TRANSLATION, CANONIZATION, AND THE CULT OF THE SAINTS IN ENGLAND, 1160-1220

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ABSTRACT

Elizabeth Hasseler: Translation, Canonization, and the Cult of the Saints in England, 1160-1220
(Under the direction of Marcus G. Bull and Brett E. Whalen)

The twelfth century marked a significant change in the way that saints were made. While previously sanctification had been a primarily local phenomenon, overseen by local bishops through the ritual practice of translation, throughout the twelfth century the development of formalized, juridical canonization processes allowed the papacy to oversee the process of making a new saint. This thesis addresses the nature of this shift, arguing that even as canonization proceedings became more common, the ritual of translation still retained significance as an act of local cult building. Focusing on the cults of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket, both of whom were canonized by the papacy and subsequently translated by their communities, this study will show that the translation ceremony remained significant through the twelfth century as a moment at which saints were commemorated, their lives narrated, and their remains enshrined within the sacral landscape of the community.
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regis Anglorum (1923): 64-123.

Introduction

The supporters of Edward the Confessor who wrote to Pope Alexander III in 1161 to achieve his recognition as a saint each phrased his petition in one of two ways. Some asked that Alexander canonize (canonizare) Edward by adding his name to the catalogus sanctorum. Others, on the other hand, asked for the pope’s permission to “elevate his body, lifted from the ground, to a worthy tomb.”¹ Similarly, when Alexander issued a bull of canonization for Thomas Becket a decade later, he declared not only that he would inscribe Becket’s name in the catalogue of the saints, but also that the monks of Christ Church ought to now elevate Becket’s body to an appropriate shrine “for the salvation of the faithful and the peace of the universal church.”²

The interest of these writers in both the canonization and the translation of saints Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket neatly illustrates the nature of the transition in the way that saints were made in the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries. Traditionally sanctification had been a local phenomenon. Many early medieval saints’ cults were not authorized in any formal way.³ If any institutionalized authorization of a cult did take place,

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¹ Frank Barlow, Edward the Confessor (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1970), Appendix D, no. 5: “a terra levatum et condigna theca repositum in publicas tocius populi gratulationes in ecclesiae sullimare.”

² Materials for the History of Thomas Becket, ed. J.C. Robertson, Rolls Series 67/7 (London: Longmans, Green, Reader, and Dyer, 1875-85), no. 784, pp. 545-6: “pro salute fidelium et pace universalis ecclesiae.”

³ Catherine Cubitt examines the qualities of popular cults in Anglo-Saxon England in her article “Sites and Sanctity: Revisiting the Cult of Murdered and Martyred Anglo-Saxon Royal Saints,” Early Medieval Europe 9 (2000): 53-83; see also her “Folklore and Historiography: Oral Stories and the Writing of Anglo-Saxon History,” in Elizabeth M. Tyler and Ross Balzaretti, eds., Narrative and
it typically occurred at the episcopal level through the ritual procedure of translation, in which an individual’s remains were removed from their resting place and reinterred elsewhere in the presence of the diocesan bishop. Because the establishment of the saint’s body in an accessible tomb was the precursor to the development of a full cultic program of veneration, including liturgical commemoration and veneration by pilgrims, elevation in the presence of the bishop effectively served as an act of authorization. Throughout the early Middle Ages, translation was used to launch new cults, as well as to promote, reenergize, or relocate preexisting ones.

In the wake of the church reform movement of the eleventh century, however, as a newly powerful papacy was increasingly able to assert its primacy over an extensive, interconnected ecclesiastical network, popes began to reserve their right to pronounce final

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6 The term “translation” (translatio), when used in the context of the cult of the saints, had a wide range of meanings and associations throughout the Middle Ages. At its most basic level, it referred to the movement of the body of a saint from one location to another, and so could involve the relocation of a saint within the same church or the transferal of the body from one church to another. It could also be used as a term to describe the literary genre that narrated such occasions. In this paper, the term “translation” will be used to refer to the ceremonial reburial of a saint’s body in an elevated shrine.
They were aided by the development of a more sophisticated judicial and administrative apparatus at the papal curia, and in particular by the increasingly important role played by papal legates, who extended the reach of the popes into areas that had traditionally been on the periphery of western Christendom.⁸ The papacy of Alexander III (1159-81) was a particularly important period during which many of these innovations were used to pass judgment on would-be saints. Alexander and his legates heard twelve petitions for canonization, six of which were approved. In the bulls of canonization he issued, Alexander developed a consistent rhetoric of papal jurisdiction over the act of canonization that drew on the strong claims to papal privilege, which had first been expressed by reforming popes such as Gregory VII in the late eleventh century.⁹ The reservation of the papal right to canonize was eventually codified during the papacy of Innocent III in the canons of the Fourth Lateran Council of 1215 and in several collections of papal decretals.¹⁰

The development of canonization therefore fits neatly into a broader narrative about

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¹⁰ It is worth noting that the earliest decretal collections that included texts relating to the papal right to canonization were all of Anglo-Norman origin. See André Vauchez, Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages, trans. Jean Birrell (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997), 28; Christopher Cheney, Pope Innocent III and England (Stuttgart: Anton Hiersemann, 1976), 52; and E.W. Kemp, Canonization and Authority in the Western Church (London: Oxford University Press, 1948), 102.
the development of the papal monarchy in the long twelfth century. Translation, on the other hand, tends to fall by the wayside in scholarship of the cult of the saints in this period. This belies the fact that the practice did not fade into obscurity in the wake of the development of canonization proceedings. The ceremony was still commonly used as the capstone to a successful canonization. Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket were both translated after the announcement of their canonization. So too were most of the English saints canonized over the course of the thirteenth century. These translation events were usually lavish, representing a significant outlay of resources, and they were often considered worthy of mention by contemporary chroniclers. It therefore seems unlikely, as some historians have suggested, that the translation ceremony lingered on as a vestigial feature of saints’ cults, devoid of any actual significance. How, then, did the significance of the translation ceremony change in the wake of the development of papal canonization, which had to a large degree taken over its traditional significance as an authorizing event?

Little answer is to be found in the existing scholarship on the history of papal canonization. Historians have instead tended to focus on the view from the papal curia. E.W. Kemp, in his influential 1948 monograph *Canonical and Authority in the Western Church*, traced the development of papal claims to jurisdiction over the cult of the saints.

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11 These included SS. Gilbert of Sempringham (can. 1202); Wulstan of Worcester (1203); Hugh of Lincoln (1220); William of York (1226); Edmund of Abingdon (1246); and Richard of Chichester (1262).

12 See for example Heinzelmann, *Translationsberichte*, 100-1: “As the papacy reserved the canonization of saints for itself in the thirteenth century, most significantly at Lateran IV, *translationes* largely lost their inherent significance, although they continued to be used by bishops up until the 17th century.”

from their earliest origins in the Merovingian period until the twentieth century. This narrative formed the foundation on which recent historians, such as Thomas Wetzstein, Michael Goodich, and Gábor Klaniczay, have based more detailed studies of the precedents claimed and the procedures used in individual canonization proceedings. Their work has illuminated the development of what can be identified as a standardized, judicial canonization procedure by the late thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, which was based on the interview of witnesses and the compilation of detailed evidential dossiers, and which was informed by theological understandings of the nature of the miraculous. As with Kemp’s work, however, their scholarship has remained focused on the papal side of the canonization proceedings to the neglect of an understanding of how the cults of canonized saints were established or developed.

In his magisterial Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages, André Vauchez laid the foundations for such a study into the effect of papal canonization on the cult of the saints. In this work, Vauchez outlined several major trends that affected expressions of sanctity in the late medieval period. Firstly, the willingness of the papacy to canonize recently deceased

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14 Kemp, Canonization and Authority.


17 Vauchez, Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages.
figures led to a decisive movement away from the veneration of the apostles and martyrs of the early church towards that of more “modern saints.” This shift had an impact on liturgical practice, as the popes’ willingness to enter the feast days of modern saints into the calendars of the Roman church was echoed throughout western Europe.\textsuperscript{18} Secondly, by the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the increasingly rigid judicial procedures for determining the validity of sanctity claims had begun to privilege particular modes of sanctity above others, leading to a divergence between the types of sanctity expressed in those cults approved by the papacy and those that flourished free of papal influence.\textsuperscript{19} The former category included both ecclesiastics and religious as well as laity whose holiness was attested to by extensive written documentation. The latter often tended to include local men or women who had met violent ends and who had become the object of local celebration, despite the fact that they were rarely made the subjects of hagiographical texts.\textsuperscript{20}

Vauchez’s study is invaluable not least for the scale of his quantitative research. On a broad scale, he began to identify important ways in which the development of canonization affected the ways in which sanctity was experienced and expressed in the late Middle Ages. However, the sheer breadth of Vauchez’s work precluded his ability to examine individual cases closely or to explore the impact of the trends he outlined on cults at an on the ground level. This thesis will provide such a close analysis of the cults of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket. These well-known figures were the first English saints formally canonized by the papacy, and their cults are illuminated by a rich set of congruent source types, including saints’ lives, sermons, liturgies, and architectural evidence, which allows for

\textsuperscript{18} Vauchez, \textit{Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages}, 105-10.

\textsuperscript{19} Vauchez, \textit{Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages}, 141-5.

\textsuperscript{20} Vauchez, \textit{Sainthood in the Later Middle Ages}, 145-56.
comparison as well as contrast. The cult of Edward the Confessor will be examined first. Alexander III canonized Edward in 1161. His body was translated two years later in a prestigious ceremony attended by King Henry II and presided over by the renowned Cistercian abbot Aelred of Rievaulx, who used the opportunity to develop a sophisticated portrait of royal kingship intended to inspire the current king to responsible rulership. Despite these promising beginnings, however, enthusiasm for St. Edward quickly waned. This study will suggest that it was in fact the program of Christian kingship articulated at the translation ceremony that made St. Edward an unattractive patron, both to the wider public and, ironically, to the king at whom it was directed.

The cult of Thomas Becket will be explored next. Though he immediately became the object of a popular cult and was quickly canonized, the Canterbury monks were not able to translate Becket’s body for another fifty years due to a long series of conflicts and misfortunes. Nevertheless, as this thesis will demonstrate, it was at the translation ceremony of 1220 that Archbishop Stephen Langton re-established the cult in the form it would retain for the next three centuries. He elevated Becket’s body out of the cathedral crypt into a new, spectacular shrine at the apex of the church, integrating the cult into the sacred landscape of Canterbury Cathedral and establishing his shrine as the focal point of the church’s commemorative and devotional practices. As we will see, Langton also used the translation ceremony as an opportunity to re-narrate Becket’s history in order to emphasize his apostolic way of life and miracle working capabilities, thus increasing his popularity among pilgrims.

In the course of these case studies, the significance of the translation ceremony that followed the act of papal canonization will become clear. The proclamation of a papal bull of canonization was seen as a necessary precondition to the veneration of either man as a saint.
However, the canonization process served only as an act of authorization, after which the pope delegated the responsibility for establishing a cult around the memory of the new saint to the local supporters. It was in this capacity that the translation ceremony remained central to the cult of the saints in the high and late Middle Ages. The development of the cults of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket highlights several ways in which the practice of translation remained an important moment of cult creation: the ceremony served to promote the prestige of the cult as well as that of its supporters; it provided an opportunity to narrate the subject’s life, spiritual capabilities, or saintly persona; and, through the establishment of the saint in an elevated shrine, it defined a space for commemorative, liturgical, and devotional practices in honor of the saint’s memory. Far from becoming an archaic, vestigial practice in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, this study argues that the ritual of translation in fact remained central to the establishment and functioning of saints’ cults.

This has implications for how historians ought to study the development of the cult of the saints in the high and late Middle Ages. An examination of the contingent circumstances that shaped the emergence of individual cults helps to disrupt a tendency towards a teleology that portrays the development of the regularized canonization procedure in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries as somehow inevitable. Instead, it highlights the fact that canonization, like many of the prerogatives claimed by the papacy in this period, developed slowly and unevenly. Its development was not the consequence of any clearly planned program of the papacy, but rather the result of a gradual process of dialogue between the papal curia and local communities, one which could be negotiated or manipulated to the benefit of either party. Only by examining the view from the localities, as well as from Rome, can historians bring this process of negotiation into clearer focus.
Finally, this study will also be of interest to scholars of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket. At first glance, these cults appear to have little direct connection beyond that of distinctive contrast, with Edward embodying concepts of Christian kingship and Becket symbolizing the freedom of the church from royal domination. However, the relationship between the saints was not one of simple opposition between competing symbols of *regnum* and *sacerdotium*. Instead, the contexts and concerns underpinning the two cults often come into clearer focus when they are put into conversation with one another. The supporters of each cult drew on a shared set of symbols and discourses to become participants in a larger, enduring dialogue that negotiated current issues such as the shifting nature of English kingship in the wake of the Norman Conquest; the respective authorities of the king and pope over the affairs of the church in England; and the ideals and virtues that ought to characterize a holy Christian life, whether it was lived by a king or bishop. These conversations were often most clearly evident in the cultic programs developed at the saints’ translation ceremonies. Scholarship that ignores the continuing significance of the practice of translation therefore risks missing out on important themes that informed the development of the new cults and helped to situate them within a broader social and religious landscape.

*Edward, King and Confessor, 1160-3*

As the first English saint formally canonized by the papacy, Edward the Confessor (d. 1066) is a useful figure through whom to examine the processes used to create a new saint in the twelfth century. This section will explore the various strategies used to establish the cult of St. Edward at Westminster Abbey following his canonization. As we will see, the elevation of the new saint’s body in 1163 was a vital moment in the development of the cult. It announced
Edward’s sanctity to a large crowd of influential attendees, whose presence helped to enhance and promote the prestige of the new cult and the Westminster community. Moreover, the translation represented an opportunity to define the type of sanctity that Edward was to embody. The Cistercian abbot Aelred of Rievaulx, who composed several news texts for the occasion, developed a sophisticated model of Christian kingship at the translation that was intended to inspire Henry to emulation of the saint. These strategies, as well as their ultimate effectiveness, will be investigated in turn. First, however, we must look at the processes used to create the new cult in order to get a clearer idea of the role that the translation ceremony continued to play after the development of papal canonization had coopted its traditional authorizing function.

Edward’s canonization represented a remarkable success for a saint who had enjoyed few supporters throughout the prior century. Even at Westminster, few individuals seem to have treated the king as worthy of veneration as a saint. An early anonymous work, known as the Life of King Edward who Rests at Westminster (ca. 1067), did celebrate Edward as a saint and provided several stories of miracles worked at his tomb. However, the primary purpose of this text was to serve as an encomium for Edward’s widow, Edith, and her family the Godwins. Edward was only a secondary concern to its author, despite the title the work has come to bear, and it does not seem to have stimulated widespread veneration of the deceased king at Westminster. In the early 1080s, the monk Sulcard, who composed a brief tract on the early history of Westminster Abbey, praised Edward as a wise king and a “new Solomon” but pointedly stopped short of referring to him as a saint, as had the author of the anonymous

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Nevertheless, the idea of Edward’s potential sanctity seems to have reemerged briefly in 1102, when Abbot Gilbert Crispin and Bishop Gundulf of Rochester opened Edward’s tomb, possibly with the intention of stimulating a cult. They discovered the king’s body to be incorrupt; however, nothing ultimately came of this early *inventio*. Although some notion of Edward’s potential sanctity seems to have persisted and to have been periodically revived in the decades following his death, it does not appear that the king had any dedicated devotees in the late eleventh or early twelfth centuries who were willing to expend the energy necessary to establish a cult of St. Edward at Westminster.

The notable exception was the prior of Westminster in the 1130s and 1140s, Osbert of Clare, who enthusiastically but single-handedly led an attempt to earn recognition of Edward’s sanctity. Perhaps because he found little local support, Osbert decided to pursue his project by appealing to the papacy. He first received the benediction of Bishop Henry of Winchester and King Stephen, who both wrote letters in support of Edward’s canonization. Osbert then approached the papal legate in England, Alberic of Ostia, to whom he submitted an introductory letter and a new *Vita beati Ædwardi regis Anglorum* he himself had

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24 Although Osbert likely obtained Abbot Gervase’s consent before pushing his bid for Edward’s canonization, the prior appears in the surviving evidence to have been the sole active campaigner at Westminster for the project. He had evidently attempted to promote enthusiasm for the king within the monastery. In his *Vita*, Osbert remarked that he had preached Edward’s virtues at Westminster as well as its daughter house of canonesses at Kilburn. Moreover, he added ten new miracle stories to his new *Vita*, in nine of which he himself played a central and instigating role. See Barlow, *Life of King Edward*, 157-60; Rachel Koopmans, *Wonderful to Relate: Miracle Stories and Miracle Collecting in High Medieval England* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2011), 99.

written. Somewhat curiously, Osbert declared that the “exaltation of saints” (exaltatio sanctorum) was among the duties of the legate, and he seems to have hoped that Alberic himself would pass final judgment on his case. There was no precedent for this, however, and Alberic advised Osbert to take his petition to Rome and submit it directly to the pope. Osbert did so, taking with him his Vita and the letters of the legate, the bishop of Winchester, and the English king. In Rome, Osbert seems to have won the personal regard of Pope Innocent II. However, the pope criticized Osbert’s petition for lacking the wider support of the English church, telling him that “such celebrations ought to be made on behalf of the honor and success of the entire kingdom and ought to be equally sought by the entire kingdom.” Moreover, troubling political news from England reached the papal curia at about the same time as Osbert. In June 1139 Stephen had arrested the bishops of Salisbury and Lincoln and seized several of their castles out of a suspicion that they supported his rival for the English throne, the Empress Matilda. Although the incident was soon settled in Stephen’s favor, it may have made the pope wary of acceding to Stephen’s request for the canonization of his royal forebear. Innocent rejected Osbert’s petition, forcing him to return


27 Letters of Osbert, no. 16.

28 In his letter to the Westminster convent denying Osbert’s petition, the pope praised the prior “for the virtue of his honesty and distinguished way of life.” Letters of Osbert, no. 19.

29 Letters of Osbert, no. 19: “quia, cum tanta festivitas debeat fieri ad honorem et profectum totius regni ab omno regno partier debet postulari.”

to Westminster empty handed.\textsuperscript{31}

After Osbert’s failed bid for canonization, Edward faded back into textual obscurity. Several decades later, in 1160, Abbot Lawrence of Westminster set in motion a new project to earn papal recognition of Edward’s sanctity. Like Osbert, Lawrence began by marshaling support within England for the canonization. This time, however, Lawrence was able to muster the full force of the English church and crown behind his project. A large number of petitioners, including the papal legates Henry of Sts. Nereus and Achilles and Otho of St. Nicholas in Carcere Tulliano, various members of the English church, and King Henry II himself wrote letters in support of Lawrence and Edward, thirteen of which are still extant.\textsuperscript{32} The writers of these letters characterized Lawrence’s canonization bid as a project dear to the entire English church. The claim made by one petitioner that Edward was “famous and known by the English people and the entire church” may have been an overstatement of his popularity, given the lack of interest in an Edwardian cult in the preceding century.\textsuperscript{33} However, the sheer number of writers who lent their pens to Lawrence’s project were able to provide a convincing rebuttal to Innocent II’s earlier complaint that the petition ought to

\textsuperscript{31} The Letters of Osbert, no. 19.

\textsuperscript{32} Letters survive from King Henry II; cardinal legates H. (most likely Henry of St. Nereus and Achilles) and Otho of St. Nicholas in Carcere Tulliano; Archbishop Roger de Pont-l’Eveque of York; Bishops William of Norwich, Hilary of Chichester, Nigel of Ely, Henry of Winchester, Jocelin of Salisbury, and Gilbert Foliot of Hereford; Abbot William of Reading; an unidentified monk R., possibly of St. Andrew’s in Rochester; H., “beati N. minster;” and a member of Malmesbury, possibly its abbot Gregory. The letters survive in a single codex, Vatican Library MS Latin 6024 ff. 150’ – 151’, on which see Z.N. Brooke, “The Register of Master David of London,” in Essays in History Presented to R.L. Poole, ed. H.W.C. Davis (Oxford, 1927): 227-45. The letters were originally printed, with many errors of transcription, by Francisco Liverani in his Spicilegium Liberantium (Florence, 1863), but have since been reprinted by Frank Barlow as Appendix D in his Edward the Confessor, pp. 309-324.

\textsuperscript{33} Barlow, Edward the Confessor, Appendix D, no. 13: “celebre enim et notum habet Anglorum populus et ecclesia tota quod gloriosus eorum rex Eduwardus, dum adhuc in carne viveret, carnem omnimode servavit.”
enjoy the support of the entire English church.

Moreover, while Innocent may have been put off by Stephen’s aggressive move against the bishops of Salisbury and Lincoln in 1139, Alexander conversely had a strong incentive to view Lawrence’s petition favorably. Since his disputed election in 1159, Alexander had struggled to consolidate his position against Frederick Barbarossa and the imperial antipope, Victor IV. After a short period of calculated vacillation, Henry II had recognized Alexander as rightful pope in July 1160. Now, only months later, while the threat posed by Barbarossa and Victor still loomed large, Henry presented the canonization of one of his monarchical ancestors as a suitable reward that Alexander ought to be willing to bestow upon his valuable supporter. The English petitioners were not subtle about making this suggestion either. Six of the thirteen extant letters reference the schism or remind Alexander of Henry’s support in that conflict, while several allude to the support that the English church had always given the papacy.

Alexander himself seems to have recognized the extraordinary nature of the English petition. Until this point, it had been traditional for deliberations and declarations of the canonization of saints to take place in the context of synods or church councils. In a break with tradition, however, Lawrence, delivered his petition directly to Alexander at the papal curia. “Diligently noting the constancy of the devotion and the strength of the faith which


35 Kemp, *Canonization and Authority*, 82.

36 These include the letters from the cardinal legates, Roger of York, Gilbert Foliot, Nigel of Ely, the abbot of Reading, and H.; see Barlow, *Edward the Confessor*, Appendix D, nos. 2, 3, 5, 8, 10, and 11.

37 Kemp, “Pope Alexander III and the Canonization of the Saints,” 16.
you show for your mother the holy Roman church,” Alexander declared himself persuaded by Lawrence’s testimony and agreed to his petition “so that we might favor and more readily honor you, the dearest and especial sons of the church with the sincere charity in the Lord.”

He announced Edward’s canonization in a bull issued from Anagni on February 7, 1161, in which he affirmed that he had inscribed Edward’s name in the *catalogus sanctorum*. At that point, he also exhorted Abbot Lawrence and the chapter of Westminster to “glorify and honor the body of the confessor” so that he would enjoy “the same deserved praise on earth, as the Lord glorifies him with in his grace in heaven.” When the news reached Westminster, the assembled community, “all applauding and approving, gave great praises to the glory of God and his confessor.” They then began to prepare to elevate Edward’s body in order to carry out Alexander’s exhortation and in order to ensure that King Edward might, at long last, have an established cult.

The development of the cult of Edward the Confessor was a lengthy process that spanned almost a full century. It is fairly indicative of the standard processes used to create new saints in the second half of the twelfth century. It is clear that both Prior Osbert and Abbot Lawrence saw it as useful or even necessary to attempt to receive the papacy’s permission before establishing their cult. From there, the process became one of negotiation between the saint’s local supporters and the papal curia. In both instances, the papal legates

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mediated the process of petitioning. Although Alberic of Ostia was reluctant to oversee the
process of petitioning, both he and his counterparts in the 1160s, Henry and
Otho, advocated for Edward’s canonization when the Westminster petitioners took their case
to the papal curia. Ultimately, though, it was the pope who made the final decision whether
or not to canonize the candidate.

The process of canonization was thus one of conversation and negotiation between
Westminster and Rome. However, once the bull of canonization had been promulgated and
Edward’s sanctity declared, the process of establishing his cult at Westminster became the
responsibility of his local supporters, as Alexander made clear when he enjoined them to
translate Edward’s body and accord it the appropriate veneration. We should therefore now
examine the various ways in which the Westminster community established their new cult by
elevating the saint’s body. As we will see, the translation ceremony was an important
moment of cult creation because it ritually installed Edward’s cult at Westminster and
announced his sanctity to a large and prestigious crowd.

For the Glory of the Church and St. Edward: The Translation of 1163

The elevation of Edward the Confessor’s body to a new shrine positioned behind
Westminster Abbey’s main altar on October 13, 1163 was a well-attended event. Many of the
prelates who had written in support of Edward’s canonization two years earlier were present,
as were at least seven English magnates.42 Most notably, though, King Henry II himself

42 According to Richard of Cirencester, the attendees included Bishops Gilbert of London; Henry of
Winchester; Nigel of Ely; Robert of Lincoln; William of Norwich; Jocelin of Salisbury; Walter of
Rochester; Hilary of Chichester; Bartholomew of Exeter; Richard of Chester; Godfrey of St.
Andrew’s in Rochester; Arnulf of Lisieux; Abbot Hugo of St. Edmund’s in Bury; Abbot Gregory of
Malmesbury; and the earls of Leicester, Norfolk, Essex, Arundel, Cornwall, Salisbury, and Pembroke.
De regum Anglorum, 326.
presided over the translation. The ceremony therefore declared the existence of the new cult to a large and prestigious audience. It was not only the Westminster community who benefitted at the translation ceremony, however. It also proved to be a useful stage upon which King Henry II could promote his association with the royal saint in order to boost his own prestige. This section will first explore how the king’s presence and participation shaped the translation ceremony, before returning to analyze its significance to the Westminster community.

King Henry’s interest in Edward the Confessor in the early 1160s is perhaps best understood in the context of his desire to strengthen and define his own kingship in the early years of his reign. Henry’s peaceful succession to the throne in 1154 had signaled the end of the civil war between Stephen, Henry’s mother the Empress Matilda, and, since 1149, Henry himself. From early in his reign, Henry was concerned with the restoration of royal powers that had eroded during the civil war. He vigorously pursued his claim to lands and rights that had been granted out by Stephen or assumed by local powers in the absence of a strong central government, while in the ecclesiastical realm, he asserted the ability of the king to settle matters of church rights, appointments, and litigation. A saintly patron like Edward had the potential to provide a powerful symbol of royal authority for Henry as he pursued these goals.

In addition, Henry seems to have been particularly interested in shaping his “dynastic memory” in the early 1160s and may have intended to incorporate Edward into this project.

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44 The phrase is Charity Urbanski’s. See her *Writing History for the King: Henry II and the Politics of Vernacular Historiography* (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2013), 71-82.
In 1160, around the same time as Edward’s canonization, Henry commissioned the poet Wace to write a vernacular history of his Norman ancestors. When Wace’s *Roman de Rou* proved unsatisfactory, he replaced him with Benôit de Sainte-Maure, who produced the verse *Chronique des ducs de Normandie* celebrating the triumphant history of the dukes of Normandy.⁴⁵ Henry also presided over the translation of the bodies of two of his Norman ducal ancestors, Richard I and Richard II, at the church of Sainte-Trinité in Fécamp in 1162. This ceremony not only honored the dukes’ memory, but also underscored Henry’s descent from their line and his hereditary right to the duchy of Normandy.⁴⁶

Shortly after the translation of the two dukes, Henry returned to England, and in October 1163 was present to participate in the translation of St. Edward. Abbot Lawrence had delayed the ceremony until Henry’s return from the continent so that the king could be present, and Henry took an active role in the ceremony.⁴⁷ The monks unwrapped Edward’s body for the king to examine, and Henry, “with as much fear as reverence touched it with his hands.” Aided by several of his magnates, Henry then ceremonially carried the chest containing Edward’s body in procession through the cloister before and back to the choir, where the body was elevated into its new shrine.⁴⁸

Henry’s participation in the translation of St. Edward demonstrated his ability to command a sacred ritual such as the enshrinement of a saint who had been declared holy by

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⁴⁶ Urbanski, *Writing History for the King*, 75-6.

⁴⁷ Richard of Cirencester, *De regum Anglorum*, 323: “dilate est usque in reditum suum et eidem servata sacri corporis revelatio.”

⁴⁸ Richard of Cirencester, *De regum Anglorum*, 325: “praesentem illam regiae personae maiestatem oculis vidit manibusque quantum timor et reverentia permiscere tractavit.”
the pope himself. Though the ability to create a saint no longer resided in the ritual of translation, Henry still clearly viewed the act of overseeing the elevation of a saint’s body as an inherently authoritative one, particularly considering that the ceremony was attended by many of the preeminent prelates and magnates of the realm. The glorification of Edward the Confessor’s remains also dignified the English kingship. Henry’s early interest in Edward’s cult suggested his potential interest in adopting Edward as a saintly patron, whose status as a king of England would presumably resonate with his own. As a performance of the sacral qualities of kingship, moreover, the ceremony could not have come at a more opportune time. Only days earlier, many of the attendees at the translation ceremony had gathered for a synod at Westminster, which had seen the first rumblings of conflict between the king and his new archbishop, Thomas Becket.49 The fact that Becket would launch an ultimately unsuccessful bid for the canonization of his own predecessor, Archbishop Anselm of Canterbury, in May 1163 suggests that the archbishop recognized the potential symbolic value that a royal saintly patron could provide to Henry in a protracted conflict between church and crown.50

The translation of Edward’s body was therefore a significant occasion for Henry II as a performance of his royal authority. It was the monks of Westminster, though, who stood to gain the most from Edward’s canonization and elevation. According to Richard of Cirencester, it was not the king, but rather the monks who had originally revived interest in King Edward. For them, Edward’s sanctity was revealed by the incorrupt state of his body. Sometime in 1160, a group of monks had approached Abbot Lawrence to complain that their “precious treasure,” Edward’s incorrupt body, remained buried below the ground. They


50 Koopmans, Wonderful to Relate, 124-5; Kemp, Canonization and Authority, 83.
begged him to glorify the king with all the honor he deserved. Why this idea was more appealing in 1160 than it had been in 1139 is unclear. Regardless, as we have seen, Lawrence soon gained the support of many of the English bishops, the papal legates, and the king. After Alexander’s promulgation of the papal bull, on the night before the translation, Lawrence, along with the prior and three specially chosen monks, entered the church secretly at night in order to inspect their “precious treasure” and ensure that it was as unspoiled as it had been sixty years earlier. When they opened Edward’s tomb, the pristine state of the body caused them to rejoice. Edward’s beard and hair were soft and white, and he was dressed in gilded vestments, a round miter, and purple boots. Buried with him were several relics, which Lawrence removed from the coffin, leaving behind only a ring on the king’s finger. Days later, in front of the king, archbishop, and the English church, they placed his body in a new, richly ornamented shrine. The feretrum in which Edward’s body lay was surrounded by a gold and silver capsu which, according to Osbert of Clare, had originally been gifted to the keepers of Edward’s tomb by William the Conqueror. Edward’s shrine thus acted as a visual reminder not only of the wealth, power, and prestige of the Westminster community, but also of the esteem showed to Edward’s memory by the first Norman king of England, which was now renewed by Henry’s presence at the enshrinement.

Edward’s new shrine was elevated directly behind Westminster’s main altar. In this position of honor he joined St. Peter as a holy patron of the Abbey. The church had originally been consecrated in the apostle’s name, and according to legend, a vision of the apostle had

51 Richard of Cirencester, De regum Anglorum, 319.

52 Richard of Cirencester, De regum Anglorum, 324-5. This is the ring that, according to legend, Edward had given to St. John the Evangelist and which was later returned to him by the saint. See Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, 196-200.

53 Osbert of Clare, Vita beati Ædwardi regis Anglorum, 159-60.
appeared over the Thames during the original dedication of the church. In the eleventh century, it was King Edward’s personal devotion to St. Peter that had first brought him into association with the Abbey. Early in his reign, his hagiographers claimed, Edward had prayed to St. Peter for the deliverance of his people from the impending invasion of the Danes. The apostle granted his prayer by giving him a vision of the Danish king drowning at sea. When he learned that his vision had been true and the Danish king had in fact drowned, Edward vowed to travel to Rome to give his thanks to St. Peter. Edward’s advisors, however, were fearful of the kingdom falling into chaos in his absence and managed to convince him not to undertake the pilgrimage. In recompense the king rebuilt and re-founded Westminster Abbey.

What is more, in the course of corresponding with Pope Leo III regarding the commutation of his pilgrimage vow, Edward was able to win confirmation from the pope of an important set of liberties for the Abbey: “we decree that it was confirmed by apostolic authority, and that it shall always be a house of monks, and that it shall not be placed under any layperson except for the king. And whatever privileges you wish to establish there concerning the honor of God, we grant and confirm most strongly by our authority, and we damn those who infringe upon them with an eternal curse.” Later, in the 1120s or 1130s,

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55 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 9.

56 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 10.

57 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 11: “Cui loco quidquid contuleris vel collatum est vel conferéretur, ut ratum sit apostolica auctoritate praecipimus, et ut semper habitatio monachorum sit, et nulli laicae personae nisi regi subdatur. Et quaecunque privilegia ibi constituere volueris ad honorem Dei pertinentia, concedimus et robustissima auctoritate confirmamus, et infractores eorum aeterna maledictione damnamus.”
Osbert of Clare forged a series of charters that reaffirmed liberties he claimed had been granted on the authority of Edward the Confessor and St. Peter.\textsuperscript{58} Over the course of a century, as their dual authority was invoked in protection of the prerogatives of the church, the legacies of St. Peter and King Edward became closely intertwined in the memory of the Westminster community. The monks therefore stood to gain from the elevation of Edward’s body on October 13 because his shrine served as a visual sign of his spiritual authority and the prestige of their church, which was backed by both royal and apostolic power. As they had recognized, a powerful saintly patron like Edward did their church no good if his body remained buried below the pavement. By integrating his shrine with the Abbey’s main altar in a prestigious ceremony attended by the king and his magnates, the Westminster community ensured the saint’s continued presence in the Abbey’s affairs, both spiritual and otherwise.

The translation ceremony on October 13, 1163 saw the fulfillment of Alexander’s injunction that “the body of that confessor ought to be glorified and honored with the same deserved praise on earth, as the Lord glorifies him with in his grace in heaven.”\textsuperscript{59} The elevation of the saint’s body from beneath the ground to a shrine lifted above the pavement of the church mimicked the passage of his soul from earth to heaven and made the implications of Alexander’s bull of canonization tangible. In a more mundane sense, the


\textsuperscript{59} Barlow, \textit{Edward the Confessor}, App. D, no. 14: “corpus ipsius confessoris ita glorificandum censuimus, et debitis precognis honorandum in terris, sicut eundem confessedorem dominus per suam gratiam glorificavit in celis, ut videlicet signis meruit et virtutibus optinere.”
ceremony was an opportunity for self-promotion, giving the Westminster chapter the chance to announce the prestige of their new cult to the many influential people who were present. This was not only restricted to the monks of Westminster: as we have seen, the ceremony also allowed King Henry II to associate himself with his spiritually powerful royal forebear, boosting his own prestige at a moment when such concerns were at the forefront of his mind. The translation ceremony therefore represented the inception of the cult and helped to define its institutional affiliations. It also helped to lay the grounds for the continuation of devotion to the saint. As we will see, one of the main ways in which this was accomplished was through the production of new commemorative texts that established the character that the saint would acquire in the years to come.

To Light a Candle: Textual Commemoration at the Translation

Among the crowd at the translation ceremony was one of Abbot Lawrence’s kinsman, the renowned Cistercian abbot Aelred of Rievaulx. If Henry II and the Westminster community viewed Edward’s translation as an opportunity for self-promotion, Aelred saw it as a valuable chance to expound on Edward’s spiritual values and provide a didactic interpretation of his life and deeds. He did so through the composition and dissemination of two new commemorative texts that celebrated Edward’s sanctification and provided a narrative of his saintly life, death, and afterlife. In these texts Aelred developed a powerful portrait of holy Christian kingship that he intended as a model for Henry II.\(^60\) This section will first explore

\(^60\) This subject has attracted considerable attention from scholars. See particularly John Bequette’s fine article, “Ælred of Rievaulx’s Life of Saint Edward, King and Confessor: A Saintly King and the Salvation of the English People,” Cistercian Studies Quarterly 43 (2008): 17-40; as well as Dutton’s introduction to Jane Patricia Freeland’s edition of Aelred of Rievaulx: The Historical Works, pp. 1-37; Katherine Yohe, “Ælred’s Recrafting of the Life of Edward the Confessor,” Cistercian Studies
the defining elements of Aelred’s portrayal of Edward as king and saint, before considering the reception of Aelred’s project by King Henry and the wider public.

Aelred of Rievaulx, who was one of the most important figures in the twelfth-century English Cistercian movement, was also a celebrated writer and preacher who left behind a large corpus of histories, treatises, saints’ lives, and sermons that reflect his interest in pastoral duty, the monastic vocation, and right ways of living.61 For the occasion of St. Edward’s translation, Aelred produced a new Vita Sancti Edwardi, as well as a sermon that he delivered at the ceremony on the theme of Luke 11:33: “no man lighteth a candle, and putteth it in a hidden place, nor under a bushel; but upon a candlestick, that they that come in, may see the light.”62 This verse illustrates a motif, recurring throughout these two texts, of images of light, illumination, and vision.63 St. Edward, the candle, when elevated to his shrine, “ceaselessly illuminates the goodness of almighty God.”64 In his Vita and sermon, Aelred developed a sophisticated portrait of Christian kingship that was informed by his own study of the monastic vocation.

In many ways, Aelred’s vision of Edward’s holy kingship was distinctly monastic. He


62 Historians have until recently assumed that the text of Aelred’s translation sermon did not survive. However, Peter Jackson makes a convincing argument that a heretofore unpublished sermon contained within a manuscript held at Peterborough Central Library is in fact Aelred’s sermon from October 13, 1163. See Peter Jackson, “In translacione sancti Edwardi confessoris: the Lost Sermon by Ælred of Rievaulx Found?” Cistercian Studies Quarterly 40 (2005): 45-64. Jackson’s article is followed by an edited text and translation of the sermon by Tom License, pp. 66-83.


64 “In translacione,” 82-3: “ubi signis et miraculis incessanter omnipotentis Dei bonitas illucessit.” All translations from this sermon are Tom License’s; see n. 62 above.
portrayed Edward as distinguished by a humility and simplicity that contrasted with his exalted status. In several stories, Aelred demonstrated Edward’s willingness to provide charity to the indigent. One of the more notable miracles associated with the saint was the story in which he carried a crippled beggar on his back into Westminster Abbey, ignoring the jeers of onlookers. When they arrived in the church, the beggar was miraculously cured of his ailment.\textsuperscript{65} As portrayed by Aelred, Edward was also possessed of a reserved countenance, rarely smiling or laughing and often lapsing into silent contemplation in the midst of a banquet or celebration.\textsuperscript{66} Finally, and most importantly, Edward remained a virgin even after his marriage to Edith. As Joanna Huntingdon has shown, Aelred developed the theme of Edward’s virginity to make it a central aspect of his sanctity that informed every other aspect of his sanctified life, and which was responsible for the preservation of his body in a state of miraculous incorruption after his death.\textsuperscript{67}

To further develop his portrait of Edward as a righteous Christian king, Aelred also compared him to several Old Testament leaders who had led their people to prosperity and salvation. Like Moses, Edward delivered peace to a devastated kingdom and bestowed laws and justice upon his people.\textsuperscript{68} In the “perpetual peace” that triumphed after his aversion of the Danish threat,

all England rejoices, which this holy king endowed with laws, with customs adorned, tamed at his command, educated by his sagacity, strengthened by his faith, molded by his example, raised up by his authority, ornamented with sanctity, and, leveling

\textsuperscript{65} Aelred of Rievaulx, \textit{Vita S. Edwardi}, ch. 13; “In translacione,” 71.


\textsuperscript{68} “In translacione,” 75-7.
superiors and inferiors to a certain equality, ordered throughout its realm with judgment and justice. Edward cultivated a sense of justice and fairness not only through his institution of laws, but also by his own deeds: “that which he taught with words, he fulfilled with actions, and those same things he advised to be done he demonstrated in his own actions beforehand.” In this way Edward was similar to Solomon. Like the king of Israel, “the whole world desired to see his face that it might hear the wisdom God put into his heart (3 Kings 10:23-4).”

Finally, Aelred believed that Edward was an ideal king because he ruled in cooperation with his magnates and in deference to the pope. We have already seen how Edward yielded to his advisors by commuting his pilgrimage vow because they feared for the peace of the realm. In the realm of the Church, Edward was distinguished by his close relationship and cooperation with the papacy, which went beyond his personal devotion to St. Peter. When he was forced to commute his pilgrimage vow, Edward, “wanting everything to be done in accordance with Catholic truth… and so that apostolic teaching might be presented to others for their salvation,” sent a delegation to Rome consisting of three bishops-elect: Ealdred, archbishop of York, Giso, bishop of Wells, and Walter, bishop of Hereford. This

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69 “In translacione,” 77: “letetur, inquam, Anglia, quam totam rex iste sanctus legibus instituit, moribus ornuit, domuit mandato, erudiuit consilio, firmauit fide, formauit exemplo, extulit auctoritate, decorauit sanctitate, et superior cum inferioribus ad quondam equalitatem reducens, totum regnum in iudicio et iusticia composuit.”

70 “In translacione,” 75: “quod autem uerbis docebat, operibus adimplebat, et que monebat eadem prius faciens in seipso facienda premonstrabat.”

71 “In translacione,” 79.

72 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 10.

73 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 10: “itaque rex sanctus de omnibus curam gerens, omnia secundum catholicae veritatis regulam fieri volens omnibus etiam prodesse desiderans, ut ipse de suis securior efficeretur, et aliis ad salutem doctrina apostolica praebetur, cum Aeldredo Eboracensi archiepiscopo duo mittuntur in pontificatum electi, Guiso scilicet ad ecclesiam Wellensem Walderus vero ad Herefordensem.”
delegation put Edward’s plan for the commutation of his vow to Pope Nicholas in person while also receiving their consecration directly from the pope. Moreover, Aelred portrayed the relationship between Edward and Pope Nicholas as very warm. In the letter he sent with the bishops to Rome, Edward asked that Nicholas “pray for me and for the peace of my kingdom and institute a continuous and solemn commemoration of the whole English people before the bodies of the holy apostles.” Nicholas, for his part, warmly acceded, bestowing upon the king the blessings of St. Peter.74

Throughout both his sermon and Vita, Aelred made it clear that his primary intended audience was King Henry II, whom he urged to follow in St. Edward’s example:

> We ought to imitate the great justice of a great king…the particular glory of our Henry is his physical descent from a holy family. We believe that he [Edward] promised you to us for the consolation of all England, and we have learned that while dying he described your actions in a prophetic parable; for we rejoice that in you as a cornerstone the two walls of the English and Norman peoples have come together.75

The “prophetic parable” to which Aelred refers was the so-called “vision of the green tree” which Edward purportedly experienced on his deathbed. This was the primary narrative tool that Aelred used to try and bridge the difficult gap posed by the Norman Conquest, which separated Edward’s bloodline from Henry’s. According to this vision, the troubles that beset England upon Edward’s death would be remedied “when a green tree, having been cut from

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74 Aelred of Rievaulx, *Vita S. Edwardi*, chs. 16: “ego quoque pro modulo meo, augeo et confirmo donationes et consuetudines pecuniarum quas sanctus Petrus habet in Anglia, et ipsas pecunias collectas cum regalibus donis mitto vobis, ut oretis pro me et pro pace regni mei, et continuam ac solemnem memoriam instituatis totius gentis Anglicae coram corporibus sanctorum apostolorum.”

75 Aelred of Rievaulx, *Vita S. Edwardi*, prologue: “Imitanda enim est tanti regis tanta justitia; mirari dulce est in tot divitiis et deliciis tanta continentia: de sancta ejus progenie traxisse carnis originem, Henrici nostri specialis est gloria. Ipsum te nobis in totius Angliae consolationem credimus promisisse, ipsum te prophetica parabola jam in extremis agentem didicimus designasse, in quem velut lapidem angularem Anglici generis et Normannici gaudemus duos parietes convenisse.”
its trunk and set apart from its own root at the space of three yokes, returns to its trunk and is
restored to its old root.” Aelred interpreted the “root” of the tree to mean the descent of “a
direct line of succession from Alfred…to Saint Edward.” The tree would be returned to its
root “when the glorious King Henry [I], to whom the honor of the entire kingdom had
passed…took as his wife [Edith] Mathilda, great-great-niece of Edward, joining the seed of
Norman and English kings and through the intervening work of marriage making two into
one.” This union between Henry’s maternal grandparents yielded, after three generations, the
current king who Aelred believed would “join the two people like a cornerstone.”

The interest Henry showed in his saintly predecessor in 1163 must have seemed to be
a promising sign that he might be willing to take Aelred’s advice to heart. However, the
abbot’s hope that Henry would take up Edward’s legacy proved to come to little. After taking
advantage of the valuable political opportunity that the translation ceremony of 1163
represented, Henry seems to have lost all interest in St. Edward. No further textual evidence
survives that connects the two kings. Neither did Henry forge a close relationship with
Edward’s church and community at Westminster. On the contrary, Emma Mason sees the
later relationship between the king and the Abbey as contentious, with Henry frequently
appropriating the latter’s landholdings, placing their abbots under amercement, and gifting
his clerks with Westminster benefices. When he died in 1189, Henry II was buried in

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76 Aelred of Rievaulx, Vita S. Edwardi, ch. 30: “Accessit ad radicem arbor, quando gloriosus rex
Henricus in quem totum regni decus transfusum est, nulla necessitate cogente, nulla spe lucri urgentе,
sed ex infuso ei amoris affectu abneptem Edwardi Mathildem duxit uxorem, semen regum
Normannorum et Anglorum conjungens, et interveniente opere conjugali de duobus unum faciens.”

77 Bernhard Scholz, “The Canonization of Edward the Confessor,” Speculum 36 (1961), 55; Mason,
Westminster Abbey and its People, 286-7; Paul Binski, Westminster Abbey and the Plantagenets:
52.

78 Mason, Westminster Abbey and its People, 286-7.
Fontrevrault Abbey in Anjou, where his son and successor, Richard I (r. 1189-99) would also be buried ten years later.

Ultimately, the genealogical contortions that Aelred had worked out in his parable of the green tree do not seem to have swayed Henry, who consistently tied his hereditary right to the throne back to his maternal grandfather, Henry I, instead.79 As we have seen, Henry showed more interest in his Norman ancestry than in England’s Anglo-Saxon past. Nor does the portrait of Christian kingship Aelred developed in the person of St. Edward seem to have inspired Henry to emulate his mode of rule. On the contrary, the saintly values that Aelred associated with Edward, with their emphasis on the monastic traits of humility and contemplation, was likely to have been profoundly unappealing to an active king like Henry who was engaged in the reassertion of his royal prerogatives. Edward’s virginity, championed by Aelred as one of the saint’s defining features, must have been particularly unappealing to the king. As historians like Charity Urbanski have argued, Henry remained troubled about ensuring his succession by his eldest son, Henry the Young King, whom he had coronated as co-ruler in 1170.80 In this regard, Edward, whose failure to produce an heir had ended the rule of the Anglo-Saxons in England, did not represent a useful model on which Henry could base his claims to strong, hereditary kingship. Finally, Edward’s deference to the papacy was also likely to be unattractive to Henry, who throughout his reign energetically defended his right to direct the English church.

In the absence of the cult’s most logical supporter, the Westminster community also failed to promote a popular cult around Edward the Confessor’s memory. The translation

79 Urbanski, Writing History for the King, 79-82; Warren, Henry II, 262-3.
80 Urbanski, Writing History for the King, 66-70.
ceremony of October 1163 had not established a cultic program conducive to such popular veneration. As a king and virgin, Edward’s major modes of sanctity were neither accessible to nor imitable by a wide audience. Neither was Edward attractive as a miracle worker whose intercession might be sought by pilgrims. It seems likely that his shrine had a base pierced with foramina, large, round holes into which worshippers could climb to get as close as possible to the body of the saint.\(^{81}\) However, no contemporary textual evidence survives to support the idea that Edward’s shrine, whether designed with pilgrims in mind or not, ever became the focus of popular devotion. In his Vita, Aelred had stressed the virtues Edward had exhibited during life rather than those that had manifested after his death. Osbert of Clare, in his earlier work, had added five stories of posthumous miracle working to those stories already in circulation. However, Aelred did not add any more recent stories of miracle working.\(^{82}\) Whether this was because no new incidents had been recorded by the Westminster community in the previous three decades, or because such stories were extraneous to Aelred’s didactic project, is unclear. Nevertheless, it seems clear that St. Edward never

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\(^{81}\) This is how the mid-thirteenth-century illustrator of Matthew Paris’s Estoire de Seint Aedward le Rei, who had most likely seen the tomb, depicted the structure. In several places, the illustrator of the Estoire also showed Edward’s shrine surrounded by worshippers, who appear to be seeking the intervention of his miracle-working capabilities. However, the illustrations seem to have been based on stories written down in the late eleventh century, and may not have reflected the late twelfth century reality. The manuscript is found at Cambridge, University Library, MS Ee.iii.59, and has been published in facsimile by M.R. James, La Estoire de Seint Aedward le Rei (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1920). Illustrations of the shrine are found on fols. 29v, 30r, 33r, 36r. See also Crook, English Medieval Shrines, 189-191; Stephen Lamia, “The Cross and the Crown, the Tomb and the Shrine: Decoration and Accommodation for England’s Premier Saints,” in Stephen Lamia and E.V. Del Alamo, eds., Decorations for the Holy Dead: Visual Embellishments on Tombs and Shrines of Saints (Turnhout: Brepols, 2002): 39-56.

\(^{82}\) These final five chapters of Osbert’s Vita beati Ædwardi were not included in the manuscript on which Marc Bloc based his edition of the text. However, as Frank Barlow has shown, they were first written by Osbert before appearing in Aelred’s Vita. See Barlow, The Life of King Edward, 157.
achieved widespread popularity or became the object of frequent pilgrimage. After the concerted effort that saw him canonized in 1161 and the solemn performance of his sanctity at the translation ceremony in 1163, Edward’s cult once more sunk into obscurity, only to be revived by Henry’s grandson, Henry III (r. 1216-72), several decades later. Personally devoted to St. Edward, Henry ultimately rebuilt the Abbey in the Gothic style, commissioned a new shrine for Edward in 1269, named his heir and eventual successor after the saint, and had himself buried alongside Edward in Westminster Abbey in 1272.

Although Edward the Confessor initially proved to be an unattractive patron to king and laity alike, his translation ceremony was still significant as an important moment of cult creation at which his community established a cohesive program for the veneration of their saint. We have seen how the grand ceremony headed by Abbot Lawrence and King Henry II in October 1163 displayed the prestige of the new saint to the assembled crowd of magnates and prelates. Moreover, through Aelred of Rievaulx’s production of a new sermon and *Vita S. Edwardi*, the ceremony provided the saint with the character that he would retain for decades to come. These programs can be usefully compared and contrasted with those developed at the translation of Thomas Becket. Edward the Confessor’s posthumous fate differed sharply from that of the archbishop, who only seven years after Edward’s translation became the second English saint canonized by Pope Alexander III. As we shall see, while many of the cult building strategies employed at Thomas Becket’s translation were similar to those that had been used at Westminster, Thomas Becket quickly became one of the most popular


saints not only in England, but throughout Western Europe.

*The Cult of Thomas Becket, 1170-1220*

Popular devotion to Thomas Becket arose spontaneously soon after news of the archbishop’s scandalous murder began to spread. Pilgrims began to flock to Becket’s tomb in Canterbury’s crypt, seeking to draw on the healing powers for which he was rapidly becoming known. Despite Becket’s quick popularity and canonization by Alexander III in 1173, however, his body was not able to be elevated into a shrine until fifty years later. This section will explore the early development of St. Thomas’s cult from his murder in December 1170 up to his translation in July 1220. It will first examine the process of Becket’s canonization and indicate several ways in which it compared and contrasted with that of Edward the Confessor twelve years earlier. It will then explain why the gap between canonization and translation was so lengthy, which will make it clear that the solution devised for the housing and functioning of the cult in the early 1170s was only ever intended to be a temporary measure. As we will see, the external circumstances that prevailed in 1220 finally allowed for the reestablishment of the cult on more stable foundations.

Becket’s murder on December 29, 1170 in Canterbury Cathedral at the hands of four knights of King Henry II shocked Western Europe. Within days of his death, a large number of people throughout England began to report the working of miracles in his name. Over the next several years, reports of miraculous occurrences only grew more prevalent, ultimately providing Benedict of Peterborough and William of Canterbury with massive volumes of material for the miracle collections they began to compile shortly after Becket’s

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death. Over the following decades, dozens of secondary cult centers sprung up throughout Europe, as the foundation of new chapels and churches dedicated to St. Thomas, the dissemination of his relics and miracle-working capabilities, and the insertion of his feast day into liturgical calendars spread veneration as far afield as Poland and Hungary.86

Despite Becket’s almost immediate popularity within England and farther afield, however, the ultimate outcome of his murder remained unclear for almost a year and a half. King Henry, whom many blamed for instigating the murder, quickly departed for Ireland, seemingly unrepentant.87 Pope Alexander III confirmed an interdict on Henry’s continental lands at the Council of Sens in January 1171. However, in April the pope also lifted the sentence of excommunication that Becket had placed upon the bishops of London and Salisbury and reinstated the archbishop of York to his see, a sign of forgiveness towards Becket’s former foes that came worryingly easily to many of Becket’s supporters. At Christ Church, support for the deceased archbishop had built swiftly among the monks, despite perceived past slights, such as his conflict with Prior Odo and the urbane lifestyle he had affected while chancellor of the king.88 The monks’ discovery of a lice-ridden hair shirt


88 On the basis of Prior Odo’s inimical relationship with Archbishop Becket before the latter’s murder, some historians, including M.F. Hearn, “Canterbury Cathedral and the Cult of Thomas Becket,” The Art Bulletin 76 (1994), 19-52, and Francis Woodman, The Architectural History of Canterbury Cathedral (London: Routledge, 1981), 86-8, have argued that the Canterbury monks were slow to support Becket’s cult. Koopmans, Wonderful to Relate, 141, rebuts this argument by indicating the multitude of activities that members of the convent carried out to support the cult in its early years, including appointing Benedict of Peterborough and William of Canterbury to collect the stories of miracles that issued from his tomb, composing a liturgical office for his feast day, and dispatching a contingent to Rome to seek Becket’s canonization. R.W. Southern, “The Monks of Canterbury and
beneath Becket’s archiepiscopal vestments as they cleaned his corpse likely went some ways to convincing them of his piety, and the stories of miracles worked in his name that began to circulate only days after his murder indicated that Becket’s death for his cause had earned him the status of martyrdom.

This was at first a somewhat controversial designation. Caesarius of Heisterbach, in his *Dialogus miraculorum*, recorded a supposed debate held at Paris between theologians Peter the Chanter and Master Roger over Becket’s legitimacy as a martyr. According to Caesarius, while Peter supported Becket as God’s martyr, Roger argued that Becket had deserved to die for his contumacy towards Henry II.89 To Becket’s supporters, however, his martyrdom was self-evident. John of Salisbury, the writer of one of his earliest biographies, quoted Augustine of Hippo that it was the cause, not the punishment, that made the martyr, asking “what cause was more just, more holy than his?”90 John was clearly frustrated at the lack of papal response regarding Becket’s status in the months following his death. In an open letter addressed to William of Sens early in 1171, which circulated widely throughout France, John asked the archbishop to

> instruct me in my ignorance whether it is safe, without papal authority, to address him in the celebration of mass and other public prayers among the catalogue of martyrs, as one with control over salvation, or whether as with any other who has died, we are still bound to make intercession for his soul, one whom God has glorified with such

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clear evidence of miracles.⁹¹

John of Salisbury’s frustration notwithstanding, the canonization of Thomas Becket in fact proceeded quite quickly. In many ways the procedure was similar to that that had been followed for Edward the Confessor a decade earlier. The Christ Church convent sent a delegation directly to Rome in 1171 to request that Alexander III consider the martyred archbishop as a candidate for canonization. Alexander, who seems to have acted cautiously due to the as-yet-unsettled political situation, instructed his legates Albert of San Lorenzo and Theodwin of San Vitale to “seek to know the truth” of the monks’ petition, and to “write to us about the miracles and make known to us the certainty of the thing with all diligence.”⁹² Although the process by which the legates examined and judged Becket’s sanctity went unrecorded, they evidently worked quite quickly. On March 12, 1173, Alexander promulgated letters addressed to the monks of Christ Church, the English bishops, and legates Albert and Theodwin announcing that, “having considered the glory of his merits which were nobly illuminated in his life… we have solemnly canonized him and decreed that he ought to be added to the canon of holy martyrs.”⁹³ He also commanded that St. Thomas’s feast day be celebrated throughout Christendom and that the Christ Church chapter elevate Becket’s body to an appropriate shrine “for the salvation of the faithful and the peace of the


⁹³ MTB VII, no. 784, pp. 545: “considerata gloria meritorum quibus in vita sua magnanimiter claruit… solemniter canonizavimus, et eum decrevimus sanctorum martyrum collegio annumerandum.”
universal church.”

Shortly afterwards, in a striking but perhaps very shrewd about face, Henry II made the appearance of buying into Becket’s cult as well. After publicly purging himself of guilt for his role in the murder and reconciling with the church in the presence of legates Albert and Theodwin at Avranches in May 1172, Henry performed a remarkable act of penitence at Becket’s tomb on 12 July, 1174. He walked two miles from the lepers’ hospital at Harbledown to Canterbury Cathedral, the last leg of it barefoot. There, in the cathedral’s crypt, he prostrated himself before Becket’s tomb, where he allowed himself to be flagellated by the Christ Church monks. To observers, the efficacy of the king’s penitence was made evident when the very next day he received news of the capture of the king of Scotland at Alnwick, signaling the beginning of the end of a great rebellion that had been the most serious threat to his rule thus far. What is more, Henry visited Becket’s tomb as a pilgrim at least nine more times during his reign. Whether he recognized the value of associating himself with Becket’s perceived power or the danger of allowing his enemies space to appropriate Becket as an anti-royal symbol, Henry’s voluntary association with the saint only

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increased the legitimacy and prestige of St. Thomas’s cult at Canterbury.

With this rapid succession of victories for Becket’s supporters at Canterbury in 1173 and 1174, the thoughts of the Christ Church community could now turn to the glorification of Becket’s body and the establishment of his cult at the cathedral. Shortly after the murder, the monks had removed Thomas Becket’s body to the crypt for safekeeping, constructing a heavy, cage-like structure over his tomb in response to threats from their enemies to disturb or steal the body.\(^{99}\) Even ensconced deep within the crypt, Becket’s tomb proved popular with huge crowds of pilgrims who desired to pray before the saint’s body. More prestigious visitors to the tomb in the crypt included Henry II; Philip, Count of Flanders; Lotario dei Conti di Segni, the future Innocent III; and King Louis VII of France. However, the tomb in the crypt was not a viable permanent solution for Becket’s cult. The situation was unsatisfactory for everyone involved. It did not reflect the honor due a major saint. Moreover, it removed St. Thomas from the sacred space of the cathedral proper and from inclusion in the liturgical life of the chapter. Finally, the enclosed space hindered the circulation of pilgrims around Becket’s tomb.

John of Salisbury’s concerns about how to properly honor Becket’s memory, as well as Pope Alexander’s exhortation to the monks to elevate the saint’s body to an appropriate shrine, are indicative of the fact that the Christ Church community would have desired to establish Becket’s cult on a more stable and permanent foundation shortly after his canonization in 1173. They were prevented from doing so for the next fifty years, however, by a long series of unfortunate events. On September 5, 1174, only one day after Becket’s successor as archbishop, Richard of Dover, returned to England after a lengthy appeal of his

\(^{99}\) *MTB*, IV, pp. 78-9.
election in Rome, the east end of Canterbury Cathedral burned down. The next decade was
dedicated to the rebuilding of the cathedral by the architects William of Sens and William the
Englishman, who constructed two new large chapels to house Becket’s relics at the apex of
the cathedral. According to the monk Gervase of Canterbury, the chapter intended to
postpone Becket’s translation into the new east end until the completion of the chapel that
was to house his shrine, “for reason argued that it was fitting that the genuine privilege of his
translation ought to be most solemn and carried out in public.” Before the completion of
the chapel, however, an extended conflict between the Christ Church monks and Archbishops
Baldwin (1185-90) and Hubert Walter (1193-1205) delayed the possibility of such a solemn
and public translation. Although the conflict was resolved by 1201, Pope Innocent III’s
appointment of theologian Stephen Langton to the archbishopric after Hubert’s death in 1207
incurred the strenuous objections of King John. The ensuing conflict ultimately saw England
placed under papal interdict; archbishop and convent forcibly exiled from Christ Church
between 1207 and 1213; and Langton suspended from his office by Pope Innocent III from
1215-16.

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Finally, by 1220, more favorable circumstances prevailed that allowed for the translation of Thomas Becket’s body. King John had died in 1216, and with the departure of papal legate Pandulf from England, Stephen Langton’s influence within Henry III’s minority government had become significant.\(^{104}\) Earlier in 1220, Langton had displayed this influence in a series of prestigious events meant to signify reconciliation, peace, and unity within England after the protracted conflicts between himself, King John, and Pope Innocent III.\(^{105}\) In February, Pope Honorius III issued a bull of canonization for Bishop Hugh of Lincoln (d. 1200) following Langton’s heading of a commission tasked with investigating and pronouncing judgment on his sanctity. Then in May, Langton re-crowned the thirteen-year-old king in a lavish ceremony at Westminster Abbey. In many ways, Becket’s translation in July 1220 was a capstone to this series of events. It brought together the king and the most important members of the English church and, as we will see later, it was distinguished by a rhetoric that declared the English church and crown to have been united under a new peace.

On a pragmatic level, Langton must have been aware of the potential that Becket’s cult had to benefit Christ Church as a source of prestige, spiritual vitality, and income, particularly in the wake of the interdict and exile of the previous decade, which had considerably damaged Canterbury’s primatial position in the English church. The translation was more than just a useful occasion for political posturing, however. Over the course of the last fifty years, St. Thomas had become the center of the spiritual life of Christ Church,


\(^{105}\) See the argument made by R. Eales in “The Political Setting of the Becket Translation of 1220,” In Thomas S. Friedman and Thomas F. Mayer, eds., *Martyrs and Martyrologies* (Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 1993), 129: “the ceremony of 1220…marked the success of his [Langton’s] attempts to reimpose order and arbitrate between conflicting parties in the kingdom, wiping away the memory of his suspension by Innocent III in 1215-16, and justifying the faith which the new pope, Honorius III, had in him.”
Canterbury, and the translation in July 1220 finally allowed Becket’s central position to be reflected in the way the cult operated at Canterbury. We will now examine how his translation altered the experience of St. Thomas’s cult within the cathedral.

*Thomas Becket and Canterbury Cathedral*

As we have already seen, one of the most noteworthy characteristics of Thomas Becket’s cult was its extensive and almost immediate appeal, both in Canterbury and farther abroad. However, at Canterbury Cathedral, Becket’s body continued to lie in its unornamented tomb at the far end of the cathedral’s crypt. As this section will show, the translation of Becket’s body into a more suitable shrine was the culmination of long-standing desires to pay the saint due reverence by elevating his body from below the ground and lifting him towards heaven, and, in doing so, to integrate his cult more smoothly into the ritual life of the church.

This former objective was thoroughly achieved in the course of the translation ceremony of 1220, which was by all accounts a lavish display of wealth and prestige. All of the chroniclers who recorded the translation made particular mention of the magnificence of the occasion, with Walter of Coventry declaring that it was impossible to fully describe “the liberality and luxury with which Archbishop Stephen of Canterbury cheerfully extended himself to all those who had arrived to devote themselves to the translation of the martyr, both the wealthy and the poor, foreign and local.”

106 Walter may not have been exaggerating. According to fourteenth-century records, the archbishops of Canterbury were still paying off

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the debts Langton had incurred to pay for the translation a century later.\textsuperscript{107}

Much of this expense must have gone towards construction of the shrine itself. Crafted by the artisans Walter of Colchester and Elyas of Durham, the shrine was luxuriously ornamented with “the purest gold of Ophir and the most precious jewels, and with workmanship even costlier than the material.”\textsuperscript{108} The setting of Becket’s golden shrine was equally magnificent. The Trinity Chapel, as rebuilt by architect William the Englishman at the apex of the cathedral’s new east end, itself resembled a sumptuous reliquary for the martyr’s body. The polychromatic hues of marble that adorn the chapel, including dark Purbeck, purple porphyry, and lighter rose and cream, imbue the space with jewel-like tones.\textsuperscript{109} This impression is further enhanced by the exceptional \textit{opus Alexandrinum} floor mosaic positioned directly in front of the shrine, which is matched in England only by the thirteenth-century Cosmati pavement surrounding Edward the Confessor’s shrine at Westminster Abbey.\textsuperscript{110} Pride of place, however, goes to the magnificent cycle of stained glass in the ambulatory and clerestory windows, which was completed shortly before the translation and which remains partially extant. These windows depict scenes from the life and miracles of St. Thomas, further imbuing the Trinity Chapel with his presence.\textsuperscript{111}


\textsuperscript{108} Matthew Paris, \textit{Historia Anglorum}, Rolls Series 44/2 (London: Longmans, Green, Reader, and Dyer, 1866-9), 241-2: “de auro obrizo purissimo et gemmis pretiosissimis, artificio materiam superante.”


\textsuperscript{110} Foyle, \textit{Architecture of Canterbury Cathedral}, 110-13.

The shrine’s position, as well as its adornment, clearly reflects the centrality of Thomas Becket’s cult within the recently reorganized spiritual landscape of Canterbury Cathedral. The horseshoe-shaped Trinity Chapel is elevated above the choir and presbytery and sits directly behind the archbishop’s throne. To the east of the Trinity Chapel, William the Englishman added a new semi-circular chapel at the apex of the cathedral in order to house the other major Becket relic, the corona, or the piece of his head lopped off in 1170. The Corona and Trinity Chapels represent the crowning features of a sacred space already dense with the tombs and altars of Becket’s archiepiscopal and saintly predecessors. Elevated above these other tombs, Becket’s shrine would have been visible from the choir and nave of the cathedral, providing a visual cue to the centrality of the cult of Thomas Becket within Canterbury Cathedral.

The reorganization of the east end with Thomas Becket positioned at the apex of the cathedral reflects Christ Church’s reorientation over the previous five decades from a monastic cathedral to one of the leading sites of popular pilgrimage in western Christendom. In addition to placing the saint’s body in a magnificent setting more worthy of his dignity, the translation allowed for the smoother functioning of pilgrimage within the cathedral. After 1220, Canterbury possessed four pilgrimage sites relating to the cult of St. Canterbury Cathedral,” in Sarah Blick and Rita Tekippe, eds., Art and Architecture of Late Medieval Pilgrimage in Northern Europe and the British Isles (Leiden: Brill, 2005): 243-81.

112 The Corona relic was bringing in oblations at least by 1199, when the earliest shrine accounts are extant. See Benjamin John Nilson, Cathedral Shrines of Medieval England (Woodbridge: The Boydell Press, 1998), 147-8.


114 Foyle, Architecture of Canterbury Cathedral, 104.

Thomas: the Martyrdom in the northwest transept, where Becket had been struck down; the site in the crypt where his tomb had stood for fifty years; the shrine in the Trinity Chapel; and the Corona Chapel. Pilgrims entered at the west end of the church, passed through the nave, and stopped at the Martyrdom site before going down a flight of stairs to the crypt. They emerged from the crypt in the south aisle of the choir, then headed east to the Trinity Chapel. The ambulatory surrounding the chapel provided access to Becket’s shrine as well as the Corona chapel. These two sites made up the core of the pilgrimage experience at Canterbury. Archaeologists’ unearthing of a huge volume of pilgrims’ badges, many of which were shaped as small iron ampullae in order to hold the curative “Becket water” available at the shrine, is one indication of how popular Becket’s healing powers continued to be throughout the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. It was only in the 1530s, when King Henry VIII’s commissioners dismantled Becket’s golden shrine and destroyed many of the Becket windows, that the cult at Canterbury ceased to function. The translation of Thomas Becket in July 1220 therefore helped to establish the cult on the foundations that it would maintain for the next three centuries.

*Preaching, Martyrdom, and Penitence at the Translation Ceremony of 1220*

It did so not only through the spatial reorganization of the cult, but also through the

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117 Hearn, “Canterbury Cathedral and the Cult of Thomas Becket,” 44-7.


systematic rearticulation of Thomas Becket’s saintly persona to more appropriately suit current needs. As at Westminster, new texts composed for the occasion outlined the history, virtues, and character of St. Thomas in ways that reflected how the needs and expectations of Becket as a holy patron had shifted over the previous fifty years. The texts produced at Canterbury in 1220 included two sermons as well as a new liturgical office for the day of the translation (July 7), which was henceforth celebrated as a secondary feast day for St. Thomas. This section will address in turn each source-type, sermon and liturgical office, in order to show how they spoke to the needs of the cult in the early thirteenth century.

It is first worth acknowledging the significant contribution that Archbishop Stephen Langton made to the translation ceremony, in both a logistical and a spiritual sense. For a theologian like Langton with an interest in pastoral care, Becket’s translation was a spiritually significant occasion, rife with exegetical overtones and valuable as an opportunity to preach Becket’s worth as an intercessor and as a model of spiritual perfection. Although Langton, like Aelred of Rievaulx, recognized that the translation of a saint’s body was a valuable opportunity to promote spiritual values, the archbishop had emerged from a very different intellectual and spiritual milieu than that inhabited by the Cistercian abbot. Before his election to the cardinal-bishopric of St. Chrysogonus in 1206 and then to the archbishopric of Canterbury in 1207, Langton had spent almost twenty-five years in the Parisian schools of theology, where he produced a large corpus of writings that included commentaries on the Old and New Testaments as well as questiones for disputation in the schools.  

At Paris, Langton had been associated with a number of other masters, including Peter the Chanter, Peter Comestor, and Robert of Courson, whose interests included topics of

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practical spirituality. Langton himself was dedicated to contemporary ideas of reform that involved both the purification of the priestly caste as well as the promotion and regulation of lay piety. Langton had met Innocent III at the schools in Paris and was present at the pope’s Fourth Lateran Council in 1215. He later demonstrated his dedication to Innocent’s reforming ideals when he passed sixty canons heavily influenced by those propagated at Lateran IV at a provincial council held in Oxford in 1222.

Langton’s dedication to spiritual reform was also evident in his prolific career as a preacher. Hundreds of his sermons, many of which were originally delivered in the vernacular to lay audiences, remain extant. Langton preached two sermons on Thomas Becket shortly after the translation ceremony. The first, which is known as the Tractatus de translacione beati Thomae, was delivered on the second anniversary of the translation and likely represents an expansion of the sermon the archbishop had delivered at the ceremony itself. In the Tractatus, Langton expanded upon the tropological significance of the

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123 By 1215, however, Langton’s falling out with Innocent meant that he played little active part in the proceedings. See Cheney, Pope Innocent III and England, 389; Powicke, Stephen Langton, 75-101.


126 See Phyllis Roberts, Thomas Becket in the Medieval Latin Preaching Tradition (The Hague: Martinus Nijhoff International, 1992), no. 124. Although Roberts dates the Tractatus to July 1221, at that time Langton was in Rome, not Canterbury. If the sermon was indeed preached on an anniversary of the translation, as the language of the sermon suggests, the earliest possible date would be 7 July.
elevation of saint’s bodies, developing the idea that the tombs of martyrs stimulate the contemplation and imitation of Christian virtues among the laity. The second sermon was delivered at Rome on December 29, 1220. Langton had just delivered a relic of St. Thomas to Pope Honorius III, and he took the opportunity presented by Becket’s feast day to promote his saint at the papal curia.\textsuperscript{127} Despite their rather divergent settings and purposes, both sermons reflect a distinct shift in the way that Becket had come to be portrayed since the 1170s. Each will be examined in turn.

Stephen Langton developed the theme of the \textit{Tractatus} around Zacharias 9:15-16: “drinking, they shall be inebriated as it were with wine, and they shall be filled as bowls, and as the horns of the altar. And the Lord their God will save them on that day, as the flock of his people: for holy stones shall be lifted up over his land.” In Langton’s reading, these “holy stones” (\textit{lapides sancti}) refer first of all to the martyrs, who like stones are “solid in their steadfastness, strong in their righteousness, and strong in the face of torments.”\textsuperscript{128} The \textit{lapides} also refer to the tombs and shrines in which the bodies of the martyrs were laid to rest. One of the most important functions of these “holy stones” was as \textit{memoria}, mental stimuli that evoked contemplation of the saint’s covenant with God and spurred the viewer to follow in their pious example.\textsuperscript{129} If the translation was therefore valuable as an opportunity to

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\item \textsuperscript{127} Appendix to the \textit{Quadratus}, in \textit{MTB}, vol. 4, 427; Walter of Coventry, \textit{Memoriale}, vol. 2, 246.
\item \textsuperscript{128} \textit{Tractatus}, ch. 33: “solidi fuerunt in constantia, fortes in justitia, duri contra tormenta.”
\item \textsuperscript{129} \textit{Tractatus}, ch. 9: “therefore when we today recall how a great stone was raised in a shrine, that is, how the glorious martyr Thomas was elevated to his tomb, let us direct the understanding of our heart to this stone, and let us strive to fix the love of our mind on it, so that it may be able and willing to be a witness to our devotion” (“cum igitur hodie recolamus, qualiter lapis grandis in sanctuario sit erectus, id est Thomas martyr gloriosus de tumulo elevates, ad hunc lapidem cordis dirigamus intellectum, et defigere studeamus in eo nostrae mentis affectum, ut devotionis nostrae testis esse

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present the saint to the laity as a template for right behavior, which of Becket’s virtues would be most appropriate as _exempla_?

In the fifty years since Becket’s death, commentators had developed a fairly consistent image of Becket’s sanctity. Much of this image construction had taken place within the context of the period of uncertainty between Becket’s death in 1170 and his canonization in 1173. In these first few years after his death, Becket’s hagiographers emphasized the unjust and sacrilegious nature of his murder, his status as a martyr who had died in the defense of the liberty of the church, and the culpability of King Henry II for his death.\footnote{Michael Staunton, *Thomas Becket and his Biographers* (Woodbridge: The Boydell Press, 2006), 184-215.} It is true that the Christ Church monks’ discovery of Becket’s hair shirt had also spurred the development of another image of Becket as a _bonus pastor_ who lived humbly and in dedication to his flock.\footnote{Jennifer L. O’Reilley, “The Double Martyrdom of Thomas Becket: Hagiography or History,” *Studies in Medieval and Renaissance History* 7 (1985), 197-213; Staunton, *Thomas Becket and his Biographers*, 75-96.} However, because many of St. Thomas’s early biographers, particularly John of Salisbury and Herbert of Bosham, had been members of Becket’s inner circle and still had a stake in the legacy of his cause, it was his role as a martyr that they emphasized. These early writers argued that Becket’s death in the defense of the liberty of the English church not only made him as worthy as the martyrs of the early church, but was also comparable to the death of Christ on the cross.\footnote{See John of Salisbury, *Vita S. Thomae*, ch. 21.} In the decades that followed, therefore, the _causa beati Thomae_ became synonymous with the fight for ecclesiastical liberty, and prelates in such disparate regions as Norway, France, Italy, and Castile eagerly took up

possit et velit.”
Becket’s legacy as a defender of the church.\textsuperscript{133}

However, this image of the blood-soaked martyr was less appropriate for the translation ceremony in 1220 than it was for the early biographies. As we have just seen, Langton was eager to use Becket and his elevation to lead the laity to a proper Christian life. Martyrdom was not a particularly useful pastoral model from which to draw examples for the laity. Moreover, at the translation ceremony, as well as at the other prestigious events in which he participated in 1220, Langton promoted a tone of reconciliation and unity, rather than one of accusation or ecclesiastical righteousness, to help move the English church past the crisis of John’s reign. In his translation sermon, therefore, Langton did not emphasize Becket’s death at the hands of Henry’s knights, due to its connotation of conflict between church and crown. Instead, in the presence of the young King Henry III and a multitude of the laity, Langton developed a concept of a more imitable bloodless martyrdom. Whereas earlier commentators had likened Becket to Christ because of his death in defense of the church, in the \textit{Tractatus} Langton expanded on the ideas of martyrdom and \textit{imitatio Christi} to include the sacrifice of bodily comfort and the full devotion of one’s life to Christ:

\begin{quote}
we transfer a precious stone when we undertake to exhibit our devotion to the translation of the martyr in whatever way we are able. So the word of scripture alluded to above [Zach. 9:15-16] is fulfilled in us, and through this veneration of he who gave himself as an offering to the Lord, we sacrifice our living bodies as an offering to the Lord, so that we may cut back harmful concupiscence and perverse desires.\textsuperscript{134}
\end{quote}

And again: \textit{imitatio Christi} is achievable by “those who, being unable to sacrifice themselves for Christ, on account of love for him nevertheless disdain all things that pass away, humble

\textsuperscript{133} Duggan, “The cult of St Thomas Becket,” 24-9.

\textsuperscript{134} \textit{Tractatus}, ch. 31: “nos igitur lapidem pretiosum transtulimus, cum translatione martyris obsequium quae potuimus, exhibere curavimus. Ut itaque supra positum scripturae verbum impleatur in nobis, ob venerationem ipsius, qui se pro Domino hostiam obtulit, carnem nostrum Domino viventem hostiam immolemus, ut a nobis concupiscentias noxias et prava desideria resecemus.”
their flesh, and bind themselves more closely to their deserved heaven.”

Langton further developed his concept of bloodless martyrdom in the sermon he preached at Rome in December 1220. The tone of the Rome sermon differs somewhat from the *Tractatus* due to the circumstances in which it was delivered. Away from Canterbury, Langton appeared to have been more willing to discuss Becket’s conflict with Henry II, the persecutions and exile he suffered at the hands of the king, and the violent and unjust nature of his death. Nevertheless, in the Rome sermon Langton also emphasized Becket’s virtue as a stimulus of and a model for lay piety, describing Becket’s holy way of life in terms very comparable to those he had used in the *Tractatus*. He developed a distinction between what can be called “red martyrdom,” which Langton likened to the rose, and “white martyrdom,” which he compared to the lily. The red rose symbolized the blood shed at Becket’s murder and the “barbs of persecution” Becket suffered at the hands of Henry II. The white lily, conversely, symbolized the asceticism and bodily denial that Langton had detailed in the *Tractatus*. Just as the lily grows in the harsh conditions of the valley, so too did Becket develop an austere lifestyle for himself through fasting, vigils, and the wearing of the hair shirt beneath his finer clothes.

As we have seen, many of Becket’s earliest biographers did praise him as a *bonus pastor* as well as a martyr who died in defense of the church. Several of them had also

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135 *Tractatus*, ch. 30: “quibus licet non sit datum pati pro Christo, pro ejus tamen amore labentia cuncta despiciunt, carnem affligunt, et ad promerenda coelestia se potenter accingunt.”


137 Sermon III, chs. 6-7: “lilium in altum crescit, calamus eius hispidus est et asper...huius uero altitude fuit aspera, quia in altitudine sua aspermam uitam ducens carnem coegit seruire spiritui, et omnem uictus mollicem asperitate mortificationis exclusit.”
already used the lily and the rose, common symbols from patristic exegesis, to compare the
two sources of Becket’s sanctity. What Langton did for the first time was to place a
stronger emphasis on Becket’s “white martyrdom” than on his murder, which for earlier
writers like John of Salisbury had been the primary source of Becket’s spiritual potency. As
has been suggested, this shift was caused by a change in the primary needs of the cult since
the early years after Becket’s death. This can perhaps be most clearly illustrated by
comparing the liturgical office for Becket’s feast day (Dec. 29), which was composed in the
early 1170s, with the office for the translation written in the 1220s. The former is, as
Sherry Reames puts it, a “fiercely partisan document.” Both the prose lessons and the
verse chants describe the scene of Becket’s murder and the iniquity of his treatment by the
king’s cronies in vivid detail. The office for the translation, on the other hand, consciously
rejects the dark tone of the feast day office in favor of a celebration of the saint’s life and
thriving memory. The first responsory of the feast day office, “studens livor/Thome
supplicio/Thome genus/damnat exilio” is directly refuted by the corresponding verse of the


139 Several versions of both the feast day office and the translation office are extant. The office for the feast day examined here is often referred to as Studens livor and is the principal office for the feast of St. Thomas. It has been attributed to Benedict of Peterborough, who also compiled the Miracula S. Thomae. The office for the translation is more textually problematic. Sherry Reames has provided a convincing reconstruction of an early version by drawing on the chants from British Library MS Stowe 12, fols. 270r-271v and the lessons from BL Cotton Appendix 23, fols. 140r-141r: “Reconstructing and Interpreting a Thirteenth-Century Office for the Translation of Thomas Becket,” Speculum 80 (2005): 118-70. On the textual history of the two offices, see also Kay Brainerd Slocum, Liturgies in Honour of Thomas Becket (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2004).

140 Sherry Reames, “The Remaking of a Saint: Stephen Langton and the Liturgical Office for Becket’s Translation.” Hagiographica 7 (2000), 21. The argument rehearsed here is drawn from the research clearly and extensively laid out by Sherry L. Reames in that article and in her “Thirteenth-Century Office.”
translation office, “Absorbetur/pleno jam gaudio,/livor tristi/precedens odio.”\(^{141}\) The office for the translation, which was almost certainly composed by Langton himself or under his close supervision, instead celebrates the peace that was established with the sanctification of Thomas Becket and renewed with his translation. This was a peace that included the king as well as the church: “The holy martyr is ‘the stone that the builders refused,’ because ‘he has become the cornerstone.’ For just as the corner of the wall is made of two stones coming from two different directions and becoming as one, so too the martyr brought together the crown and priesthood, which come as it were from different directions, together in harmony as one.”\(^{142}\)

By 1220, therefore, the emphasis had shifted from pronouncing condemnation and seeking retribution for Becket’s murder to celebrating the gifts that he had given to the English church, crown, and people. The saint’s elevation into “a jeweled burial place” was particular cause for celebration.\(^{143}\) The office for the translation hails Becket’s shrine as a destination for pilgrims where Becket often worked miracles for the benefit of the laity. Several lessons recount miracles that St. Thomas worked when his body was translated, including the rescue of a drowning boy, the healing of a sick girl, and the resurrection of a dead man:\(^{144}\) “sight is given to the blind, speech to the mute, proper gait to the lame; thus the

\(^{141}\) Office for the feast of St. Thomas, responsory 1: “Spite, eager for the punishment of Thomas, condemns his family to exile;” translation is from Slocum, \textit{Liturgies in Honour of Thomas Becket}, p. 174. Office for the translation, responsory 1: “Now the spite preceding bitter hatred is engulfed by abundant joy;” translation is from Slocum, p. 270.

\(^{142}\) Reames, ed., “A Thirteenth-Century Office,” lection 4; Ps. 117(118).22; Matt. 21.42: “beatus martir ‘lapis est quem reprobaverunt edificantes,’ quia ‘factus est in capud anguli.’ Quia sicut lapis angularis duos parietes ex diverso venientes conjungit in unum, sic gloriosus martir regnum et sacerdotium quasi veniens ex adverso, per passionem suam consentire fecit in unum.”


\(^{144}\) Reames, ed., “A Thirteenth-Century Office,” nocturn 2, antiphon 2; lesson 8; nocturn 2, antiphon 3.
translation of Thomas is honored.” Becket’s status as a saintly intercessor who bestowed his aid (subsidium) on those who venerated him was a major pillar of his reputation that, along with his exemplification of Christian virtue, made him so widely popular.

Accordingly, Langton developed the idea of Jubilee to commemorate the translation. This was a Hebraic tradition that celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the death of a martyr. It was, according to the office for the translation, “a year of remission or forgiveness” dedicated to the remission of sin. “Thus, just as heavy debts and servitude used to be remitted according to law in the year of jubilee, so too are the burdens of sin forgiven in the Jubilee year of the translation of the martyr.” Langton had chosen the date for the ceremony carefully so that it would coincide with the calculation of Jubilee described in Leviticus 25:10. According to Walter of Coventry, Pope Honorius III granted the attendees at the translation indulgences totaling 540 days, a remarkable amount for the occasion. This was celebrated in the office for the translation: “Pope Honorius granted us the remission of punishments, lest the reason for Jubilee should cease.” Langton’s new concept of Jubilee, which continued to be celebrated at Canterbury every fifty years, thus helped to perpetuate the popularity of Becket’s cult for centuries to come.


147 “Thou shalt sanctify the fiftieth year, and shalt proclaim remission to all the inhabitants of thy land: for it is the year of jubilee.” See Raymonde Foreville, Le jubilé de saint Thomas Becket du XIIIe au XVᵉ siècle (1220-1470): Étude et documents (Paris: S.E.V.P.E.N., 1958).

148 Walter of Coventry, Memoriale, 246.

The celebration of Jubilee was a shrewd capstone to Stephen Langton’s cultic program that allowed the energy offered by the translation ceremony to be renewed every fifty years. As at Westminster, then, the translation of Thomas Becket in 1220 was a vital moment of cult building. As we have seen, it allowed a systematic rewriting of the Becket narrative in both sermon and liturgical office that brought St. Thomas’s reputation as a martyr and defender of the Church into line with his primary status as an object of popular pilgrimage. This pastoral program complimented the reorganization of the space in the east end of Canterbury Cathedral, which made Becket’s new shrine the focus of the spiritual landscape and facilitated the movement of pilgrims through the church. Becket had become popular well before his translation, and even before his canonization as a saint. His cult had managed to function for several decades in the absence of a proper space for veneration. However, it was the translation ceremony in 1220 that provided Langton with the opportunity to synthesize the preexisting elements of Becket’s cult into a newly cohesive, and ultimately highly successful, cultic program that confirmed Canterbury’s reputation as a center of penitence, pastoral care, and pilgrimage for the next three centuries.

Conclusion
This study opened by pointing to the language used by both the pope and the English churchmen during the canonization processes of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket as a sign of the continued connection between the procedures of translation and canonization in the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries. Edward’s supporters asked Pope Alexander III not only to canonize the king, but also to grant them permission to elevate his body into a “worthy tomb.” Similarly, in the bull of canonization for Thomas Becket, Alexander
announced that he had added the new saint’s name to the *catalogus sanctorum*, and then also exhorted the new saint’s keepers to place his body in an appropriate shrine. Having explored the translation and canonization of each saint in considerable detail, how ought we now read these exchanges between Rome and the English communities?

It is clear that both Alexander and the saints’ supporters fully expected that it should be the pope who passed final judgment on whether or not an individual ought to be treated as a saint. However, although it was the pope who issued the bull of canonization, the responsibility for the development of the cult belonged to the local communities. For the supporters of Edward and Becket, the most important consequence of a successful canonization bid was not that the pope placed the saint’s name on the abstract “catalogue of saints.” Instead, it was important because it meant that they were able to begin to develop a cult around the memory of their patron. This is why the translation ceremony remained significant even after the development of papal canonization: it was an important moment of local cult creation that followed the act of authorization in Rome.

The examples provided by the cults of Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket help to illuminate the many ways in which the translation ceremony was important in this capacity. Firstly, and most significantly, the ceremony established the saint in a shrine, which provided a space for the devotional practices that defined the cult. We have seen how the elevation of the body of Thomas Becket from the awkwardly positioned tomb in the cathedral crypt into the sumptuously decorated Trinity Chapel reorganized the sacred landscape of Canterbury Cathedral, centering the spiritual life of the church at his shrine and facilitating the movement of pilgrims throughout the space. Secondly, the ceremony also served as a ritual performance of sanctity, institutional affiliation, and prestige. At
Westminster, the new cult of St. Edward was given legitimacy and increased visibility by the presence of the king, as well as that of a large crowd of magnates, bishops, and abbots.

Finally, the ceremony provided an opportunity to define or reshape the persona of the saint. Both ceremonies stimulated the production of new commemorative texts, such as Aelred of Rievaulx’s *Vita S. Edwardi* and Stephen Langton’s *Tractatus de translatione beati Thomae*. These texts did not only commemorate and promote the histories of the saints. The authors of the saints’ lives, sermons, and liturgical offices we have examined also portrayed their subjects in such a way that reflected the current concerns of the cult and community. At Westminster, Aelred of Rievaulx’s concern was to provide a guide to good rulership for a king whose reign marked the end of decades of chaos and civil war. Similarly, at Canterbury, Langton shifted the emphasis away from Becket’s bloody murder towards his value as a spiritual *exemplum* and heavenly interlocutor. This reflected not only his project of fostering reconciliation in the English church after the turmoil of King John’s rule, but also the primary role that Becket now played as an object of popular pilgrimage.

Because the translation ceremony served as a moment of self-promotion and self-definition, the practice can provide an important glimpse into the ways in which different religious communities engaged in broader conversations about issues such as the nature of kingship, the role of the papacy within the English kingdom, and the characteristics of royal, monastic, and lay piety. It was suggested at the beginning of this paper that Edward the Confessor and Thomas Becket did not represent simple, opposing symbols of *regnum* and *sacerdotium*. We have seen how Henry II rejected the model of pious, monasticized Christian kingship represented by Edward the Confessor as he negotiated the establishment of his own royal authority along different lines. Similarly, although Becket did represent a powerful
symbol of the struggle for the liberty of the church to many people, his memory was also
honored by King Henry II and many of his royal ancestors through acts of pilgrimage and
largesse. Decades later, Becket’s memory would be coopted once more by King Henry III
and the leaders of his regency government, who presented Becket as a symbol of a new peace
that united church and crown. We can see how the translation ceremony represented a
powerful moment in which various actors could performatively or narratively engage with
one or more of the polysemic layers of meaning that the figure of the saint offered.

This thesis has therefore demonstrated the value of expanding the scholarship on the
development of canonization in the high and late Middle Ages to examine not only what was
happening at Rome, but also how local cult supporters negotiated the process and established
the cults of their newly canonized saints. Only by gaining a clearer view of the negotiation of
papal authority in the high and late Middle Ages by communities such as Westminster and
Christ Church, Canterbury can we fully appreciate its implications for the social, political,
and religious lives of Western Christendom.
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