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Volume 8

EDWARD TO EXTRACT



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EDWARD (EADWEARD), **SAINT**, THE CONFESSOR (c. 1003–1066), king of the English from 1042 to 1066, son of Aethelred II the Unready and of Emma, daughter of Richard I, duke of Normandy, was born at Islip, Oxfordshire, between 1002 and 1005. He was sent to Normandy (1013) when Sweyn I replaced Aethelred as king of England and he brought (1014) Aethelred's reply to the invitation asking him to return. Edward lived in Normandy, except for a brief visit to his mother in 1036 (the year of the murder of his brother Alfred), from 1016 to 1041, when he came to the court of his half brother Hardicanute, whom he succeeded in 1042, being crowned on April 3. One of his first acts was to seize his mother's goods (1043); she had favoured her son Hardicanute, and one source accuses her of supporting the claim of Magnus of Norway, which was based on an agreement with Hardicanute that if either died without heir the survivor should succeed. Expecting Magnus to invade, Edward collected his fleet at Sandwich (1045), but Magnus was prevented by his war with Sweyn Estrithson, king of Denmark, and his death (1047) removed the threat.

Edward was overshadowed by the power of Godwin (q.v.), earl of the West Saxons, whose daughter Edith he married in 1045. A breach occurred in 1051. Godwin, claiming to be acting against the foreigners brought in by the king, defied him, and Edward, with the support of the earls Leofric of Mercia and Siward of Northumbria, outlawed the Godwin family and dismissed his queen. However, his encouragement of foreigners and, according to some authorities, his promise of the succession to William, duke of Normandy, lost him sympathy, so that in 1052 Godwin and his sons could gather a large force and compel the king to reinstate them. The Norman prelates Robert, archbishop of Canterbury, and Ulf, bishop of Dorchester, fled with other Normans. Stigand replaced Robert as archbishop, an offense against canon law which enabled William to secure papal support for his invasion in 1066. When Godwin died (1053) his son Harold, afterward Harold II (q.v.), became the chief power in the land. By 1057 his three brothers were provided with earldoms, but in 1065 the Northumbrians successfully petitioned for the expulsion of Tostig, though he was a favourite of the king.

There were other unruly elements in this reign. A Dane, Osgod

Clapa, outlawed in 1046, raided Essex in 1049. The Welsh made a raid in 1052, and when in 1055 and again in 1058 Earl Aelfgar of Mercia was outlawed, he was twice reinstated with the help of Welsh forces and in 1058, of a large fleet from Norway also. After Aelfgar's death Harold and Tostig reduced Wales (1062). The English interfered in Scottish politics (1054) when Siward invaded and routed Macbeth. Tostig became a friend of King Malcolm, but this did not prevent Malcolm from raiding Northumbria in Tostig's absence (1061).

Early in the reign England was drawn into continental politics. Edward maintained a fleet at Sandwich in 1048 to hamper the movements of Count Baldwin V of Flanders, who was at war with the emperor Henry III. Baldwin retaliated later by supporting English exiles. An embassy, led by Bishop Ealdred of Worcester, to the emperor in 1054 concerned the succession to the English throne. It resulted in the arrival (1057) of Edward, son of Edmund Ironside, and his family, but Edward died the same year. After the return to power of Godwin and his sons, a peaceful succession of William became unlikely, and on his deathbed Edward named Harold to succeed him.

Edward, later called "Confessor," has been blamed for behaving more like a monk than a king. Yet his reputation for piety may have helped to preserve some dignity for the crown in an age of overdominant magnates. His introduction of foreigners, natural in a king educated abroad, lost him the sympathy of his subjects. There is little evidence that the foreigners made much contribution to learning and the arts, in which, except for architecture, the English were in advance of the Normans. Edward's new church at Westminster, dedicated on Dec. 28, 1065, was the first to be built in the new continental style. Edward died on Jan. 5, 1066, and was buried the next day at Westminster. He was canonized in 1161. His feast days are Jan. 5 and Oct. 13 (translation).

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EDWARD (EADWEARD), **SAINT**, THE MARTYR (c. 963–978), king of the English from 975 to 978, was the son of King Edgar by his first wife, Aethelflaed. On Edgar's death one party wished his younger son, Aethelred, to succeed him, but Edward was elected and crowned at Kingston-upon-Thames before the end of the year. His reign saw a great reaction from the promonastic policy of Edgar, led by Aelfhere, ealdorman of Mercia, but reaching further afield, including Kent and Northumbria, where the earl, Oslac, was banished in 975 for some unstated cause. Monks were expelled and estates withdrawn from several houses, but the monastic cause was upheld by Aethelwine, ealdorman of East Anglia, and his brother Aelfwold, and by Brihtnoth, ealdorman of Essex, and eventually the reaction was halted. An estate belonging to Ramsey abbey was declared by the shire moot to be a royal estate illegally granted, but Edward did not press his claim to it. Little else is known of his short reign. Assemblies were held at Kirtlington, Oxfordshire and Calne, Wiltshire, both in 977, and a few charters survive. Edward was assassinated on March 18, 978, when visiting his brother at Corfe, Dorset, and was buried unceremoniously at Wareham, but a year later Ealdorman Aelfhere translated his remains to Shaftesbury where it was claimed that they worked miracles. There is no contemporary evidence for the tale told a century later attributing his murder to his stepmother Aelfthryth. A code (1008) of Aethelred II enjoined that his funeral was to be observed over all England.

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EDWARD (EADWEARD) THE ELDER (d. 924), king of the West Saxons from 899 to 924, was a great military commander. His fame rests securely on his campaigns against the Danish armies which during the reign (871–899) of his father, Alfred, had occupied the eastern half of England. When Alfred died (Oct. 26, 899) Edward had to face trouble from an older cousin, Aethelwald, who may have thought he had a better claim to the throne. Aethelwald failed to attract sufficient support and took refuge among the Northumbrian Danes. Edward was crowned on June 8, 900. In 902 Aethelwald persuaded the Danes of East Anglia to attack Edward's territories but he was killed in battle. After an interval, Edward and the Danes made peace (906) at Yttingaford (now Tiddenfoot in Linslade, Buckinghamshire). The struggle broke out again in 909 when Edward sent a combined force of Mercians and West Saxons against the Northumbrian Danes. They retaliated in 910, raiding extensively in English Mercia, but they were decisively defeated (Aug. 5) at Tettenhall, Staffordshire, after which no more is heard of an effective Danish army in Northumbria.

Danish armies still controlled the eastern midlands and East Anglia, and the main theme of the years 910–916 was the building of a series of fortified enclosures (boroughs) to protect English territory from raids and to serve as bases for advance. Edward built two fortresses at Hertford (911, 912), two at Buckingham (914), one at Witham (912), one at Bedford (915) and one at Maldon (916). His sister Aethelflaed (q.v.) built a complementary series in the northwest midlands. The complete integration of West Saxon and Mercian policies is illustrated also by Edward's assumption (911) of direct control of the London-Oxford area, a traditionally Mercian district which Alfred had given (886) into the keeping of Aethelred, ealdorman of the Mercians. Edward's fortress building was interrupted by Danish raids from Northampton and Leicester (913) and by the arrival of Vikings in the Severn (914), but by the end of 916 much territory had been recovered from the Danes and in 917 a great offensive was launched. In the first half of April Edward's forces occupied Towcester and after the middle of May he built a fortress at Winghamere (apparently a few miles southeast of Cambridge). The Danes, alarmed by these advances, made three unsuccessful attacks on English positions. The struggle was at its height in the summer of 917 when Aethelflaed captured Derby, one of the great Danish strongholds in the midlands. By the end of the year Northampton, Huntingdon and Colchester were in Edward's hands

and the whole Danish army of East Anglia, including that of Cambridge, had submitted. A final campaign was planned for 918. Edward advanced to Stamford, Aethelflaed occupied Leicester and the end was in sight when Aethelflaed died at Tamworth (June 12). Edward broke off his campaign to assert his authority over the Mercians. The princes and peoples of Wales also "sought him for their lord," and by the end of the year the last independent Danish armies in the midlands had submitted. Edward was lord of all the peoples south of the Humber.

His later fortresses were at Thelwall and Manchester (919), at Nottingham and Bakewell (920) and at Cledemutha (921), probably at the mouth of the river Clwyd in Wales. His main concern was now to protect his territories against Scandinavian resident outside his authority, especially against Irish-Norwegian adventurers who were rapidly gaining control of Northumbria. He seems to have succeeded Aethelflaed as the leader of an anti-Norse coalition of Northumbrian Danes, English, Picts, Scots and Britons. The entry (under the year 923 or 924) in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle to the effect that all these peoples, and also the Irish-Norwegians, chose Edward "for father and for lord" probably reflects a general pacification of the north.

Other aspects of the reign are not unimportant. There were advances in the organization of the English church, in the minting of coins and in law, local government and administration. But Edward was, above all else, a great military leader. He died at Farndon on Dee on July 17, 924, a few days after quelling an obscure disturbance in Chester, perhaps an attempt by Mercians and Welshmen to escape from West Saxon domination.

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(F. T. W.)

EDWARD I (1239–1307), king of England from 1272 to 1307, was born at Westminster on June 17, 1239, the eldest son of Henry III and Eleanor of Provence. In 1254 he was given the duchy of Gascony, Oléron, the Channel Islands, Ireland, Henry's lands in Wales, the earldom of Chester and the castles of Bristol, Stamford, Grantham, Tickhill and the Peak. Henry negotiated Edward's marriage with Eleanor, half sister of Alfonso X of Castile. Edward reached Gascony in June 1254 and Castile in October, when Alfonso knighted him at Burgos. He married Eleanor at Las Huelgas (c. Oct. 31), returning to Bordeaux to organize his scattered apanage. He now had his own household and officials, chancery and seal, with an exchequer at Bristol castle; though nominally governing all his lands, in Gascony and Ireland he merely enjoyed the revenues. He returned to England in Nov. 1255 and attacked Llewelyn ap Gruffydd, prince of Gwynedd, to whom his Welsh subjects had appealed when his seneschal, Geoffrey Langley, applied the English shire and hundred system to Edward's Welsh lands. Edward, receiving no help from either Henry or the marcher lords, was defeated ignominiously. His arrogant lawlessness and his close association with his Poitevin uncles increased his unpopularity, especially when he supported the Poitevin resistance to the Provisions of Oxford (1258). But after the Poitevins were expelled, Edward fell under the influence of Simon de Montfort, his uncle by marriage, with whom he made a formal pact.

As spokesman for the "community of the bachelors of England," Edward intervened dramatically to support the radical Provisions of Westminster (Oct. 1259), and in the dangerous crisis early in 1260 he supported Montfort and the extremists, though finally he deserted Montfort and was forgiven by Henry (May 1260). (See ENGLISH HISTORY: *Henry III*, [1216–72].) He was sent to Gascony in Oct. 1260 but returned early in 1263; his violence in robbing the Temple and his quarrel with the Londoners harmed Henry's cause. At Lewes (May 14, 1264) his vengeful pursuit of the Londoners early in the battle contributed to Henry's defeat; he surrendered and became a hostage in Montfort's hands. He escaped at Hereford in May 1265 and took charge of the royal-

ist marchers' forces, penned Montfort behind the river Severn and by lightning strategy destroyed a large relieving army at Kenilworth (Aug. 1), trapped and slew Montfort at Evesham (Aug. 4) and rescued Henry. Shattered and enfeebled, Henry allowed Edward effective control, and his extreme policy of vengeance, especially against the Londoners, revived and prolonged rebel resistance. Finally the papal legate Ottobuono, Edward's uncle Richard, earl of Cornwall, and other moderates persuaded Henry to the milder policy of the *Dictum de Kenilworth* (Oct. 31, 1266), and after some delay the rebels surrendered. Edward took the cross (1268), intending to join Louis IX's crusade against Tunis, but was delayed by lack of money until Aug. 1270. Louis died before Edward's arrival, and Edward, after wintering in Sicily, went to Acre, where he stayed from May 1271 to Sept. 1272, winning fame by his energy and courage and narrowly escaping death by assassination, but achieving no useful results. On his way home he learned in Sicily of Henry III's death on Nov. 16, 1272.

Accession and Character.—Edward had nominated Walter Giffard, archbishop of York, Philip Bassett, Roger Mortimer and his trusted clerk Robert Burnell to safeguard his interests during his absence. After Henry's funeral the English barons all swore fealty to Edward (Nov. 20, 1272). His succession by hereditary right and the will of his magnates was proclaimed and England welcomed the new reign peacefully, Burnell taking charge of the administration with his colleagues' support. This quiet succession demonstrated England's unity only five years after a bitter civil war. Edward could journey homeward slowly, halting in Paris to do homage to his cousin Philip III for his French lands (July 26, 1273), staying several months in Gascony and reaching Dover on Aug. 2, 1274, for his coronation at Westminster on Aug. 19. Now 35 years old, Edward had redeemed a bad start. He had been arrogant, lawless, violent, treacherous, revengeful and cruel; his Angevin rages matched those of Henry II. Loving his own way and intolerant of opposition, he had still proved susceptible to influence by strong-minded associates. He had shown intense family affection, loyalty to friends, courage, brilliant military capacity and a gift for leadership; handsome, tall, powerful and tough, he had the qualities men admired. He loved efficient, strong government, enjoyed power and had learned to admire justice, though in his own affairs it was often the letter, not the spirit of the law that he observed. Having mastered his anger, he had shown himself capable of patient negotiation, generosity and even idealism, and he preferred the society and advice of strong counselors with good minds. As long as Burnell and Queen Eleanor lived, the better side of Edward triumphed, and the years until about 1294 were years of great achievement. Thereafter his character deteriorated for lack of independent advice, and his rule degenerated into autocratic militarism and megalomania.

Parliament and Statutes.—Shrewdly realistic, Edward understood the value of the "parliaments" which since 1254 had distinguished English government and which Montfort had deliberately employed to publicize government policy and to enlist widespread, active support by summoning representatives of shires and boroughs to the council to decide important matters. Edward developed this practice swiftly, not to share royal power with his subjects but to strengthen royal authority with the support of rising national consciousness. From 1275 to 1307 he summoned knights and burgesses to his parliaments in varying manners. The parliament of 1295, which included representatives of shires, boroughs and the lesser clergy, is usually styled the Model parliament, but the pattern varied from assembly to assembly as Edward decided. By 1307 parliament, thus broadly constituted, had become the distinctive feature of English politics, though its powers were still undefined and its organization embryonic.

Edward used these parliaments and other councils to enact measures of consolidation and reform in legal, procedural and administrative matters of many kinds. The great statutes promulgated between 1275 and 1290 are the glory of his reign. Conservative and definitory rather than original, they owed much to Burnell, Edward's chancellor. With the vast developments and reorganization of the administrative machine which Burnell co-ordinated, they created a new era in English government. The

*quo warrant*o inquiry, begun in 1275, the Statutes of Gloucester (1278) and of *Quo Warranto* (1290) sought with much success to bring existing franchises under control and to prevent the unauthorized assumption of new ones. By distraint of knighthood and other supporting measures, Edward strove, unsuccessfully, to restore the feudal army and strengthen local government institutions by compelling minor landowners to assume the duties of knighthood. His land legislation, especially the clause *De donis conditionalibus* in the miscellaneous Statute of Westminster II (1285) and the statute *Quia Emptores* (1290), eventually helped to undermine feudalism, quite contrary to Edward's purpose. The Statute of Mortmain (1279), by requiring royal consent, controlled the acquisition of land by ecclesiastical bodies. The Statute of Winchester (1285) codified and strengthened the police system for preserving public order. The Statute of Acton Burnell (1283), the Statute of Rhuddlan (1284) and the Statute of Merchants (1285) showed practical concern for trade and merchants. These are but the most famous of many statutes aimed at efficiency and sound administration.

Wars.—*Wales.*—Meanwhile, Edward destroyed the autonomous principality of Wales which, under Llewelyn ap Gruffydd, had expanded to include all Welsh lordships and much territory recovered from the marcher lords. Domestic difficulties had compelled Henry III to recognize Llewelyn's gains by the treaty of Shrewsbury (1267), but Edward was determined to reduce Llewelyn and used Llewelyn's persistent evasion of his duty to perform homage as a pretext for attack. He invaded Wales by three co-ordinated advances with naval support (1277), blockaded Llewelyn in Snowdonia, starved him into submission and stripped him of all his conquests since 1247. He then erected a tremendous ring of powerful castles encircling Gwynedd and reorganized the conquered districts as shires and hundreds. When English rule provoked rebellion, he methodically reconquered the principality, killing both Llewelyn and his brother David (1282–83). By the Statute of Rhuddlan he completed the reorganization of the principality on English lines, leaving the Welsh marches unaffected. A further Welsh rising in 1294–95 was ruthlessly crushed and Wales remained supine for over 100 years.

France.—After 1294 matters deteriorated. Queen Eleanor died in 1290, Burnell in 1292, and Edward never thereafter found such good advisers. The conquest and fortification of Wales had badly strained his finances; now endless wars with Scotland and France bankrupted him. He quarreled bitterly with both clergy and barons, behaving as a rash and obstinate autocrat refusing to recognize his limitations. Philip III and Philip IV of France had both cheated him of the contingent benefits promised by the treaty of Paris (1259). By constant intervention on pretext of suzerainty they had nibbled at his Gascon borders and undermined the authority of his administration there. After doing homage to Philip IV in 1286, Edward visited Gascony to reorganize the administration and restore authority. On returning to England in 1289 he had to dismiss many judges and officials for corruption and oppression during his absence. In 1290, having systematically stripped the Jews of their remaining wealth, he expelled them from England. French intervention in Gascony was now intensified; affrays between English and French sailors inflamed feelings; and in 1293 Philip IV tricked Edward's brother Edmund, earl of Lancaster, who was conducting negotiations, into ordering a supposedly formal and temporary surrender of the duchy, which Philip then refused to restore. The Welsh rising and Scottish troubles prevented Edward from taking action and when at last, in 1297, he sailed to attack France from Flanders, his barons refused to invade Gascony and Wallace's rising forced him to return. He made peace with Philip (1299), by Boniface VIII's persuasion, married Philip's sister Margaret and eventually recovered an attenuated Gascon duchy.

Scotland.—For over 100 years relations between England and Scotland had been amicable and the border had been remarkably peaceful. Edward inaugurated 250 years of bitter hatred, savage warfare and bloody border forays. The deaths of Alexander III of Scotland (1286) and his granddaughter Margaret, the Maid of Norway (1290), whom Edward planned to marry to his heir,

Edward of Caernarvon (afterward Edward II), ended the line of succession. Many dubious claimants arose, and the Scottish magnates requested Edward's arbitration. Edward compelled the nobles and the claimants to recognize his suzerainty, and only then adjudged John de Balliol king (1292). Balliol did homage and was crowned, but Edward's insistence on effective jurisdiction, as suzerain, in Scottish cases eventually provoked the Scottish nobles to force Balliol to repudiate Edward's claims and to ally with France (1295). Edward invaded and conquered Scotland (1296), removing to Westminster the coronation Stone of Scone. William Wallace led a revolt in 1297 and Edward, though brilliantly victorious at Falkirk (July 22, 1298), could not subdue the rebellion despite prolonged campaigning (1298-1303).

Last Years.—The strain of these wars provoked heavy collisions between Edward and his magnates. He had quarreled violently with his archbishops of Canterbury, John Pecham (1279-92) and Robert Winchelsea (1293-1313), over ecclesiastical liberties and jurisdiction. In 1297 Winchelsea, obeying Boniface VIII's bull *Clericis laicos* (1296), rejected Edward's demands for taxes from the clergy, whereupon Edward outlawed the clergy. His barons now defied his orders to invade Gascony and, when Edward went to Flanders, compelled the regents to confirm the charters of liberties, with important additions forbidding arbitrary taxation (1297), thereby forcing Edward to abandon the campaign and eventually to make peace with France. Although Pope Clement V, more pliant than Boniface, allowed Edward to exile Winchelsea and intimidate the clergy (1306), the barons had exacted further concessions (1301) before reconciliation. Edward renewed the conquest of Scotland in 1303, captured Stirling in 1304 and executed Wallace as a traitor in 1305, but when Scotland seemed finally subjected, Robert the Bruce revived rebellion and was crowned in 1306. On his way to reconquer Scotland, Edward died at Burgh by Sands, near Carlisle, on July 7, 1307.

See also references under "Edward I" in the Index volume.

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EDWARD II (1284-1327), known as Edward of Caernarvon, king of England from 1307 to 1327, the fourth son of Edward I and his first wife, Eleanor of Castile, was born at Caernarvon on April 25, 1284, and became heir to the throne on the death of his brother Alfonso (Aug. 1284). He was granted the royal lands in Wales and the earldom of Chester (1301), but there is no evidence that he placed particular emphasis on this Welsh connection. More important for the future were his friendship with Piers Gaveston, the Gascon knight whom Edward I banished in Feb. 1307, and his marriage in Jan. 1308 with Isabella, daughter of Philip IV the Fair of France.

Edward became king on July 7, 1307. He immediately reinstated some of his father's more prominent opponents and recalled Gaveston from exile, making him earl of Cornwall (Aug. 1307). At his coronation (Feb. 1308) Edward took a fourfold oath, which added to the traditional three promises an undertaking to maintain the laws and rightful customs chosen by the people of the realm. In this the king bound himself to little that was new, but the oath was subsequently used against him.

During the two decades of his reign Edward was engaged in an almost continuous struggle with the barons, which culminated in his deposition and death. In this conflict parliament became increasingly important as a political assembly. Edward's personality explains much of his failure. Though physically strong and a good horseman, he was not intelligent. A source written in 1315 describes his interest in such rustic pursuits as making ditches, and his unconventional tastes separated him in outlook from the majority of the feudal magnates. He thus turned to favourites such as Gaveston for friendship and advice, while his faults of character lost him any more widespread support.

The Ordinances.—The conflict between Edward II and the barons which arose from the baronial attempt to restrict the

king's power, particularly in the choice of advisers and control of the household, developed immediately over Gaveston. The barons compelled the king to banish him (June 1308), but the favourite was soon recalled (July 1309). His unpopularity and the favour shown to him by Edward resulted in the formation of a baronial committee of 21, the lords ordainers, who drafted the document known as the ordinances (1311). Their terms included demands for the renewal of the sentence of banishment on Gaveston and the limitation of the royal prerogative in such fields as finance, declaration of war and appointments in the household. Parliaments were to be held at least annually. Although the ordinances still envisaged parliament as a baronial assembly, they may mark an advance in the commons' participation, for after 1311 knights and burgesses were summoned more frequently.

Edward was obliged to accept the ordinances, but he endeavoured to build up a party to overthrow them and quickly annulled the sentence on Gaveston. Such actions constituted a direct challenge to the barons. A force under Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, and John de Warenne, earl of Surrey, captured Gaveston at Scarborough castle and, despite a promise of personal immunity, he was executed on Blacklow hill (June 1312). Although a formal reconciliation was effected in 1313, Gaveston's death bred lasting enmity between Edward and certain of the leading barons.

Edward had to wait 11 years to annul the ordinances and avenge Gaveston. These years were occupied by Scottish affairs and by the ambitious actions of the king's cousin Thomas, earl of Lancaster. While Edward quarreled with the ordainers, Robert I the Bruce was consolidating his power in Scotland. A treaty in 1312 confirmed the cession of the Western Isles from Norway to Scotland, and in 1313 Scottish rule was restored in the Isle of Man. Stirling castle, the only important stronghold left in the hands of the English, was besieged in 1313. An English army, led north by Edward in an effort to save the garrison, was decisively defeated at Bannockburn on June 24, 1314. In the long run the battle proved a major step toward the practical and legal recognition of Scotland's independence. Immediately, it left Bruce free to devastate the northern counties of England and forced Edward more under the control of the leading barons. Thomas of Lancaster forced changes in the royal household at the York parliament of 1314, and in 1315 England was virtually under his control. Like Edward, however, Lancaster proved to have faults of character. He was suspected of intriguing with Bruce and he allowed personal enmity toward Edward to dislocate the work of government. His failure of statesmanship led to a new baronial grouping, headed by the earl of Pembroke, which historians have called the "middle party." Their policy was to maintain the ordinances and extend administrative reform. By the treaty of Leake in Aug. 1318, they effected a formal reconciliation between Lancaster and the king on the basis of the ordinances, and established a standing council whose consent was necessary to acts of sovereignty. One member of the council was nominated by Lancaster.

The treaty of Leake revealed the weakness of Edward's position. The Household Ordinance of York (Oct. 1318) reviewed household appointments, and Edward's reputation was further diminished by the Scottish victory over the English forces at Myton-upon-Swale (Sept. 1319). At this juncture Edward found new friends in the Despensers (*see* DESPENSER). Hugh le Despenser the younger had inherited, through his wife, Eleanor, part of the estates of Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester. With Edward's help he now attempted to acquire the lordship of Gower, as a preliminary to seizing the whole of the Clare property in Wales. But he aroused the hostility of the marcher lords and was defeated in Wales. Lancaster called various assemblies in the north, seeking to rouse opinion there, and a parliament held in July 1321 finally banished the Despensers. Edward took up arms on their behalf against what proved to be a divided opposition. Sir Roger Mortimer of Chirk and his nephew, Roger Mortimer of Wigmore, surrendered in the west, and on March 16, 1322, Lancaster was defeated at the battle of Boroughbridge and executed near his own castle of Pontefract (March 22).

At last free of baronial control, Edward revoked the ordinances

by the Statute of York (May 1322), which also stated that traditional methods of legislation by the king in parliament should be observed. The view that the statute intended to confer new rights on the commons is extremely doubtful. The period after Boroughbridge saw reforms which make the reign a turning point in administrative history. The work of the chamber was expanded under Hugh le Despenser the younger and that of the wardrobe restricted more closely to the affairs of the household. At the exchequer, Walter Stapledon, bishop of Exeter, was responsible for the reorganization of the exchequer records.

Isabella's Rebellion and the Deposition.—The Despensers were the main architects of administrative reform, but their growing wealth created resentment. In particular they aroused the antagonism of Queen Isabella, whose estates had been seized (1324) on the excuse that a French invasion was planned. Isabella sailed for France (March 1325) in an attempt to settle the perennial dispute with the French about Gascony, and in September was joined there by her son, the future Edward III. With various baronial exiles, including Roger Mortimer of Wigmore who had been in France since 1323 and whose mistress she became, she crossed to Essex in Sept. 1326, and declared her intention of removing the Despensers. Edward found himself without support. He fled to the west with the Despensers, but they were captured and executed, and Edward was imprisoned at Kenilworth (Nov. 1326).

Isabella and Mortimer determined to remove Edward from the throne. A revolutionary assembly which termed itself a parliament, and in which the commons were fully represented, met on Jan. 7, 1327. In this assembly Edward III was chosen king, and by the so-called Articles of Deposition Edward II was declared incompetent to govern. A deputation representative of the different estates of freemen in the realm went to Kenilworth and compelled Edward to renounce the throne; his son's reign was held to begin on Jan. 25. Despite these attempts to legalize revolution, it was considered unsafe for Edward to remain alive. In April 1327 he was removed from Kenilworth to Berkeley castle, where, after two attempted rescues, he was almost certainly murdered (Sept. 1327). He was buried in Gloucester, in St. Peter's abbey (now the cathedral), where miracles were later said to have been performed at his tomb.

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(J. TA.)

EDWARD III (1312–1377), king of England from 1327 to 1377, the eldest son of Edward II and Isabella of France, was born at Windsor on Nov. 13, 1312. He was summoned to parliament as earl of Chester (1320) and was made duke of Aquitaine (1325), but he never received the title of prince of Wales. He was sent to France to do homage (Sept. 1325) to his uncle Charles IV for Guienne, Gascony and Ponthieu and remained abroad until he accompanied his mother and Roger Mortimer of Wigmore in their expedition to England (Sept. 1326). To raise funds for this enterprise he was betrothed to Philippa, daughter of William II, count of Hainaut. The prince was proclaimed keeper of the realm (Oct. 26, 1326), and after Edward II had been forced to resign, he was accepted as king, his reign being held to begin on Jan. 25, 1327. He was crowned on Jan. 29, 1327.

During the next four years Isabella and Mortimer governed in his name, though nominally his guardian was Henry, earl of Lancaster. In the summer of 1327 he took part in an abortive campaign against the Scots. He married Philippa at York on Jan. 24, 1328, and his eldest child, Edward, later called the Black Prince, was born on June 15, 1330. Soon afterward, Edward made a successful effort to throw off his degrading dependence on his mother and Mortimer. While a council was being held at Nottingham, he entered the castle by night, through a subterranean passage, took Mortimer prisoner (Oct. 1330) and procured his execution (Nov. 1330). Edward discreetly ignored his mother's liaison with Mortimer

and treated her with every respect, but her political influence was at an end.

Edward III now began to rule as well as to reign. Young, ardent and active, he sought to restore England to the position it had acquired under Edward I. He resented the concession of independence made to Scotland by the treaty of Northampton (1328), and the death of Robert I the Bruce in 1329 gave him a chance of retrieving his position. The new king of Scots, his brother-in-law, David II, was a mere boy, and the Scottish barons who had been exiled by Bruce for their support of the English took advantage of the weakness of his rule to invade Scotland in 1332. At their head was Edward Balliol whose victory at the battle of Dupplin Moor (Aug. 1332) established him for a brief time on the Scottish throne. Balliol was defeated by a Scottish coalition (Dec. 1332), whereupon Edward III for the first time openly took up his cause and in person won a victory at the battle of Halidon Hill (July 1333). David II fled to France but the Scots always despised Balliol as a puppet of the English king and David was able to return in 1341.

The French Wars.—During the 1330s England gradually drifted into a state of hostility with France, for which the most obvious reason was the dispute over English rule in Gascony. Contributory causes were Philip VI's support of the Scots, Edward's alliance with the Flemish cities, then on bad terms with their overlord, and the revival (1337) of Edward's claim, first made in 1328, to the French crown. Philip declared Gascony forfeit (1337) and Edward visited Coblentz (Sept. 1338), where he confirmed an alliance with the emperor Louis IV (V) the Bavarian. Edward twice endeavoured to invade France from the north (1339, 1340) with the help of his German and Flemish allies, but the only result of his campaigns was to reduce him to bankruptcy. Edward assumed the title of king of France in Jan. 1340. At first he may have done this to gratify the Flemings, whose scruples in fighting their overlord, the French king, disappeared when they persuaded themselves that Edward was the rightful king of France. But his pretensions to the French crown gradually became more important and the persistence with which he and his successors urged them made stable peace impossible for more than a century. This was the struggle famous in history as the Hundred Years' War (*q.v.*). Until 1801 every English king also called himself king of France.

Crécy and Calais.—Edward was present in person at the great naval battle off Sluis in June 1340, in which he temporarily destroyed the French navy. Despite this victory he was so exhausted by his land campaign that he was forced to make a truce (Sept. 1340) and return to England. He unfairly blamed his chief minister, John de Stratford, archbishop of Canterbury, for his financial distress and vindictively attacked him. Before the truce expired a disputed succession to the duchy of Brittany gave Edward an excuse for renewing hostilities with France. He went to Brittany (1342) and fought an indecisive campaign. During the following years he spent much time and money in rebuilding Windsor castle and instituting the Order of the Garter, in fulfillment of a vow (Jan. 1344) to restore the Round Table of Arthur. A new phase of the French war began when Edward landed in Normandy (July 1346), accompanied by Prince Edward. At first he showed some want of strategic purpose. In an expedition that was little more than a large-scale plundering raid he marched via Caen almost to the gates of Paris. The campaign was made memorable by his decisive victory over the French at Crécy in Ponthieu (Aug. 26), where he scattered the army with which Philip VI sought to cut off his retreat to the northeast. Edward laid siege to Calais in Sept. 1346 and received its surrender in Aug. 1347. Other victories in Gascony and Brittany and the defeat and capture of David II at Neville's Cross near Durham (Oct. 1346) further emphasized his power, but this was the most solid and lasting of his conquests. He ejected most of the French inhabitants of Calais, colonizing the town with Englishmen and establishing there a base from which to conduct further invasions of France. Nevertheless, in the midst of his successes, want of money forced him to make a new truce (Sept. 1347).

Poitiers and the Treaty of Calais.—Edward returned to England in Oct. 1347. He celebrated his triumph by a series of splendid

tournaments and completed his scheme for the establishment of the Order of the Garter (c. 1349). In 1348 he rejected an offer of the imperial throne. In the same year the Black Death first appeared in England and raged until the end of 1349. Its horrors hardly checked the magnificent revels of Edward's court, and neither the plague nor the truce stayed the slow course of the French war, though the fighting was indecisive and on a small scale. Edward's martial exploits during the next years were those of a gallant knight rather than of a responsible general. Conspicuous among them were his famous combat with Eustace de Ribautmont in a melee near Calais (1349) and the hard-fought naval victory over the Spaniards off Winchelsea (1350). Although the English commons were now weary of the war, efforts to make peace, initiated by Pope Innocent VI, came to nothing and large-scale operations began again in 1355 when Edward led an unsuccessful raid out of Calais. He harried the Lothians in the expedition famous as the Burned Candlemas (Jan. and Feb. 1356), and in the same year he received a formal surrender of the kingdom of Scotland from Balliol. His exploits were, however, eclipsed by those of his son, whose victory at Poitiers (Sept. 19, 1356), resulting in the captivity of the French king John II, forced the French to accept a new truce. Edward entertained his captive magnificently, but forced him by the treaty of London (1359) to surrender so much territory that the French repudiated the agreement. In an effort to compel acceptance, Edward landed at Calais (Oct. 28) and besieged Reims, where he planned to be crowned king of France. The strenuous resistance of the citizens frustrated this scheme and Edward marched into Burgundy, eventually returning toward Paris. After this unsuccessful campaign he was glad to conclude preliminaries of peace at Brétigny, near Chartres (May 8, 1360). This treaty, less onerous to France than that of London, took its final form in the treaty of Calais, ratified by both kings (Oct. 1360). By it Edward renounced his claim to France in return for the whole of Aquitaine.

The Years of Decline: 1360-77.—The treaty of Calais did not bring rest or prosperity to either England or France. Fresh visitations of the Black Death (1361, 1369) intensified social and economic disturbances and desperate but not very successful efforts were made to enforce the Statute of Labourers (1351), which was intended to maintain prices and wages as they had been before the pestilence. Other famous laws enacted during the 1350s had been the statutes of Provisors (1351) and Praemunire (1353), which reflected popular hostility against foreign clergy. These measures were frequently re-enacted and Edward formally repudiated (1366) the feudal supremacy over England still claimed by the papacy by reason of King John's submission in 1213.

When the French king Charles V repudiated the treaty of Calais, Edward resumed the title of king of France, but he showed little of his former vigour in meeting this new trouble and left most of the fighting and the administration of his foreign territories to his sons Edward and John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. While they were struggling with little success against the rising tide of French national feeling, Edward's want of money made him a willing participant in the attack on the wealth and privileges of the church. The chancellor, William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, and the treasurer, Thomas Brantingham, bishop of Exeter, were driven from office (1371) and replaced by laymen, who proved, however, less effective administrators. Meanwhile Aquitaine was gradually lost, and the defeat of the earl of Pembroke off La Rochelle (1372) reflected English weakness at sea. The Black Prince returned to England in broken health (1371) and John of Gaunt's march through France from Calais to Bordeaux (1373) achieved nothing. Edward's final attempt himself to lead an army abroad (1372) was frustrated when contrary winds prevented his even landing his troops in France. In 1375 he was glad to make a truce, which lasted until his death. By it the only important possessions remaining in English hands were Calais, Bordeaux, Bayonne and Brest.

Edward was now sinking into his dotage. After the death of Queen Philippa in 1369 he fell entirely under the influence of a greedy mistress called Alice Perrers, while the Black Prince and John of Gaunt became the leaders of sharply divided parties in

the royal court and council. John of Gaunt returned to England in April 1374 and by the help of Alice Perrers obtained the chief influence with his father, but his administration was neither honourable nor successful. His chief enemies, headed by William of Wykeham, were the higher ecclesiastics, whom he further irritated by his support of the Lollard leader John Wycliffe. The secular opposition to Gaunt was led by the Black Prince and Edmund Mortimer, earl of March, the husband of Edward's granddaughter Philippa of Clarence. At the famous Good parliament of 1376 popular indignation against the ruling party came at last to a head. Alice Perrers was removed and some of Gaunt's followers were impeached. Before the parliament had concluded its business, however, the death of the Black Prince (June 8, 1376) robbed the commons of their strongest support. John of Gaunt regained power and the acts of the Good parliament had been reversed when Edward III died, on June 21, 1377, at Sheen (now Richmond).

Character and Family.—Edward III possessed extraordinary vigour and energy of temperament; he was an admirable tactician and a consummate knight. His court, described at length in Jean Froissart's famous chronicle, was the most brilliant in contemporary Europe, and he was himself well fitted to be the head of the magnificent chivalry that obtained fame in the French wars. Though his main ambition was military glory, he was not a bad ruler of England, being liberal, kindly, good tempered and easy of access. His need to obtain supplies for carrying on the French wars made him favourable to his subjects' petitions and contributed to the growing strength of parliament. His weak points were his wanton breaches of good faith, his extravagance, his frivolity and his self-indulgence. Like that of Edward I, his ambition transcended his resources, and before he died even his subjects sensed his failure.

Edward had seven sons and five daughters. Five of his sons played some part in the history of their time, these being Edward, the Black Prince; Lionel of Antwerp, duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster; Edmund of Langley, afterward duke of York; and Thomas of Woodstock, afterward duke of Gloucester. John and Edmund are also important as the founders of the rival houses of Lancaster and York.

See also references under "Edward III" in the Index volume.

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EDWARD IV (1442-1483), king of England from 1461 to 1483 except for the brief period (Oct. 1470-April 1471) when the deposed Henry VI was restored, was the eldest surviving son of Richard, duke of York, by Cicely, daughter of Ralph Neville, earl of Westmorland, and was born at Rouen on April 28, 1442. His father was the lineal representative both of Edward III's third son, Lionel, duke of Clarence, and of his fifth son, Edmund, duke of York, whereas the rival house of Lancaster could trace descent only from the fourth son of Edward III, John of Gaunt. When the government of Henry VI became discredited by weakness and unchecked faction at home and by disastrous failure in France, it was therefore possible for Richard of York to claim the throne on the ground of hereditary right (in spite of Lancastrian objections to a descent from Clarence that depended on two women, Philippa and Anne Mortimer). His claim was the more formidable because his marriage had brought him the support of the powerful Neville connection, above all of the earls of Salisbury and Warwick. In 1459 York, Salisbury and Warwick joined forces at Ludlow, headquarters of York's great estates on the Welsh marches, where Edward, who had from boyhood been styled earl of March, normally resided. However, the Yorkist forces melted away on the approach of the royal army; the duke of York had to flee to Ireland and Edward, with Salisbury and Warwick, his uncle and cousin, sped to Calais. As governor of Calais, Warwick commanded a fleet which protected them from attack and enabled them to invade Kent. Having occupied London, they marched north to meet the royal

army at Northampton, where they heavily defeated the Lancastrians (July 10, 1460) and captured the king. When Lancastrian forces slew Richard of York at Wakefield (Dec. 30, 1460), Edward was in the Welsh marches. Hastily gathering an army there, he defeated the earls of Pembroke and Wiltshire at Mortimer's Cross (Feb. 2, 1461) and then marched on London where he was acclaimed king in Westminster hall (March 4). Nine days later he left for the north with Warwick and Norfolk and their forces, and at Towton (March 29) he won a complete victory over the Lancastrians. Henry VI and Queen Margaret fled to Scotland, while Edward returned to London for his coronation (June 28, 1461).

The Struggle With Warwick.—Edward was at this time a strikingly handsome young man, over six feet tall, with golden hair and charming manners. Time was to show him a born general and a strong ruler, but at the moment he appeared to be merely a dissolute youth, caring only for fighting, drinking, women and pageantry. He owed his throne largely to his cousin Richard Neville, now earl of Salisbury (1461) as well as of Warwick, who was in the first years of Edward's reign the most powerful man in England. It was Warwick who crushed Lancastrian resistance in the far north of England between 1462 and 1464 and conducted England's diplomacy. Edward, however, was winning many friends (especially in London) by his comeliness and charm and was determined to assert his independence. In Sept. 1464, when Warwick was in the midst of negotiations for a peace with France, to be sealed by a royal match with a sister-in-law of Louis XI, he was astounded and humiliated by the king's announcement that he had secretly married (May 1, 1464) a beautiful young widow, Elizabeth Woodville. Not only did Edward offend Warwick and other Yorkist nobles by this hasty marriage to a woman of relatively unimportant family—a woman who was, moreover, the widow and daughter of Lancastrians—but, by showering favours on Elizabeth's two sons by her first husband, on her five brothers and her seven sisters, he began to build up a group of magnates who would be a counterpoise to the Nevilles. Gradually Warwick lost all influence at court, and when he was once more negotiating for an alliance with France, Edward increased his humiliation and resentment by revealing that he had already concluded an alliance (1467) with France's enemy Burgundy. Edward's sister Margaret was married in July 1468 with great pomp to Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy and the brothers-in-law planned a joint invasion of France.

As a countermove the king of France, Louis XI, encouraged Warwick to stir up risings in the north of England against Edward IV (1469 and 1470). Warwick found a tool in Edward's weak brother George, duke of Clarence, to whom Warwick married (1469) his elder daughter and co-heiress, Isabel, in spite of Edward's orders. The king, always overtrusting of others in his earlier years, was suddenly taken prisoner (July 1469) by Warwick's brother George Neville, the archbishop of York, and for over two months remained a captive of Warwick. But Edward had by now too many supporters (especially in London) for him to be kept under tutelage for long. He regained his freedom in Oct. 1469, and when it was proved that the Lincolnshire rebellion of March 1470 was instigated by Warwick and Clarence, he summoned them to account. They fled, however, to France (April 1470), made terms with their former bitter foes, Queen Margaret and the Lancastrian exiles, and with the help of Louis XI invaded England (Sept. 1470).

Edward prepared to resist, but was suddenly surprised by Warwick's brother John Neville, marquess of Montagu, in whom Edward had characteristically trusted too much. With only hours to spare, Edward fled with a few faithful supporters to Holland (Oct. 1470). At first Charles of Burgundy refused to help him for fear of provoking a French invasion, but when it became clear that for Louis XI the prime purpose of the revolution in England was to make possible a joint Anglo-French invasion of Burgundy, Charles retaliated by supplying men and money to help Edward regain his throne. Edward landed with his faithful brother Richard, duke of Gloucester, and a small force at Ravenspur on the Humber (March 1471). As a general he was always bold and swift, and soon he

was well on the way to London, outmaneuvering Warwick and joined by the vacillating Clarence, who had by now realized that his ambitions were thwarted by Warwick's alliance with Queen Margaret. Having gained the great prize of London and gathered recruits there, Edward came out to fight Warwick at Barnet, on Easter day, April 14, 1471. The battle ended in a complete victory for Edward, and Warwick and Montagu were slain on the field. On that very day Queen Margaret belatedly landed in Dorset with her only son, Edward, prince of Wales. Her advisers hoped to gain Lancastrian support in Wales, and it became a race for time between Edward IV's forces and hers as to whether she could get there before he overtook her. At Tewkesbury, after some remarkable forced marches (one of over 40 mi. at a stretch), he caught up with her army on May 4. There he won another crushing victory. Nearly all the remaining Lancastrian leaders were killed on the field or executed afterward and, after murdering Henry VI (May 21–22) and repelling an attack on London, Edward was secure for the remainder of his life.

The Second Half of the Reign.—He was now able to revive the project of an invasion of France in concert with the duke of Burgundy. He made great preparations in 1474 and obtained a large grant from parliament. In 1475 he invaded France with the largest army, it was said, that had ever left England, but he found the duke of Burgundy very ill-prepared and the French formidable and willing to buy him out. Hence the treaty of Picquigny was made by which Edward agreed to withdraw from France in return for 75,000 gold crowns down and a pension of 50,000 gold crowns a year while both kings survived. These sums helped to free Edward from dependence on parliamentary grants. As he grew older, he became more avaricious and showed considerable ingenuity in raising money by reviving obsolescent rights and using doubtfully legal devices. Commercial treaties with France (1475), Burgundy (1468) and the Hanseatic league (1474) combined with external peace and growing internal order to revive trade strikingly after 1475, and this benefited the customs duties and other revenues. Edward became a trader himself, transporting goods in his own ships (for he encouraged shipbuilding) and those of foreign merchants. He began a reorganization of the revenues from the crown estates, experimenting with methods of improving yields and promoting more efficient auditing under officials accountable to the obedient and flexible royal household treasury instead of to the unadaptable exchequer. All these and other measures enabled him to leave behind a fortune; he was the first king to die solvent after Henry II. Indeed, some of his improved financial administration was continued and developed by Richard III and Henry VII.

As the last decade of Edward's reign saw an improvement in the royal finances, so it did in law enforcement. There is evidence that the king took energetic steps to repress unruliness, and although progress here was necessarily slow, it impressed contemporaries. One especially disturbed area was Wales and the Welsh marches; Edward used the royal estates there (much strengthened by the addition of the great Yorkist estates round Ludlow) as a foundation on which to base a council that acted in the name of his infant heir, the prince of Wales, and employed the royal prerogative to make a start in repressing disorder. It was the forerunner of the council of Wales and the marches which at last brought peace to that turbulent region.

Modern research has emphasized these administrative achievements of Edward IV, and contemporary and Tudor historians viewed his later years as a time of prosperity and success. Yet some dark shadows remained. The king's complex character included traits of energy and idleness, ability and dissipation. It is true that some of his leisure hours were devoted to artistic pursuits, such as the rebuilding of St. George's chapel, Windsor, and to forming a library, especially of the illuminated Flemish manuscripts which he had learned to admire during his exile in Bruges in 1470–71. He was also a friend and patron of the printer William Caxton, and his book collection became the foundation of the Old Royal library, later one of the glories of the British museum. But much of his leisure was spent in less profitable ways of self-indulgence, and the frequency of his amours enabled Richard of

Gloucester, after his death, to question the validity of his marriage and so to ruin his sons. As a young man Edward had been trustful and openhanded, but his experiences made him increasingly suspicious and avaricious. The former trait led him to execute (1478) his own brother Clarence, who in former years had been repeatedly pardoned for his follies but had now by acts of defiance given fresh grounds for offense. The latter characteristic made the king especially angry when, in 1482, Louis XI, in order to come to terms with the rulers of Burgundy, tacitly repudiated the treaty of Picquigny and the annual tribute that it provided. Edward contemplated a fresh invasion of France, the popularity of which is attested by the alacrity with which the usually parsimonious commons voted a subsidy for this purpose. Before it could be levied, however, Edward fell ill, and died at Westminster on April 9, 1483, after an illness of ten days, at the age of only 40. Contemporaries differed as to whether his death was due to chagrin, debauchery or a quartan fever. By Elizabeth Woodville he had seven children who survived him: two sons, Edward (afterward Edward V) and Richard, duke of York, who were probably murdered in the Tower of London in Aug. 1483, and five daughters, of whom the eldest, Elizabeth, married Henry VII.

See also references under "Edward IV" in the Index volume.

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EDWARD V (1470–1483?), king of England from April to June 1483, was the eldest surviving son of Edward IV and Queen Elizabeth (Woodville). He was born between Nov. 1 and 3, 1470, in the sanctuary of Westminster abbey where his mother had taken refuge in Oct. 1470 when the king had fled to Holland. On June 26, 1471, after Edward IV had returned and crushed all his foes, he created his son prince of Wales, and the child received formal grants of the principality of Wales, the counties palatine of Chester and Flint and the duchy of Cornwall (July 17). A business council was appointed for the affairs of the principality (Feb. 20, 1473), and Edward was sent with his mother to Ludlow, to be titular ruler of the lands granted to him in Wales and the marches. The queen's brother Anthony Woodville, Earl Rivers, was made his governor, and Sir Richard Grey, her younger son by her first marriage, was chosen as one of his councilors. Except for brief intervals the prince seems to have stayed at Ludlow for the remainder of his father's reign, as representative of the royal authority in the Welsh marches.

By the time Edward IV died (April 9, 1483), the ambition of the queen's kindred and their influence with the young prince alarmed many of the older nobility and the king's councilors. By his last will Edward IV had left the care of his heir and of the kingdom to his brother Richard, duke of Gloucester, who forestalled the designs of the Woodville party by arresting Earl Rivers and Sir Richard Grey as they brought the young king from Ludlow to London for his coronation. Elizabeth Woodville took shelter again in the sanctuary of Westminster with her younger surviving son, Richard, and her five daughters. The king was lodged in the Tower (then still a royal residence as well as a prison). By a mixture of threats and cajolery the queen was induced to give up her younger son on Monday, June 16, to Gloucester, who took the boy to join his brother in the Tower. On June 22 a supporter of Gloucester, Ralph Shaw, preached a sermon at St. Paul's cross which challenged the validity of Edward IV's marriage, claimed that his children were all bastards and asserted that Gloucester was the rightful king. An assembly of lords and commons met at Westminster on June 25, Richard's claim was laid before it and a deputation from it urged Richard to assume the royal dignity. This he did and on June 26 the brief reign of Edward V came to an end.

For a short while afterward the two princes were seen playing together in the Tower garden, and then more rarely behind bars

and windows; finally they disappeared forever. What happened to them will probably never be certainly known; much the most likely explanation is that they were murdered, probably in Aug. 1483, at the instigation of their uncle, although the responsibility for their death has been attributed to Henry Stafford, duke of Buckingham. It has also been suggested that they survived a further two years and were then murdered by the order of Henry VII. In 1674 workmen demolishing a staircase in the Tower discovered beneath the foundations a wooden chest containing the bones of two children. As the presumed remains of the two princes they were placed in an urn in Westminster abbey. The urn was opened in 1933 and the bones were examined by an eminent anatomist. His findings, and those of other anatomists and odontologists who have inspected his numerous photographs, show that the age range of the material is consonant with the ages of the two princes in Aug. 1483, when they were widely rumoured to have been murdered.

See P. M. Kendall, *Richard the Third* (1955), for an appraisal and full bibliography. (A. R. M.)

EDWARD VI (1537–1553), king of England and Ireland from 1547 to 1553, was born at Hampton Court on Oct. 12, 1537, the only child of Henry VIII by his third wife, Jane Seymour. His mother died 12 days after his birth and he himself was a frail child who was never expected to have a long life. This did not prevent a strenuous education. Sir John Cheke, Sir Anthony Cooke and Roger Ascham all helped to teach him Latin, Greek and French, and by the age of 13 he had read Aristotle's *Ethics* in the original and was translating Cicero's *De philosophia* into Greek.

Edward was only nine when he succeeded his father as king (Jan. 28, 1547). At first the government was conducted by the duke of Somerset as protector, but factions soon developed around the king, each striving to control his person, not because of his personality but because ability to act in the king's name was indispensable to the wielding of effective authority. The protector's brother tried to bribe him with pocket money; John Dudley, earl of Warwick (soon to be duke of Northumberland), established a complete dominion over his mind by more subtle means, overthrew Somerset and then put Edward forward at the age of 14 as entitled to all the power of Henry VIII. But the king was only Northumberland's mask; of his personal influence on the course of history during his reign there is hardly a trace, though his youth enabled conservative men like Stephen Gardiner to maintain that the royal supremacy established over the church by Henry VIII was, or should be, in abeyance during a royal minority.

Edward's health began to fail by 1552 and the first signs of a rapid consumption were apparent in Jan. 1553. In May 1553 it was known that he was dying. He drew up a will which in its first draft excluded his half sisters Mary and Elizabeth, and indeed all females, from the throne and devised the crown to "the Lady Jane Grey's heirs male," Lady Jane being married to Northumberland's son Guildford Dudley. This draft was manipulated so as to read "the Lady Jane and her heirs male." For all this Northumberland was undoubtedly responsible, but Edward, with his own high ideas of the divine right of kings and the divine truth of Protestantism, seems to have thought himself both entitled and bound to override the succession as by law established and to exclude a Catholic heir. His last recorded words were vehement injunctions to Archbishop Thomas Cramer to sign the will. He died at Greenwich on July 6, 1553, and was buried in Westminster abbey on Aug. 8.

The early age at which Edward VI died makes it impossible to form a confident estimate of his character and abilities. In some respects he manifested exceptional and precocious talent, but he was perhaps too much of a recluse to have become a successful ruler. His writings show awareness of the evils of the times but leave it uncertain whether he had the practical sagacity and the energy to remedy them. Moreover, he showed signs of all the Tudor obstinacy and was a zealot into the bargain, as no other Tudor was except Mary. Had he lived, the combination might well have involved England in disasters far greater than any that ensued from his premature death.

See also references under "Edward VI" in the Index volume.

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EDWARD VII (1841-1910), king of Great Britain and Ireland from 1901 to 1910, was born in London, at Buckingham palace, on Nov. 9, 1841, the second child and eldest son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert. At birth he became duke of Cornwall and he was only a month old when his mother created him prince of Wales. He was christened Albert Edward. His childhood was happy and uneventful, with the austere surroundings of Windsor castle and Buckingham palace relieved as he grew older by the paradise of Osborne—the description is Queen Victoria's—and by highland life at Balmoral. He inherited his father's tastes for sports. Both parents were disappointed to notice that even in childhood the boy's interest in people and his love of chit-chat were far more strongly developed than strictly intellectual interests.

Education.—A rigorous educational program was devised. Till he was seven Edward remained in the hands of an accomplished governess, Sarah, Lady Lyttelton. Then, tutors were appointed—Henry Birch in 1849, F. W. Gibbs in 1851—in whose hands the prince was almost isolated from boys of his own age. In Nov. 1858 Edward entered his 18th year, at the end of which he would, for purposes of sovereignty, come of age. At the same time Gibbs's appointment was ended and Col. Robert Bruce, a somewhat pedantic Scottish disciplinarian, took over as the prince's governor. After some foreign travel with Bruce in Germany and the Mediterranean countries, Edward attended lectures at Edinburgh university for a short time prior to his entry into Oxford as an undergraduate (Oct. 1859) where he was admitted to Christ Church, although his parents declined to allow him to have rooms in college. He showed no greater aptitude for learning, but he enjoyed Oxford. In 1860 he undertook an important tour of Canada and the United States, staying with Pres. James Buchanan at the White House.

Edward returned to Oxford in Oct. 1860 and then transferred (Jan. 1861) to Trinity college, Cambridge, living outside the university at Madingley hall. During the long vacation (June-Sept. 1861) he served with the Grenadier guards in Ireland. He was summoned from Cambridge to Windsor castle to be present at the deathbed of his father on Dec. 14, 1861. The death of the prince consort was a dire misfortune for the prince of Wales, because his mother regarded the disclosure of his somewhat wild behaviour, when he was serving with the Grenadier guards, as having clouded the closing weeks of her husband's life. She apparently could not help contrasting Edward's character with Albert's. In consequence the queen never relied on her son, and allowed him no say either in the business of the nation or in the affairs of her court or family. The prince deserves credit for the long-suffering patience with which he bore his exclusion. Even when he was past 50 he had to endure snubs and criticism from the queen on official matters.

Marriage and Social Life.—Edward was married at Windsor on March 10, 1863, to Alexandra (*q.v.*), eldest daughter of Prince Christian (afterward King Christian IX) of Denmark. The bride had been selected for him after much family consultation, and although the tastes and interests of the prince and princess were by no means identical, the marriage was happy. The prince consort had arranged that the prince, when he came of age, should live at Marlborough house in London and at Sandringham in Norfolk. After a week's honeymoon at Osborne, the prince started that unvarying routine, which was not to be broken till he became king nearly 40 years later: London for the season, Norfolk for shooting, Christmas and holidays, Abergeldie (near Balmoral) for a part of the autumn, and (as he grew older) an increasing number of visits to relations and friends abroad. The prince and princess of Wales had five children who reached maturity—Albert Victor, duke of Clarence (d. 1892), George (afterward King George V), Louise (afterward princess royal and duchess of Fife), Victoria and Maud (afterward queen of Norway).

The princess and her children formed a singularly close knit family circle; their life was centred on Sandringham which they loved dearly, but the prince had many friends and interests beyond that flat, bleak countryside of west Norfolk. He took a leading

part in the social life of London and equally enjoyed the less formal country house visits where were transacted some of the politics and where was exerted much of the influence of late Victorian life. Nor did the escapades of social life by-pass the prince. He gave evidence in the divorce case brought by Sir Charles Mordaunt against Lady Mordaunt in Feb. 1870, and it was well known that the two men cited as correspondents were his close friends. Naturally his guilt was widely believed, though he was not directly implicated, and he wrote to his mother of his indignation at the "gross imputations" made against him. He had to face some boozing both on the race course and in one of the London theatres. Twenty-one years later he again appeared in the witness box to give evidence in the celebrated baccarat or Tranby Croft case where one of his companions in that game of chance was detected cheating. If these were the hazards of the prince's easy social life there was another side to it. Few men had a surer knowledge of human nature and a shrewder grasp of what was happening. The prince hardly ever read a book; his letters are perfunctory trifles, but it was Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, with advanced opinions on home and imperial affairs, who noticed that "it is worth talking seriously to the prince."

Through his family connections Edward was welcome at most of the courts and capitals of Europe and he became in fact something of a free-lance diplomatist. He was the first heir to the throne to visit India, touring the country in the winter of 1875-76. He was outspokenly critical of the treatment of Indians by a certain type of British official. He was a careful student of housing conditions in London and himself served on the royal commission on housing appointed by the Liberal government in 1884. Although the prince was a familiar figure on the race course (he won both the Derby and St. Leger with Persimmon in 1896, repeating these successes with Diamond Jubilee in 1900) and at the Royal Yacht squadron at Cowes or at one of the huge shooting parties which delighted the hearts of Victorian sportsmen, these were recreations which he intended should not diminish his stature as a public personality. His mother had excluded him from any recognized place in the machinery of government, yet he was by no means ill-equipped for the sovereignty of the British empire which he assumed at her death on Jan. 22, 1901.

Accession.—The king felt that his first task was to restore to the crown some of the traditional splendour (and authority) which had lapsed during the 40 years of his mother's widowhood. Buckingham palace, which had scarcely been used since 1860, was refurbished; parliament, in spite of the general mourning for the queen, was opened in conspicuous state by the king in Feb. 1901. Plans went ahead for the elaborate ceremony of the coronation which was fixed for June 26, 1902. Two days beforehand, when London was filled with distinguished foreign and imperial visitors, the king had to undergo an immediate and dangerous operation. He recovered and the coronation (though shorn of some of its glory) was held on Aug. 9. The coronation honours list published on the day originally fixed for the ceremony included a new order of chivalry—the Order of Merit—to mark distinguished personages in all walks of life. This was the king's idea, and the nomination to the Order was kept in his own hands.

King Edward's interest in affairs at home was certainly less than his concern with foreign affairs, and this may explain why some critics thought that he handled state business somewhat perfunctorily. Though he was broadly Liberal in his sympathies—unlike his mother he was always a warm admirer of Gladstone—and he greatly preferred his Liberal prime minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, to the Conservative Arthur Balfour, the king was apprehensive of violent change and for this reason deprecated the somewhat extravagant speeches of David Lloyd George and Winston Churchill when they were ministers in the Liberal cabinet at the end of his reign. He was never unmindful of the possibility of a European war—a possibility which made him critical of what he regarded as too costly schemes of social reform. He wholeheartedly endorsed the great schemes of army reform undertaken at the war office by R. B. (afterward Lord) Haldane. "He supported me strenuously" were Haldane's own words.

Interest in Foreign Affairs.—Edward's reign will rightly be

remembered for the effort he made to strengthen the position of Great Britain in Europe. Feeling against Britain was strong, especially in France, Germany and the Netherlands, as a result of the South African War, but peace with the Boers was made in 1902, and in 1903 Edward traveled to Lisbon and Rome, returning through Paris, where the dislike for all things British was at its most vocal. In a public speech the king referred to his continuing devotion to Paris which dated back to the visit he paid to that city with his parents in 1855 when the emperor Napoleon III was at the height of his power. A superbly delivered speech in French—the king spoke French and German perfectly and had a tolerable command of Italian—at a state banquet at the Elysée palace, opened a new era in Anglo-French relations. King Edward certainly did not create the entente cordiale, but his visit to Paris revealed to the world new feelings of friendship which were developing between the two peoples. His most controversial visit—for which he was criticized by the left wing in parliament—was to Russia in 1908. The king's relations with his nephew, the German emperor, were personally not good but there was never any question of excluding the emperor from the friendship of Great Britain, and in fact Edward paid more visits to his nephew in Berlin than to any other European sovereign. Apart from any natural aptitude for diplomacy, Edward VII was helped by being nearly related to all the ruling houses of Europe except those of Austria, Italy and Spain. The latter was brought into the English circle in 1906 by the marriage of the king's niece to Alfonso XIII. How much England, under Edward, had become the centre of the European network of monarchy is suggested by the fact that 8 reigning sovereigns or their consorts and 16 other royal personages had luncheon at Windsor castle on Nov. 17, 1907.

Character and Death.—The familiar impression of the king recorded in countless photographs revealed a man of fashion with his well-trimmed beard, neat boots and the top hat with its suggestion of a curling brim. On the race course and at countless public functions they seemed almost the insignia of royalty and identified the king. Equally familiar are the photographs of him at the centre of a country house party of enormous proportions surrounded by the leading members of the aristocracy, or after a shoot with a truly royal bag laid out before him. But these gay pictures did not reveal the whole man. He was deeply worried by the international situation. These anxieties depressed him and explained why toward the close of his reign he began to speak of abdication. Nor did the public, seeing the debonair outward man, realize that his health was not robust. From 1906 his doctors were concerned about him, and it was noticed that he fell asleep in public during the state visit which he paid to Berlin in the spring of 1909. The public was stunned by the news of his serious illness on May 5, 1910, at Buckingham palace; he died the following evening. Edward VII was an immensely popular sovereign—frowned on perhaps by the middle classes but admired in the world of fashion and beloved by the ordinary English people. The secret of his personal sway lay in his personality—neatly described by his admirer Haldane as “so strong and direct.”

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(R. T. B. F.)

EDWARD VIII (1894–), king of Great Britain and Northern Ireland from Jan. 20 to Dec. 11, 1936, the eldest child of George, duke of York, afterward King George V, and of Princess Mary of Teck, afterward Queen Mary, great-grandson of Queen Victoria, was born at White lodge in Richmond park on June 23, 1894. He was christened Edward Albert Christian George Andrew Patrick David by Edward Benson, archbishop of Canterbury, in the drawing room at White lodge on July 16, 1894.

His extreme youth was largely passed in Norfolk, in a small house on the Sandringham estate known as York cottage. Neither of his parents believed in an easygoing environment for their children, and he was strictly brought up, although a gayer atmosphere was introduced when his grandparents, King Edward VII and

Queen Alexandra, came to Sandringham. The prince passed successfully into the Royal Naval college, Osborne, at the beginning of 1907, and he moved on to Dartmouth college in 1909. The death of his grandfather on May 6, 1910, meant that he became at once heir to the throne and duke of Cornwall, and that he would have to forgo the North American training cruise which was the conclusion of the Dartmouth course. He was admitted to the Order of the Garter on June 10, 1911, and was able to wear the robes at his father's coronation on June 22; he was formally invested as prince of Wales at Caernarvon castle in July 1911.

Prince of Wales.—After these ceremonies the prince was allowed to serve on the battleship “Hindustan” for three months and then he was sent abroad (1912) to learn something of the languages and politics of Europe by staying in France and Germany. He went up to Oxford university in Oct. 1912, and was allowed to lead a comparatively normal undergraduate life at Magdalen college. Although the president of his college once observed that he would never be “bookish,” he absorbed some learning, especially from his tuition in constitutional law by Sir William Anson, the warden of All Souls' college, and he made friends and enjoyed himself. He was occasionally called from Oxford to help his parents entertain distinguished visitors, and after one such function he confided to his diary “what rot and a waste of time, money and energy all these state visits are.” Immediately after the outbreak of World War I he was commissioned in the Grenadier guards (Aug. 6, 1914), and on Nov. 16 went to France as aide-de-camp to the commander in chief, Sir John French. In Sept. 1915 he was appointed to the staff of Lord Cavan, who was in command of the then recently formed guards division. He felt acutely his exclusion from the front line and the fighting but Earl Kitchener, the secretary of state for war, could not risk his being taken prisoner. He was sent to Suez in 1916, returning to the western front later in that year. He went with Lord Cavan to the Italian front immediately after the disaster of Caporetto (Oct. 1917) but was back in France for the closing weeks of the war.

After the war the prince began the round of royal duties which was familiar to his father and to the older generation of courtiers; he received the freedom of cities, opened new buildings and made conventional speeches at public banquets. However, these tasks were varied by a remarkable series of imperial tours, to Canada (1919), to New Zealand and Australia (1920), to the Mediterranean, India and Ceylon and the far east (1921–22). He traveled again to Canada and the United States (1924) and to South Africa (1925). King George V was a little apprehensive of the informal behaviour of the prince on these imperial visits, but he readily admitted their remarkable success.

In the ten years between the close of his imperial tours and the death of his father, the prince took his share in the official life and public ceremonies of the country, also making visits throughout the British Isles which were intended to encourage industry and local enterprise. During the 1920s the prince's most frequent recreations were hunting and riding. He enjoyed point-to-point racing and steeplechasing but after one or two falls he stopped in deference to the opinions of the king and the prime minister. He then took to golf with enjoyment, and by persistence became a reasonably handicapped player. He learned to fly his own aircraft (1929), and later purchased a Gypsy Moth aircraft for his personal use. In London the prince lived in York house, a rather small private house in St. James's palace. In 1930 King George gave him Fort Belvedere, an 18th-century house belonging to the crown near Sunningdale. The Fort, as he always called it, gave him privacy and the sense of making a home that was entirely his own. He worked arduously in the garden and woodlands, becoming in the 1930s something of an authority on horticulture, especially on the growing of roses. He soon began to regard the Fort as a refuge from the official world which he increasingly disliked. There he entertained a private circle of friends, not drawn from the conventional aristocracy in which his father and grandfather had moved. During these years his popularity rivaled, if it did not exceed, that of his grandfather King Edward VII when he was prince of Wales. He seemed to attach to himself, especially at the great Toc H ceremonies in the Albert hall on Armistice day,

the ideals and anguish of the generation of World War I.

King Edward VIII.—His father died after a short illness on Jan. 20, 1936, and with traditional splendour the prince was proclaimed king on the following day in St. James's palace, as King Edward VIII. The contrast between the reign which had ended and the new one which was beginning was made clear by the new king in his first broadcast on March 1. After a long and keenly felt tribute to King George he interpolated into the speech a personal passage referring to the opportunities he had had to get to know the people of almost every country in the world; he emphasized that although he spoke as king he was still the same man who had had that experience. Outwardly the reign moved smoothly, its formal ceremonies reduced by mourning. The summer was marked by an alarming incident when a loaded revolver was pointed or thrown at the king as he was returning from the presentation of new colours in Hyde park, and by the great ceremony in France when he unveiled the Vimy Ridge memorial. There was some criticism of the king for supposed economies in the royal residences, for informality and for curtailing the long established ritual of presentation parties at court. He moved into Buckingham palace during the autumn.

The Abdication.—The king had intended to spend a holiday in the south of France but because of the unsettled state of that country he went instead for a cruise in the Adriatic. He was accompanied by a private circle of friends which included Mrs. Wallis Warfield Simpson, concerning whose association with the king there was much lurid comment in the continental and U.S. press.

This comment caused concern throughout the summer and early autumn both to the royal household and to the cabinet. This was increased when it was known that Mrs. Simpson was about to divorce her husband at the Ipswich assizes in October. The divorce was heard and the decree nisi granted on Oct. 27. Seven days previously Stanley Baldwin, the prime minister, asked for an audience with the king. He explained the embarrassment and difficulties which were being caused by the king's private friendship but the two men parted under a degree of misapprehension—the prime minister thinking that he had made some impression, the king feeling that he had convinced the prime minister that his friendship was a personal matter unrelated to the state. Thus matters drifted until Nov. 13, when the king received a letter from his private secretary, Maj. A. H. L. (afterward Lord) Hardinge, warning him of the dangers into which he was running and urging that Mrs. Simpson should forthwith go abroad. On Nov. 16 the king again saw the prime minister, told him—and this had not been clearly stated at the interview in October—that he hoped to marry Mrs. Simpson and added that if he could not marry her and remain king, he was "prepared to go." During the next ten days the prime minister was engaged in preparing the cabinet, the press, parliament and the dominions for the abdication of the king which he had rightly told the king was "grievous news." However, the situation was complicated during the closing days of November by a proposal of Lord Rothermere, strongly supported by other influential men outside the prime minister's established political circle, that the king should marry Mrs. Simpson, withholding from her the dignity of queen consort. It is possible that if opinion could have been fairly polled on this proposal, which had respectable constitutional origins, considerable support for it might have been forthcoming. It was, however, doomed by being somewhat hurriedly and forcibly put to the dominions and by the explosion of the whole matter in press and parliament on Dec. 3. On the following day the word "abdication" appeared in the newspapers for the first time, but the king hesitated while Winston Churchill and other members of parliament urged that he should not be hurried. On the reassembly of the house of commons, after a week end for reflection, the support for the prime minister was overwhelming and it became clear to the king that he could only carry out his wishes by reigning over a divided nation. Mrs. Simpson had left England on Dec. 3, and on Dec. 8 she published a statement that she was prepared to withdraw from a position which had become untenable. Lord Beaverbrook had been trying to urge this course. He felt that, if the decision could be postponed and public excitement allowed to subside, it might later become possible for the

king to achieve his marriage without having to abandon his throne. But this came too late to affect events and on the following day the prime minister announced that on Dec. 10 he would make a formal statement. This proved to be a message from the king announcing that he had that morning signed an instrument of abdication. This was passed by parliament on the morning of Dec. 11, unanimously except for a republican gesture by the Independent Labour party. It is right to recall an obiter dictum of Baldwin's to the effect that throughout those critical days "the king could not have behaved better than he did." On the same evening the former king broadcast to the nation explaining the reasons which had compelled him to abdicate—"I now quit altogether public affairs, and lay down my burden." This broadcast is believed to have had a larger audience than any other ever heard in Great Britain. That night on board the destroyer "Fury" he left Portsmouth for France.

Duke of Windsor.—The new king, George VI, created Prince Edward duke of Windsor at his accession council on Dec. 12. The duke spent the first months of his exile in Austria and was married to Mrs. Simpson by a clergyman of the Church of England at the Château de Candé, France, on June 3. A few days previously the new king, on the advice of the cabinet, had accorded the duke the right to the title of royal highness for himself alone; the duchess was thereby excluded from enjoying her husband's rank—a decision which was deeply wounding to the duke and the legality of which has been questioned. For the next two years the duke and duchess lived mainly in France, visiting various other European countries including Germany (Oct. 1937), where the duke had an interview with Adolf Hitler. The outbreak of World War II failed to close the breach between the duke and his family and, after visiting London, he accepted a position as liaison officer with the French. On the fall of France he traveled to Madrid where he was subjected to a fanciful plan of the Nazis to use him against the established government in England. When he reached Lisbon he was offered by Winston Churchill the governorship of the Bahamas, a British colony in the West Indies, and he remained there for the duration of the war. After 1945 he lived in France, making occasional visits to the U.S. and London. He attended the funerals of his brother George VI in 1952 and of his mother Queen Mary in 1953. His memoirs, *A King's Story*, were published in 1951, and those of the duchess of Windsor, *The Heart Has Its Reasons*, in 1956. (R. T. B. F.)

EDWARD (DUARTE) (1391–1438), king of Portugal from 1433 to 1438, was the son of John I of Portugal. His mother was Philippa of Lancaster, daughter of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. A writer and philosopher, Edward promulgated some notable reforms including the so-called *lei mental* (April 8, 1434) which was intended to facilitate recovery of the many grants made by the crown under John I by establishing that grants of royal property were inalienable and indivisible and must revert to the crown in default of a legitimate male heir. An attempted expedition against Tangier in 1437 was a military disaster and the king's brother Fernando was taken prisoner and was to die in captivity in 1443. Edward died at Tomar on Sept. 9, 1438, and was succeeded by his son Afonso V. (V. R. R.)

EDWARD, THE BLACK PRINCE (1330–1376), also known as Edward of Woodstock, the eldest son of Edward III and Philippa of Hainaut, was one of the most famous commanders in the Hundred Years' War. His sobriquet, the "Black Prince," said to have come from his wearing black armour, has no contemporary justification and is found first in Richard Grafton's *Chronicle of England* (1569).

Born at Woodstock on June 15, 1330, Edward was created earl of Chester (March 1333), duke of Cornwall (Feb. 1337)—the first appearance of this rank in England—and prince of Wales (May 1343); he was prince of Aquitaine from 1362 to 1372. His first campaign was served under his father in northern France (1346–47) and at the battle of Crécy (Aug. 26, 1346) he won both his spurs and the famous ostrich plumes and with them the mottoes used by himself and subsequent princes of Wales, *homout; ich dene* ("Courage; I serve"; the words are here spelled as Edward himself wrote them; later variants include *houmout* and *ich dien*

or *ich diene*). One of the original knights of the Garter, he was sent to France with independent command (1355), winning his most famous victory over the French at Poitiers (Sept. 19, 1356). The French king John II, brought captive to England, was treated by the prince with a celebrated courtesy, but he was obliged to pay a ransom of 3,000,000 gold crowns and to negotiate the treaties of Bretigny and Calais (1360) by which Aquitaine was ceded to the English.

Edward married his cousin Joan, the divorced and widowed countess of Kent (Oct. 1361). He was created prince of Aquitaine in July 1362 and left England in 1363 to take up his duties. His powers and his opportunities were great but his rule was a failure, and he was personally largely to blame. His court at Bordeaux, that of a foreign conqueror, was extravagant; the 13 *sénéchaussées* into which the principality was divided administratively followed their earlier French pattern and allowed local French loyalties to subsist; his relations with the many bishops were unfriendly, while the greater nobles, Arnaud Amanieu, sire d'Albret, Gaston II, comte de Foix, and John I, comte d'Armagnac, were hostile. He summoned several estates or parliaments, but always to levy taxes. In 1367 he undertook to restore Pedro the Cruel of Castile to his throne. This was Edward's most unstatesmanlike act, for though he won his classic victory at Nájera (April 3, 1367), the campaign ruined his health, his finances and any prospect of sound rule in Aquitaine, where in 1368 the nobles and prelates appealed against him to Charles V of France as suzerain. Edward's reply to the French king's citation to answer the appellants before the *parlement* of Paris in May 1369 is well known—he would appear with 60,000 men at his back. He had, however, alienated the towns and peasantry as well as the nobles, and by March 1369 over 900 towns, castles and strong places had declared against him. Relying on mercenaries whom he could not afford to pay, he was powerless to quell the revolt and the terrible sack of Limoges (Oct. 1370) merely redounded to his discredit. He returned to England a sick and broken man (Jan. 1371) and formally surrendered his principality to his father in Oct. 1372, alleging that the revenues of the country were insufficient to defray his expenses. He had no successor as prince of Aquitaine.

Edward's position in England, where throughout his life he was heir apparent, was that of a typical 14th-century magnate. The registers of his household from 1346 to 1348 and from 1351 to 1365 have survived and add to what we know of him from the chroniclers and from his biographer, the herald of Sir John Chandos. In one important respect all these sources paint the same picture, that of a man constantly living beyond his means. However, his generosity extended to his tenants as well as to his knightly companions, and faithful service was rewarded, as in 1356 when the ferry of Saltash was granted to William Lenche who had lost an eye at Poitiers.

The prince paid two visits to Chester (1353, 1358). Cheshire furnished many of his archers who wore a rudimentary uniform of a short coat and hat of green and white cloth with the green on the right. Wales he never visited, but he was in Cornwall in 1354, and spent Christmas 1362–63 at Restormel castle. Near London, when not at his castle at Berkhamsted, he stayed at his manors of Kennington or (until 1362) Vauxhall. His wardrobe was near Ironmonger lane and his exchequer at Westminster. At his death his lands yielded roughly £8,600 a year—his Welsh principality about £4,700; Chester £1,300; Cornwall about £2,300 and the scattered English possessions about £300. His council and household officials were men of ability, particularly his receiver-general, Peter Lacy.

Edward appears to have shared the interests of his class, jousting, falconry, hunting, gaming. He was literate and conventionally pious, substantially endowing a religious house at Ashridge (1376). He had the customary fine presence of the Plantagenets and shared their love of jewels. The Black Prince's ruby in the present imperial state crown may or may not have been given to him by King Pedro after the battle of Nájera, but he would certainly have prized it as a connoisseur. Similar artistic interest is shown in his seals adorned with their ostrich feathers, and in the elegant gold coins which he issued as prince of Aquitaine.

The last five years of the prince's life are obscure. Some contemporaries suggest that he supported the commons when political discontent culminated in the Good parliament (April 1376), but he knew he was dying and he was probably seeking the best means to ensure the succession of his second, but only surviving son, Richard of Bordeaux (afterward Richard II). He died at Westminster on June 8, 1376, and was buried at Canterbury, where his tomb with his accoutrements still stands.

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(I. P. S.)

EDWARD, LAKE, situated in one of the tectonic troughs which border the east of the Republic of the Congo, lies a few miles south of the equator at an altitude of 2,992 ft. It is oval and about 47 mi. in length, with a maximum breadth of about 32 mi. On the northeast it is connected by the Kazinga channel, about 20 mi. long, with the smaller Lake George (or Dweru) which is crossed by the equator. The combined area of the two lakes is 970 sq.mi. Two-thirds of Lake Edward are in the Congo and one-third is in Uganda. The Congolese part of the lake is incorporated in the Albert National park, the rest in the Queen Elizabeth National park.

In the south the Rutshuru river forms the principal affluent of Lake Edward, and gathers the waters which descend from the Virunga volcanoes. This and the other affluents have already silted up much of the lake; they flow through a wide plain, marshy in places. Lake George receives the waters of the Ruwenzori river and drains into Lake Edward. Lake Edward empties northward into Lake Albert through a single outlet, the Semliki river, which flows through a plain situated at the bottom of a tectonic trough and is a headstream of the White Nile (*see* NILE). The banks are in many places fault formations and are therefore generally abrupt except in the south and north (the Rutshuru and Semliki plains) and along part of the east coast where low terraces of dry steppe scattered with treelike euphorbia rise between the lake and the watershed of the trough. On the west the edge of the trough exceeds 10,000 ft. in altitude. About 20 mi. N. the Ruwenzori (*q.v.*) massif rises to nearly 16,800 ft. The waters of Lake Edward are clear, light green in colour and brackish. Fish, waterfowl, 'crocodiles and (in the southern swamps) hippopotamuses abound. In the dry season the lake is often overhung by a thick haze and in the rainy season is subject to violent storms.

Lake George was discovered in 1875 by H. M. Stanley, then traveling westward from Uganda, and by him was named Beatrice gulf in the belief that it was a part of Lake Albert. In 1888–89 Stanley, approaching the Nile region from the west, traced the Semliki to its source in Lake Edward, which he discovered, naming it after Albert Edward, prince of Wales, afterward Edward VII. Stanley also discovered the Kazinga channel. The accurate mapping of the lake (which, however, shrank considerably in the first half of the 20th century) was mainly the work of British officials and travelers such as Sir F. J. D. Lugard and Sir Harry Johnston (*q.v.*), while Emin Pasha (*q.v.*) and the German zoologist Franz Stuhlmann first explored its southern shores. Lake Edward was found, by the Anglo-German boundary commission of 1902–04, to lie within the sphere of influence of the Congo Free State as defined in the agreement of May 12, 1894, between that state and Great Britain. *See also* AFRICA: *Physical Geography: Geology*; GREAT RIFT VALLEY.

(HE. NI.)

EDWARDS, ALFRED GEORGE (1848–1937), first archbishop of Wales, was born at Llanymawddwy, Merionethshire, on Nov. 2, 1848, the younger brother of Henry Thomas Edwards (*q.v.*), and graduated from Jesus college, Oxford, in 1874. After a successful headmastership of Llandovery college, he became vicar of Carmarthen in 1885, where he began the great work of his life, the defense and strengthening of the Welsh national church. An ardent believer in establishment, he fought his church's many enemies on every ground of fact and principle by sermons, politics and publications, of which the most important were *The Truth About the Church in Wales* (1889) and *Land-*

marks in the *History of the Welsh Church* (1912). In 1889 he was appointed bishop of St. Asaph, and from the disestablishment in 1920 until his retirement in 1934 he was archbishop of Wales. He died at St. Asaph, July 22, 1937.

See G. Lerry, *Alfred George Edwards, Archbishop of Wales* (1940). (G. F. A. B.)

EDWARDS, HENRY THOMAS (1837–1884), clergyman of the Church of Wales who led a largely successful movement for an increase in the Welsh character of his church, born at Llany-mawddy, Merionethshire, on Sept. 6, 1837, was successively vicar of Aberdare (1866), vicar of Caernarvon (1869) and dean of Bangor (1876). His open letter to Gladstone "On the Church of the Cymry" (1870) attracted much notice; in it he remarked that the spread of nonconformity in Wales was largely due to "the withering effect of an alien episcopate." Deeply convinced of the advantages of religious education and national churches, he promoted his cause at Bangor through an excellent clerical education society, aiming to supply clergymen able to speak Welsh. Worn out by incessant labours, his restless mind began to give way in 1883 and he committed suicide in his brother's vicarage at Ruabon, May 24, 1884. (G. F. A. B.)

EDWARDS, JONATHAN (1703–1758), American theologian, was born Oct. 5, 1703, at East Windsor, Conn. His father Timothy was pastor of the church there; his mother Esther was a daughter of Solomon Stoddard, pastor of the church at Northampton, Mass. Jonathan was the fifth child and only son among 11 children; he grew up in an atmosphere of Puritan piety, affection and learning. After a rigorous schooling at home, he entered Yale at 13. He was graduated in 1720 but remained at New Haven for two years studying divinity. After a brief New York pastorate (1722–23), he received his M.A. in 1723; during most of 1724–26 he was a tutor at Yale. In 1727 he became his grandfather's colleague at Northampton. The same year, he married Sarah Pierrepont, who combined a deep, often ecstatic, piety with personal winsomeness and practical good sense. To them were born 11 children.

As a precocious child of 9 or 10 years, he composed a brief paper on the soul. His essay on the flying spider, probably written shortly before he went to college, exhibits his remarkable powers of observation and analysis. Another on the rainbow, written about the same time, shows that he had already mastered Newton's optical theories. He habitually studied with pen in hand, recording his thoughts in numerous hand-sewn notebooks; one of these, a "Catalogue" of books, evidences the wide variety of his reading.

Under the influence of Newton, Locke (whose *Essay* he had read in his sophomore year), the Cambridge Platonists and Reformed divines, the young theological student sketched in his manuscripts the outlines of his philosophical theology, stating the doctrines of Calvinism in terms of contemporary philosophy. Absolute Nothing is inconceivable, therefore something exists: Being which is eternally everywhere. But since existence is existence only for consciousness, the universe depends for its being every moment on the intelligence and will of God, and "spirits only are properly substance." Atoms themselves are only units of resistance maintained by God's power and formed by his idea. Reality is therefore a spiritual universe contained in the mind of God and realized as human experience by the direct action of the divine will. This is true for the knowledge of God given by grace, as well as for physical perception. Being all-sufficient fullness, God must communicate himself by exercising all his attributes. The happiness of his creatures is indeed God's end in creation, but that happiness consists in contemplating and rejoicing in God's glory as manifested in creation and redemption. Intelligent beings are highest in the great chain of being, but their vision of God is the completing link. Only those beings which "consent" with the divine Being (by "love to Being in general") can be said to have positive being; those which dissent from that Being sin infinitely and deserve eternal punishment. Yet God reveals his glory even in punishing sinners, and evil contributes to the grand design. Cause and effect hold throughout the universe, but the connection between them is a "constituted" one, continued at the sovereign pleasure of God; this applies also to the successive moments of a

person's existence. Though grace is independent of human means, means as well as ends are objects of the decrees, and God has so constituted things that means (e.g., sermons, sacraments, even the fear of hell) are the "matter" upon which grace acts; grace is therefore experienced in the cause-effect realm as men devote themselves to the worship and service of God. Thus the predestinarian preacher could appeal to the emotions and wills of men.

The peculiar dynamic of Edwards' theology came from his own experience of God. He progressed in turn from preoccupation with his own salvation to an intellectual "conviction" of divine sovereignty, and thence (in a moment of Scripture meditation) to a "new sense" of and "delight" in God's glory revealed in Scripture and nature. This became the centre of Edwards' piety: a direct, intuitive apprehension of God in all his glory, a sight and taste of Christ's majesty and beauty far beyond all "notional" understanding, immediately imparted to the soul (as the 1734 sermon title puts it) by "a divine and supernatural light." This alone confers worth on man, and in this consists his salvation. What such a God does must be right; hence Edwards' cosmic optimism. The acceptance and affirmation of God as he is and does, and the love of God simply because he is God, became the positive elements in all Edwards' preaching.

At Stoddard's death in 1729, Edwards became sole occupant of the Northampton pulpit, the most important in Massachusetts outside of Boston. In his first published sermon, preached in 1731 to the Boston clergy and significantly entitled *God Glorified in the Work of Redemption, by the Greatness of Man's Dependence upon Him, in the Whole of It*, Edwards blamed New England's moral ills on its assumption of religious and moral self-sufficiency. Since God is the saints' whole good, faith, which abases man and exalts God, must be insisted on as the only means of salvation. His sermons on "Justification by Faith Alone," delivered in Nov. 1734, were also directed against that Arminianism which was becoming so congenial to the colonists' enterprising spirit (see ARMINIANISM). These were immediately followed by a great revival in Northampton, in the winter and spring of 1734–35, during which more than 300 made professions of faith. Edwards' *Faithful Narrative of the Surprising Work of God* (1737) which he had witnessed made a profound impression in America and Europe, particularly through his description of the types and stages of conversion experience and (less fortunately) his accounts of some of the more "surprising" cases.

In 1740–41 came the "Great Awakening" throughout the colonies, led by men like George Whitefield and Gilbert Tennent, whose "pathetical" sermons to huge crowds resulted in violent emotional reactions and mass conversions. Edwards himself, though he held his own congregation relatively stable, employed the "preaching of terror" on several occasions, as in the Enfield sermon, *Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God* (1741). The Awakening produced not only conversions and changed lives; there were excesses, disorders, ecclesiastical and civil disruptions. While increasingly critical of the "experiences" and practices associated with the revival, to the extent of personally rebuking Whitefield, Edwards maintained that it was in essence a genuine work of God, to be furthered and purified. In defense and criticism of the revival Edwards wrote *The Distinguishing Marks of a Work of the Spirit of God* (1741), *Thoughts on the Revival* (1742) and *A Treatise Concerning Religious Affections* (1746), the last a classical delineation of the Christian life as it revolves around the love of God. His last explicit defense of revival religion was the "Reflections" in his edition of the memoirs of David Brainerd (1749), a young New Light (revivalist) missionary to the Indians, who died in 1747. (See also REVIVALISM.)

Meanwhile, Edwards' relations with his own congregation had become strained for a number of reasons, among which was Edwards' changed views on the requirements for admission to the Lord's Supper. To the "Half-Way Covenant," whereby baptized but unconverted children of believers might have their own children baptized by "owning the covenant," Stoddard had instituted the soon widespread practice of admitting to the Eucharist all who were thus "in the covenant," even though they knew themselves to be unconverted. Edwards had come to believe that a

profession of the essentials of a Christian experience, not merely doctrinal knowledge and a moral life, was necessary for admission to full communion. The public announcement of his position in 1749 precipitated a violent controversy which was climaxed by his dismissal. On July 1, 1750, Edwards preached his dignified and restrained *Farewell Sermon*. In this controversy Edwards wrote two books, the *Qualifications for Communion* (1749) and a *Reply to Solomon Williams* (1752), pastor at Lebanon, Conn., and a relative of Edwards. Though Edwards himself was defeated, his position finally triumphed in New England and facilitated the separation of church and state after the Revolution.

In 1751, Edwards became pastor of the frontier church at Stockbridge, Mass., and missionary to the Indians there. Hampered by language difficulties, illness, Indian wars and conflicts with powerful personal enemies, he nevertheless discharged his pastoral duties and found time to write his famous work on the *Freedom of the Will* (1754), in which he attacked the notion of a self-determining will. According to Edwards, the Arminians considered the will a separate faculty, capable of determining its own volitions in the face of the strongest contrary motives. After dismissing the self-determining will as a logical absurdity, Edwards defined volition as merely the realization in act of the soul's "prevailing inclination" and hence determined by "the greatest apparent good." Man is free to do as he pleases, yet his choices occur in casual series and are foreseen and foreordained by God. Man is not free to do otherwise than he pleases, yet he is still morally accountable; for it is the nature rather than the cause of volitions which renders them objects of moral judgment.

By 1757 Edwards had finished his *Original Sin* (1758); this was mainly a reply to the English divine, John Taylor, of Norwich, whose works attacking Calvinism had "made a mighty noise in America." Edwards defended the doctrine on empirical and Biblical grounds, and offered his theory of "constituted identity" to account for the unity of mankind with Adam, a unity, however, not in Adam's sinful act, but in his prior sinful disposition. Edwards perceived the threat in Taylor's notion of man's innate goodness and autonomy; the whole Christian conception of supernatural redemption was at stake. He therefore planned further treatises, of which he completed the posthumously published dissertations on *The End for Which God Created the World* and *The Nature of True Virtue*. He also projected books on other subjects, notably a "History of the Work of Redemption," a complete theology combining Biblical, historical and systematic materials "in an entire new method."

Late in 1757, Edwards accepted the presidency of the college at Princeton, N.J. (later Princeton university), and arrived there in January. He had hardly assumed his duties when he contracted smallpox from an inoculation and died at Princeton on March 22, 1758.

Edwards was the greatest theologian of American Puritanism, perhaps the greatest America has produced. For sheer speculative power and magnificence of conception he has not been surpassed by any American philosopher. Though he did not live to publish his great systematic work, enough remains to show that he had achieved a remarkable synthesis of Reformed theology with the Newtonian world-view, Lockean empiricism with Augustinian illumination, the Christian "plan of salvation" and concept of history with Platonic idealism and Neoplatonic emanationism. His influence on American religion was tremendous. His disciples not only created the "New England theology" but helped recover for Christianity the intellectual leadership of postrevolutionary America. By his writings and example, he gave impetus to the infant evangelical missionary movement. As chronicler, preacher, apologist and critic of the evangelical awakening, he influenced its patterns and practices, helped correct its extravagances, and wedded it to heart worship of God and intense moral earnestness.

See also CONGREGATIONALISM: *United States*.

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a brilliant interpretive study (1949); Perry Miller (ed.), *The Works of Jonathan Edwards*, a complete critical edition (1957-). (T. A. SR.)

EDWARDS, LEWIS (1809-1887), minister of the Calvinistic Methodist Church of Wales and educationist, was born Oct. 27, 1809, at Pen-llwyn, Cardiganshire. With slender resources he sought a more extensive education than was then available within Wales. His church accepted him as a preacher in 1829 and he went to Edinburgh university in 1833 where he was befriended by John Wilson ("Christopher North") and permitted to graduate in three years. He was ordained in 1837 and married the granddaughter of Thomas Charles (q.v.) of Bala. With his brother-in-law David Charles he opened a school at Bala, to prepare men for the ministry, which became in 1867 the theological college for his church in north Wales. Through his influence his denomination adopted a more Presbyterian form of church government on the Scottish model. He was twice moderator of the general assembly which united the Calvinistic Methodist associations of north and south Wales and owed its institution to him. He died on July 19, 1887. Edwards initiated excellent periodical literature in Welsh: *Yr Esboniwr* ("The Expositor"), 1844 ff.; *Y Traethodydd* ("The Essayist"), 1845 ff. Through his literary and theological essays he greatly influenced Welsh culture. See also EDWARDS, THOMAS CHARLES.

See T. C. Edwards, *Bywyd a Llythyrau y Parch. Lewis Edwards*, D.D. (1887). (B. H.)

EDWARDS, RICHARD (1522?-1566), English playwright and musician, author and composer of well-known madrigals. He was born in Somersetshire about 1522, became a scholar of Corpus Christi college, Oxford, in 1540 and took his M.A. in 1547. He was appointed in 1561 a gentleman of the chapel royal and master of the children. In 1564 he entered Lincoln's Inn where at Christmas he produced his play *Damon and Pithias*. Tragic in subject, but with scenes of vulgar farce, it was written in roughly constructed rhymed lines, varying in length and neglecting the caesura. Edwards' song "Awake ye woeful wights" belongs to this play in which music, influenced by the Italian madrigal, plays a considerable part.

On Sept. 2, 1566, his lost play *Palamon and Arcite* was performed before Queen Elizabeth I in the hall of Christ Church, Oxford. A number of shorter pieces are preserved in *Paradyse of Daynty Devises*, a collection which he edited but which was published (1576) after his death. Shakespeare quotes Edwards' song "Where griping griefs" in *Romeo and Juliet*.

The *Historie of Damocles and Dionise* is assigned to Edwards in the 1578 edition of the *Paradyse*, where the words of his madrigal "In going to my naked bed" are published. The music appears in the Mulliner manuscript (c. 1560), in the British museum, London, which has another composition of his, "O the silly man," to words by Francis Kinwelmarsh, as well as the words and music of "Where griping griefs."

Edwards died in London on Oct. 31, 1566.

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EDWARDS, THOMAS CHARLES (1837-1900), Welsh Nonconformist minister and educationist, was born at Bala, Merioneth, on Sept. 22, 1837, the son of Lewis Edwards (q.v.). After graduating in London, he matriculated at St. Alban Hall, Oxford, in 1862, obtained a scholarship at Lincoln college in 1864, and took a first class in the school of Literae Humaniores in 1866. In 1867 he became minister at Windsor Street, Liverpool, but left it to become first principal of the University College of Wales at Aberystwyth in 1872. When the college was destroyed by fire in 1885 he collected £25,000 to rebuild it, the remainder of the necessary £40,000 being given by the government and by the people of Aberystwyth. In 1891 Edwards became principal of the theological college at Bala. He died on March 22, 1900.

His chief works were a *Commentary on I Corinthians* (1885), the *Epistle to the Hebrews* (Expositor's Bible, 1888) and *The God-Man* (Davies lecture, 1895).

EDWIN (d. 632), king of Northumbria from 616 to 632, was