Is it necessary to assume an apartheid-like social structure in Early Anglo-Saxon England?

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It has recently been argued that there was an apartheid-like social structure operating in Early Anglo-Saxon England. This was proposed in order to explain the relatively high degree of similarity between Germanic-speaking areas of northwest Europe and England. Opinions vary as to whether there was a substantial Germanic invasion or only a relatively small number arrived in Britain during this period. Contrary to the assumption of limited intermarriage made in the apartheid simulation, there is evidence that significant mixing of the British and Germanic peoples occurred, and that the early law codes, such as that of King Ine of Wessex, could have deliberately encouraged such mixing. More importantly, the simulation did not take into account any northwest European immigration that arrived both before and after the Early Anglo-Saxon period. In view of the uncertainty of the places of origin of the various Germanic peoples, and their numbers and dates of arrival, the present study adopts an alternative approach to estimate the percentage of indigenous Britons in the current British population. It was found unnecessary to introduce any special social structure among the diverse Anglo-Saxon people in order to account for the estimates of northwest European intrusion into the British population.

Keywords: historical demography; inverse method; migration; Britons; Belgae; Germanic people

1. INTRODUCTION

It is now commonly accepted by archaeologists and historians that most, if not all, of the invasion groups arriving in Britain, from the Romans to the Normans, were relatively small migrations of vigorous people who used force and fear to control the considerably larger indigenous population. Although major battles and massacres took place, there was no mass extermination of the indigenous Britons as was once thought (Davies 1999; Richards 2000): the new settlers assimilated with their indigenous neighbours. The problem is to reconcile the relatively small number of Germanic people who arrived in Britain during the Early Anglo-Saxon period (AD 430–730) according to archaeological evidence with the relatively large northern European immigration (approx. 500000 and above) implied by Weale et al. (2002) and Capelli et al. (2003). Weale et al. (2002) considered the possibility that the immigration of Germanic people occurred as a gradual process over many generations, including the possible input of Belgae and Roman-Frisian mercenaries; however, they concluded that the best explanation for their findings was a massive migration of Germanic men into central England, contributing 50–100% of the male population at that time. Capelli et al. (2003) estimated that this immigration contributed approximately 40% over the same period.

Thomas et al. (2006) suggested that the Early Anglo-Saxon kingdoms imposed a sexual apartheid-type system on their British subjects for up to 15 generations (approx. 400 years), causing the immigrant Germanic population to grow more rapidly than the indigenous British population. The authors presented four main arguments to support their hypothesis: two theoretical arguments based on the migration context and the relative sizes of the two groups, and two evidential arguments based on textual and skeletal evidence. However, the underlying assumption that significant northwest European immigration only occurred during the Early Anglo-Saxon period is problematic. For instance, according to Oppenheimer’s (2006) interpretation of the same genetic evidence, most of the immigration could have occurred before the Anglo-Saxon period.

2. THEORETICAL AND EVIDENTIAL ARGUMENTS

(a) Theoretical arguments

Thomas et al. (2006), following Weale et al. (2002), assumed that the Germanic genetic input into Britain was only significant during the Early Anglo-Saxon period, and that no significant intermarriage occurred between the British and Germanic peoples. An examination of the broader migration context requires a more detailed consideration of the historical, archaeological and linguistic evidence than provided by Thomas et al. (2006). Much of this evidence is subject to continual debate; however, the following brief historical reconstruction provides an alternative valid interpretation of the historical and archaeological sources for the migration context than considered by Thomas et al. (2006).

Addressing the arguments by Thomas et al. (2006), and describing the wider migration context, requires the clarification of certain terms, some of which are still debated. In this paper, the term Briton refers to those people living in Britain before the Roman invasion of AD 43, and their descendants. They were not homogeneous people, but a mixture of tribes of Palaearctic Britons, Neolithic ‘Celts’ and Belgae (Morris 1973; Bassett 2000). The term Saxon was a generic term used by Britons, and Continental writers of the day, to describe all Germanic
invaders or immigrants whatever be their Continental tribal origins, whether Saxons, Angles, Jutes, Frisians, Franks or whoever (Malone 1929; Morris 1973). This meaning of Saxon, used by Gildas writing in the sixth century AD, continued in the various Celtic languages, for which the word for English nationality is derived from the word Saxon, e.g. the Gaidhlig loanword Sassenach (Saxon) is occasionally used disparagingly by Scots when referring to the English. The English language itself is referred to in Welsh as Saesneg, in Cornish as Sowsnek and in Breton as Saozneg, all derived from Saxon. The various Germanic peoples themselves referred to the Britons, and other non-Germanic-speaking people, as Wchall or Wylic (Welsh) meaning foreigners (to the invading Germanic tribes rather than to Britain itself; Morris 1973; Wolfram 1997; Ward-Perkins 2000).

The various Germanic tribes were not genetically homogeneous: they accepted people of other ethnic backgrounds provided they adopted the tribal culture. The various Germanic tribes in Britain referred to themselves collectively as Engl or Engish (English; Malone 1929; Morris 1973). Anglo-Saxon is a more recent term with multiple meanings, referring sometimes to either the Germanic invaders or, as used in this paper, the final mixed Britons and Germanic peoples in Britain, among other meanings (Malone 1929). It is misleading to talk of the Britons and Anglo-Saxons as two clearly different, homogenous groups: in reality, the situation was much more complex (Morris 1973; Ward-Perkins 2000). It is also a mistake to concentrate just on intermarriages between the various groups of people: the emphasis should be on interbreeding, inside or outside of marriage, such as that due to fornication, adultery, prostitution or rape. In these cases, it is unlikely that any resulting child would have taken the identity of the father, as stated by Thomas et al. (2006). For instance, in the later Medieval period, births outside of marriage were not uncommon and crossed social boundaries (Pattison 2007).

(i) Pre-Roman period

Recent genetic surveys show that the majority of present-day Britons of British descent descend from Palaeolithic hunter–gatherers who travelled north along the Atlantic coast and crossed the land bridge to Britain from southwest Europe during the later stages of the last ice age, ca 7500–15 000 years ago (Torroni et al. 1998; Wilson et al. 2001; Oppenheimer 2006). DNA studies indicate that relatively small numbers of Neolithic farmers from northwest Europe settled in Britain between ca 5500 and 6500 years ago, possibly contributing 20–25% to the then population of Britain (Miles 2005; Oppenheimer 2006). A re-examination of radiocarbon records by Gkiasta et al. (2003) suggested that Neolithic culture arrived in Britain between ca 5000 and 6200 years ago, mainly by indigenous adoption rather than by colonization. Employing the phylogenetic network approach of evolutionary genetics to historical linguistics, Forster & Toth (2003) estimated that the Celtic language arrived in Britain ca 5200 ±1500 years ago. Although the lexical–phylogenetic method has been criticized, it is supported by independent analysis by Atkinson & Gray (2006a,b), who used a Bayesian Markov Chain Monte Carlo approach to estimate that the Celtic language reached Britain ca 6100 years ago. From the overlap of these four estimated periods, the Celtic language was probably introduced into Britain by Neolithic farmers, rather than the nineteenth century view that they only arrived during the Iron Age in the early first millennium BC. In this paper, the Palaeolithic Britons and Neolithic immigrants are collectively referred to as indigenous Britons.

The Germanic peoples originated from the proto-Germanic peoples of the Northern Bronze Age culture centred in central northern Germany and southern Scandinavia between ca 1700 and 450 BC (Schutz 1983). A comparative linguistic analysis based on the first sound shift indicates that Germanic languages developed as a group ca 500 BC (Schutz 1983; Wolfram 1997; Todd 2004). Considerable archaeological evidence in the form of burial rites, rock face carvings and goods and skeletal material found in graves, moors, former lakes, ponds and old river beds reveals that these people had continuously occupied these lands from Neolithic times, which ended in north Europe ca 1800 BC. There exists no evidence of further movement of people into this area although their culture became increasingly influenced from the south (Mariën 1971; Schutz 1983; Todd 2004). Archaeological evidence also reveals considerable and long-lived trade in amber, bronze, slaves and possibly furs between the Germanic peoples and southern Europe, including via Spain and Holland (Schutz 1983; Todd 2004).

From approximately the sixth century BC, Germanic people spread slowly across Europe occupying the land east of the Rhine and north of the Danube by Roman times when they came into contact with Celtic tribes who were slowly expanding north and northwest from their homeland in central Europe (Schutz 1983; Todd 2004), or in southwest Europe according to Oppenheimer (2006). Linguistic evidence, based on word borrowings, indicates close political and cultural ties between Celtic and Germanic peoples in pre-Roman times (Schutz 1983). In particular, Germanic people came in close contact with Celtic tribes in northern France and the Low Countries, where a slow intermixing of the neighbouring Celtic and Germanic peoples eventually produced hybrid people who claimed descent from Germanic people, yet had adopted much Celtic culture (Hawkes & Dunning 1930; Birchall 1965; Hawkes 1968; Mariën 1971; Schutz 1983).

These hybrid people became known as Belgae, living in the area that became the Roman Province of Belgic Gaul, a region that included present-day Belgium, and were well established in their new territory by 110 BC (Mariën 1971; Schutz 1983). The Belgae were in contact with Britain, to where some had migrated during the first and second centuries BC (Hawkes & Dunning 1930; Birchall 1965; Hawkes 1968; Morris 1982; Manley 2002; Miles 2005). There were several large Belgic tribes in southern England by the time of Julius Caesar’s first invasion in 55 BC. This was supported by Oppenheimer (2006) who, employing principal components analysis, identified a close genetic similarity between modern Belgians and the southern English. The population of Britain must therefore have received a significant north-west European genetic contribution before the Roman invasion of AD 43.

(ii) The Roman period

The use of Germanic mercenaries in Roman armies was initially limited, but grew over time. The invasion
of Britain in AD 43 involved a Roman army of 40,000–
48,000 men, including possibly over 10,000 Belgic Gauls
and Batavians, another Germanic tribe from northwest
Europe (Hassall 1970; Morris 1982; Manley 2002; Miles
2005). During the first and second centuries AD, the
garrison of Britain consisted of between 45,000 and 60,000
men, with approximately 10,000 men from the Roman
provinces of Belgic Gaul and Lower Germany (Holder
1982; Phang 2001). After more than a century of relative
peace, the Roman army was reorganized into stationary
border garrisons (Dobson & Mann 1973; de la Bédoyère
2001). The Hadrian’s Wall garrison consisted of approxi-
mately 11,000 men, with a total force within three days
march of approximately 20,000 men (de la Bédoyère
2001). The Army of Britain was maintained largely by drafts from
the Rhine provinces of Belgic Gaul, and Upper and Lower
Germany (Dobson & Mann 1973; Holder 1982; de la
Bédoyère 2001; Phang 2001). Germanic mercenaries even
arrived from outside the Roman Empire (Dobson & Mann
1973), and by the fourth century AD had become the
mainstay of the Roman army, with many becoming high-
ranking officers (Holder 1982).

Until AD 197, Roman soldiers were banned from
marrying, although the ban was not strictly enforced
(Holder 1982; de la Bédoyère 2001; Phang 2001). Fur-
more, Roman soldiers were not expected to be celibate:
sex was common with female slaves and prostitutes
(Phang 2001). Roman soldiers also consorted with
women living near the garrison forts (de la Bédoyère
2001). Owing to the long period of service, some 20–25
years, soldiers formed close ties with their stations,
marrying and raising families, and largely losing contact
with their original homes (Dobson & Mann 1973; Holder
1982; de la Bédoyère 2001; Phang 2001; Manley 2002).

During the fourth century AD, small mobile field armies
were established: largely recruited from free Germanic men
from outside the Roman Empire (Dobson & Mann 1973).
These soldiers were billeted with civilians in towns and cities
across Roman Britain providing many opportunities for
consorting with British women (Holder 1982). The greater
part of the garrison army remained in Britain after the break
with Rome in AD 410 (Morris 1973; Holder 1982), after
which these soldiers were no longer paid or supplied by
Rome (de la Bédoyère 2001). Presumably, they were
employed by local British magnates to continue to defend
Britain and gradually merged into the British population.
From the above, these Germanic mercenaries must have
made a considerable genetic input into Britain during the
approximately 400 years of Roman occupation.

(iii) Early Anglo-Saxon period

Saxons had been raiding the coast of Britain well before
Anglo-Saxon times, occasionally in concert with Irish, Picts
and Franks (Miles 2005). Britain successfully defended itself
for some decades after its break with Rome until approxi-
mately the mid-fifth century AD when a large coordinated
assault of Irish, Picts and Saxons was anticipated; and the
British then requested the help of Germanic mercenaries to
defend Britain (Morris 1973). Increasing numbers of
Germanic mercenaries arrived including Frisians, Danes,
Saxons, Jutes, Angles and Franks. Increasing numbers of
Vortigern married the daughter of Hengest, the leader of
the mercenaries (Morris 1973).

Many Germanic mercenaries, however, joined by
recent arrivals, began to revolt against the Britons. The
majority of Britons in the occupied areas submitted
without resistance, some collaborating and rising to
positions of high status within their adopted tribe, creating
the Anglo-Saxons. In the early sixth century AD, there
were some generations of peace when British and Anglo-
Saxon kingdoms coexisted, with further intermarriage.
These kingdoms differed from each other in many
ways, but all were mixtures of Germanic and British
people. The different cultures and languages were not insurmountable obstacles to mixing, as assumed
by Thomas et al. (2006) (Morris 1973; Ward-Perkins
2000). Fighting between the various kingdoms resumed
by mid-sixth century AD, and by the eighth century the
Anglo-Saxons gained complete control of England
(Morris 1973). Romano-British culture had all but
disappeared in Britain by the time of the revolts of
the Germanic mercenaries and they had no reason to adopt it
(Ward-Perkins 2000; de la Bédoyère 2001); however, the
Anglo-Saxons continued to use a range of Romano-British
civic forms and structures, such as field boundaries, estate
structures, animal husbandry, systems of assessment and
tribute collection, building methods and designs, and
political units (Morris 1973; Arnold 1997; Hamerow
1997; Bassett 2000; Ward-Perkins 2000).

It is often alleged that the Celtic language contributed
little to the English language; however, this may be
mistranscribed originally due to the nineteenth century English
bias to Germanic culture and language. It now appears that
Celtic influences affected the syntax, and to a lesser extent
phonology, of early English rather than its vocabulary
(Filippula et al. 2002). Even so, Breeze (2002) identified,
for the first time, numerous English words derived from
the Celtic language. More recently, Oppenheimer (2006)
proposed the alternative view, based partly on the lexical
linguistic work of Dyen and Forster and partly on other
historical evidence, that the eastern Britons spoke a
Germanic language before the Roman occupation and
that it survived through the Roman period. Clearly, the
migration context was more complex than that assumed
by Thomas et al. (2006). In particular, the evidence
suggests that British culture was not supplanted by
Germanic culture, but that a gradual blending of the two
gave rise to the new Anglo-Saxon culture.

The argument concerning the relative sizes of the two
groups—Britons and the Germanic people who arrived
during the Early Anglo-Saxon period—is conceded, and,
as discussed below, estimates obtained in the present
study agree with those of Thomas et al. (2006), namely,
a ‘native population in the region of two million’ and
‘migrating populations in the Early Middle Ages are
between tens and low hundreds of thousands’.

(b) Evidential arguments

Thomas et al. (2006) presented two evidential argu-
ments—a textual source, the law code of King Ine of
Wessex and skeletal evidence, including grave goods—in
support of their hypothesis that the Britons were forcibly
segregated from the Germanic invaders, with no signifi-
cant intermarriage between the two groups, during the
Early Anglo-Saxon period. As stated above, the various

Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were not homogeneous groups: they showed a great variety of different customs, as different among themselves as between them and the Britons. The various Anglo-Saxon kingdoms fought among themselves as much as with the British kingdoms; indeed, Anglo-Saxon and British kingdoms formed alliances whenever it was to their mutual advantage (Ward-Perkins 2000). The smaller kingdoms combined to form larger kingdoms (Bassett 2000). There is evidence that the Britons and Anglo-Saxons in Wessex did mix and intermarry (Morris 1973; Ward-Perkins 2000).

Given this background, the law code of King Ine of Wessex may be interpreted differently from that proposed by Thomas et al. (2006). A more reasonable alternative interpretation is that the laws, which assigned Welsh Britons a lower economic and legal status than that of other members of the kingdom, were to encourage Britons to fully join the kingdom and not be ‘foreigners’: that is, to cease being ‘Welsh’. At the time that King Ine codified his laws, ca AD 690, the West Saxons had recently gained new territory from the Britons in Devon and southern Somerset, and the laws would have encouraged these newly conquered Britons to integrate quickly into the general population of the kingdom. With recurrent warfare between rival kingdoms, solidarity within a kingdom would have been crucial to its survival (Arnold 1997).

A similar strategy was employed by the Moorish Caliphate in Medieval Spain: Jews and Christians were subject to a special tax— the jizya, which Muslims did not pay—in an endeavour to encourage non-Muslims to convert to Islam. According to the Qur’an (1990), non-Muslims who refused to pay the tax, were required to either convert to Islam or face the death penalty. The ethnicities of the people involved were of no concern. Similarly, the distinction between Briton and Anglo-Saxon was based on cultural and linguistic choices rather than descent (Ward-Perkins 2000). In the sixth and seventh centuries AD, Britons who wanted to improve their status in Anglo-Saxon kingdoms would have had to give up being identifiable British, in both appearance and speech (Higham 1992). Britons in the western midlands voluntarily joined the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Mercia, meaning that from the seventh century AD they would be counted as Anglo-Saxons, despite being mainly of British descent (Bassett 2000). It is notable that King Ine of Wessex claimed King Cerdic, a Briton, as an ancestor (Morris 1973; Myres 1986; Ward-Perkins 2000). In summary, such law codes do not necessarily support the interpretation that they were to establish an apartheid-like system against the Britons, as argued by Thomas et al. (2006): indeed, their aim may have been the exact opposite, to encourage integration.

The skeletal evidence in support of the argument that the Anglo-Saxons and Britons were reproductively separate, is, as conceded by Thomas et al. (2006), circumstantial, being based on the study of Härke (1990) who proposed a stature differential between men buried with and without weapons in Early Anglo-Saxon England: those with weapons were Germanic immigrants and their descendants, whereas those without were predominantly Britons. This argument was supplemented by the less reliable evidence of a greater number of grave goods found in the graves of those buried with weapons than those without, being taken to indicate the economic advantage
of Britain) and working forward in time, the indigenous sub-population \(P_{CN} - 1\) in generation \(N-1\) was calculated from the indigenous sub-population \(P_{CN}\) in generation \(N\) using versions of the equation,

\[P_{CN-1} = (P_{CN} + NI - NM),\]

where \(NI\), the natural increase, is given by (crude births–crude deaths), and \(NM\), the net migration, is given by (emigration–immigration). Reasonable estimates of \(NI\) for England and Wales are available only after AD 1540, based on parish records of baptisms, marriages and burials: estimates after AD 1837 are more reliable again, based on civil registrations of births, deaths and marriages (after AD 1855 for Scotland). Reasonable estimates of \(NM\) for Britain are available from AD 1820, when records of migration commenced. Estimates for periods earlier than those mentioned above are somewhat less reliable (see Pattison (2007) for further details).

As the first step in the calculations, the pre-Roman indigenous population was estimated by subtracting from the total population an estimate of the number of Britons of Belgic descent who arrived from northwest Europe between ca 150 BC and AD 1. Britain had an estimated total population of 2.6 million in AD 1, of which 2.0 million were in present-day England (Pattison 2003). This estimate is in agreement with that assumed by Thomas et al. (2006). From Hawkes & Dunning (1930), a maximum of approximately 20% of the area of England was occupied by the British Belgae at that time. To take into account the slightly higher population density usual in southern England compared with the rest of Britain, the population of the Belgic territory was taken as 25% of the population of England, i.e. 0.5 million. It was then assumed that 25% of this sub-population was Belgic and thus from northwest Europe: consequently, the percentage of Britons of recent northwest European descent for the whole of Britain in AD 1 was taken as 5%. Next, all known British historical events that affected the population size, including the deaths of indigenes in battles, due to the raids, invasions and occupations of the Romans, Irish, Anglo-Saxons, Vikings and Normans, as well as deaths in civil wars, overseas military expeditions and due to major plague out-breaks, were estimated and taken into account in the calculations where appropriate. Migration was generally small before AD 1540; however, there were three large migrations of Britons to Brittany during the Late Roman and Early Anglo-Saxon periods, AD pre-600, and the return of a large group of their descendants during and after the Norman conquest of AD 1066. The calculations were extended up to AD 2001.

As in the study of Thomas et al. (2006), the modelling here is necessarily only an approximation. Estimates only are possible for many of the historical events included in the modelling—actual values will never be known; however, the lack of perfect data should not mean that a start cannot be made with the modelling. The modelling is relatively easy to handle when the data and algorithms are entered in a spreadsheet enabling the data to be readily adjusted when new or more accurate data become available, or to experiment to see how making changes to particular data affect the resulting indigenous population curve. For many of the events listed above, order of magnitude estimates were adequate. An averaging effect also occurs, in which unintentional overestimates for some events are partly compensated by unintentional underestimates for other temporally nearby events. A copy of the spreadsheet is available from the author upon request.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

It is clear from figure 1 that the main decrease in the indigenous component of the total British population started by ca AD 1900 when large-scale migrations to Britain commenced. The estimated percentages of people of pre-Roman indigenous descent in Britain are 60% in 2001 and 64% in 1950. These values are not unreasonable compared with the geographically weighted average value of 59% for all Britain calculated from the Y-chromosome results in Capelli et al. (2003). Only the study of Capelli et al. (2003) is of interest here, as it was a more extensive survey of Britain than that of Weale et al. (2002). Effectively, Capelli et al. (2003) measured the Y-chromosome make-up of Britain ca 1950, before the large African/Asian influx of the 1950s and 1960s. These results agree well considering the assumptions made in determining the indigenous sub-population curve, particularly the conservative value of 5% used for the percentage of people in Britain of Belgic descent before the Roman conquest. If this percentage value is increased, then the result for the percentage of indigenous genetic contribution in Britain would be in even better agreement with that of Capelli et al. (2003).

The difference between the two curves in figure 1 represents the number of immigrants to Britain and their descendants, the majority of who, before 1950, came from the Continent, with many being of northwest European origin. The accumulated percentage of the total population, of these immigrants and their descendants is shown as a solid curve in figure 2. Also shown, as a dotted curve, is the three-point smoothed percentage annual rate of growth in the number of these immigrants and their descendants (these values have been multiplied by a factor of 50 to aid readability). The largest peak is 0.63%/year in ca AD 459, although this was short-lived. The estimated net percentage of immigrants and their descendants, as obtained by the method employed in this study, for the entire Early Anglo-Saxon period (AD 430–730) is approximately 6.2%. This value compares with Oppenheimer’s (2006) estimates of 5.5% for England and 3.8% for all of the British Isles. The corresponding estimated number of immigrants arriving during this period is approximately 175 000, which includes the Irish immigrants that settled in western Britain, such as the Dal Riada Scots in Kintyre.
This amounts to an average arrival rate of approximately 580 immigrants/year over the whole Early Anglo-Saxon period. The number of arrivals is within the range now commonly assumed for the elite replacement theory, and within the range mentioned by Thomas et al. (2006) for the Early Medieval period. The estimate of 175,000 immigrants to a population of approximately 2.6 million for Britain is lower than that of Härke (1990), who estimated an invasion of approximately 250,000 into a population of approximately 1–2 million for England based on burials, and considerably lower than the genetics-based estimates of Weale et al. (2002) and Capelli et al. (2003).

For comparison, the estimated net percentage of immigrants and their descendants, obtained for the whole Roman period (AD 43–410) is approximately 6.8%, a figure comparable with that of the Early Anglo-Saxon period and clearly should not be ignored. The corresponding estimated number of immigrants that arrived during this period is approximately 175,000, representing an average arrival rate of approximately 480 immigrants/year over the whole Roman period. These arrivals were not just Roman soldiers, but also camp followers, bureaucrats, merchants, craftsmen, etc., and their descendants, from all over the Roman Empire. As discussed above, these included many Germanic people, especially during the Late Roman period. Similarly, the estimated net percentage of immigrants and their descendants, obtained for the whole Viking period (AD 793–1066) is approximately 2.3%. This value is lower than the 5% estimated by Oppenheimer (2006). The corresponding estimated number of immigrants during this period is 47,000, representing an average arrival rate of approximately 170 immigrants/year over the whole Viking period. This relatively low arrival number is not a complete surprise because, to the three groups of immigrants discussed above, the Vikings were the only group to be unsuccessful in their attempt to conquer all England. It took the full Danish army under Canute to conquer England in AD 1016, after which the army returned to Denmark.

Considering the rough estimates used in the modelling, it is noteworthy that the results for the three periods examined above are reasonable, being of the expected order of magnitude. In addition, people of northwest European descent continued to arrive in Britain after the Viking period. For instance, the Normans were predominantly Franco-Gauls with some Scandinavian blood. A large component of the Norman army of AD 1066 consisted of Flemings, a Belgic people, who, as mentioned by Thomas et al. (2006), accompanied the Normans in the later takeover of southwest Wales. During the Middle Ages, Flemish merchants also migrated to towns in both Scotland and England, contributing to the growth of British cities. German merchants of the Hanseatic League settled in Britain from the thirteenth to sixteenth centuries, and many other groups of people arrived in Britain from northwest Europe, including Dutch and French Huguenots in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, German refugees from the Reformation in the sixteenth century and the Thirty Years' War in the seventeenth century, Dutch for the drainage of Hatfield Chase in south Yorkshire and the Cambridge Fens in the seventeenth century, Germans during the Georgian eighteenth century, and many more in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. By AD 1914, according to Panayi (1995), Germans formed the largest non-English element in the English population after the Irish. The genetic make-up of the various immigrant groups that arrived in Britain is complex and may never be fully resolved.

The steady low-level immigration over the past two or more millennia from northwest Europe has had a cumulative effect that is clearly greater than that predicted in the simulation model employed by Thomas et al. (2006). It is possible that apartheid-type systems may have existed in some Early Anglo-Saxon kingdoms for short periods; however, the above analysis demonstrates that the DNA results of Capelli et al. (2003) can be explained without the need to invoke a prolonged apartheid-like social structure in all Early Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. In the words of William of Ockham: ‘entia non sunt multiplanda praeter necessitatem’.

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