Review EL'BAHITH - ENS - Bouzareah - Algiers, Algeria					
ISSN : 9577-1112	EISSN : 2602-5388	Volume: (17)	Number : (01)	year: 2025	Pages: 320 - 337

ALGERIAN- BRITISH RELATIONS DURING THE MODERN ERA (THE 1729 AD TREATY AS A MODEL)

العلاقات الجزائرية البريطانية في العصر الحديث (معاهدة 1729م أنموذجا)

Mourad Kebbal
Djillali Bounaama University, Khemis Miliann .
m.kebbal@univ-dbkm.dz

Date of receipt: 21/02/2025 *Date of acceptance: 26/03/2025* *Date of publication: 31/03/2025*

الملخص:

تأرجحت العلاقات الجزائرية البريطانية خلال الفترة الحديثة بين السلم والحرب. فقد قصف الإنجليز مدينة الجزائر لأول مرة عام 1620م. كانت سياسة بريطانيا العظمى تجاه الجزائر تستهدف نفس الأهداف التي كانت تسعى لتحقيقها فرنسا، وإن كانت تستخدم وسائل مختلفة عن تلك التي كان يعتمدها خصمها.

ولضمان الأمن لأساطيلها التجارية، اضطرت بريطانيا، التي كانت تعتز بنفسها، إلى تجاوز كبريائها وإهانة قوتها البحرية لدفع حكومة الجزائر إلى قبول مبالغ طائلة كشراء للسلام. وقد أبرمت أول اتفاقية معها سنة 1682م، التي جُدِّدت وعدلت عدة مرات، وكان أبرزها معاهدة السلم والصداقة الموقعة في 18 مارس 1729م.

الكلمات المفتاحيّة:

الجزائر، بريطانيا العظمى، معاهدة، السلام، العلاقات الدبلوماسية.

Abstract:

Algerian-British relations have fluctuated between peace and war during the modern age. The British shelled the city of Algiers for the first time in 1620. Great Britain's policy towards Algeria had the same goals that France wanted to achieve.

Although it had used means other than those used by its opponent, to ensure the security of its commercial fleets, confident Britain was forced to suppress its pride and humiliate its naval power, paying the Algerian government enormous sums of money to buy peace with it. It concluded its first agreement with it in 1682 which was renewed and revisedrepeatedly, perhaps the most noticeable of which was the Treaty of Peace and Friendship signed on March 18, 1729.

Keywords:

Algeria;Great Britain ;Treaty ; Peace ;Diplomatic relations.

Review EL'BAHITH - ENS - Bouzareah - Algiers, Algeria					
ISSN : 9577-1112	EISSN : 2602-5388	Volume: (17)	Number : (01)	year: 2025	Pages: 320 - 337

1. INTRODUCTION

Relations between Algeria and European countries have varied between peace and war during the modern period. During times of war, Algeria fought fierce battles against European countries, demonstrating its reputation and imposing its respect, defending the flag of Islam with all its strength.

In times of peace, Algeria established peace and friendship treaties with Western countries, which insisted on freedom of navigation and trade between them. Maritime countries, such as Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, the United States of America and Sardinia, paid gifts and fees to Algeria to ensure the protection of their ships in the Mediterranean basin. In this context, large and small European countries, led by the Kingdom of Great Britain, sought to renew a peace treaty with Algeria in 1729.

What were the circumstances of Algeria and Great Britain during this period? What was the content of the treaty? What were its most prominent consequences?

To answer this problematic, I relied on the historical analytic approach, to trace the course of the relationship between the two countries, and the descriptive approach to explain the general situations of the two countries during the period of concluding the treaty.

1- Circumstances for concluding the treaty:

1.1 - Algeria's circumstances:

The most critical and perilous stage in Algeria's modern history is the first quarter of the eighteenth century, during which Algeria transformed from a mere Ottoman state into an independent political entity with its own affairs.

The beginning of the eighteenth century, especially since the beginning of the second decade in the year 1710 AD - that is, after the killing of Dey Muhammad Bakdash, during whose reign Oran was liberated and with the accession of Dey Dali Ibrahim to power - is considered the beginning of Algeria entering the stage of rule by the Deys, who combined the rank of pasha with the position of the Dey, so the Deys called them Pashas (Deys)[1].

Algeria was ruled by Dey Muhammad Bakdash in the period between the liberation of Oran and its re-occupation from the Spanish, that is, between 1708 and 1732 AD, by four Deys- Pasha, and it is clear from the length of the period, which lasted twenty-four years, that the small number of Deys indicates that this period was characterized by a kind of stability. Despite some disturbances carried out by the Janissaries in the city of Algiers, the Kabylie Revolution, the earthquakes in 1716 AD, and the drought, locusts, and famine that occurred from time to time.

At this stage, Algeria benefited from improved relations with northern European countries, especially Sweden and the Netherlands, despite some problems with France.

When the treaty was concluded with Great Britain in 1729 AD, Algeria was under the leadership of Dey Kurd Abdi Pasha, who when he took over the affairs of government, found the country in a deplorable state due to what it suffered from natural disasters and political crises[2].

Dey Kurd Abdi held the position of Agha as-Sebayhiya, and was declared Bey immediately after the assassination of Dey Muhammad bin Hassan, who was then old and known for his addiction to opium[3]. Before that, he had ruled Beylik of Titeri, and his accession was on Jumada al-Thani 20, 1136 AH (1724 AD)[4].

Dey Kurd Abdi was known for his strong personality, his courageous stances, and his urban facilities. He established the Al-Muqari'in Mosque, known as Al-Makaroon, and expanded the shrine of the saint, SidiAbd al-Rahman al-Tha'alabi, in the year 1730 AD. He implemented a firm policy that allowed him to supress the uprising of the Hanansha clans in eastern Algeria in the year 1728 AD, and was able to establish order among the ranks of the soldiers[5].

Abdi received the title of Pasha from the Ottoman Sultan Ahmed, as was the case in the past. He was a Dey and a Pasha at the same time in the year 1137 AH (1724 AD)[6], and he demonstrated his independence from the Ottoman Empire, so he rejected its request By approving peace between Algeria and Spain (1725 AD), he refused to receive the delegation of the Ottoman Sultan, as the Sublime Porte continued to send Pashas to Algeria representing the Sultan until the year 1710 AD, when the court representing the garrison refused to receive the pasha, the representative of the Sultan. He became the Dey or head of the garrison from that day on. He is the sovereign ruler of Algeria, and the consuls of foreign countries have called him king, and he had almost absolute authority[7].

The Ottoman Empire once again tried to impose its control over the province of Algiers during the reign of Dey Kurd Abdi (1724-1732 AD). During his reign, the Ottoman delegate was sent to supervise the administration, as usual, and he carried a decree of succession to present to the new Dey. Dey Kurd Abdi welcomed him and received the legitimate Caftan. After the delegate read the letter to the Dey, which initially contained the phrase "From the King of Algeria," the Dey shouted in a loud voice: Then who am I? He became angry and left the meeting hall, saying: "He - that is, the Ottoman Sultan - controls the rest of the land and also the land of Algeria!" It was considered the last attempt to interfere with the Sublime Porte in the affairs and rule of the Deys of Algeria, in contrast to what was happening with the provinces of Tunis and Tripoli in the West.

Review EL'BAHITH - ENS - Bouzareah - Algiers, Algeria					
ISSN : 9577-1112	EISSN : 2602-5388	Volume: (17)	Number : (01)	year: 2025	Pages: 320 - 337

However, the ties between Algeria and the Ottoman Empire were not severed because of this. Rather, the Dey of Algeria continued to send a gift to Istanbul every year in recognition of the Ottoman Sultan's right to take over the affairs of Muslims and his legitimacy in representing them. This is what made the Deys of Algeria celebrate the accession of the Ottoman Sultans in Istanbul and were received in Algeria from time to time. The other is the Capigi-Bacha, or extraordinary missionaries sent by the Ottoman Sultan[8].

In his last days, Dey Kurd Ali suffered a serious setback when the Spanish were able to occupy Oran and Mers el-Kébir again (after their first liberation in 1708 AD) despite thep[9]in 1732 AD[10], leftMuslim the precautions he had taken, and the Oran without waiting to be besieged, as soon as they saw the Spanish landing not far from the city, they abandoned it, and the infidels entered on the 22nd of Dhul-Qi'dah[11].

The Dey held himself responsible for the failure of supplies to reach the defenders of the Oran fortresses in a timely manner, and he felt extremely humiliated by this, so he isolated himself from the people, cut off food, and surrendered more and more to the use of hashish, which he was accustomed to eating, so he died at the age of 88 years[12]on Friday. 11 Muharram 1145 AH (1732 AD)[13]. And he took over

He was replaced by his son-in-law, Baba Ibrahim bin Muhammad Al-Khaznadar, without finding any opposition to this, after Ibn Al-Dey, most likely qualified to succeed his father, was martyred in an attempt to expel the Spanish from Oran[14].

The period of concluding the treaty was characterized by a number of events, including:

- Continuation of tension in the relationship between Algeria and Tunisia: The political relations between the provinces of Algeria and Tunisia in the eighteenth century were characterized by instability, oscillating between truce and war, and were dominated by tension, as the Turks of Algeria considered Tunisia a territory belonging to the province of Algeria, and Tunisia rejected that. This On the one hand, and on the other hand, the Beys of Tunis continued to aspire to seize Constantine.

In this regard, "Ibn al-Mufti" says: "And what I know well is that Al-Amhâl of Algeria attacked the people of Tunisia eight times (...) Finally, the eighth war was the one that occurred because of the revolt of Ali Bey bin Muhammad bin Ali Al-Turki against his uncle, who put an end to the great disobedience, namely Hussein." Bey bin Ali al-Turki, and the aggression lasted five years and this period was known as the Year of Uslat[15].

The eighteenth century began with a bloody conflict between the two states, caused by the ruler of Tunisia, MuradBey, when he decided to attack Constantine in the year 1700 AD. Many conspiracies appeared against the state of Algiers launched by neighboring countries, the most prominent of which was the conclusion of a tripartite alliance against the state of Algiers, which included Tunisia, Tripoli, and Morocco. In order to disperse the Algerian army during the attack on Constantine, since in July 1700 AD, MuradBey set out at the head of a huge army towards the west in order to occupy Constantine[16].

However, the relationship transitioned to peace between the two states during this period extending between 1705-1728 AD. One of the most prominent reasons for this was the internal situation in the two states (conflicts between the soldiers in Algeria due to financial problems, the struggle for power between the beys of Tunis...). It was one of the most prominent manifestations. This peace was established by the Algerian-Tunisian alliance to attack the border Hanansha tribe in 1724 AD.

Then, during the rule of Dey Kor Abdi, skirmishes began between the Algerian and Tunisian states, which were caused by Ali Pasha, demanding the Tunisian throne, and his revolution against Hussein bin Ali, this Bey who maintained peace and avoided conflict with Algeria for a period of nearly thirty years; and because of Ali Pasha's greed; The civil war broke out in Tunisia in the year 1728 AD[17]. When the latter was unable to continue the war, he took refuge in Algeria, and after a few days he was imprisoned in the house occupied by the Pasha within the walls of the palace itself. His imprisonment required that he be neither able to go nor return nor receive anyone. He was never allowed to perform Friday prayers at the mosque, not even on holidays, and he remained imprisoned for more than five years[18].

-The continuation of naval wars between Algeria and European countries: historical evidence hasdemonstrated that the various European campaigns against Algeria stripped away the inability of European foreign policy (in the collective sense) when it was confronted with a strong nation at home, determined and united[19], as the European countries fought Algeria, and were defeated before it many times. Several European fleets came and shelledAlgiers to no avail, because the city of Algiersat that time, was one of the most fortified cities in the entire Mediterranean, having a lot of cannons well-disposed on its walls and fortifications[20].

Successive campaigns against Algeria have produced equally weak results. The Spanish attacked the city in 1601, the French shelled it in 1617, and the English attacked it for the first time in 1620 under the leadership of Robert Mansel[21].

The Europeans attacked Algeria, believing it was necessary to confront (piracy), as they called it. To the Maghribins, it was nothing but a type of war of jihad and the protection of homelands, which at that time dominated the lives of fleets in the East and West[22]. (Piracy) in Algeria was a national industry, governed by systems and laws

that were adhered to. Do not exceed it, while Portuguese piracy, for example, was not subject to the law and did not abide by the system[23](Piracy), which means invasion, raiding the coast, and kidnapping innocents, was invented by the Europeans in their country as a type of banditry, and then they moved it after Henry the Navigator discovered the shores of Morocco to Africa, and thus to Other countries of the Earth.

As for the countries of the Arab Orient and the Arab Maghreb, it was a reaction that developed into a policy of war during the time of Khair ad-Din and his brother Arouj (1453-1518 AD), so that the pursuit of the oppressive aggressor required research and exploration, which led to clashes that became part of the political history of the Maghreb after that. , especially with Spain, Portugal, England, the Scandinavian countries.

Algerian piracy was, therefore, a type of war with maritime countries that did not want to link their trade relations with the Algerian government. The countries that had consuls in Algeria enjoyed maritime freedom.

The Algerian ships would not inflict any harm on them, and in return, they would pay a fixed amount annually to the Pasha. As for the other countries, they were considered to be in a permanent state of war, fighting with the Algerian ships wherever they met, and the defeated would be the property of the victor[24].

Fair European historians and contemporaries of events responded to the false and tendentious European claims and accusations against Algeria. The English historian, Joseph Morgan, started his book(The Complete History of Algeria) printed in 1731 AD, with an attempt to correct the picture drawn by the clergy in Europe. About Algeria. He said in the introduction that Algeria is famous for its strong government, that it has stood against many attacks for more than two centuries, and that today there is nothing that puts it in danger from those attacks. He also said that the Algerians have the right to be a strong maritime people. Aren't all European leaders seeking their friendship and courting them? "They are a people who make peace and declare war like other nations, and they are always in a position that imposes their respect and appreciation on others."[25].

- The relationship between Algeria and European countries fluctuated: The relationship between Algeria and European countries witnessed during the rule of the Deys in Algeria (1671-1830 AD) fluctuating between war and hostility at times, and peace and security at other times.With the exception of Spain, which remained in a state of complete hostility and wars with Algeria until the late eighteenth century AD (specifically until 1785 AD), due to the Spanish control over the city of Oran until 1792 AD.

As for Algeria's relationship with the rest of the European countries, most of them were manifested in the conclusion of treaties and agreements, such as Sweden and the Netherlands, which signed a treaty of friendship and peace with Algeria in the

year 1729 AD[26], as well as with Denmark in the year 1746 AD regarding piracy and trade operations[27], and then with Venice in the year 1763 AD[28].

Within the framework of the various agreements, Algerian diplomacy had a number of principles that it sought to consolidate and enshrine in its various relations, including: fulfilling the covenant and adhering to the obligations it has undertaken, regardless of the circumstances and changes that may occur in international life.

These agreements also highlighted another principle, which is to deal with all countries on an equal footing. In the perspective of Algerian diplomacy, there are no major countries, medium countries, or small countries. It has dealt with all countries on this basis[29].

Algeria was sometimes crowded with groups of Christian prisoners, and the city's people, both Turks and natives, treated those prisoners kindly, i.e., and allowed them to practise their religions in public.

The French, English, Swedish, and Dutch consuls had suitable residences in the city and its suburbs, for which they pay sums of money to their owners every year, and there are no headquarters for foreigners to stay in[30] Some of them also had favour and a reputation among the rulers of the Eyala.

1.2- Conditions of Great Britain:

England is located in northwestern Europe. It is an archipelago bordered on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the North Sea, which separates it from the Scandinavian Peninsula, Germany, Denmark, the Netherlands, and Belgium, and on the south by the English Channel, which separates it from France[31].

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Great Britain ivolved into a parliamentary monarchy. This island was ruled in succession by two kings from the Stuart family - Oliver Cromwell - and two other kings from the Stuart family, a Dutch king married to a Queen from the Stuart family, another queen from the Stuart family (Anne), then four German kings, each of whom was named after George. The Grand Lords of Parliament - when Queen Anne died - presented the crown of Britain to the ruler of Hanover (...) and Britain became a restricted monarchy[32].

The most significant feature of the eighteenth century in the internal history of England was the accession of the Hanoverian family to the throne, which followed in its policy the results of the revolution of 1688 AD, that is, in accordance with the Law of Rights and respect for the rights of Parliament. The family's circumstances helped in the development of the internal system of government in England, so it was formed. The Council of Ministers system, the position of Prime Minister appeared, and what is known as ministerial responsibility was formed[33].

The Hanoverian family ascended to the throne of England following the death of Queen Anne, Mary's sister and wife of William III. This was in accordance with the agreement concluded before her accession, as the legitimate heir was considered the son of Princess Sophia, wife of the Viceroy of Hanover and granddaughter of James I, who was known as George I, who ruled. From 1714-1727 AD, and was succeeded by his sonGeorge II, who ruled from 1727-1760 AD. The influence of the House of Commons increased during the reign of the first two kings of this dynasty, and this was a result of their circumstances[34].

The Declaration of the Rights of Parliament in 1689 and the Act of Incorporation excluding the Catholic Stuarts from the throne in 1701 AD, and the Act of Union of England and Ecosia in 1707 AD, secured for Great Britain, in the new United Kingdom, the victory of a moderate Protestant monarchy[35].

Moreover, during this century, England underwent a new constitutional experience that had an impact on the regularity of its internal conditions and the prosperity of its affairs in the outside world. The accession of the Hanoverian family to the throne of England at the beginning of the eighteenth century in the year 1714 AD led to the formation of what is known as the Council of Ministers, and the position of Prime Minister also appeared. It was not known before, because the founder of the Hanoverian dynasty in England was a German who did not know the English language. He was not able to manage matters in England, which transferred executive authority from the hands of the king and his advisors to the hands of the Council of Ministers and its president. Individual ministerial responsibility also arose. Then collectivism, which was a guarantee of the smooth running and order of things in England.

During that period, Robert Walpole dominated English politics from1721 to 1742, and played a major role in directing European policy. He was able, with his peaceful inclinations and sincere belief that England needed peace, to maintain it during that era. He was helped in this by Cardinal Fleury, who held the position of minister in France from 1726 to 1743 AD[36], and this policy was reflected inside and outside Europe[37].

Walpole served his country with the great work he did for it, which he built on the constitutional changes he brought about. By purging the Cabinet of all colleagues who did not agree with his policy and were not subject to his leadership, he established a new system that Britain has followed since that date, in days of peace and war. The Cabinet system was the means that guided them to a responsible executive body, despite the fact that the executive body was subject to the will of the House of Commons, which consisted of about five or six hundred people.

The period from 1714 to 1760 is known as the era of the control of a minority of the Whig party over the politics of England during the reign of George I and II, as it took control of the authorities about seventy great families of the Whigs on the basis of retaining the support of the House of Commons. The heads of these families belonged to a party.

The Whigs were in the House of Lords, while their children and younger family members were in the House of Commons[38].

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, England, owing to the contributions of its scholars, thinkers, and writers, and the originality of its political systems, had a great influence, which it began to exert on the educated elite of the people of the continent[39]Means of transportation via the canals developed much more than land transportation, and the commercial fleet became Between 1786 and 1787 AD, the English represented 26% of the European population, and the illiteracy rate decreased significantly, as half of the men in England knew how to write in the middle of the eighteenth century, and three-quarters of the number in Scotland[40].

During this period, British slave traders engagedin the slave trade from West Africa to the West India, and it was a pillar of Britain's trade with America. The slave trade increased dramatically following the "Treaty of Utrecht" in 1713 AD, as England had a monopoly on bringing slaves to America[41], until it was cancelled in 1833 AD.

During that period, the principle of balance of power began to play a significant role in international politics, since the seventeenth century, and especially since the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 AD. It was announced for the first time in the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 AD between Spain and England[42] Europe 1714 is the Europe of balance between countries Not one of them, or even one of the three important countries: France, Austria, and England, can claim to impose its domination on the continent.

In 1714 AD,following the War of the Spanish Succession,(1702-1713 AD), and the Treaty of Utrecht and Warstadt, 1713-1714 AD), England became a first-level country, and its greatness was above all in freedom and trade. The benefits it gained in this regard from the Treaty of Methuen with Portugal, and from the Treaty of Utrecht with Spain, supported and accelerated its great rise since the years 1660 AD, and clearly confirmed the superiority of British trade almost everywhere in the world: in the Baltic, in the Mediterranean, in the Ocean. Indian, at the expense of the Dutch.In the Atlantic Ocean and in America, at the expense of the French, Portuguese and Spanish. London, with its Stock Exchange and the Bank of England, replaced Amsterdam as a global economic centre[43], and England soon established its foothold

in Gibraltar with the recognition of the ownership of the mountain by Austria, France, Spain and the Netherlands in the Treaty of Utrich in 1713 AD[44].

The English clashed with some European countries when they perceiveda threatto their colonies from the presence of Dutch property as a barrier between them in America, the English government sent an expedition in 1664 AD that seized the Dutch property, and thus the English colonies came into contact with each other.

It was not until the year 1733 AD that thirteen English colonies had been established on the eastern shore of North America, extending about a thousand miles, and inhabited by about two million people. These colonies are: Virginia (1607 AD), New Hampshire (1623 AD), Massachusetts (1629 AD), Maryland (1634 AD), Rhodeland (1636 AD), North Carolina (1653 AD), Connecticut (1662 AD), and New Jersey(1664 AD), New York (1664 AD), South Carolina (1670 AD), Delaware (1674 AD), Pennsylvania (1682 AD), and Georgia (1733 AD)[45].

However, Britain's traditional rival in Europe was France, where the two nations continued to war for more than seventy years (between 1689 and 1815 AD). At that time, France was the strongest land country, and Britain was the strongest maritime country.

In the year 1697 AD, peace was established, but war erupted again when Louis XIV granted the throne of Spain to his grandson. Unfortunately, for Louis, William died while he was preparing for war, because Queen Anne - who inherited William - appointed John Churchill, Duke of Mulberry, as commander of her army[46].

However, the period of war was interrupted by a temporary period of peace. After the deaths of Queen Anne and Louis In 1715 AD, elderly lords appointed Prince of Hanover a German protestant George to be the first King of Britain, the French King Louis XV was still a boy. Here came a long period of peace lasting twenty-five years as a result of the policy of the nobleman of Norfolk, Sir Robert Walpole, who was the first prime minister in Britain, and the policy of the brilliant elderly Cardinal Flodi, who ruled France on behalf of Louis They gained little from the war, and their countries became enriched and prospered under their rule[47].

2. Reasons for concluding and the text of treaty:

2.1- Reasons for concluding the treaty:

During the eighteenth century, Algerian diplomacy aimed to expand its peaceful relations with European countries, especially those with interests in the Mediterranean. A peace treaty was concluded with Sweden a year ago1729 AD, with Denmark in 1746 AD, with Hamburg in 1751 AD, and with Venice in 1761 AD, crowning them with a peace treaty with Spain, which was concluded in June of the year 1785 AD[48].

Additionally, European countries were renewing and confirming previous treaties and agreements by adding some clauses, including what France did in approving and confirming the peace treaty concluded between it and Algeria in 1689 AD, in March 1724 AD.

Garrow states: "The Christian maritime countries, against which Algeria - as "Le Boulverd du Djihad" - declared permanent war, thought themselves obligated to buy a truce from time to time and intermittently from the Algerians (... As for France, England, Spain, and the Italian countries: Sardinia, Tuscany, and Venice, they offered gifts, in cash or equipment, every two years, which is the same thing.

Xazavier Bardon notes: "Thus, to ensure the security of their commercial fleets, all European countries agreed to pay annual taxes, often burdensome for them, to that cruel and turbulent government, which was always at war (meaning Algeria). If France, thanks to its ancient relations with the Sublime Porte, No special price was imposed on it. However, on the sending of each new consul, it sent valuable gifts to Algeria along with letters of credit.

Consul to gain acceptance. For the same reason, self-important England (la fièreAngletterre) was forced to suppress her pride, insult her naval power, and pay the pirate government in Algeria huge sums of money. Thus, all major countries in Europe followed the same rule, even America. Upon each appointment of a new consul, each of these governments must send its representative valuable gifts (...) In addition, it paid a huge annual tax to the Algerian treasury. Thus, this treasury was the richest treasury in the universe[49].

2.2 Text of the treaty:

Treaty between Great Britain and Algeria was signed in Algeria on March 18, 1729 AD:

It is confirmed and agreed that henceforth the agreement signed between Arthur Herbert [in the year 1682], after him Admiral of His Majesty's Navy, and Sir William Sommes, Ambassador to the Great Lord in the year 1686, in addition to the provisions added and agreed upon with Captain Munden and Consul Cole in 1700, and Vice-Admiral of the Red Squadron of His Majesty's Navy in 1703, as well as the terms agreed upon with Captain Norbury, and Captain Thomas Tomfon, His Majesty's Consul in Algeria in 1716, which were renewed and confirmed with Vice-Admiral Philip Govandilb", as these provisions must be respected by Great Britain, the Dey of Algiers, and all the territories belonging to the Queen and Algiers, as well as citizens on both sides. It is also not permissible to inflict harm on ships or on citizens, whether by word or deed. He must also deal with Citizens of both parties with all respect and appreciation[50].

2.3. Analysis of the treaty:

Britain's relations with the Ottoman Empire began early, as the Ottoman Sultan granted the first trade concession to the English in the year 1580 AD, then granted them another concession that was broader than the first in the year1583 AD.

The first treaties, that is, in 1580 AD, concluded between the Sublime Porte and England, did not differ from the trade guarantees that they provided to France and Venice[51].

As for Algeria, its relations with Britain began peaceful, positive, based on friendship and cooperation, and although they included several raids by England, for the most part, harmony prevailed for centuries, to the point that one of its kings offered to one of the Deys of Algeria an alliance against European countries. The other and the United States of America, then an emergency occurred just before the French aggression[52].

The English bombed the city of Algiers for the first time in 1620 under the leadership of Robert Mansel[53], and their attacks on Algeria were repeated during the years: 1621-1671-1816-1823-1824 AD[54].

Britain's policy towards Algeria was aimed at the same goals that France was seeking to achieve, even if it resorted to means other than those used by its opponent. Whenever peace prevails in Europe, Britain never thinks of flattery to increase the pride of Algerians and others. Rather, on ordinary occasions, it shows a lot of miserliness in the gifts it offers[55].

Xazavier Bardon says: "Thus, to ensure the security of their commercial fleets, all European countries agreed to pay annual taxes, often burdensome to them, to that cruel and furious government, (...) and for the same reason England was forced.It is so proud of herself that it pressures her pride and insults her naval power, in order to pay the pirate government in Algeria huge sums of money.

Dupuy says on the first page of the first chapter after the introduction, in his huge book, "The Americans and the Barbarians": "England, despite the fear that her freedom inspired, would not deviate from adhering to this general rule, regarding the payment of annual taxes to Algeria.[56].

England concluded or renewed 20 treaties with Algeria between 1622 and 1824 AD, the most important of which was the treaty of 1682 AD, upon which all subsequent treaties were built, such as the treaties of 1703, 1716, and 1729 AD. The treaty concluded with England in 1662, according to which the state of war between the two countries was ended, despite The principle of reciprocity and peer-to-peer contracting was taken into account in this agreement. However, we note that its practical benefits were more in the interest of England than in the interest of Algeria because of its qualification and availability of means that enable it to benefit practically from this contract more than the other party[57].

Another treaty was also signed in 1682, and the greatest credit for this is due to the efforts of Consul Samuel Martin (1674-1680), who promised the Diwan in 1676 AD that England would limit the number of foreigners traveling on board its ships and would not provoke attacks against Algerian pirates, if they were not offended. In return, English merchant ships were required to undergo a method of obtaining permission or inspection by pirates[58].

If Britain is pursuing a policy towards Algeria that is not characterized by the same perseverance and perseverance that characterizes French policy, and is targeting the same goals that its rival seeks to achieve, it is nevertheless always demanding - and not in vain.

With the same respect and status as France. But Britain compromises in times of war to compete with its rival in offering appeasement and fawning to these pirates, something that contradicts its character.

Regarding the nature of the relationship between the two countries, William Shaller, the American consul in Algeria, says: "I tend to believe, given the wrong policy pursued by Britain towards Algeria, that it looks at Algeria under the influence of old impressions, when the Netherlands was its largest maritime competitor, and that it did not appreciate the importance." The truth that this barbaric state has the right to appreciate, because I do not see Britain conspiring in Algeria, in general, against any country other than France[59].

3. CONCLUSION

During the modern age, Algeria was a central state in international relations, both in times of war and peace , and played a significantrole in British foreign policy in the southern waters. As a result, the Kingdom of Great Britain sought to gain Algeria's favor and friendship- not out of love for Algeria or fear of its power, as Algeria never posed a direct threat to Great Britain's security.Instead,Britain's goal was to limit the scope of Algerian naval piracy, and prevent attacks on British commercial ships in the the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The Algerian maritime threat primarly impacted Great Britain's economic security by targeting British commercial vessels and plundering their wealth.

Therefore, Great Britain followed the approach of other European nations, both large and small, and proposing an agreement with Algeria. This led to the the signing of a renewed peace treaty between the two countriesin 1729. Thus, Algeria secured a new patron for its economy and fleet, receiving significantdues and materials for naval construction materials. Great Britain joined the group of nations paying tributes to Algeriaand establisheda consulate there, following the example of France, Holland, Sweden, to manage Britain's political and economic interests.

4. ***CITATIONS*:**

[1]Othman Kaak (2003), Summary of the General History of Algeria, presented and reviewed by Abu al-QasimSaadallah, Nasser al-Din Saidouni and others, first edition, Dar al-Gharb al-Islami, Beirut, p 292.

[2]Muhammad bin Abdul Rahman Al-Jilali (1995), General History of Algeria, Part Three, First Edition, Office of University Publications, Algeria, p. 220.

[3]H. D. De Grammont (1741), Correspondances des Consuls d'ALGER, Lettres de Jonville to Mrs Echevins et Députes du commerce de Marseille, p 283.

[4]Hussein bin Rajab Shawsh bin Al-Mufti (2009), Ibn Al-Mufti's Restrictions on the History of the Pashas of Algeria and its Scholars, collected and taken care of by Professor Fares Kawan, first edition, House of Wisdom, Algeria, pp. 61-62.

[5]J. O. Habenstrait (undated), The Journey of the German Scientist: J. O. Habenstrait to Algeria, Tunisia, and Tripoli (1145 AH - 1732 AD), translation, presentation and commentary: Prof. Dr. Nasser al-Din Saidouni, Dar al-Gharb al-Islami, Tunisia, p. 22.

[6]Ibn al-Mufti, Op. Cit, pp. 61-62.

[7]Habenstreit, Op. Cit, p p. 22- 28.

[8]De Grammont, Op. Cit, p. 283.

[9]On the Algerians' ability to liberate the city of Oran from the grip of the Spanish, see: Ahmed TawfiK Al-Madani, The Three Hundred Years' War between Algeria and Spain 1492-1792, National Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria, undated, pp. 453-463.

[10]On the return of Spanish colonial control over the city of Oran, see: Al-Madani, ibid., pp. 475-481.

[11]Ibn al-Mufti, Op. Cit, p. 62.

[12]Habenstreit, Op. Cit, p. 22.

[13]Ibn al-Mufti, Op. Cit, pp. 61-62.

[14]Habenstreit, Op. Cit, p. 22.

[15]Ibn al-Mufti, Op. Cit, pp. 70-72.

[16]ErnestMercier (1937), "Constantine avant la conquête française", in Revue Africaine, p 09.

[17]Abdel Majeed bin Omar Al-Ayyari (1997), Mukhtir fi al-Tarikh (1705-1955), Antiquities and Civilization, Part Two, published by Charles Picard Guilbart, pp. 30-33.

[18]Ibn al-Mufti, op. cit, pp. 70-72.

[19]William Spencer (2006), Algeria during the reign of Rias al-Bahr, Arabized and presented by AbdelkaderZabadia, Dar Al-Qasba for Publishing, Algeria, 2006, p. 178.

[20]Ahmed TewfiK Al-Madani (1931), Kitab Al-Jazair, Arab Press, Algeria, p. 38.

[21]Spencer, op. cit., p. 180.

[22]Abdel Karim Al-Filali (2006), The Political History of the Greater Arab Maghreb, Part Four, First Edition, TASS Printing Company, Cairo, p. 375.

[23]Al-Madani, op. cit., pp. 37-38.

[24]Al-Madani, op. cit, pp. 37-38.

[25]Abu Al-Qasim Saadallah (2007), Research and Opinions in the History of Algeria, Part One, Special Edition, Dar Al-Basa'ir for Publishing and Distribution, Algeria, pp. 316-317.

[26]John Babsett Wolfe (2009), Algeria and Europe (1500-1830 AD), translated and commented by Abu Al-QasimSaadallah, special edition, Dar Al-Raed, Algeria, p. 410.

[27]Saleh Abbad (2008), Algeria during Turkish rule (1514-1830 AD), second edition, Dar Houma, Algeria, p. 155.

[28]Jamal Qannan (1987), Algeria's Treaties with France (1619-1830 AD), National Book Foundation, Algeria, pp. 173-175.

[29]Jamal Qanan (1994), Issues and Studies in the Modern and Contemporary History of Algeria, Publications of the Mujahid National Museum, printed by the National Foundation for Communication, Publishing and Advertising, Algeria, pp. 52-53.

[30]Al-Madani, kitabe..., pp. 34-38

[31]Al-Filali, op. cit, p. 183.

[32]to. C. Sheni (undated), History of the Western World, translated by: Majd al-Din HifniNassif, reviewed by: Ali Adham, Dar al-Nahda al-Arabiya, Cairo, p. 241.

[33]Zainab Ismat Abdel Majeed (undated), The History of Modern Europe from the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century to the End of the Eighteenth Century, Dar Al-Fikr Al-Arabi, Cairo, p. 333.

[34]Abdel Majeed, op. cit, p. 333.

[35]Nour al-Din Hatoum (1986), The History of the Seventeenth Century in Europe, first edition, Dar al-Fikr for Printing, Distribution and Publishing, Damascus, p. 548.

[36]Abdel Majeed, op. cit, p p. 268- 277.

[37]During this period, Britain concluded several peace treaties and agreements, including those signed with Al-Aqsa Morocco in the year 1729. "When Sultan Mawla Abdullah bin Ismail sat on the throne of power, we find him sending a letter to George II on Dhu al-Qa'dah 25, 1141 AH - June 22, 1729 AD, with a letter to The Moroccan monarch had it brought to him in Zahir Fez by Consul John Russell, who had previously visited Morocco two years before, and there, on July 10, 1729 AD, he obtained confirmation of the agreement that Stuart had concluded with Mawla Ismail in the year 1721 AD. See: Abdel Hadi Al-Tazi (1986), The Diplomatic History of Morocco from the Earliest Times to Today, Volume Nine: The Era of the Alawites, Fadala Press, Muhammadiyah, Morocco, p. 171.

[38]Abdel Majeed, op. cit, pp. 336-337.

[39]Hatoum, op. cit, p. 556.

[40]Jean Berenguer, Yves Durand, Philippe Contamine, Francis Rapp (1995), Encyclopedia of General European History (2): Europe from the fourteenth century until the end of the eighteenth century, translated by: Wajih Al-Baini, reviewed by: Antoine A. Al-Hashem, first edition, Oweidat Publications, Beirut-Paris, pp. 502-506.

[41]Abdel Azim Ramadan (1997), History of Europe and the World in the Modern Era, Part One, Egyptian General Book Authority, Egypt, p. 263.

[42]Omar Abdel Aziz Omar (2000), Modern and Contemporary History of Europe (1815-1919), University Knowledge House, Egypt, p. 14.

[43]Hatoum, op. cit, pp. 527- 528.

[44]Al-Tazi, op. cit, p. 167.

[45]Ramadan, op. cit, p. 263.

[46]Sheeny, op. cit., pp. 254- 256.

[47]Ibid, p. 257.

[48]Qanan, op. cit, p. 52.

[49]Mouloud Kacem Nait Belkacem (2007), Algeria's international character and global prestige before 1830, Part One, Second Edition, Dar Al Umma Printing, Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria, pp. 77-78.

[50]EXTRACTS, FROM THE SERVALE TREATIES SUBSISTING BETWEEN GRAET BRITAIN AND OTHER KINGDOMS AND STATES, OF SUCH ARTICLES AND CLAUSES, as relate to the Duty and Conduct of the COMMANDERS OF His MAJESTY's SHIPS of WAR, THE THIRD EDITION, LONDON, Printed in the Year MDCCLVIII, P 272.

[51]Idris Al-Nasser Raisi (2008), Ottoman-European Relations in the Sixteenth Century, first edition, Dar Al-Hadi for Printing, Publishing and Distribution, Beirut, p. 159.

[52]Nait Belkacem, op. cit, p. 181.

[53]Spencer, op. cit., p. 178.

[54]Al-Filali, op. Cit., p. 36.

[55]William Schaller (1982), Memoirs of William Schaller, American Consul in Algeria [1816-1824], Arabized, commented and presented by: Ismail Al-Arabi, National Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria, p. 134.

[56]Nait Belkacem, op. Cit., pp. 78-79.

[57]Qanan, op. cit, p. 49.

[58]Spencer, op. cit., p. 178.

[59]Schaller, op. Cit., pp. 134-135.

5. ***Bibliography List*:**

- Abdel Azim Ramadan (1997), History of Europe and the World in the Modern Era, Part One, Egyptian General Book Authority, Egypt

- Abdel Hadi Al-Tazi (1986), The Diplomatic History of Morocco from the Earliest Times to Today, Volume Nine: The Era of the Alawites, Fadala Press, Muhammadiyah, Morocco

- Abdel Karim Al-Filali (2006), The Political History of the Greater Arab Maghreb, Part Four, First Edition, TASS Printing Company, Cairo

- Abdel Majeed bin Omar Al-Ayyari (1997), Mukhtir fi al-Tarikh (1705-1955), Antiquities and Civilization, Part Two, published by Charles Picard Guilbart

- Abu Al-Qasim Saadallah (2007), Research and Opinions in the History of Algeria, Part One, Special Edition, Dar Al-Basa'ir for Publishing and Distribution, Algeria

- Ahmed TawfiK Al-Madani (1931), Kitab Al-Jazair, Arab Press, Algeria

- Ahmed TawfiK Al-Madani (undated), The Three Hundred Years' War between Algeria and Spain 1492-1792, National Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria

- C. Sheni (undated), History of the Western World, translated by: Majd al-Din HifniNassif, reviewed by: Ali Adham, Dar al-Nahda al-Arabiya, Cairo

- ErnestMercier (1937), "Constantine avant la conquête française", in Revue Africaine.

- EXTRACTS, FROM THE SERVALE TREATIES SUBSISTING BETWEEN GRAET BRITAIN AND OTHER KINGDOMS AND STATES, OF SUCH ARTICLES AND CLAUSES, as relate to the Duty and Conduct of the COMMANDERS OF His MAJESTY's SHIPS of WAR, THE THIRD EDITION, LONDON, Printed in the Year MDCCLVIII

- H. D. De Grammont (1741), Correspondances des Consuls d'ALGER, Lettres de Jonville to Mrs Echevins et Députes du commerce de Marseille

- Hussein bin Rajab Shawsh bin Al-Mufti (2009), Ibn Al-Mufti's Restrictions on the History of the Pashas of Algeria and its Scholars, collected and taken care of by Professor Fares Kawan, first edition, House of Wisdom, Algeria

- Idris Al-Nasser Raisi (2008), Ottoman-European Relations in the Sixteenth Century, first edition, Dar Al-Hadi for Printing, Publishing and Distribution, Beirut

- J. O. Habenstrait (undated), The Journey of the German Scientist: J. O. Habenstrait to Algeria, Tunisia, and Tripoli (1145 AH - 1732 AD), translation, presentation and commentary: Prof. Dr. Nasser al-Din Saidouni, Dar al-Gharb al-Islami, Tunisia

- Jamal Qanan (1994), Issues and Studies in the Modern and Contemporary History of Algeria, Publications of the Mujahid National Museum, printed by the National Foundation for Communication, Publishing and Advertising, Algeria

- Jamal Qannan (1987), Algeria's Treaties with France (1619-1830 AD), National Book Foundation, Algeria

- Jean Berenguer, Yves Durand, Philippe Contamine, Francis Rapp (1995), Encyclopedia of General European History (2): Europe from the fourteenth century until the end of the eighteenth century, translated by: Wajih Al-Baini, reviewed by: Antoine A. Al-Hashem, first edition, Oweidat Publications, Beirut-Paris

- John Babsett Wolfe (2009), Algeria and Europe (1500-1830 AD), translated and commented by Abu

- Mouloud Kacem Nait Belkacem (2007), Algeria's international character and global prestige before 1830, Part One, Second Edition, Dar Al Umma Printing, Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria

- Muhammad bin Abdul Rahman Al-Jilali (1995), General History of Algeria, Part Three, First Edition, Office of University Publications, Algeria

- Nour al-Din Hatoum (1986), The History of the Seventeenth Century in Europe, first edition, Dar al-Fikr for Printing, Distribution and Publishing, Damascus

- Omar Abdel Aziz Omar (2000), Modern and Contemporary History of Europe (1815-1919), University Knowledge House, Egypt

- Othman Kaak (2003), Summary of the General History of Algeria, presented and reviewed by Abu al-QasimSaadallah, Nasser al-Din Saidouni and others, first edition, Dar al-Gharb al-Islami, Beirut

- Saleh Abbad (2008), Algeria during Turkish rule (1514-1830 AD), second edition, Dar Houma, Algeria

- William Schaller (1982), Memoirs of William Schaller, American Consul in Algeria [1816-1824], Arabized, commented and presented by: Ismail Al-Arabi, National Publishing and Distribution Company, Algeria

- William Spencer (2006), Algeria during the reign of Rias al-Bahr, Arabized and presented by AbdelkaderZabadia, Dar Al-Qasba for Publishing, Algeria, 2006

- Zainab Ismat Abdel Majeed (undated), The History of Modern Europe from the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century to the End of the Eighteenth Century, Dar Al-Fikr Al-Arabi, Cairo.