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Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers from Halton Castle, near Corbridge, Northumberland

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R E Howard¹, Dr R R Laxton² and Dr C D Litton²

Summary

Sixteen samples were obtained from three potential roof phases of the north range of Halton Castle, a potential early fourteenth-century phase, a possible late medieval phase and a sixteenth- or seventeenth-century phase. Only twelve of these samples were analysed, the remaining four samples having too few rings.

This analysis produced two site chronologies. The first site chronology, consisting of eight samples all from the suggested sixteenth- or seventeenth-century phase, has 164 rings spanning the period AD 1396 - AD 1559. Interpretation of the sapwood would indicate that all such timbers were felled in AD 1559.

A second site chronology consisting of three samples from the possible late medieval phase has 79 rings. This site chronology could not be dated.

The remaining single sample, from the potential early fourteenth-century phase, could not be dated either.

The samples from two of the three potential phases have not been dated by dendrochronology. The fact that the three groups of samples fail to cross-match with each other lends some support, albeit weak, to the archaeological interpretation. Certainly the results do not contradict it.

Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM HALTON CASTLE, NEAR CORBRIDGE, NORTHUMBERLAND

Introduction

The present house at Halton Castle is an assemblage of elements of widely differing dates. It stands some 500m south of Hadrian's Wall and about 3.5km north of Corbridge (NY 977678; Fig 1). The site has undergone several interpretations most notably by Borne and Dixon (1978) and more recently by Peter Ryder (1999 unpubl). The older parts of the house are now at the rear of the premises and are T-shaped in plan. They comprise a north range, running east-west, with a short block (the link block) joining it to a four-storey tower to the south. It is believed that the majority of the north range, particularly the western and upper portions, was built c AD 1300. (A plan of the site is given in Figure 2).

In this early fourteenth-century form the north range appears to have been the principal part of the house containing a central hall with service rooms to the west and a solar at the eastern end. The lower portions of the eastern end are now represented only by footings and a plinth. This plinth is on a slightly different alignment than the rest of the north range and, having thirteenth-century characteristics, appears earlier than the extant fabric. It is suggested by Peter Ryder that this might indicate that the present hall and solar were pre-dated by some earlier structure which was rebuilt and extended westwards in c AD 1300.

It is believed that the tower was built c AD 1400. On the east side of the tower is what has been termed the "Mansion" a five-bay two-storeyed block forming, in effect, a self contained house. This part of the house was erected c AD 1696. The building has undergone substantial twentieth-century repairs (Fig 2) flowing a fire.

During AD 1997 the attics of the north range, the possible earliest phase of the building, were refurbished and its roof structure temporarily exposed. This allowed for the archaeological recording of the multi-phase timberwork to be undertaken and it is with these roof timbers that this report is concerned. Also in AD 1997 the roof of the tower was repaired more fully exposing the timber-work here too.

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating was commissioned by English Heritage in February AD 2001. The purpose of this was to establish if possible a chronology for the development of the site and inform possible future work. Analysis at Halton Castle would also provide information on the wider study of fortified house in Northumberland and with the development of a regional roof typology.

The Laboratory would like to take this opportunity to thank Sir and Lady Hugh Blackett, for allowing sampling, for their help and their enthusiasm for the project. We would also like to thank Peter Ryder for help in the interpretation of the roof and for providing a copy of his survey report, much of which is used here. We would also like to thank Martin Roberts of English Heritage North East Region for arranging access and for assisting during sampling.

The north range roof

The roof structure of the north range is of five bays with four trusses, described here from west to east. A plan of the roof showing the proposed phasing is provided in Figure 3, with the three non-modern trusses being shown individually in Figures 4a-c. Trusses 1 and 2 are of simple principal-rafter form, the principals morticed and pegged at the apex, with slightly arched collars and two levels of purlins to each slope; the lower purlins on each slope are modern replacements. Between trusses 1 and 2 runs a diagonally set ridge-beam. The common rafters in the first two bays were not exposed at the time of sampling, being hidden beneath the modern ceiling. It is believed that trusses 1 and 2 represent what is described in the English Heritage brief as phase 3 timbers, possibly dating to the sixteenth or seventeenth centuries.

The third bay contains three pairs of common-rafter frames with collars (frames 1, 3, and 4 in Figure 3), plus a fourth single rafter to the south side (frame 2), its northern counterpart having been lost some time in the past. The southern rafter of frame 4 is not shown in figure 3 because it has been cut at purlin level and does not exist at the plan level. The feet of the rafters are designated "F" in Figure 3. These common rafters are described as being of heavy flat section and according to the details provided may represent phase 1 timbers, dating to c AD 1300.

Truss 3 is believed to be the oldest surviving main truss, and is of truncated principal form with a collar. The tie beam is cambered and has braces to the principals as well as a central upright between tiebeam and collar. The south principal of truss 3 has a backing rafter attached to it, the north principal does not. The purlins and common rafters of bay three were not visible at the time of sampling. According to the details given this represents phase 2 of the roof of the northern range and is believed to be late medieval in date. Roofs such as this are considered a great rarity in Northumberland, especially in a secular context (Roberts *et al* 1999). Although fragmentary, Peter Ryder considers Halton to be potentially one of the earliest in this group.

Bays 4 and 5 again contain double purlins to both slopes, and several pairs of common rafters. All these are modern softwood replacements.

Sampling

All the visible and accessible oak timbers in the roof of the north range were examined as to their suitability for tree-ring analysis. There appeared to be considerable variation between the timbers of the supposed constructional phases. All timbers associated with trusses 1 and 2, that is all possible phase 3 timbers, appeared to have sufficient rings.

The timbers of the common-rafter frames of bay 3, that is the potential phase 1 timbers, all appeared to have very few rings. This made them likely to be unsuitable for analysis by tree-ring dating as any results obtained would be unreliable and highly misleading. However, given the possible antiquity and importance of the building a few of the more promising timbers were sampled.

The timbers of principal truss 3, potential phase 2, appeared marginal, having possibly only just sufficient rings for satisfactory analysis.

The timbers of the tower ceiling were also examined, all be it, due to their height, from a distance. While they do appear to be suitable for analysis by tree-ring dating gaining access to them would require the clearing of the room of furniture and the erection of a scaffolding tower. Given the nature of this part of the building this would require considerable disruption and effort. It was thus not possible to sample them at this time.

Thus, from the timbers available a total of sixteen core samples was taken. Each sample was given the code HTC-A (for Halton Castle, site "A"), and numbered 01 - 16. Eight samples, HTC-A01 - 08, were obtained from trusses 1 and 2, the phase 3 timbers, with a further four samples, HTC-A09 - 12, being taken from the common-rafter frames of bay 3, the phase 1 timbers. Four samples, HTC-A13 - 16, were then obtained from the most suitable timbers of truss 3, the phase 2 timbers. This is a lower number of samples than might usually be taken from a building with this many sections or phases, but was a consequence of the lack of suitable timbers.

The positions of these samples are marked on drawings made by Peter Ryder and provided by English Heritage, reproduced here as Figures 4a-d. Details of the samples are given in Table 1.

Analysis

Each of the sixteen samples was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this stage that a number of these had indeed too few rings, between 25 - 35, for satisfactory analysis, and they were rejected. Most of these timbers are from the common-rafter frames of bay 3 (phase 1 timbers), with one sample being from truss 3 (phase 2

timbers), see Table 1. The ring-width sequences of the remaining twelve samples were then measured and analysed.

At a minimum *t*-value of 4.5 two groups of samples formed. All eight samples from trusses 1 and 2 cross-matched with each other at relative positions as shown in the bar diagram Figure 5. The growth-ring widths of these eight samples were combined at these relative off-set positions to form HTCASQ01, a site chronology of 164 rings. Site chronology HTCASQ01 was compared with a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak, giving it a first ring date of AD 1396 and a last measured ring date of AD 1559. Evidence for this dating is given in the *t*-values of Table 2.

Two of the samples, HTC-A04 and HTC-A08, in site chronology HTCASQ01 retain complete sapwood, that is, they have the last growth-ring produced by the trees from which they were taken, before they were felled. In each case the last measured complete sapwood ring is the same, AD 1559. Given that the relative positions of the heartwood/sapwood boundaries on all the other samples in site chronology HTCASQ01 are consistent with a group of timbers having a single felling date, it is estimated that AD 1559 is the felling date of all the timbers represented.

The second group to form, at a *t*-value of 4.5, consisted of two samples, HTC-A14 and A16, both from truss 3. If the cross-matching value is reduced to t=4.0, slightly lower than usual minimum value for the Laboratory, but still above the accepted minimum of t=3.5, a third sample from truss 3, HTC-A13, can be combined with the first two. The cross-matching positions of these three samples are shown in Figure 6.

Given that the relative positions of the heartwood/sapwood boundaries on the three samples are consistent with a group of timbers having a single felling date, and that all three samples are from timbers of the same potential phase, the samples were combined at these relative positions to form HTCASQ02, a site chronology of 79 rings. Site chronology HTCASQ02 was compared with a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak but there was no satisfactory cross-matching at any position and these timbers must remain undated.

For the purpose of checking each site sequence was compared with the other, and with the remaining single ungrouped sample, HTC-A09, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. Given that sample HTC-A09 has relatively few rings, less than the usual accepted minimum of 54 rings required for reliable analysis, it was not compared individually with the reference chronologies.

Interpretation and conclusion

Analysis by dendrochronology has produced two site chronologies from three potential phases of timber felling. It would appear that the timbers of trusses 1 and 2 (represented by site chronology HTCASQ01) are of a single phase, and that these were all felled in AD 1559. Given that a sixteenth- or seventeenth-century date was proposed for this phase of the roof, such a felling date might be considered slightly earlier than expected.

A second site chronology (HTCASQ02) was created from the timbers of truss 3, for which a late medieval date was proposed. This site chronology cannot be dated and the date for these timbers thus remains unknown. It cannot be shown on the basis of tree-ring analysis alone that this phase of timber is different to that of the timbers from trusses 1 and 2, or indeed the common rafter frames of bay 3. However, the lack of cross-matching between samples from them may be considered weak evidence supporting the archaeological interpretation that three phases of construction are represented in the timbers of the north range roof.

The tree-ring analysis would certainly support the view that each of the three timbers in truss 3 represented by this site chronology are of a similar source and date. Indeed, the exceptionally high *t*-values between some of the eight samples HTC-A01 - A08, and between A14 and A16 suggests that they may be from trees growing adjacent to each other in the same woods and that some timbers may be from the same tree. Should work be undertaken on the ceiling or roof of the tower at any time in the future it would certainly be worth having a closer inspection of the timbers.

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Sample number	Sample location Phase 3 timbers	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
HTC-A01 HTC-A02 HTC-A03 HTC-A04 HTC-A05 HTC-A06 HTC-A07 HTC-A08	South principal rafter, truss 1 North principal rafter, truss 1 Collar, truss 1 North purlin, truss 1 – west gable South principal rafter, truss 2 North principal rafter, truss 2 Collar, truss 2 South purlin, truss 1 – 2	107 83 76 150 118 92 128 156	h/s 16 h/s 34C 10 16 h/s 34C	AD 1428 AD 1468 AD 1444 AD 1410 AD 1408 AD 1451 AD 1396 AD 1404	 AD 1534 AD 1534 AD 1519 AD 1525 AD 1515 AD 1526 AD 1523 AD 1525 	 AD 1534 AD 1550 AD 1519 AD 1559 AD 1525 AD 1542 AD 1523 AD 1559
	Phase 1 timbers					
HTC-A09 HTC-A10 HTC-A11 HTC-A12	South common rafter, frame 2 South common rafter, frame 3 Collar, frame 3 Collar, frame 4	50 nm nm nm	5 			
	Phase 2 timbers					
HTC-A13 HTC-A14 HTC-A15 HTC-A16	North principal rafter, truss 3 South backing rafter, truss 3 Collar, truss 3 South principal rafter, truss 3	57 77 nm 56	13 11 12	 	 	

Table 1: Details of samples from Halton Castle, near Corbridge, Northumberland

h/s = the heartwood/sapwood boundary is the last ring on the sample C = complete sapwood retained on sample, last measured ring date is the felling date of the timber

nm = sample not measured

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology HTCASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1396 and last ring date is AD 1559

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	t-value	
East Midlands	AD 882 - 1981	5.9	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
England	AD 401 - 1981	7.2	(Baillie and Pilcher 1982 unpubl)
Wales and West Midlands	AD 1341 - 1636	6.8	(Siebenlist-Kerner 1978)
Nether Levens Hall, Cumbria	AD 1395-1541	6.8	(Howard et al 1991)
35 The Close, Newcastle	AD 1365 - 1513	6.7	(Howard et al 1991)
1-2 The College, Durham	AD 1364 - 1531	8.5	(Howard et al 1992)
Escomb Church, Co Durham	AD 1398 - 1469	6.8	(Howard et al 1994)
Kepier Hospital, Durham	AD 1304 - 1522	5.4	(Howard et al 1996)

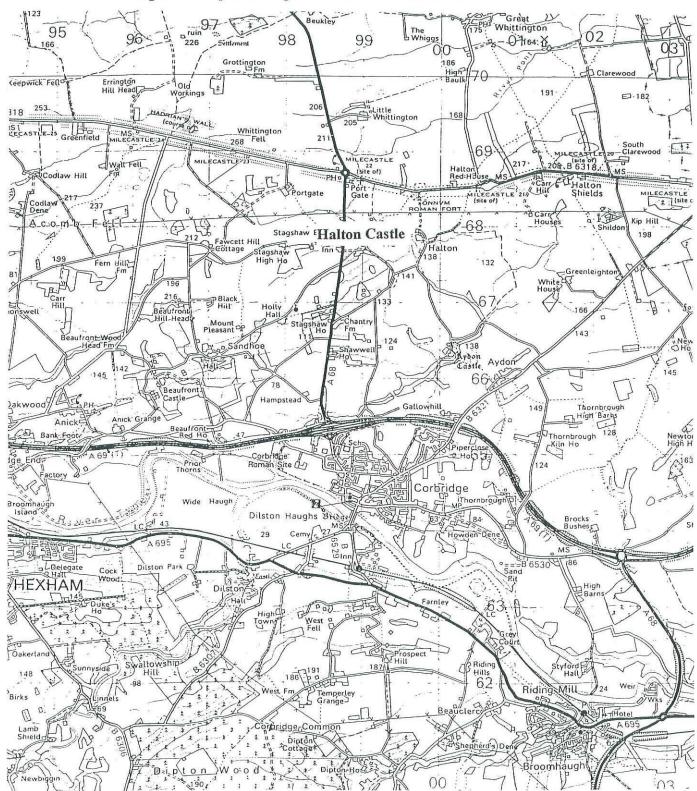


Figure 1: Map to show general location of Halton Castle

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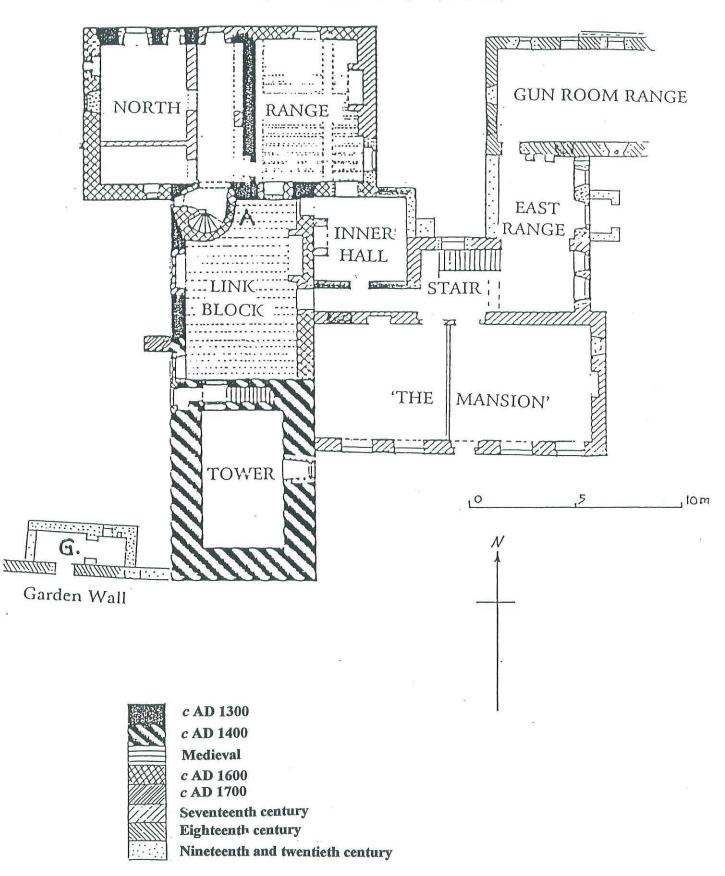


Figure 2: Plan of Halton Castle showing proposed phases (after Borne and Dixon (1978) amended)

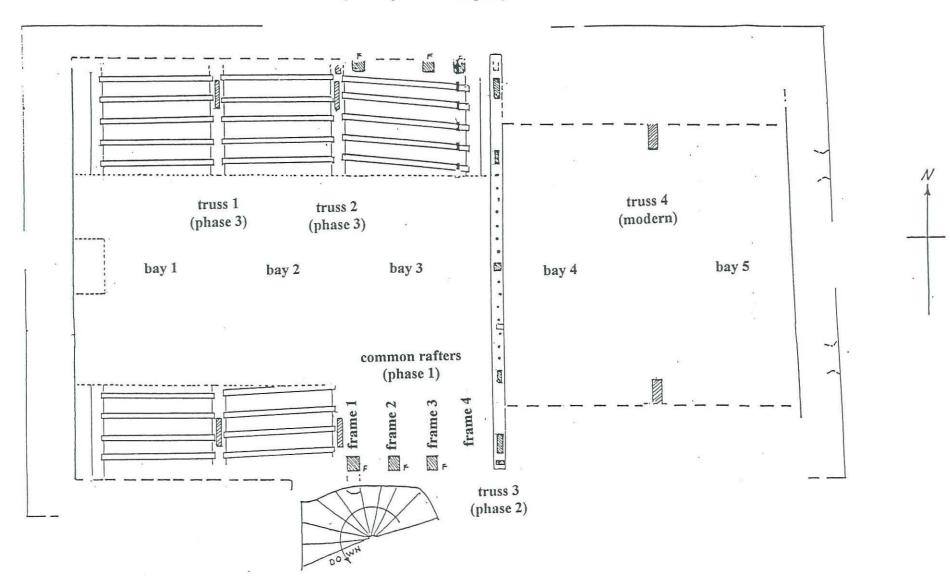


Figure 3: Plan of the timbers of the north range roof with suggested phases (after Ryder 1999 unpubl)

Figure 4a: Truss 1 showing sample locations (viewed from the west)

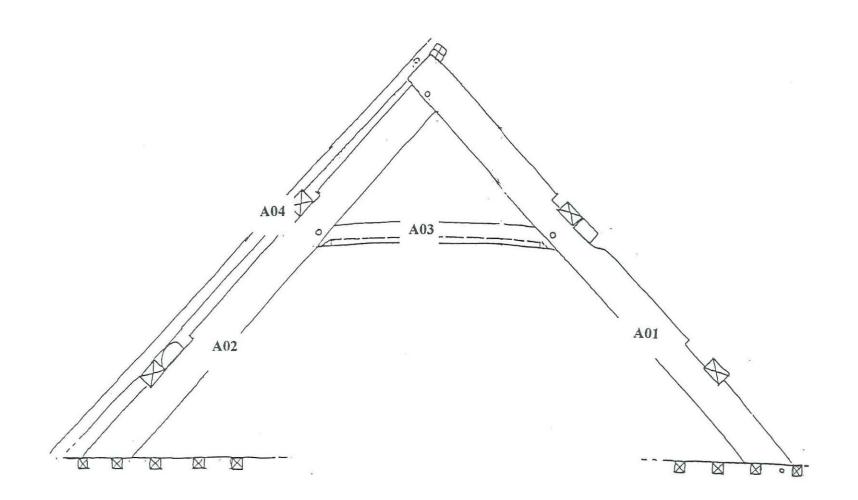
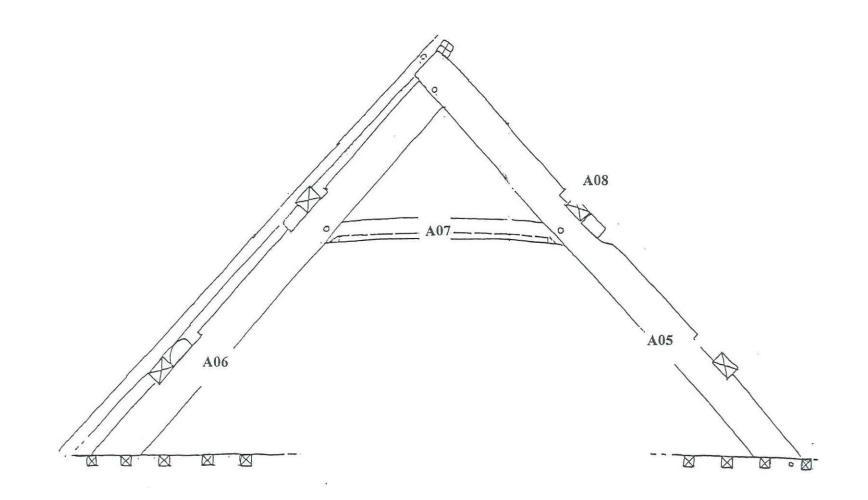
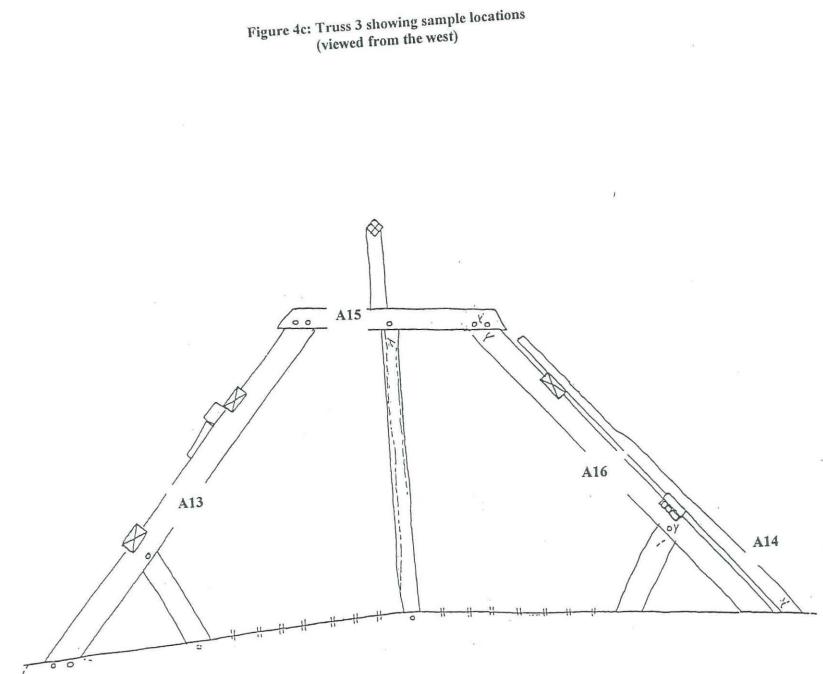


Figure 4b: Truss 2 showing sample locations (viewed from the west)



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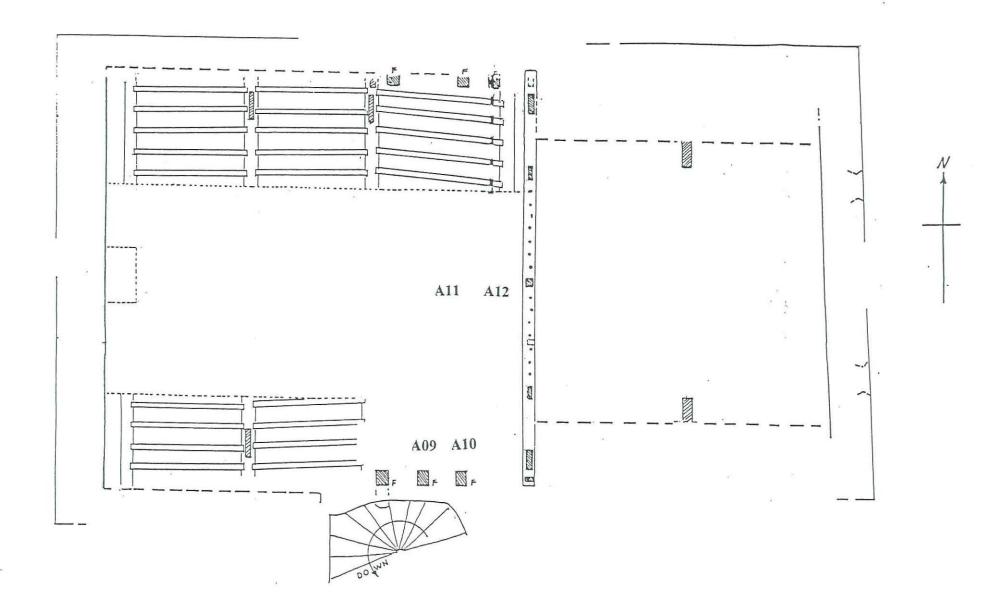


Figure 4d: Drawing to show location of samples from the common rafter frames

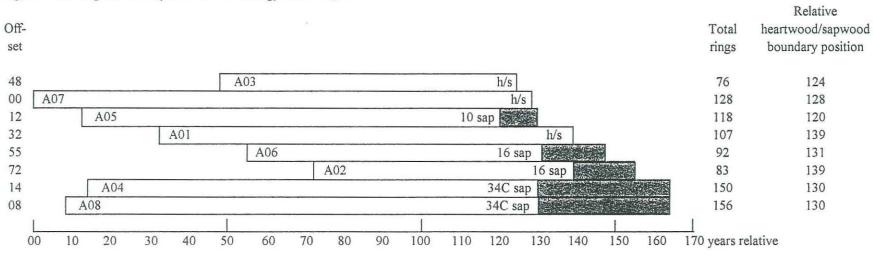
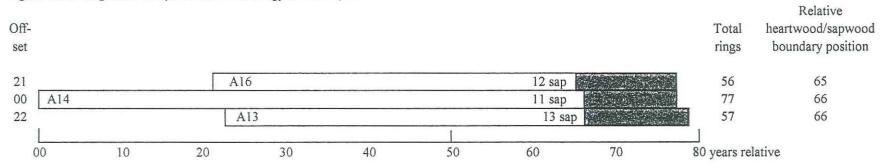


Figure 5: Bar diagram of samples in site chronology HTCASQ01

White bars = heartwood rings, shaded areas = sapwood rings h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample C = complete sapwood retained on the sample



*

Figure 6: Bar diagram of samples in site chronology HTCASQ02

White bars = heartwood rings, shaded areas = sapwood rings

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Data of measured samples - measurements in 0.01 mm units

HTC-A01A 107

HTC-A16B 56

200 341 340 315 300 329 290 191 149 174 229 208 173 234 250 258 261 275 239 259 200 175 204 227 226 247 224 237 236 194 169 108 70 131 140 214 246 156 148 162 180 174 205 178 241 263 222 234 203 260 217 173 169 154 177 231

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 Buildings' (Laxton and Litton 1988b) and, for example, in Tree-Ring Dating and Archaeology (Baillie 1982) or A Slice Through Time (Baillie 1995). 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, 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 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. 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 University of Nottingham Tree-Ring dating Laboratory

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian we inspect the timbers in a building 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. Similarly the core has just over 100 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.

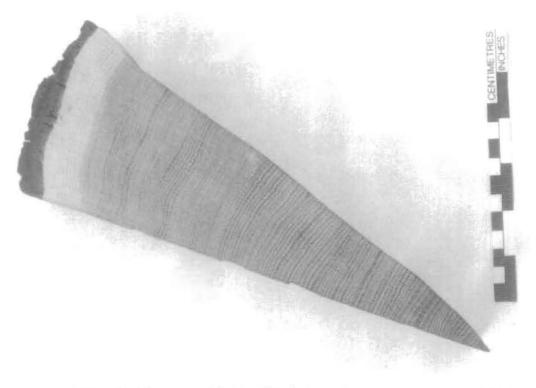


Fig 1. A wedge of oak from a tree felled in 1976. It shows the annual growth rings, one for each year from the innermost ring to the last ring on the outside just inside the bark. The year of each ring can be determined by counting back from the outside ring, which grew in 1976.

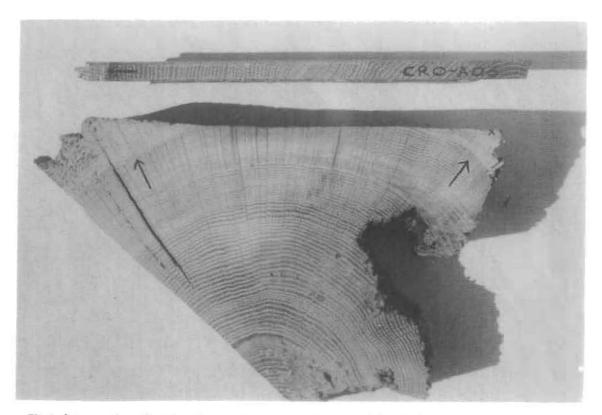


Fig 2. Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the corners, the arrow is pointing to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S). Also a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil.

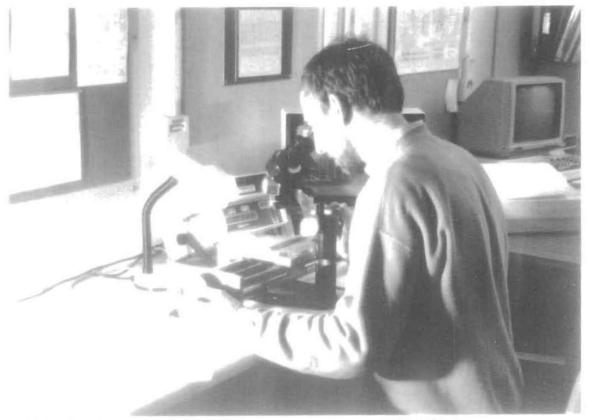


Fig 3. Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measured twice to ensure that an error has not been made. This type of apparatus is needed to process a large number of samples on a regular basis.

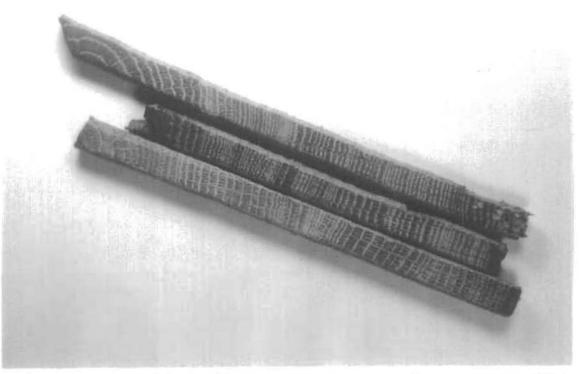


Fig 4. Three cores from timbers in a building. They come from trees growing at the same time. Notice that, although the sequences of widths look similar, they are not identical. This is typical.

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. 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 inspecton 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 is insured with the CBA.

- 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 t-value 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 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton *et al* 1988a,b; Howard *et al* 1984 1995).

This is illustrated in Fig 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. C08 matches C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of 45, 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 between these two whatever the position of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the 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 Fig 5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences from 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. 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. average sequence of ring widths with a master sequence than it is to date the individual component sample sequences separately.

This 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'. This was developed and tested in the Laboratory and has been published (Litton and Zainodin 1991; Laxton *et al* 1988a). To illustrate the difference between the two approaches with the above example, consider sequences C08 and C05. They are the most similar pair with a t-value of 10.4. Therefore, these two are first averaged with the first ring of C05 at +17 rings relative to C08 (the offset at which they match each other). This average sequence is then used in place of the individual sequences C08 and C05. The cross-matching continues in this way gradually building up averages at each stage eventually to form the site sequence.

4. Estimating the Felling Date. 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, they can be seen in two upper corners of the rafter and at the outer end of the core in Figure 2. 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 for 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. Thus in these circumstances the date of the present last ring is at least close to the date of the original last ring on the tree, and so to the date of felling.

Various estimates have been made for the average number of sapwood rings in a mature oak. One estimate is 30 rings, based on data from living oaks. So, in the case of the core in Figure 2 where 9 sapwood rings remain, this would give an estimate for the felling date of 21 (= 30 - 9) years later than of the date of the last ring on the core. Actually, it is better in these situations to give an estimated range for the felling date. Another estimate is that in 95% of mature oaks there are between 15 and 50 sapwood rings. So in this example this would mean that the felling took place between 6 (= 15 - 9) and 41 (= 50 - 9) years after the date of the last ring on the core and is expected to be right in at least 95% of the cases (Hughes *et al* 1981; see also Hillam *et al* 1987).

Data from the Laboratory has shown that when sequences are considered together in groups, rather than separately, the estimates for the number of sapwood can be put at between 15 and 40 rings in 95% of the cases with the expected number being 25 rings. We would use these estimates, for example, in calculating the range for the common felling date of the four sequences from Lincoln Cathedral using the average position of the heartwood/sapwood boundary (Fig 5). These new estimates are now used by us in all our publications except for timbers from Kent and Nottinghamshire where 25 and between 15 to 35 sapwood rings, respectively, is used instead (Pearson 1995).

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. Sapwood rings were only lost in coring, because of their softness By measuring in the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 2 cm., a reasonable estimate can be made of the number of sapwood rings missing from the core, 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 40 years later we would have estimated without this observation.

T-value/Offset Matrix

	C45	C08	C05	C04
C45		+20	+37	+47
C08	5.6		+17	+27
C05	5.2	10.4		+10
C04	5.9	3.7	5.1	\sum

Bar Diagram

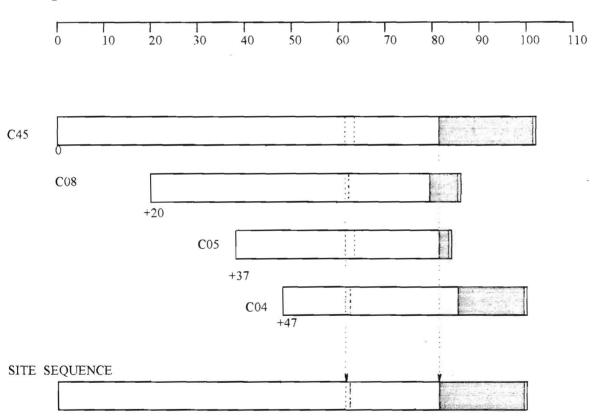


Fig 5. Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

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.

Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on all the timbers sampled, an estimate of the felling date is still possible in certain cases. For provided the original last heartwood ring of the tree, called the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S), is still on some of the samples, an estimate for the felling date of the group of trees can be obtained by adding on the full 25 years, or 15 to 40 for the range of felling dates.

If none of the timbers have their heartwood/sapwood boundaries, then only a *post quem* date for felling is possible.

- 5. Estimating the Date of Construction. There is a considerable body of evidence in the data collected by the Laboratory that the oak timbers used in vernacular buildings, at least, were used 'green' (see also Rackham (1976)). Hence provided the samples are taken *in situ*, and several dated with the same estimated common felling date, then this felling date will give an estimated date for the construction of the building, or for the phase of construction. If for some reason or other we are rather restricted in what samples we can take, then an estimated common felling date may not be such a precise estimate of the date of construction. More sampling may be needed 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 1988b, 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 1988a). 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 (1988b) 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 (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller generally later growth from about 1900 onwards. A similar difference can be observed in the lower sequence 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, hopefully corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequences of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the early and late growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain only associated with the common climatic signal and so make cross-matching easier.

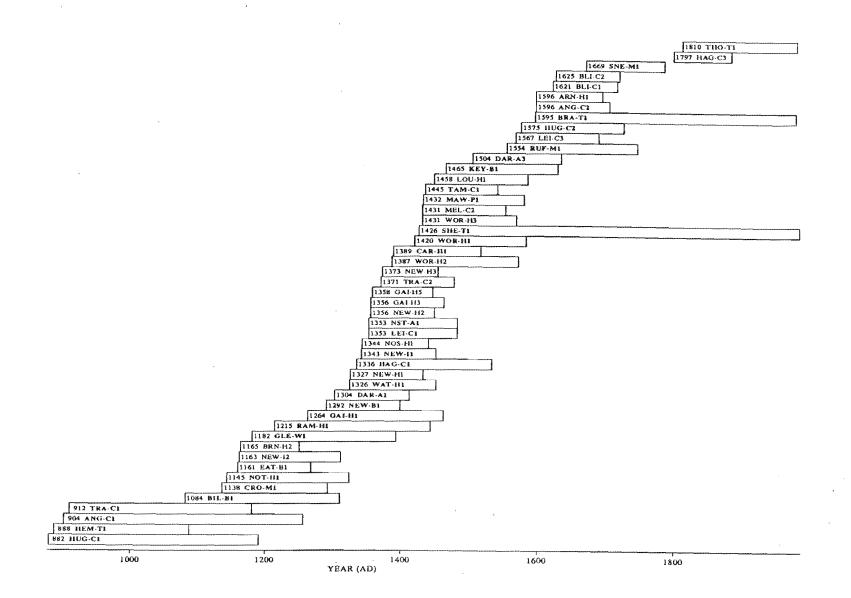


Fig 6. Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87.

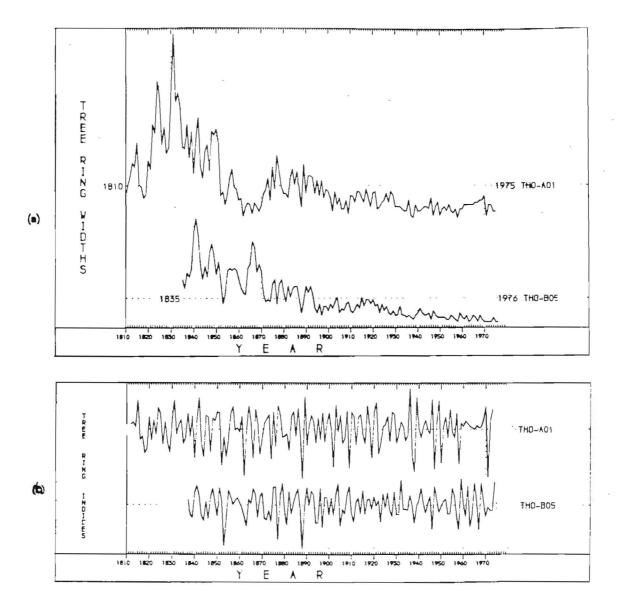


Fig 7. (a) The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree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

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

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