

the ratepayers in a parish, each voter having a number of votes equal to the number of vacancies, having the right to give all or any number of such votes to any one candidate, and to distribute them as he pleases. The number of members varies from 5 to 15 as may be determined. The London school board is elected under special regulations.

2. *Powers and Duties.*—Every school board, for the purpose of providing sufficient public school accommodation for their district, may provide or improve schoolhouses and supply school apparatus &c., and purchase or take on lease any land or any right over land. Sect. 20 contains regulations under which the compulsory purchase of sites may be made. The schools provided by the board must comply with the following conditions:—(1) They must be public elementary schools, in the sense defined above; (2) No religious catechism or religious formula, which is distinctive of any particular denomination, shall be taught in the schools. The board may delegate their powers (except that of raising money) to managers. Any breach of these regulations may subject the board to being declared in default by the Education Department, who will thereupon nominate a new board. The fees of children attending board schools are to be fixed by the board, with the consent of the Department, but the board may remit fees on account of poverty for a renewable period not exceeding six months, and it is expressly declared that "such remission shall not be deemed to be parochial relief" given to the parent. Further, free schools may be established where the Education Department are satisfied that the poverty of the inhabitants is such as to render them necessary. Section 25 enables the board to pay the fees of poor children attending any public elementary school, but "no such payment shall be made or refused on condition of the child attending any public elementary school other than such as may be selected by the parent (*sic*), and such payment shall not be deemed to be parochial relief." This clause, which excited a vast amount of opposition in Parliament, was repealed by 39 and 40 Vict. c. 59 (*see infra*).

3. *Revenues.*—The expenses of the board are to be paid from a fund called the school fund, constituted primarily by the fees of the children, moneys provided by Parliament, or raised by loan, or received in any other way, and supplemented by the rates, to be levied by the rating authority. In providing buildings, &c., the board may borrow money so as to spread the payment over several years, not exceeding fifty. (*See, as to this power, Elementary Education Act 1873, § 10.*)

School boards may by a bye-law require the parents of all children between five and thirteen to send them to school, and it is a reasonable excuse (1) that the child is receiving efficient instruction in some other manner, or (2) is prevented by sickness, or (3) that there is no public elementary school within such distance not exceeding three miles as the bye-laws may prescribe. Breaches of any such bye-law may be recovered in a summary manner, but the penalty shall not exceed five shillings including costs.

Finally, it is provided that in future no parliamentary grant shall be made to any school which does not come within the definition of "public elementary school in the Act."¹ Such grant shall not be made in respect of religious instruction, and shall not exceed in any case the income of the school from other sources. No connexion with a religious denomination is necessary, and no preference is to be given to a school on account of its being or not being a board school. Otherwise the minutes of the Committee of Council govern the administration of the grant, such minutes to lie one month on the table of both Houses of Parliament before coming into force.

The Elementary Education Act, 1873, amends the Act of 1870 in several particulars not necessary to be specified here.

The Elementary Education Act, 1876, which came into operation on the 1st January 1877, declares that it shall be the duty of the parent of every child (meaning thereby a child between the ages of five and fourteen) to cause such child to receive efficient elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic,—the duty to be enforced by the orders and penalties specified in the Act. The employment of children under the age of ten, or over that age without a certificate of proficiency or of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school, is prohibited unless the child is attending school in accordance with the Factory Acts, or by bye-law under the Education Acts. Section 10 substitutes for section 25 of the Act of 1872 the following:—

"The parent, not being a pauper, of any child, who is unable by reason of poverty to pay the ordinary fee for such child at a public elementary school, or any part of such fee, may apply to the guardians having jurisdiction in the parish in which he resides; and it shall

¹ "Elementary school" is defined to be one in which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given, and at which the fees do not exceed ninepence per week.

be the duty of such guardians, if satisfied of such inability, to pay the said fee, not exceeding threepence per week, or such part thereof as he is, in the opinion of the guardians, so unable to pay."

This payment subjects the parent to no disqualification or disability, and he is entitled to select the school. The following new regulations are made as to the parliamentary grant. A child obtaining before the age of eleven a certificate of proficiency and of due attendance, as in the Act mentioned, may have his school fees for the next three years paid for him by the Education Department—such school fees to be calculated as school-pence. The grant is no longer to be reduced by its excess above the income of the school, unless it exceeds 17s. 6d. per child in average attendance, but shall not exceed that amount except by the same sum by which the income of the school, other than the grant, exceeds it. Special grants may be made to places in which the population is small. Other clauses relate to industrial schools, administrative provisions, &c.

Scotland.—Previous to the Education (Scotland) Act of 1872, the public elementary education rested on the old parochial system, supplemented in more recent times by the parliamentary grants from the Committee of Council on Education. Under the old law the heritors in every parish were bound to provide a schoolhouse, and to contribute the schoolmaster's salary, half of which, however, was legally chargeable on tenants.²

The Education Act of 1872 establishes for a limited number of years a Board of Education for Scotland, to be responsible to the Scotch Education Department of the Privy Council, on which its functions are ultimately to devolve. The board makes an annual report to the department.

A school board must be elected in every parish and burgh as defined in the Act. The number of members (between five and fifteen) is fixed by the Board of Education, and no teacher in a public school is eligible. The election is by cumulative vote, and disputed elections are to be settled by the sheriff. The school board is a body corporate. Existing parish, burgh, and other schools, established under former Acts, are to be handed over to the school board.

The school board, acting under the Board of Education, shall provide a sufficient supply of school accommodation, and in determining what additional amount is necessary, existing efficient schools are to be taken into account, whether public or not. Provision is made for the transference of existing schools to the school board.

The clauses as to the school fund, and the power of the board to impose rates and to borrow money, are similar to those in the English Acts, and it is declared that sunk funds for behoof of burgh or parish schools shall be administered by the board, and that the board shall be at liberty to receive any property or funds to be employed in promoting education. Schoolmasters in office at the passing of the Act are not to be prejudiced in any of their rights, but all future appointments shall be during the pleasure of the board, who shall assign such salaries and emoluments as they think fit.

Sections 56–59 relate to the qualifications of teachers. A principal teacher in a public school must possess a certificate of competency or an equivalent as defined in the Act.

Section 62 contains provisions for the maintenance by the school board of higher class public schools in burghs, which are as far as practicable to be released from the necessity of giving elementary instruction, so that the funds may be applied more exclusively to the instruction on the higher branches. And when by reason of an endowment or otherwise a parish school is in a condition to give instruction in the higher branches, it may be deemed to be a higher class school and managed accordingly.

² The following are the Acts relating to education in Scotland recited in the Education Act of 1872:—Act of Scots Parliament, 1696 (1st of King William); 43 Geo. III. c. 54; 1 and 2 Vict. c. 87, and 24 and 25 Vict. c. 107.

Parliamentary grants are to be made (1) to school boards, (2) to the managers of any school which is efficiently contributing to secular education. No grant shall be made in respect of (1) religious instruction, (2) new schools, not being public schools, unless it appears that they are required, regard being had to the religious belief of the parents of the children for whom they are intended, or other special circumstances of the locality. Section 63 is the conscience clause, and it may be mentioned that the preamble of the Act states that it is expedient that managers of public schools should be at liberty to continue the custom of giving "instruction in religion to children whose parents did not object, with liberty to parents, without forfeiting any of the other advantages of the schools, to elect that their children should not receive such instruction." Section 69 imposes on parents the duty of providing elementary instruction for children between five and thirteen, and the parochial board shall pay the fee for poor parents. Defaulters may be prosecuted; and persons receiving children into their houses or workshops shall be deemed to have undertaken the duties of parents with reference to the education of children. A certificate of the child's proficiency by an inspector protects the parent or employer from proceedings under the Act. Other clauses relate to the non-educational duties imposed by various Acts on schoolmasters (now transferred to registrars), and to the "Schoolmasters' Widows' Fund," to which new masters are not required to contribute.

The Education Board, continued by Order in Council to 6th August 1877, has been further continued by statute to 6th August 1878.

Ireland.—The public elementary school system depends on grants made to the lord-lieutenant, to be expended under the direction of commissioners nominated by the Crown, and named "The Commissioners of National Education." The commissioners were incorporated by this name in 1845, with power to hold land to the yearly value of £40,000. The following statement, taken from the rules and regulations of the commissioners appended to their report for 1873, exhibits the leading points of the system as contrasted with that now established in England and Scotland.

"The object of the system of national education is to afford combined literary and moral and separate religious instruction to children of all persuasions, as far as possible in the same school, upon the fundamental principle that no attempt shall be made to interfere with the peculiar religious tenets of any description of Christian pupils. It is an earnest wish of Her Majesty's Government and of the commissioners that the clergy and laity of the different religious denominations should co-operate in conducting national schools."

The commissioners grant aid either to vested schools (*i.e.*, schools vested in themselves, or in local trustees to be maintained by them as national schools) or to non-vested (*i.e.*, private schools), and the grant may be towards payment of salary or supply of books, or, in the case of vested schools, towards providing buildings.

The local government of the national schools is vested in the local patrons or managers thereof, and the local patron is the person who applies in the first instance to place the school in connection with the board, unless otherwise specified. The patron may manage the school by himself or by a deputy. If the school is controlled by a committee or vested in trustees, they are the patrons. A patron may nominate his successor, and in case of death, his legal representative if he was a layman, and his successor in office if he was a clerical patron, will be recognized by the commissioners. The local patrons have the power of appointing and removing teachers, subject to a rule requiring three months' notice to the teacher. Every national school must be visited three times a year by inspectors.

In non-vested schools, the commissioners do not in general make any conditions as to the use of the building after school hours; but no national school house shall be employed at any time, even temporarily, as the stated place of divine worship of any religious community, and no grant will be made to a school held in a place of worship. In all national schools there must be secular instruction four hours a day upon five days in the week. Religious instruction must be so arranged that each school shall be open to

the children of all communions, that due regard be had to parental right and authority, and that accordingly no child shall receive or be present at any religious instruction of which his parents or guardians disapprove. In non-vested schools it is for the patrons and local managers to determine whether any and what religious instruction shall be given. In all national schools, the patrons have the right to permit the Scriptures to be read; and in all vested schools they must afford opportunities for the same, if the parents or guardians require it. (E. R.)

EDWARD, or EADWARD I., king of the Anglo-Saxons, was the eldest son of Alfred the Great, and succeeded his father, by the voice of the Witan, 26th October 901. He was then about thirty years of age, and had already in 893 distinguished himself by inflicting a disastrous defeat on the Danes at Farnham. His election to the throne was disputed by his cousin Ethelwold, who, leaguely himself with the Danes of Northumbria, waged with varying success a civil war of four years' duration. It was brought to a close in 906 by Ethelwold's death in battle, when Edward concluded a peace with the East Anglians and Northumbrians. The pacification was not, however, of a very satisfactory nature, and was not of long continuance, for in 910 Edward "sent out a force of West Saxons and Mercians, who greatly spoiled the army of the north," and in 911 the Danes, receiving large reinforcements from France, made repeated attacks on Wessex and Mercia. Against this common enemy Edward and his sister Ethelfleda, who became "lady of Mercia" in 912, formed conjoint measures. Ethelfleda drove the Danes from Mercia, and to secure her conquests erected the fortresses of Bridgenorth, Stafford, Tamworth, and Warwick; while Edward, by adopting the same methods in East Anglia and Essex, gradually accomplished the complete subjugation of the Danes. On the death of Ethelfleda in 922 he annexed Mercia to his own crown, and became king of all England south of the Humber. But this was not the whole result of his victories, for the Danes of Northumbria, the Welsh, the Scots, and the Britons of Strathclyde, either from dread of his power or from desire for his protection, voluntarily chose him to be their "father and lord." He died in 925. Inferior to his father in the higher moral and intellectual qualities, Edward manifested gifts superior to his as a legislator and warrior; and under him the Anglo-Saxon rule attained a fame and influence to which it had never before made a near approximation.

EDWARD, or EADWARD II., surnamed the Martyr, an Anglo-Saxon king, succeeded his father Edgar in 975, at the age of about thirteen years. He was the elder son of Edgar, and is said to have been recommended by him as his successor; but the party in the state opposed to the monks supported nevertheless the claims of his younger brother Ethelred, son of Elfrida, and only seven years of age. The influence of Dunstan was, however, sufficiently great to overbear all opposition, and in a somewhat summary fashion he presented Edward to the Witan at Winchester, and consecrated him king. During his short reign the only circumstances worthy of notice are the quarrels between the two parties in the state, and the rapid decline of the authority of Dunstan and the monks. The death of Edward, which occurred in 978, was the result of a base act of treachery on the part of Elfrida. He was returning exhausted from the chase at Wareham when he was lured to her residence, and was stabbed in the back while partaking of hospitality before her palace gate.

EDWARD, or EADWARD III., king of the Anglo-Saxons, surnamed, on account of his reputation for superior sanctity, the Confessor, was the son of Ethelred II. and Emma, daughter of Richard I. of Normandy, and was born at Islip, Oxfordshire, probably in 1004. On the election of Swend to the throne of England in 1013, Emma with

her husband and family took refuge in Normandy; and Edward, notwithstanding the marriage of Emma to Canute in 1017, continued to reside at the Norman court, until he was recalled to England by Hardicanute in 1041. Hardicanute died in 1042, and "before the king was buried, all folk chose Edward to be king at London;" but partly from his own unwillingness to accept the crown, and partly from the opposition of the Danes who came into England with Canute, his coronation did not take place till April 1043. The chief agent in overcoming his scruples, and in quelling all murmurs of opposition against his election, was Godwin the West Saxon earl, whose influence was at that time paramount in England. The exact nature of the relations between Godwin and Edward has been the subject of considerable discussion; but the most probable view of the matter is that, until after the marriage of Edward to Edgitha, daughter of Godwin, in 1045, these were on the whole cordial and friendly, but that gradually the king's preference of Normans to Anglo-Saxons, his necessary friendship with Leofric of Mercia and Siward of Northumbria, and his growing dread of Godwin's ambitious character, led to misunderstanding and distrust. It was, probably, at the instigation of Godwin that Edward, on his accession to the throne, deprived his mother Emma of her possessions, and caused her to live in retirement at Winchester, and that he banished from the kingdom the chief Danish partisans who opposed his election. For the first eight years his reign was comparatively tranquil, the only circumstances worthy of mention being a threatened invasion by Norway, the ravages committed by pirates in Kent and Essex, and the outlawry of Sweyn, son of Godwin, for the seduction of the abbess of Leominster. In 1051, Eustace, count of Boulogne, in endeavouring to quarter his followers on the town of Dover, was resisted by the burghers, and a quarrel ensuing, several Normans were slain. The king, on hearing Eustace's account of the affair, without further inquiry, commanded Godwin to chastise the town by military execution. Godwin demanded a trial; but the king, incited it is said by Robert, archbishop of Canterbury, summoned a meeting of the Witan at Gloucester, not for the purpose of inquiring into the affair at Dover, but to pass judgment on Godwin for his contumacy. Ultimately, Godwin thought it prudent to leave the country and take refuge in Flanders. It was during his absence that William, duke of Normandy, visited England; and if this prince did not then receive the promise of the crown from Edward, his ambition to possess it and his hopes of success were doubtless confirmed by his visit. There seems to have been general regret at Godwin's absence; and encouraged by the assurances he received from England, he gathered a fleet, and uniting with Harold, appeared before London. The king endeavoured to oppose him, but was obliged to yield to the wishes of his subjects, and Godwin and his sons were reinstated in their possessions. When her father left England, Edgitha had been deprived of her property and sent to the royal abbey of Wherwell, but on his return she was restored to her former position. Godwin died in 1053, and after his death Harold attained to great influence, and virtually ruled the kingdom in the name of Edward. Towards the end of 1065 Edward's health began rapidly to fail. He had rebuilt the ancient abbey of Westminster, and his only wish was to be present at its consecration, which was to take place on the 28th December, but over-exertion on some previous festival days was too much for his remaining strength. His share in the ceremony had to be performed by deputy, and he died 5th January 1066. It was his last wish that Harold should succeed him on the throne. The virtues of Edward, it has been said, were monastic rather than kingly. His aims were just and righteous, and he showed his interest in his subjects by the

preparation of a digest of the laws of the kingdom, and by the repeal of the Danegeld, or war tax; but his weak character and his feeble interest in worldly matters caused the real government of the kingdom during his reign to be placed almost entirely in the hands of favourites.

See Palgrave's *History of the Anglo-Saxons*, Green's *History of the English People*, and especially Freeman's *Norman Conquest*, vol. ii.

EDWARD I. (1239-1307), king of England, was the son of Henry III. of England, and of Eleanor, daughter of the count of Provence, and was born at Westminster, June 16, 1239. In 1252 he was named governor of Gascony in room of Simon de Montfort, with whom Henry was dissatisfied; and in 1254, by his marriage with Eleanor, daughter of Alphonso X. of Castile, he secured to the English for a time undisputed possession of that province. At the battle of Lewes, 13th May 1264, Edward, by the impetuosity of his attack, at first defeated the barons with great slaughter, but by his too great rashness in pursuit failed to give the king proper support in another part of the field, and was thus the cause ultimately of the utter rout of the royal forces. He was taken prisoner, but escaping by a clever stratagem, he joined with the earl of Gloucester, and inflicted a disastrous defeat on De Montfort and his sons at Evesham, August 3, 1265. In 1269, at the request of the Pope, he undertook a crusade to the Holy Land. He reached it in 1270, and in 1271 he captured Nazareth and massacred all the Turks found within its walls. In revenge, perhaps, for this act, an assassin, on June 12, 1272, stabbed him in three places with a poisoned arrow; but his vigorous constitution triumphed over his injuries and he completely recovered. In the same year his father died, and he was proclaimed king. He had arrived at Sicily when the news reached him, but instead of going direct to England, he crossed over to Italy, and thence into France, where in a tournament his followers quarrelled with those of the count of Chalons, and he slew the count in single combat. He landed in England August 2, 1274, and was crowned on the 19th. In October of the same year he issued writs to inquire into the state of the realm, and the next year there were passed the laws called the Statutes of Westminster, which reformed many of the abuses of the feudal system, secured freedom from undue influence in the election of sheriffs and other justices, and threatened with penalties certain oppressive acts on the part of the barons. In 1277 he conquered Wales and caused Llewelyn to sue for peace; but in 1280, a Welsh war again broke out, which continued till the death of Llewelyn in 1282. Edward's plan to obtain money for the expenses of this war, by summoning for consultation in 1283 representatives of the shires, the boroughs, and the church, was the germ of the English House of Commons, although the first properly constituted Parliament did not meet till 1295. A less creditable method of raising money was the banishment, in 1280, of the Jews from England, on condition that the clergy and laity submitted to a tax of a fifteenth. Two other important decisions were the consequence of his money difficulties:—in 1297 he refused submission to the bull of Boniface VIII. forbidding the clergy to be taxed on their ecclesiastical revenue, and in 1299 he was obliged to confirm the charters conferring on the people the right to fix their own taxation. In 1290 Queen Eleanor died, and in 1293 Edward entered into negotiations for a marriage with Margaret, sister of Philip IV. of France; but on account of an act of treachery on the part of the French, these negotiations were broken off for a time, and the marriage did not take place till 1299. From 1295 the affairs of Scotland occupied his chief attention. In 1292 he had decided the claims of the candidates for the Scottish crown

in favour of Baliol, on condition that the latter acknowledged him as lord paramount, and on the breaking out of war with France he demanded his assistance. On Baliol's refusal, and on learning that he had entered into a treaty with France, Edward in 1296 captured Berwick, defeated the Scots at Dunbar, took the castles of Roxburgh, Jedburgh, Edinburgh, Dumbaron, and Stirling, and, receiving at Perth Baliol's unconditional surrender, sent him prisoner to the Tower. In 1297 Wallace headed a rebellion of the Scots, and defeated the English with great slaughter at the battle of Stirling bridge; but next year the Scots suffered an overwhelming defeat at Falkirk, and only prevented the further success of the English by laying waste their own country. In 1299 and 1300 Edward's attempts at invasion met with little success on account of opposition from his barons. In 1301 he invaded Scotland for the fifth time, but at the request of the king of France granted it a truce. In 1304 he compelled its submission, and excepted from the amnesty granted to the Scotch nobles Sir William Wallace, who was captured and executed in 1305. In 1307, to avenge Bruce's murder of Comyn and his attacks on the English, Edward resolved on a seventh invasion, and, though in great bodily weakness, determined to lead his army in person; but his almost unexampled labours had already undermined his vigorous health, and he died 7th July 1307, at the village of Burgh-on-the-Sands, on the fifth day of his march northwards from Carlisle. He had given orders that his dead body should be carried before the army until his enemies were conquered; but his son Edward made no endeavour to fulfil his wish. The body was escorted to Waltham, and was buried at Westminster on the 27th October. In Edward were united in a rare degree both the physical and mental qualities of a great general; and he is one of the few English kings, and perhaps the first, who can lay claim to the higher qualities of statesmanship. The measures which he passed for the government of his own kingdom, and the concessions he made to the demands of his subjects, almost entitle him to be called the founder of England's constitutional freedom; while the far-seeing wisdom of his foreign policy was shown by his sacrificing his influence in France in order to quell the opposition to his authority in Scotland. That his claims on Scotland were altogether just can scarcely be affirmed; but that he clearly saw the necessity of a union of Scotland and England, and devoted his whole efforts to the attainment of this end, is perhaps his highest title to honourable remembrance. His harsh manner of attaining his end, and the cruel punishments he exercised on those who sought to thwart his efforts, may be excused partly on account of the times in which he lived, and partly as arising from the just vexation of a stern and eager nature; and they are somewhat counter-balanced by the righteousness and clemency with which he governed Scotland at the periods when it was under his rule.

See Hallam's *Middle Ages*; Pearson's *History of England during the Early and Middle Ages*, vol. ii.; Longman's *Lectures on the History of England*, vol. i.; Stubbs's *Early Plantagenet Kings*; Hill Burton's *History of Scotland*, vol. ii.; and Green's *Short History of the English People*.

EDWARD II. (1284-1327), king of England, fourth son of Edward I. and of Eleanor, was born at Carnarvon, April 25, 1284, and became heir-apparent in 1285. His first title was earl of Carnarvon, but in 1301 he was created earl of Chester and prince of Wales. His personal character, and the whole tenor and tendency of his reign, may perhaps be best described as the opposite of those of his father. Though not the slave of any of the worst vices, and not without natural abilities, he was weak, indolent, and faithless; and his utter incompetence for the position in which fortune had placed him requires no other proof than the fate which

finally overtook him. His first acts after the death of his father foreshadowed his future career. He at once recalled Piers Gaveston, a favourite whom his father had banished from the court, and created him earl of Cornwall, caused his father's body to be buried at Westminster, and, after rejoining the army for a few days, returned again to London, and for six years made no serious effort to prosecute the war with Scotland. Previous to his coronation he went to France to be married to Isabella, daughter of Philip II.; and by appointing Gaveston guardian of the kingdom during his absence, and loading him with honours and presents on his return, he roused the animosity of the nobles to such a height that it was only on his promising to agree to certain demands that might be submitted to him at a future Parliament, that they consented to his coronation. It took place 25th February 1308. Until the nobles rose in rebellion in 1312, and executed Gaveston at Warwick castle, the favourite formed a perpetual subject of dispute between the nobles and the king, and was alternately banished and recalled according to the king's exigencies. In 1311 Parliament confirmed the report of the "Committee of Ordinances" appointed to reform the abuses of the administration. The king nominally agreed to act in accordance with the report, but by a saving clause secured to himself full liberty to evade the principal enactments, the result of which was a series of quarrels with the nobles, becoming more serious each successive time, followed by reconciliations increasing gradually in hollowness till the end of his reign. Robert Bruce took full advantage of the internal difficulties of England, and in 1314 had reconquered the principal strongholds of Scotland with the exception of Stirling castle. For its relief Edward raised an army of 100,000 men, but suffered a ruinous defeat at the battle of Bannockburn, 24th June 1314. Edward made no further effort of importance against the Scots till 1319, when he besieged Berwick, which Bruce had taken, but was compelled to raise the siege, and concluded a two years' truce with Scotland. After the death of Piers Gaveston, the place of favourite with the king was occupied by Hugh Despenser. He was banished by Parliament in 1321, but soon returned; and, provoked at this, the barons under Lancaster declared war, but were defeated and Lancaster executed in March 1322. In 1323 a fourteen years' truce was concluded with Scotland. In 1324 Edward was persuaded to send the queen to France in order to settle some disputes with the French king. She succeeded in her mission, but refused to return home, on account, she affirmed, of previous ill-treatment by her husband, although doubtless intrigues with Roger Mortimer had something to do with her refusal. From France she went to Flanders, and, raising a small army against the king, landed at Orwell in Suffolk, 22d September 1326. The whole nation flocked to her standard, Despenser was executed, and young Edward was appointed guardian of the kingdom. In 1327, the king was formally deposed by Parliament, and his son elected in his stead. A plot was formed against the deposed monarch in the same year, and he was murdered with great cruelty at Berkeley Castle on the 27th September. (See the same writers for this reign as for the last.)

EDWARD III. (1312-1377), king of England, the eldest son of Edward II. and of Isabella, was born at Windsor, November 13, 1312. He was appointed guardian of the kingdom October 26, 1326, and received the crown February 1, 1327. On the 24th January 1328 he was married to Philippa, daughter of the count of Hainault. During his minority the government of the kingdom was intrusted to a body of guardians with Henry of Lancaster at their head, but was virtually usurped by Roger Mortimer, until the king, irritated by his arrogance, caused him to be

seized at Nottingham on the 15th October 1330, and conveyed to the Tower. He was executed at Tyburn on the 29th November. It is said to have been chiefly through Mortimer's influence that, on the 24th April 1328, a peace was concluded between England and Scotland, the chief provisions of which were that the Scots agreed to pay England the sum of £20,000, and that Edward agreed definitely to recognize the independence of the Scotch crown. The treaty was very unpopular in England, and it is not surprising, therefore, that, when Edward Baliol in 1332 made his attempt to mount the Scotch throne, Edward III. gave him indirect assistance, and that after Baliol's dethronement in 1333 an invasion of Scotland was resolved on. On July 19 Edward defeated the Scots at the battle of Halidon Hill, and receiving as the result of his victory the submission of the principal Scotch nobles, he annexed the whole of Scotland south of the Forth to his own crown, and allowed Baliol to reign over the remainder as titular king. Soon after, Baliol was again a fugitive, but was again aided by Edward to mount a nominal throne. After a short period of peace Edward in July 1336 ravaged and burned Scotland as far as Aberdeen, but growing complications with France compelled him in the same year to return to England. Though he professed to have a claim, through his mother, on the French throne against Philip of Valois, that claim was left in abeyance until several acts of aggression on the part of Philip brought about a rupture between the two kings. The count of Flanders, at Philip's instigation, had broken off commercial relations with England; French privateers were daily committing ravages on English commerce; Aquitaine was continually threatened by desultory attacks; and Philip, though he hesitated to accept the responsibility of being the first to declare war, scarcely attempted to conceal his endeavours to throw that responsibility on Edward. Edward sailed for Flanders July 16, 1338, and at Coblenz held a conference with the emperor Louis V., at which the latter appointed him his vicar-general, and gave orders for all the princes of the Low Countries to follow him in war for the space of seven years. In 1339 Edward laid siege to Cambrai, but soon afterwards raised the siege and invaded France. Philip advanced to meet him, but declined battle, and Edward concluded his first campaign without achieving anything to compensate him for its cost. In 1340 he defeated the French fleet before Sluys, and after landing in France laid siege to Tournai, but before he succeeded in capturing it he was induced through money difficulties to conclude a truce of nine months with France. In 1342 a truce for two years was concluded between England and Scotland, and at the end of the same year Edward again set out on an expedition against France, but at the intercession of the Pope he agreed to a truce. Shortly after his return to England a great tournament was held by him at Windsor in memory of King Arthur. In 1346 he set sail on the expedition which resulted in the great victory of Crécy and the capture of Calais; and in 1348 he again concluded a truce with France. This year and the following are darkly memorable in English annals from the outbreak of the "black death," which spread terror and desolation throughout the whole country, but on account of the reduction it made in the population, was the ultimate cause of the abolition of serfdom and villanage in England. From this time Edward as a warrior retires somewhat into the background, his place being taken by the prince of Wales (See EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE), who in 1356 won the battle of Poitiers, and took King John prisoner. In 1359 Edward again invaded France, and in 1360 he signed the peace of Bretigny, according to which the French agreed to pay for King John a ransom of three million crowns, and Edward renounced his title to

the throne of France, but retained his full sovereignty over the whole of the ancient duchy of Aquitaine, the counties of Ponthieu and Guignes, and the town of Calais. Peace was again broken in 1369 by Charles of France, and when he concluded a truce with England in 1375 all of France that remained in Edward's hands was Bayonne and Bordeaux in the south, and Calais in the north. The last years of Edward's reign form a sad and gloomy close to a career which had had a vigorous and energetic commencement, and had afterwards been rendered illustrious by great achievements. His empire in France was virtually overthrown; the vast expenditure which had had such a fruitless result was sorely burdening his subjects, and awakening increasing discontent; and he himself, through the gradual decay of his mental faculties, had become a mere tool in the hands of Alice Perrers and of ministers whose only aim was their own aggrandizement. In 1367 the "Good Parliament" virtually seized the helm of the state from the hands of the king and his ministers. It compelled Alice Perrers to swear never to return to the king's presence, suspended the ministers Latimer and Lyons, protested against the means then adopted for raising taxes, and demanded a vigorous prosecution of the war. The Black Prince was the chief agent in urging these reforms, but his death, in the midst of the Parliament's deliberations, for a time rendered almost abortive the good work he had begun. Edward died 21st June 1377. The splendour of his reign belongs properly rather to the people than to the monarch. Both in his home and foreign relations he showed considerable prudence and sagacity, and he may be allowed the merit of having endeavoured as much as possible to keep on good terms with his subjects; but under him the progress of constitutional reform was due either to his money difficulties or to events entirely beyond his control. Although endowed with high courage and daring, there is no proof that he possessed more than average ability as a general. His expeditions were planned on a scale of great magnificence, but he entered on his campaigns without any definite aim, and his splendid victories were mere isolated achievements, won partly by good fortune, but chiefly by the valour of Welsh and Irish yeomen and the skill of English archers.

See *History of Edward the Third*, by W. Longman (1869); *Edward III.*, by Rev. W. Warburton, M.A. (1876); *Pearson's England in the Fourteenth Century* (1876); and essay on Edward III., by E. A. Freeman (*Essays*, first series).

EDWARD IV. (1441-1483), king of England, was the second son of Richard duke of York, and was born at Rouen, April 29, 1441. His father was appointed protector of the kingdom during the incapacity of Henry VI., and having in 1460 laid claim to the throne as a descendant of Edward III., was named by Parliament successor of Henry VI. on condition that he allowed Henry to retain his throne. As an heir had been born to the king, it was only natural that Queen Margaret should seek to resist this proposal. She accordingly raised an army against the duke of York, and he was defeated and slain at the battle of Wakefield, December 30, 1460. Edward, who was at that time in Wales, on hearing of his father's death resolved to avenge it, and gathering a mixed army of Welsh and English, defeated the earls of Pembroke and Ormond at Mortimer's Cross in Hereford, February 7, 1461. On February 17, Queen Margaret defeated the Yorkists at St Albans; but Edward, notwithstanding her victory, having united his forces with those under Warwick entered London, and, being received by the citizens with loud shouts of welcome, was proclaimed king 4th March 1461. But he could not permit himself to enjoy his dignities in idle security. King Henry had escaped and joined the army of the queen, which, having withdrawn to the north,

was to the number of about 60,000 encamped at Towton, about eight miles from York. Here Edward and Warwick met the queen's forces, and a battle of great obstinacy ensued, which, notwithstanding the arrival of a reinforcement to Margaret in the middle of the battle, ended in her utter defeat. Henry and Margaret fled to Scotland, and on the 28 June Edward was crowned at London. Margaret afterwards escaped to France, from which country in 1462 she made two separate attempts to retrieve the fallen fortunes of her house, but these, as well as one made by Henry in 1464, proved utterly abortive. In May 1461 Edward was secretly married to Elizabeth, daughter of Richard Woodville, Lord Rivers, and widow of Sir John Gray; and having in the September following publicly acknowledged her as his queen, he grievously disappointed and displeased his chief supporter, the earl of Warwick, who had been negotiating for the marriage of Edward with the sister of Louis XI. of France. Though from this time secretly bending all his energies to accomplish Edward's overthrow, Warwick skilfully concealed not only his intentions but even his share in overt acts; and it was not till 1369 that, receiving intelligence of the success of an insurrection secretly fomented by him in Yorkshire, he showed his hand by taking the king prisoner near Coventry. Shortly after, Edward either escaped or was allowed his freedom; and in 1470 he defeated the rebels near Stamford, and compelled Warwick to make his escape to France. Here the earl, through the good offices of Louis, was reconciled with Queen Margaret, and agreed to invade England in behalf of her husband. Landing at Dartmouth, he soon had an army of 60,000 men. Edward, taken by surprise and unable to raise a force sufficient to oppose him, fled to Holland; and Warwick, having released Henry, again got him acknowledged king. Edward in his turn adopted the tactics that had been successful against him. In 1471 he landed at Ravenspur, and professing at first to resign all claims to the throne, and to have no further aim than merely to recover his inheritance as duke of York, he soon collected sympathizers, and then, throwing off all disguise, issued proclamations against Henry and Warwick. He marched without opposition direct to London, and after entering it and taking Henry prisoner, advanced against the army which had been collected to oppose him. The encounter took place at New Barnet, April 14, when the party of Warwick were defeated and Warwick himself was slain. On the same day Margaret with her son Edward, now eighteen years of age, had landed at Weymouth, but on May 4 she was defeated at Tewkesbury and taken prisoner. Her son either perished in battle, or was slain shortly afterwards by the order of the king; and her husband Henry died in the Tower on May 21, the evening of the day on which Edward re-entered London. Secure at home, Edward now turned his thoughts on foreign conquest. In 1475 he formed an alliance with Charles of Burgundy against Louis, but on landing on the Continent with a large army he learned that the duke and Louis had come to an understanding, and prudence compelled him to enter into a seven years' treaty with the power he had hoped to conquer. Shortly after this, the duke of Burgundy having died, Clarence, the brother of Edward, wished to marry Mary, the duke's daughter and heiress; but Edward, perhaps on account of chagrin at the former deceit of her father, refused his consent to the suit. Exasperated at his brother's conduct, Clarence took no pains to conceal his anger, and Edward thought it necessary to impeach him of treason before the House of Lords. He was condemned to death, February 7, 1478, and on February 17 was executed in the Tower, but with so great secrecy that the manner of his death is unknown. Edward died April 9, 1483. The beauty of his person and the freedom of his

manners rendered Edward a great favourite with the lower and middle classes, but there appears to have been little in his character to awaken real esteem. He had certainly an ability for subtle scheming and intrigue, but his memory is connected with no act conferring any benefit of importance on his country, and it is tarnished by several deeds of ruthless cruelty, and by the helpless self-indulgence into which he sank during his later years. On account of the unsettled nature of the country during his reign, the influence of Parliament on the affairs of the kingdom became virtually suspended; while the antipathy and contentions between the two parties of the nobles made it almost a necessity that that party which supported the king should be unable to present any strong resistance against undue exercise of authority on his part. The result was the inauguration of that form of despotism known as the New Monarchy.

EDWARD V. (1470-1483), king of England, was the son of Edward IV. and of Elizabeth, and was born in the sanctuary of Westminster Abbey, November 4, 1470. As soon as Edward IV. was dead his brother Richard, duke of Gloucester (see RICHARD III.), acting so far in accordance with the late king's wishes, secured possession of the person of the young king, and was appointed by Parliament protector of the realm. He had previously arrested Earl Rivers, the young king's uncle, and Lord Richard Gray his half-brother, and his next step was to accuse Lord Hastings, president of the royal council, of designs on his life, and to have him executed almost immediately afterwards on Tower Green. The way being now cleared for a full declaration of his designs, he caused it to be decided at a meeting of the Lords and Commons that the marriage of Edward IV. had been invalid on account of the existence of a precontract; and, receiving a petition to act in accordance with this decision and assume the crown, he after a very slight reluctance consented to do so. Edward V. and his brother were confined in the Tower. Shortly after it was known that they were dead, but though it was the general conviction that they had been murdered, it was not till twenty years afterwards that the manner of their death was discovered. Brackenbury, the constable of the Tower, had refused to obey the command of Richard to put the young princes to death, but complied with a warrant ordering him to give up the keys of the Tower for one night to Sir James Tyrrel, who had agreed to provide for the accomplishment of the infamous act. He gave admittance to two assassins hired by himself, who smothered the two youths under pillows while they were asleep.

For Edwards IV. and V. see Green's *Short History of the English People*, the *Houses of Lancaster and York*, by James Gairdner, and "König Richard III." in Pauli's *Aufsätze zur Englischen Geschichte*.

EDWARD VI. (1537-1553), king of England, was the son of Henry VIII. and of Jane Seymour, and was born at Hampton Court, 12th October 1537. "Till he came to six years old," he says in his journal, "he was brought up among the women." He was then transferred to the direction of several masters, who instructed him in Latin, Greek, French, philosophy, and divinity. In his tenth year he was created prince of Wales and duke of Cornwall, and very shortly afterwards he succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, 28th January 1547. The will of Henry, for the protection of the young king, had named merely a council of regency, but that council immediately chose Edward, earl of Hertford, as protector, and on the 16th February ordered that he should be created duke of Somerset. The leanings of the protector were strongly Protestant, and he inaugurated his protectorate by the repeal of various Acts whose tendency was to support the waning influence of the Church of Rome, and by additional

legislation in favour of Reformation principles. Though England was in a somewhat unsettled state, this did not prevent him from planning an expedition against Scotland, on account of that power refusing to fulfil a former treaty by which a marriage had been agreed upon between Mary Queen of Scots and Edward. He defeated the Scots at the battle of Pinkie Cleugh, September 10, 1547, and next year captured Haddington; but, on account of growing dissensions at home, he was compelled to give up all further attempts against Scottish independence. His brother, who had been created Lord Seymour of Sudeley and made lord admiral of England, was suspected of being at the head of a plot to overturn his authority, and with something of bravado admitted as much as was sufficient to criminate himself, although he refused to answer in regard to the more serious charges. In the House of Lords a bill was framed against him which passed the House of Commons almost unanimously, and, it being assented to by the king shortly afterwards, he was executed on Tower Hill, March 20, 1549. In the following summer the distress consequent on the depreciation of the currency and the wasteful expenditure of the court awakened a general discontent, which in different parts of the kingdom broke out into open insurrection. The protector, instead of repressing the rebellion by vigorous measures, gave considerable concessions to the demands of the populace, his sympathy with whom he openly admitted. By such an avowal he necessarily alienated the nobility, and they speedily planned his overthrow. The council, headed by Dudley, earl of Warwick, declared against him, deposed him, and imprisoned him in the Tower, October 14, 1549. He regained his freedom shortly afterwards, but a plot which he was concocting for the overthrow of Warwick having prematurely come to light, he was again arrested in 1551, and being convicted of high treason, he was executed on Tower Hill, January 22, 1552. The king, who, except where his religious convictions were concerned, was a mere puppet in the hands of the faction which at any time was paramount, yielded his assent to the execution, apparently without any feelings of compunction. Warwick, some time before this created duke of Northumberland, now exercised absolute sway over the affairs of the kingdom, but he was hated by the populace, and distrusted even by the friends who had raised him to power. He found it necessary, therefore, to take further steps to guarantee the stability of his authority. The king was dying rapidly of consumption, and his sister Mary being heir to the throne, Northumberland could not hide from himself the probability that his own overthrow would follow her accession. He therefore took advantage of the king's strong religious prejudices to persuade him to make a will, excluding Mary and Elizabeth from the succession to the throne on the ground of their illegitimacy, and nominating as his successor Lady Jane Grey, who was married to the duke's eldest son. The arbitrary urgency of Northumberland and the religious obstinacy of Edward prevailed over the strong objections of the judges, and letters patent being drawn out in accordance with the king's wishes, passed under the Great Seal, and were signed by the chief nobles, including, although only after repeated endeavours to alter Edward's determination, Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury. Edward died July 4, 1553. There were some suspicions that his death had been hastened by Northumberland, but although his malady showed at last some symptoms of poisoning, it is now believed that these were caused by accidental administrations of over-doses of mineral medicine. The early age at which Edward VI. died makes it impossible to form a confident estimate of his character and abilities. The exceptional talent which he manifested in certain respects may have been due largely to the

precocity caused by disease. He was undoubtedly highly accomplished, but there is some reason for suspecting that he was defective in force of character, and that he was too much of a recluse to have become a successful ruler. His own writings show that he was fully aware of the abuses which had crept into the administration of affairs, and that he was conscientiously desirous that they should be remedied; but they leave it uncertain whether he had the practical sagacity to discern the true causes of these evils, and whether he had sufficient energy to remedy them even had he known the proper remedies.

The *Writings of Edward VI.* (including his Journal), edited with *Historical Notes and a Biographical Memoir* by John Gough Nichols, have been printed in two vols. by the Roxburgh Club (London, 1857). See also Hayward's *Life of Edward VI.* and Froude's *History of England*, vols. iv. and v.

EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE (1330-1376), son of Edward III. of England, and of Philippa, was born at Woodstock, June 15, 1330. In 1337 he was created duke of Cornwall. He was appointed guardian of the kingdom during the king's absences in France in 1338, 1340, and 1342, and on his return in 1343 was created prince of Wales. In 1346 he accompanied his father's fourth expedition against France, when the division led by him bore the chief brunt in the battle of Crécy. In 1350 he shared with his father the glory of defeating the Spanish fleet at the battle of "L'Espagnols-sur-Mer." In 1355 he commanded the principal of the three armies raised by the English for the invasion of France, and landing at Bordeaux captured and plundered the chief of its southern towns and fortresses. In the year following he gained the great victory of Poitiers, and took King John prisoner; and returning to England in 1357, he entered London in triumphant procession, accompanied by his illustrious captive. During the pause of arms which followed the treaty of Bretigny he was married to his cousin Joan, commonly called the Fair Maid of Kent, of whom he was the third husband. This event took place in 1361. Shortly after, he was created duke of Aquitaine, and he set sail for his new dominions in February 1363. Here his life was spent in comparative quietude until Pedro, the deposed monarch of Castile, sought his assistance to remount the Spanish throne. Trusting to Pedro's promises to defray the cost of the expedition, the Black Prince agreed to his request. He marched across the Pyrenees, defeated Don Henry with great slaughter at the battle of Navarrete, and two days afterwards, along with Don Pedro, entered Bourges in triumph. Don Pedro, however, speedily forgot the promise of payment which his distresses had induced him to make, and after the Black Prince had waited some months in vain for its fulfilment, he was compelled to return to his duchy, having lost four-fifths of his army by sickness alone. To defray his expenses he found it necessary to impose on Aquitaine a hearth tax, and the Gascon lords having complained to the king of France, he was summoned in 1369 to Paris to answer the complaint. He replied that he was willing and ready to come, but it would be with "helm on head, and with 60,000 men." War was consequently again declared between England and France. Two simultaneous invasions of English territory were planned by the French—the one under the duke of Anjou, the other under the duke of Berri. The latter laid siege to Limoges, which by the treachery of its bishop basely surrendered. Enraged almost to madness, the prince swore by the "soul of his father" that he would recover the city, and after a month's siege fulfilled his oath. Surprising the garrison by the springing of a mine, he carried the city by assault, and massacred without mercy every man, woman, and child found within its walls. This terrible act of cruelty, attributable, it is

only charitable to suppose, partly to the irritation of ill health, and possibly to chagrin arising from the presentiment that the English power in France was now on the wane, is the one blot on his fair fame. It closed also his military career, for he was compelled in 1371, by the advice of his physicians, to return to England. From this time his constitution was utterly broken, but he lingered on to witness the loss of his duchy to England, and also to originate the measures of the "Good Parliament," although his death prevented their completion. He died at Westminster, 8th June 1376. He was buried at Canterbury Cathedral, where his mailed effigy may still be seen.

See Longman's *Life and Times of Edward III.*; *Edward III.* by Rev. W. Warburton. M.A.; Pauli's *Aufsätze zur Englischen Geschichte* (Edward, Der Schwarze Prinz), Leipzig, 1869; and Creighton's *Edward the Black Prince*.

EDWARDES, SIR HERBERT BENJAMIN (1819-1868), major-general in the East Indian army, one of the noblest names on the roll of the soldier-statesmen of the British Indian empire, was born at Prodesley, in Shropshire, November 12, 1819. The family was of high standing. Sir Herbert's father was Benjamin Edwardes, rector of Prodesley, and his grandfather Sir John Edwardes, baronet, eighth holder of the title, which was conferred on one of his ancestors by Charles I. in 1644. After receiving his early education at a private school, he was sent to King's College, London, to complete his studies. Through the influence of his uncle, Sir Henry Edwardes, he was nominated in 1840 to a cadetship in the East India Company; and on his arrival in India, at the beginning of 1841, he was posted as ensign in the First Bengal Fusiliers. He remained with this regiment about five years, and during this period gave proof of that "great capacity for taking pains" which is the characteristic of genius. He mastered the lessons of his profession, obtained a good knowledge of Hindustani, Hindi, and Persian, and attracted attention by the political and literary ability displayed in a series of letters which appeared in the *Delli Gazette*. In November 1845, on the breaking out of the first Sikh war, Edwardes was appointed aide-de-camp to Sir Hugh (afterwards Viscount) Gough, then commander-in-chief in India. On the 18th of the following month he served at the battle of Moodkee, and was severely wounded. He soon recovered sufficiently to resume his duties, and fought by the side of his chief at the decisive battle of Sohraon (February 10, 1846), which closed the war. He was soon afterwards appointed third assistant to the commissioners of the Trans-Sutlej Territory; and in January 1847 was named first assistant to Sir Henry Lawrence, the resident at Lahore. Lawrence became the great exemplar of the young hero, who looked up to him with the affectionate reverence of a disciple and a son, and in later years was accustomed to attribute to the influence of this "father of his public life" whatever of great or good he had himself achieved. He took part with Lawrence in the suppression of a religious disturbance at Lahore in the spring of 1846, and soon afterwards assisted him in reducing, by a rapid movement to Jummoo, the conspirator Imaum-ud-din. In the following year a more difficult task was assigned him,—the conduct of an expedition to Bunnoo, a tributary Afghan district, in which the people would not tolerate the presence of a collector, and the revenue had consequently fallen into arrear. By his rare tact and fertility of resource, Edwardes succeeding in completely conquering the wild tribes of the valley without firing a shot, a victory which he afterwards looked back upon with more satisfaction than upon other victories which brought him more renown. His fiscal arrangements were such as to obviate all difficulty of collection for the future. In the

spring of 1848, in consequence of the murder of Mr Vans Agnew and Lieutenant Anderson at Mooltan, by order of the Dewan Moolraj, and of the raising of the standard of revolt by the latter, Lieutenant Edwardes was authorized to march against him. He set out immediately with a small force, occupied Leia on the left bank of the Indus, was joined by Colonel Cortlandt, and, although he could not attack Mooltan, held the enemy at bay and gave a check at the critical moment to their projects. He won a great victory over a greatly superior Sikh force at Kineyree (June 18), and received in acknowledgment of his services the local rank of major. In the course of the operations which followed near Mooltan, Edwardes lost his right hand, by the explosion of a pistol in his belt. On the arrival of a large force under General Whish the siege of Mooltan was formed, but was suspended for several months in consequence of the desertion of Shere Singh with his army and artillery. Edwardes distinguished himself by the part he took in the final operations, begun in December, which ended with the capture of the city, January 4, 1849. For his services he received the thanks of both houses of parliament, was promoted major by brevet, and created C.B. by special statute of the order. The directors of the East India Company conferred on him a gold medal and a good service pension of £100 per annum. After the conclusion of peace Major Edwardes came to England for the benefit of his health, married during his stay there, and wrote and published his fascinating account of the scenes in which he had been engaged, under the title of *A Year on the Punjab Frontier in 1848-1849*. His countrymen gave him fitting welcome, and the university of Oxford conferred on him the degree of D.C.L. In 1851 he returned to India and resumed his civil duties in the Punjab under Sir Henry Lawrence. In November 1853, he was entrusted with the responsible post of commissioner of the Peshawur frontier, and this he held when the Mutiny or Sepoy War of 1857 broke out. It was a position of enormous difficulty, and momentous consequences were involved in the way the crisis might be met. Edwardes rose to the height of the occasion. He saw as if by inspiration the facts and the need, and by the prompt measures which he adopted he rendered a service of incalculable importance, by effecting a reconciliation with Afghanistan, and securing the neutrality of the Amir and the tribes during the war. So effective was his procedure for the safety of the frontier that he was able to raise a large force in the Punjab and send it to co-operate in the siege and capture of Delhi. In 1859 Edwardes once more came to England, his health so greatly impaired by the continual strain of arduous work that it was doubtful whether he could ever return to India. During his stay he was created K.C.B., with the rank of brevet colonel; and the degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by the university of Cambridge. Early in 1862 he again sailed for India, and was appointed commissioner of Ambala and agent for the Cis-Sutlej states. He had been offered the governorship of the Punjab, but on the ground of failing health had declined it. In February 1865, he was compelled finally to resign his post and return to England. A second good service pension was at once conferred on him; in May 1866, he was created K.C. of the Star of India, and early in 1868 was promoted major-general in the East Indian army. It was known that he had been for some time engaged on a life of Sir Henry Lawrence, and high expectations were formed of the work; but he did not live to complete it. He died in London, December 23, 1868. Sir Herbert Edwardes, great in council and great in war, was singularly beloved by personal friends, and was generous and unselfish to a high degree. He was also a man of deep religious convictions.