



**Department of History and International Studies**

**Edo University Iyamho, Edo State, Nigeria**

**HIS 215: North Africa: The Maghreb 1800 – 1900**

**(2 Credit Units)**

**Introduction:** The course explores the study of the indigenous people of the Northern Africa, the nature of and effects of geographical factors and foreign conquest, the processes of state formation, the study of Egypt to the Napoleonic era, the character of European imperialism, colonial rule, Islamic politics and the emergence of modern states in the Maghreb, European rivalry in Egypt and condominium government in the Sudan. It also introduces students to nationalism and pattern of post-independence developments in the Maghreb.

**Aim and Objectives:** The aim of the course, i.e. HIS 215 North Africa: The Maghreb, 1800-1900 is to expose students to issues of external influences and its impact on an indigenous people, this time the North Africa States.

Objectively, at the end of the course, students would be acquainted with some of the indigenous culture of the North Africa Arabs, external influences, state formation and the drive for nationalism. It would also explain the dynamics of European politics especially in the road to independence.

**Significance of the study:** This could be demonstrated in three perspectives: to encourage Nigerian students to have knowledge of North Africa people and their history; to show the interaction of West Africa and North Africa before European incursion and to bridge the vacuum between them as a result of a colonial aftermath.

**Course Synopsis**

- The states of the Maghreb and its people
- The nature of Turkish Rule in the Maghreb
- Turkish Rule in Algeria
- Turkish Rule in Tunisia
- Husainid Dynasty
- The Algerian Imperial Ambition in Tunisia
- Hammuda Beg Rule in Tunisia
- Ottoman Rule in Libya
- The rule of Qaramanli in Libya
- Relations between the Maghreb and Europe Anglo-Moroccan Friendship
- The reasons why the Europeans were interested in the Occupation of Morocco in the

19th Century.

- Commercial Relations between Algeria and the French
- Trade links between Tunisia and Italy
- Berbers and European Piracy on the Med. Sea

- The French Occupation of Algeria and Algerian Response

### **Motives for French Invasion**

- Establishment of French Rule in Algeria
- Algerian Response
- The Man Abdel Kadir
- The Effects of the French Invasion of Algeria on North African States
- Alsadiqs Extravagance and the Country's Bankruptcy
- The Imperialist Interest in Tunisia
- The Second Coming of Turkish Rule in Tunisia
- The French Occupation of Tunisia
- The Imperialists Interest in Morocco
- The Rule of El-Hassan III

### **The States of the Maghreb and its Peoples**

Maghreb is the collective name given to Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya by the Arabs. They referred to the area as the land of sunset. The Maghreb consist of a coastal strip known as the Tell, followed by mountain Ranges beyond which is the Sahara desert. It is strategically located between the sea-bond trade of the Mediterranean and the caravan across the Sahara.

The native people were the Berbers. The Berbers belonged to the various tribal groups. The three major groups among the Berbers were Zenata, Sanhaja and Masmuda. Most of them were predominantly nomadic people. The original inhabitant of the Phoenicians brought the young Mediterranean civilization to the Maghreb. At first the Phoenicians sailors established a landing place at short interval on the Maghrebian coast.

Gradually, commercial relations with the Berbers were established. The Phoenicians bartered with their manufactured goods for such articles like Hides and elephant ivory. The earliest

Phoenician settlement was probably Lixus on the Atlantic Coast of Morocco. Carthage was later founded by the end of the 9th century BC. Carthage later became the most important of all the established settlements. She had a great influence on the life of the native Berbers. The Berbers had learnt to settle in agricultural kingdoms by the end of the Carthaginian period. The wars between Carthage and Rome led to the destruction of Carthage in 146 BC.

After this, the first Roman period began in the Maghreb. The Romans had special interest in the area because of its farm products. Rome depended largely on the products of the Maghreb to feed her population. During the Roman period, there was a great Roman influence on the Maghreb. In 429 AD, Vandals made their appearance under King Gaiseric. They defeated the imperial representative and established themselves in the Maghreb. There was the second Roman period as a result of the conquest of the Vandals by the Eastern Roman

Empire. Byzantine with its capital, Constantinople. This was followed by the Arabs invasion of the Maghreb.

Spain and Portugal reacted to the Muslim conquest and carried their fight across the straits of Gibraltar into the Maghreb. There were repeated invasions on the Maghreb States.

#### A. The Nature of Turkish Rule in the Maghreb

In order to consolidate her authority over the areas under her control, a regiment of the army was stationed in different parts of the Turkish Empire. The army was recruited from different parts of the empire. Some officers in the army” sent gifts to the Sultan, showing their loyalties to him having sought permission to rule some is that belonged to the empire.

The Turkish maintained her control effectively in the Maghreb so as to curb ambition of the Spanish who wanted to spread the Christian religion in the area was why she established her rule over the three countries of the Maghreb i.e. Algeria, Libya and Tunisia. Morocco was, however, not governed by the Turkish. Nonetheless, the Turkish rule was not effective among the Berbers, particularly those of the Sanhaja, Masmuda and Zenata groups who lived in the Blad es Siba, “the country of disobedience” were traditionally unsubmitive. On the other hand, the Blad es Maknes Berbers, that is Berbers living in the country of submission, who had common boundary with plains and Coastal areas, however, accepted the administrative and political over lordship of the Sultan.

Meanwhile, the Turks had vested interest in the Maghreb for religious and political reasons. However, their presence in the early decade of the sixteenth century was in response to an invitation by the people of Algiers who wanted to be rescued from Spanish domination. Thus, it was in order to rid themselves of the Spanish menace that the people of Algiers asked for the co-operation of the Turkish Corsair known as Aruj. This invitation eventually led to the establishment of Turkish control of Algiers and other part of Central and Eastern Maghreb. Therefore, the real architect of Ottoman rule in Maghreb were the Corsair, Aruj and his

brother, Khair-al-Din, whom the Christians called the Barbarossas from their red beards. The Barbarossa brothers were four namely Aruj, Khair-al-Din, Ishaq and Elias. However, only two of them as already mentioned acquired great fame. These brothers were foreigners to the Maghreb. They came from the Greek Island called Mytilene where their father had been a member of the Turkish garrison and was believed to be a Greek converted to Islam. These four brothers therefore were born Muslims. From their youths, they displayed remarkable aptitude for piracy. In the course of their pirateering activities, they encountered a sudden attack in which Elias was killed and Aruj only manage to escape. After this incident, he left the Greek Archipelago with his surviving brothers and moved his theatre of operation to the Western Mediterranean. From about 1504 onwards, these brothers embarked on a career as Sea Rovers, using as their base a place called Gouletta in Tunisia. They ruled Algeria, Tunisia as well as the present day Bona, Constantine and Algiers, the capital of Algeria. They got the support of the authority of the then Sultan of Turkey,

Hafis Mohammad Ibn Al-Hassan to administer the area. Ibn al-Hassan who was interested in their activities because he was receiving a share of their profits. In 1510, they were also authorised by the Sultan to establish a second base in the highland of Jirba. Indeed from 1504-1505. Aruj and his brothers acquired a great reputation among the Muslims for their competence in attacking Christian vessels particularly, Spanish vessels. The Sultan found them useful because they helped in countering Spanish attack on the Maghreb. Not only that, Aruj and his brothers build up a naval force of about 12 ships which the Hafsid Sultan could request to use on his behalf, but indeed, in the process of serving the Hafsid, Sultan, Aruj lost one of his arms in an encounter. By 1514, he had started establishing an independence for himself and his brothers. This end, he moved to a place called Jijilli, where he installed himself and developed the place as a strong base for piracy. This Barbarossa brother desperate adventure. These attitudes of the adventures were later emulated in Libya and Algeria by other adventures who were champions in their respective states.

### **Turkish Rule in Algeria**

From 1525, Turkish rule was firmly rooted in Algeria and Algiers became the principal centre of Ottoman authority in the Maghreb region. Algeria was used as a springboard to wage wars on the Spaniards and as a gateway to Morocco. The foundation of the military organisation was laid by Khair al-Din Barbarossa. At the head of the organisation was an officer-the beylerbey (Governor or General) appointed by the Porte to rule Algiers. He also controlled the Pashas of Tunis and Tripoli. He became the supreme Ottoman authority in Western Mediterranean and waged wars against the Christians especially Spain.

Hasan Pasha, the son of Khair al-Barbarossa, was the Beylerbey (Governor general) from 1544 to 1552. Beylerbey Ulj Ali who met his demise in 1587 was the last of the governor general.

After his death the system of government in Algeria was modified. The modified system started 1671 and lasted till 1830, as a military oligarchy under a foreign army which was well trained and well-armed. This was a system of army ruled by a small section of top officers in the army. The D

ey was elected by the militia from 1689. Before this time, the chiefs of the seamen (the Ra'is) were in the limelight. However, the killing of Agha Ali the Regency from 1664 and the assassination of his predecessors since 1659 led to the replacement of the Agha of the Jamissary Corps. The seamen led by the Ra'is chose a ruler from among themselves and gave him the title of Dey. The Pasha sent from Istanbul retained the ceremonial but exercised no power over the regency.

The power of the military reached a culmination in 1710 when the Dey took over the title of Pasha. Thus the Dey became both the nominal and the real head of government of Algeria. This system lasted till about 1830 when the area was occupied by the French colonial masters. The Dey was assisted in his government by a council known as the Diwans. This Diwan consisted of the Dey's confidants and also included 4 ministers of state. As the head of government, he was directly responsible for the administration of Algiers, its suburb and the Mitidja plain around it. That is the country side.

The rest of the country was divided into 3 provinces (Beyliks) under Beys holding direct responsibilities to the Dey. These Beyliks were:

- I. Central province of Tittari with capital at Midia
- II. Western province with capital at Oran after 1792 when it was evacuated by the Spaniards.
- III. Eastern province with Constantine as capital

The Beys were given contingents from among the Ujaq. Auxiliary soldiers were also recruited from the privileged tribes (the Makhzan tribes). The Beys became almost absolute rulers of their countries. They only had to collect and remit taxes regularly to Algiers. Overall, the purpose of the administration was to preserve peace, administer justice and collect taxes. But the taxes collected were almost entirely spent in paying the salaries of the military class. The result was that public works and education (Islamic) were totally neglected in the state during the military era in Algeria. During the same period, because the military neglected development urban life declined with the exception of Algiers and probably Constantine, the main cities of Algiers lost their importance during this period.

Tlemecen in particular lost its position as a centre of commerce and culture. During this period, Tlemecen was put in charge of a Konloghli chief, who had no culture to offer. It could therefore be seen that Turkish rule in Algeria did not have much impact on the people of the area.

### **The Main Features of Turkish Administration of Algeria up to 1830**

The features included:

- a. it was military Oligarchic government. It rested upon the existence of a foreign army relatively well trained and armed, in whose interest the country was ruled.
- b. The Bey was assisted in his functions by a diwan consisting of his confidants, and including five ministers of state.

c. The rest of the country was divided into three provinces (Beylinks) governed by Bays directly responsible to the Dey.

d. Nominal Suzerainty o the Ottoman Sultan and concurrence of indigenous notables.

e. The taxes that were collected were almost entirely spent on paying salaries of the militia with the result that public works and education were neglected.

f. Besides the headship of the entire government<sup>1</sup> the Dey was directly responsible for the administration of Algerias and its suburb.

g. The soldiers were allowed to marry women from the country but their offspring were rarely admitted into the militia.

## **Turkish Rule in Tunisia**

Tunisia was another Beylik of the Turkish administration since the end of the 16th century.

However, the political, economic and social reforms of Tunisia were better than that of Algeria.

This could be attributed to the rulers, that is. The Beys who carried out reforms,

Like other parts of the Maghrib, Tunisia had its own taste of Islamic dynastic rivalries. This

state of affairs existed during the Hafsid dynasty which was terminated early in the 16th

century. The dynasty became weakened due to the open defiance of the Tunis authority by the

local rulers in the south especially during the reign of Muhammad b al-Hasan (1493-1526). He

had given Aruj the green light to establish This base at Gouletta and Jirba(then ruled by al Samu

mni Yahija al Samumni later led Jirbans to repulse the Spaniards in 1510.

A new dynasty from the al-Shabi family emerged in the south based in Susa and gained control

of Qairawa". Only the northern part was under the rule of Sultan al-Hasan. He was unable to

confront the Turkish onslaught hence he sought protection from the Spaniards. When Khair al-

Din Barbarossa captured Tunis in 1534, al-Hasan fled to Spain seeking for aid. He was

reinstated in 1535 as a Spanish protégé. A Spanish garrison was established in Gouletta to

help keep order. By 1542, he was supplanted by his son -Ahmad who became a Spanish

subject. When Ulj Ali captured Tunis in 1556, he, like his father, employed Spanish hands to

regain his domain in 1573. He was later exiled to Sicily and was replaced by his brother Muham

ad.

However, Muhammad was deported to Istanbul after Sinan Pasha defeated him in 1574 thus

ending the Hafsid dynasty. With a force of some 400 men divided into a group of 100 each

commanded by an officer called the Dey. Pasha was able to maintain the Turkish rule. Initially

the head of the Ottoman administration was the Pasha appointed by Porte and assisted by a Bey

who supervised the internal administration.

Between 1574 and 1591, a governing council-Diwan- made up of senior army officers (buluk- ba

shis) and notables from Tunis came into existence like in Algeria.

Following a mutiny in 1591, most of the members of Diwan were massacred by the troops. They rotted the Pasha to appoint one of them (a junior officer) the Dey, to be in charge of law and order in the capital and also in charge of military affairs. The Deys elected one of them the chief Dey to be virtual ruler of the country.

Between 1598 and 1705, about seven Deys ruled in Tunisia. Some of them were Uthman Dey(1598-1610), Yusuff Dey (1610-1637), Murad Bey who was made the Pasha, Hammuda (1631-66) and so on. The last of the Muradist Beys (Murad b' Ali) was assassinated in 1702 and the Agha of the Spahis (cavalry leader)-Ibrahim al-Sharif became the ruler acting as Bey and Dey combined. His rule lasted till 1705 after which the Dey of Algiers Ashshi Mustafa defeated him and took him hostage to Algiers. Mustapha invaded Tunisia because he

wanted territorial aggrandisement. It was during this crisis that a new dynasty rose to power in Tunisia, named Husainid. It was dynasty (Husainid Dynasty) that ruled Tunisia until 1957.

### **Husainid Dynasty**

The Husainid dynasty of Tunisia was founded by Hussain Ibn Ali, an Ottoman of Greek origin. The need to flush out the Algerian army of occupation led to the emergence of the Husainid dynasty.

Hussain had been playing important role in the affairs of Tunis since 1705. Before then, he was the Agha of the Spahis in Beja. He actively took part in the expulsion of the Algerian invaders in 1705. He succeeded Ibrahim al-Sharif who had earlier nominated al-Asfar Dey to succeed him because Hussain was an outsider to the infantry janissary troops. Hussain gained the support of the local inhabitants by identifying himself with the native opposition to the Turkish soldiers. Consequently, he was able to recapture power with the support of the Tunisian Berbers in January 1706. The policy of enlisting the interest of the local Berber was also reflected in the administration which Hussain established. This was particularly evident in judicial matters. In such matters, the Maliki law were followed. He built mosques and schools. Agriculture was also boosted through planting of olives. Hussain became popular among Tunisian natives who preferred him to Ottoman functionaries. This became very evident in 1715 when the Kapudan Pasha attempted to displace Hussain from power. The Kapudan Pasha had tried to impose a Tunisian notable as governor of Tunisia by name Muhammad b Mustafa. This move was however opposed by a council comprising the Ulama members of the Diwan and the army chiefs.

### **The Algerian Imperial Ambition in Tunisia**

From 1705, the Algerian rulers nursed the ambition to gain control of Tunisia. This continued for 50 years. It was the chief cause of tribal conflicts until Ali Pasha emerged as Tunisian ruler in 1756. The two conflicting tribes were the Pashiyya and the Hussainiyya supporting Ali Pasha and his uncle Hussain respectively. What led to this conflict was the promise given by the Hussain

in 1709 to Ali Pasha that he would succeed him since at that time he had no male heir. However, when Hussain got a son later he told Ali Pasha that he could no longer succeed him and he compensated him with a provincial post. Ah Pasha was disappointed and so went on to instigate the Algerians to invade Tunisia on his behalf. In the ensuing contest Hussain was killed in 1740. Ali Pasha took over the throne and reigned till 1756.

The Hussainid family was restored to the Tunisian throne in 1756 with Algerian forces. The two sons of Hussain took over the mantle of leadership In Tunisia. These Sons were Muhammed Bey and Ali Bey. Both of them virtually ruled together between 1756 and 1759, with the elder Muhammed Bey brother as the recognised ruler. When Muhammed Bey, Ali

Beys, elder brother died in 1759 Ali Bey continued to rule for the Hussainid dynasty in the years 1759-1777. He was succeeded by his son 1-lammuda Bey who ruled from 1777-1813.

Meanwhile during the period when Algerian army had conquered Ali Pasha, they seized the opportunity to occupy some Tunisian territories. They had the intention of merging the areas with Algeria.

However, the Hussainids used both persuasion and intimidation to make the Algerian troops to leave their territory. They also ensured that they did not give room for family conflicts or other troubles that could make them turn to the Algerians for help. The Algerian troops withdrew in 1756 and the mantle of authority fell and rested on the Hussainid family who could only be restricted by the Muslim law.

In order to assert their independence further, they stopped the payment of tributes to Ottoman Sultan. Due to these steps, the people of Tunisia began to look upon their Hussainid rulers as those who had absolute powers to rule their country as a sovereign nation. They ruled in accordance with Muslim laws, particularly the Malikite [Maliki] laws. The rulers encouraged Muslim scholars especially the Majlis Al-Shar-ia council of leading Muslim scholars and experts in Muslim laws.

Economically, the Hussainid rulers took a number of steps to promote the economic prosperity of the nation. Both Muhammed and Au Beys took a direct interest in developing agriculture and in correcting government abuses which had hampered the growth of agriculture. Ali Bey abolished the Al- Mushtara- the compulsory sale of crops to the state. Under this system, the state bought crops from the peasants before harvest at very low prices. This system had two evils on the farmers. First, was that the farmer could not obtain adequate price for his crops in line with the prevailing market situation. The second was that on some occasions, the system threw farmers into bankruptcy. Such often happened in the period of bad harvest. Since the farmer had collected more money than the crops he could supply in the bad harvest year, he was often obliged to sell his cattle and other equipment to repay the state. However, in the

time of good harvest, the farmer was not given additional money by the state. He reduced the amount of crops collected by the state under the tithe; injustices connected with state lands were also removed. Ali Bey actively encouraged trade in Tunisian goods, while at the same time lending state money to Tunisian merchants without interest. Ali was indeed a great ruler who pursued policies that were in the interest of his subjects in particular and the state in general. His life was caught short when he met his untimely death in 1777.

### **Hammuda Bey Rule in Tunisha (1777-1813)**

Hammuda Bey succeeded his father in 1777. He was a worthy son of his father because he did not deviate from his father's policy of making Tunisia a power to be reckoned with in the Maghreb. Tunisia once again became a Mediterranean power dealing with Algeria with

regards to Tripolitania. He therefore ensured that the Suzerainty of Tunisia was not undermined under him. Tunisia was also able to refuse diction from the Ottoman Sultan. Also, Tunisia was able to curtail the efforts of the European states to dictate their own terms in periods of conflict.

Hammuda Bey increased the prosperity of the state by a careful management of the state's treasury. He encouraged local industries in the state and he himself set an example to his ministers and other government officials by wearing only Tunisian-made clothes. He also encouraged the people to take to agriculture. Under him, alms-giving to the poor were discouraged. He urged people to work for their daily bread.

He also ensured smooth and well-established administration. He made sure that there was good administration of justice. He left the Ulamas to administer justice while he himself looked into complaints against erring government agents. He, in fact ran a consultative government. It was consultative in the sense that he often sought the cooperation of the chiefs of local Berber ethnic groups and he often held consultation with them on issues affecting their areas and the country in general. There was freedom of speech- He was a disciplinarian and maintained discipline in all spheres of government.

Hammuda also improved the army. He organised the armed forces on a sound basis and ensured discipline in the army. Apart from this, he made some changes in the army. He recruited a large numbers of Turkish soldiers and their leaders were treated well. Soldiers were given free food during wars to boost their morale. He was amiable to the Turkish troops. He struck a balance by recruiting tribal warriors as auxiliaries. These were from the Zuwawa Berber tribe. After the rebellion by Turkish troops in 1811, these native troops were incorporated into the regular army. This treatment of the troops stopped economic exploitation of the Tunisians by the Algerians. As a result of the capability of the army, the Algerian invasions of 1807 and 1808 were successfully repulsed at the battle of Salata. A repeat performance in 1812 only resulted in the capture of some Tunisian merchant ships at Gouletta but no Algerian

control was established.

As a great man Of Tunisia, Hanunida Bey joined his ancestors in 1813. His death marked a new epoch in the history of Tunisia. After his death, the government of Tunisia began to witness internal deterioration. The succeeding Beys were no longer as popular as Hammuda.

Also, European forces descended on piracy in the Mediterranean Sea and the slave trade in the Maghrib thus depriving Tunisia of a large source of income. Taxes that were illegal were reintroduced. There was a systematic decline in the authority of the Beys due to family conflicts ineptness of the person of the Beys, the successful incursion of the European interest which led to a sharp fall in revenue derived from piracy. Besides, the Beys isolated themselves in their palaces coming into contact with the public only when they wanted to dispense justice at the court of Tunis. Not only that, the Beys became pleasure loving. This

downward trend continued until 1830 when Tunisia finally met her Waterloo in the hands of both French and Ottoman forces thus bringing to a close the long rule of Muslim rulers and the emergence of European colonialism like in other parts of the Maghreb.

### **Ottoman Rule in Libya**

Libya or Tripolitania came into being in the 16th century when the Ottoman rule was established. Before then, it was a mere passage way for conquerors, merchants, warriors and pilgrims to and from the Middle East especially between the 7th and 15th centuries. The earlier rulers of Tripoli were the Arabs, Almohads and the Hafsiids of Tunisia, but none of them created effective authority. However, it continued to change hands between the Hafsiids on one hand and other political adventures on the other hand and this situation went on up to 13th and 14th centuries. At the beginning of the 15th century, the Hafsiids were able to hold the place for a considerable period. They had Tripoli again in 1401 and ruled it till 1460. In that year, a local Chief, Sheikh Mansur, rebelled against the Hafsiids and captured power in Tripoli. Sheikh Mansur and his three successors ruled the town of Tripoli until it was conquered for Spain by Pedro Navairo in July 1510. The Spaniards later handed over Tripoli to the Order of the knights of St. John, asking them to rule the town on their behalf. Tripoli then became the operational base of Christians and knights of St. John's Order. However, the knights of St. John could not hold Tripoli effectively because the Spaniards did not provide the necessary material support. As a result of this, Tripoli fell into the hands of the Spanish rivals, the Turks.

A Corsair Captain-Dragut-became the Ottoman Governor of Tripoli in 1541 Tripoli became a base for privateering activities as well as the capital of the Ottoman Empire in the Maghreb. During his 12 years of governorship, Dragut brought many Tripolitania and Jirban tribes under the Ottoman rule. The ruling Pashas were appointed from Istanbul. Assisting the Pasha was a Diwan. The head of the Diwan was the "Dey". The most powerful officer was the Bey-the commander of the Janissaries in Tripoli. Rivalry between the Dey and the Bey was rife. Between 1565 and 1711, a total of 41 Pashas ruled Tripoli and the Janissaries became unruly and

rebellious. By the beginning of the 18th century, the Ottoman regency in Tripolitania was in a state of turmoil. A Kouloughli chief of the Calvary in Tripoli, Hamid Qaramanli, usurped power in 1711.

### **The Rule of Qaramanli in Libya**

The Qaramanli dynasty had its golden age during the reign of Ali Qaramanli (1754-93). Ahmed Qaramanli came to power in 1711 when the Turkish Governor, Mohammad Kamil Amis was on a visit to Istanbul. He forestalled opposition by ruthlessly massacring 300 of the leading Turkish officers at the capital. Like Muhammad Ali of Egypt. Ahmed Qaramanli did this when he summoned them to a state conference on the pretext of discussion the future of the Regency. One year later, a Turkish military expedition was sent against

Qaramanli who had already consolidated himself in power and consequently he was able to repulse the Turkish attack. Apart from this, he used persuasion and bribes to ensure his stay in office. He gave very rich presents to Ottoman officials and pledged his loyalty to the Porte. Impressed by Qaramanli's action, the Sultan, Ahmed III, formally appointed him the Pasha of Tripoli, Qaramanli and his successors ensured that power stayed within their family. Except for an interlude of about one-year (1793-94), when Tripoli was ruled by an adventurer, the Qaramanli dynasty ruled Tripolitania from 1711-1835.

During the period of the Qaramanlis, they raised the status of Tripolitania as a country both internally and internationally. Their greatest achievement was made in the reign of Ali Qaramanli. During his reign, Tripolitania gained in prospect largely through piracy. Ali encouraged piracy and shared with the pirates, the yields of their activities. During his time, Corsair Captains became national heroes and whenever such Captains returned with good prizes, they were welcomed and honoured with Canon Salute. He also encouraged trade.

Also, he did everything to encourage Christian and Jewish traders to settle in Tripoli and he tried his best possible to facilitate their activities. European Christians were well treated in Tripolitania.

Piracy and Trade formed the pivot of the economy of Tripolitania because little reliance could be on agriculture in a country which had a vast portion of its land covered by desert. These sources of wealth were so well nourished by Ali that Tripoli was able to prosper economically in spite of ravages of famine and disastrous epidemic of the year 1774-1785. Civil war that ensued at the end of Ali's reign did not have much effect on the economic prosperity of the state.

Piracy continued unabated when Yusuf Qaramanli usurped the pashalik from his brother, Ahmad Qaramanli. Ahmad took the title of Bey of Dama. Yusuf Qaramanli had an effective control over the regency in Tripoli and built a formidable fleet i.e. war-ships for his practical operations. Some European powers even paid fixed annual tributes to him for the safety of their

fleet in the Mediterranean. Even some American fleets were subjected to seizure by the Tripolitania Corsairs in 1801. American frigate, the Philadelphia, sent to release the fleet in 1803 was manoeuvred into a narrow passage where it was wrecked and its 307 crews were taken captives. Yusuf demanded a ransom of 6 million dollars from the Americans. In retaliation, the Americans wanted to supplant him with his brother, Ahmed, for the Sultanship of Tripoli. Yusuf later accepted a ransom of 60,000 dollars.

From 1801, Americans wanted to supplant him with his brother, Ahmad, for the Sultanship of Tripoli. Yusuf later accepted a ransom of 60,000 dollars.

From 1810, Yusuf Qaramanli was confronted with economic problems as a result of the concerted efforts of the Europeans and Americans e.g. in 1813, Americans interfered to release some Christian captives. Even a Tripolitanian captain was executed by the British Consul, Warrington, while smaller European powers were terrorised into paying ransom to the Tripolitanian Corsairs between 1824 and 1828. As a result of the stiff opposition, faced from the Mediterranean end, Yusuff Qaramanli turned his attention southwards towards the Trans-Saharan trades in compensation for his Mediterranean losses. This yielded him the conquest of Fezzan in 1811 to gain control of the Borno trade route. He eyed Bornu between 1819 and 1825 in Warrington, the British Consul, stood in his way. However, he was able to collect tolls from traders who used the routes. Qaramanli also protected great explorers like Majors Denham Clapperton and Qudney who used the routes from 1822 in their bid to explore the interior of Africa.

The oppositions from the Europeans and Americans to the activities of the Corsairs under Qaramanli was intensified as from 1815. By August 1830, he was coerced to sign a treaty with the admiral-de Rosarned to desist from attacking French positions in Algiers. He was also to suppress piracy and reduce the size of his Tripolitanian fleet.

### **Relations Between the Maghreb and Europe Anglo-Moroccan Friendship**

Morocco was the only Maghreb State that was not ruled by the Turkish. Nonetheless, attempts were made to spread their rule to this area but proved abortive. This made Morocco to be isolated to the outside world. Efforts were also made by some European nations to have diplomatic relations with the Sultan of Morocco, this, however, failed because of religious differences. The banning of foreigners to settle in Morocco had adverse effect on preserving her independence for many years. This led the European powers to conclude that Morocco could not be defeated. Consequently, the Moroccan pirates were not restrained by the European powers.

Britain was the first European nation that succeeded in establishing the Anglo-Moroccan

friendship' in the 16th century. Britain showed keen interest in this 'friendship' because of her national interests. More importantly, Morocco was of the highest strategic value. The northern Coast, especially that part of it forming the southern shore of the straits of Gibraltar, guarded the entrance to the Mediterranean. British interests in Greece, the emergence of Muhammad Ali and activities of the French in the Mediterranean areas of Africa enhanced the importance of Morocco to the British.

Also, British trade with Morocco was also substantial. Trade relations between Morocco and Britain had started since the 1550s. During the period in question, Britain exported arms and cloths to Morocco, while Britain bought Moroccan goods such as cereals, wool and potassium nitrate. This was used for making gunpowder. Apart from this, Britain monopolised Moroccan imports of cotton, sugar and tea.

This friendship also made it possible for Britain fleet to ply Mediterranean sea route without any molestation from the Moroccan pirates. At this juncture, it should be noted that it was not only Britain that had imperial interests in Morocco. Other nations that showed interest were France and Spain.

When Anglo-Moroccan relations were really in practice, Morocco looked toward Britain to safeguard Morocco's interests against the intrigues of other powers. This was the reason behind the giving of commercial concessions to Britain. That is, the monopoly of trade in merino wool and the opportunity to exploit Moroccan iron and phosphates.

Nonetheless, the Anglo-Moroccan friendship ended in 1844 when Britain could not come to the aid of Morocco during the battle of Isly in which Morocco was soundly defeated by France. This strained Anglo-Moroccan relations and so Morocco repudiated Britain.

### **The Reasons Why the Europeans Were Interested in the Occupation of Morocco in the 19th Century**

The reasons were:

- a. Britain had substantial trade ties with Morocco and she wanted the country as a stop gap in her trade with Greece.
- b. The strategic position of Morocco as the entrance of the Mediterranean sea- military and economic.
- c. Each of the three powers (Britain, France and Spain) at one time or the other attacked and defeated Morocco but their rivalry prevented permanent occupation until 1904 when Britain gave Morocco away to France in exchange for Cyprus.
- d. After the invasion of Algeria, France feared that Morocco might be used by Algerian resistance group for counter attacks.
- e. Spain had always considered Morocco to be within her legitimate sphere of influence.

### **Commercial Relations between Algeria and the French**

Like the British whose economic interest was in Morocco, the French stationed themselves in Algeria. In fact, the French had been in this area as early as 1564. The French merchants who settled at Marseilles had been using Algeria as their immediate trade outpost; more so that it was directly opposite Mediterranean. These merchants floated companies that produced varieties of goods such as food and beverages. Later on, the Jews came to this area to settle among the French. There, they acquired considerable influence as a result of their wealth. The Jews provided the foreign exchange to the Dey for economic and social upliftments since they were in charge of Marketing Boards. This was in the 18th century.

The settlers in Algeria greatly exploited the economy of the area to the detriment of the indigenous people. The farmers who made provision for the supply of certain commodities did not benefit much from the sales of these commodities. However, the Jews and the

French who bought cheaply from the farmers reaped more than three folds from the sales of the commodities through exports. The Jews also controlled the export trade in olive and wheat. Despite these fantastic gains that occurred from the sales of exports trade, the Jew who were in charge remitted meagre amount to the government. It was this dubious act that culminated the flywhisk incident.

The French merchants in Algeria were the brains behind the French occupation of Algeria. This was because they formed pressure groups to achieve their aim of making sure their home government occupy Algeria.

### **Trade Links between Tunisia and Italy**

Italy like other European nations wanted to dominate the economy of Tunisia; she was so desperate to occupy Tunisia at all costs. Apart from Italy, France was not left out in the quest of occupying Tunisia, but the two nations opted for economic competition so as to avoid open confrontation.

The Italians tried her best possible to see that her aim of occupying Tunisia materialised. She dabbed into an abandoned projects that were unprofitable to the European nations that first settled in Tunisia, especially France and Britain, in order to consolidate her imperial ambition in this area. She felt that if her dream materialised in controlling the economic life of Tunisia, the other European nations would recognise her as the rightful owner of Tunisia since she had been able to establish her influence in the area. To solidify and expand her economic activities in Tunisia. Italy as able to settle about 7,000 of her citizens there in 1870. By 1878, the population of the Italian settlers had reached 20,000. The economic activities covered the shipping business and exportation of Tunisian crops. These included Tobacco, Olives and wheat that were exported to European countries.

Again, as a result of the humiliation of France at the hand of Germany during Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871, when France lost Alsace-Lorraine, the French had to withdraw temporarily from Tunisia. This gave Italy ample opportunity to occupy most of the economic projects of

France that had been deserted. The abandoned projects of Britain like the Tunis-Beja railway were also taken over by the Italian 1874.

Nevertheless, the dispirited efforts put up by Italy to have a sphere of influence in Tunisia proved abortive. This was not possible due to the Berlin conference of 1878 which urged or pressed the French to take Tunis where they were worried by the presence of 20,000 Italian settlers in Tunisia. Therefore, in 1881, a French force occupied the country and Italy remained powerless in the face of 'ark's tacit support of the French move. That was how Italy finally lost Tunisia to France.

## **Berbers and European Piracy on the Mediterranean Sea**

Piracy in North Africa was not only religiously but also politically stimulated-the religious motivation being the protection of Islam from Christian invaders while the political motivation flowed from desire to maintain the “territorial integrity” of the North Africa states (which is also linked with the desire to maintain the religion of these states).

Apart from this piracy which is also referred to as privatising was an economic activity on the Mediterranean Sea of the Maghreb during the 16th century. The Berbers and Arabs were known for piracy. Both the government and individual benefited mostly from pirate activities. The government in each of the Maghreb areas used piracy as an economic measure to generate revenue for the state. On the other hand, the individual who engaged in this act did it for fortune-making venture. Piracy was so lucrative that adventurers had to apply to Monarchs and Sultans “for patronage as sailors applied to European Monarchs during the voyages of discovery. Mercenaries turned to piracy in peace time. Piracy was encouraged by the conflicts between the Barbary States and those of the Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal)”. As mentioned earlier on, religious and political factors caused the conflicts between the Barbary States and those of the Iberian Peninsula which had been on for many years. The two Armed Forces of both countries often crossed the Mediterranean Sea for open confrontation with one another. However, the conflicts soon died down with the result that most of the mercenary sailors as well as some of the Navies of the States had not much to do as a result of the stoppage of wars between the Barbary and the Iberian States. This greatly affected them therefore, they resorted to piracy and smuggling.

Also, the military standing of the army came to depend on the achievement of the pirates.

Apart from the dependence of the North African States on piracy during the period, individual pirates eked out a handsome living from piracy; piracy on the Mediterranean Sea became a highly profitable racket.

Now, some of the areas used for their operations along the coastlines of the Mediterranean we

re Oran, Tatan Malita, Khums and Sfax. There were other areas along the European and East Mediterranean coastlines. Some of these SeaPortS were Sidon, Alexandria and Tangier, Pirates also used the Islands of Cyprus, Sardinia, Malta and Sicily.

What made piracy to be intensified during the period in question was the suppression of the Trans-Atlantic Slave trade. Piracy therefore became an alternative source of revenue for the Barbary States. However, the Barbary States soon stopped their privateering activities at the beginning of the 19th Century. They put an end to it so as not to clash with America and European nations.

### **The French Occupation of Algeria and Algerian Response**

Two Jews contributed to the strained relations of Algeria and France toward the end of the 18th century. They were Joseph Bacri and Neftali Busnach who has attempted to

monopolise all Algeria's export trade to an extent that France owed them a large sum of money for the wheat they had supplied France since the Napoleonic wars. Khoja Hussein, the Dey of Algiers, had also sold wheat to the French through these Jews. After the Restoration (1815), the Jews succeeded in getting the French to pay their own, but not the Dey's debt. The Dey came to feel that he had been cheated. The French Consul in Algiers, Pierre Deval through whom the Dey tried to get in contract with the French government, happened to be a man of questionable character. He was notorious for shady transactions and he seemed to be cooperating with the Jews. Rather than pay the Dey's debt the French sent him to put an end to the 'Piratical' acts of his seamen.

Khoja Hussein waited patiently for the reply to the letters he wrote to the French government concerning the payment of the debts but no reply was made. Consequently he invited the French Consul, Pierre Deval, to a meeting on 29 April 1827. This was during a Muslim festival. However, there are conflicting accounts of what actually happened. According to the French Consul, on his informing the Dey that it was useless he continued to press the French government for payment of the money owed him, the Dey became annoyed and hit him repeatedly with his ivory peacock feather. Then the Dey shouted. 'You are a wicked, faithless, idol-worshipping rascal'. However, according to the Dey, the French Consul spoke to him in an insulting manner that he (the Dey) could not expect the French to reply to his letters and then added uncomplimentary remarks about Islam. This led to the use of the flywhisk.

The French government did not take the flywhisk incident lightly. They felt that he had been insulted. Therefore, the French Government was determined to exploit the flywhisk incident to the fullest advantage and humiliate the Dey. The French demanded that French flags should be flown from the ports of Algiers and that the Dey should send a representative to board a French vessel in the harbour and tender his regrets. The Dey refused and said, 'I'm surprised that the French haven't asked for my wife as well'. The French government ordered the blockade of all Algerian ports. Nevertheless, the blockade did not stop the Algerian pirates

from continuing their pirating activities on the Mediterranean Sea by attacking the French merchant vessels.

### **Motives for the French Invasion**

The French invasion of Algeria had many motives. Although the French deceived the people to believe that their intention was to put an end to piracy activities of the Algerians as well as the suppression of the slave trade. However, there were various reasons for the invasion.

First, the French wanted to colonise Algeria. This intention was not declared by the French immediately for fear of British reaction. The French aimed at extending her sphere of influence to this area so as to have a firm grip of the Maghreb. French wanted to use Algeria as a stepping stone to occupy the rest of North Africa by co-operating with Muhammad Ali of Egypt. To corroborate the political reason for the invasion, Louis Phillipe, who succeeded

Charles X as king a few weeks after the invasion, announced that he had been dreaming of a 'French Colonial Empire'.

Secondly, the French wanted to use Algeria as her second home. This would be done by settling her surplus population in Algeria. These people would have assessed to the privileges and rights of the metropolitan country.

Finally, the French had the motive to monopolise the trade of the Maghreb. That is Algeria, Tunisia, Libya and Morocco. The products of these countries like Olive oil and wool were in high demand in European countries. Apart from this, they hoped to make the area a dumping ground for the French manufacturing industries as well as getting regular supply of raw materials from the Maghreb.

### **Reasons for the French Invasion of Algeria**

The reasons are:

1. To suppress the Algerian piracy:
2. France aimed at side tracking the British and the Italians who were equally interested in colon king the countries of the Maghreb:
3. To abolish the slave trade:
4. France planned to settle her surplus population in Algeria:
5. France hoped to monopolise the foreign trade of these countries in raw materials like wood and olive oil:
6. France planned to export her manufactured goods to the North African Markets; The f  
ly whisk incident was also a factor.

### **Establishment of French Rule in Algeria**

With the defeat of Algeria in 1830, the French were able to consolidate her authority over the people of Algeria. The colonisation began in earnest when Clauzel, the man that took over from Bourmont as Commander of French forces, started to settle Frenchmen (colons on the

conquered territory of Algeria as soon as he assumed the mantle of leadership. What he did was that he settled the Frenchmen in the fertile plains of Mitidja and the coastal plains of Tell. These were the areas occupied by the Frenchmen (Colons).

The French committed a lot of atrocities while in Algeria. First of all, the man who succeeded Caumont de La Force, Rougier, changed the Fisheries Mosque in Algiers into a cathedral for the Catholic Church.

Not only that, the government destroyed two Muslim cemeteries while preparing to construct a new road in the area. These attitudes of the French were disliked by the Algerians who felt that the colonialists failed to abide by their earlier promise not to interfere or do anything contrary to their religion. Also, there was the case of the appointment of a governor-general who wielded enormous power. The governor-general was the military commander as well as the civil administrator. Many reforms were made

during his tenure of office such as the promulgation of a decree in September 1884, which made provision for the announcement of the colony's budget and appointments in the judiciary and ministers for public works. Only few indigenous institutions were retained. Those that were not favourable to the French course were, however, discarded. These caused discontent among the Algerians who tried vehemently to resist the French imperialism in their domain.

### **Algerian Response**

The French had hoped that the people of Algeria would not resist them. To this end, the French proclaimed that they had not come to wage war against the people of Algeria but against alien Turkish rulers who, the French alleged, had been oppressing the Arab-Berber population but the people of Algeria reacted differently. They looked upon the French as "infidels" and they did not wish to be ruled by aliens. Under the leadership of Abdel Kader whom they made Sultan in 1832, the Algerians organised a stiff resistance against the French. The almost universal support given to Abdel Kader in Algeria from 1832 to 1847, and the continuation of resistance to the French by the Berbers after his surrender to them, were a clear testimony to the fact that, in a sense, Algeria was a living political entity before the advent of the French.

### **The Man Abdel Kader**

The man that spearheaded the resistance movement in Algeria was an indefatigable Abdel Kader. He was born on September 6, 1808. He came from Hashim ethnic group of Algeria. Abdel Kader was an erudite scholar. He studied Islamic law, Astronomy, Philosophy and History. Abdel was also knowledgeable in the works of the great Greek philosophers like Plato and Aristotle as well as Geography.

Abdel Kader was made the head of the Qadriyya Brotherhood. He soon became the Sultan of Algeria in 1832. It was this position of authority that brought him into limelight. The mantle of leadership that devolved on him made it mandatory to oppose French occupation of Algeria. In order to achieve political power in the area, he unified the people that belonged to different camps. This was done in order to bring to an end petty squabbles that could undermine their lofty

objective in resisting the French from occupying their country. As a result of this, he organised a very strong resistance movement which the French found very hard to crack.

Abdel Kader who led the resistance used many warfare tactics to disorganise the French. He used guerrilla tactics to fight the French. When this resistance continued unabated, the French had no choice then to sign two treaties with him. The first was the treaty of DesmiChaet5 signed in 1834. The second treaty was signed in 1837- the treaty of Tafua. It was these treaties that demarcated the areas of influence of both the French and Abdel

Kader. The French were restricted mainly to the coastal areas, whilst the rest of the country went to Abdel Kader. However, when the French became powerful again, they broke the treaties they had signed and bought over the Tijaniya Brotherhood who did not welcome Abdel Kader's rule. Furthermore, the French threatened both Morocco and Tunisia to stop giving any helps to the Algerians. Abdel Kader and his followers could no longer import arms and ammunitions through Morocco and Tunisia.

In the face of all these obstacles, the resistance against the French broke down in 1847. Also, the French forces soon discovered "the Sultan's military tactics of burying granaries underneath the ground, in the face of tire and sword he was disserted, except by a small band of faithful followers. This made him to voluntarily surrender himself to the French, after they had promised him that he would be taken to a Muslim Country, a promise which was not honoured. Also, in 1871 when the Berber inhabitants of Kabylia in the interior rose up again they were crushed. The French Commanders admitted that they were brutal in the way they brought the people of Algeria to submission. The inhabitants were deprived of their best lands and by 1834 colonisation had begun. On the whole, the French robbed the Algerian treasury of a sum of fifty-five million francs, which was seven million francs more than the total cost of the expedition to the French.

### **The Effects of the French Invasion of Algeria North African States**

The French invasion and occupation of Algeria in 1830 had significant effects on North African states as a whole and on the Maghreb in particular. It paved the way for the occupation of other North African states. The rest of the Maghreb read the writing on the wall. It became clear that the occupation of the rest of Mediterranean Africa by the European powers was only a matter of time. European imperialism had evidently come to stay. The only obstacle for the occupation of other North African states was the mutual jealousy arising out of the conflicting interests of the various European powers who had a stake in the appropriation of this part of the continent. These conflicting interests allowed many of the African rulers to play one power

against the other, thereby postponing the occupation of their states.

### **French Occupation of Tunisia and Morocco**

The imperialistic ambition of the French did not stop in Algeria. The occupation of Tunisia in 1883 and Morocco in 1912 occurred.

However, this occupation was not carried out with military expedition as it was done with the Algerians. The French instead, used the policy of gradual infiltration which enabled them to be involved in both economic and political life of the nation.

## **Al-Sadiq's Extravagance and the Country's Bankruptcy**

Al-Sadiq succeeded Ahmed Dey and became the Bey in 1859. He was very weak and less wise. He lived a luxurious life like Ismail Pasha of Egypt and wasted the surplus revenues he inherited from his predecessor on beautiful Turkish slave girls. Eventually, he began to borrow from European powers. In May 1863, a loan was negotiated in Paris for one million, four hundred thousand pounds sterling from Messrs Oppenheim and Erlanger. This loan was got through a Lebanese swindler, Rushaid al-Dahdah. So harsh were the creditors to him that he received only one-seventh of this sum. But the Tunisian government was asked to repay the whole loan plus interest within five years. This loan was not sufficient to execute projects, therefore, many of them were abandoned. The last step taken was for the government to look for more loans and new taxes in order to offset the old loans collected. The poll-tax was also increased. Muhammed Al-Sadiq thus took a decisive step that led to the occupation of his country by a European power. The European power seized the opportunity of Tunisian economic mess to declare that, since their money had been committed to the country, they had a right to administer the tax and revenue of the country in order to ensure a refund of their loans. By 1869, a committee composed of representatives of Italian, French and English financiers were set up to undertake these functions. It was the policy of 'gradual infiltration or intrusion' that paved the way for eventual occupation of Tunisia. The persuasion of France to the Bey was one of this policy. This international Financial Commission was responsible for the preparation of Tunisian budget as well as expenditure control. The executive committee of the commission had six members. Thus, Tunisia ceased to be a fully independent nation in 1866.

The European countries followed their policy of gradual infiltration or intrusion into financial administration of the country with demands for economic concession. The English obtained a concession for the building of a railway from the city of Tunisia to Goletta. The Italians got concession of an estate at Je deida and behaved as if this concession also gave them rights over the inhabitants of this estate.

The French would have occupied Tunisia long before 1881, but for the fact that they faced the opposition of Britain and Italy. For the French, the British were the only real obstacles.

However in 1873, the goodwill of the British and Germans was secured at the congress of Berlin. The British and Germans recognised French rights over Tunisia after France had recognised British right to occupy the Turkish Island of Cyprus.

Meanwhile, when the Dey's position in Tunisia became very weak as a result of his extravagant spending, the man who acted as Prime Minister from 1837 to 1873, Mustapha Khazinda, was responsible for the foreign loans. He was not only corrupt but he also encouraged Al-Sadiq to rule despotically. Such rule was against European interests. This was why the Europeans continued to press the Dey to liberalise the constitution of his country.

Consequently between 1857 and 1861 the Dey made abortive attempts at constitutional reforms.

### **The Imperialists' Interest in Tunisia**

The French imperialist interest in Tunisia was not a sudden ambition. For a very long time, the French had been showing interest in Occupying Tunisia and Morocco as part of her North African empire. This was because Algeria had already become part of her empire. The French not only involved herself in the economic life of Tunisia, but she also deeply took active role in the political aspect of the area. These methods were adopted in order to establish themselves firmly and make occupation of Tunisia easy.

Again, Ferdinand de Lesseps an Engineer from France wanted to get a contract in Tunisia for the construction of artificial water to flood the deserts area of Tunisia that would link "an inland Sea" and pave the way for increase in rainfall that would boost agricultural activities. This idea was not accepted because of French imperialistic ambition to seize the opportunity to gain control of the place. The uncooperative attitude of the Tunisians in getting this contract and their refusal to allow the French to use their Port at Goletta made the latter to be angry. Since then, France was so desperate to colonise Tunisia.

What made the occupation of Tunisia inevitable was the British interest in the area. Tunisia was of economic and strategic importance to Britain. Apart from being an entrepot for her international trade in which her citizens were deeply involved, especially in export trade of tobacco, Tunisia lay along the British Sea-route to Asia, particularly India through Egypt.

Therefore the British, too, wanted Tunisia to make her passage to the far East easy. The Italians, were however not left out in the scramble for Tunisia Many of her citizens settled in Tunisia and engaged themselves in various trades that were later proved abortive.

### **The Second Coming of Turkish Rule in Tunisia**

The Imperialistic ambition of the European nations, especially France, to get hold of Tunisia made the Dey decided to cultivate the goodwill of the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire. To this

end, the Dey pressurised the Sultan to promulgate the Firman (decree) which would make him the rightful ruler of Tunisia. This decree was published in 1871 and it conferred upon him “the right of hereditary succession”, renouncing the annual tributes Tunisia had been obliged to pay for centuries and binding Tunisia to give positive support to Turkey should she be involved in war with any other power.

Meanwhile, the decree declared Muhammed Al-Saliq vizir of Tunisia and his position was firmly established. This, however, did not last long because of the French occupation of his domain.

## **The French Occupation of Tunisia**

The French occupation of Tunisia was another attempt made by France to extend her area of influence to that part of the Maghreb. The French would have declared suzerainty over Tunisia long before 1881, but for the fact that they faced the opposition of Britain and Italy. For the French, the British were the only real obstacle. However, in 1878, the goodwill of the congress of the British and Germans was secured at the congress of Berlin. The British and Germans recognised French right over Tunisia after France had recognised British right to occupy the Turkish Island of Cyprus. It was Chancellor Bismark of Germany who had invited European powers to the congress of Berlin to find solutions to the problems which cropped up as a result of the collapse of the Turkish Empire. Bismark encouraged the French to occupy Tunisia, hoping to draw France's attention away from Alsace-Lorraine which had been annexed by Germany in 1870.

However, the only remaining obstacle was Italy. Italians had been establishing themselves in Tunisia, separated from Sicily by only a narrow Sea. Since 1860, Italians were dreaming of a re-established Roman Empire in North Africa. In fact by 1880, there were 20,000 Italians settled in Tunisia, as opposed to 201 Frenchmen. In 1870, Italy was nearly tempted to seize Tunisia at the time Prussia conquered France. The struggle of the two powers over Tunisia came to the open after 1878. The two powers clashed over the Tunis-Goletta railway which the English owners offered for sale. The Italian Government granted the Italian Rubattin company sufficient money to outbid the French who offered to secure the line. There was a sharp exchange of notes between Rome and Paris. In January 1881, the French became alarmed at the reception given in Italy by King Humbert to a delegation of Tunisians resident in Italy led by the Bey's brother. The French feared that Italy was on the verge of taking over Tunisia.

This was the time the French desperately looked for a pretext to invade Tunisia. In March, they found a convenient one in a raid of the Krumirs on the Algerian frontier. There was nothing unusual about these raids. For, it is said, there had been over 2,000 of them between 1870 and

1881. The French further alleged that the Krumirs had been strengthening the resistance of the Berbers in the Aures mountains against France by providing them with ammunition, They also built gr1evanes around the treatment being meted to Count de Saucy and announced that the lives of French citizens in Tunisia were not safe.

France invaded Tunisia and in May, forced the treaty of Bardo on the Bey. Tunisia was declared a French protectorate. By the articles of this treaty, France was to control Tunisian foreign policy. By the treaty of Marza, signed in 1883, the French established control over the internal affairs of the country as well, including finance and the judiciary. Tunisia became a French protectorate rather than a colony. The resultant protectorate was one in which the Deylical authority was gradually usurped by the French administrators

## **The Imperialists' Interest in Morocco**

The French were not the only European power that had imperial interests in Morocco. Other nations that showed keen interest in Morocco were Britain, Spain, Germany, Belgium and France.

For Britain, Morocco was of the highest strategic value. Britain was interested in Morocco because of the strategic location in the Mediterranean area. The area was a vital sea-route from the Mediterranean through Egypt into the Red Sea to India. Britain also had interests in Greece. The rise of Muhammad Au and French activities in other parts of Mediterranean Africa enhanced the importance of Morocco to the British. British trade with Morocco was also substantial. Britain was given monopoly of the trade in merino wool and the opportunity to exploit Moroccan iron and phosphates. Morocco also imported largely from Britain. Britain however, did not show much interest in Morocco. What concerned her was the trade routes as well as her trading interest in this area which she did not want to be affected if France was occupying Morocco.

France, too, wanted Morocco at all costs after the invasion of Algeria. France feared that Morocco might become the springboard for attacks on Algeria by 'rebels', or a means of fomenting rebellion by leaders of the Moroccan tariqas (religious brotherhoods). In addition, France feared that any other European power who occupied Morocco might easily flush her out of Sahara and restricts her programme of expansion in the interior.

Belgium on the other hand, had economic interest in Morocco. Belgium specialised in the production of woollen materials, which she imported from Moroccan raw materials to feed her manufacturing companies at home. However, she could not do much in competing with other European powers in Morocco. Spain was not left out in the quest for the imperialistic interest in Morocco, Spain had both economic and territorial' ambitions in Morocco. What made her interest to be more pronounced was the occupation of Ceuta on the Moroccan coast since the 15th century. In about 1860, Spain as at war with Morocco which she won. The war w fought

in order to get territorial concessions and some trade with Morocco which had earlier been granted to other European powers, particularly France and Britain. Spain however, could not compete favourably with Germany, France and Britain because being a tiny nation.

The Germans too were aggressive on the acquisition of Morocco. They had interests in both the economic and colonial issues. Trade link with Morocco started when Sultan of Morocco imported arms from Germany. The Germans did not border themselves much on the acquisition of Morocco. Nonetheless, when the German found out that the Anglo-French concord of 1924 favoured them, they, therefore showed interest so as to get a territory in reciprocating way which the French and the British obtained theirs under the agreement.

Germany gave helping hands to Morocco when she sought her assistance against Anglo-French invasions. The French later granted the Germans the opportunity to get hold of some

areas in the Congo Basin. The granting of the concession and the conference of Algeria of 1906 spearheaded by the Germans did not give room for Morocco independence. This was because Germany was in total agreement with the occupation of Morocco in 1911. This ginged up the French to take over control of Morocco.

France soon spread her economic interests over wider areas such as mmii rights and extension of her trading activities outside the shore of Morocco.

### **The Rule of El-Hassan III**

The period of Moulay Hassan's reign, 1873-1894 was a period of revival Morocco. It was a period when the government lost its authority both at home and abroad. The Sultan knew this very well and he started the programme of reform that would redeem Moroccans lost glory. His military reform was very important as he embarked on policy of creating a modern army to replace the tribal contingents. In order to achieve this, he imposed a fixed levy of recruits on each of the major cities and enlisted them in his new regiments. Instructors were recruited from various countries like Belgium, England, France, Germany and Spain for the training of the new regiments. Weapons were also bought from some of these overseas countries.

Throughout his reign, Hassan had to deal with internal problems. It took him ten years to firmly establish himself in the kingdom and to obtain undisputed possession of the territory. His pre-occupation with these internal problems did not allow him to carry out administrative, economic and military reforms such as those carried out by Muhammad Ali for the modernisation of Egypt. His efforts were frustrated by the rebellions of some dissident tribes who lived in the Blades Siba. These tribes received arms from him and later deserted and fought against him.

**Students can also reach out to the lecturer Dawood Omolumen Egbefo Ph.D in the Department of History and International Studies for further consultation before the first**

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