Ancient Monuments Laboratory Report 61/98

# TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM BAY HALL, HALL LANE, BENINGTON, LINCOLNSHIRE

R E Howard R R Laxton C D Litton

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# Summary

Analysis was undertaken of eight samples from Bay Hall, Benington, Lincolnshire. This resulted in the production of a single site chronology of 127 rings spanning the period AD 1591 to 1717. Interpretation of the sapwood indicates that the felling of the timbers represented took place no later than the summer of AD 1717.

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# TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM BAY HALL, HALL LANE, BENINGTON, LINCOLNSHIRE

#### **Introduction**

Bay Hall (TF 393463, see Fig 1) is a grade II\* listed building, on the edge of the village of Benington about four miles east of Boston in Lincolnshire. It is a three-storey red brick rectangular double-pile plan country house believed to have been built about AD 1730. It is believed that the Hall underwent major refurbishment in the mid-eighteenth century, and a two-storeyed service wing was added to the rear, or north side, of the Hall in the early-nineteenth century. A plan of the ground floor, taken from a historic building report by the Royal Commission on the Historical Monuments of England, is provided in Figure 2 (*Giles et al* 1991).

Much of the roof covering is currently missing, and the house stands empty and at risk from dereliction. This structure has been identified as a priority A case on the English Heritage Register of Buildings at Risk (English Heritage 1998). Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of timbers of the primary phase of construction only were commissioned by English Heritage. There was no request to sample timbers of the refurbishment phase. The object of this analysis was two-fold. Firstly it was to inform a proposed programme of repair. Secondly the work will contribute to the on-going research programme by the Tree-ring Dating Laboratory to enhance the later part of the East Midlands Master Tree-ring Chronology.

#### Sampling and analysis

<sup>•</sup> Much of the available oak timber within the body of the Hall consisted of small floor and ceiling joists. From the broken ends of some beams and at other points, such as empty mortises, it was possible to see that most of these timbers had too few rings for satisfactory analysis. Furthermore the joists had been well trimmed and squared with the result that very few of them had even the heartwood/sapwood boundary present. Such timbers were not sampled.

Fortunately the primary roof structure of Bay Hall contained suitable timbers. This roof is not made up of trusses but consists of principal oak beams spanning the width of the Hall, intermediate beams, cross-beams, and trimmer beams. These timbers had sufficient rings and had sapwood.

Each of the eight available oak timbers was sampled by coring. Each sample was given the code BEN-A (for Benington, site "A") and numbered 01 - 08. The positions of the samples were recorded on a plan provided by the architects, J L Moore and Associates, which has been amended to show the timbers and is reproduced in this report as Figure 3. Details of the samples are given in Table 1.

The eight samples obtained were prepared by sanding and their growth-ring widths measured, the data of the measurements being given at the end of the report. Whilst most timbers were sampled with a single core, some timbers required two cores to obtain the inner and outer most rings of the tree. This is represented by the two core samples BEN-A03A/B for example, each of which has a different number of growth-ring measurements.

All the samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), and at a value of t=4.5 all eight cross-matched with each other as shown in the bar diagram, Figure 4. The ring-widths from these eight samples were combined at these relative off-sets to form BENASQ01, a site chronology of 127 rings. Site chronology BENASQ01 was successfully cross-matched with a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak, giving a first ring date of AD 1591 and a last measured ring date of AD 1717.

Evidence for this date is given in the t-values of Table 2. Because of the late date of this chronology there are relatively few reference chronologies available for comparison. For this reason there is only a small number of chronologies listed and they are from further afield than would usually be desirable. Worcester Cathedral for example. They do, however, show consistency and high t-values and the Laboratory is confident that the dating is correct.

Two of the dated samples retain complete sapwood each with a last measured ring date of AD 1717. Under the microscope it is possible to see that on both samples the spring cell growth is complete and that the summer cell growth has commenced. Two other dated samples also retain complete sapwood each with a last measured ring date of AD 1716. Under the microscope it is possible to see that on these two samples the spring cell growth of the following year, AD 1717, has just started. It would therefore appear that the timbers for the principal roof beams were all felled in the spring and summer of AD 1717.

## **Conclusion**

Analysis by dendrochronology of material from this site has indicated that the felling of the timbers sampled took place in AD 1717. This is a few years earlier than the date of AD 1730 suggested by Giles *et al* (1991).

It may be worth noting that, given the high t-values of the cross-match between samples, it is probable that single trees have been split to make two timbers. This is probably the case with timbers represented by samples BEN-A01 and A03, with samples A02 and A06, with A04 and A05, and A07 and A08. The probability of this is enhanced by the fact that, as will be seen from Table 1, each of these pairs of samples is from a similar timber member and, as was noted at the time of sampling, each timber was made of half a tree.

# **Bibliography**

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Table 1: Details of samples from Bay Hall, Hall Lane, Benington, Lincolnshire

Sample no	Sample location	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
BEN-A01	North principal beam	90	15C	AD 1628	1702	1717
BEN-A02	East intermediate beam	75	12c	AD 1636	1698	1710
BEN-A03	South principal beam	97	15C	AD 1621	1702	1717
BEN-A04	East central intermediate beam	106	31C	AD 1611	1685	1716
BEN-A05	West central intermediate beam	101	25C	AD 1616	1691	1716
BEN-A06	West intermediate beam	72	h/s	AD 1626	1697	1697
BEN-A07	North trimmer beam	100	h/s	AD 1602	1701	1701
BEN-A08	South trimmer beam	109	h/s	AD 1591	1699	1699

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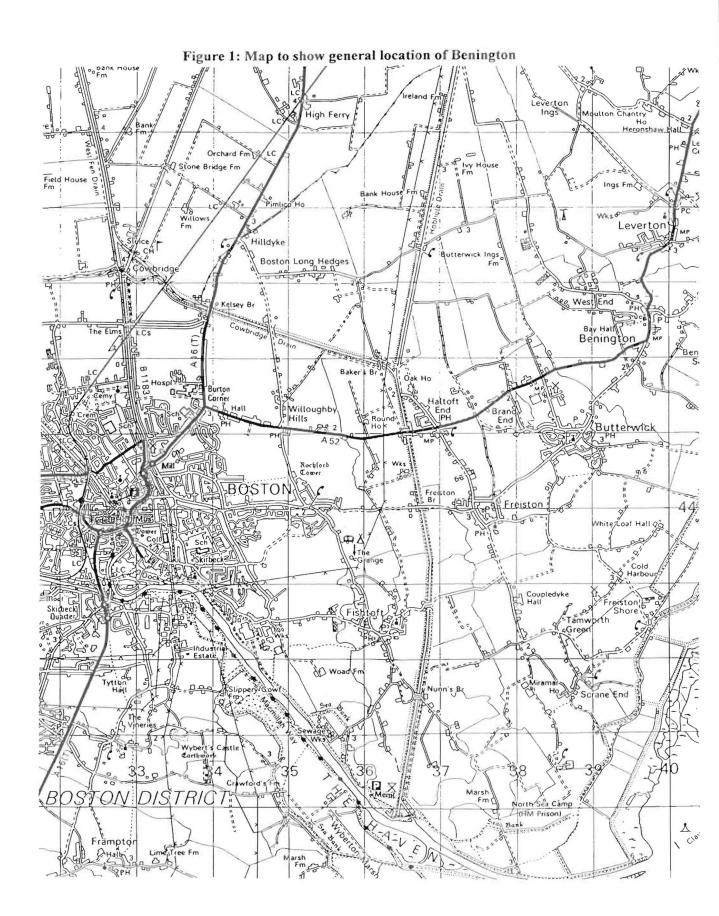
\*h/s = the heartwood/sapwood boundary is the last ring on the sample c = complete sapwood on timber; all or part lost in sampling C = complete sapwood retained on sample

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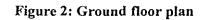
# Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology BENASQ01 and relevant reference chronologieswhen first ring date is AD 1591 and last measured ring date is AD 1717

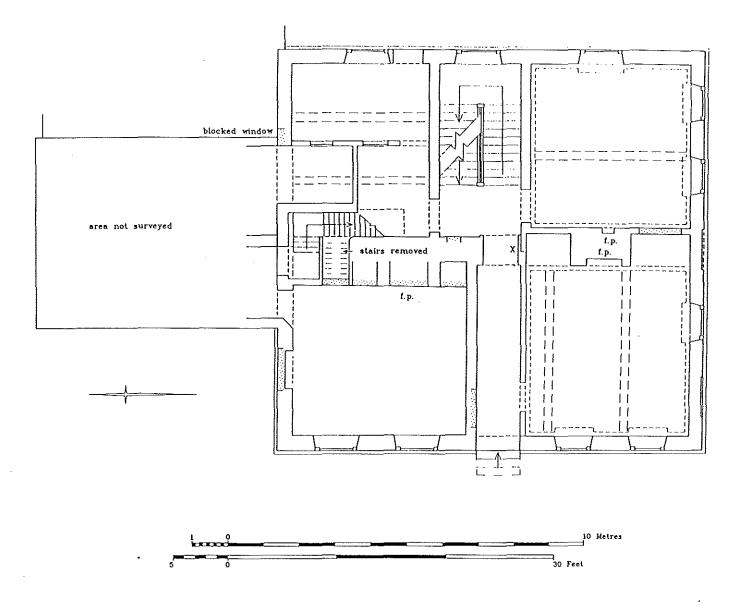
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Reference chronology	Span of chronology	t-value	
East Midlands	AD 882 - 1981	7.4	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
MGB-E01	AD 401 - 1981	3.6	(Baillie and Pilcher 1982 unpubl)
COSBSQ06	AD 1642 - 1734	6.2	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1991 unpubl)
Sinai Park, Staffs	AD 1227 - 1750	5.0	(Tyres 1997)
Worcester Cathedral	AD 1597 - 1730	5.8	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1995)



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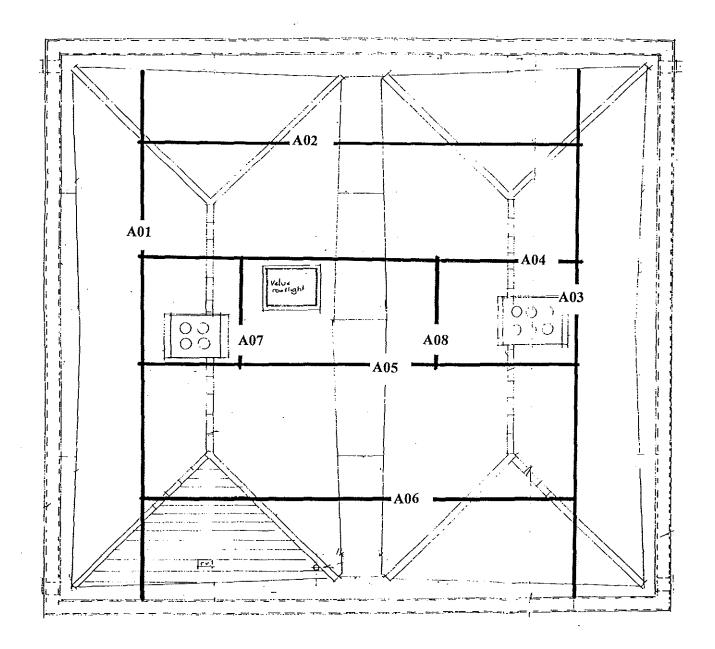


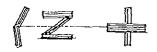
Bay Hall, Benington, Lincolnshire. Ground floor plan

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# Figure 3: Plan to show position of samples ( adapted from architects drawings )





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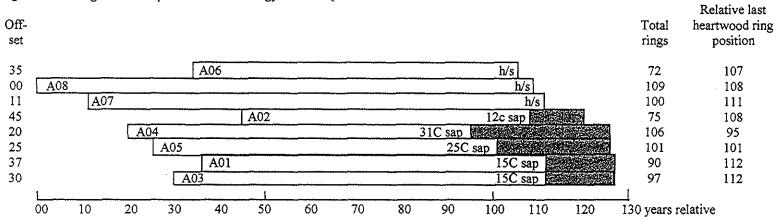


Figure 4: Bar diagram of samples in site chronology BENASQ01

White bars = heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings

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

c = complete sapwood on timber; all or part lost in sampling

C = complete sapwood retained on sample

Data of measured samples - measurements in 0.01mm units

#### BEN-A01A 90

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#### BEN-A05B 101

300 437 410 426 354 536 538 458 432 459 588 523 414 482 302 371 349 352 232 274 278 275 213 211 290 286 239 212 182 190 198 143 140 138 88 106 68 51 52 107 110 69 63 59 73 52 44 49 43 50 38 44 59 90 90 77 104 78 78 69 44 73 90 45 100 62 91 63 60 65 105 98 93 60 66 55 76 70 89 116 100 126 153 130 95 110 60 64 91 50 61 99 109 118 79 82 114 126 59 65 76

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255 312 455 269 360 406 398 338 366 258 234 352 347 330 377 326 189 127 93 82 103 134 124 90 52 72 70 55 63 59 117 100 89 93 79 86 113 106 105 98 73 67 111 132 209 133 184 104 76 41 46 52 51 87 90 84 96 66 126 87 70 86 96 102 97 87 99 103 90 93 122 166 159 94 64 123 175 142 158 97 181 141 113 116 105 123 94 82 63 96 90 119 113 102 120 190 209 170 155 176 BEN-A07B 100

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#### **BEN-A08B 109**

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#### APPENDIX

### Tree-Ring Dating

#### The Principles of Tree-Ring Dating

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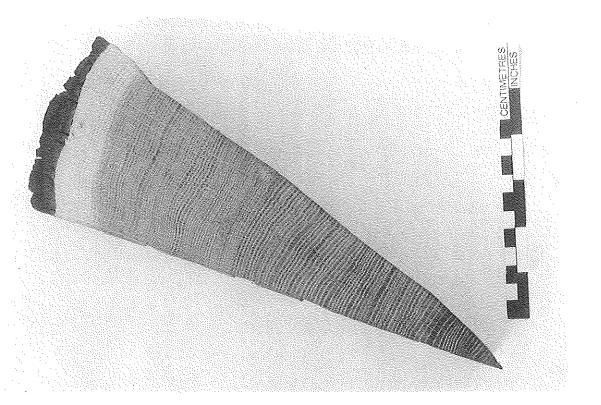
Tree-ring dating, or *dendrochronology* as it is known, is discussed in some detail in the Laboratory's Monograph, 'An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Buildings' (Laxton and Litton 1988b) and, for example, in Tree-Ring Dating and Archaeology (Baillie 1982) 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.



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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.

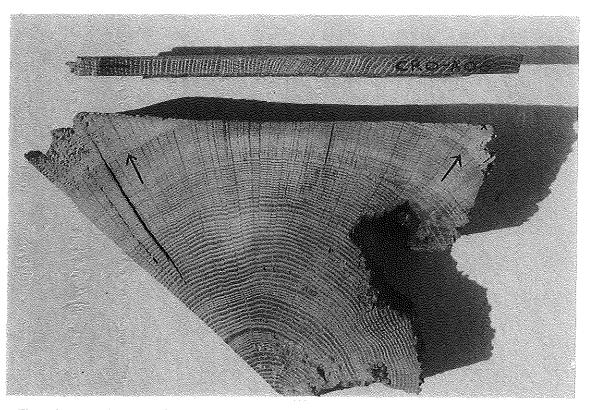
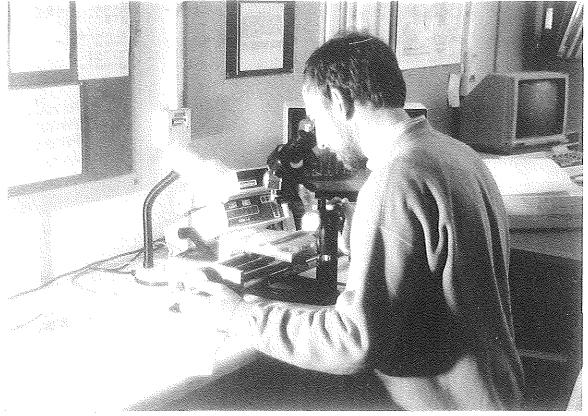


Fig 2. Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the corners; the arrow is pointing to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S). Also a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil.



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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.

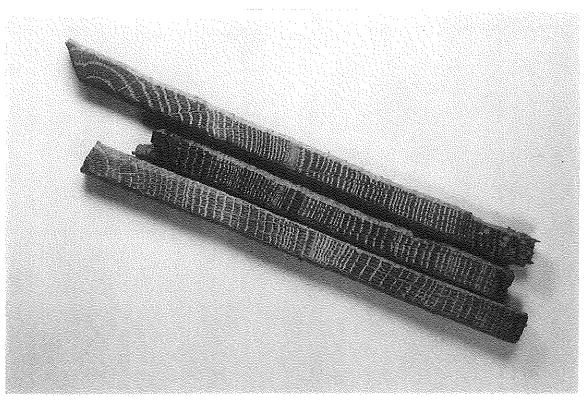


Fig 4. Three cores from timbers in a building. They come from trees growing at the same time. Notice that, although the sequences of widths look similar, they are not identical. This is typical.

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**

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

# Bar Diagram

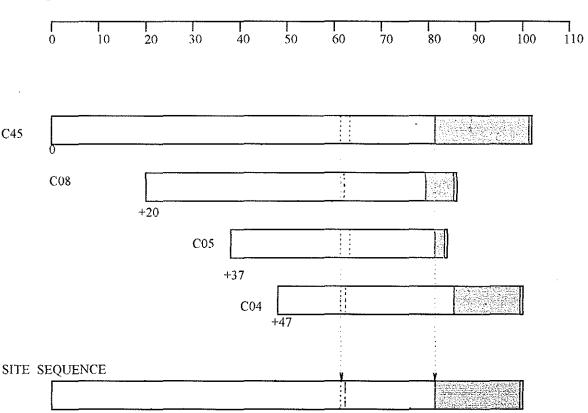


Fig 5. Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

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 ringwidths 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.

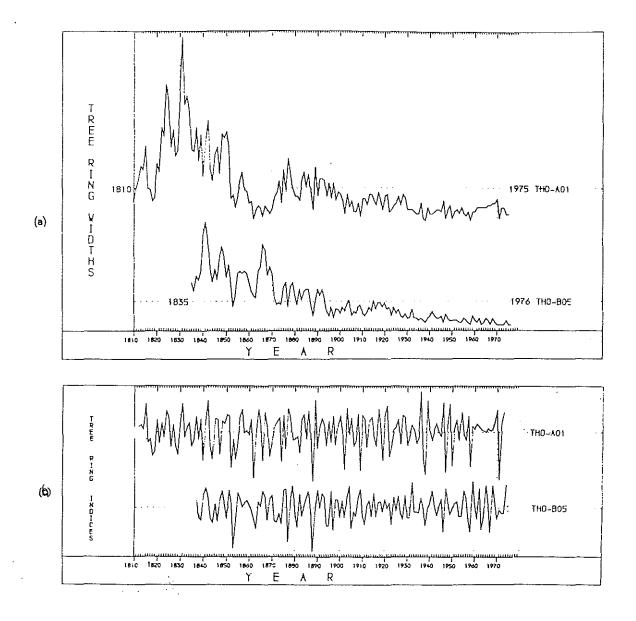


Fig 7. (a) The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree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