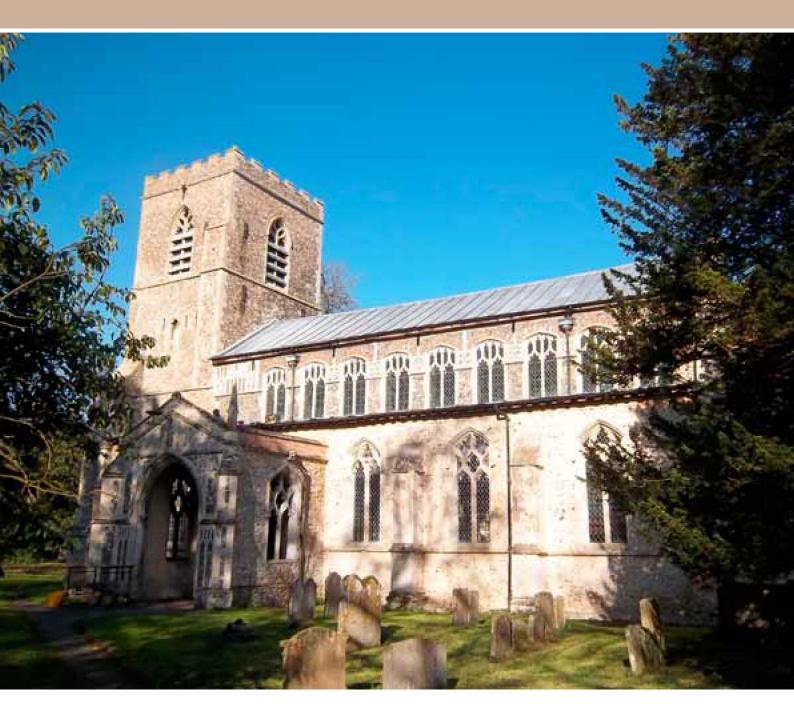
RESEARCH REPORT SERIES no. 19-2012

CHURCH OF ST ANDREW, CHURCH ROAD, COTTON, SUFFOLK TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard





INTERVENTION AND ANALYSIS

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CHURCH OF ST ANDREW CHURCH ROAD COTTON SUFFOLK

TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

NGR: TM 0701 6692

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ISSN 2046-9799 (Print) ISSN 2046-9802 (Online)

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on eight samples from the bench ends of a selection of pews in the Church of St Andrew, Cotton. This analysis produced a single dated site chronology, COTASQ01, comprising six samples and having an overall length of 87 rings, these rings dated as spanning the years AD 1375–1461. Interpretation of the sapwood on these samples would indicate that the dated bench ends are derived from timber cut as part of a single programme of felling some time between AD 1476 and AD 1501.

Analysis was also undertaken on12 samples from the nave roof. This produced two site chronologies, COTASQ02 and COTASQ03, comprising three and two samples, of overall lengths 63 and 65 rings respectively. Neither of these site chronologies, or any of the seven remaining ungrouped samples from the roof, could be dated

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Nottingham Tree-ring Dating Laboratory would like to thank the Reverend E A Varley of the Church of St Andrew for the support and cooperation given to this programme of tree-ring analysis. We would also like to thank Tony Redman and the Whitworth Co-Partnership of Bury St Edmunds for the help and cooperation they have shown with this project, and for providing plans and drawings. We would also like to thank Dr Peter Marshall (English Heritage Scientific Dating Team) for arranging this programme of tree-ring analysis and Cathy Tyers (Sheffield University Dendrochronology Laboratory) for her help in attempting to date the roof samples and comments during the production of this report.

ARCHIVE LOCATION

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DATE OF INVESTIGATION

2010-11

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INTRODUCTION

The parish church of St Andrew is situated in the centre of the village of Cotton, itself approximately six miles north of Stowmarket in Suffolk (TM 0701 6692, Figs 1 and 2). According to the listed building entry (http://list.english-heritage.org.uk/), the main body of the church is believed to be of fourteenth century date, with the clerestory having been added in the fifteenth century. The church has a square three-stage tower at its west end, the west side of which has been given heavy angle buttresses. Between the buttresses is a very tall arched opening, said to be of later date, to light the west nave window. The nave has an exceptionally fine roof of 10 bays formed by 11 highly decorated alternate double hammer beam and arched-braced trusses (Figs 3a/b).

The insertion of a full, high-level, scaffold to the nave in 2011 for repairs and conservation allowed a close inspection of the entire roof structure to be undertaken. During this survey some anomalies in the junctions of the framing emerged, and it is now considered possible that the elaborate hammer beam system may have been cosmetically added to a surviving earlier roof.

The church also contains a series of pews which, during their assessment and sampling were observed to be of two types. The first type, found only in the nave, appear to be of relatively modern, possibly late-nineteenth century or, more probably, twentieth century date. These 'modern' pews are relatively lightweight, plain, formed of very square and cleanly cut pieces of timber, and have 'gates' at each end. The second type, found in the nave, the north aisle, and at the west end of the church, is of a heavier and more substantial build, and do not have 'gates' (Fig 4a/b). This latter type are generally also rather plain and cannot be reliably dated on the basis of their scant stylistic evidence, the only decoration to these being a roll-moulded top to the bench ends of each pew, though, according to the listing description, they are of medieval date. In addition, according to the listing description, there is one, supposedly fifteenth century, pew which has carved poppyhead ends (though this pew was not sampled). The pews to the nave, of both types, are fixed in two rows to a low platform base, while those to the north aisle and the west end are loose and stand on their own legs.

SAMPLING

Sampling and analysis by dendrochronology of the nave roof timbers was requested by Malcolm Starr, English Heritage Historic Buildings Architect, East of England Region. The analysis was undertaken to inform grant aided repairs to the roof by attempting to determine whether or not it was all of a single date, or if, as suggested by the anomalies seen during inspection, it was of more than one phase. In addition it was also requested that samples be obtained from the potentially medieval pews in an attempt to reliably determine their date and hence aid the understanding of their significance.

To this end, an examination was made of all the roof timbers accessible from the inserted scaffold. It was seen at this time that, despite the considerable quantity of material available throughout the 10 bay roof structure, only a relatively small number of beams appeared to retain sufficient rings, here deemed to be a minimum of 50, for reliable analysis. Unfortunately, not only did the majority of beams appear to be derived from moderately fast grown trees, and thus not have sufficiently high numbers of rings for analysis, but also, as a result of the decorated nature of the roof, to have had their outermost rings, particularly the sapwood, removed by being heavily carved and moulded, the loss of sapwood reducing the possibility of obtaining precise felling dates for the timbers. Despite this, it was seen that sufficient suitable samples could be obtained. It was also noted that there appeared to be no difference in the overall visual characteristics of the timbers of any part of the roof as might possibly have been the case were there timbers of two or more phases present.

The pre-sampling assessment also showed that the more substantial, potentially medieval, pews contained some suitable timber for tree-ring analysis, though such material was restricted to the bench ends. The other parts of the pews, the backs, and the bench seats themselves for example, while being of oak, were made from fast-grown trees and thus had only low numbers of rings. It also appeared that the bench seats might be relatively modern replacements. The kneelers were all of pine.

Thus, from the suitable timbers available, a total of 21 samples was obtained by coring. Each sample was given the code COT-A (for Cotton, site 'A') and numbered 01–21. Thirteen samples, COT-A01–13, were obtained from the roof timbers using a standard corer, with a bore of approximately 11mm. As far as was evident from their growth characteristics, all the sampled timbers from the roof appeared to represent a homogenous group of trees, showing no evidence, by way of redundant mortices or peg holes, of reuse, insertion, or alteration. A further eight samples, COT-A14–21, were obtained from the most suitable looking bench ends using a corer with a smaller bore of approximately 8mm.

The positions of the sampled timbers from the roof are shown on the truss drawings provided, these being reproduced here as Figures 5a-g. Details of the samples are given in Table 1. In this table the roof trusses have been numbered 1-11 from east to west, with individual timbers being further identified on a north–south basis as appropriate.

Details of the pew samples are also given in Table 1. In this case, the pews have been numbered from east to west firstly along the north row (pews 1-11), and then east to west along the south row (pews 12 - 22). The other pews, those scattered about the aisle and at west end of the church, have been numbered consecutively from east to west (pews 23-29), though, given that these pews are not fixed, it would be quite possible to change their positions. The pew samples are then further located as being either from the north or south bench end of each numbered pew. The positions of these samples are shown in Figure 6.

ANALYSIS

Each of the 21 samples obtained in this programme of tree-ring dating was initially prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that one sample had fewer than the minimum of 50 rings here deemed necessary for reliable dating, and it was rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth-ring widths of the remaining 20 samples were, however, measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of this report. The data of the measured samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), allowing three separate groups comprising six, three, and two cross-matching samples to be formed at a minimum value of t=4.5. The samples of each group, cross-matching with each other at off-sets as shown in Figures 7a-c, were combined at their indicated offsets positions to form site chronologies COTASQ01, COTASQ02, and COTASQ03, these site chronologies having overall lengths of 87, 63, and 65 rings respectively.

Each of the three site chronologies was then compared with an extensive series of reference chronologies for oak, this indicating a repeated and consistent match with a series of these for site chronology COTASQ01, when the date of its first ring is AD 1375 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1461. The evidence for this dating is given in Table 2. COTASQ02 and COTASQ03 remain undated.

Each of the three site chronologies was also compared with the nine remaining measured but ungrouped single samples, but there was no further satisfactory matching. The nine remaining ungrouped samples were than compared individually with the full range of reference chronologies for the oak, but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching, and these samples must remain undated.

Site chronology	Number of samples	Number of rings	Date span AD
		~	(where dated)
COTASQ01	6	88	1375–1461
COTASQ02	3	63	undated
COTASQ03	2	65	undated
Ungrouped	9		undated
Unmeasured	1		

This analysis may be summarised as follows:

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

Site chronology COTASQ01

None of the six dated samples in site chronology COTASQ01 (Fig 7a), all of them from bench ends of pews, retain complete sapwood, and it is thus not possible to indicate a

precise felling date for any of the trees represented. One sample, COT-A18, does, however, retain the heartwood/sapwood boundary, meaning that only the sapwood rings are missing; this boundary is dated AD 1461. Using a 95% confidence limit of 15–40 for the number of sapwood rings the tree is likely to have had would give the timber represented by sample COT-A18 an estimated felling date in the range AD 1476–1501.

None of the other five dated samples in site chronology COTASQ01 retain the heartwood/sapwood boundary, and it is thus not possible to calculate the likely felling date ranges for these timbers. However, all six samples in this site chronology cross-match extremely well with each other, with values of t=10.0 found between samples COT-A14 and A15, and values as high as t=17.6 and t=17.7 between samples COT-A16, A18, and A21. Such high t-values would at the very least suggest that the timber used for these bench ends has come from trees which were growing very close to each other in the same copse or stand of woodland. Although in theory it is possible that trees originally growing close together, but felled at different times, might come to be used for the same purpose in the same place, this would perhaps be considered a relatively unlikely coincidence, and it is more likely that the trees were felled at the same time as each other. Indeed, the strength of cross-matching between some samples is sufficiently high to suggest that some of the dated bench ends may be derived from the same tree, and that possibly only two or three trees have been utilised overall.

Site chronology COTASQ02

None of the three samples in site chronology COTASQ02 (Fig 7b), representing two collars and a hammer beam, have been dated. It is likely, however, given that the heartwood/sapwood boundary on these three samples varies by only four years from relative position 55 on sample COT-A12, to relative position 59 on samples COT-A09 and A13, that the trees represented were felled at the same time as each other.

Site chronology COTASQ03

Likewise, neither of the two samples in site chronology COTASQ03 (Fig 7c), which represent a wall post and a wall tie, has been dated, though it is again likely, that they were felled at the same time as each other. The high degree of cross-matching between these two samples, with a value of t=10.6, suggests that either these two structural elements have been derived from a single tree, or from two trees growing close to each other. While it is again in theory possible that trees originally growing close together, but felled at different times, might come to be used for the same purpose in the same place, this again seems relatively unlikely.

Undated samples

It will be seen from this analysis that eight samples from the roof and one measured sample from a bench end are ungrouped and undated. As may be seen from Table 1,

several of these samples are borderline with respect to numbers of rings present, although some of similar lengths have been successfully dated. None of the samples have any obvious anomalies such as distorted or compressed rings which might make crossmatching and dating difficult. Thus the lack of cross-matching and dating is disappointing.

CONCLUSION

Although a number of buildings in Suffolk have been dated by tree-ring analysis many others in the county have not been amenable to the method, many of them producing samples of a similar nature to those found here. It is possible that some of the sampled timbers are from different locations, and of a particular time, not as yet sufficiently well represented in the reference material to produce reliable dating.

Thus, although the lack of dating for the roof is naturally disappointing, the data is now archived and it is possible that when further site chronologies from within the region are produced in the future, the roof samples will be dated. This disappointment is, however, moderated by the success in dating the bench ends. Whereas the date of these was previously unknown, they are now identified as being late-fifteenth century, a date which, it may be of interest to note, is similar to that ascribed in the building listing to the poppyhead pew. Given that the clerestory is of about this time, the pews may represent the remains of seating installed when that work was undertaken making them amongst the earliest dendrochronologically dated bench ends. The dating of these bench ends, furthermore, may now be of use in the possible dating of similar pew types in other churches in Suffolk and potentially elsewhere in the country.

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TABLES

Table I: Details of tree-ring samples from the Church of St Andrew, Cotton, Suffolk

Sample	Sample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured
number	-	rings	rings*	ring date AD	ring date AD	ring date AD
	Roof timbers					
COT-A01	South hammer beam, truss 7	60	h/a			
		69	h/s			
COT-A02	South pendant, truss 3	60	h/s			
COT-A03	South wall tie, truss 2	58	h/s			
COT-A04	South hammer beam, truss 9	57	h/s			
COT-A05	South wall post, truss 3	60	h/s			
COT-A06	South wall post, truss 9	63	no h/s			
COT-A07	North wall tie, truss 2	65	no h/s			
COT-A08	North wall tie, truss 6	54	no h/s			
COT-A09	North hammer beam, truss 5	58	4			
COT-A10	North principal rafter, truss 7	60	h/s			
COT-A11	North principal rafter, truss 9	58	h/s			
COT-A12	Collar, truss 9	59	4			
COT-A13	Collar, truss 8	54	4			
	Pews					
COT-A14	Pew 6, north bench end	70	no h/s	1383		1452
COT-A15	Pew 7, north bench end	55	no h/s	1405		1459
COT-A16	Pew 7, south bench end	71	no h/s	1375		1445
COT-A17	Pew 8, north bench end	54	no h/s	1395		1448
COT-A18	Pew 8, south bench end	76	h/s	1386	1461	1461
COT-A19	Pew 20, south bench end	nm				
COT-A20	Pew 21, south bench end	51	no h/s			
COT-A21	Pew 23, south bench end	50	no h/s	1405		1454

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

nm = sample not measured

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence COTASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1375 and last ring date is AD 1461

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t-</i> value	Reference
Abbey Farm, Thetford, Norfolk	AD 1332–1536	7.3	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2000)
Hays Wharf, Southwark, London	AD 1248–1647	7.2	(Tyers 1996a; Tyers 1996b)
Chalgrove Manor, Chalgrove, Oxfordshire	AD 1355–1503	6.3	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2008)
Dragon Hall, Norwich, Norfolk	AD 1289–1426	6.2	(Boswijk and Tyers 1998)
Presbytery roof, Peterborough Cathedral, Cambridgeshire	AD 1208–1500	6.0	(Tyers 2004)
St Peter's Church, West Molesey, Elmbridge, Surrey	AD 1364–1503	5.6	(Arnold and Howard 2006)
St Mary's Church, Feltwell, Norfolk	AD 1303-1494	5.4	(Arnold and Howard 2009)
Gainsborough Old Hall, Gainsborough, Lincolnshire	AD 1356–1462	5.3	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1987)

FIGURES

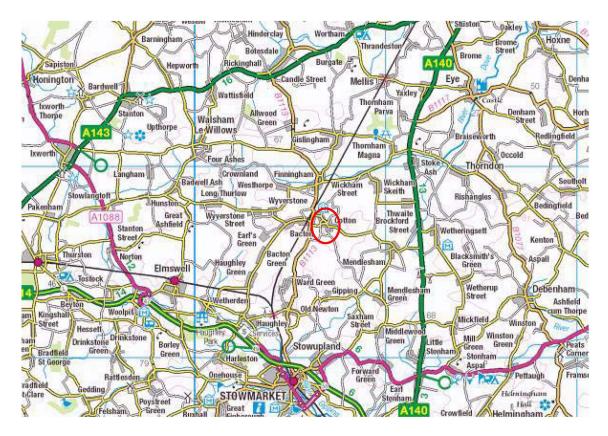


Figure 1: Map to show the general location of Cotton. © Crown Copyright. All rights reserved. English Heritage 100019088. 2012



Figure 2: Map to show the general location of the Church of St Andrew, Cotton. © Crown Copyright. All rights reserved. English Heritage 100019088. 2012



Figure 3a: View of the nave roof showing the alternating double hammer beam and arch-braced trusses



Figure 3b: Detail of a hammer beam truss



Figure 4a: View of the two different types of pews



Figure 4b: Detail of the bench ends of the early pews

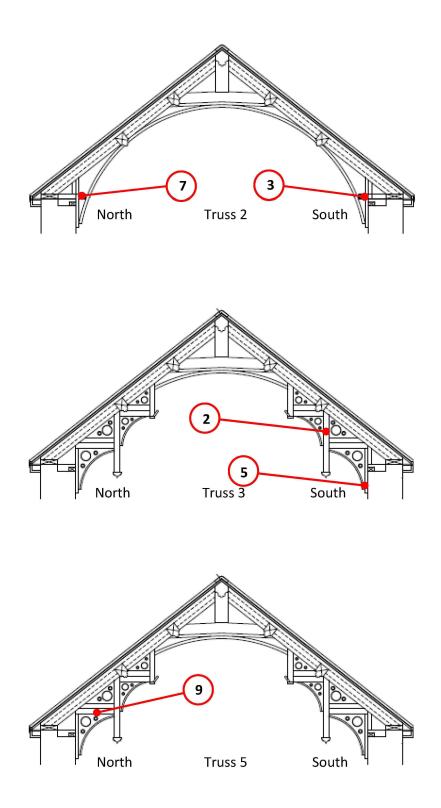


Figure 5a-c: Sections through the nave roof trusses to locate sampled timbers

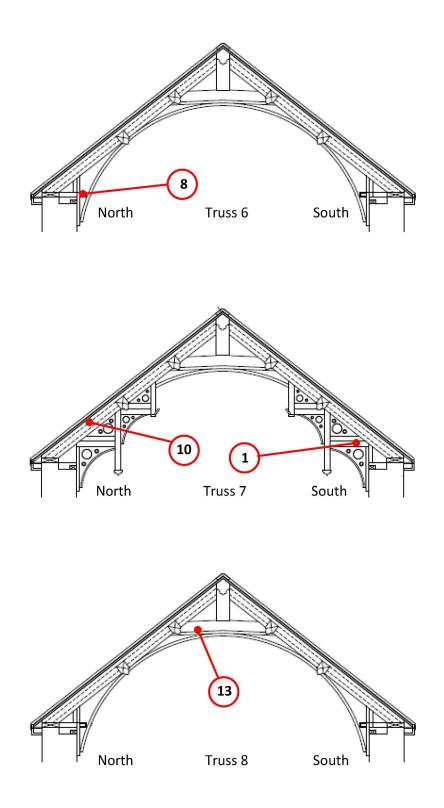


Figure 5d-f: Sections through the nave roof trusses to locate sampled timbers

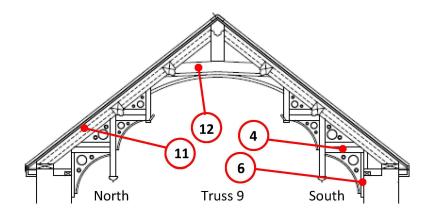


Figure 5g: Sections through the nave roof trusses to locate sampled timbers

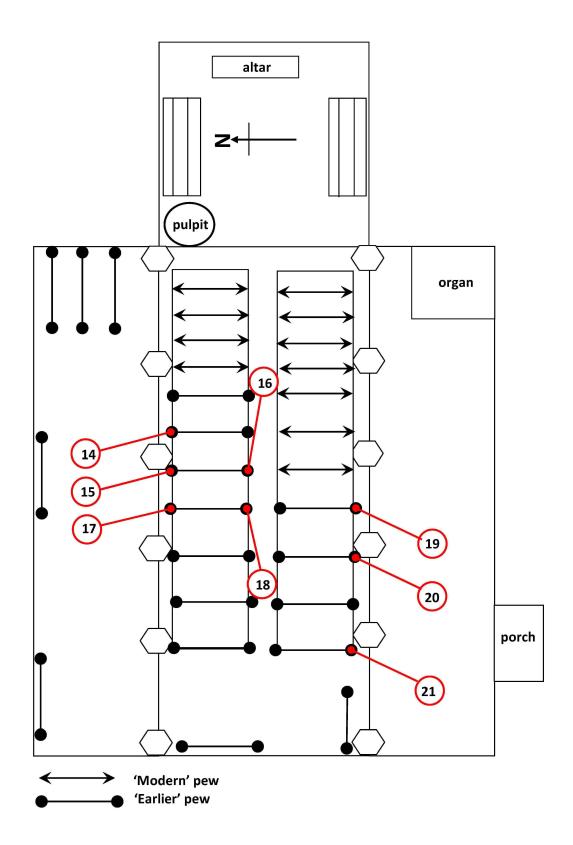


Figure 6: Basic plan of the nave and aisles to locate the sampled pews

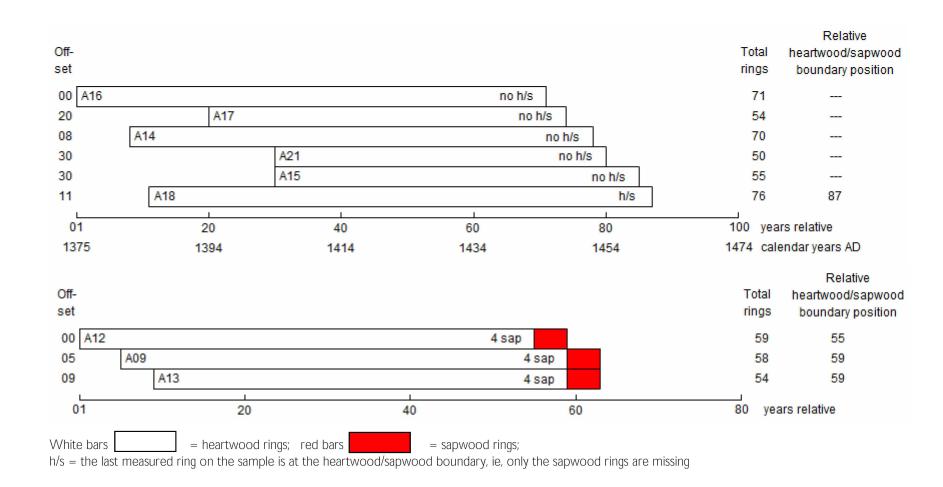
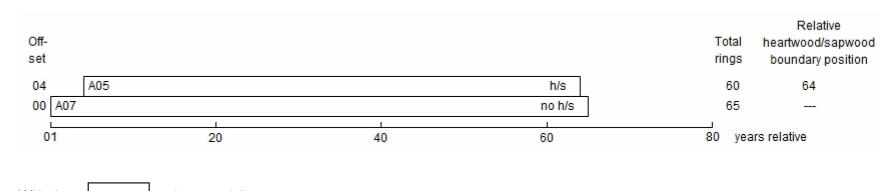


Figure 7a/b: Bar diagrams of the samples in site chronology COTASQ01 (top) and COTASQ02 (bottom)



White bars _____ = heartwood rings h/s = the last measured ring on the sample is at the heartwood/sapwood boundary, ie, only the sapwood rings are missing

Figure 7c: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology COTASQ03

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

58 86 88 COT-A06B 63

52 45 32 45 52 88 109 128 228 195 121 57 34 36 34 37 35 46 49 55

254 153 248 277 174 227 370 224 160 247 167 301 271 257 271 236 236 257 146 239 280 229 174 238 193 230 273 240 280 306 283 274 251 177 226 203 COT-A20A 51 414 259 253 469 444 488 548 540 333 501 375 543 298 228 108 86 133 215 322 238

157 131 159 207 207 192 221 284 277 201 153 189 213 218 228 316 222 270 196 124 108 223 168 211 50 98 119 173 143 101 193

COT-A20B 51

400 237 279 412 497 483 552 543 328 476 363 543 284 246 101 89 96 221 323 238 156 118 158 226 203 227 212 281 287 196 144 182 214 217 218 309 239 256 191 130 108 230 173 205 53 100 109 174 147 97 190

COT-A21A 50

311 398 300 354 249 284 308 281 400 373 325 253 268 290 252 319 329 293 320 322 290 291 217 298 349 239 302 502 284 249 297 200 368 378 282 302 202 218 239 158 300 302 287 234 296 268 308 305 301 316

COT-A21B 50

307 400 291 343 245 272 299 272 404 369 354 255 251 290 229 317 325 280 342 306 284 295 200 316 336 249 295 507 298 224 313 202 362 380 275 297 201 232 224 152 280 311 294 222 313 263 299 309 312 320

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 randomlike, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure A1 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 A1, 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 A2 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 8–10 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 A2; it is about 150mm long and 10mm 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 A1: 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 A2: Cross-section of a rafter, showing sapwood rings in the left-hand corner, the arrow points to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S); and a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil



Figure A3: 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



Figure A4: 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 A2. 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 A3).

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 A4). 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 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 A5 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 A5. 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 A5 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 straightforward 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 (or the last full year before felling, if it was felled in the first three months of the following calendar year, 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 A2, 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 region 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 A2 was taken still had complete sapwood but that some of the soft sapwood rings were lost in coring. By measuring into the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 20mm, 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; Miles 1997, 50–5). Hence, provided that 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, fig 8; 34–5, where 'associated groups of fellings' are discussed in detail). However, if there is any evidence of storage 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 crossmatch 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 Figure A6 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 Figure A6. 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 Figure A7. 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

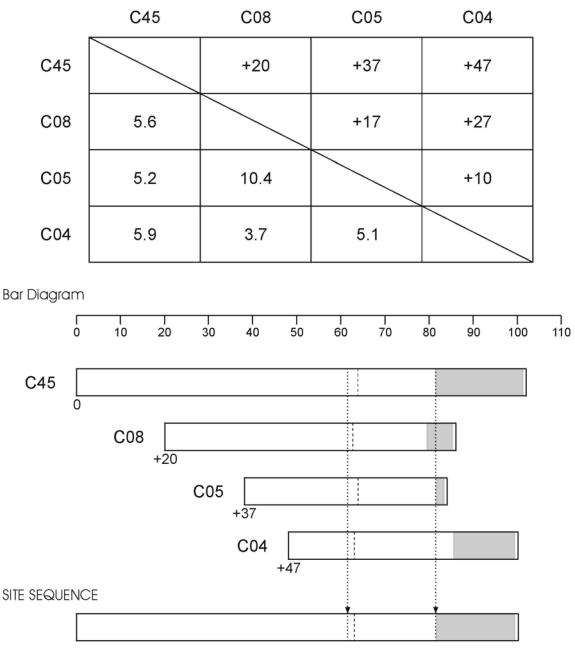


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

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.

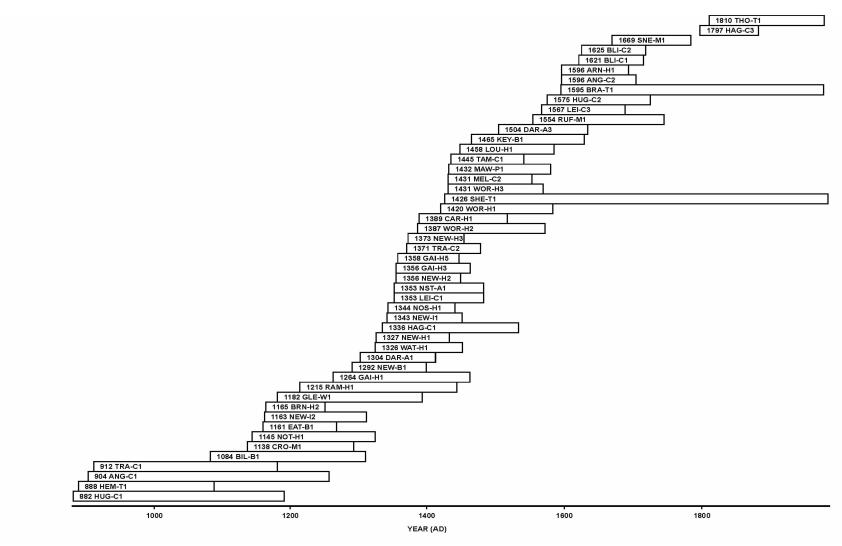
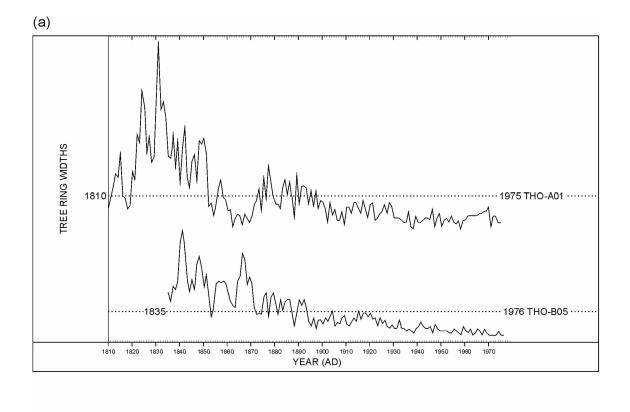


Figure A6: Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87



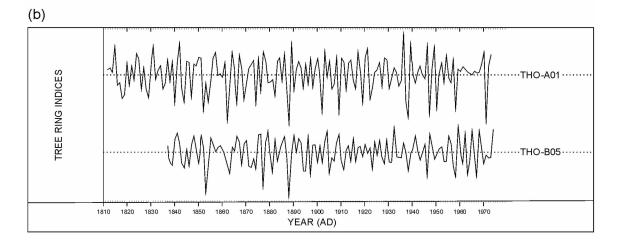


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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 A7 (b): The Baillie-Pilcher indices of the above widths

The growth trends have been removed completely

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ISSN 2046-9799 (Print) ISSN 2046-9802 (Online)