

***Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -***

Dr. Brahim BENMOUIZA
Higher College of Teachers
b.benmouiza@ens-lagh.dz

Date of receipt:
14/11/2024

Acceptance date:
06/12/2024

Publication date
11/12/2024

Editing:
Dr. Brahim BENMOUIZA

Abstract

This article falls within the context of diplomatic relations between the Regency of Algiers and Spain, which witnessed a shift from long-standing hostility to official rapprochement. This change ended a political crisis between the two sides through the signing of two treaties of peace and surrender. These agreements led to the definitive liberation of the cities of Oran and Mersa El Kebir, and had significant implications for Algeria's position both locally and internationally. As a result, Algeria's political and geographical unity was consolidated.

Keywords: *Algerian diplomacy, Spain, Treaty of 1786, Treaty of 1792.*

Introduction:

The Mediterranean basin during the modern era witnessed the presence of both Islamic and Christian powers that interacted with each other, leading to the formation of an international system governed by relations of power in the political and economic arena, due to its strategic importance. The region of Central Maghreb experienced several transformations, which weakened it and left it at the mercy of the Crusader power of Spain. However, when the region came under the banner of the Ottoman Empire, it gained significant local, regional, and international weight, and it was named the Regency of Algiers in 1519. This was largely due to the efforts of the Barbarossa brothers and their naval jihad in the western Mediterranean, which distinguished Algiers from other countries during the peak of Ottoman power, granting it a broad mandate.

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

The Spanish invasion of the city of Oran turned it into a center of Spanish presence along the Algerian coast, with the city being under Spanish occupation for nearly three centuries. During this period, Algerian-Spanish relations were marked by outright hostility. Despite an attempt at rapprochement through the Treaty of 1786, which ultimately failed, the Spanish forces stationed in Oran were defeated at the beginning of the 18th century by the army of Bey Muhammad al-Kabir. This victory led to the signing of the Treaty of Surrender in 1791/1792, which had a series of significant consequences for both Algeria and Spain, as well as for Algeria's international standing and its relations with the Ottoman Empire.

In this paper, we aim to explore these two treaties and address the central question: To what extent did the treaties foster rapprochement between the two countries, and what were their political, economic, and diplomatic impacts?

To answer this question, we will examine the general conditions of both countries at the end of the 17th century and the beginning of the 18th century, the circumstances surrounding the signing of the 1786 peace treaty and its contents, as well as its major repercussions on both parties. We will then discuss the circumstances leading to the conclusion of the 1791 surrender treaty, its main points, and the results and diplomatic consequences for Algerian-Ottoman relations.

1. The General Conditions of Both Countries at the End of the 17th Century and the Beginning of the 18th Century

The political conditions in both Algeria and Spain at the end of the 17th century and the beginning of the 18th century had a significant impact on the general circumstances of each country. Algeria, for instance, witnessed the succession of five *dayas* between 1748 and 1800, which highlights the political stability of the country. One of the most notable *dayas* was *Mohammed Osman*, who ruled for 25 years, which contributed to the stability of the *beyliks*¹. However, this does not mean that Algeria did not experience internal political tensions. In the second half of the 18th century, particularly in 1754, there was a military uprising that resulted in the death of *Dey Mohammed Bakir*, along with numerous local revolts in most administrative provinces of the regency. Among the most significant uprisings were the *Ibn al-Ahrash* revolt in the east of the country and the *Derqawa* revolt in the west. These revolts had a significant impact even on the central authority in Algiers². Other notable uprisings included the *Kraghla* revolt in Tlemcen in 1756, the *Oulad Ashour* rebellion in Fréha in 1775, the *Fellessa* tribe revolt in Kabylie in 1767, the *Oulad Nail* rebellion in 1772 in the south, and the *Oulad Amour* uprising in 1775, in addition to the *Smatta* revolt in the Titri region in 1791. Although these events were largely suppressed by the ruling authorities, they were primarily caused by the heavy taxes imposed on the population, without taking into account their living conditions and the economic situation of their regions.

Algeria also went through a period of instability at the end of the *Agawats* era (1659-1671) and the beginning of the *Dayas* rule (1671-1830)³. The period was marked by several internal conflicts, particularly in the east and south of the country,

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

such as the 1668 uprising of the *Zwawa* tribe from the west of Algiers, which led the Ottomans to execute their leader and publicly burn his body. Additionally, there were conflicts between the *Bani Abbas* and the central authority, and between the *Janissaries* and the *Reis*⁴ (naval commanders).

Externally, Algeria's political life was shaped by tensions with the Ottoman Empire, the Maghreb, and Europe. These tensions were especially evident in the conflict with the Ottoman state as the *Divan al-Aujak*⁵ (the administration of the military and naval forces) gained control and sought to assert its independence from the Ottoman Empire. This tension led the *Reis* (naval commanders) to replace the *Agawats* with the *Dayas* system in 1671, a system that lasted until 1830⁶. The *Dey* of Algeria, *Ali Pasha*, even refused to acknowledge the authority of the Ottoman-appointed *Pasha Ibrahim Sherkan*, deeming his presence unnecessary and potentially problematic. This led to *Ali Pasha* threatening him with death if he insisted on coming to Algiers.⁷

At the same time, there were ongoing tensions with neighboring Tunisia and Morocco, particularly over border disputes. Morocco, after the accession of *Moulay Rashid*⁸ to the throne, reaffirmed its agreement with Algeria to recognize *Wadi Tafna* as the dividing line between the two countries in 1665. However⁹, after *Moulay Rashid*'s conquest of Fez in 1667, he attacked those with strong ties to the Ottomans, such as *Khadir Gilan* and the leaders of the *Dala'i*¹⁰ Sufi order, capturing them and sending them to Fez. *Moulay Rashid* also worked to support his brother's expansionist project in western Algeria, leading to the *Tlemcen* revolt in 1667, which continued for years. Although *Moulay Rashid* did not intervene directly, his indirect support fueled the rebellion.¹¹

Relations with the eastern neighbor, Tunisia, were particularly strained at the beginning of the *Dayas* era. *Dey Baba Hassan* learned that internal unrest in Algeria was being instigated by Tunisia, prompting him to send an army under *Ibrahim Khawja* to confront them in 1678. Similarly, relations with Morocco took a decisive turn after the conflict in 1691 when Moroccan forces, under *Moulay Ismail*¹², launched an invasion of Algeria. The Algerian army, led by *Dey Shaban*¹³, defeated them, leading to a peace treaty in 1692.¹⁴

After organizing his army, *Moulay Ismail* renewed his offensive on western Algeria. Meanwhile, *Bey Mustafa Bouchelaghem*¹⁵ was consolidating his authority and establishing order in the Beylik. The Moroccan Sultan toured the *Tlemcen* region, supported by various tribes, including the *Douairs*, the *Abid al-Shiraqa*, and the *Abid al-Gharaba*. His soldiers seized everything in their path, advancing on Oran and attempting to capture it. When the city proved too fortified, he ascended Mount Maida, observed its defenses, and remarked, "This is a snake under a stone; it harms but cannot be harmed," and then withdrew. Upon reaching the land of *Banu Amer*¹⁶, a strong and numerous tribe, they decided to confront him in bloody battles, ultimately defeating the Moroccan army in 1707. As a result, the *Douairs* and the *Abid* dispersed,

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

later offering their services to Bey Bouchelaghem, who received them and decided to deploy them in an assault on Oran¹⁷.

As for Algeria's relations with European powers, particularly England and France, the situation fluctuated between peace and conflict. The *Anglo-Algerian* relationship was tense, particularly after the restoration of the English monarchy in 1660. In 1661, *King Charles II* sent a fleet to Algiers to renew peace with Algeria, demanding that Algerian ships not inspect English vessels, which Algeria refused. This led to the bombardment of the city's towers. Eventually, an agreement was reached in 1662 to sign a peace treaty¹⁸. Despite ongoing tension, relations improved in the 1680s, especially after the British conquest of Gibraltar during the War of Spanish Succession.¹⁹

Internally, western Algeria, particularly the Oran *beylik* which combined the territories of Tlemcen, Mascara, Mazouna, and the surrounding areas, saw several attempts to recover Oran. *Bey Shaban al-Zanaki* launched multiple campaigns to liberate the city in the 1670s and 1680s, though he was ultimately killed in 1687. His successor, *Bey Boushlaghm*, continued the siege of Oran. Despite his efforts, Spanish forces maintained a strong presence until the early 18th century.²⁰

To summarize, the period of the *Dayas* was characterized by:

- The transformation of Algeria's naval force from engaging in jihad against anti-Islamic powers in the western Mediterranean to pursuing political and military gains.²¹
- The repeated Spanish occupation of Algerian coastal cities, particularly Oran and Mers El Kebir.
- The Ottoman Empire's recurring attempts to reassert its authority over Algeria, which was initially lost during the *Beylerbey* period.

These struggles, which spanned almost two centuries, culminated in the first liberation of Oran and its harbor at the dawn of the 18th century, under the rule of *Bey Mohamed El-Kebir* during the reign of *Louis XIV*.

On the opposite side of the Mediterranean, Spain was actively expanding its military campaigns into the Maghreb, particularly targeting Algeria, which dominated maritime activity in the region. Algeria's navy effectively repelled continuous European attacks, strengthened by its close alliance with the Ottoman navy, which collaborated with it on military campaigns and wars, particularly to subjugate Eastern Europe. This occurred alongside the religiously motivated revolts in the Low Countries, rooted in the religious divides between Catholic Spain and Protestant England, along with conflicts over territories within Europe and the New World. These tensions led to several wars, culminating in Spain's defeat and the signing of a peace treaty in 1604.²²

After its conflict with England ended, Spain entered another war with France, which sought control over certain territories under Spanish influence. This escalated

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -
into the Franco-Spanish War (1635–1648), where Spanish forces managed to penetrate France, but were ultimately defeated.²³

As for Spain's relations with Algeria, in the fall of 1071 AH / 1661 AD, King Louis XIV of France sent his spy, De Clairville, on a reconnaissance mission to Algeria. After assessing the area, the engineer recommended Annaba as the landing point for an invasion. However, Admiral de Beaufort preferred Jijel for its strategic position near the Algerian-Tunisian borders, which would facilitate operations. He also viewed Jijel as fertile and self-sustaining for French forces without relying on supplies from France. After completing preparations, the campaign set off from Toulon on July 2, 1664²⁴. The invading forces captured Jijel after fierce resistance from its inhabitants, who then withdrew to the countryside and mountains. However, Agha Shaaban managed to reclaim Jijel, defeating the French forces. In the following year, De Beaufort bombarded Cherchell and Algiers to cover up his failure at Jijel. A year later, the two countries reconciled, signing the May 17 treaty, which granted French consuls privileges and resumed the *Bastion's* activities, including the ransoming of captives.²⁵

In 1682, King Louis XIV organized a major naval campaign, ordering Admiral Duquesne to burn and destroy Algiers. His intent was to retaliate against the Algerian rulers who had declared war on France and to demonstrate French power with a new mortar cannon. A month later, the fleet reached Cherchell and began bombarding it, though with limited damage. Dissatisfied, the French king and his minister ordered a second campaign led by the same admiral. This time, the bombardment caused severe destruction in the city, prompting its residents to pressure the Dey to negotiate with the French. The Dey eventually conceded, agreeing to Duquesne's demands for the release of all French prisoners and a substantial financial compensation to cease the bombardment.²⁶

The First Treaty of 1786 between Algeria and Spain:

In the context of Algerian-Spanish relations, a long and complex period of military conflict and tension prevailed, especially after the series of defeats suffered by Spain at the hands of Algerian forces, particularly during the Battle of Oran. Despite this, Spain sought to find diplomatic solutions to end the conflict, which had become an economic and military burden. This eventually led to a series of intense negotiations that culminated in the signing of a peace treaty between Algeria and Spain in June 1786, bringing a period of peace between the two countries.

- Both countries' leaders were convinced of the futility of military conflict, especially after Spain's repeated defeats, the superiority of Algerian forces, and the significant economic and human losses suffered by the Spanish economy.
- Spain's political situation had become tense at the beginning of the 18th century with the War of Spanish Succession, as well as ongoing conflicts over Gibraltar with England, which Spain failed to control.²⁷
- With the resurgence of the Spanish economy and its expansion in the New World at the beginning of the 18th century, Spain needed to protect its foreign trade, especially in

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -
regions with an expanding Algerian navy, which sought retaliation for Spain's occupation of Oran.²⁸

- The idea of this treaty was initially proposed by Spain, which was keen to establish peace primarily for economic reasons. Spain sent its envoy to Algeria to negotiate with Dey "Ali Pasha Boucebah" (1748-1766) for a peace agreement, but the attempt failed. The proposal was renewed with Dey "Muhammad bin Othman," who was known for his hostility toward the Spanish and rejected any rapprochement. This prolonged Spain's attempts to sit at the negotiation table with Algeria and open direct dialogue for common ground toward peace..²⁹

After the failure of Count "Antonio Barceló's" campaigns (1783-1784), official negotiations commenced in June 1785, led by Admiral Mazzaredo and Count Dexilly, with the assistance of the French consul in Algeria, De Kersey, who facilitated understanding between the two parties in service of Spain, which was aligned with France..³⁰

On October 24, 1785, King Charles III sent a message to Dey "Muhammad bin Othman Pasha," stating that Spanish sailors had been ordered to cease all maritime activity from Muharram 9 to Rabi' al-Thani 10, 1200 AH (corresponding to November 12, 1785, to February 10, 1786³¹). This message was effectively a unilateral truce request by Spain.

The negotiations continued for almost a year before reaching an agreement on a set of terms that served the interests of both parties equally, dated Sha'ban 17, 1200 AH (June 14, 1786). The treaty began with, "In the name of Almighty God, on Sha'ban 17, 1200 AH, a treaty of perpetual peace and friendship was established between Spain and Algeria. The agreement was reached in full harmony and goodwill between His Majesty Don Carlos III, King of Spain and the Indies by the grace of God on one side, and His Highness 'Muhammad Pasha Dey,' the council, and the Janissaries of the city of Algiers and its kingdom on the other."³²

Provisions:

The treaty was written in Ottoman Turkish and contained 25 articles, covering various fields, with a focus on customs rights, trade privileges, diplomatic representation, peace procedures, and the redemption of prisoners. The provisions were divided as follows:

A - Peace and War Provisions: (Articles: 01-04-08-20-21-23-25)

- Confirmation of peace between both nations, people, and government without any exceptions.
- Non-interference with Spaniards residing in the city of Oran.
- No assistance for the Bey in any action if residents attack the city.
- Notification to Algerian authorities when Spanish ships dock on Algerian coasts; docking without notification would be considered an act of aggression.

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

- Avoiding involving citizens of both countries in governmental crises, with three months' notice required for any break in relations.
- Respect for Spanish and Algerian citizens and diplomatic figures.
- Commitment to protect each other's ships from attacks along their coasts, with a promise to provide necessary assistance when needed.
- Mutual support in case of aggression declared by another state against either party.

B - Provisions on Trade Freedom and Customs: (Articles: 07-09-18-22)

- The right to unrestricted trade, provided that the laws of each country's markets are followed.
- Equal customs duties on merchants from both countries, at the same rates as those for French merchants.
- Freedom to load and unload goods without restrictions on their destination.
- Spanish ships stopping at Algerian coasts are exempt from customs duties if no goods are unloaded or loaded.³³

C - Provisions on Protection of Each Party's Vessels: (Articles: 02-03-06-17)

- Freedom of movement and docking for Spanish and Algerian ships along each other's coasts.
- Commitment to assist Spanish ships passing along Algerian coasts.
- Only two individuals allowed to inspect Spanish ships.
- Compensation for losses incurred by either party's vessels, and punishment for those responsible.

D - Provisions on Prisoner Issues: (Articles: 05-24)

- Prohibition of capturing enemies on board each other's vessels.
- Citizens of both countries are not to be captured on enemy ships, especially upon presentation of passports.
- No acceptance of escaped Spanish or Algerian prisoners or slaves on each other's vessels.

E - Provisions on Diplomatic and Consular Rights: (Articles: 10-12-14-15-19)

- Consuls of both countries to enjoy the same rights as the French consul.
- The consul has the right to judge his citizens according to Spanish laws.
- The Spanish consul has the right to choose his translator and assistants, inspect his country's ships and citizens, and fly his flag over his residence and boat.
- The consul is not responsible for the debts of Spanish merchants or citizens.

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

- Spanish property belonging to deceased individuals in Algeria will be placed under the Spanish consul's control.
- The Spanish consul is exempt from all residence-related fees, including lodging and provisions.
- The Dey has the right to appoint an Algerian consul in Spain whenever he wishes.

F - Provisions on the Rights of Spanish Citizens in Algeria: (Articles: 11-13-16)

- Freedom to practice Christian religious rites in Algeria.
- The right to be tried before the council of the Pasha, Dey, Divan, and Janissaries, with the presence of the Spanish consul or his representative.
- In case of an attack by a Spanish citizen on an Algerian or Ottoman citizen, the Spanish citizen will not be punished in the absence of the consul, and the consul is not held accountable for his escape.

Historical sources note that this agreement was only valid for three years and not for a longer period, as Spain continued to occupy the cities of Oran and Al-Marsa Al-Kabir. This truce was intended to reduce the pressures that Spain was facing at the time, leading it to sign similar treaties with the Ottoman Empire and Morocco.³⁴

The Impact of the Treaties on Both Parties:

The conclusion of these treaties had several significant effects on both Algeria and Spain, primarily by establishing peace between the two nations after a long period of hostilities. These consequences were multifaceted, with both positive and negative results for each country.

Impact on Spain:

- Success of King Charles III's Diplomatic Efforts: One of the main outcomes for Spain was the successful achievement of peace with the Ottoman Empire and its provinces, especially Algeria, which had significant control in the Mediterranean region.
- Diplomatic Representation in Algeria: Spain gained the right to establish diplomatic relations in Algeria, ensuring the protection of its interests, trade, and nationals, as well as facilitating the release of Spanish prisoners.
- Religious and Judicial Privileges: Spanish nationals were granted several religious and judicial privileges under the supervision of both Algerian and Spanish authorities.
- Security and Stability in the Mediterranean: The treaty helped bring security and stability to Spain's Mediterranean coasts, which had previously been plagued by Algerian naval dominance.
- Return of Spaniards to the Eastern Coast: After the treaty, many Spaniards were able to return to the eastern Mediterranean coasts, from which they had previously fled.
- Protection of Maritime Trade: Spain, along with its neighboring countries such as France and Italy, saw a revival in maritime trade, benefiting economically from the stability brought by the treaty.

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

- Commercial Privileges: Spain gained specific commercial advantages in the western part of Algeria, while France held privileges in the eastern part of the country.
- Financial Costs: Spain, however, bore significant financial losses, as it had to pay large sums to Algeria to secure peace.³⁵

Impact on Algeria:

- Financial Compensation and Benefits: Algeria received substantial financial compensation, including significant sums that went to the state treasury. This included reparations for the damage to Algiers during the 1783-1784 campaigns, valuable gifts, and ransom payments for prisoners taken by Spain.
- Free Access to the Atlantic Ocean: For the first time, Algeria's navy was able to navigate freely in the Atlantic Ocean without Spanish interference, leading to increased diplomatic requests from European nations seeking peace treaties with Algeria.
- Strengthened National Sovereignty: The treaty further solidified Algeria's sovereignty and regional influence, marking a period of increasing power and recognition.³⁶

3-The Treaty of Surrender (1791):

3.1 Negotiations:

The peace agreement between Pasha Hassan of Algeria and Don Miguel de Laria, the Spanish envoy to Algeria, was signed on 1st of Muharram 1206 AH (12 September 1791). The treaty, written in both Ottoman Turkish and Spanish, came into effect after the lifting of the siege of Oran by Pasha Muhammad al-Kabir of western Algeria, and the final Spanish withdrawal from the city on 3rd of Rajab 1206 AH (29 February 1792). Below are the key provisions of the treaty:

A. Political Provisions (Article 1):

- Withdrawal from Oran: Spain agreed to withdraw completely from Oran, recognizing Algeria's full sovereignty over the city, to be completed within four months.
- Symbolic Acts of Return: Spain would send two golden keys and two jugs of water from Oran's springs to the Ottoman Sultan as symbols of the city's return to Algeria.³⁷

B. Commercial Provisions (Articles 3–9):

- Spanish Trade Privileges in Oran: Spain was granted exclusive commercial rights in Oran and Mers El Kebir, including the monopoly over the purchase and sale of grains, livestock, and certain raw materials. The Pasha of western Algeria was also required to prevent other ships from loading or unloading goods in designated Spanish areas.
- Construction of Spanish Warehouses: Spain was allowed to build storage facilities for its merchants in Oran.
- Annual Supplies to Spain: The Pasha of western Algeria committed to providing 10,000 loads of wheat annually and 100 quintals of honey to Spain, with Spain receiving priority in purchasing these goods.
- Customs and Tax Privileges: The customs duties for Spanish traders in Oran and Mers El Kebir were fixed, with reductions and exemptions granted in exchange for gifts and annual tribute payments.
- Free Access for Spanish Ships: Spanish ships, both commercial and military, were granted free access to the ports of Mers El Kebir without prior authorization, even in extreme circumstances.
- Protection of Spanish Merchants: Spanish merchants in Oran and Mers El Kebir were to be protected by Algerian forces.

Algerian-Spanish Relations After 1791 - From Hostility to Reconciliation -

- Financial Compensation: Spain agreed to pay 120,000 pounds to Algeria in exchange for the commercial privileges and rights granted by the treaty.
- Coral Fishing Rights: Spanish merchants were granted permission to fish for coral off the western coast of Algeria.³⁸

3.2 Impact of the Treaty on Both Parties:

The treaty had profound consequences for both Algeria and Spain, especially in the diplomatic and economic realms:

- Algerian Sovereignty: Algeria successfully completed its territorial consolidation, reasserting full sovereignty over its national territory for the first time since 1518.
- Recovery of Oran and Mers El Kebir: Algeria regained control over Oran and Mers El Kebir permanently, ending nearly three centuries of Spanish occupation (1492–1792).
- Improvement in Relations: Algerian-Spanish relations took a new turn, evolving from centuries of enmity to a more cooperative and peaceful interaction.
- Secured Mediterranean Coasts: Both countries' coasts became more secure, reducing the frequent raids and attacks that had previously plagued the region.
- Economic Development: The treaty fostered economic exchanges between the two countries, with the establishment of Spanish trading operations in Algeria and the growth of commercial activity.
- Rise of Algiers as a Political Center: Pasha Muhammad al-Kabir made Oran the capital of western Algeria, bringing the city back under Islamic control.³⁹

3.3 Diplomatic Impact on Algerian-Ottoman Relations:

The treaties with Spain also had significant diplomatic repercussions for Algeria's relationship with the Ottoman Empire. After these agreements, which demonstrated Algeria's increasing autonomy, the country took further steps towards asserting its independence from the Ottoman Empire. The use of its official seal on treaties without the Ottoman name was a clear sign of Algeria's political maturity and its ability to make independent decisions⁴⁰. French historian De Gramont stated: "*The Dey of Algiers made decisions independently, declaring war, making peace, signing treaties, and forming alliances without consulting the Sublime Porte.*" French historian Aro echoed this sentiment, noting that the Ottoman Empire's authority over Algeria was nominal at best, and that Algeria was increasingly acting as a sovereign state. Despite this, there were still symbols of cooperation, such as the sending of military supplies and janissary units from the Ottomans to Algeria, and mutual naval assistance in battles like the Battle of Lepanto (1571) and Navarino (1827), as well as Algeria's support for the Ottoman navy during its wars with Russia in 1759.⁴¹

¹ – أحمد الشريف الزهار، مذكرات الحاج أحمد الشريف الزهار نقيب أشرف الجزائر، تح: أحمد توفيق المدني، ش.و.ن.ت، الجزائر، 1980م، ط 2، ص 26.

² – الغري الغالي، ثورة ابن الشريف الدرقاوي في الغرب الجزائري إبان القرن التاسع عشر، مجلة الدراسات التاريخية، ع 10، جامعة الجزائر، 1997م، ص 65.

³ – Dey (plural: Deys): This term, meaning "maternal uncle," was also used to denote the title "Dowlatli," which refers to the person in power or authority. It represents the fourth and longest period of Ottoman rule in Algeria, lasting from 1082 to 1246 AH / 1671 to 1830 AD.

ط 1. . أنظر: عبد الله بن محمد الشويهد، قانون أسواق مدينة الجزائر 1107-1117هـ/1695-1705م، تح تق تع: ناصر الدين سعيدوني، دار الغرب الإسلامي، تونس،

2006م، ص 7.

⁴ – Grammont, "Relations... ", Op.cit. H.D. de, "Relations entre la France et le régence d'Alger au XVIIIe siècle. 4ème partie : Les consuls lazariques & le chevalier d'Arvieux (1646-1688)", in Revue Africaine 28 (1884), pp. 281-282., p 341.

⁵ – The Ojak (plural: Ojaks): A Turkish term meaning "hearth or dormitory," used to refer to Ottoman military units, most notably the Janissary Corps. In Algeria, there were 424 Ojaks, each being a unit composed of a number of soldiers.

أنظر: حنفي هلايلي، بنية الجيش الجزائري خلال العهد العثماني، دار الهدى- عين مليلة- الجزائر، ط1، 1428هـ-2007م. ص 162.

⁶ – KADDACHE(M.), L'Algérie durant la période Ottomane, O.P.U, Alger, 1991, p94.

⁷ -CHALEM (M.), "Histoire de l'Algérie des origines à 1830" in Algerie, Casbah, 2000, p25.

⁸ – Moulay Al-Rashid ibn Al-Sharif ibn Ali Al-Sharif: Buried at Bab Aylan in Marrakech, he was the son of Muhammad ibn Ali, descending from Yusuf ibn Ali Al-Sharif, all the way back to Ali ibn Abi Talib and Fatimah Al-Zahra. His lineage includes prominent ancestors such as Muhammad Al-Nafs Al-Zakiyya and Abdallah Al-Kamil, tracing back to Al-Hassan Al-Muthanna, the son of Al-Hassan Al-Sibt. Moulay Al-Rashid was born in Sijilmasa in 1040 AH, assumed rule over Fez in 1065 AH / 1664 AD, and passed away in Marrakech in 1082 AH / 1672 AD.

أنظر: عبد الرحمن بن زيدان، الدرر الفاخرة بمآثر الملوك العلويين بفاس الزاهرة، المطبعة الاقتصادية، الرباط، د.ط، 1937م. ص 11.

⁹ –المكي جلّول، مسألة الحدود بين الجزائر والمغرب من 631 إلى 1263هـ/1234مالي1847م، مذكرة ماجستير، جامعة الجزائر، 1993م، ص 109.

¹⁰ – This religious lodge (zawiya) was founded by Abu Bakr ibn Muhammad Al-Fahati in the early Saadian period. Although he was not originally from the people of Dalaa, he settled among them in the Tadla Mountains. There, he established the zawiya as a center for worship and the study of religious sciences.

أنظر: محمد حجي، الزاوية الدلائية ودورها الديني والعلمي والسياسي، الرباط، د ط، 1964، ص138.

¹¹ – محرز أمين، الجزائر في عهد الأغوات 1659-1671م، مذكرة ماجستير في التاريخ الحديث، جامعة الجزائر، 2007-2008م، ص:89.

¹² – Moulay Ismail ibn Al-Sharif ibn Ali Al-Hassani: Born in 1056 AH, he was proclaimed ruler in 1082 AH at the age of 26.

Among his achievements were the liberation of several Moroccan cities that had been under Christian control and the construction of the mausoleums of Imam Idris I in Zerhoun and Idris II in Fez. He passed away in 1139 AH.

أنظر: العباس بن إبراهيم السملالي، الإعلام بمن حل بمراكش وأغامت من الأعلام، ج3، تح: عبد الوهاب بن منصور، المطبعة الملكية، الرباط، ط2، 1413هـ/1993م. ص64.

¹³ – Dey Shaaban: He served as the Bey of the Western Beylik from 1090 to 1097 AH / 1679 to 1686 AD. He was martyred while besieging the walls of the city of Oran, where his head was severed and hung at the city gate for several days.

أنظر: الآغا المازري، طلوع سعد السعود في أخبار وهران والجزائر وإسبانيا وفرنسا إلى أواخر القرن التاسع عشر الميلادي، ج 2، تح ودر: يحيى بوعزيز، دار البصائر للنشر والتوزيع، الجزائر، ط 1، 2007م، ص230.

¹⁴ – كمال بن صحراوي، أوضاع الريف في بايلك الغرب الجزائري أواخر العهد العثماني، رسالة دكتوراه في التاريخ الحديث، جامعة وهران، الجزائر، 2013/2012م، ص 74.

¹⁵ – مصطفى بوشلاغم: هو يوسف المسراقي مصطفى الملقب ببوشلاغم، تربى في قصر الداى بكداش خوجة داي الايالة في تلك الفترة، عينه بايا علي بايلك الغرب سنة 1707م، تولى أمر البايك بعد استشهاد شعبان باشا 1686م، قام بنقل مقر البايك من مازونة إلى معسكر سنة 1701م، كان من الشخصيات البارزة التي شاركت في تحرير وهران الأول. أنظر: ابن يوسف الزباني، دليل الحيران وأنيس السهران في أخبار مدينة وهران، تق-تح: المهدي البوعبدلي، ش.و.ن.ت، الجزائر، 1978م، ص 211.

¹⁶ – Banu Amer: A tribe that settled south of Tlemcen, extending to Mount Kazoul in Tiaret, to Ain Ifkane near Mascara, and Tessala. Their influence reached the outskirts of Oran. Their leader, Abd al-Rahman ibn Ridwan, was the first to support the Spanish following the death of Oruj (Aruj).

أنظر: محمد السعيد بويكر، العلاقات السياسية الجزائرية الإسبانية خلال القرن الثاني عشر الهجري/الثامن عشر ميلادي (1119-1206هـ/1708-1792م)، مذكرة ماجستير في التاريخ الحديث، جامعة غرداية، الجزائر، 2010-2011م، ص 37.

¹⁷ – نفسه، ص ص 74-75.

¹⁸ – جمال قنان، نصوص ووثائق في تاريخ الجزائر الحديث 1500-1830، وزارة المجاهدين، ط خ، الذكرى الـ 45 لعيد الاستقلال والشباب، الجزائر، ص ص 114-115.

¹⁹ – بوحفص تجاجنة، الحملات العسكرية لدول غرب أوربا المتوسطية على الجزائر 1145-1732هـ/1246-1830م، مذكرة ماجستير تاريخ حديث، جامعة غرداية، الجزائر، 2010-2011م، ص 32.

- ²⁰ - عزيز سامح التر، الأتراك العثمانيون في شمال إفريقيا، تر: محمود علي عامر، دار النهضة العربية، لبنان، ط1، 1989م، ص 458.
- ²¹ - عمار بوحوش، التاريخ السياسي للجزائر من البداية ولغاية 1962م، دار البصائر للنشر والتوزيع، الجزائر، ط 3، 2008م، ص 61.
- ²² - جلال يحيى، أوروبا في العصور الحديثة، الهيئة العامة للكتاب، الإسكندرية، ط 2، 2002م، ص 493.
- ²³ - نفسه، ص 26-27.
- ²⁴ - بوحفص تجاجنة، سبق ذكره، ص: 22-23.
- ²⁵ - عائشة غطاس، المعاهدة الجزائرية-البندقية 7 محرم 1177هـ/18 يوليو 1763م، مجلة الدراسات التاريخية، جامعة الجزائر، 1993م، ع7، ص 79.
- ²⁶ - ج، وولف، سبق ذكره، ص 346.
- ²⁷ - يحيى بوعزيز، علاقات الجزائر الخارجية مع دول أوروبا 1500-1830م، ديوان المطبوعات الجامعية، الجزائر، 2007، ص 23.
- ²⁸ - ج. وولف، سبق ذكره، ص: 108.
- ²⁹ - أنظر: يحيى بوعزيز، سبق ذكره، ص ص 22-55.
- ³⁰ - يحيى بوعزيز، مفاوضات الصلح بين الجزائر وإسبانيا من خلال مراسلات الداوي محمد عثمان باشا 1780-1787م، مجلة الثقافة، ع 89، الجزائر، 1985م، ص 101.
- ³¹ - يحيى بوعزيز، سبق ذكره، ص: 33.
- ³² - عبد القادر فكاي، معاهدتا الجزائر مع إسبانيا 1786 و1791م-ظروفهما-وانعكاساتهما على العلاقات بين البلدين، مجلة المعارف للبحوث والدراسات التاريخية، ع5، ص 219.
- ³³ - شكيب بن حفري، العلاقات الأسبانية الجزائرية في القرن الثامن عشر الميلادي من خلال مخطوط عثمان، مجلة الاداب والعلوم الإنسانية، ع 1، جامعة الأمير عبد القادر، قسنطينة، الجزائر، 2002م، ص ص 132-135.
- ³⁴ - شكيب بن حفري، العلاقات الأسبانية الجزائرية في القرن الثامن عشر الميلادي من خلال مخطوط عثمان، مجلة الاداب والعلوم الإنسانية، ع 1، جامعة الأمير عبد القادر، قسنطينة، الجزائر، 2002م، ص ص 132-135.
- ³⁵ - محمد سعيد بوبكر، سبق ذكره، ص 167.
- ³⁶ - جيمس كانكارت، مذكرات أسير الداوي، تعريب: إسماعيل العربي، ديوان المطبوعات الجامعية، الجزائر، 1982م، ص 18.
- ³⁷ - يحيى بوعزيز، علاقات الجزائر، سبق ذكره، ص 180.
- ³⁸ - ناصر الدين السعيدوني، المعاهدة الجزائرية الأسبانية 1791م، مجلة الدراسات التاريخية، ع 7، جامعة الجزائر، 1414هـ/1993م، ص 80-82.
- ³⁹ - بلبروات بن عتو، التحرير النهائي لوهران والمرسى الكبير عام 1792/1206م، مجلة عصور، ع 5/4، جامعة وهران، الجزائر، ديسمبر 2003 جوان 2004م، ص: 290.
- ⁴⁰ - نايت بلقاسم مولود بلقاسم، شخصية الجزائر الدولية وهيبتها العالمية قبل 1830م، جزء: 01، دار البعث، طبعة: 01، 1985م، ص: 80.
- ⁴¹ - عبد القادر كركار، العلاقات الجزائرية العثمانية 1518-1830م بين التبعية والاستقلال من خلال نظام الحكم والمواقف، مجلة آفاق فكرية، مج: 11، ع 1، 2023م ص 125.