval vessels to be surrendered to the British.</li> </ul>
Colonies	All colonies lost, to become League of Nations <b>mandates</b> .
Reparations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Article 231 of the treaty held Germany responsible for starting the war and therefore liable to pay for all damage.</li> <li>● The initial total sum due was £6600 million (132 billion marks).</li> </ul>



**Figure 1.3** A visual representation of the land that Germany lost due to the terms of the Treaty of Versailles

The terms of the treaty had a big impact on Germany. They meant that Germany lost:

- around 13 per cent of its land and 12 per cent of its population
- around 48 per cent of its iron production
- a significant amount of coal resources
- millions of Germans, who became minorities living in other countries, such as Poland.

According to Article 231 of the treaty, Germany also had to declare that it had been solely responsible for causing the war. While current historians generally agree that the war was the fault of several countries, the victorious Allies in 1918 did not see it this way.

This meant that Germany had to officially accept responsibility for all loss and damage during the war. It also meant that Germany had to pay reparations to repair the damage. Article 231 was also the basis of the principle of war guilt.

### Note

Article 231 of the treaty said:

*Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany ... for causing all loss and damage to which the [Allies] ... have been subjected.*

This became known as the 'war guilt clause'.

## Key fact summary

### The Peace Settlement

Germany was forced to accept the Treaty of Versailles, even though some Germans thought that the treaty was more of a diktat (an enforced, or dictated, peace).

Germany was forced to give up a considerable amount of land to neighbouring countries.

The German armed forces were limited, including limits to the size of the army and the number of naval ships, and a ban on having an air force.

Germany was forced to give up all its colonies.

Germany was forced to pay huge reparations to the victorious Allies.

Germany was forced to accept responsibility for starting the war under Article 231, commonly known as the 'war guilt clause'.

With the loss of land came a significant reduction in the natural resources that Germany needed to rebuild its economy.

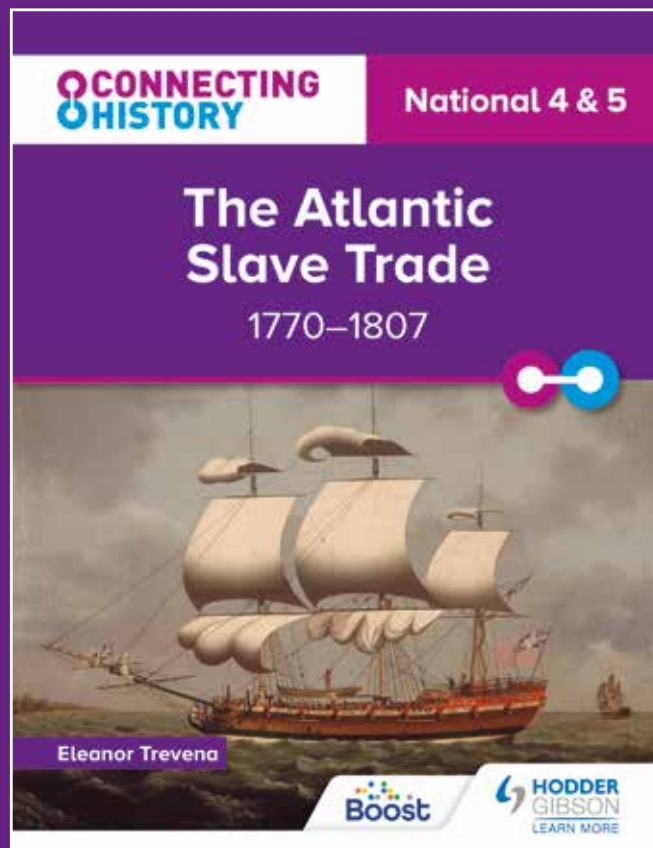
## Activity

2 a) Create a list of each of the following:

- i) the economic impacts of the Treaty of Versailles
- ii) the social impacts of the Treaty of Versailles (social factors are those that affect people's day-to-day lives)
- iii) the military and political impacts of the Treaty of Versailles.

b) Turn these lists of impacts into an illustrated mind map. Aim to find at least four impacts per stem.

# Connecting History: National 4 & 5 The Atlantic Slave Trade, 1770–1807



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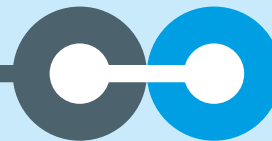
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**Chapter 4:** The abolitionist campaigns

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# Chapter 2

## Britain and the Caribbean

The aim of this chapter is to examine the impact of the Atlantic Slave Trade on Britain and the Caribbean.

It will outline the importance of the tropical crops that were grown in the colonies, with a focus on sugar. It will discuss the influence of the British in the Caribbean and the impact of the trade in enslaved people on the British economy. This will include a study of industries such as shipbuilding, banking and textiles, as well as other industries that benefited from access to trade with the Caribbean.

Finally, it will explore the disastrous impact of the trade in enslaved people on the development of the Caribbean islands.

Together, this will enable you to respond to questions from Key issue 2: Britain and the Caribbean.

### Link to the assessment

#### National 4 and 5

##### Key issue 2: Britain and the Caribbean

- The importance of tropical crops such as sugar
- The influence of the British in the Caribbean
- The impact of the Caribbean trade on the British economy
- The negative impact of the slave trade on the development of the Caribbean islands

## Background

Britain exploited the resources of the Caribbean and the forced labour of enslaved Africans to create vast wealth and build a powerful empire.

### What do we mean by 'british colonies' in the caribbean?

technically speaking, prior to 1707, the 'British' colonies in the Caribbean were controlled by England. Scotland and England shared the same monarch from 1603, when King James VI of Scotland took over the English throne after the death of Queen Elizabeth I. But Scots did not have full trading privileges within the Empire until after the Act of Union of 1707, which created the United Kingdom of Great Britain. The Act of Union allowed Scottish merchants full access to the Caribbean territories.



**Figure 2.1** A map showing the Caribbean islands and the European countries that claimed them during the period of the trade in enslaved people

England's conquests in the Caribbean began with Bermuda in 1609, and included St Kitts in 1623, Barbados in 1625 and Jamaica in 1655. Colonies were also established in Nevis, Antigua and Montserrat, while the Bahamas came under the direct control of the British crown in the eighteenth century. By the early nineteenth century, Britain had also taken control of Dominica, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, Tobago, Grenada and Trinidad. By 1800, the most profitable Caribbean colonies belonged to Britain. As the number and size of Britain's colonies grew, so too did the importance of the trade in enslaved people to the British economy.

Enslaved people were forced to work on the plantations of the Caribbean to produce goods that were in demand in Britain. These goods included sugar, coffee and cotton. Individuals made huge profits from ownership of plantations and from trade in goods that were produced in the Caribbean by enslaved people. The slave trade also created great wealth for Britain as industries such as shipbuilding boomed.

The presence of the British in the Caribbean had a negative impact on the development of the Caribbean islands. The legacy of the exploitation of the Caribbean can still be seen today, both in the physical remains of slavery and in the economic and social problems that exist in Caribbean societies.

### Edward Colston

One example of a British merchant who became rich as a result of the slave trade is Edward Colston (Figure 2.2). Colston was born in Bristol in 1636. In 1680 he joined the Royal African Company and served on its board for 12 years. During this time the Royal African Company transported over 84,000 captive Africans to the Americas and the Caribbean. It is estimated that more than 18,000 Africans died during the journey. Colston made a fortune from his involvement in the Royal African Company. He later donated money to several charitable causes in Bristol and London, including schools and hospitals.



**Figure 2.2** Statue of Edward Colston being thrown into the River Avon in Bristol

In 1895, a statue of Colston was erected in Bristol's city centre as a memorial to his charitable works. For many years, local groups campaigned for the removal of the Colston statue. The campaign came to a head on 7 June 2020, when anti-racism protestors brought down the statue, dragged it through the streets and threw it into the River Avon. In January 2022, four people accused of illegally removing the statue were cleared of criminal damage.

In the wake of the toppling of the Colston statue, a number of British companies issued an apology for their historic links to slavery or the slave trade. These included the pub chain, Greene King, and the insurance market, Lloyd's of London. You will learn more about Lloyd's of London later in this chapter.

### Using this information in your assessment

Colston died in 1721, which is several decades before the period covered in our topic. Therefore, information about Colston cannot be used to gain credit for questions that ask about the impact of the slave trade on Britain. However, his story is of interest as background to this chapter because it illustrates for us not only the great wealth that individuals could amass through involvement in the trading of enslaved people, but also the ways in which British towns and cities benefited financially from investments and donations made by these individuals.

### Lasting ties and influence

The influence of the British in the Caribbean continued long after the end of the slave trade in 1807 and the abolition of slavery itself in 1833. The 'British West Indies' remained an important part of the **British Empire** and trade with the Caribbean helped Britain maintain its position as a dominant world power. There was also a period of significant emigration from the Caribbean to Britain, particularly in the immediate decades after the Second World War.

In the second half of the twentieth century, many of Britain's colonies in the Caribbean gained their independence, but maintained a connection with Britain through membership of the **Commonwealth** and retention of the British monarch as Head of State.

In recent years, some of Britain's former colonies have sought to cut ties with the British crown. One example is Barbados, which became a republic in 2021, removing Queen Elizabeth II as Head of State, but choosing to remain within the Commonwealth. There have also been calls for compensation to be paid to the Caribbean by Britain and other European powers that controlled the former colonies.

When slavery ended in 1833, the former 'slave owners' received £20 million in compensation, a sum equivalent to 40 per cent of the Treasury's annual income at that time. The bill was so vast that it was not paid off until 2015. But the enslaved people themselves received nothing. In fact, they were tied to another form of unfree labour as 'apprentices' for fixed terms until finally obtaining their freedom in 1838.

The purple boxes advise students on how to use the textbook content either in their assessments or to build their contextual knowledge and 'big picture' understanding

The orange boxes highlight information that is particularly important in relation to diversifying and decolonising the History curriculum

## 2.1 The importance of tropical crops such as sugar

Britain's deep involvement in the slave trade and its colonisation of the Caribbean islands meant that products such as cotton, coffee and sugar went from being luxury imports that only the wealthy could afford to cheaper produce that ordinary people could also access. As a result of the popularity of these products, ordinary people became just as dependent on the slave trade as merchants and enslavers.

Sugar was the most important of the tropical crops. In fact, in the period between the middle of the seventeenth century and the middle of the nineteenth century, sugar became the most important commodity in the world.

### 2.1.1 Sugar in the Caribbean

The sugar cane plant was introduced to the Caribbean during the seventeenth century (Figure 2.3). Sugar grew well in the climate of the Caribbean islands, and it quickly became the main crop produced on the plantations. Overall, nearly 70 per cent of all enslaved Africans in the Americas worked on plantations that grew sugar cane. In 1770, worldwide sugar production amounted to 200,000 tons, and 90 per cent was from the Caribbean.

Jamaica was a particularly lucrative sugar island. Between 1775 and 1824, half of the region's sugar came from Jamaica.



**Figure 2.3** The sugar cane plant. Between 1766 and 1791, the British Caribbean produced over a million tons of sugar.

#### *Sugar consumption*

Sugar was originally a delicacy only available to the rich. But during the period of the slave trade, sugar became more widely available to ordinary people as standards of living began to improve. Between 1700 and 1709, the sugar consumption in Britain, per person, amounted to 4 pounds (weight). A century later this had risen to 18 pounds per person. Britain took around a third of all the sugar imported to Europe in the eighteenth century. From 1650 to 1800 there was a 2500 per cent increase in sugar consumption in Britain.

#### *Other uses of sugar*

One of the by-products of processing sugar cane was **molasses**. This was **fermented** and **distilled** to produce rum. Rum was a staple on slave ships and the ships of the Royal Navy, and was often used as part payment for the crews. Sugar was also used in puddings and jam and as a preservative in addition to salt.



### 2.1.2 Popularity of sugar

During the eighteenth century, sugar became increasingly popular as a sweetener in drinks such as tea and coffee. Coffee houses became fashionable in English towns and cities as places where people could go to meet, conduct business and exchange ideas (Figure 2.4). Towards the end of the eighteenth century, tea became more popular than coffee, especially after duties on tea were lowered in 1784. The demand for coffee and tea fuelled the demand for sugar, which, in turn, fuelled the demand for slave labour.



**Figure 2.4** Drawing of the interior of a London coffee house, c.1690–1700. By 1740, London alone had 550 coffee houses.

The result of this was wealth on a scale that is hard for us to imagine. In 1773, for example, the value of British imports from the small sugar island of Grenada was five times higher than the value of imports from the thirteen American colonies. Historian Adam Hochschild describes the sugar islands of the Caribbean in the following terms:

#### SOURCE 2.1

Think of them as the Middle East of the late eighteenth century. Just as oil drives the geopolitics of our own time, the most important commodity on European minds then was sugar, and the overseas territories that mattered most were the islands so wonderfully suited for growing it ... Over the course of the [eighteenth] century, some 60 per cent of all slaves brought anywhere in the Americas were taken to the relatively small area of the Caribbean. Sugar was king.

**A. Hochschild (2005) *Bury the Chains: The British Struggle to Abolish Slavery***

### 2.1.3 Beyond sugar

Sugar was not the only crop grown in the colonies. The Caribbean plantations provided cotton for the factories of the early **Industrial Revolution**. By 1800, Demerara and Berbice were the leading producers of both cotton and coffee. Indigo and rice also grew well in the climate of the colonies.

Tobacco was the first major export crop in the Caribbean, but it was unable to compete with tobacco that was produced in the British colony of Virginia in North America. Early settlers in

Virginia had tried to farm sugar, but without success. They found, however, that tobacco grew well in the climate and soil of the region. From the 1620s onwards, tobacco became the region's major export.

Merchants in Glasgow made money from tobacco grown by enslaved people in North America. The Merchant City area of Glasgow city centre was home to the 'tobacco barons' who made their money from the tobacco trade. One of the largest tobacco firms was that of John Glassford and Co. Another prominent tobacco lord was Andrew Buchanan. Both Glassford and Buchanan have streets named after them in Glasgow's city centre.

### **William Cunninghame**

The Gallery of Modern Art in Glasgow, originally the Cunninghame Mansion, was built in 1778 as the house of William Cunninghame, one of Glasgow's most prominent eighteenth-century merchants (Figure 2.5). Cunninghame had interests in both the Caribbean sugar trade and the tobacco trade with Virginia. He owned the Grandvale sugar plantation in Westmoreland, Jamaica, which had an enslaved workforce of 300 people.

### **Using this information in your assessment**

Information about Glasgow and the tobacco trade could be used to answer questions that ask about the 'impact of the slave trade on the British economy'.



**Figure 2.5** The Gallery of Modern Art in Glasgow, originally the Cunninghame Mansion

## Key fact summary

### The importance of tropical crops such as sugar

Sugar became more widely available to ordinary people during the period of the slave trade as standards of living rose.

Sugar was popular as a sweetener in drinks such as coffee and, later, tea.

The demand for sugar fuelled the demand for slave labour on the Caribbean islands.

Sugar was the most important of the tropical crops.

Other crops such as cotton, coffee, indigo and rice were grown in the colonies.

Ordinary people became reliant on the trade in enslaved people for access to the consumer goods produced on the plantations.

Merchants in Glasgow made money from involvement in the tobacco trade.

## Activities

- 1 Read the information in this section. Write a report about the importance of sugar in the period 1770–1807. You should include the following information:
  - Reasons why sugar became so popular in the period you are studying.
  - Uses of sugar in the period you are studying.
  - Information and statistics to illustrate the importance of sugar in the Caribbean.
  - Information and statistics to illustrate the importance of sugar to the British economy.
- 2 Choose one of the other tropical crops that were grown in the Caribbean. Try to find out more about this crop and its importance to the British economy.

## 2.2 The influence of the British in the Caribbean

Britain's colonies in the Caribbean were part of a wider empire that, until the American Revolution of 1775–83, also included territory in what became the United States of America.

### 2.2.1 Management of the colonies

During the period of British rule in the Caribbean, the colonies were managed by Governors. For example, Sir Archibald Campbell, a Scottish landowner, was appointed Governor of Jamaica in 1781. The Governors lived in vast mansions, built in the British style, many of which are still in use today as government buildings. Government House in the Bahamas was built between 1803 and 1806 and is the official residence of the **Governor-General** of the Bahamas today (Figure 2.6).





**Figure 2.6** Government House, the Bahamas. Note the statue of Christopher Columbus on the steps.

### *British society in the colonies*

The British established societies in the colonies. For example, they built towns such as Kingston in Jamaica, which had a population of around 26,000 people in 1788. This was roughly 10 per cent of the overall population of the island. The white residents of Kingston had access to markets, taverns, coffee houses and a circulating library. They could also visit the theatre. Jamaica had a legislative assembly that was responsible for making local laws and raising local taxes. There was a **militia**, in which all white men between the ages of 16 and 60 were required to serve. White men also participated in local courts as jurors or as **magistrates**.

One major result of the presence of the British and other European settlers in the Caribbean was the emergence of a group of people who were born as a result of the sexual exploitation of black women by white enslavers, the so-called ‘coloured’ population. By the end of slavery in the British Caribbean, Jamaica had 16,000 white people, 310,000 enslaved people and 31,000 people who were referred to as ‘coloured’. **‘Free people of colour’** or **‘free coloureds’** were terms used to describe people of African or African–European descent who were not enslaved. They had either been born free or had purchased or been granted their freedom. In Jamaica, ‘free people of colour’ were made to join the militia, but they were not allowed to serve as officers. They did not have the right to vote, and could not hold public office or serve as jurors or magistrates.

#### **Note**

The term ‘coloured’ is outdated and has long been regarded as offensive. Today, we would use the term ‘mixed heritage’.

There are numerous towns in the Caribbean that are named after places in Britain, for example, Aberdeen in Jamaica, Brighton in Barbados and Montrose in Tobago. Georgian-style architecture from the period of the slave trade can be found in Caribbean towns such as the port of Falmouth in Jamaica (Figure 2.7).

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