

east Devonian rocks stretch for hundreds of miles into the Sahara. The plain around the city of Morocco has a sheet-like covering of tufaceous crust rising over hill and valley and following all the undulations of the ground, the result probably of the intense heat of the sun rapidly drawing up water charged with soluble carbonate of lime from the calcareous strata, and drying it layer by layer on the surface till an accumulation several feet thick has been produced (Maw). This crust is extensively burned for lime, and it forms a natural strong roof for the matamores or underground cellars which the Moors excavate in the soft strata beneath. An enormous deposit of boulders occurs in the lateral valleys and along the escarpment of the Atlas, and the opinion that these are the products of remote glacial action is supported by the existence of true moraines in the upper part of the glens. All along the west coast there are indications of an elevation of the land in the shape of raised beaches, at Tangiers 40, at the south of Cape Spartel 50, at Megador 60 or 70 feet high; but a number of other facts seem to show that at present a process of subsidence is in progress.¹

That mineral deposits of great value exist in Morocco there is little doubt. At Jebel Hadid or the Iron Mountain, the heights to the north of Mogador, old scoriae are found. In the Beni Madan hills near Tetuan are mines, closed, it is said, by the sultan 'Abd al-Rahmán; but whether they furnished copper or lead authorities differ. On the road to Kenatsa, Rohlfs saw lead and antimony worked by the Beni Sithe. Antimony especially seems to be abundant to the south of the Atlas; Rohlfs found it in a very pure state near Tesna, and Dr Allen (whose account was not published when this article was written) informed the writer that he saw splendid veins of it north of the Der'a. That gold mines existed in Sús was long suspected; Gatell proved it. Rock-salt occurs in the mountains north of Fez, in the valley of the W. Martil, and probably in Jebel Zarhún. In several places, as in the route from Saffi to Morocco, are brine lakes, from which the salt is collected and exported as far as Central Africa.

The general aspect of the lowlands of Morocco varies so much according to the season of the year that, while one stranger finds it arid and sunburnt and monotonous, another is delighted with the richness of its vegetation and the bright variety of its colours. In some of the Atlas valleys there is a wealth of timber, enormous conifers, 10 to 12 feet in girth of stem, oaks, &c.,² but the greater part of the country has been cleared of every vestige of woodland, and consequently depends for its appearance on herbage, brush-wood, and the lesser fruit-trees. Cultivation is confined to such comparatively narrow limits that the natural flora has full scope for its development. Cowan, writing more immediately of the country between Morocco and Mogador, speaks of "drifts of asphodel, white lilies, blue convolvuli, white broom flowers, thyme and lavender, borage, marigold, purple thistles, colossal daisies and poppies;" and Captain Trotter tells how for miles the undulating plateau of Kasr Ferá'un was literally covered with wild flowers, whose varied colours, and the partiality with which each species confined itself to certain ground, gave to the landscape a brilliant and most unique appearance. Dark-blue, yellow, and red—iris, marigold, and poppy—occurred in patches an acre in size; farther on whole hills and valleys were of a delicate blue tint from convolvulus and borage. At times the traveller's tent is pitched on a carpet of mignonette, at times on a carpet of purple bugloss. In the country of the Beni Hasan squills are so abundant that the fibres of the bulbs are used instead of hair in making tent-cloth; and in the north of Kasr al-Kebír the moors are covered for miles with a beautiful white heather. From such gorgeous combinations of colour one can well imagine that the Moors drew the inspiration of their chromatic art; but the season of floral splendour is brief, and under the hot African sun everything soon sinks into the monotony of straw.

The botany of Morocco has been explored by Balansa (1867), Hooker, Ball, and Maw (1871), Rein and Fritsch (1873), Ibrahim Ammeribt (a Berber collector, 1873-6), the Rabbi Mardochée Abi Sarur (1872-3); and the results have been systematically arranged in Cosson's *Compendium Florae Atlanticae: ou Flore des États barbaresques* (Paris, 1881, &c.). From the presence of a large proportion of plants of central and northern Europe (none of the northern plants, however, being of alpine or arctic type) and the absence of southern types characteristic of the sub-tropical zone Ball concludes that "the mountain flora of Morocco is a southern extension of the European temperate flora, with little or no admixture of extraneous elements, but so long isolated from the neighbouring regions that a considerable number of new specific types have been developed."³ Of the individual plants none are more remarkable than the *arár* and the *argan*. The former (*Callitris quadrivalvis*, *Thuja articulata* of Shaw) is a cypress-like tree that grows on the Atlas both in Morocco and Algeria. It furnishes gum sandarach;

¹ See Mourlon in *Bull. de l'Acad. Roy. de Belgique*, vol. xxx., 1870; Coquand, *Bull. de la Soc. Géol. de France*, vol. iv.; and especially Maw's paper appended to Hooker and Ball's *Morocco*.

² Rohlfs says larches, but there is strong reason to doubt this.

³ Compare Drude, "Floristische Erforschung Nord-Afrika's" in *Petermann's Mittheilungen*, 1882.

and its beautiful and enduring timber has been identified with the *alercs* with which the Cordova cathedral (mosque) was roofed, and with the citron-wood of the ancient Romans. The argan (*Argania Sideroxylon*) is confined even in Morocco to a tract of country extending only about 150 miles along the coast, from the river Tensift almost to the river Sús, and about 30 miles in breadth; and it is found nowhere else in the world. A gnarled trunk and wide-spreading contorted thorny branches give it a striking appearance. Large specimens have a height of from 20 to 30 feet, and a girth of 25 or 26 feet. The fruit, which ripens between May and August, is an olive-looking nut, greedily eaten by camels, mules, goats, sheep, and horned cattle (but not by horses) for the sake of the fleshy pericarp, and crushed by the natives to extract the oil from the kernel. Though "its strong and fulsome savour" renders it nauseous to the European palate, this oil is largely used in the cookery of southern Morocco. The prickly pear forms one of the features of the landscape from the coast up to the slopes of the mountains. The cork tree, common in the time of Addison, has long ground enormously, though it probably forms the staple of the Ma'múra forest, which extends for some 20 miles between the Bú Rakrak and the Sebá. Though not so widespread as in Algeria or some districts of southern Europe, the palmetto is often locally very abundant. Citrons, lemons, limes (sweet and sour), shaddocks, mulberries, walnuts, and chestnuts are common in many parts. Tetuan is famous for oranges, Meknes for quinces, Morocco for pomegranates, Fez for figs, Táfillet and Akka for dates, Sús for almonds, Dukalla for melons, Tagodast, Edantenan, and Rabát for grapes, and Táridant for olives (Cowan). The grape is extensively cultivated; the Jews manufacture crude but palatable wines. Sugar, once grown in Sús, to supply the demands of the whole of Morocco, has disappeared. Both hemp and tobacco are cultivated under the restrictions of an imperial monopoly,—the former (of prime quality) being largely used as hashish, the latter, though never smoked, as snuff. Barley is the most usual cereal; but excellent crops of wheat, maize, millet, rye, beans, peas, chick-peas, and canary seed are also obtained. Potatoes are coming into favour in certain districts.

It is still true, as in the time of Addison, that the Moors "seldom reap more than will bring the year about," and the failure of a single harvest causes inevitable dearth. Captain Colville calculates that not more than a hundredth part of the available land is cultivated at all; and the cultivated portion possessed by each tribe is divided into three parts, one only of which is sown each year. With a plough of the most primitive description the Moorish peasant scarcely scratches the surface of the soil; and his harrow is a few branches of trees weighted with heavy stones. The corn is cut close to the ear with short curved knives, and the straw left standing. Underground granaries or matamores (*matmúra*) are constructed, sometimes capable of holding 2000 quarters; they preserve their contents in good condition for many years.

There is abundant space in the country for wild animals, even of the larger kind; but the absence of woodland keeps them in check. Besides the lion, which exists only in very limited numbers, and, according to local proverbs, with diminished courage, the spotted leopard, the hyæna, jackal, lynx, fox, and wild boar are the most important. The *caudá* or wild sheep is found in the more inaccessible parts of the Atlas. Rabbits swarm in the country to the north of the Bú Rakrak, and since 1870 they have crossed this, which used to be their southern limit. A kind of ground-squirrel, the *sibú*, occurs in the southern provinces. Monkeys of the same species as those of Gibraltar frequent the neighbourhood of Jebel Músá or Apes' Hill. The list of the ordinary wild birds includes blackbirds, goldfinches, linnets, greenfinches, robins, wagtails, skylarks, and crested larks, as well as turtle-doves, nightingales, and jays. The house-sparrow is not found; between Morocco and Megador its place is taken by a beautiful bird (*Emberiza striolata*), locally called *fabá*, or "the doctor" (Leared). The stranger is struck by the immense variety and number of hawks, and still more by the familiar terms on which they build their nests in the walls and rocks along with blue rock-pigeons and starlings. All through the country the red-legged partridge is the main resource of the sportsman, though he may also bag other varieties of partridge, bustards, and ducks and other water-fowl. Along the coasts there is no lack of gulls, whimbrel, oyster-catchers, &c. Every town has its colony of storks. Lizards, chameleons, tortoises, and frogs are familiar objects; it is from Morocco that the small tortoises hawked about the streets of London are usually obtained. The profusion of insect-life is one of the plagues of the country in the eyes of the European; and even the Moor, who has got reconciled to his mosquitoes and fleas, considers the locust one of his deadliest enemies.

The camel is the great beast of burden in Morocco, though asses and mules are also employed. The horse, never reduced to such base uses, is usually a sturdy little animal, but far below the ancient reputation of the Barbary steed. Roughly broken when young, his mouth is soon spoiled by barbarous bits, and his feet by square shoes. The finest animals are said to be bred in Shidima

and Abda. In form and size the mules are much superior, and they usually fetch two or three times the price. The horned cattle are not unlike Alderneys; and the sheep, for the improvement of which nothing is done, have spiral horns (not unfrequently four), rounded foreheads, and long fine wool. Domestic fowls are kept in great numbers; they are of the Spanish type, small and prolific.

The mackerel fishery off the coast at Casa Blanca and Tangiers attracts fishers from Spain, Portugal, and other parts of Europe. Occasionally a small shoal may be found as far south as Mogador. Soles, turbot, bream, bass, conger eel, and mullet are common along the coast, and a large fish called the *aslimah* (rough scaled and resembling a cod). Lobsters and crayfish swarm in the rocky places, but the natives have no proper method of catching them. The tunny, pilchard, and sardine, and a kind of shad known as the "Mogador herring," all prove at times of practical importance. "The catching of the *shébel* or Barbary salmon, a species of shad, is a great industry on all the principal rivers of the coast, and vast numbers of the fish, which are often from 5 to 15 pounds in weight, are dried and salted." They ascend from the sea in spring. Barbels and a few other small fish swarm in the streams, but for the angler there is little real sport.¹

Of the population of Morocco only the vaguest estimate is possible. Bém and Wagner give 6,410,000—probably too high a number. Ethnographically it consists of three main elements—Berbers or Shellah, Arabs, and Jews—with a large infusion of Negro blood, and a sprinkling of Negro individuals. A distinction is sometimes drawn between the country Arab and the city "Moor," as he is called *par excellence*; but the difference between them is one not so much of race (though the "Moor" has probably absorbed a greater variety of heterogeneous elements) as of method of life, and the superficial physical results of the same. The Berbers are the original occupants of the country (as may be proved by the ancient words preserved by classical writers), and they still form not only the most numerous but the most industrious and civilized section of the people. While the Arab is still by preference a dweller in tents, the Berber for the most part builds himself houses of stone or clay. On the whole, the Arabs are predominant in the lowlands and the Berbers in the hilly districts and mountains.

Greatly corrupted, even in the time of Ibn Khaldún, the Arabic of Morocco has now, with the complete decay of literature, reached a state of extreme degradation. Of the Schilha dialects very little is known, but everything goes to prove their general philological agreement with the better-investigated representative of the Berber. The Jews are the great commercial class in the community. They are usually said to number about 150,000 to 200,000, but Rohlfs (*Petermann's Mitth.*, 1883) shows reason to suppose that they do not exceed 62,800. Having come largely from Spain, they still use among themselves a corrupt Spanish.²

That at one time Morocco was a much more populous country is evident from the description of Leo Africanus, though even in his time the number of ruined or decaying towns was very great. Besides Tangiers, Larash, Sallee, and the other places on the coast already described, there are only a few large cities in the country. Four of these—FEZ (*q. v.*), Meknes or MEQUINEZ (*q. v.*), Wazan, and Teza—are in the basin of the Sebú. On the Zarhún range, north of Meknes, lies the town of Muley Edris or Zarhún, which no Christian is allowed to enter, though in 1801 Jackson did manage to pay a hurried visit. According to Captain Trotter, who got within three-quarters of a mile, it is a place of apparently 1500 to 2000 inhabitants, compact, and with several large buildings. Wazan (Rohlfs's Wesan) is *par excellence* a sacred city, being the seat of a shérif, whose influence is even more widely acknowledged than that of the sultan. It was probably raised from a mere village by Muley 'Abd Alláh al-Sherif (*ib.*, 1675). At present it is one of the cleanest and best-kept places in the empire. Teza (Tázá) is a considerable trading centre on the route between Fez and the Algerian frontier. Leo, Ali Bey, and Rohlfs agree in describing it as a place of great beauty, embowered in orchards, and the houses give evidence of wealth. The population, in Leo's time 20,000, is now 5000, of whom 800 are Jews. About 120 miles east of Teza, and only 10 from the frontier, is Wajda (Ouchda of the French), clean and neat, in the midst of an orange grove. The only other inland town of importance is Kasr al-Kebir (see ALCAZAR KEBIR), the Oppidum Novum of the Romans, which, except on market-days, wears a look of great decay. In all the country between the basin of the Sebú and the Tensift, a distance of upwards of 200 miles, there is nothing that a European would consider a town; and Morocco itself is the only really large city of south Morocco. Táradant, the capital of Sus, lies between the Atlas and the river; it is a place of from 30,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, has recently been garrisoned and refortified by the sultan, and may be considered the frontier city of his empire. Iliq (Iliir,

¹ A scientific list of some thirty or forty fishes from Morocco will be found in *Ber. Senck. Ges.*, 1874; an account of angling experiences in Payton, *Mosses from a Rolling Stone*.

² The evidence for the existence of a tribe of warlike Jews in the interior leans on the whole to the positive side.

Ilioc, &c.), 100 miles south-south-east on a stream which joins the Massa, is the chief town of Tazerwalt or the state of Sidi Hisham, an independent principality founded by Sidi Ahmed u Musa; and Auguilmin (Gulemin or Climin), in like manner, is the chief town of the state of 'Abd Alláh u Salem, or, as it is usually called by Europeans, Wad Nun. Tagawost (Tagawost of Ibn Khaldún), about 40 miles inland from Ifni, was formerly a large city, and in the 16th century the seat of a Spanish factory trading in archil. Throughout Morocco the nomenclature of ordinary maps gives a very misleading idea of the number of inhabited sites. Most of the seeming villages are either market-places, completely deserted except on market-days, or the tombs of saints, with possibly not a house in the vicinity, or stations for caravans, with a small company of soldiers. The markets are named after the days of the week, as Sák al-Thaláthá, Tuesday market; the kubbas or saints' tombs are distinguished as Sidi (my master) so and so; and the stations are marked Nzéla, or some such corruption as Inzella.

The prehistoric antiquities of Morocco are of considerable interest. In a cave at Cape Spartel M. Tissot found regularly shaped arrow-heads, and in his travels through the north of the country he met with dolmens, barrows, and cromlechs, just as in Algeria or Tunis. The dolmens usually form a trapezium, and the dead body seems to have been buried with the knees drawn up to the chest. At Mozrah (Mazorah), a quaint little village of widely-scattered houses built of rough blocks of yellow soft sandstone, about 8 or 10 miles north-east from Azilá, stands a group of megalithic monuments of extraordinary extent. They have been visited and described by Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke (1830), Davidson (1835), Farley (1860), Tissot, Watson, Trotter, &c. Watson's account is the most detailed. Round the base of a mound (15 feet high) of yellow sandstone lies a circle of sixty-seven large stones, one of which (at the west side) is more than 20 feet high. In the vicinity are several other groups, some of still larger blocks. Roman roads seem to have run from Tangiers southwards to the neighbourhood of Meknes, and from Azilá to the south of Rabát; and Roman sites are in several instances marked by considerable remains of masonry. At Kasr Fará'in (Pharaoh's castle), on the western slope of J. Zarhún, are the ruins of Volubilis. The *enceinte*, constructed of large stones and flanked by round towers, is 12,000 feet in extent. Four gates are still recognizable, and a triumphal arch erected in 216 A.D. in honour of Caracalla and Julia Domna. The stones of this site have been used for Meknes. Banasa (Colonia Elia, originally Valgentia) is identified with the ruins of Sidi Ali Bá Jenun, and Thamusida with those of Sidi Ali b. Hamed. At Tchennish, up the river from Larash, the city of Lixus (Trinx of Strabo) has left splendid specimens of Punic and Roman stonework, and the similar remains on the headland of Múlá Bá Selhan probably belong to the Mudelecha of Polybius. Of early Moorish architecture good examples are comparatively few, and badly preserved. Besides those in Fez, Meknes, and Morocco, it is sufficient to mention the mausoleum of the Beni-Merín (13th to 16th centuries) at Shella, which, with the adjoining mosque, is roofless and ruined, but possesses a number of valuable inscriptions (see *Athenæum*, 1875).

The present state of Morocco is deplorable. The government is an Oriental despotism under an independent quasi-hereditary sultan; there are no administrative functionaries with definite responsibility and regular salary; the distribution of justice is utterly arbitrary, and the punishments often barbarous in the extreme; education, in the European sense of the word, there is none; foreign commerce is hampered by vexatious prohibitions and restrictions, internal trade by the almost complete absence of roads and bridges, and by the generally lawless state of the country (the very peasant has his gun beside him as he ploughs); the only substitute for a postal system is a class of running couriers; and even the army (in which the sultan does take an interest) is only just beginning to show signs of discipline and effectiveness under the supervision of Káid M'Clean and other foreign officers. The last remnants of the once powerful Moorish fleet are rotting beyond recognition in the harbour of Larash. With good government and freedom of trade the country might soon be restored to a high state of prosperity: its climate, soil, products, and the qualities of its predominant population are full of promise; and the evident decrease of hostility towards the Christian, which may be observed since the beginning of the century, and especially within recent years, gives hope that European influence, apart from European conquest, may before long remove from Morocco the reproach of being "the China of the West," the most backward and barbarous of civilized nations.

History.—Morocco corresponds to the Roman Mauretania Tingitana (see MAURETANIA). Conquered by the Vandals (429 A.D.), Mauretania was recovered to the Eastern Empire by Belisarius. The Arabs first penetrated into the country under 'Okba (*supra*, p. 567), but the Berbers opposed an obstinate resistance to Islam, and their conversion and subjection to the caliphate was only completed in the reign of Walíd by Músá b. Nusair, the conqueror of Spain (*supra*, p. 573). The dominion of the caliphs was of short duration; the 'Abbasids had very little hold of the Berber countries, and in the 9th century, while the Aghlabites were practically independent at Kairawán, the regions west of the salt marsh of Sebka

al-Hoúna were autonomous under a number of indigenous or foreign princes. The chief of these principalities were that of the Idrisites at Fez (*supra*, p. 581), the kingdom of Tahart, and that of Nákúr. In the first years of the 10th century the Fátimite caliphs, at the head of the powerful Berber tribe of Ketáma, overthrew the Aghlabites, thus putting an end for ever to Arab rule in North Africa, and rapidly extended their empire to the Atlantic. When the Fátimite established themselves in Egypt, the Zírid dynasty reigned as their vassals in the west, and maintained themselves with varying fortunes till the rise of the great empire of the ALMORAVIDES (*q. v.*), who yielded in turn to the ALMOHADES (*q. v.*). The latter dynasty was extinguished by the princes of the Beni-Merín, whose chief, Ya'kúb b. 'Abd al-Hakk, captured Morocco in 1269 A.D. The subsequent history of Morocco and Fez under the Merinids and their successors presents little interest, being as full of internecine wars, contested successions, fratricides, general bloodshed, and barbarities as it is empty of all indications of an advance in civilization. As regards the relations of the country to European nations, four periods may be distinguished—(1) a period lasting down to the close of the 14th century, when the Moorish potentates were still the most prominent representatives of aggressive Mohammedanism; (2) a period during which the Portuguese and Spaniards, having expelled their invaders, made vigorous reprisals and obtained possession of many towns on the coast of Morocco; (3) a period in which these nations, disheartened by the disastrous defeat in the Battle of the Three Kings (1579), allowed the Moors to recover much of the ground they had lost, and to become, by their piracies and defiance of international law, an object if not of terror yet of apprehension and irritation; and (4) a period in which the prestige of this after-glow of greatness has gradually died out.

The following are the more noteworthy events in the Moorish annals since the beginning of the 15th century.

v. 1415. Ceuta captured by the Portuguese. 1436. First expedition against Tangiers by Don Duarte; capture of Don Fernando, who died in exile in 1459 (it was proposed to ransom him by cession of Ceuta, but the pope objected). 1459. Capture of Alcazar Seguir. 1471. Capture of Tangiers. 1510-1540. Rise of the dynasty of the Sherifs. 1577. Edmond Hogan sent by Queen Elizabeth of England to Muley 'Abd al-Melek (see Report in Hakluyt). 1578. Defeat of King Sebastian (see Leared, *Visit to Court of Morocco*, appendix). 1585. Founding of the Company of Barbary Merchants (earls of Warwick, Leicester, &c.) in London; Elizabeth's second ambassador Henry Roberts well received. 1610. The Moors from Spain settle partly at Rabát, &c., and prove troublesome. 1649. Muley Zidan sends to King Charles I. requesting him to attack Sallee by sea. About this time Ali Sherif of Yanbo, near Medina, is recognized as ruler of Táfflett, and gradually of the rest of the empire except the city of Morocco; with him commences the dynasty of the Aláides; on his death his sons, Mohammed and Arshid, dispute the succession. 1662. Tangiers (Portuguese since 1471) becomes an English possession as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza. 1664-1672. Reign of Arshid, a warlike, active, and cruel prince, who was the first to take the title of sultan. 1672-1727. Reign of Ishmael, who in ability and ferocity completely outdid his brother Arshid, and supported his throne by an enormous army of slaves from the Súdán. 1678. Great plague; ambassadors sent to Louis XIV. to ask the hand of Mademoiselle Blois, the king's natural daughter. 1682. The sultan sends two lions to the king of England. 1684. Sir Cloudesley Shovel defends British interests on the coast; withdrawal of the English from Tangiers. 1687. Capture of Larash from the Spaniards. 1694. Siege of Ceuta. 1725. Thomas Betton, who had been a slave in Morocco, left £13,000, the half of his fortune, for the ransom of British captives in that country. 1727-1730. Disputed succession. 1757-1769. Reign of Mohammed. 1778. Locusts. 1780. Great famine; Agadir opened to the Dutch. 1794-1822. Reign of Soliman; abolition of Christian slavery in Morocco; suppression of piracy. 1822-1859. Reign of Abd er Rahman; rupture with Spain on account of the decapitation of Consul Darmon for the wounding of a Moor. 1844. Defeat of forces sent to assist 'Abd al-Kader in Algiers; bombardment of Tangiers and Mogador by the prince de Joinville; rout of the Moorish forces in the battle of Isly; and peace of Tangiers. 1845. Naval demonstration at Tangiers and ratification of treaty; surrender to Spain of disputed territory at Ceuta. 1853. Establishment of a customs line and regular military posts along the Algerian frontier. 1856. English commercial treaty by which no duty shall exceed 10 per cent. of the value of the wares. 1859-1873. Reign of Mohammed; Spanish invasion. 1860. Decisive battle between General O'Donnell and the Moors near Tetuan (March). By the treaty of Tetuan Morocco was to pay 20,000,000 piastres to Spain, to surrender territory at Santa Cruz de Mar Pequeña for a commercial establishment, and to allow the Spanish missionaries to have a house at Fez like that which they had at Tangiers. Money not being obtainable to pay the indemnity, the Spaniards obtained control of the customs for a term of years. 1864. Decree permitting Europeans to trade in any part of the empire. 1873. Accession of Hasan. 1880. English embassy for improvement of commercial relations; conference at

Madrid to define the rights of European representatives in regard to the protection afforded by them to subjects of the sultan; number of *protégés* limited to three. 1882. Expedition to subdue Sid Hosen of Iliq. 1883. Protest of the English Government against the slave trade in Morocco.

Lists of works in regard to Morocco will be found in Renou, *Descript. géogr. de l'emp. de Maroc*, Paris, 1846, forming part of *L'empire scientifique de l'Afrique*; in *Bol. de la Soc. géogr. de Madrid*, 1871, 1878; and in *Revista Contemporánea*, Madrid, 1881. Besides Renou's Description—a masterly criticism of all previous geographical material—the following may be mentioned:—Ibn Khaldún, *Hist. des Berbères* (tr. by Baron de Slane); Les Africains, *Descript. Afrique*; Diego de Torres, *Origen y sucesso de los Xarifes . . . de Marruecos, &c.*, 1585; Marmol, *Descr. de l'Afrique*, 1667; Faria y Sousa, *Africa Portuguesa*, Lisbon, 1681; Addison, *Account of West Barbary*, 1671 (Pinker's Coll., xv.); Chenier, *Rech. hist. sur les Maures*, 1787; Jackson, *Account of the Emp. of Morocco*, 1809, and *Visit to the Mauritania*, 1820; Drummond Hay, *Western Barbary*, 1844; John Davidson, *Notes taken during Travels in Africa*, 1839; De Aguirre, *Expedicion al Rif*, 1858; Mrs. E. Murray, *Sixteen Years in Morocco, Spain, &c.*, 1859; Richardson, *Trav. in Morocco*, 1860; Maltzan, *Drei Jahren im Nordwesten von Afrika*, 1868 (4 vols.); Rohlfs, *Reise durch Marokko*, Bremen, 1868; Fritsch in "Mittheil. d. Vereins für Erdk.," Halle, 1878; Leared, *Morocco and the Moors*, 1878, and *Visit to the Court of Morocco*, 1879; De Amiel's *Morocco*, Milan, 1878—a very graphic sketch, which has been deservedly translated into English, French, German, &c.; Tissot, *Rech. sur la géogr. comparée de la Mauritanie Tingitane*, 1877; Castellanos, *Descr. hist. de Marruecos*, Santiago, 1878; Hooker and Ball, *Morocco and the Great Atlas*, 1878; Gatell, *Viajes por Marruecos*, 1879; Payton, *Mosses from a Rolling Stone*, 1879; Llana y Rodríguez, *El imp. de Marruecos*, 1880; Watson, *A Visit to Wazan*, 1880; Trotter, *Mission to the Court of Morocco*, 1881; Cowan and Johnstone, *Moorish Lotus Leaves*, 1882.

MOROCCO, or MAROCCO (Marrákush), one of the quasi-capitals of the sultanate (Fez and Meknes being the other two), lies in a spacious plain about 15 miles from the northern underfalls of the Atlas, and 90 miles east-south-east of Šaffi, at a height variously estimated as 1639 feet (Hooker and Ball), 1410 (Beaumiér), and 1500 (Leared). Ranking during the early centuries of its existence as one of the greatest and most flourishing cities of Islam, Morocco has long been in a state of grievous decay; and were it not for the exceptional beauty of its situation, the luxuriant groves and gardens by which it is encompassed and interspersed, and the magnificent outlook which it enjoys towards the mountains, it would be altogether a very miserable place. The wall, 25 or 30 feet high, and relieved by square towers at intervals of 360 feet, is so dilapidated that foot-passengers, and in places even horsemen, can find their way in and out through the breaches. Open spaces of great extent are numerous enough within the walls, but for the most part they are defaced by mounds of rubbish and putrid refuse. With the exception of the tower of the Kutubia Mosque and a certain archway which was brought in pieces from Spain, there is not, it is asserted, a single stone building in the city; and even bricks (though the local manufacture is of excellent quality) are sparingly employed. *Tábiya*, or pounded clay, is the almost universal material, and the houses are consequently seldom raised more than two stories in height. The palace of the sultan covers an extensive area, and has its parks and gardens enclosed by walls similar to those of the city proper, but is architecturally quite insignificant. In the whole of Morocco the tower of the Kutubia alone is a worthy memorial of the constructive genius of the early Moors; both it and the similar tower of Hasan at Rabát are after the type of the Giralda at Seville, and, if tradition may be trusted, all three were designed by the same architect Jábir. The mosque to which the tower belongs is a large brick building erected by 'Abd al-Mumen; the interior is adorned with marble pillars, and the whole of the crypt is occupied by a vast cistern excavated by Mansúr. Other mosques of some note are those of Ibn Yúfuf, Al-Mansúr, and Al-Mo'izz; the chapel of Sidi Bel Abbas, in the extreme north of the city, possesses property to the value of £200,000, and serves as a great almshouse and asylum. As in most other towns throughout Morocco, there is a special Jews' quarter walled off from the rest. The general population is of a very mixed and turbulent kind; crimes of violence are extremely common, and there are countless varieties of the professional thief. Almost the only manufacture extensively prosecuted is that of Morocco leather, mainly red and yellow, about 1500 men being employed as tanners and shoemakers. The city was founded in 1062 by Yúfuf b.