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ST NICHOLAS' CHURCH, POTTER HEIGHAM, NEAR NORWICH, NORFOLK TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard





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Research Department Report Series 2/2007

St Nicholas' Church, Potter Heigham, near Norwich, Norfolk Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers

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Summary

It is believed that the re-roofing of St Nicholas's Church was funded by a series of bequests made specifically for such work between AD 1479–1535. Analysis of samples obtained from the roof of the north aisle during recent (AD 2006) repair works, however, indicates it is likely that all the timbers sampled were cut as part of a single felling, which is likely to have taken place between AD 1533–58. It is possible, therefore, that whilst the money for the re-roofing was given as late as AD 1535, the work was not necessarily carried out immediately but possibly more than 20 years later.

Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

Author's Address

Nottingham Tree-Ring Dating Laboratory, 20 Hillcrest Grove, Sherwood, Nottingham, NG5 1FT. Telephone:0115 9603833. Email:alisonjarnold@hotmail.com, roberthoward10@hotmail.com

Introduction

The parish church of St Nicholas in Potter Heigham, Norfolk (TG 419 199, Figs 1 and 2), is believed to have its origins in the twelfth century, from which time the tower and chancel remain. The nave, and the north and south aisles, are believed to date to the thirteenth century, though the present roofs to these area are thought to date to c AD1500; Cattermole and Cotton (1983, 260) record that bequests for such works were made between AD 1479–1535, and one will, dated AD 1535, specifically mentions an aisle.

The nave is covered by a very fine hammerbeam roof (Fig 3) with wooden wall posts rising from stone corbels between the windows, the hammerbeams and the principal rafters being supported by arch braces. All such timbers are moulded and decorated, with the spandrels between the braces being filled with delicate wooden tracery.

The north and south aisle roofs comprise nine principal rafter trusses which are supported by aisle plates and arcade plates, these principal trusses alternating between those which are braced, (from the east end, frames 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9), and those which are not (frames 2, 4, 6, and 8), the braces themselves springing from wall posts. The braces springing from the posts of the nave walls are arched (the spandrels of at least the south aisle being filled with decorative tracery), while the braces springing from the posts of the outer walls of the aisle are kneed into the junction between the principal rafter and the wall post. All the principal rafters have roll moulding decoration, there being some moulding on the braces, wall posts, and plates as well. Between each principal rafter runs a single purlin, decorated in a similar manner, this supporting four or five plain common rafters to each bay. The roofs, views of which are given in Figures 4 a/b and 5, project beyond the arcade plates.

Sampling

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of the north aisle roof timbers were commissioned by English Heritage, the purpose of this being to inform a programme of grant-aided repairs. It was hoped that tree-ring dating would confirm the date of this roof and determine the date of any possible repairs. It was anticipated that the dating of this roof might coincide with the dates of the known bequests.

Thus, from the material available a total of 12 samples was obtained by coring. Each sample was given the code PTH-A (for Potter Heigham, site 'A') and numbered 01–12. The positions of these samples are marked on plans made by Nicholas Warns, Architects, Norwich, and provided by English Heritage. These are reproduced here as Figures 6a/b. Details of the samples are given in Table 1. In this Table the bays, trusses and other timbers have been located and numbered from east to west following the schema on the drawings provided

The Laboratory would like to take this opportunity to thank Nicholas Warns for his enthusiasm and help with this programme of tree-ring analysis and for the use of his drawings and plans. We would also like to thank Cathy Tyers for her help in cross-matching sample data against data held by the Sheffield Dendrochronology Laboratory.

<u>Analysis</u>

The 12 samples obtained were prepared by sanding and polishing and their annual growthrings were measured (the data of these measurements are given at the end of this report). The data of these 12 samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see appendix), allowing four groups to be formed accounting for 10 of the 12 samples obtained (although the *t*-values between the individual components of site chronology PTHASQ02 are slightly below the usual threshold, the cross-matching between them can be confirmed by the fact that the three constituent samples can be dated individually. The position of the samples in each of the four site chronologies is shown in the bar diagrams Figures 7–10.

Each of the four site chronologies was then compared to an extensive series of reference chronologies for oak, this indicating cross-matches and dating for three of them. The four site chronologies were also compared with the two remaining ungrouped samples, but there was no satisfactory cross-matching. Both the remaining ungrouped samples were compared individually with the reference chronologies but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching and these two samples must remain undated. This analysis can be summarised below.

Chronology/ sample	Number of samples	Number of rings	Date span (where dated)
PTHASQ01	3	124	AD 1356–1479
PTHASQ02	3	65	AD 1456–1520
PTHASQ03	2	92	AD 1425–1516
PTHASQ04	2	66	undated
PTH-A09	1	55	undated
PTH-A10	1	56	undated

Interpretation

Analysis by dendrochronology of material from the roof of the north aisle of St Nicholas' Church has produced four site chronologies, accounting for 10 of the 12 samples obtained. Three of these site chronologies, accounting for eight samples, can be dated. One other site chronology remains undated, and two further samples remain ungrouped and undated.

Given the moulded and heavily squared nature of the beams in this roof, none of the timbers retain complete sapwood and thus their precise felling dates cannot be determined. Four of the eight dated samples do, however, retain the heartwood/sapwood boundary, the average date of this transition being AD 1518. The 95% confidence limit for the amount of sapwood the trees might have had is in the range 15–40 rings, such a figure giving the timbers represented an estimated felling date in the range AD 1533–58.

It is likely that all the dated timbers were felled at the same time as part of a single felling operation. This probability is likely despite three of the dated samples, POT-A03, H04, and H08, having first and last measured ring dates that are somewhat earlier than those seen on the other five dated samples, as may be seen in the bar diagram Figure 11, which shows the relative position of all eight dated samples. This difference is possibly due to way that the beams represented by the three earlier samples, all curved braces, have been cut from the original timber, all three probably being cut from near the middle of the same tree (*t*-values as high as 12.0 and 10.6 being found between these samples), whilst the others beams have been cut from the outer portions of their respective trees. It is almost certain that the timbers represented by samples POT-A06 and A07 are derived from the same tree as each other, these samples cross-matching with a *t*-value of 18.3.

Conclusion

It would appear likely, therefore, that the roof of the north aisle is composed of timbers all of which were cut as part of a single programme of felling which is likely to have taken place sometime between AD 1533–58. This is perhaps slightly later than might have been expected, given that bequests were made to the church for such works between AD 1479 and AD 1535. It thus might appear that whilst the money was donated over a period of time, up to as late as AD 1535, it is possible that the work was not actually carried out until some time later, possibly 20 or more years later, with the donations made in earlier years being used to re-roof the nave and the south aisle first. Dendrochronological investigation of the roofs of the nave and south aisle may be able to address whether these three areas are likely to have been re-roofed at the same time, or sequentially over a period of a few years.

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Sample number	Sample location	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
PTH-A01	North aisle plate bay A	64	h/s	AD 1456	AD 1519	AD 1519
PTH-A02	Common rafter 5, bay A	54	h/s	AD 1467	AD 1520	AD 1520
PTH-A03	South brace, truss 3	120	no h/s	AD 1360		AD 1479
PTH-A04	South brace, truss 5	119	no h/s	AD 1356		AD 1474
PTH-A05	Common rafter 4, bay D	56	no h/s	AD 1459		AD 1514
PTH-A06	North aisle plate, bay F	90	h/s	AD 1426	AD 1515	AD 1515
PTH-A07	North wall post, truss 7	92	h/s	AD 1425	AD 1516	AD 1516
PTH-A08	North brace, truss 7	92	no h/s	AD 1372		AD 1463
PTH-A09	South brace, truss 7	55	no h/s			
PTH-A10	North aisle plate, bay G	56	no h/s			
PTH-A11	Principal rafter, truss 8	62	h/s			
PTH-A12	Common rafter 3, bay H	63	no h/s			

Table 1: Details of samples from the north aisle roof, St Nicholas' Church, Potter Heigham, Norfolk

*h/s = the last ring on the sample is the heartwood/sapwood boundary

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology PTHASQ01 and relevant reference

 chronologies when first ring date is AD 1356 and last ring date is AD 1479

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t-</i> value	
England East Anglia	AD 406–2001	7.7	(Tyers pers comm 2004)
England, Essex	AD 663–2001	7.2	(Tyers pers comm 2004)
Church House, Edenbridge, Kent	AD 1377–1538	6.6	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2000)
Chicksands Priory, Beds	AD 1175–1541	6.1	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1998)
Sutton House, Hackney, London	AD 1319–1534	5.6	(Tyers 1991)
England London 1659	AD 413–1994	5.4	(Tyers pers comm 2004)
England Kent	AD 890–1780	5.3	(Tyers pers comm 2004)
Thaxted Church, Essex	AD 1345–1526	5.2	(Tyers 1990)

Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology PTHASQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1456 and last ring date is AD 1520

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t-</i> value		
Post-mill, Drinkstone, Suffolk	AD 1464–1586	8.4	(Bridge 2001a)	
Otley Hall, Suffolk	AD 1380–1555	6.0	(Tyers 2000)	
England East Anglia	AD 406–2001	5.8	(Tyers pers comm 2004)	
Chiddingly Place, East Sussex	AD 1324–1576	5.6	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2003)	
South-east England	AD 435–1811	5.5	(Tyers pers comm 2004)	
Priory Barn, Little Wymondly, Herts	AD 1450–1540	5.3	(Bridge 2001b)	
Fiddleford Manor, Sturminster	AD 1433–1553	5.3	(Bridge 2003)	
Newton, Dorset				
St Mary's Church, Attleborough,	AD 1418–1514	5.3	(Bridge 2004a)	
Norfolk				

Table 4: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology PTHASQ03 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1425 and last ring date is AD 1516

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t-</i> value	
Abbas Hall, Great Cornard, Suffolk	AD 1421–1548	6.6	(Bridge 2000)
England East Anglia	AD 406–2001	5.9	(Tyers pers comm 2004)
Thames foreshore, Richmond, London	AD 1358–1584	5.3	(Hillam 1997)
St Mary's Church, Strethall, Essex	AD 1347–1511	5.1	(Bridge 2004b)
All Saints Church, Little Totham, Essex	AD 1380–1517	5.0	(Tyers 1996)
Manningtree, Essex	AD 1384–1534	5.0	(Loader pers comm 1996)
White Colne, Essex	AD 1439–1516	5.0	(Tyers pers comm 2002)
Mary Rose timbers, Hants	AD 1372–1535	4.9	(Bridge and Dobbs 1996)



Figure 1: Location of Potter Heigham, Norfolk.

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Figure 2: Location of St Nicholas' Church, Potter Heigham.

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Figure 3: View of the nave roof viewed from the east looking west



Figure 4a/b: View of the roof of the north aisle, from the west looking east, showing the braces at alternate trusses (top) and the common rafters (below)



Figure 5: View of the south aisle roof looking west to east













Figure 6b: Cross sections through trusses to show sampled timbers (viewed from the west looking east) (after Nicholas Warns Architects Ltd, Norwich)









white bars = heartwood rings

h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample



Figure 10: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology PTHASQ04

white bars = heartwood rings

h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample



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Figure 11: Bar diagram showing the relative positions of all dated samples

white bars = heartwood rings

h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample

Data of measured samples – measurements in 0.01 mm units

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.



Appendix - 5

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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