Research Department Report Series 89/2006

# The Thatched Barn, Burncliffe, Tow House, Northumberland Tree-ring Analysis of Timbers

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ISSN 1749-8775

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# Summary

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on a series of samples from the roof structure of this building. No grouping between samples occurred and attempts to individually date them proved unsuccessful.

This barn has previously been dated stylistically to the seventeenth or eighteenth century but the dendrochronological analysis can neither support nor refute this.

## Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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### **Introduction**

This Grade II\* listed building is a heather-thatched barn, located at Tow House (NY76716433; Fig 1), north-west of Burncliffe, near Hexham. It is a single-storey structure of five bays with four pairs of full crucks, halved and crossed at the apex to carry the ridgepiece. It has the original upper collars which carry lapped purlins. The lower collars are thought to have been renewed (Fig 2). The building is likely to have been an all purpose agricultural or storage building which could be used for small scale domestic threshing. The roof type is of an archaic form of which we know little, and so dating on stylistic grounds cannot be more precise than to the seventeenth or eighteenth century (*pers comm* Martin Roberts). It is an extremely rare example in the county of this type of building.

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating was commissioned and funded by English Heritage. The barn is being placed on the English Heritage's Buildings at Risk register and tree-ring dating was requested by Martin Roberts, Historic Buildings Inspector at English Heritage's Newcastle office, to provide independent evidence for the date of its construction.

The Laboratory would like to thank Peter and Susan Clark, the owners of the property, for allowing sampling to be undertaken and for their assistance whilst this was carried out. Figures 3–6 were produced by Kevin Doonan. Thanks are also given to Martin Roberts for his helpful comments on an early draft of this report.

## Sampling

Fifteen timbers were chosen for sampling with each sample being given the code TWH-A (for Tow House) and numbered 01–15. The position of samples was noted at the time of sampling and has been marked on Figure 3. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1. Trusses were numbered from north to south.

### Analysis and Results

At this stage it was noticed that four of the samples (TWH-A04, TWH-A05, TWH-A06, and TWH-A10) had too few rings to make secure dating a possibility and these samples was rejected prior to measurement. The remaining 11 samples were prepared by sanding and polishing and their growth-ring widths measured; the data of these measurements are given at the end of the report. All 11 samples were compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see appendix).

No grouping occurred and attempts to individually date the samples by comparing each against a series of relevant reference chronologies proved unsuccessful.

### **Discussion**

Previously, this building was thought to date to the seventeenth or eighteenth century. Unfortunately, in this case tree-ring dating has not been successful and its interpretation and dating must continue to rely on stylistic evidence only.

There are no obvious reasons as to why these samples do not date. The ring patterns are not overly complacent or compacted and whilst there are bands of narrower rings on some of the samples these do not appear to represent major growth disturbances which would reduce the dating potential by masking the overall climatic signal required for successful dating. It may be that this barn was constructed using a disparate set of trees, each growing in an area more strongly influenced by local conditions at the expense of the general climatic conditions, hence the lack of grouping within them and individual matching against the reference chronologies. Alternatively, it may be that, although no obvious signs of reuse were noted on the timbers sampled, they may be of different dates which again would preclude the grouping between them. Although not explaining the lack of intra-site cross-matching, a deficit in contemporary regional data may also have contributed to these samples not dating.

Sample	Sample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured
number		rings*	rings**	ring date (AD)	ring date (AD)	ring date (AD)
TWH-A01	East blade, truss 1	60				
TWH-A02	West blade, truss 1	156	h/s			
TWH-A03	Collar, truss 1	90	15			
TWH-A04	East blade, truss 2	NM				
TWH-A05	West blade, truss 2	NM				
TWH-A06	Collar, truss 2	NM				
TWH-A07	East blade, truss 3	71	04			
TWH-A08	West blade, truss 3	121	26C			
TWH-A09	Collar, truss 3	88	18C			
TWH-A10	West blade, truss 4	NM				
TWH-A11	Collar, truss 4	88	24			
TWH-A12	East purlin, trusses 1–2	55	h/s			
TWH-A13	West purlin, trusses 3–4	55	h/s			
TWH-A14	West rafter, bay 1	56	05			
TWH-A15	West rafter, bay 4	99	07			

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from The Thatched Barn, Burncliffe, Tow House, Northumberland

\*NM = not measured

\*\*h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample
C = complete sapwood retained on sample, last measured ring is the felling date

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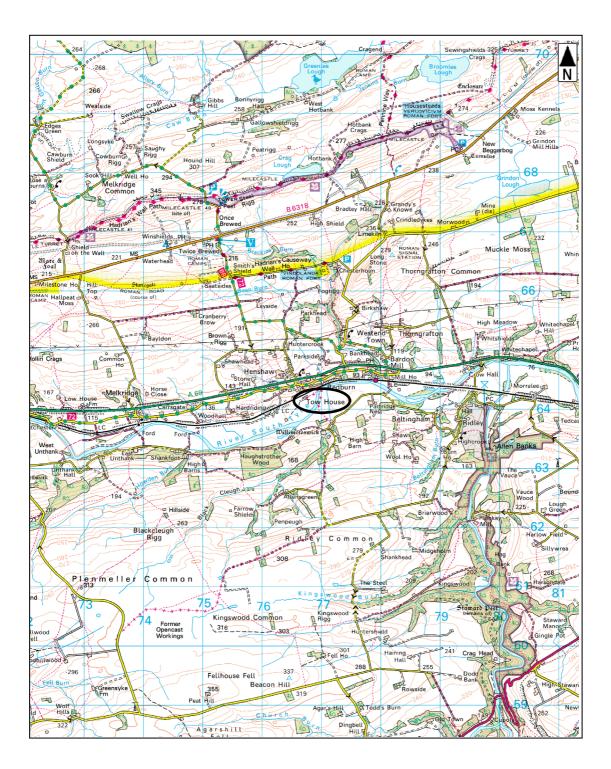


Figure 1: Map to show the location of the Thatched Barn, Burncliffe, Tow House, Northumberland



Figure 2: Truss 2, viewed from the south

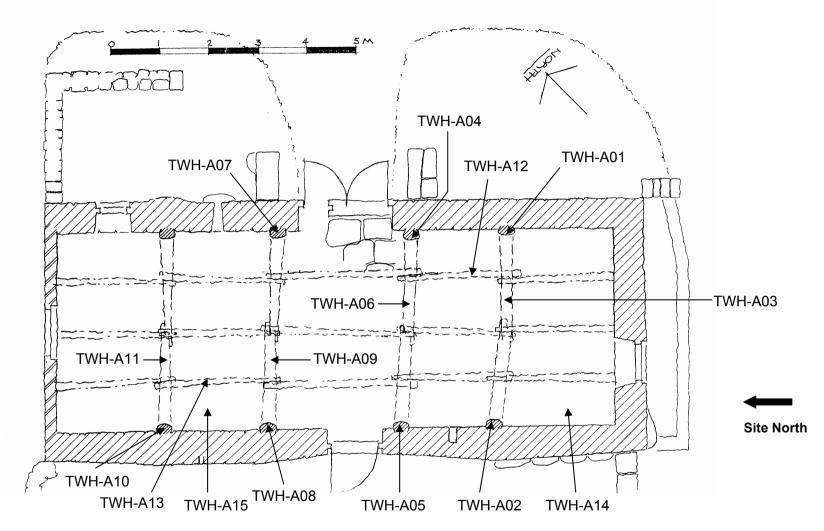


Figure 3: Ground plan (Kevin Doonan), showing the location of samples TWH-A01–15

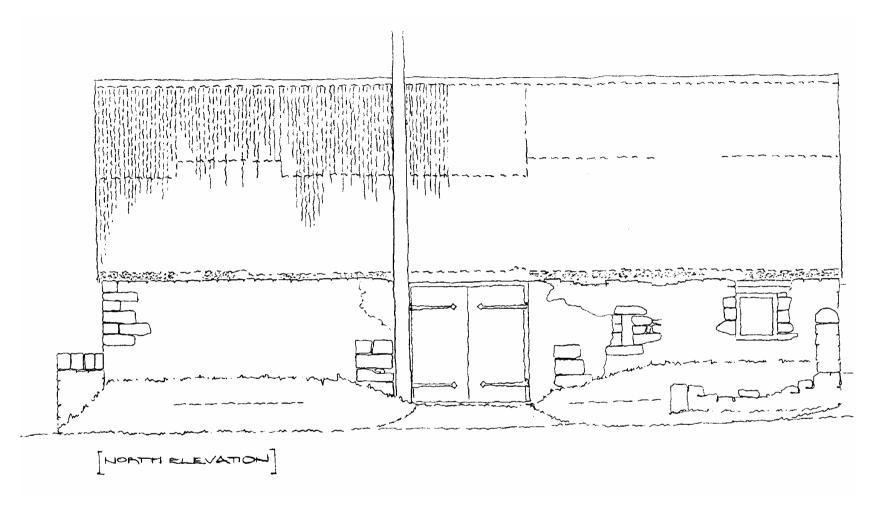


Figure 4: North elevation (Kevin Doonan)

1

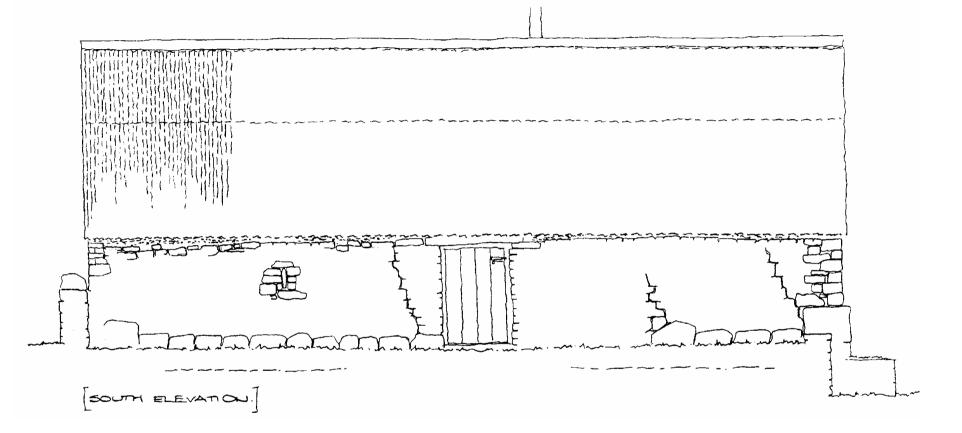


Figure 5: South elevation (Kevin Doonan)

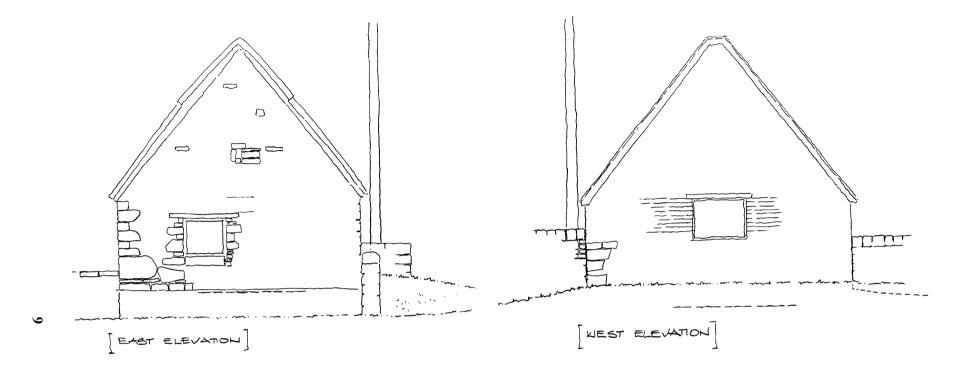


Figure 6: East and west elevations (Kevin Doonan)

Data of measured samples – measurements in 0.01mm units

TWH-A14A 53 194 138 212 259 248 231 146 139 145 148 154 155 91 132 181 233 220 181 174 108 135 99 97 106 117 141 72 83 147 97 118 95 90 48 52 48 46 54 49 60 71 48 45 50 60 53 101 101 110 91 116 132 89 TWH-A14B 51 232 123 190 183 129 189 276 260 217 138 109 129 110 144 152 98 101 181 172 173 163 159 110 130 90 83 86 104 117 84 70 151 104 111 93 107 50 47 50 57 52 56 71 67 55 65 58 49 62 88 116 TWH-A15A 99 155 146 113 97 88 116 150 186 77 72 93 120 123 149 102 122 137 139 172 98 79 78 115 91 109 114 91 88 72 87 84 100 93 75 84 83 116 70 88 81 83 64 75 75 58 75 72 70 59 58 64 80 98 149 120 84 138 164 153 150 148 133 95 82 75 86 73 71 55 44 62 71 42 35 32 51 50 51 39 59 40 54 77 57 59 70 34 53 104 90 81 66 86 67 73 42 47 35 54 TWH-A15B 99 156 147 118 87 94 118 147 181 88 57 100 119 122 152 109 117 129 149 166 100 81 77 109 86 111 120 86 95 63 97 76 105 89 79 76 93 105 87 75 92 72 71 71 78 65 67 76 64 59 59 60 80 104 150 113 81 141 152 142 137 138 134 93 64 69 91 68 68 59 36 55 83 35 32 37 47 49 57 43 42 36 55 80 61 66 72 31 53 103 102 76 75 82 74 72 40 48 33 59

# APPENDIX

# **Tree-Ring Dating**

The Principles of Tree-Ring Dating

Tree-ring dating, or *dendrochronology* as it is known, is discussed in some detail in the Laboratory's Monograph, 'An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Building' (Laxton and Litton 1988) and, Dendrochronology; Guidelines on Producing and Interpreting Dendrochronological Dates (English Heritage 1988). Here we will give the bare outlines. Each year an oak tree grows an extra ring on the outside of its trunk and all its branches just inside its bark. The *width* of this annual ring depends largely on the weather during the growing season, about April to October, and possibly also on the weather during the previous year. Good growing seasons give rise to relatively wide rings, poor ones to very narrow rings and average ones to relatively average ring widths. Since the climate is so variable from year to year, almost random-like, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure 1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

If the bark is still on the sample, as in Figure 1, then the date of the last ring will be the date of felling of the oak from which it was cut. There is much evidence that in medieval times oaks cut down for building purposes were used almost immediately, usually within the year or so (Rackham 1976). Hence if bark is present on several main timbers in a building, none of which appear reused or are later insertions, and if they all have the same date for their last ring, then we can be quite confident that this is the date of construction or soon after. If there is no bark on the sample, then we have to make an estimate of the felling date; how this is done is explained below.

The Practice of Tree-Ring Dating at the Nottingham Tree-Ring Dating Laboratory

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian the timbers in a building are inspected to try to ensure that those sampled are not reused or later insertions. Sampling is almost always done by coring into the timber, which has the great advantage that we can sample *in situ* timbers and those judged best to give the date of construction, or phase of construction if there is more than one in the building. The timbers to be sampled are also inspected to see how many rings they have. We normally look for timbers with at least 70 rings, and preferably more. With fewer rings than this, 50 for example, sequences of widths become difficult to match to a unique position within a master sequence of ring widths and so are difficult to date (Litton and Zainodin 1991). The cross-section of the rafter shown in Figure 2 has about 120 rings; about 20 of which are sapwood rings – the lighter rings on the outside. Similarly the core has just over 100 rings with a few sapwood rings.

To ensure that we are getting the date of the building as a whole, or the whole of a phase of construction if there is more than one, about 8 to 10 samples per phase are usually taken. Sometimes we take many more, especially if the construction is complicated. One reason for taking so many samples is that, in general, some will fail to give a date. There may be many reasons why a particular sequence of ring widths from a sample of timber fails to give a date even though others from the same building do. For example, a particular tree may have grown in an odd ecological niche, so odd indeed that the widths of its rings were determined by factors other than the local climate! In such circumstances it will be impossible to date a timber from this tree using the master sequence whose widths, we can assume, were predominantly determined by the local climate at the time.

Sampling is done by coring into the timber with a hollow corer attached to an electric drill and usually from its outer rings inwards towards where the centre of the tree, the pith, is judged to be. An illustration of a core is shown in Figure 2; it is about 15cm long and 1cm diameter. Great care has to be taken to ensure that as few as possible of the outer rings are lost in coring. This can be difficult as these outer rings are often very soft (see below on sapwood). Each sample is given a code which identifies uniquely which timber it comes from, which building it is from and where the building is located. For example, CRO-A06 is the sixth core taken from the first building (A) sampled by the Laboratory in Cropwell Bishop. Where it came from in that building will be shown in the sampling records and drawings. No structural damage is done to any timbers by coring, nor does it weaken them.

During the initial inspection of the building and its timbers the dendrochronologist may come to the conclusion that, as far as can be judged, none of the timbers have sufficient rings in them for dating purposes and may advise against sampling to save further unwarranted expense.

All sampling by the Laboratory is undertaken according to current Health and Safety Standards. The Laboratory's dendrochronologists are insured.



**Figure 1:** A wedge of oak from a tree felled in 1976. It shows the annual growth rings, one for each year from the innermost ring to the last ring on the outside just inside the bark. The year of each ring can be determined by counting back from the outside ring, which grew in 1976.



**Figure 2:** Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the left hand corner, the arrow is pointing to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S). Also a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil.



**Figure 3:** Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measure twice to ensure that an error has not been made. This type of apparatus is needed to process a large number of samples on a regular basis.



**Figure 4:** Three cores from timbers in a building. They come from trees growing at the same time. Notice that, although the sequences of widths look similar, they are not identical. This is typical.

- 2. **Measuring Ring Widths**. Each core is sanded down with a belt sander using medium-grit paper and then finished by hand with flourgrade-grit paper. The rings are then clearly visible and differentiated from each other with a result very much like that shown in Figure 2. The core is then mounted on a movable table below a microscope and the ring-widths measured individually from the innermost ring to the outermost. The widths are automatically recorded in a computer file as they are measured (see Fig 3).
- 3. *Cross-matching and Dating the Samples*. Because of the factors besides the local climate which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig 4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the *t*-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum tvalue among the *t*-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a *t*-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et al 1988; Howard et al 1984-1995).

This is illustrated in Figure 5 with timbers from one of the roofs of Lincoln Cathedral. Here four sequences of ring widths, LIN-C04, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the *bar-diagram*, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of C08 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual *t*-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the *t*-value between C45 and C08 is 5.6 and is the maximum found between these two among all the positions of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the ring-width sequences of the samples in a building and then to form an average from them. This average is called a *site sequence* of the building being dated and is illustrated in Figure 5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences of the four timbers. The site sequence width for each year is the average of the widths in each of the sample sequences which has a width for that year. Thus in Fig 5 if the widths shown are 0.8mm for C45, 0.2mm for C08, 0.7mm for C05, and 0.3mm for C04, then the corresponding width of the site sequence is the average of these, 0.55mm. The actual sequence of widths of this site sequence is stored on the computer. The reason for creating site sequences is that it is usually easier to date an average sequence of ring widths

with a master sequence than it is to date the individual component sample sequences separately.

The straightforward method of cross-matching several sample sequences with each other one at a time is called the 'maximal *t*-value' method. The actual method of cross-matching a group of sequences of ring-widths used in the Laboratory involves grouping and averaging the ring-width sequences and is called the 'Litton-Zainodin Grouping Procedure'. It is a modification of the straight forward method and was successfully developed and tested in the Laboratory and has been published (Litton and Zainodin 1991; Laxton *et al* 1988).

4. Estimating the Felling Date. As mentioned above, if the bark is present on a sample, then the date of its last ring is the date of the felling of its tree. Actually it could be the year after if it had been felled in the first three months before any new growth had started, but this is not too important a consideration in most cases. The actual bark may not be present on a timber in a building, though the dendrochronologist who is sampling can often see from its surface that only the bark is missing. In these cases the date of the last ring is still the date of felling.

Quite often some, though not all, of the original outer rings are missing on a timber. The outer rings on an oak, called *sapwood* rings, are usually lighter than the inner rings, the *heartwood*, and so are relatively easy to identify. For example, sapwood can be seen in the corner of the rafter and at the outer end of the core in Figure 2, both indicated by arrows. More importantly for dendrochronology, the sapwood is relatively soft and so liable to insect attack and wear and tear. The builder, therefore, may remove some of the sapwood for precisely these reasons. Nevertheless, if at least some of the sapwood rings are left on a sample, we will know that not too many rings have been lost since felling so that the date of the last ring on the sample is only a few years before the date of the original last ring on the tree, and so to the date of felling.

Various estimates have been made and used for the average number of sapwood rings in mature oak trees (English Heritage 1998). A fairly conservative range is between 15 and 50 and that this holds for 95% of mature oaks. This means, of course, that in a small number of cases there could be fewer than 15 and more than 50 sapwood rings. For example, the core CRO-A06 has only 9 sapwood rings and some have obviously been lost over time – either they were removed originally by the carpenter and/or they rotted away in the building and/or they were lost in the coring. It is not known exactly how many sapwood rings are missing, but using the above range the Laboratory would estimate between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and a maximum of 41 (=50-9). If the last ring of CRO-A06 has been dated to 1500, say, then the estimated felling-date range for the tree from which it came originally would be between 1506 and 1541. The Laboratory uses this estimate for sapwood in areas of England where it has no prior information. It also uses it when dealing with samples with very many rings, about 120 to the last heartwood ring. But in other areas of England where the Laboratory has accumulated a number of samples with complete sapwood, that is, no sapwood lost since felling, other estimates in place of the conservative range of 15 to 50 are used. In the East Midlands (Laxton et al 2001) and the east to the south down to Kent (Pearson 1995) where it has sampled extensively in the past, the Laboratory uses the shorter estimate of 15 to 35 sapwood rings in 95% of mature oaks growing in these parts. Since the sample CRO-A06 comes from a house in Cropwell

Bishop in the East Midlands, a better estimate of sapwood rings lost since felling is between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and 26 (=35-9) and the felling would be estimated to have taken place between 1506 and 1526, a shorter period than before. (Oak boards quite often come from the Baltic and in these cases the 95% confidence limits for sapwood are 9 to 36 (Howard *et al* 1992, 56)).

Even more precise estimates of the felling date and range can often be obtained using knowledge of a particular case and information gathered at the time of sampling. For example, at the time of sampling the dendrochronologist may have noted that the timber from which the core of Figure 2 was taken still had complete sapwood but that none of the soft sapwood rings were lost in coring. By measuring into the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 2 cm, a reasonable estimate can be made of the number of sapwood rings lost, say 12 to 15 rings in this case. By adding on 12 to 15 years to the date of the last ring on the sample a good tight estimate for the range of the felling date can be obtained, which is often better than the 15 to 35 years later we would have estimated without this observation. In the example, the felling is now estimated to have taken place between AD 1512 and 1515, which is much more precise than without this extra information.

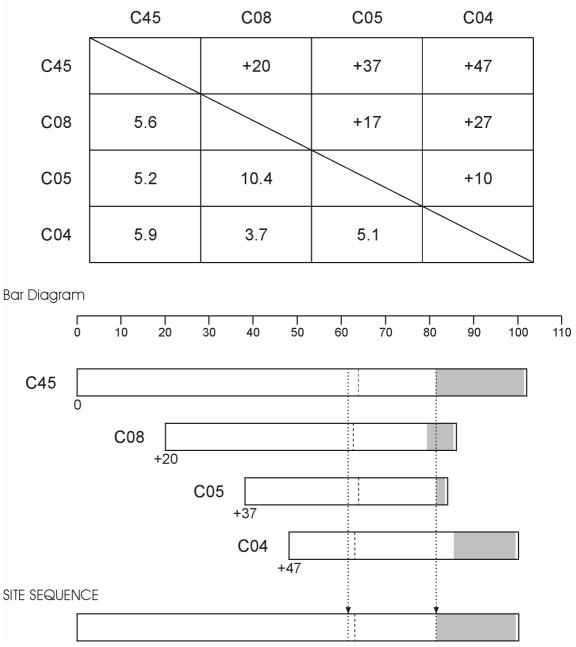
Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on a sample, but none of the heartwood rings are, then an estimate of the felling-date range is possible by adding on the full compliment of, say, 15 to 35 years to the date of the last heartwood ring (called the heartwood/sapwood boundary or transition ring and denoted H/S). Fortunately it is often easy for a trained dendrochronologist to identify this boundary on a timber. If a timber does not have its heartwood/sapwood boundary, then only a *post quem* date for felling is possible.

- 5. Estimating the Date of Construction. There is a considerable body of evidence collected by dendrochronologists over the years that oak timbers used in buildings were not seasoned in medieval or early modern times (English Heritage 1998 and Miles 1997, 50-55). Hence provided all the samples in a building have estimated felling-date ranges broadly in agreement with each other, so that they appear to have been felled as a group, then this should give an accurate estimate of the period when the structure was built, or soon after (Laxton *et al* 2001, figure 8 and pages 34-5 where 'associated groups of fellings' are discussed in detail). However, if there is any evidence of storing before use or if there is evidence the oak came from abroad (eg Baltic boards), then some allowance has to be made for this.
- 6. Master Chronological Sequences. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to cross-match it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In Fig 6 such a sequence is SHE-T, which came from a tree in Sherwood Forest which was blown down in a recent gale. After this other sequences which cross-match with it are added and gradually the sequence is 'pushed back in time' as far as the age of samples will allow. This process is illustrated in Fig 6. We have a master chronological sequence of widths for Nottinghamshire and East Midlands oak for each year from AD 882 to 1981. It is described in great detail in Laxton and Litton (1988), but the components it contains are shown here in the form of a bar diagram. As can be seen, it is well

replicated in that for each year in this period there are several sample sequences having widths for that year. The master is the average of these. This master can now be used to date oak from this area and from the surrounding areas where the climate is very similar to that in the East Midlands. The Laboratory has also constructed a master for Kent (Laxton and Litton 1989). The method the Laboratory uses to construct a master sequence, such as the East Midlands and Kent, is completely objective and uses the Litton-Zainodin grouping procedure (Laxton *et al* 1988). Other laboratories and individuals have constructed masters for other areas and have made them available. As well as these masters, local (dated) site chronologies can be used to date other buildings from nearby. The Laboratory has hundreds of these site sequences from many parts of England and Wales covering many short periods.

7. *Ring-width Indices.* Tree-ring dating can be done by cross-matching the ring widths themselves, as described above. However, it is advantageous to modify the widths first. Because different trees grow at different rates and because a young oak grows in a different way from an older oak, irrespective of the climate, the widths are first standardized before any matching between them is attempted. These standard widths are known as ring-width indices and were first used in dendrochronology by Baillie and Pilcher (1973). The exact form they take is explained in this paper and in the appendix of Laxton and Litton (1988) and is illustrated in the graphs in Fig 7. Here ring-widths are plotted vertically, one for each year of growth. In the upper sequence of (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller later growth from about 1900 onwards when the tree is maturing. A similar phenomenon can be observed in the lower sequence of (a) starting in 1835. In both the widths are also changing rapidly from year to year. The peaks are the wide rings and the troughs are the narrow rings corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequence of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the immature and mature growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain, that are associated with the common climatic signal. This makes cross-matching easier.

*t*-value/offset Matrix

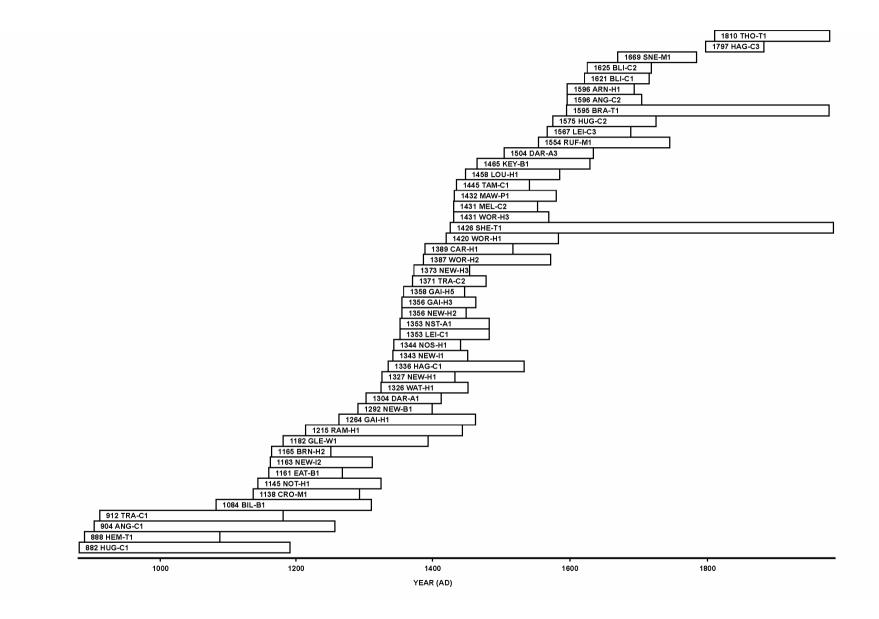


**Figure 5:** Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

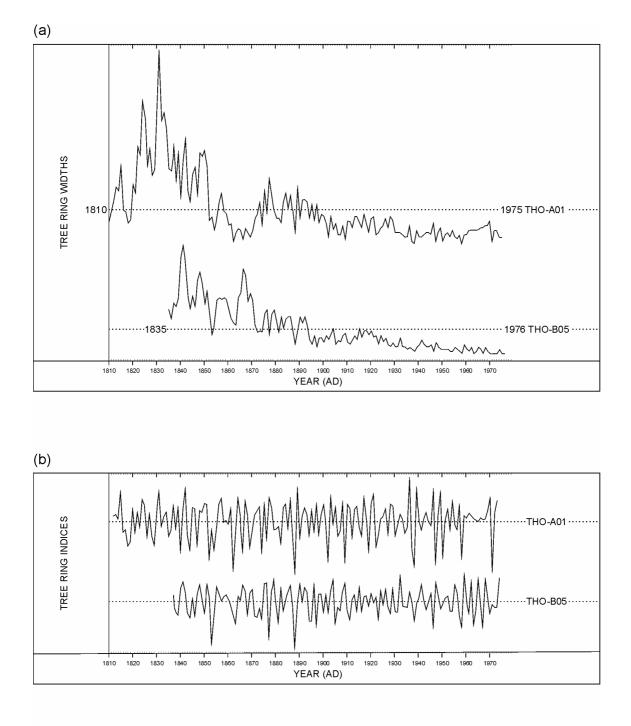
The *bar diagram* represents these sequences without the rings themselves. The length of the bar is proportional to the number of rings in the sequence. Here the four sequences are set at relative positions (*offsets*) to each other at which they have maximum correlation as measured by the *t*-values.

The *t*-value/offset matrix contains the maximum *t*-values below the diagonal and the offsets above it. Thus, the maximum *t*-value between C08 and C45 occurs at the offset of +20 rings and the *t*-value is then 5.6.

The *site sequence* is composed of the average of the corresponding widths, as illustrated with one width.



**Figure 6:** Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87



**Figure 7 (a):** The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree are wider than the later ones of the older tree in both sequences.

Figure 7 (b): The *Baillie-Pilcher* indices of the above widths. The growth-trends have been removed completely.

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