

The Presence of Y-DNA Haplogroup R-U152 in Britain: Proposed Link to the Anglo-Saxons and Belgae

By

David K. Faux

Hypothesis A – The Cimbri Tribe of Jutland, Denmark

1) The Cimbri During the Viking Era

Based on a convergence of historical, archaeological and linguistic evidence the present author assembled a 92 page [study](#) of the proposed link between:

- a) The Celtic-speaking **Cimbri tribe** and others (e.g., Teurons, Charudes) of the “Cimbric Peninsula” (now Jutland), Denmark (who probably arrived there from Central Europe circa 400 BC in La Tene times).
- b) The geographical area known as the Danelaw in England.
- c) The Y-chromosome genetic marker U152 / S28 (haplogroup R1b1c10 / R1b1b2a2g based on the 2007 / 2008 ISOGG phylogenetic classification; R1b1b2h as found in Karafet et al., 2008). This marker is downstream of R-S116 / P312, and of the ancestor to both, R-M269 (R1b1b2 in Karafet et al., 2008). For the sake of clarity, consistency and brevity the haplogroup under consideration will be identified as R-U152.

In essence, the argument was that the reason for the observation that R-U152 is largely confined to the Danelaw in England was because men bearing this haplogroup migrated to Britain as Norse and Danish Vikings between the 9th and 11th Centuries.

The Myres et al. (2007) study found that of the various subclades of R1b1b2 in Denmark, about 50% were R-U106. That leaves 50% “unresolved”. The present author predicted that of this percentage perhaps half would be R-U152 and the rest the more ubiquitous R-S116 / P312*. To date all of the R1b1b2 which is not R-U106 is R-P312*, with no R-U152 surfacing. Since the sample sizes (via commercial testing) are very small for Denmark, and few from Northern Jutland have been tested, it is still possible that R-U152 will be found in pockets in the Cimbri homeland and surrounds. However R1b1b2 (and subclades) in Himmerland, Jutland (home of the Cimbri) is less than elsewhere in Denmark. Borglum et al. (2007) found 36% P(xM17), which is undoubtedly R-M269 / R1b1b2, in Himmerland, but 46% in a broader sample of Denmark. In other words the data has to date not supported the author’s hypothesis.

An unpublished research study of Norway found that the percentage of R-U106 made up about 65% of the R-M269 (R1b1b2) group. Ten percent were R-U152, but all from the southeast of the country north of Jutland (Vestfold, the Vik and surrounding Oslofjord). Very limited commercial testing tends to confirm this finding with a Norwegian R-U152

at Strang in Upper Oslofjord, and two R-U152 Swedes from the far west of the country adjoining the Vik. This area has seen some recent immigration (e.g., Walloon in the 17th Century) so the Scandinavian heritage of these individuals is probable but not assured. No other examples of R-U152 have yet come to light in Scandinavia, although both the commercial and academic testing show a strong presence around Oslofjord.

In another unpublished study of the Orkney Islands R-U152 only made up about 10% of the R1b1b2 sample, but every person identified as R-U152 had a Norse farm or place surname which in Orkney is found only among the descendants of the original Norse settlers. **Hence there is some evidence that R-U152 was brought to limited parts of Britain (likely primarily in the north) by the Norse Vikings.** These may in fact be descendants of the Cimbri who likely arrived in Jutland in La Tene times.

However at this point even if S28 / U152 were to begin showing up in Jutland it would be simplistic to ascribe all of those belonging to this haplogroup in Britain to this one source. However the distribution of R-U152 (concentration in the Danelaw) mirrors what one would expect via an invasion or substantial migration from Scandinavian sources.

To date in England R-U152 clings to the east coastal areas from Yorkshire to Kent Counties and inland to just over the diagonal line of the Danelaw demarcating the border between Danish and Saxon England. There is a concentration inland around Essex and north toward Cheshire. To date R-U152 has only been seen along the east coast of Scotland – similar to what is observed in England. It is noteworthy that to date there is no one with an Irish name and an Irish pedigree who has tested as R-U152, with only a few in total from either Northern Ireland or the Republic of Ireland - and those few have Scottish, English or Norman surnames.

Clearly the above hypothesis has only received what might be termed very limited support, and to date only via genetic testing in areas north of Jutland. There is no evidence that during the Viking era settlements in Jutland were abandoned. An example is the continuity of the Vorbasse village complex in Cimbri territory from the 7th to 11th Centuries (Christensen, 2002). Thus if the Cimbri and Scandinavia made only some at most minimal contribution to the areas settled in the 9th Century by the (largely Danish) Vikings, then who are other candidates for the origin of R-U152 in Britain? Again, the very restricted distribution suggests a relatively recent appearance there.

If U152 had arrived in Britain in the Bronze Age or earlier it is unlikely that there would be regions as large as western Scotland and all Ireland where, despite heavy sampling, this haplogroup has not been observed. There is another possibility in relation to a link between Eastern England and Jutland, possibly involving the Cimbri, with earlier (pre Viking era) migrations to Britain. If this hypothesis is going to be credible two conditions must be met if it is determined that there is little to no R-U152 in present – day Jutland (as present data seems to indicate):

- a) It must be shown that at some point during or prior to the Viking era there was a significant abandonment of settlements in Jutland.

- b) At the same time as the above, there must appear in the archaeological record of Eastern England evidence of an influx of migrants from Jutland (and / or adjacent areas of Scandinavia) sufficient to account for the numbers of R-U152 seen in the country today.

2) The Cimbri in the Migration Period and the Anglo-Saxon Era

a) Evidence Relating to Jutland:

Considering the documented behavior of the Cimbri in earlier days (e.g., 120 BC), it is possible that sometime before the Viking invasions (beginning about 789 AD) the entire tribe deserted its homeland and migrated en masse leaving no or few descendants in Jutland. Two destinations may have been southern Norway and Britain. This topic is considered in greater detail in the above noted study by the present author. If an event of this nature did occur, the archaeological evidence (there being no historical records from Scandinavia) clearly points to the mid 5th and 6th Centuries (circa 450 to 600).

Historical Evidence: The Roman Empire did not come tumbling down with some single cataclysmic event – it was more a slow burn toward disintegration. In 407 the Roman forces were withdrawn from England never to return. At this time there was a massive migration of Germanic peoples (e.g., Lombards, Brugundians, Ostrogoths, Vandals, Suebi) into the territories formerly administered by the Romans. In 455 the Vandals sacked Rome; and in 493 Italy was absorbed into the Ostrogoth Kingdom. There is ample evidence that the Cimbri were associated with the Roman military establishment from circa 20 AD to some time after 420 AD (see above study by author). They were deployed to regions from Bulgaria (Moesia), to Algeria, to the Roman limes in Southern Germany (e.g., near Heidelberg). As the Empire withered, the economic situation deteriorated and the hardship was amplified by the incursions of the Huns in the early years of the 5th Century. It might be expected that the people in Jutland were particularly hard hit since the prime source of employment and of rich trade goods was likely via those in Roman service. It would make sense that these men, when forced to return home when foreign military employment opportunities dried up, would be looking for similar work perhaps closer to home, and the possibility to better the lives of themselves and their families since the trading networks had been severed and poverty may have loomed.

Archaeological Evidence: There seems to have been considerable advancement in the standard of living and technological innovation in the first half of the first millennium AD. For example there were grand scale defensive infrastructure works such as protective barriers installed at the entrance to key fjords in Jutland during the Iron Age. However “something” seems to bring most works to an abrupt halt in the second half of the 5th Century. Hence subsequent to a very active period of building, after 440 AD, there is *no documentation of barrages or long ramparts in Denmark* (Jorgensen, 2003, p. 200). Dating of these features is excellent due to the use of dendochronology.

It is also noteworthy that even long established cultural practices simply stop at this time (4th or early 5th Centuries AD). For example, there are about 15,000 items in a ritual

deposit at Illerup Aderal near Aarhus, Jutland beginning about 200 AD (a tradition that can be seen locally dating back to circa 400 BC). It would appear that most of the enemy forces attacking Jutland were fellow Scandinavians, but from Norway or Sweden – it must have been a time of almost constant warfare. Then, for reasons that have not been determined, not a single comb or sword or anything is added after about 500 AD. Similarly at the Nydam Bog there is a series of ritual deposits including boats from the 3rd Century to a cluster of about 1000 objects dated to 450 to 475 AD. At that point the deposits cease. The latter date represents the last known weapon sacrifice in Denmark, where during the interval between the 1st and 5th Centuries the primary focus of this behavior was in Eastern Jutland and adjacent Fyn (Funen) (Jorgensen and Petersen, 2003). The Nydam bog is within the territory of the Angles, as is another long standing sacrificial site at Thorsberg Bog. Here military objects (e.g., shields), a complete tunic and trouser set, and a Roman helmet are among the items deposited here from the 1st to the 4th Centuries AD. All categories of bog offerings cease at this time across Jutland - from weapons to earthenware to bog bodies – and *it is difficult to explain these changes* (Kaul, 2003, p. 39).

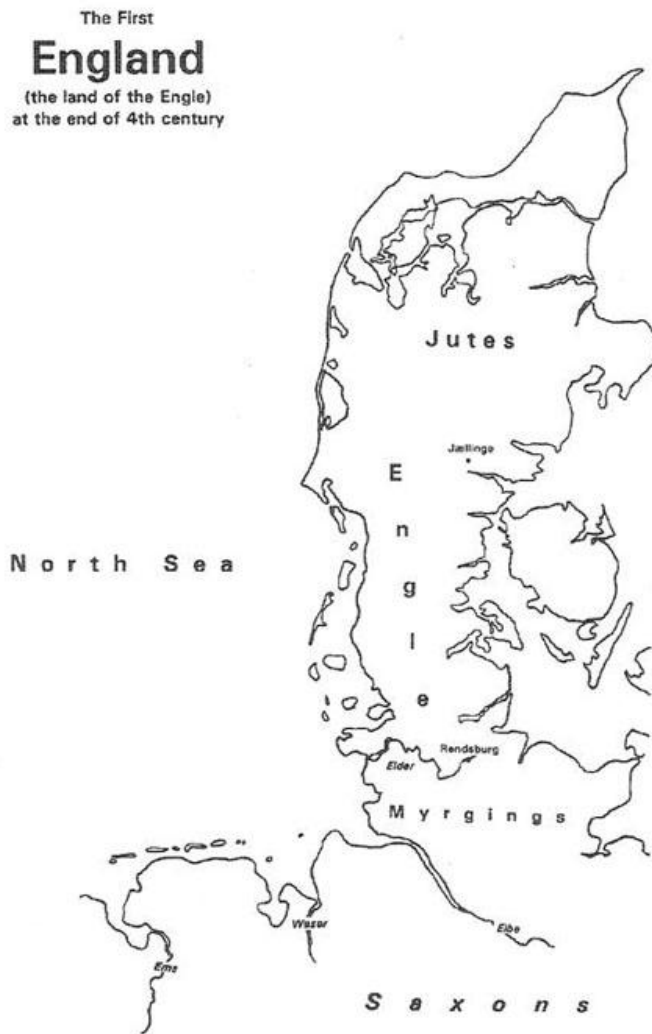
Further evidence of the territorial abandonment is seen at the largest settlement complex yet excavated in Jutland. Vorbasse, begins in the 1st Century AD and its various phases have been securely dated. It appears to have been a substantial settlement composed of clusters of up to 20 farmsteads. However for no obvious reason, *The village was torn down at some point in the fifth century, and its further fate cannot be traced* (Jensen, 1982, p. 217). No regular settlement at this site reappears until the 8th Century at which time it is a Viking community. As another example (of many) is seen at Borremose, an area which is closely tied to the Cimbri, and close to where the Celtic Djedjerg wagons were buried, a very large hall likely belonging to a headman of the tribe burned to the ground about 450 AD. Jensen says further that, *After c. 500 AD the archaeological record completely fails us, and as yet no villages from the sixth and seventh centuries have been found in Denmark* (p. 220).

It is not only settlements which seem to disappear in the 5th Century AD, but *the years from the fifth to the eighth centuries AD comprise one of the most curious periods in the prehistory of Denmark: most of the find groups are very meager and the archaeological record does not allow for much interpretation* (p. 264) which is a fact which has not yet been satisfactorily explained (p. 274). The paucity of burials is also part of this “hiatus”.

With respect to the Angles, Hamerow could not be more direct in noting that, *there is undisputed archaeological evidence that the traditional homeland of the Anglian migrants, Angeln, was effectively depopulated during the Migration Period* (Hamerow 1994, 165). These facts, from multiple perspectives, certainly seem to the present author to point to abandonment of the region and migration elsewhere.

As to the primary reason for this massive dislocation of the peoples of the Jutland Peninsula a hint can be taken from the sheer scale of the military weaponry sacrificially consigned to the bogs from the 1st to the 5th Centuries. There must have been tremendous anxiety about the future as news of the Hun incursions and subsequent dislocations of

Germanic peoples became common knowledge. As Myres (1989) stated, *It was this pressure from southern Scandinavia which must have unsettled the Angles from their homeland around Angeln in eastern Schleswig, and their neighbors the Jutes from Jutland and Fyn* (p. 54). Additional reasons may be frequent flooding and significant sandstorms, and possibly the presence of plague aggravated the situation.



It is perhaps noteworthy that according to historical sources from England (discussed below) in relation to the Angles, Saxons, Friesians and Jutes, the Jutland princes Hengeist and Horsa arrived with their people in southeast Britain at the behest of the local Brythonic king Vortigern about 429 BC. Perhaps the reason why the men of Jutland were chosen was that as possible descendants of the Cimbri (Angles and Jutes), they may have spoken Celtic (may have been bilingual at the time). This date coincides more or less exactly with the time when all of the ritual activity that had occurred in Jutland for 1000 or more years (e.g., deposition of valuable objects or sacrifices in bogs) comes to an

abrupt halt across the entire peninsula. Sometime soon after this date (circa 500 AD) is often seen as the date of the arrival of the Danes in Jutland (replacing the Cimbri or descendant tribes who had departed?). If so, then the major time of arrival of R-U152 in England could have been during the poorly documented Anglo-Saxon-Jute times prior to any Viking activity in the area.

b) Evidence Relating to Eastern England:

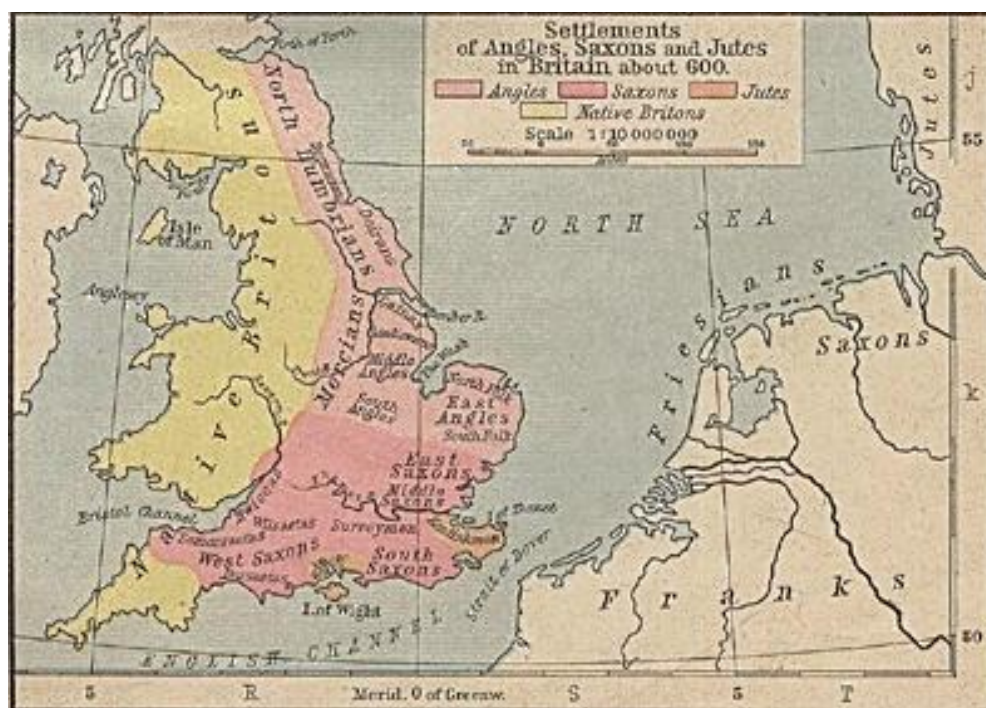
Before proceeding any further it needs to be stated that despite the evidence from the Continent, the large “processual” school of archaeology in England (e.g., Pryor, 1994), are migration deniers. In other words they believe that Gildas, Bede and the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (the many versions written in different locations) are all wrong – the only migration was one of ideas, and that the native Britons simply adopted new cultural packages. All data is interpreted within a dogmatic “process model” and so according to this view there were no Anglo-Saxons, this is merely “an origin myth”. Due to their continuing role in shaping interpretation of the data, it is necessary to digress and provide a more balanced view, even though the world’s most respected archaeologists (e.g., Cunliffe, 2008) still ascribe to the migration theory. Montgomery has the following to say:

Processual archaeologists of the 1960s and 1970s went even further and rejected migration in its entirety as an explanation for social change, effectively relegating the adventus to an origin myth. They claimed such change was explained by a rapid process of indigenous acculturation and assimilation of an available material culture into the Post-Roman void (Adams et al. 1978). Nevertheless, there is a considerable amount of evidence to suggest that there was neither cultural, settlement nor governmental continuity from Roman to Early Anglo-Saxon periods and such changes cannot be entirely explained by trade and contact alone (Hills 1999, 22). No traditionally “British” cemeteries dating from the Migration Period have so far been found in England (Crawford 1997, 45) and it is not known whether the Britons were simply absent or had adopted wholesale the Anglo-Saxon burial rite. The situation becomes even more perplexing because large areas of England, such as Hertfordshire, Essex, the Weald of Kent and the Sussex Downs are completely devoid of Anglo-Saxon cemeteries, despite many being attractive areas for settlement (Lucy 2000, 140). Migration theory would suggest that this is evidence for chain migration as migrants followed kin to targeted destinations rather than “wash(ing) heedlessly over entire landscapes” (Anthony 1997, 24).

In England, the vast majority of Early Anglo-Saxon cemeteries, many of them displaying a distinctively Germanic style, ideology and burial rite, are sited away from the previous Romano-British cemetery sites. Only a few, such as Wasperton, Warwickshire (Wise 1991), Dorchester (Hawkes & Dunning 1961) and Lankhills, Winchester (Baldwin 1985) appear to contain both Romano-British and 4th– 5th century burials with Germanic grave goods. Moreover, there is evidence for Anglo-Saxon burials being made amongst Roman villa ruins (Ellis 1997; Welch

1992, 104). Archaeological evidence for Anglo-Saxon settlements is extremely rare, whilst most Romano-British settlements appear to have been abandoned by the sixth century (Hamerow 1994, 174; Lucy 1998, 3). For many researchers, the settlement by considerable numbers of Scandinavian and Germanic peoples is an unavoidable conclusion (Härke 1990; Hills 1999, 22; Hines 1984; Welch 1992).

Historical Sources: The source for the information below is Hindley (2006) unless otherwise noted. Clearly historical and archaeological sources agree that among the Roman foederati were Germanic tribes, but that raiding of the British shores from the German – speaking world probably began in the late 3rd Century when the “Saxon shore” defenses were established. Historical sources suggest that the earliest permanent settlements may have begun about 370 AD subsequent to a combined assault on British shores by the Scotti, Picts and Germanic tribesmen in 367 AD. Archaeological evidence of German settlements in Canterbury at this time would support this assertion. Since the sources are severely limited (Gildas, Bede, Anglo-Saxon Chronicles), it is difficult to pin down specifics in the early years. Looking at the archaeological evidence, at Mucking in Essex there is a Germanic settlement with two cemeteries continuously occupied from the early years the 400s to the 700s. The assemblage (e.g., pottery, an excellent marker for culture) is virtually identical to that seen at Feddersen Wierdse, a Friesian settlement which was abandoned in the middle of the 5th Century, beginning about 430 AD. It must be noted that since there is evidence of abandonment of entire settlement areas, the people who are residing there today may or may not be the same folk as lived there 1500 years ago. Hence direct comparisons of Y chromosome data between say Friesland and England today may be unjustified.



Gildas (a Briton) wrote (about 550 AD) that during the 440s (his specific dating may have been 20 years later than was the case) the call for assistance against the Germanic threat went out to the Roman commander on the Continent, Aetius, but no assistance could be offered. Hence a “British tyrant” invited “barbarians” to come and settle among the Britons to help in their defense. Boatloads arrived and were given lands somewhere in the eastern part of England (Mucking?). Prior to 500 AD these mercenaries turned against their employers / hosts and attacked the Britons. Bede is even more specific in dating the arrival of the first settlers to 449 AD. Recall that this date may be out by 20 years, and the true date may have been closer to 429 AD. Bede names the first chieftains, the brothers Hengest and Horsa who came at the behest of King Vortigen to assist him with the “Pictish problem”. This would appear to be the Hengest of the Eoten tribe noted in the epic poem, Beowulf. The archaeological findings point to two distinct phases of settlement. The first, from the early 400s, was located between the Humber and Thames with a “hotspot” being the Upper Thames Valley. This would become the territory of the Angles, but overlapping with that of the Saxons (their respective territories being ill defined).

Writing in 660 AD, Bede (an Anglian) noted that that the English were composed of four peoples, the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians. Among the best candidates for those bringing R-U152 to England are the Jutes, whose documented territories in Kent, Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight may relate to only one settlement wave. More particularly it is the Angles, whose territory included all of East Anglia, Merica, and Northumbria, who are the best candidates for bringing R-U152 to the shores of England. This is of course only if one accepts that the restricted distribution of this haplogroup today reflects to some extent the situation 1500 years ago.

According to Bede, the Angles came from a region known to him as Angelus, and in such numbers that they left behind deserted settlements. This area has commonly been assumed to be the Angeln Peninsula in Schleswig in southern Jutland. It likely included this and adjoining regions, but the relationship between the Angles and the Jutes and their geographic distribution in Jutland has not been resolved, although the place name Eutin in eastern Jutland is suggestive. It may be rather more complicated especially in light of the interpretation (see Polorny) of the word Angle as being equivalent to Harudi (Charudes) the tribal group immediately to the south of the Cimbri in the time of Tacitus – and who were likely an offshoot of the Cimbrian group. The map above (“The Sources of England’s Settlers”) probably offers a realistic appraisal of the spatial relationship between the Angles and the Jutes in relation to Jutland.

In or about 430 AD Germanic settlements were established at Caistor by Norwich, Lutton and Abingdon, the dating consistent with the revised dates noted above. Also the Kentish edition of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle notes that at this time Vortigen, the British king, invited Octha with 40 warships to England to address the Pictish problem. Apparently after completing this task the warriors did not return home but settled in Northumberland, and these Northumbrian Angles soon expanded to other locations including the Isle of Mann and Anglesey (known in Welsh as Mona). With respect to the latter, the generally accepted interpretation (no one is certain) for the origin of the name is that it comes from

Ongul, a Norse personal name. Surely this tradition is in error since “the Isles of the Angles” makes considerably more sense. This is important because of the evidence that R-U152 has been found in substantial numbers in Angelsey (up to 20% of the population), and yet none across the Irish Sea. It is likely noteworthy that R-U106, common in Scandinavia and Northern Germany, makes up an even more substantial percentage of the population on this island (unpublished study).

The second phase of settlement occurred from the 450s to the early years of the 6th Century and encompassed Kent and the south shore of England. The immigration to England began in earnest circa 477 AD, at which time it is likely that the various kings or would-be kings and their entourages arrived from Jutland. It may be of significance that the Mercian Royal family (Angles) had connections in Angeln, Schleswig and Rendsburg. It was at Rendsburg in Jutland where the head of the later Myrkinga dynasty of Jutland (later known as the Mercian dynasty of England), Offa (died circa 456 AD), King of the Angles, fought a battle that won him “a great kingdom” (Chadwick, 1907). The East Anglian Royal family ruled from Rendelsham in Suffolk – whether these two names are of significance or coincidence is unknown.

In East Anglia and Kent the largest wave of immigration seemed to occur after 525 “from Sweden via Denmark and Friesland”, perhaps leading to the establishment of the first King of East Anglia, named Wehha (according to a 9th Century historian Nennius). About 540 AD Wuffa led his people up the Deben, founding Ufford and the Wuffinga dynasty. Eventually (circa 600 AD) Raedwald became king, ruling from Rendelsham. In or about 620 AD Raedwald died and was buried in a pagan warship (despite being nominally Christian) in a style befitting a Swedish king – there being a strong parallel with the ship graves at Vendel and Valsgaarde. This brings forth the possibility that the Wuffingas were related to the Royal Swedes at Upsala, the Scylfings. Much of the above comes from the website of the St. Edmundsbury Council providing detailed information on the early origins of Suffolk.

It would be productive to explore the Norse “Sagas” for hints that might assist in pinning down the origin of the settlers in Anglo-Saxon times. Perhaps one will suffice. Saxo Grammaticus wrote *Gesta Dannonum* in Medieval times, and it is difficult to parse out fact from myth. However he begins his history of the Danes with the story that the Danes were the descendants of two brothers, Dan and Angul. It was the latter who was the progenitor of the “Anglian race” who took possession of Britain. The present author has read this work but would refer the reader to Oppenheimer (2006) for a more readable consideration of the topic.

Archaeological Evidence: It is entirely possible that the settlements were established long before the historical source indicate (none of the contemporary authors would likely know what was happening outside their orbit). Archaeological excavations in the north would tend to confirm this statement. One of the most extensively excavated sites is West Heslerton in the Vale of Pickering, Yorkshire. The site had been heavily settled from the Bronze Age to Romano-British times. Here Anglian features such as Grubenhausers or “pit dwellings” (actually storage sheds) appear circa 400 AD, and a

village of about 500 square meters was built with Continental – style rectangular houses. The cemetery included cremation burials from the earliest dates, and was used from circa 370 AD to 650 AD – sited near and among prehistoric barrow burials and a sacred spring. According to the excavator the layout of the cemetery suggests the existence of 5 distinct lineages, but no particular elite stratification. *The distinctive Anglian (as opposed to Saxon or Jutish) nature of the female dress accessories: cruciform, square-headed, and small-long brooches, bucket pendants, braids and wrist-clasps, found in the graves strongly suggest links with both Schleswig-Holstein and Scandinavia, specifically western Norway and southern Sweden* (Montgomery, 2005).

Budd et al. (2006) used isotopic analysis of the tooth enamel obtained from this cemetery and of 24 samples was able to conclude that some were local (were born and grew up in that area), some appeared to have lived west of the Pennines, and four were likely from an area of Scandinavia north of Schleswig (these being females and one infant). It is not clear that the authors only included early Anglian burials. However, clearly some of the individuals tested were likely among the original immigrants from Jutland. This author is also of the processual school and, along with Pryor (2004), attempts to downplay any evidence of immigration. A more complete analysis of the isotopic data in relation to the cemetery is found in Montgomery (2005). The latter also reports that the earlier inhumation burials of males with weapons include morphological features in the skeletons (tall and gracile) more characteristic of Scandinavia than local Britons.

What will be essential, if one is to believe that among the Angles were the descendants of the Cimbri of Jutland, is that continuity between this area and England about the year 500 AD can be demonstrated. The archaeological record should show some key distinctive features shared by the peoples of the two regions. Just one of many examples is the large cremation cemetery, dating to the 4th and 5th Centuries at Borgstedterfeld (near Rendsberg), whose urns and other grave goods such as 20 cruciform brooches are duplicated in the cemeteries in Eastern England (Bury et al., 1911; Chadwick, 1907).

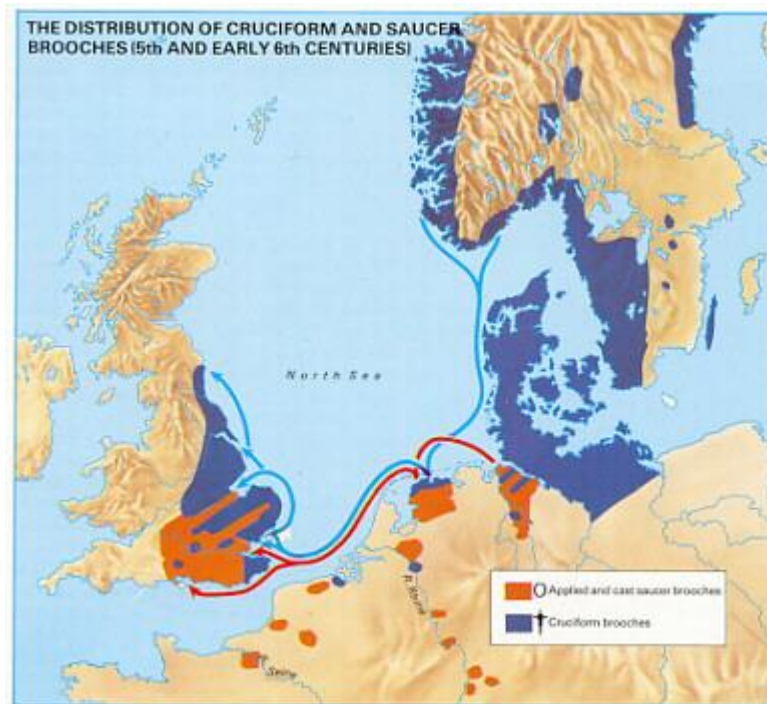
It has been noted, for example, that among the various Germanic groupings, the clothing and handywork of the females varies from group to group. Brooches are perhaps the most singularly significant signal of ethnic identity in those times. Circa 500 AD the women of the Angles were wearing square headed brooches rarely seen in other groups. These devices, commonly used as clothing fasteners, provide a valuable indication of date and origin. The shape and type of decoration varied between tribal groups. Even slight differences can be significant in the search for tribal identifiers, and can often be tied very specifically to a time and place. *Round and equal arm brooches were common among Saxons, while the Angles and Jutes preferred cruciform brooches. In addition, wrist clasps were common among the Angles* (Bakken, 1994).

Myres (1989) provides a very detailed analysis of the links between England and the Continent via examining jewelry and pottery largely from cemeteries in both locations. In Scandinavia, Jutland, the Danish Islands and Schleswig the long broach has a head plate either square or rectangular, often cruciform in style with protruding knobs on the arms, and a diamond shaped foot plate. This type is common in the Anglian areas of

Eastern and Mid Anglia, Mercia and Northumberland. Classic examples are found in Norfolk (e.g., Kenninghall), Suffolk (e.g., West Stow), and Lincolnshire (e.g., Sleaford). This is contrasted with the round or saucer shaped brooches that are commonly found in the Elbe – Weser area, and in the areas of England settled by the Saxons, and likely to be found in regions settled by the Middle Angles, also in Kent and Essex and locations further south. Another item of jewelry that can be “diagnostic” are wrist clasps seen in the Scandinavian regions and the Anglian regions. There is an overlap with the coastal Frisian groups who were later replaced by the Saxons.



Cruciform brooch as a marker of Angle and Jutland on left and Saxon circular brooch on right



A very dramatic example of jewelry whose similarity has to be more than a coincidence, is a pendant found at Sletner Austford Norway and one from Kent, as seen below.



The pendant on the left is from Norway and on the right one from Kent

Furthermore, *Pottery* fashions have about the same division as brooches. The Angles and Jutes favored rectangular decoration while the Saxons used more curvilinear styles. In addition, stamped decoration was common on Saxon pottery and was not used by the Angles and Jutes (Bakken, 1994). Specifically, there is a very strong link between the pottery found in a cemetery at Sancton (Kingdom of Deira in Northern England) dating to about 380 AD with that seen in cemeteries in Jutland in Schleswig and Fyn from the late 4th and early 5th Centuries. This clearly suggests a Germanic presence there that predates the Anglo-Saxon invasions.

Myres notes the strong connection between pottery styles and geography and ethnicity. In Jutland and Anglian England there is a rectangular style with massed groups of lines or grooves, horizontal on the neck and vertical on the shoulder – and the body has the look of polished metal. The jars tend to be short and squat. This can be contrasted to the Saxon version with, for example, curvilinear patterns and large jars. However this analysis is somewhat simplified since in Deira (northern Anglian territory) for example there are Saxon, Anglo-Frisian and Alamanni artifacts (the town name Almondsbury may reflect an Alamanni settlement). It should be noted that R-U152 has been found at relatively high frequency in the areas of Germany where the Alamanni settled.

There may be more fine tuning that can ultimately be accomplished to reflect, for example, the fact that among the Anglians there were North folk and South folk, united by the Swedish Wulffing Dynasty in the guise of Raedwald whose lavish ship burial at Sutton Hoo is well known.

One question which should be explored, considering the extent of the behavior in Jutland, is whether there is evidence of sacrificial deposits in or near the sites settled by the Angles. One “problem” is that most of the land was better drained than in the homeland and conditions may be less favorable to this “tradition” – or perhaps it was considered unnecessary in the new homeland since they were the aggressors and there were no “predators”. In examining causeways set at right angles to the rivers in Lincolnshire, Pryor (2004) notes that these were probably tribal boundary territorial markers. In fact it is typical to use the wet areas where these features meet the River Witham for sacrificial

deposits of human heads, shields, swords and so on with the behavior continuing to the 14th Century. – over 70% of the known ritual sites surviving into Medieval times here.

In conclusion, the evidence noted above would appear to be consistent with a wholesale uprooting of many or most communities in Jutland and other adjacent areas, and transplanting intact communities and social structures to England. Hence if the Angles and their likely ancestors the Cimbri were largely or partly R-U152 (other haplogroups would also be involved), thus we should not expect to find many men in Jutland today who belong to this haplogroup. This would be reinforced by the fact that the regions likely to supply the incoming haplogroups (eastern Sweden and eastern Denmark) are not likely to have included males with the R-U152 haplogroup (based on limited genetic studies).

Linguistic Evidence: A summary of Oppenheimer's analysis (2006) offers two potentially important conclusions. The first is the variety of Germanic (English) at the time Beowulf was written (before the Viking invasions) was closer to that found in Scandinavia (Jutland) than in Saxony (using Forster's data). Secondly, he provides an analysis of the distribution of the early versus late Rune stone inscriptions (Elder Futhark) in England and concludes that these are almost exclusively found in the Anglian and Jute areas, not those occupied by the Saxons. He sees this as further evidence that the Saxons were not the primary 5th Century invaders of England. It is noteworthy that, *In the area of Jutland known even today under the name Angeln some of the most spectacular finds of runic inscriptions have been made dating from before the year 450 A.D. These inscriptions are written in a language which is commonly called 'Proto-Scandinavian', but which is more appropriately termed 'Northern Germanic', since it is clearly the predecessor of all later North and West Germanic languages* (Antonsen, 2002, p. 331). It is interesting to note that our language is called English not Saxonish, and the country is called England (land of the Angles).

Genetic Evidence: Previous academic studies of the Y-chromosome structure of the British Isles have suffered from very small "bikini" haplotypes (e.g., 6 markers when 67 are commonly used in the commercial sphere). Also none have done deep haplogroup analysis or subclade genotyping of the largest genetic grouping, R1b / M269. Hence any conclusions may be hopelessly flawed. Thus important studies such as Weale et al. (2004), Capelli et al. (2004), Oppenheimer (2006) and Bowden et al. (2007) are as likely to confuse as to clarify. Estimates of population change by the Anglo-Saxons vary from virtually no effect on the numbers of indigenous Britons. Oppenheimer (2006) obtained results suggesting that the incomers comprised were a mere 4% in England as a whole but up to 17% if mapped to the area where cruciform brooches are found such as parts of Norfolk. This is diametrically opposed to Weale et al. (2004) who see their data as pointing to potentially an almost complete wipeout of the natives where after the invasion 50 to 100% of the population can be considered Y-chromosome descendants of the Anglo-Saxon.

The present author's database does, however, include 67 marker haplotypes genotyped to the level of R-M269, R-P312, and downstream to R-U152 and even the newly discovered

subclade of the latter, L2. The present - day distribution of Y haplogroup R-U152, mirrors both the boundaries of settlement of the Angles from circa 400 to 700 AD; and the Danish Vikings (in the Danelaw) circa 800 to 1100 AD. The difference is that in the Viking era there is nothing in the archaeological or historical evidence sources to suggest that whole regions were depopulated at this time – on the contrary it appears that the population was expanding in these areas of Scandinavia. Since R-U152 appears to be very limited in Jutland today (if at all), but found at more substantial levels around the Oslofjord area of Norway and Sweden it seems reasonable to conclude that immigration of any R-U152 men at this time would have established themselves in the areas where the Norse Vikings raided and settled, but not in the Danish areas (i.e., the Danelaw of Eastern England).



Some conclusions: In the map above, the territory of the Angles and the Jutes would include the Northumbrian area as far north as Edinburgh, south through Deira, Lindsey, East Anglia and Kent. The region between the latter two appears to have included both

Angles and Saxons. In addition, the Mercian area is Angle, which leaves only the southern and western parts of England, Wales (beyond Offa's Dyke), as well as the western coast above Chester. To repeat, this distribution remarkably coincides with both the Danelaw east – west division and the present – day distribution of R-U152. Oppenheimer (2006) comments on this easily observable fact and speculates that this may be due to a long term cultural continuity between the incoming Danes and the peoples who were then resident in the Danelaw. Oppenheimer posits that the Vikings, *avoided Saxon England and settled extensively and exclusively in those north-eastern regions that their recent ancestors, the Jutes and Angles, had invaded a few hundred years before* (p. 415). He sees this as reflecting long term divisions between Angle and Saxon. It is also noteworthy that the map of Anglo-Saxon burials, particularly those with distinctive cruciform brooches found largely in the Anglian and Jutish areas of Denmark and England, is virtually duplicated in the distribution of R-U152 today. Furthermore, the early (pre 650 AD) stones inscribed with Runic script, with analogies only in Jutland (particularly the lower neck of the Peninsula), are only found at sites of early Anglian or Jutish settlement (see Oppenheimer, 2006), and so again map nicely to the scatter of R-U152 today. The only viable candidate is the settlement of the Angles from the 4th to 7th Centuries. Although the precise numbers of immigrants is unknown, largely since arguments rage as to whether a burial is Angle or acculturated Briton. However the migration was sufficient to ensure that we speak English (Angleish) today (not Brythonic, not Latin, not Danish, not Norman French – English, named after the people to gave us the language spoken as a lingua franca across the world.

It is now time to consider other possibilities that may explain the presence of R-U152 in Britain. An important question, however, is whether any or all would be sufficient to explain even a small percentage of this haplogroup in the British Isles today.

Other Options and Possibilities

If the Cimbri or other Scandinavians are not the major source of the R-U152 in Britain, how can one explain the distribution seen in the author's database and Google Map for this haplogroup? There is only one other hypothesis which appears to have merit. It is consistent not only with historical and archaeological sources, but also with the genetic data as reflected in the R-U152 [database](#) and the [map](#) of its distribution.

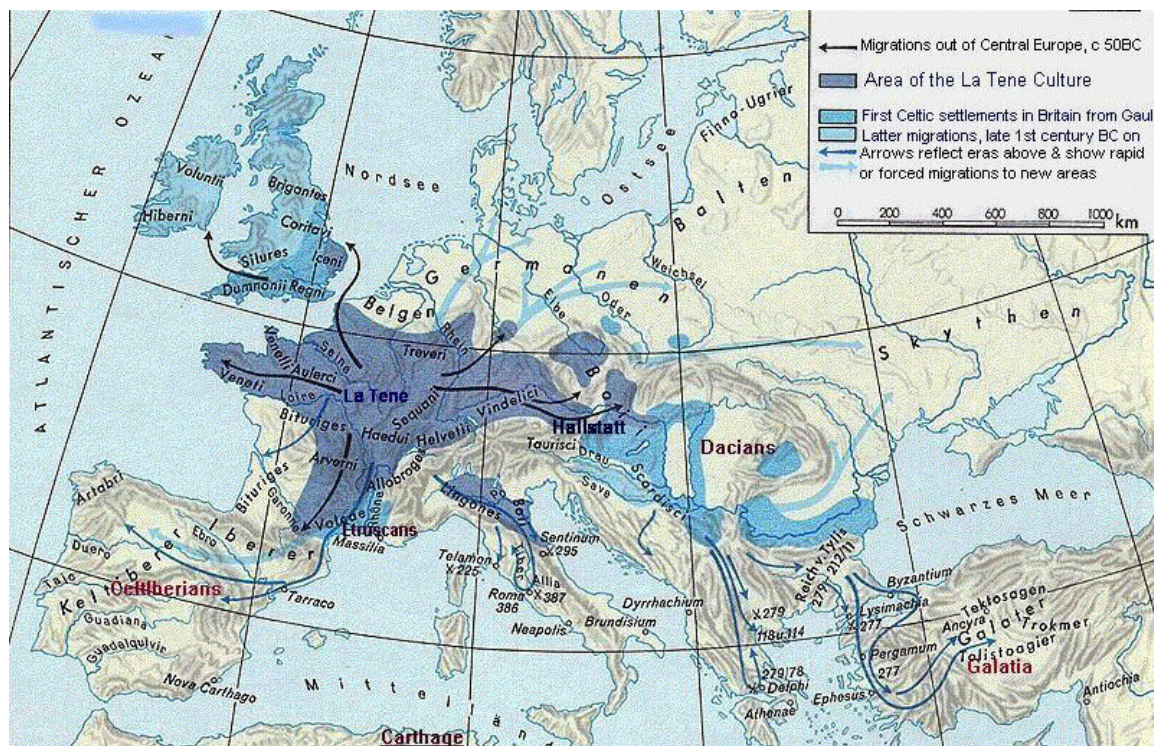
According to the Myers et al. (2007) study, the genetic picture in France, relative to Denmark, is entirely different. With 52% being R-M269, only 12% were R-U106 and 88% “unresolved”. It is almost certain that R-U152 will factor in heavily in the latter group. Preliminary results from commercial testing support this contention. Hence, considering the relatively short distance between England, and France and Belgium across the Channel on the Continent, it is likely that there has been an exchange of population, to some degree, in both directions. The evidence for migrations to England by the peoples living in the territory of the nearby Belgae tribes will now be explored.

Hypothesis B – The La Tene Celtic Belgae Tribes (or their Descendants) of Northern France, Belgium, Luxembourg and Adjacent Areas:

The following is a compilation of specific sources relating to the **Belgae** dating from circa 500 BC to 1685 AD who have potentially contributed to the Y-chromosome haplogroup R-U152 in Britain and Ireland. Considerably more detail can be found about the **La Tene Celts** and their predecessors in an [earlier work](#) by the author. What both hypotheses have in common is that the ancestors of the R-U152 British are “La Tene”.

1) Hallstatt influence 700 to 450 BC

Since there is limited evidence of some Hallstatt (early Celtic) material culture arriving in Britain it stands to reason that there could have been some, albeit limited, immigration to accompany the artifacts. In general the continuity of British culture from the Bronze Age forward stands out more prominently. The influence extends from the Continent over to the Hampshire area along the Channel and from there diagonally toward the Wash in Lincolnshire to create a semi-circle around East Anglia. It is interesting to note that this area was precisely that of the areas settled by the Belgae in late La Tene times as noted by Caesar (see later). Most atlases of the Celtic world show this Hallstatt influence extending into southeast England (e.g., Konstam, 2003).



Map of the Celtic “empire” and the migrations that began circa 500 BC from the “heartland”

2) The people of the Arras Culture who first appeared in Yorkshire near the Humber River about the 5th Century BC

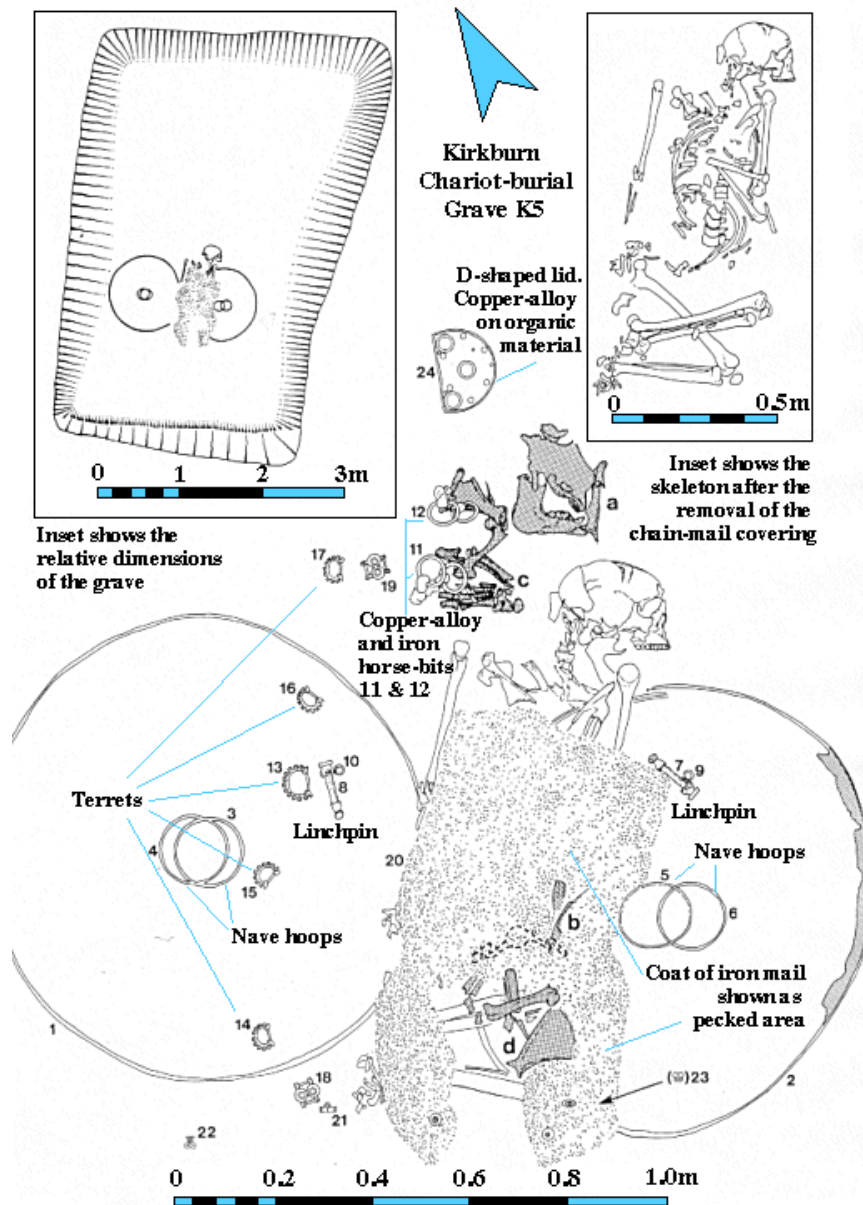
The material culture bears some similarity to that of La Tene sites on the Continent. It is curious though that the name Arras from a town in Yorkshire is the same as Arras in Picardy (Northeastern France) where the Artebates tribe of Belgae named the place Nemetacus (referring to a sacred grove). In England the culture is first observed circa 450 BC, the time of the great migrations from the Marne (Belgae) region, which is one of the three primary clusters of La Tene culture. One example, from Newbridge near Edinburgh, Scotland (radiocarbon dated to 570 – 320 BC) is geographically outside this group and may pertain to an earlier time. A second outlier is from Ferrybridge in West Yorkshire where the individual was buried on top of the vehicle, with wheels still attached and hence upright, more in keeping with Continental traditions. There were no Greco-Roman authors in the area to report movements in this period, hence no historical record of migration, however it is possible that some people did move from the Continent at this time.



Ornate Kirkburn sword, Arras Culture

The majority of vehicle burials are associated with the Arras Culture from East Yorkshire. The chariot and / or cart burials in Yorkshire (male and one female), although unique in Britain, differ in a number of ways from the Continental practices (e.g., 5th Century chariot burials at Somme-Brionne as well as Chalons-sur-Marne in France). For example, the person is buried under the vehicle, which has been turned upside down, the wheels removed and placed flat in the grave. However many of the artifacts have exact equivalents elsewhere in the Celtic world. For example: *Dr. Stead stated that these linchpins "are unlike any others from Yorkshire, but can be matched by a pair from a cart-burial group at Jonchery-sur-Suippe, Marne", in France. As is the manner of*

such things, this would change. Also in the grave were two iron horse-bits, described as "loop link snaffles", these too were of a rare type, the only others similar being discovered at the Llyn Cerrig Bach burial site on Mona (Anglesey), Wales (Hayton, 2006). Hence it is unclear how much of what is observed is due to immigration and how much to the elite copying trendy Continental practices.



However, this cluster is considered part of the Middle and Late La Tene periods with two-wheeled vehicle elite burials only found elsewhere in the Seine (e.g., Parisii and Senones), Marne (e.g., Remi and Catulvellauni) and Moselle (Treveri) regions. In the words of Cunliffe (1997), *Northern France, the Low Countries, and Britain received a flow of goods throughout the Early La Tene period. The rite of elite burial distinguished by two-wheeled vehicles, which developed in the Marne and Moselle regions in the late*

fifth century, was adopted in four peripheral areas: in the lower Seine Valley, the Ardennes, the Haine, and Yorkshire (p.153). The people of this area of Yorkshire were known as the **Parisi** when the Romans arrived, the same name as a large tribe settled where Paris is sited today. This may be a coincidence, but could point to the origins of this group (Cunliffe, 1997; James, 2003; Koch, 2007).

The area of the Parisii tribe, hence the Arras Culture, is shown on the map below - with most of the burials of the Arras group being in the southeast corner.



It is evident that during the entire second half of the first millennium BC there was a cultural zone along the east coast of England extending from the region of the Arras Culture in an arc to encompass the entire area down to Kent County and across the Channel to include the settlements between the Seine and Rhine Rivers. Metalwork of the vegetal style was imported from the Continent and adapted to local tastes in England. For example the sword scabbards of *Wisbech, Cambridgeshire, Standlake, Oxfordshire, the River Witham near Lincoln, and the elite burial at Wetwang Slack in the Yorkshire wolds* fit this pattern (Cunliffe, 1997, p.161). The extent of immigration from the Continent at this time is unknown, although the cultural continuity in both sides of the

Channel speaks for some degree of population movement during all phases of the La Tene period.

Another group linked to La Tene times is the **Iceni tribe** of East Anglia. The work of Hawkes (1931) and Childe (1940) are cited by Jones (1997). He noted that Childe, *interpreted the burials and stray objects regarded as characteristic of the La Tene tradition in East Anglia as the culture of 'Marnian Chieftains' who established control of the 'Halstatt peasantry' and later founded the Iceni tribe* (Childe, p.222; Jones, p.30).

3) The Belgae of southern England who immigrated there from northern France and Belgium in the 1st Century BC

In the words of Caesar:

The interior parts of Britain are inhabited by tribes which by their own traditions are indigenous to the island, while on the coastal sections are tribes which crossed over from the land of the Belgae seeking booty. Nearly all these maritime tribes are called by the names of the lands from which they immigrated when they came to Britain. After their arrival, they remained there and began to till the fields (De Bello Gallico 5.12).

It appears that the R-U152 in Britain can largely be traced to various movements of people from what are today France and Belgium and whose origins are rooted in the Iron Age La Tene Celtic peoples found west of the Rhine. Some would have remained around the heartland of the Seine and Marne and Mosel River areas, but circa 500 to 400 BC these areas saw a dramatic decrease in population when large numbers migrated to the east to locations in Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, the Balkans, and east to Ukraine. After the sack of Delphi in 279 BC many from these eastern communities appear to have migrated back to their old homelands and took over (often forcefully) lands that were likely occupied by their distant kin. There are similar shrines at Gournay (on the border of the territories of the Belgic Bellovici, Ambriani and Viromandui); as well as that at Ribemont-sur-Ancre closer to the Atrebates; and Hayling Island in Hampshire, England (plus Mount Bibebe in Italy) which all appeared to serve the same ghoulish function. The Gournay site is 130 feet square, walled and ditched. Apparent sacrifices of animals, and about 1000 humans as well as the ritual killing (e.g., bending) of weapons, occurred there from the 3rd to the 1st Century BC. The former date is the likely time when the Belgae were returning from the east to settle in or near the lands of their ancestors, but their activities here suggest a virtual take over of the entire area and extreme aggression. Caesar noted this in his journals, and recorded that sometime earlier (before the 1st Century) they had emigrated from east of the Rhine.

In fact according to many authors, the archaeological record argues for an earlier date for the first settlers. Allen (2007) notes, *artifacts of continental and even Danubian origin dating from the 3rd century BC strongly suggest that the Belgae crossed to Britain about the same time as they settled in northern Gaul*. They appear to have, *arrived as fairly*

small warrior groups that quickly integrated into the elite of the local communities (p.175).



Source areas for Continental Celtic immigration to England: Belgica plus Treveri, Parisi and Senones

The “[Ancient Sites](#)” website provides a good summary of the tribes and circumstances in relation to the Belgae.

Julius Caesar divides the people of Gaul into three groups, the Aquitani, the Galli (who in their own language were called Celtae) and the Belgae, all of whom had their own customs and language. He noted that the Belgae, being furthest from the developed civilisation of Rome and closest to the Germans, were the bravest of the three.

Caesar claims that most of the Belgae were descended from tribes who had long ago crossed the Rhine from Germania. However most of the tribal and personal

names recorded are identifiably Celtic. It is also said that the Belgae were descendants of Trebata, the legendary founder of Trier (oldest German city in south-west Germany). The city of Trier was founded by the Assyrians around 2000 BC, lead by Trebeta, the son of the great Assyrian King Ninus.

Tribes who belonged to the Belgae included the Remi, Bellovaci, Suessiones, Nervii, Atrebates, Ambiani, Morini, Menapii, Caleti, Velioasses and Viromandui. Caesar says one tribe, the Atuatuci, were descended from the Germanic Cimbri and Teurones, and describes four others, the Condrusi, Eburones, Caerosi and Paemani, as German tribes (although Ambiorix, a later leader of the Eburones, has a Celtic name). Other tribes that may have been included among the Belgae were the Leuci, Treveri, Tungri and Mediomatrici.

The Remi were the most prominent tribe of the Belgae and their capital, Durocortum (modern Reims in France), became the capital of the Roman province of Gallia Belgica.

In addition the Catulvellauni who resided near the Remi were also Belgae but not mentioned specifically by that name by Caesar. It is also possible that the Trinovantes settled east of the Catulvellauni in England were Belgae, and perhaps took a variant of the Belgae tribal names of Tricasses (immediately south of the Catuvellauni), or the Treveri further to the east. In Britain the tribes considered to be Belgae include the Cantiaci and Regnenses (probably), as well as the Belgae, Atrebates, Catulvellauni, Cantiaci.

Data in the section below is from Koch (2007) unless otherwise indicated. The archaeological record showing marked similarities between the material culture in these areas and the regions occupied by their Continental namesakes:

- a) Weaponry - Piggott's group I Iron Age swords, daggers and scabbards were imported from the Continent from the 3rd to the 2nd Centuries BC. These most commonly occur in the princely burials of the Rhine and Marne regions, and in Britain are found almost exclusively on the east coast of England, many from the Thames River. A short sword with an anthropoid hilt is found in these contexts from Hungary to Britain and may reflect an emblem of Celtic social status (Cunliffe, 1997).
- b) Feasting Equipment – During the closing years of the pre-Roman Iron Age evidence of the Celtic cultural practice of the feast is seen in the finds of artifacts such as firedogs. Those seen in ritual deposition sites include the island of Mona in Wales, the Marne region (La Tene heartland) of France, and in the area from the Rhone Valley through the Swiss Lakes to western Germany. They are frequent only in burials in the territory of the Catulvellauni in England and their tribal areas in the Marne and further to the north. In settlement sites firedogs are found in Britain only in southern England but scattered around Gaul, Austria, and the Carpathian region in the east.

- c) Iron Ingots - These items were used as a form of currency. The shape reflects late La Tene cultural links between Central Europe, particularly the lands of the Treveri (the Mosel, Luxembourg and surrounds), as well as the Helvetii and Vindelici (Switzerland and southern Germany) with southern England.
- d) Coins - These artifacts are perhaps the best items for relatively precise dating of a site. They are also highly characteristic of a tribal territory or a region in which a tribe had major influence. This form of evidence shows a strong link between southeast England from circa 125 BC (when the first coins appear) with the Remi-Catulvellauni homeland; and three source areas near the English Channel show connections to Essex and both sides of the Thames River.
- e) Pottery - The smooth wheel-thrown throw ware typical of the Treveri is also found in Belgic cremation burials and the Aylesford-Swarling burials of southeast England.
- f) Amphorae - The Dressel amphora of the later Roman Republic (for transporting wine) are ubiquitous (e.g., throughout Gaul), but seen in Britain only in the south from Cornwall to cluster in Hampshire and the Catulvellauni area for example Cambridge – but not north of the rivers draining into the Wash at the border of Norfolk and Lincolnshire. This distribution appears to reflect the statements noted earlier by Caesar about the differences between the Britons in the south and those living further north.
- g) Oppida - These large nucleated settlements (proto-towns) with ditched enclosures are found across the extent of the Continental Celtic world, but not in the Germanic regions. In Britain only the southeast in an arc from the middle of East Anglia to west of Hampshire included these fortified units. Here they were of the “dump rampart” type, which were also characteristic of northern France from the Rhine to the Bay of Bisquay in the 2nd and 1st Centuries BC (Cunliffe, 1997).

There was probably some degree of movement of people between both areas in earlier years. In Gaul the Atrebates are located in the north, east of the Seine River; and the Catulvellauni are just south of the Remi and Parisi. *Caesar reports that 'within living memory' Diviciacus of the Belgic Suessiones held some kind of sway over parts of Britain* (James, 1993, p.48), which is reflected in their characteristic triple-tailed horse coins from about 60 BC. Furthermore about 50 BC many Gauls including Commius of the Atrebates are recorded as having arrived in Britain, after the Celtic defeat at Alesia. Commius established a tribal dynasty with its own coins at Calleva (Silchester, Hampshire), saying he never wanted to see another Roman in his life (Miles, 2005)

Burial practices can be among the best ways to determine cultural connections between peoples and regions. The cremation burial sites of the 1st Century BC in England (such as Aylesford in Kent and Baldock in Hampshire) have been noted as bearing a strong resemblance to, for example, those at Gosbling en Nospelt in Luxembourg, a home of the Treveri. Rich burials are often accompanied by weaponry, feasting equipment, wine amphorae, and some include chariot fittings. The distribution is remarkably specific to the Marne region (Remi – Catulvellauni), west and north along the Seine River, with a circle encompassing the western Mosel group (Treveri) to the Channel opposite Dover. In addition there is continuity between the Catulvellauni on both sides of the Channel with

the cremation burial at Welwyn Garden City being representative. Most elite burials in England are within the territory of the Catuvellauni.

In the years immediately preceding the Roman invasion, the Catuvellauni expanded to take over the territory of the Trinovantes, Atrebates, Cantici and Durotiges in the west.

4) Roman soldiers, auxiliaries and citizens who originated on the Continent - 43 AD to the 4th Century

The information here comes from Miles (2005) unless otherwise indicated. The first wave of 40,000 Roman soldiers included Thracians (of the Balkans) and Batavians (from the Low Countries). It is difficult to know what sort of impact this group and subsequent members of the Roman establishment made on the population of Britain. Clearly any influence was south of Hadrian's Wall so the impact on Scotland was likely very limited (and not at all in Ireland). Many of the "Romans" came from regions known to include (presently) R-U152. An inspection of the evidence from wall inscriptions and grave markers, noted on the Roman Britain.org website, records that auxiliary troops included soldiers recruited from among the Tungri, Nervii, Alpini, Raeti, Lingones, Menapii, Morinii, Gauls (for example). Collingwood and Myres (1936) calculated that, *over half came from northern Gaul and the Rhineland, a quarter from the Danubian provinces, and almost all the rest from Spain* (p.42). Tombstones from all classes of the Roman establishment are found in locations as diverse as Chester, Caerleon, Lincoln, York and Gloucester. Settlements were likely close to the colonia planned for legionary veterans. One example is from London, dedicated to "Tiberinius Celerianus A citizen of the Bellovacii, sea captain". This tribe resided north of Paris.



Map showing both the tribal areas of the peoples of Britain, and significant Roman sites

Typical estimates of the population size of England at the time of the Roman occupation are approximately one to three million (the latter the more likely estimate). In the initially years of occupation over 40,000 soldiers were based in Britain, peaked at 60,000, but this number dwindled over time to about 20,000 in the days before Britain was abandoned and left to her own devices. It is not known how many stayed after their tour was over (most were stationed elsewhere in the Empire as well) to take land grants, nor how many left descendants to the present day. A similar situation would prevail with the merchants and administrators and even slaves who frequently themselves owned slaves (for example from Gaul). It doesn't appear that at any time did the Roman incomers ever exceed 5% of the population, and many went home after their tour of duty. It is possible that the total Roman presence in Britain may have reached 100,000 to 200,000. Considering the numbers, it is unlikely that anything more than a small percentage of Britons can trace their ancestry to the Roman occupation – although it is possible that these Romans may have had an undocumented reproductive advantage.

5) Early Germanic Mercenaries, Angles, Jutes and Saxons as well as Vikings?

- a) The Fourth Century: It is possible that the “German” foederati (mercenaries) who were brought to England in the closing years of the Roman era were not from Northern Germany or Jutland, but instead the old Celtic areas of Central Europe. Frazer and Tyrell (1999) discussed the finds of ‘chip-carved’ belt fittings from Late Roman Britain. They report that, *The documentary sources tell us that Germanic mercenaries were employed in the defence of late – and sub-Roman Britain, and attempts have been made to link these belt fittings directly with these early ‘Germanic’ settlers. Such objects are found throughout the empire, especially along the Rhine-Danube frontier, and it has been argued that similarity between those from the latter area and those in England was archaeological evidence for early Germanic occupation* (p.31). Leahy (2008), while focusing on the Lindsey region of Lincolnshire, described these artifacts from the 4th Century (before the Anglo-Saxon invasions) as being decorated by birds, and heads “in the Celtic style”. He characterized the distribution of these items as being found south and east of the Foss Way, with concentrations around the towns of Eastern England, particularly in the riverine estuary locations. Finds occur from northern Kent to East Anglia and north to the Humber in Lincolnshire as well as Nottinghamshire and east Yorkshire. Since the Rhine-Danube area is a “hotspot” of R-U152, it stands to reason that some of these early “German” settlers may have been descendants of LaTene Celtic peoples of the region.
- b) The Fifth and Sixth Centuries: A research study of Frisia in Northern Holland found only a single R-U152 in a large sample of R1b1b2 in that area. Hence today this haplogroup is negligible to non-existent in these Germanic areas. Commercial testing has also not found a single person who is R-U152 in the areas of Germany north of the Main River, only in the Celtic south where it is found in relatively high numbers to peak in

Switzerland and the Alsace area. Hence at this point one must conclude that there is little evidence that R-U152 was included among the Germanic and Scandinavian invaders of the 5th and 6th Centuries.

- c) The Eighth to Eleventh Centuries: While evidence from both research (unpublished) and commercial testing (via FTDNA) shows that in most locations in Scandinavia R-U152 is all but invisible, there is one notable exception, as noted at the beginning of this manuscript. There appears to be a significant grouping of R-U152 around Oslofjord (the Vik, Vestfold) and more broadly southeastern Norway and southwestern Sweden. Since this is an area known to have been a “hotbed” of Viking activity (circa 790 to 1065 AD) it is possible that some of the R-U152 in England, and much of what is seen in Scotland, could be attributable to this source.

6) The Normans who invaded England in 1066 and stayed to settle - knights from Normandy, Bretons, Flemings, Poitevins and Lotharingians

This area spanned northern France and Belgium to the territory of the Treveri in the Rhine – Moselle region. This area is undoubtedly rich in R-U152, but there has been very little sampling in this area to date. In Belgium, Luxembourg and Alsace where the sampling has been greater it appears that R-U152 is a common haplogroup in the region.

The number of soldiers with William the Conqueror’s army was about 5,000, and soon more compatriots came from the Continent in successive waves. At no time, however, did the numbers of these Normans amount to more than 5% of the total population (reminiscent of the figures for the Romans 1000 years earlier) of Britain at around 2 million inhabitants (the estimate being similar to Roman times). The Falaise Roll listing the “companions” of William, who took part in the Conquest, includes only 315 names. William soon went about redistributing the estates of the Anglo-Saxon aristocracy to his followers. Normandy at this time included the Cotentin Peninsula (bordering on Brittany and including the towns of Coutances and Mortain), Calvados (Lower Normandy including the towns of Bayeux and Caen), and Seine Maritime (Upper Normandy including the town of Rouen and the Seine River) (Green, 1997).



Map of Normandy, Flanders and adjacent areas 1035

One of the most noteworthy sources on the Normans is the history commissioned by Henry I, and written by Wace prior to 1170 (translation by Burgess, 2004). A plotting of the places of origin of the first wave of Normans illustrates the geographical distribution of the leaders of the Conquest – from the Meuse River in the east to Avranches in the west (map p.xlvii). The preponderance of the higher aristocracy came from Upper Normandy (Seine Maritime) and Calvados, but most regions were represented, as well as

Flanders. Almost none of the tenants-in-chief who held large estates worth over 100 English pounds a year were English (perhaps 1%). About 100 of 1400 owners of medium sized estates were English, but considerably more of the 6000 sub-tenants recorded in the Domesday Book were English, leasing the land they formerly owned.

Soon English children were being given Norman baptismal names such as Robert, William, John and Adam so it becomes difficult to ascertain ethnicity from font names even as early as the Domesday Book of 1086 (Miles, 2005).

7) Post-Conquest immigration of settlers, soldiers and administrative officials from various parts of France

As noted above, after the Conquest the estates of the Anglo-Saxon thegns were confiscated and given to Normans who fought with William the Conqueror, and to many other French – speaking individuals who arrived at various times over the next few hundred years to settle, become merchants or administrators or soldiers. There does not seem to be an accurate count of the numbers of these “latecomers”. Many continued to come from the traditional areas of Normandy in the east, but also adjoining Brittany in the west and Flanders in the east (including the towns of Arras, Boulogne and Bouges). However, Green (1997) notes that, *The settlement of much of England, therefore, was essentially the work of the first wave of Normans and their companions; if relatively large numbers followed, they have left no traces in the sources* (p.136). In addition, *Migration dwindled to a trickle in the twelfth century* (p.140). Younger sons of the aristocracy filled whatever void there was.

Surnames were introduced in the mid 12th Century, but slowly adopted in the countryside. Those arriving from elsewhere often took the name of their place of origin – such as French, Fleming, Burgoyne and more specifically Devereux, deVaux, Warenne and Montgomery. Some adopted nicknames such as Fortesque (‘Valiant Warrior’), Durant (‘Steadfast’) and Corbet (‘Little Crow’). A Norman incomer to Scotland was Robert deBrus (Bruce) of Brix, Cotentin Peninsula. Anglo-Norman-Fleming settlers began to arrive in Ireland in 1167 under Richard FitzGodebert and established themselves in the Wexford and Waterford areas, and moved later to Dublin and Leinster. In addition Jews from the Rhineland and Gaul followed William and for the next 200 years had a turbulent history of being welcomed, expelled, and murdered.

8) The Flemings who resided in present day Flanders and surrounding areas of Belgium, Holland and France

It is highly likely that some of the R-U152 in both countries can be traced to the Flemings. For example, in “The Tribes of Britain” by David Miles reported that, *The Flemings had distinctive names like Lamkin, Freskin and Wizo* (p.245). One R-U152 from Lincolnshire has the surname Hipkin, from a region where the Flemings were settled. In addition another R-U152, from the Shetland Islands has the surname Strang, whose origin as given in Black’s, *The Surnames of Scotland* is from “Lestrangle” or the stranger – a term used for the Flemings. During the reign of Henry I in 1108 Flemings were settled in Pembrokeshire, Wales. Others arrived in 1137 under Edward III to reside

along the lowlands of the east coast of Scotland in places such as Berwickshire and Moray Firth; as well as Kent and East Anglia in England. In 1130/40 Flemings were sent as mercenaries to support King Stephen. A group was settled in Upper Clydesdale as tenants of King Malcolm IV in 1160. By 1200 they were well established on the east coast of Scotland counting aristocrats and sheriffs among their number. Furthermore Flemish weavers came to many east coastal areas in the 1330s. They were also among the French Protestant Huguenot refugees and were among the Huguenot refugees arriving from places such as Poitou, Saintonge and LaRochele Normandy to Kent and Suffolk in 1540/50 with larger numbers after 1685 to many locations including cities such as London (where by 1700 they made up 5% of the population) and Dublin.

8) Other

After about 1300 immigration to England (and until recent times) had slowed and most of the movement was internal. For example people moved in large numbers from populous East Anglia to London. At this time (before the famines and great plagues of later in the century) the population of England was about 6 million.

Later migration also for example forced large numbers of foreigners on the native Irish population. For example about 1641, 70,000 English and Welsh settlers arrived in Ireland; and 100,000 immigrated in Cromwellian times to the point (when adding the Scottish plantations) that by 1700, 27% of the Irish population was English or Scottish (plus a group of destitute Palatine Germans settled there in 1709 by Queen Anne).

Conclusion:

The above description presents a snapshot of the various groups who from La Tène times may have contributed the Y-chromosome haplogroup R-U152 to Britain and Ireland.

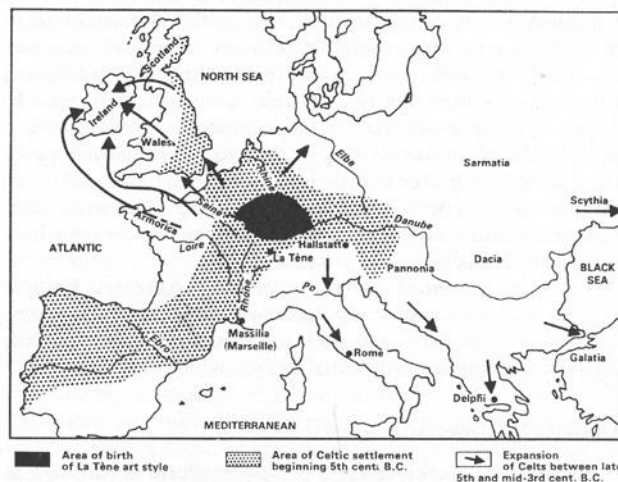


FIG. 9.1 Map by Duval indicating notional Celtic lands.

The above map offers a summary glance as to what is discussed in the present work within the context of the wider view of the Celtic migrations beginning in the 5th Century BC which affected northern France and Britain.

In essence the Belgae included all or most of the groups in Normandy, Picardy and Belgium from whence came the Gaulish settlers from the Continent who at various times immigrated to England. Further south along or near the Seine River Valley were tribes such as the Parisi, Senones, Cenomanni, Auleceri, and Carnutes. Further east were the Treveri, a Celtic tribe, associated with the Moselle La Tene group, who appear to have factored strongly in migrations to Britain. The Belgae appear to have been the most predominant group among those whose descendants migrated at various times to England whether they arrive as La Tene migrants to Yorkshire, or as Huguenot refugees about 2000 years later. At any rate all would likely have been among the La Tene Celtic peoples whose culture began to flourish circa 450 BC.

Thus, due to the apparent complexity, it will be necessary for those who are R-U152, with male line ancestry to Britain, to use locational cues as well as surname and traditional genealogical techniques, merged with Y-DNA haplotype analysis in order to determine the most likely source of their particular R-U152 Y-chromosome.

The above is a preliminary assessment and needs to be expanded to include a more detailed analysis.

David K. Faux, Ph.D.

Seal Beach, California

Amended: 28 September 2008

fauxdk [at] yahoo.com

Copyright 2008