

A

abbeys and priories Abbots were the spiritual heads of the larger monasteries (abbesses for nuns), with priors in charge of smaller or daughter houses. Until the Reformation some 27 mainly 'mitred abbots' attended the House of Lords. Great abbeys like Evesham, Pershore, Buckfast, Selby, or Sherborne had vast estates. The *Valor Ecclesiasticus* of 1535, which preceded the dissolution of the monasteries, identified some 563 religious houses. The largest group, with more than 170 houses and 22 nunneries, belonged to the Augustinian canons, whose first house at Colchester was founded c.1100. Next came the Benedictines, or black monks, with some 130 houses and over 60 nunneries. The Cistercians, or white monks, had some 76 houses in England and Wales, often built in remote areas, and the remains of Tintern, Rievaulx, and Fountains are among the most beautiful in the country. The proliferation after the Reformation of private estates such as Woburn abbey, Hitchin priory, or Grantham grange demonstrates that most of the monastic estates finished up with the gentry or aristocracy.

Abbey theatre First permanent home of the Irish National Theatre, founded in 1904 by Lady Gregory, Edward Martyn, and W. B. Yeats to foster native drama. Dramatic scenes came four years later with riots at the first night of J. M. Synge's *The Playboy of the Western World*. The original building was destroyed by fire in 1951.

Abbot, George (1562-1633). Bishop of Lichfield (1609), London (1610), and archbishop of Canterbury (1611-33). As a fellow of Balliol (1583) and master of University College (1597) he established a reputation as a preacher. In 1604 he was among those appointed to prepare a new translation of the Bible. His defence of hereditary monarchy and work in Scotland promoting episcopacy (1608) won him the favour of James I and the

primacy. From 1621 his ministry was overshadowed by his accidental killing of a gamekeeper, and under Charles I his influence was eclipsed by that of Laud.

abdication crisis, 1936. A constitutional *scandale* stemming from the determination of Edward VIII to marry Mrs Wallis Simpson, an American lady who had divorced her first husband and was about to divorce her second. At first Edward hoped that he might enter into morganatic marriage. Baldwin, prime minister, issued an ultimatum: the king must choose between the throne and Mrs Simpson. Edward chose the latter, and abdicated on 11 December.

Aberconwy, peace of, 1277. This treaty, which brought to a conclusion the war between Llywelyn ap Gruffydd and Edward I, marked the beginning of the end of Llywelyn's ambitions. His rule was confined to 'Lesser' Gwynedd, west of the Conwy, and five years later he was killed near Builth.

Aberdeen, a royal burgh (1178) with two universities by 1600, became a significant port and developed a range of industries after 1750, including linen, cotton and woollens, shipbuilding and engineering, distilling, paper, white fish, and granite. In 1970 oil was first tapped in the North Sea, and Aberdeen became the capital of the British offshore oil industry.

Aberdeen, battle of, 1644. After his victory at Tippermuir on 1 September 1644, Montrose advanced upon Aberdeen against a superior covenanting force. After heavy fighting on the 13th, Montrose's troops entered the city. Incensed by the murder of a drummer-boy, Montrose gave Aberdeen over to pillage.

Aberdeen, cathedrals St Machar's cathedral, built on the site of a church founded by one of St Columba's disciples (c.580),

a

was rebuilt in granite after destruction by Edward III in 1336. Alternately under presbyterian and episcopal rule 1560-1690, then wholly presbyterian, the glory of its surviving interior is the nave's oak ceiling (1520). The central tower fell after a storm (1688). The episcopal cathedral, erected 1816-17 as St Andrew's chapel, is regarded by American episcopalians as their mother church.

Aberdeen, George Hamilton-Gordon, 4th earl of (1784-1860). As prime minister during the *Crimean War Aberdeen paid a high price for underestimating public anxiety about the conduct of the war. Yet he had a long career of public service behind him. Educated at Harrow and Cambridge he first made his mark as a diplomat. In 1828 he became foreign secretary in *Wellington's administration and in 1841 was again foreign secretary under *Peel. He achieved some improvement in Anglo-French relations, and settled the long-standing border dispute between Canada and the USA. He ended the war with China by the treaty of *Nanking in 1842, which leased Hong Kong to Britain. Aberdeen loyally supported Peel, resigning with him after the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846.

When Russell's government fell in 1852 Aberdeen headed a ministry which held out every prospect of stability. But Aberdeen was unlucky in that he was drawn into war with Russia. British suspicions of Russia were well founded, but although the political nation was convinced of the wisdom of containing Russian designs, public opinion was soon appalled by the incompetence exposed by the war and demanded scapegoats. He had little choice but to resign when *Roebuck's motion calling for an inquiry into the condition of the army was carried in the Commons by 305 votes to 148 on 29 January 1855.

Aberfan disaster On 21 October 1966 an avalanche of sludge from a coal tip buried the primary school of this south Wales village, causing the loss of 144 lives, mostly young children. The subsequent inquiry blamed the tragedy on the lack of any National Coal Board tipping policy.

Abernethy, submission of, 1072. After the *Norman Conquest, the boundary between England and Scotland remained in doubt and Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland, gave refuge to *Edgar the Atheling,

whose sister he married. In 1072 William led an expedition to Scotland and at Abernethy, near Perth, forced Malcolm to submit and expel Edgar.

Abyssinian War, 1935-6. Conflict between Abyssinia and Italy. Mussolini used a border incident in December 1934 at Walwal as a pretext for pursuing his aim of imperial expansion in north Africa. The Italians invaded Abyssinia on 3 October 1935 and captured the capital Addis Ababa on 5 May 1936. The League of Nations branded Italy the aggressor and imposed limited sanctions to no avail.

Aclea, battle of, 851. A major victory for King Æthelwulf of Wessex over Danish raiders. In 850, for the first time, the Danes wintered on Thanet in Kent. Men from 350 ships stormed Canterbury and London, driving the Mercians to flight, before facing the West Saxon king south of the Thames. The Wessex men made 'the greatest slaughter of a heathen host' heard of to that day.

Acre, defence of, 1799. Bonaparte, in Egypt, advanced into Syria to menace the Turks, then in alliance with Britain. Sir Sidney *Smith flung troops and guns into the fort of Acre, which resisted the French for two months. Three months later Bonaparte abandoned his men and sailed back to France.

Acre, siege of, 1189-91. The siege and capture of Acre during the Third Crusade was a great event. Acre was the chief town of the kingdom of Jerusalem and the siege commenced in 1189. Richard I joined the besiegers in June 1191. Despite efforts by Saladin to relieve the city, it surrendered in July. But the crusaders' advance south on Jerusalem stalled and in October 1192 Richard left Acre on his ill-fated journey home.

Acton, Sir John, 1st Baron Acton (1834-1902). Historian and liberal Roman catholic. From an old Shropshire family on his father's side, Acton had a German mother and was brought up mainly on the continent. He first came to public attention writing articles for liberal catholic periodicals. He reported the 1870-1 Vatican Council, opposing papal infallibility. Acton was an MP 1858-65 and was created a peer by *Gladstone in 1869. In 1895 he became

regius professor at Cambridge, and delivered a famous inaugural lecture (11 June 1895). He edited, but did not contribute to, the *Cambridge Modern History*. Acton never finished any of his own grand projects, but his published output was larger than is often allowed. Though not an easy author to read, Acton was a sharp epigrammatist; his most famous epigram—'Power tends to corrupt and absolute power corrupts absolutely'—was written to Mandell Creighton on 3 April 1887.

Acts of Parliament See PARLIAMENT.

Adam, Robert (1728–92). Scottish architect who, with his brothers John (1721–92) and James (1730–94), trained in the office of their father William Adam (1689–1748). After a spell at Edinburgh University, and a grand tour, Robert Adam started his architectural practice in London in 1758 and soon developed a light and decorative style inspired by his travels in Greece and Italy. His interiors combine domes, columned screens, and apses with classically derived surface patterns in delicate colours. The 'Adam style' can be seen in Kedleston (1760–1), Syon (1760–9), Osterley (1761–80), or Kenwood (1767–9), with elegant plasterwork, furnishings, and fabrics. Robert Adam's finest civic work was in Edinburgh, notably Charlotte Square (1791–1807), the Register House (1774–92), and the first stage of the university (1789–93).

Adams, Gerry (b. 1948). Politician. Born in West Belfast and attending St Mary's Christian Brothers grammar school, Adams was interned in the early 1970s and in 1983 became President of Sinn Féin and was elected to the Westminster Parliament for Belfast West. He did not take the seat and lost it in to SDLP in 1992, recovering it in 1997. He also served in the Northern Ireland Assembly and supported the power-sharing pact with DUP in 2007, whereby his ally Martin McGuinness became Deputy First Minister. Adams has always denied being a member of the Provisional IRA.

Addington, Henry, 1st Viscount Sidmouth (1757–1844). Prime minister. During a long political career Addington suffered from the denigration of foes and the condescension of friends. The son of a country doctor, he was educated at Winchester and

Oxford. Entering the Commons in 1784 he made little impact until Pitt pushed him as Speaker in 1789. He proved to be capable and fair-minded, and because of his opposition to catholic emancipation was George III's choice to succeed Pitt as prime minister in 1801. Despite its defects the peace of Amiens was initially popular and Addington's policies of fiscal economy were generally approved. The breakdown of the peace settlement exposed his limitations and in 1804 he was replaced by Pitt. Raised to the peerage in 1805 he served in Pitt's second ministry, in the Ministry of All the Talents, and in Perceval's administration. When Liverpool formed his ministry in 1812 Sidmouth became home secretary, holding the office until 1821, when he remained in the government as minister without portfolio. At the Home Office Sidmouth was responsible for the surveillance of radical activity. He was convinced that concessions made to popular pressure would be dangerous. Yet during several industrial disputes in the troubled post-Waterloo years he sympathized with the strikers. If his advice had been followed in 1819 there would have been no Peterloo massacre: he had cautioned the magistrates at Manchester against any confrontation. Nevertheless, he thought it necessary to support the magistrates in the face of criticism. After he left office in 1824 he remained a staunch opponent of catholic relief and parliamentary reform, voting against both measures in 1829 and 1832.

Addison, Joseph (1672–1719). English writer and politician. Educated at Charterhouse, Queen's College, and Magdalen College, Oxford, where he became a fellow, Addison found favour with the Whigs on account of *The Campaign* (1705), a poem celebrating Marlborough's victory at Blenheim. Appointed under-secretary of state in 1706, he was elected MP for Lostwithiel in 1708, accompanying the lord-lieutenant, Lord Wharton, to Ireland in 1709. Addison's close friendship with Richard Steele and Jonathan Swift led to his involvement in the *Tatler* (1709–10), but he is best known for his contributions to the *Spectator*, which included most of the 'Sir Roger de Coverley' papers. Returning to office on the accession of George I in 1714, Addison became secretary

a

of state, marrying the countess of Warwick in 1716.

'Addled Parliament' (5 April–7 June 1614). The second Parliament of James I was bedevilled by controversy over the king's levying of *impositions, which members feared would leave him rich enough to rule without Parliament. Deadlock ensued and James dissolved Parliament before any bills had been passed.

Adela of Louvain (c.1100–51), queen of Henry I. Henry's second wife, Adela, married him after the death of his only legitimate son in the **White Ship* disaster. The marriage's chief—and unfulfilled—purpose was to provide Henry with a male heir. When it had manifestly failed to do so, Henry persuaded his chief subjects to agree to the succession of his daughter, the Empress *Matilda.

Adelaide (1792–1849), queen of William IV. Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen was suggested by Queen *Charlotte as a suitable wife for her son William Henry, then duke of Clarence, hoping that he would end his relationship with Mrs Jordan. Marrying in July 1818, Adelaide's reserved personality complemented William's exuberant nature. The death of two infant daughters clouded Adelaide's life. But following William's accession in 1830, she performed her royal duties with dedication. Initial unpopularity sparked by a belief that she meddled in politics gave way to respect for her charitable works.

Aden A port in the Middle East, commanding the entrance to the Red Sea. In 1839 Aden was ceded to the British by the Turkish sultan. It became a free port in 1850 and was developed as a coaling station on the steamship route from Suez to Bombay. After the civil war (1965–7) the British withdrew from Aden and it became the capital of the People's Republic of South Yemen.

Admiralty Until a permanent royal navy came into being, organization did not need to be elaborate. A commander was appointed for the campaign, after which most of the vessels, being converted merchantmen, returned to their home ports. The first admirals were appointed in the late 13th cent. Henry VIII made a considerable effort to strengthen

naval power. In 1540 Lord *Bedford was named lord admiral and in 1545 a Council for Marine Causes was established—the genesis of the Navy Board. *Buckingham, Charles I's favourite, was made lord high admiral and after his murder in 1628 the office was put into commission. This arrangement, with a 1st lord of the Admiralty, became permanent after 1708. The growing importance of the navy in the 17th cent. was underlined by the fact that the lord high admiralship was taken at the highest level—by James, duke of York, 1660–73, and by Charles II himself 1673–84.

The Navy Board took responsibility for administration and implementation, the Admiralty Board for appointments and strategy. The fleet to which Charles I had devoted considerable care deserted him at the Civil War. The Commonwealth regime abolished both boards, but found it necessary to replace them with commissioners of the Admiralty and naval commissioners, under whom the navy, particularly with *Blake's leadership, acquitted itself well. Charles II in 1660 restored the old order and was fortunate enough to find in Samuel *Pepys a remarkably capable civil servant. The same efficiency was scarcely maintained in the 18th cent. and the great victories were won more by tactics, morale, and personnel than by administration. Since the 1st lord was always a politician, often with no experience of the sea, professional naval advice came from a 1st sea lord.

The dual system came to an end in 1832, partly as a measure of economy, when Sir James *Graham brought the Navy Board into the Admiralty structure and redefined channels of responsibility.

In the 20th cent. the degree of autonomy built up by the Admiralty was weakened by a number of factors—spiralling cost, an acceleration of technological change, and, not least, after 1945, by the remarkable shrinking of the navy itself. In 1931, for the first time since 1709, the 1st lord was briefly not a member of the cabinet, and in 1964, after a great run-down of the navy in the wake of the Second World War, the post of 1st lord was discontinued. In a unified Ministry of *Defence the spokesman for the navy was the chief of naval staff and 1st sea lord.

Admonition to the Parliament, 1572. A puritan manifesto, composed by John Field and others, arguing against the author-

ity of bishops and urging a presbyterian church government. It was not presented to Parliament but was published in June 1572 after a puritan bill had been abandoned, when the House was informed that the queen 'utterly misliketh it'.

Adomnán, St (c.628–704). Irish scholar, diplomat, and ninth abbot of Iona. Born into the royal Uí Néill dynasty and educated at Durrow, probably where he taught the future King Aldfrith of Northumbria, he moved in the 670s to Iona, where he wrote his *Holy Places*. He visited Aldfrith twice, in 686 as emissary of the king of Brega, and in 688 when he accepted the Roman Easter. Failure to convert his monks perhaps influenced his writing (688–92) a life of his kinsman *Columba, the monastery's founder, and his return to Ireland in 692. Adomnán's cult flourished in Ireland and Scotland.

Adrian IV (c.1100–59). Name taken by Nicholas Breakspear, still the only Englishman to be pope. Elected in 1154, he soon found himself at odds with the Emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa). In 1155–6 he granted lordship over Ireland to Henry II. According to a papal bull (known from its opening word as **Laudabiliter*), Adrian made the grant so that Henry could reform 'a rough and ignorant people'—and scholars still debate whether the bull was a forgery.

Adrian, Edgar Douglas, 1st Baron Adrian (1889–1977). Scientist. Born in London, Adrian went to Westminster School and Trinity College, Cambridge. Specializing in physiology, he became a fellow of his college in 1913 and then spent the First World War treating cases of shell-shock. Adrian returned to Cambridge in 1919 and published extensively on the nervous system. He shared the Nobel prize in 1932, held the chair of physiology from 1937 to 1951, and was master of Trinity from 1951 to 1965.

Adullamites was the name derisively given to Robert *Lowe and nearly 40 Liberal MPs who opposed Lord *Russell's programme of parliamentary reform in 1866. They were dubbed by John *Bright on 13 March in allusion to the cave of Adullam (1 Sam. 22), where David was joined by the discontented. Their opposition brought about the fall of the government but a further measure of reform was

introduced by the Conservative government of *Derby and *Disraeli.

advowsons are the right of appointing a parson in the Church of England to a parish or other benefice. The system survived from pre-Reformation power struggles between church and state until the right became protected in English civil law. The Benefice Measure of 1978 provided for involvement of the parish in appointments but not for abolition of this form of patronage.

Adwalton Moor, battle of, 1643. *Newcastle and the *Fairfaxes were manoeuvring in the spring of 1643 for control of Yorkshire. In the battle on Adwalton Moor, 30 June, east of Bradford, the royalists achieved an important victory. Bradford and Leeds fell immediately.

Æd (d. 878), 'king of the Picts' (876–8), anachronistically regarded as 4th king of Scotland. Son of *Kenneth I, he succeeded his brother *Constantine I. This was the worst period of Scandinavian devastation. Two rivals on record are the obscure *Giric and Æd's nephew *Eochaid, son of Rhun of Strathclyde. Either of these may have been Æd's final opponent in battle at Strathallan, which left Æd fatally wounded.

Ædan mac Gabhrain (d. c.608), king of Dalriada. He was crowned on Iona in 574 by St *Columba, his spiritual adviser. Ædan established a powerful kingdom, first gaining authority over the Irish Dalriada at the convention of Druim Cett in 575. Successful campaigns included expeditions to the Orkneys and the Isle of Man. But in 603 he led a great army against the powerful Northumbrian king *Æthelfryth at *Degsastan. Soundly defeated, he fled, which may be why, in Welsh tradition, he is known as 'Ædan the traitor of the North'.

Ælfheah (954–1012), archbishop of Canterbury, was a monk at Deerhurst and at Bath before being appointed bishop of Winchester in 984. In 1006 he succeeded Ælfric as archbishop of Canterbury. A Danish host burned Canterbury in 1011 and took the archbishop prisoner: on 19 April 1012 at Greenwich he was battered to death. He was buried in St Paul's and then at Canterbury.

a

He is recognized as a saint, usually as St Alphege.

Ælle (d. c.514), founder of the South Saxon kingdom, is said to have landed near Selsey Bill in 477, traditionally with three sons and three ships, driving the Britons back into Andredesweald. His next recorded battle, in 485, took place near an unknown stream, Mearcresdes burna, and in 491, Ælle and his son Cissa successfully stormed the fort of Anderida, near Pevensey. Named by *Bede as first of the *bretwaldas, a powerful overlord, he was probably leader of a general Anglo-Saxon push against Britons in the south.

Ælle (d. 867), king of Northumbria (c.863–7 or, possibly, his reign was confined to 867). He was the last independent English king of Northumbria. Though probably not of royal birth, he sought to usurp power from his predecessor Osberht. Danish armies took York in November 866. Ælle and Osberht united in an effort to regain the city on 21 March 867. They penetrated the walls, but both were then killed.

Æthelbald (d. 757), king of Mercia (716–57). The young Æthelbald was driven into exile in the reign of his second cousin Ceolred, but succeeded Ceolred as king. Writing in 731 *Bede says that all the kingdoms of the English, south of the Humber, are under the authority of Æthelbald. A charter of 736 describes Æthelbald in language supporting this claim. His relations with the church were forceful. He seems to have established a firm exploitation of monasteries and he miscondacted himself with nuns. He died at the hands of his own military household.

Æthelbert (d. 616), king of Kent (560–616), was the king who welcomed the Christian missionaries led by St *Augustine to England in 597. He exercised overlordship over all the English peoples south of the Humber, and as a direct result of his support the Christian mission was firmly established in the south-east, with bishoprics set up at his principal centre, *Canterbury, *Rochester, and *London. Sources suggest that he began his reign as early as 560 or 565, but it is more likely that his reign commenced in the late 570s or early 580s. Sometime before 589 Æthelbert married

Bertha, daughter of Charibert, a Frankish king of Paris. She was a Christian, and brought a Christian priest, the bishop Liudhard, with her. They practised their faith in a church on the site of St Martin's. Æthelbert allowed Augustine to preach, allotting him the church at St Martin's and a site in the city which became the cathedral church. The king was quickly converted and many of his people with him. The new faith drew him into yet closer contact with Francia and ultimately with Rome. Æthelbert continued to exercise effective authority in the south-east but Kentish pre-eminence weakened after his death in 616.

Æthelburg (b. c.605) was the Christian daughter of Æthelbert of Kent. Her marriage to the Northumbrian king Edwin (625) brought about his baptism and the initial conversion of his kingdom by Bishop *Paulinus, who had accompanied her north. Edwin's defeat and death in 633 forced queen and bishop to flee back to Kent.

Æthelfleda, lady of the Mercians (d. 918), was the last independent ruler of Mercia. The daughter of Alfred of Wessex and his Mercian wife Ealhswith, she was married to Æthelred of Mercia, probably in the second half of the 880s. Even before his death in 911, Æthelfleda is recorded as exercising regalian power in the province. In particular she provided a ring of burhs (fortified centres) around western Mercia and conducted successful military campaigns against the Welsh, the Hiberno-Norse Vikings, and the Danes of York. After Æthelfleda's death in 918, Edward the Elder deposed her daughter Ælfwynn and took over control of the province.

Æthelfryth (d. c.616), king of Northumbria (c.593–c.616), was said by *Bede to be the cruellest enemy of the Britons. It was probably Æthelfryth who defeated the British at Catterick (north Yorks.). His defeat of King *Ædan at *Degsastan in 603 subdued the Irish in Scotland. His victory over the men of Powys at *Chester c.616 separated Britons in Wales from their northern compatriots. But Æthelfryth's demise was at the hands of Anglo-Saxons. Threatened by Æthelfryth if he did not hand over Edwin, claimant to the Northumbrian kingdom of *Deira, who had taken refuge at his East Anglian court, *Ræd-

wald attacked, killing Ætheltryth near the *river Idle (Lincs.) c.616.

Æthelheard, king of the West Saxons (726–40). Æthelheard succeeded to the throne of Wessex when *Ine abdicated to go to Rome. His succession was challenged by Atheling Oswald, who claimed descent from King *Ceawlin. Æthelheard suffered from the expansion of Mercian power.

Æthelnoth (d. 1038). Archbishop of Canterbury from 1020. Often referred to as 'the Good', and thought to have influenced *Cnut. Æthelnoth restored the church at Canterbury, damaged during Danish raids, and in 1023 had the remains of his martyred predecessor *Elfheah translated there with great ceremony.

Æthelred (d. c.716), king of Mercia (675–704). All we know of Æthelred, son of *Penda, suggests a world no less pious than brutal. Its realities can be glimpsed, not recaptured. In 676 he ravaged Kent, and not least its churches. In 679 he won an important victory over the Northumbrians on the *Trent. In 697 his nobles murdered his royal Northumbrian wife Osthryth. In 704 he abdicated to become a monk.

Æthelred (d. 796), king of Northumbria (774–8/9, 790–6). Knowledge of Northumbrian history at this time is 'nasty, brutish, and short'. Æthelred was displaced after five years' rule by a member of another line, Ælfwald. Regaining power upon Ælfwald's murder in 790, Æthelred butchered Ælfwald's sons and sought to secure himself by marrying the daughter of *Offa of Mercia. In 796 he was murdered.

Æthelred I (d. 871), king of Wessex (865–71). The third son of *Æthelwulf to succeed to the kingship of the West Saxons, Æthelred had to endure the first major onslaught of the Danes. From bases set up in *East Anglia in 866 they first turned their attention to *Northumbria and *Mercia, delaying moves against *Wessex until the autumn of 870. After a series of skirmishes, Æthelred died on campaign in April 871, to be succeeded by his younger brother *Alfred.

Æthelred, lord of the Mercians (d. 911). Of unknown origins, by 883 Æthelred was in control of western Mercia, left under

Anglo-Saxon control when Vikings conquered the rest. Æthelred found it expedient to accept the overlordship of *Alfred of Wessex and married his eldest daughter *Æthelfleda. The two provinces co-ordinated activities against the Vikings, but Æthelred became increasingly plagued by ill-health so that well before his death in 911 Æthelfleda had become the effective leader of the Mercians.

Æthelred II (d. 1016), king of England (978–1016). Æthelred *Unræd*, the 'Unready', or more accurately the 'ill-advised', lost his kingship 1013–14, when the Danish king, *Sweyn Forkbeard, forced him into exile in Normandy, the home of his second wife *Emma, whom Æthelred had married in 1002. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicler who composed a full account was heavily biased against the king, painting a grim picture of impotence, vacillation, and treachery. Modern approaches have been kinder, noting solid evidence for effective government in the legal and financial spheres and pointing to the cultural and religious elements of strength in the period. No one denies the incompetence, notably later in the reign after 1006, when Æthelred relied too much on the treacherous ealdorman Eadric Streona. It was the king's misfortune that, no military leader himself, he had to face renewed Viking onslaught which reached a peak after the defeat and death of the ealdorman Byrhtnoth at the battle of *Maldon in 991. This was followed by attempts to buy off the Danes by the payment of immense sums. Sporadic violent reaction also occurred as when on the morrow of *St Brice's day, 13 November 1002, Æthelred ordered 'all the Danish men in England' to be slain. In the later stages of the reign things got completely out of hand. *Elfheah, archbishop of Canterbury, was martyred by the Danes in 1012, and Sweyn's success the following year may be attributed in part to English war-weariness. After Sweyn's death, Æthelred was recalled but died on 23 April 1016 in London, itself under threat from *Cnut's invading and ultimately victorious army.

Æthelthryth (Ætheldreda, Audrey), St (c.630–79). Daughter of King Anna of East Anglia, and virgin wife of Tondbert, of the south Gyrwe, and secondly of Ecgrifith of

a

Northumbria, who eventually released her to monastic life at Coldingham, north of Berwick. Æthelthryth founded a double monastery at Ely, perhaps the first south-eastern house for women. The promotion of her cult by *Wilfrid showed Gallic influence and, after *Æthelwold refounded Ely (c.970), gave title to church and to lands, to her community, and respectability as rulers of East Anglia to her royal West Saxon devotees.

Æthelwold, St (c.908–84). Winchester-born leader of the 10th-cent. reformation, and major influence on King *Edgar. Probably a noble, Æthelwold served King *Æthelstan, became a monk under *Dunstan at Glastonbury, and was made, by King Edred, abbot of Abingdon (c.955) and, by Edgar, bishop of Winchester (963). He replaced the clerks of the Old and New Minsters with monks (964), and developed Winchester as a centre of art and learning. Æthelwold's *Benedictional* (collection of blessings), which combined two liturgical traditions, proved very influential. Heavily involved in politics, he worked closely with Edgar and Queen Ælfthryth. Æthelwold elevated royal authority, implying parallels between king and Christ.

Æthelwulf (d. 858), king of Wessex (839–58). The son of *Egbert (802–39) and father of four kings, the youngest of whom was *Alfred the Great (871–99), Æthelwulf is a far from negligible figure. He was a competent military leader, conducting substantial campaigns against the Danes at *Aclea in Kent in 851 and against the Welsh of Powys in 853. Much of his personal interest seemed, however, to lie in ecclesiastical directions. He made generous provision for the financing of churches (his Decimations). In 855 he yielded his authority to his eldest son Æthelbald, and went on pilgrimage to Rome. Æthelwulf was away for a twelvemonth, and on his return with a Frankish princess as a bride (a young girl, Judith) he was forced to agree to a division of the kingdom with his own authority confined to the south-east.

Aetius, Flavius (d. 454). Roman general. Gildas's work *On the Ruin of Britain* contains the passage known as The Groans of the Britons: 'To Agitius thrice consul, the groans of the Britons. . . the barbarians push us back to the sea, the sea pushes us back to

the barbarians.' The Agitius of the text is usually identified as Flavius Aetius, consul for the third time in 446 and last effective Roman commander in Gaul.

Afghan wars From 1807, when the armies of Tsar Alexander I reached its northern borders, Afghanistan became an uneasy neutral zone between the Russian and the British Indian empires around which 'the Great Game' was played. The British launched three military interventions—in 1838–42, 1878–81, and 1919–21. None was successful. The first Afghan War against Dost Mohammed saw a British expeditionary force capture the capital, Kabul. However, surrounding tribes forced a desperate retreat through mountainous country and only one member of the original army of 16,000 lived to cross the Khyber pass back into India. The second war was precipitated by Lord Lytton's forward policies, which subsequently were repudiated by *Gladstone's incoming 1880 government. The third war arose when Habibullah Khan demanded recognition by the British of the absolute independence of his kingdom. British arms, once more, found the Afghan terrain and peoples intractable. Afghanistan's sovereignty at international law was formally recognized on 21 November 1921. A fourth and unexpected intervention in Afghanistan began in 2001 when the Americans, with British assistance, drove out the Taliban as part of their campaign against international terrorism. But the struggle proved protracted and difficult.

Africa, partition of Africa is the nearest continent to western Europe, yet its colonization lagged far behind more distant regions, partly because of the health risks it presented to Europeans, and partly because there seemed little to take them there. The main exception was trade, in slaves and other goods, which could be carried on perfectly well through African and Arab middlemen at the coasts. A number of maritime nations had posts in Africa from the 16th cent. onwards, including the Portuguese, Spaniards, and—a little later—the Dutch and British. As late as the 1860s, however, their presence in tropical Africa was marginal. Britain seemed content. In 1865 a parliamentary select committee recommended withdrawing from three of her four west coast settlements altogether. Shortly after that, however, interest in Africa revived.

The reasons for this were the use of quinine as a prophylaxis against malaria; missionary activities; a new demand for Africa's natural products; booming trade to the East, and native rebellions. Other European countries also became involved, especially France. In 1882 Britain took control of Egypt after a rebellion there against the local khedive threatened her own interests, particularly in Suez. That sparked off the main stage of the 'scramble for Africa', in which several European nations vied for control.

To prevent conflict, the German chancellor Bismarck called a conference in Berlin in 1884, which parcelled west and central Africa. That was done with relatively little fuss, mainly because none of the claimants felt desperately strongly about it. The only new colony to feel the effects of this immediately was the Congo 'Free State', chiefly because of its bloody exploitation by its new owner, the Belgian King Leopold II.

In the 1890s action shifted to the east and south. Here the lion's share went to Britain, including the *Sudan, most of east-central Africa, and the *Rhodesias. This time the competition was keener, threatening conflicts with France over *Fashoda in 1898, and Germany on the eve of the second *Boer War. By 1900 the process was completed, leaving virtually the whole of Africa—barring only Ethiopia and Liberia—in European hands.

Africa Company See ROYAL AFRICA COMPANY.

Agadir crisis, 1911. A Franco-German colonial crisis triggered by a German gunboat in a Moroccan port (July 1911) led ministers to resolve an inter-service dispute over the role of the army in any future war with Germany by agreeing 'in principle' that it should be sent to the continent.

Agincourt, battle of, 1415. Henry V landed in France on 13 August 1415, laying siege to Harfleur. As the town held out until 23 September, and his army was much depleted, he decided to return forthwith to England via Calais. The French army, perhaps over 20,000 strong, attempted to block his approach to Calais. Henry had little choice but to give battle on 25 October though he now had only about 900 men-at-arms and 5,000 archers. He drew up his troops, all on foot, within 300 yards of the

enemy, across a narrow front bordered by trees, with archers on the flanks. The French cavalry charged into this funnel, hampered by volleys of arrows and by the wet ground. Many were killed or captured, amongst them the duke of Orléans.

Agreement of the People, 1647. A set of counter-proposals from the radical members of the army, who were concerned at the concessions which the army council had offered the king in the *Heads of the Proposals. The Agreement, formulated in October 1647, became the basis for the discussions at the army debates in *Putney. It urged a substantial widening of the parliamentary franchise. *Cromwell and *Ireton retorted that the security of property would be undermined. When the Agreement was submitted to Parliament, it was rejected.

Agricola, Gnaeus Iulius Governor of Britain 77–83. Agricola came of a senatorial family in southern Gaul. He was exceptional in spending all three of his periods of provincial service in Britain, culminating in an unusually long governorship. He first served in Britain as a military tribune at the time of the *Boudican revolt (60/1). He returned as legate (commander) of *legio XX Valeria Victrix* 69–73, during which time his legion took part in the advance north of the Humber–Mersey line. He served as a consul in the year 77 and probably arrived in Britain as governor late that year. Tacitus' account of Agricola's governorship is dominated by narratives of the seven seasons of campaigning, advancing Roman power far into Scotland and culminating in the defeat of the Caledonian tribes under *Calgacus at the battle of Mons Graupius (83/4).

agricultural revolution This was traditionally regarded as taking place simultaneously with the *industrial revolution, and involving the introduction of new crop rotations in which roots and artificial crops were cultivated, improvements in livestock breeding, and the reorganization of land as a result of parliamentary enclosure. These changes were held to have raised the productivity of land in such a way that the population was fed (with some help from imports) without resort to massive labour inputs which would have slowed down the industrial revolution by restricting the flow of labour from the

a

countryside to the town. Without doubt the end results deduced by this argument are correct. Food supply did more or less keep pace with population and urbanization. By 1850 an estimated 6.5 million extra mouths were being fed from home production compared with 1750. However, questions have been raised about the nature, and particularly the timing, of the agricultural revolution.

Modern understanding of the agricultural revolution sees it loosely as a three-stage, overlapping, process. The first phase, completed by c.1750–70, saw two developments: first, the introduction of new crops, particularly root crops such as turnips and swedes, which could be grown between grain crops; and second, a considerable rise in the productivity of labour. As a result of these changes less land needed to be left fallow, additional animal feedstuffs were grown, and greater quantities (and quality) of manure became available.

During the second phase, lasting from around 1750 to 1830, demand increased rapidly. In this period the slack in the agricultural economy which had been partly taken up by grain exports disappeared and by the early 19th cent. an import balance existed. The reorganization of the land through enclosure and the gradual growth of larger farms, brought a slow rise in productivity, and a growing trend towards regional specialization. Norfolk farmers had pioneered the cultivation of clover in England, but it was only after 1740 that the principal benefits of the new crop were felt.

The third phase, beginning in about 1830, and sometimes called the second agricultural revolution, saw for the first time farmers using substantial inputs purchased off their farms, in the form of fertilizers for their land and artificial feedstuffs for their animals. Together with the introduction of improved methods of drainage, the results were seen in the era of high farming between the 1840s and 1870s, which soon gave way to a severe and prolonged agricultural depression.

In Scotland the agricultural revolution took a rather different form. Although, as in England, there has been a tendency to view it as a long-term change, it is now thought that, at least in the Lowlands, this underplays the transformation which occurred in the second half of the 18th cent. A rapid move towards single tenancies and production for

the market was partly stimulated by the pace of population growth, and particularly of urbanization (notably Glasgow and Edinburgh) in the second half of the 18th cent.

The result, in the second half of the 18th cent., was seen in the adoption of new technologies and crops, a shift to long leases with improving clauses written in, and higher productivity. Many of the existing farmers adapted to the new demands upon them, so that there was no Lowland equivalent of the Highland clearances. Overall the result was a radical departure from the patterns of the past in the last quarter of the 18th cent., not simply measured in terms of physical enclosure, but also in the more effective use of land involving liming, sown grasses, and the organization of labour. It was a structural change, and not simply an intensification of existing trends, since it produced a dramatic increase in crop yields, allowing Scottish cultivators to catch up on English levels of output within a few decades.

Aidan, St (d. 651). First abbot of *Lindisfarne, site of his see (634–51). Sent from *Iona, replacing a severer colleague, to work closely with King *Oswald in restoring Christianity in Northumbria, Aidan's legacy was profound: Lindisfarne, and his royal pupil *Hilda, were stars in the later 7th-cent. firmament. Aidan's rejection of worldly behaviour and elevated associations partly explains the eclipse of his cult by *Cuthbert's and his relative obscurity. Some of Aidan's relics were taken from Lindisfarne to Ireland by Colman, and his cult was revived at *Glastonbury in the 10th cent.

aids, feudal See FEUDAL AIDS.

Ailred of Rievaulx (1110–67), known as the 'St Bernard of the North', was the leading figure in the *Cistercian order in England in the mid-12th cent. The son of a priest of Hexham (Northd.), he entered the abbey of *Rievaulx, where he remained for nine years before being chosen as first abbot of Revesby (Lincs.), daughter house of Rievaulx. Four years later he was recalled to be abbot of Rievaulx itself. The monastery prospered and expanded, its numbers increasing to 150 choir monks and 500 lay brothers and servants. Ailred himself became a figure of national importance, beyond Cistercian circles, through his many friends, contacts, and writings.

Aix-la-Chapelle, treaty of, 1748. Between March and November 1748 all the belligerents in the War of the *Austrian Succession met to negotiate a settlement. The British and French put together an agreement that they persuaded their respective allies to sign. There had been no clear victor in the war and the peace merely acknowledged the status quo. Prussia had made a separate peace with Austria in 1745, but her conquest of Austrian Silesia was recognized at Aix-la-Chapelle. Don Philip of Spain was granted the dukedom of Parma, and Anglo-Spanish trade disputes were adjudicated.

Akeman Street This Roman road linked *Cirencester and *Verulamium, running across the south midlands via Alchester (Oxon.). The modern name derives from the Anglo-Saxon words meaning 'oak-man'.

Alabama case The *Alabama* was the largest of several commerce raiders built in Britain for the Confederate South in the American Civil War. The *Alabama* collected her armament outside Britain, and in two years of high seas raiding seized 62 merchantmen. She was finally sunk in June 1864 by the Union warship *Kearsage*. Arbitration in Switzerland in 1871 awarded higher damages against Britain than the sums claimed by the US government.

Alanbrooke, Alan Brooke, 1st Viscount (1883–1963). Soldier. Chief of the imperial general staff for much of the Second World War, Brooke was the son of an Irish baronet and a member of the protestant ascendancy. After the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich from 1902 he spent the Great War on the western front as an artillery officer. At the outbreak of the Second World War he was a lieutenant-general in charge of anti-aircraft defence. After commanding in France, he was appointed commander-in-chief home forces in 1940 after Dunkirk and the following year became chief of the imperial general staff. He was capable of standing up to and working with *Churchill, whose boldness and imagination he complemented with sober planning.

Alba, kingdom of The name 'Alba' was Irish and originally applied to Britain ('Albion'). It was then adopted by the kingdom created by *Kenneth MacAlpin of *Dalriada when he took over the kingdom of the Picts

in the 840s. By the 11th cent. it was more commonly known as Scotia or Scotland, but it remains the Gaelic name for Scotland today.

Alban, St Protomartyr of Britain, known from early medieval hagiographies. These portray him as a Roman officer who sheltered a priest and was martyred at *Verulamium. Dates in the early and late 3rd cent. have been put forward. The description of the trial and passion of Alban reflects the actual topography of Verulamium and St Albans abbey may perpetuate the site of his death or burial.

Albany, Alexander Stewart, 1st duke of [S] (c.1454–85). Second son of James II of Scotland, created earl of March [S] (1455), lord of Annandale, and duke of Albany (1458). As admiral of Scotland and march warden in the 1470s, Albany was an obvious focus for Scottish opposition to his brother James III's English alliance (October 1474). Indicted for treason in October 1479, Albany fled to France, where he married and fathered the son who, as John, duke of *Albany, acted as governor (1515–24) for James V. He was killed in 1485 by a lance splinter at a tournament in Paris.

Albany, John Stewart, 2nd duke of [S] (1484–1536). When James IV of Scotland was killed at *Flodden in 1513, his son was 17 months old. Albany, a grandson of James II, was heir presumptive. He was summoned to become regent to his young cousin and held office from 1515 until 1524. Bred in France, Albany strove to restore the *Franco-Scottish alliance and by the treaty of *Rouen (1517) negotiated marriage for James V to a French princess.

Albany, Murdac Stewart, 2nd duke of [S] (c.1362–1425). Son and heir of Robert, 1st duke of Albany (d. 1420), Murdac served as royal justiciar north of Forth. Captured by the English at *Homildon Hill (1402), he spent more than thirteen years in captivity. Murdac returned to Scotland in 1416 and succeeded his father as governor in 1420. He officiated at James's coronation at Scone (21 May 1424), but was arrested in Parliament the following March, and beheaded at Stirling on 25 May 1425.

Albany, Robert Stewart, 1st duke of [S] (1339–1420). Third son of Robert II and