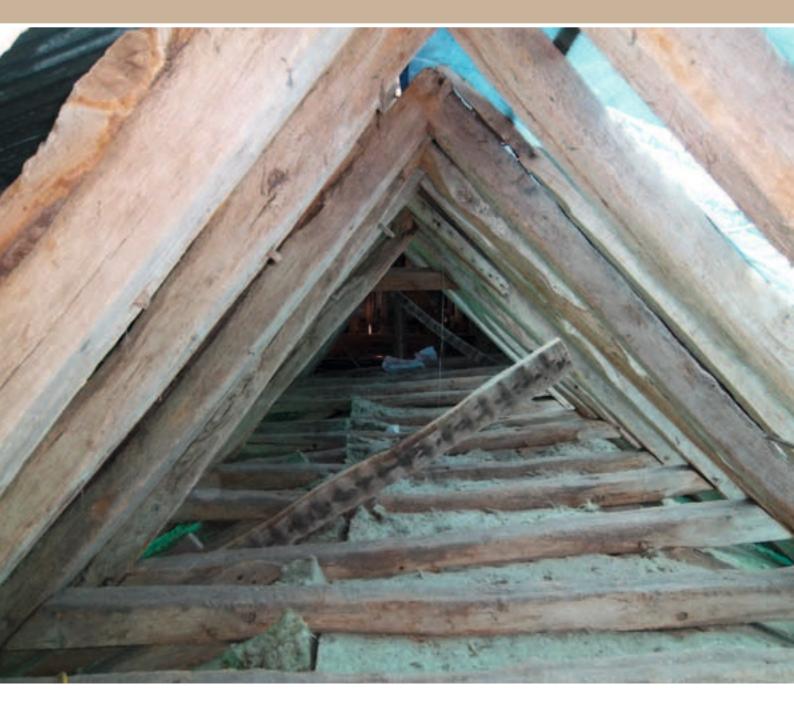
CHURCH OF ST PETER, WEST LISS, HAMPSHIRE TREE-RING DATING OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard





INTERVENTION AND ANALYSIS

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CHURCH OF ST PETER, WEST LISS, HAMPSHIRE

TREE-RING DATING OF TIMBERS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

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SUMMARY

Tree-ring analysis was undertaken on samples from the roofs of the nave, south aisle, and porch at this church resulting in the dating of a single site sequence. Site sequence LSSASQ01 contains 14 samples and spans the period AD 1546–1614.

The five dated timbers from the nave roof comprise three rafters from the east end of the roof felled *c* AD 1616 and two reused collars, also from the east end, felled in the period AD 1581–1606. Eight dated timbers from the south aisle roof, including six rafters and two collars, were all probably felled during the period AD 1605–40. In addition the timber removed during repairs, which supported the valley gutter has an estimated felling date range of AD 1581–1606. Four other site sequences remain undated but one of these demonstrates that there are reused timbers from the nave and aisle roofs that are coeval with non-reused rafters from the nave, whilst another shows that at least five of the backing rafters in the nave roof represent a single felling episode.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Laboratory would like to thank Simon Goddard and Paul Taylor, both of The Goddard Partnership, for facilitating access and for their assistance whilst sampling was being undertaken. Thanks are also given to Dr John Crook for his on-site advice and for allowing us use of his drawings. Peter Marshall and Cathy Tyers of the Scientific Dating Team at English Heritage were, as always, extremely helpful throughout this study.

ARCHIVE LOCATION

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INTRODUCTION

The Church of St Peter, situated some 5km north-east of Petersfield and about 29km east of Winchester, in the village of West Liss (Figs 1–3), is a Grade II* listed building. It is believed that there has been a church on this site since sometime after AD 900. The foundations of the tower are Saxon though it is mainly of early thirteenth-century date, as are the nave and chancel. The south arcade, aisle and south door date from the late-thirteenth century, whilst the south porch was built in AD 1639. There is a seventeenth-century window at the west end of the south aisle. The chancel was restored in AD 1864 at the same time as the north organ chamber/vestry was added.

Nave

The roof consists of 19 frames of common rafters with collars, and arch braces. At some point 'backing rafters' have been attached to the rear of the common rafters on the south side, presumably for strengthening purposes (Fig 4). Some of the timbers are thought to be reused. This roof is thought to date from the early thirteenth century.

South Aisle

The construction of this roof is similar to that of the nave, with each of the 26 frames again consisting of common rafters, collars, and arch braces (Fig 5). Some of these rafters also have the strengthening 'backing rafters and higher 'modern' collars. Some of the rafters show signs of reuse in the form of empty mortices. This roof is believed to be late-thirteenth century in date.

Porch

This very simple roof has six frames of common rafters and collars. The seventh (most northernmost frame) also has a tiebeam with empty mortices from which arch braces may have once run to now removed posts (Fig 6). The south porch has an inscribed date of '1639' commemorating its gift by Henry James.

SAMPLING

The Church of St Peter was at the time of sampling being re-roofed with grant-aid from English Heritage under the Places of Worship Scheme. Dendrochronological analysis was requested by Robert Williams, English Heritage Historic Buildings Architect, to inform these repairs. The removal of the timbers supporting the valley gutter revealed a rare moulded stone valley gutter beneath (Fig 7). It was hoped that by providing dates for the nave and south aisle roofs, and hence elucidating their historical development, a date for this rare feature could be obtained by association. In addition it was hoped to provide support for the 1639 date ascribed to the Porch.

A total of 49 core samples and one sliced sample were obtained from timbers from these three roofs. Each sample was given the code LSS-A (for Liss, site 'A') and numbered 01–50. Twenty-three of these are from the nave roof (LSS-A01–23), 18 from the south aisle roof (LSS-A24–41), one from the *ex-situ* timber (LSS-A42), and eight from the porch roof (LSS-A43–50). The location of all cored samples was noted at the time of sampling and has been marked on Figures 8–43. The frames in the nave and south aisle were numbered from east to west, whilst those in the porch were numbered from north to south. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Ten of the samples, three from the nave (all backing rafters) and seven from the south aisle roof (four rafters and three reused rafters), were found to have too few rings for secure dating and so were discarded prior to analysis. The remaining 40 samples were prepared by sanding and polishing and their growth ring-widths measured; the data of these measurements are given at the end of the report. These samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), resulting in 34 samples matching to form five groups.

Firstly, 14 samples matched each other and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form LSSASQ01, a site sequence of 151 rings (Fig 44). This site sequence was compared against a series of relevant reference chronologies where it was found to match consistently and securely at a first-ring date of AD 1464 and a last-measured ring date of AD 1614. The evidence for this dating is given in Table 2.

A further 11 samples matched each other and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form LSSASQ02, a site sequence of 99 rings (Fig 45). This site sequence was compared against a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak but no conclusive matching could be found and it therefore remains undated.

Five samples were grouped and combined to form LSSASQ03, a site sequence of 63 rings (Fig 46). Attempts to date this site sequence against the reference chronologies were unsuccessful and again the site sequence remains undated.

Two samples grouped and were combined to form LSSASQ04, a site sequence of 76 rings (Fig 47). This site sequence could not be matched and is undated.

Finally, two further samples matched and were combined to form LSSASQ05, a site sequence of 70 rings. This site sequence is also undated.

Attempts to date the remaining ungrouped samples by individually comparing them against the reference chronologies were unsuccessful and all are undated.

INTERPRETATION

The interpretation of the dated timbers from LSSASQ01 is presented below by roof area and all felling date ranges have been calculated using the estimate that mature oak trees from this region have between 15 and 40 sapwood rings.

However the undated site sequences also provide some potentially useful relative dating information. Site sequence LSSASQ02 comprises eight rafters from the nave roof, thought to be primary at the time of sampling, and one collar from the nave roof, thought to be reused, as well as two rafters from the south aisle also thought to be reused. These 11 timbers all appear likely to be broadly coeval. Site sequence LSSASQ03 comprises five backing rafters from the nave roof, four of which have bark edge and were clearly felled in the same year. The fifth backing rafter also appears likely to have been felled at the same time. Site sequence LSSASQ04 demonstrates that two collars from the porch roof are likely to be coeval, and LSSASQ05 that both rafters from frame 3 are clearly broadly coeval.

Nave

Five of the timbers sampled from the nave roof have been successfully dated.

Two collars, both thought to be reused at the time of sampling, have similar heartwood/sapwood boundary ring dates, the average of which is AD 1566. This allows an estimated felling date range to be calculated for the two timbers represented of AD 1581–1606

Three rafters, thought to be primary at the time of sampling, have slightly later heartwood/sapwood boundary ring dates, the average of which is AD 1600. This allows an estimated felling date range to be calculated for these timbers of AD 1615–40. However, two of these samples, LSS-A02 and LSS-A03 were taken from timbers which had complete sapwood but unfortunately, some of these softer outer rings were lost during the sampling process, about 3mm from LSS-A02 and 4mm from LSS-A03. This equates to about 3 rings and 4 rings, respectively, giving both timbers a felling date of c AD 1616, and hence it is likely that all three timbers were felled in c AD 1616.

South Aisle

Eight of the timbers sampled from this roof have been successfully dated, all of which were believed to be primary at the time of sampling.

Five rafters have the heartwood/sapwood boundary, the average of these is AD 1600, giving an estimated felling date range for the five timbers represented of AD 1615–40. The three rafters without the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date have last-

3

measured heartwood dates of AD 1531 (LSS-A31), AD 1545 (LSS-A33), and AD 1562 (LSS-A34) which would make it possible that they were also felled in AD 1615–40. In view of the fact that these three samples match extremely well against sample LSS-A28, at values of t=9.3, 9.5, and 10.1 respectively, it appears likely that they were felled at the same time as the other rafters in the first half of the seventeenth century.

Nave/South Aisle

The sample taken from the timber which once supported the valley gutter has a heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date of AD 1566, giving the timber represented the felling date range of AD 1581–1606.

DISCUSSION

Prior to tree-ring analysis being undertaken the nave roof was thought to date to the early thirteenth century with the south aisle roof dating to the late-thirteenth century. Unfortunately it has not been possible to positively identify any thirteenth-century timbers from either of these two roofs, though clearly many sampled timbers remain undated.

Two fellings have been identified from the five dated timbers of the nave roof. The earlier of these relates to two reused collars which are now known to have been felled in AD 1581-1606. The three dated rafters, thought to be primary when sampled, have been dated to *c* AD 1616. All five of these dated timbers are from frames 2, 3, and 4 at the east end of the roof. A detailed structural survey of the nave roof may be required in order to understand whether the felling date obtained for the apparently primary rafters is representative of a small scale repair to the east-end of the nave roof in the early seventeenth century using some reused timbers, or whether these few dated timbers are representative of a larger phase of building works.

The majority of the dated timbers of the south aisle roof, six rafters and two collars that appeared primary at the time of sampling, were felled in AD 1615–40. This encompasses the c AD 1616 date for the three dated rafters in the nave roof and it is therefore possible that these timbers also date to c AD 1616. The dating of all eight measured timbers from the south aisle roof suggests that this roof was constructed in the first half of the seventeenth century and potentially shortly after felling in c AD 1616.

The timber which supported the valley gutter between the nave and south aisle roofs has been dated to AD 1581–1606 and is hence clearly broadly coeval with reused collars from the nave roof.

By association with the south aisle roof the unusual stone valley gutter it is suggested that this is pre c AD 1616 but it is not possible to conjecture how much earlier this could have been due to the lack of significantly earlier timbers being identified in either the nave or south-aisle roofs.

Unfortunately, it has not been possible to provide any dating evidence for the insertion of the backing rafters in the nave roof, nor has it been possible to either confirm or refute the 1639 date ascribed to the porch roof.

It is disappointing that none of the other site sequences have been dated, especially in the case of LSSASQ02 and LSSASQ03 which are both quite well replicated and of a reasonable length. It may be that the trees used in the construction of these roofs experienced highly localised growing conditions, such as woodland management, disease, or other environmental factors which have affected the growth pattern, masking the climatic signal necessary for successful matching against the reference material. There is a noticeable dip in growth rate shown by all 11 samples towards the middle of site sequence LSSASQ02 but this is not so pronounced as to be expected to strongly adversely affect the chances of successful dating. Alternatively, it may be that the period to which these timbers belong is not well represented within the reference data in Hampshire.

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Sample number	Sample location	Total rings*	Sapwood rings**	First measured ring date (AD)	Last heartwood ring date (AD)	Last measured ring date (AD)
Nave: primary tin	nbers		•			<u> </u>
LSS-A01	South rafter, frame 2	69	13	1546	1601	1614
LSS-A02	South rafter, frame 3	67	15c(+ <i>c</i> 3lost)	1547	1598	1613
LSS-A03	South rafter, frame 4	70	11c(+ 04lost)	1543	1601	1612
LSS-A04	North rafter, frame 5	74	h/s			
LSS-A05	South rafter, frame 5	80	h/s			
LSS-A06	North rafter, frame 6	60	h/s			
LSS-A07	North rafter, frame 12	71	h/s			
LSS-A08	North rafter, frame 14	48				
LSS-A09	North rafter, frame 15	70	h/s			
LSS-A10	North rafter, frame 17	61				
LSS-A11	North rafter, frame 18	49	08			
LSS-A12	North rafter, frame 19	67	h/s			
Nave: reused	- -					
LSS-A13	Collar, frame 2	117	10	1464	1570	1580
LSS-A14	Collar, frame 3	86	h/s	1476	1561	1561
LSS-A15	Collar, frame 11	69	h/s			
Nave: backing raft	ers					
LSS-A16	Frame 2	NM				
LSS-A17	Frame 3	51	17C			
LSS-A18	Frame 4	49	11			
LSS-A19	Frame 5	NM				
LSS-A20	Frame 6	57	12C			
LSS-A21	Frame 7	63	20C			
LSS-A22	Frame 8	NM				
LSS-A23	Frame 9	52	17C			

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from the Church of St Peter, West Liss, Hampshire

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South aisle: or	riginal timbers					
LSS-A24	South rafter, frame 22	54	01	1545	1597	1598
LSS-A25	South rafter, frame 5	51	h/s	1556	1606	1606
LSS-A26	Collar, frame 5	NM				
LSS-A27	South rafter, frame 6	55	h/s	1549	1603	1603
LSS-A28	North rafter, frame 18	79	h/s	1517	1595	1595
LSS-A29	North rafter, frame 8	NM				
LSS-A30	South rafter, frame 9	NM				
LSS-A31	Collar, frame 15	56		1476		1531
LSS-A32	South rafter, frame 17	NM				
LSS-A33	North rafter, frame 21	70		1476		1545
LSS-A34	North rafter, frame 23	93		1470		1562
LSS-A35	Collar, frame 25	82	h/s	1517	1598	1598
South aisle: re	used	•			·	
LSS-A36	North rafter, frame 3	90	h/s			
LSS-A37	North rafter, frame 4	99	h/s			
LSS-A38	North rafter, frame 5	NM				
LSS-A39	North rafter, frame 6	52	h/s			
LSS-A40	North rafter, frame 12	NM				
LSS-A41	North rafter, frame 14	NM				
Nave/South a	isle	•			·	
LSS-A42	Timber supporting valley gutter	107	14	1474	1566	1580
Porch		•			·	
LSS-A43	Tiebeam, frame 1	76				
LSS-A44	Collar, frame 2	66	h/s			
LSS-A45	East rafter, frame 3	56				
LSS-A46	West rafter, frame 3	68				
LSS-A47	Collar, frame 3	62	h/s			
LSS-A48	Collar, frame 4	53	h/s			
LSS-A49	East rafter, frame 5	45	h/s			
LSS-A50	Collar, frame 6	60	05			

*NM = not measured.

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

c(+xlost) = complete sapwood on timber, part lost during sampling with estimated number of missing sapwood rings in brackets

C = complete sapwood retained on sample, last-measured ring is the felling date

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence LSSASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1464 and the last-measured ring date is AD 1614

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
Hampshire county chronology	12.2	AD 443–1972	Miles 2003
Avebury Manor, Avebury, Wiltshire	10.2	AD 1393–1596	Arnold and Howard 2011
Chawton House, Chawton, Hampshire	8.5	AD 1289–1589	Miles and Worthington 2002
Dog Kennel Farm, Clarendon, Wiltshire	8.4	AD 1351–1603	Miles et al 2004
Granary, Wellesbourne, Warwickshire	8.4	AD 1431–1639	Miles and Haddon-Reece 1996
Newnham Hall Farm House, near Wallingford, Oxfordshire	7.8	AD 1412–1614	Arnold and Howard 2006 unpubl
Danny House, Hurstpierpoint, West Sussex	7.7	AD 1389–1589	Miles <i>et al</i> 2010
Yarde Farmhouse, Malborough, South Hams, Devon	7.5	AD 1432–1603	Arnold and Howard 2009

FIGURES

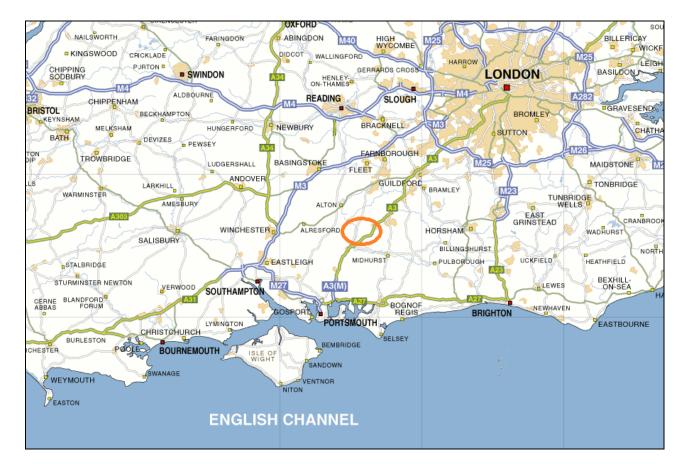


Figure 1: Map to show the general location of West Liss, Hampshire, circled. © Crown Copyright. All rights reserved. English Heritage 100019088. 2012



Figure 2: Map to show the location of West Liss, Hampshire, circled. © Crown Copyright. All rights reserved. English Heritage 100019088. 2012



Figure 3: Map to show the location of St Peter's Church, West Liss, hashed © Crown Copyright. All rights reserved. English Heritage 100019088. 2012



Figure 4: Nave roof showing the backing rafters (photograph taken from the south-east). Photograph Robert Howard

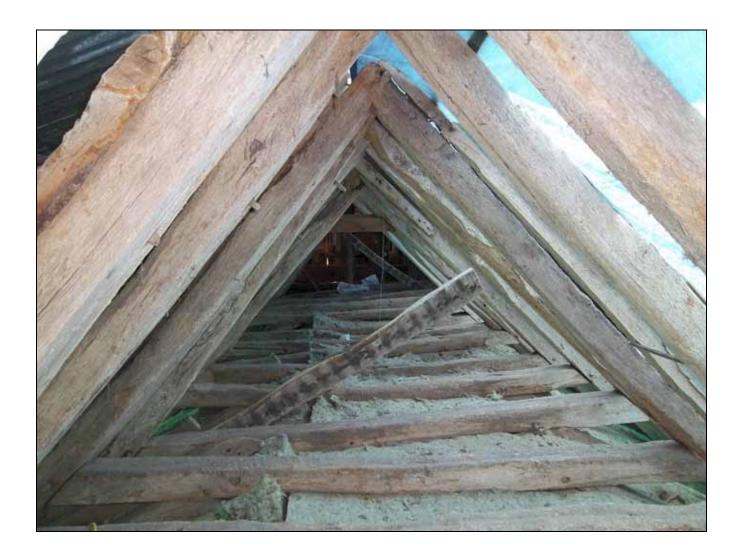


Figure 5: South aisle roof (photograph taken from the west). Photograph Robert Howard



Figure 6: Porch roof (photograph taken from the south). Photograph Robert Howard



Figure 7: Stone gulley between south aisle (to left) and nave (to right) roofs. Photograph Robert Howard

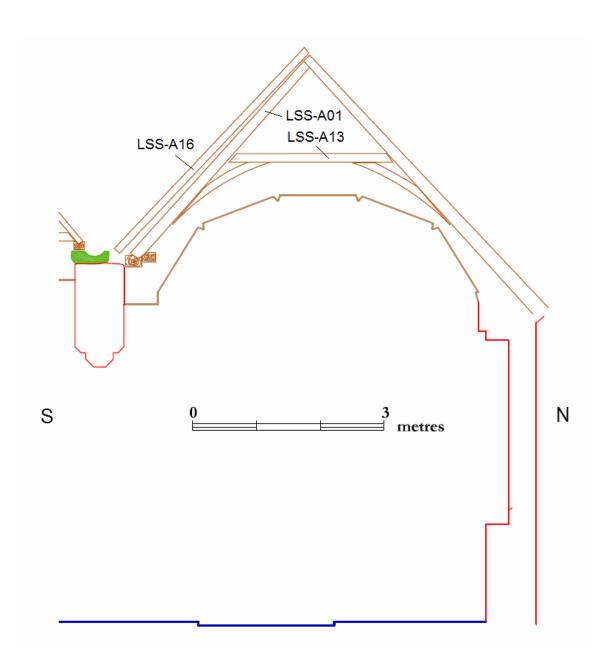


Figure 8: Nave; frame 2, showing the location of samples LSS-A01, LSS-A13, and LSS-A16 (John Crook)

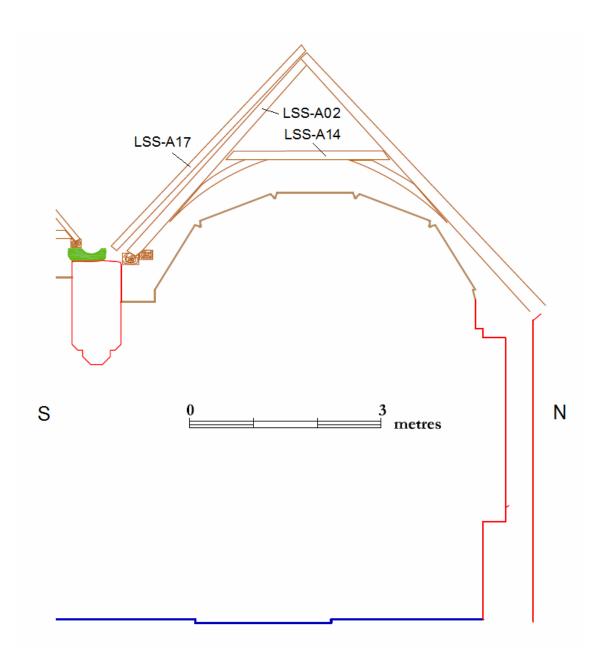


Figure 9: Nave; frame 3, showing the location of samples LSS-A02, LSS-A14, and LSS-A17 (John Crook)

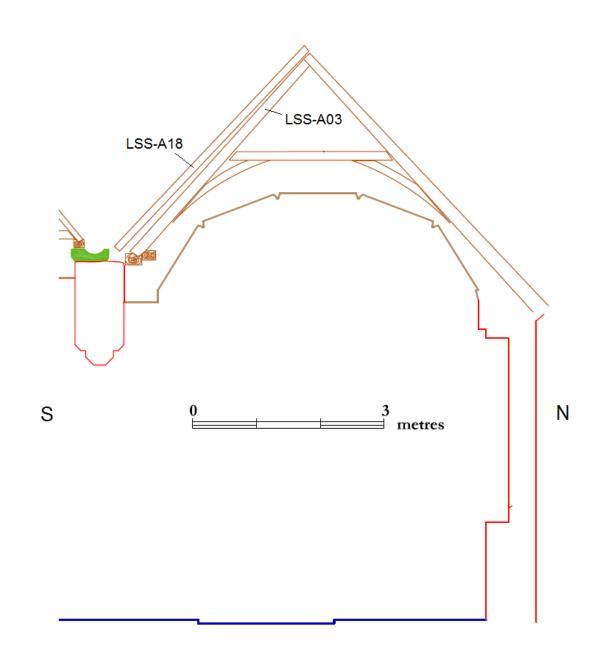


Figure 10: Nave; frame 4, showing the location of samples LSS-A03 and LSS-A18 (John Crook)

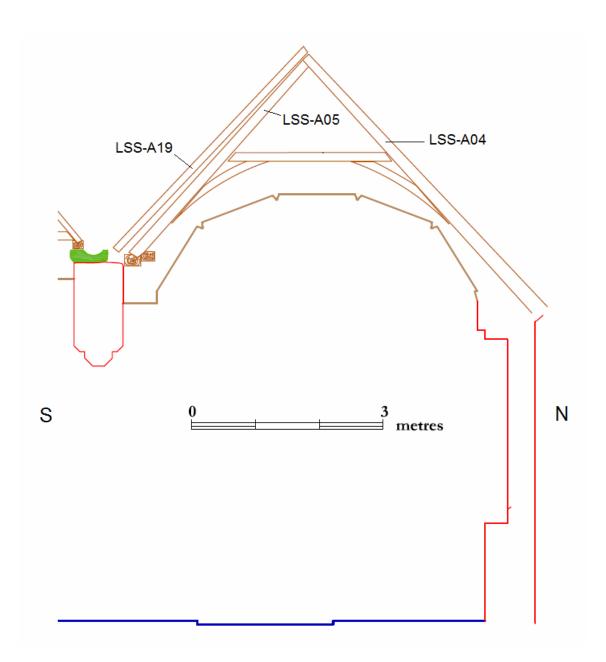


Figure 11: Nave; frame 5, showing the location of samples LSS-A04, LSS-A05, and LSS-A19 (John Crook)

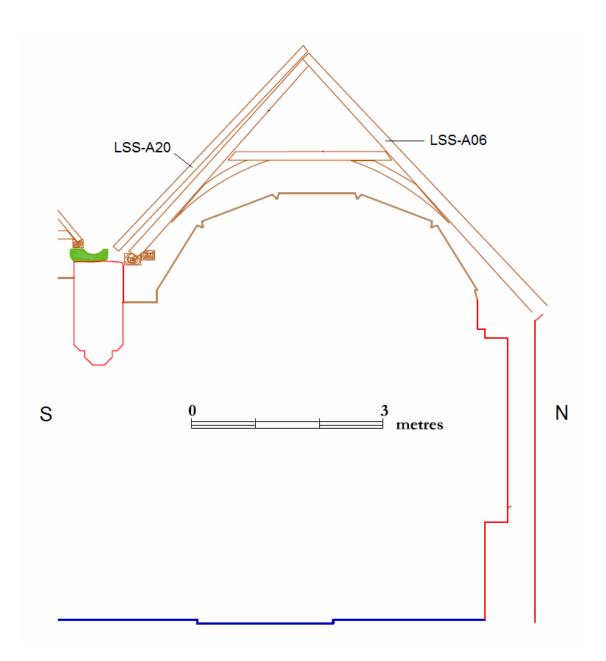


Figure 12: Nave; frame 6, showing the location of samples LSS-A05 and LSS-A20 (John Crook)

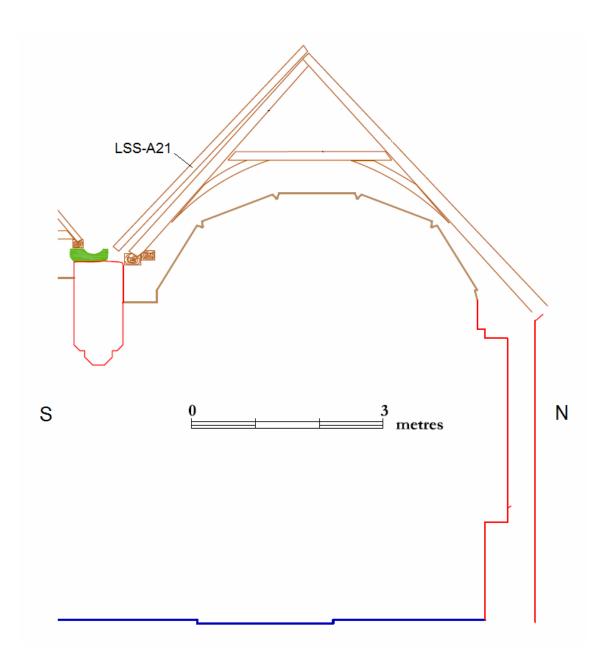


Figure 13: Nave; frame 7, showing the location of sample LSS-A21 (John Crook)

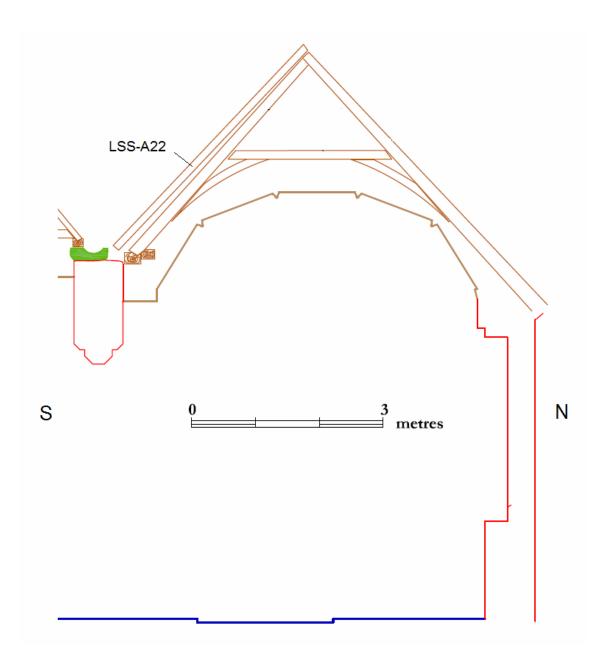


Figure 14: Nave; frame 8, showing the location of sample LSS-A22 (John Crook)

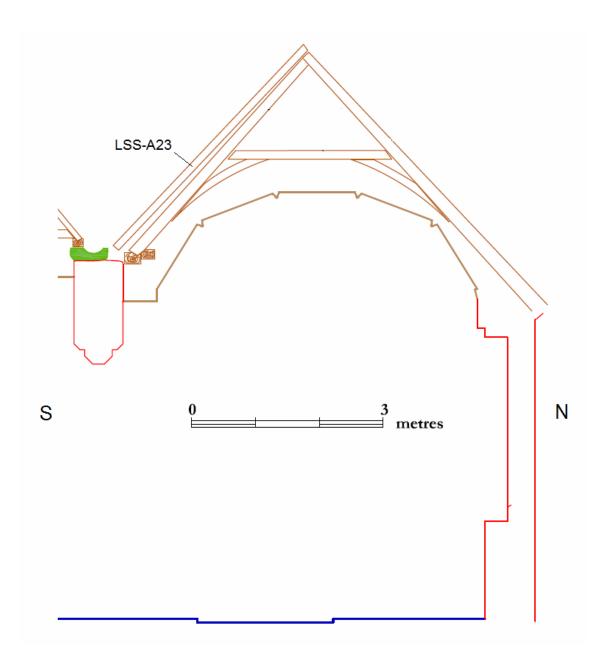


Figure 15: Nave; frame 9, showing the location of sample LSS-A23 (John Crook)

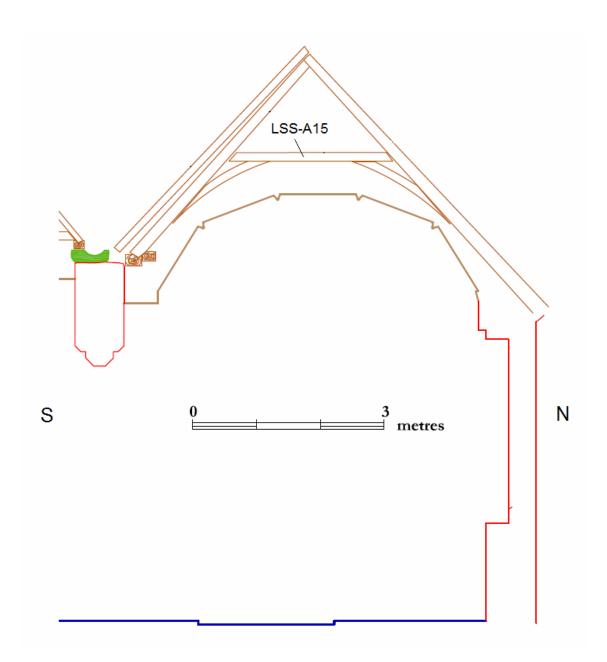


Figure 16: Nave; frame 11, showing the location of sample LSS-A15 (John Crook)

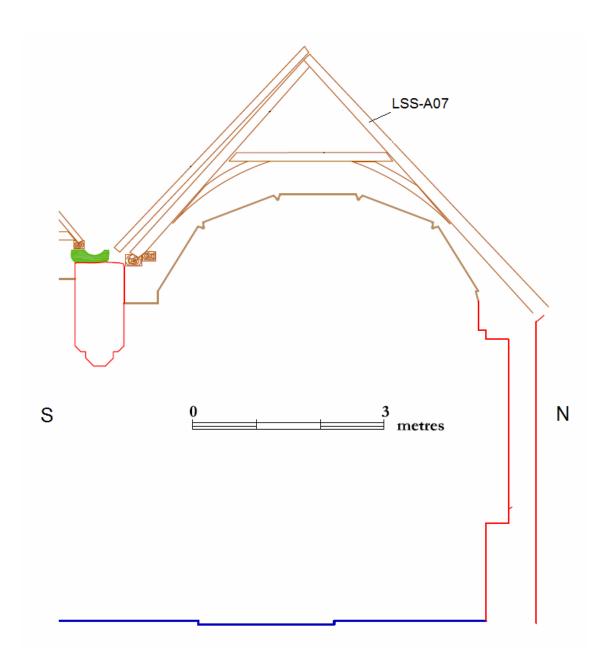


Figure 17: Nave; frame 12, showing the location of sample LSS-A07 (John Crook)

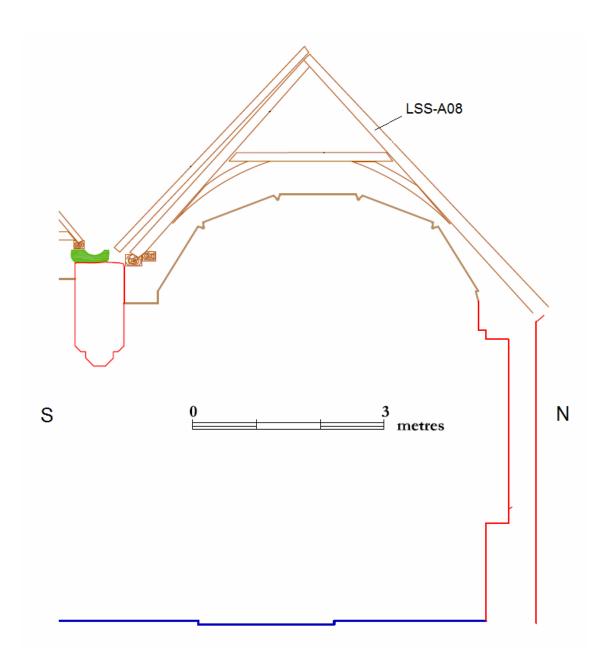


Figure 18: Nave; frame 14, showing the location of sample LSS-A08 (John Crook)

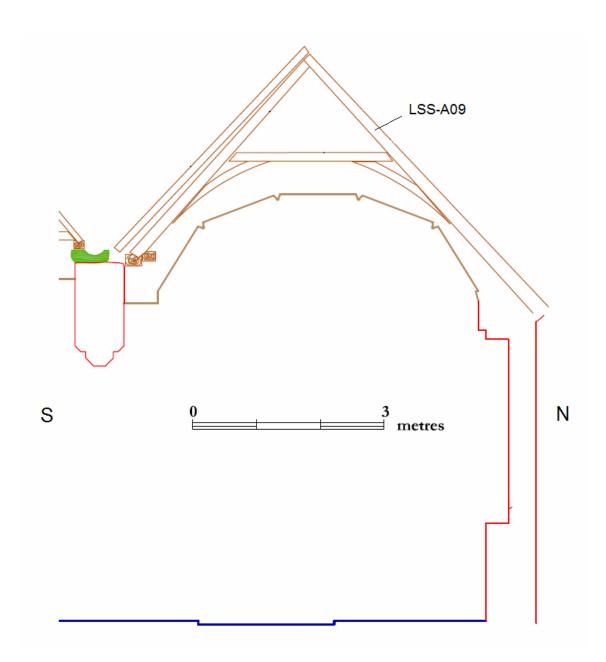


Figure 19: Nave; frame 15, showing the location of sample LSS-A09 (John Crook)

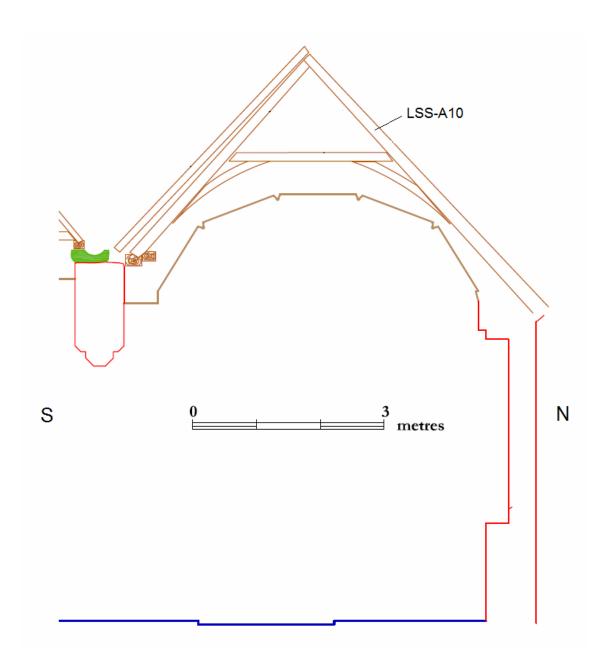


Figure 20: Nave; frame 17, showing the location of sample LSS-A10 (John Crook)

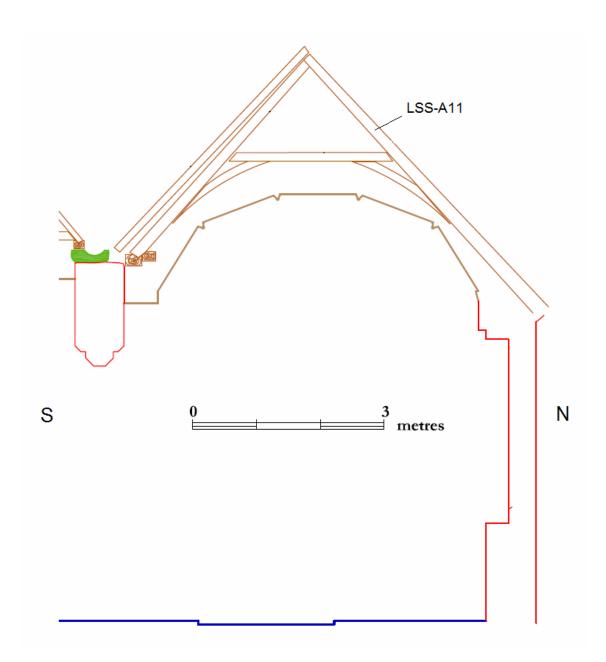


Figure 21: Nave; frame 18, showing the location of sample LSS-A11 (John Crook)

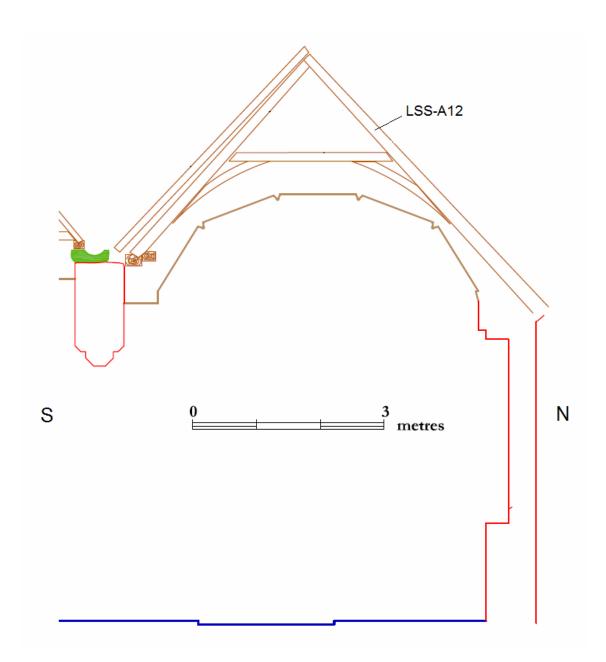


Figure 22: Nave; frame 19, showing the location of sample LSS-A12 (John Crook)

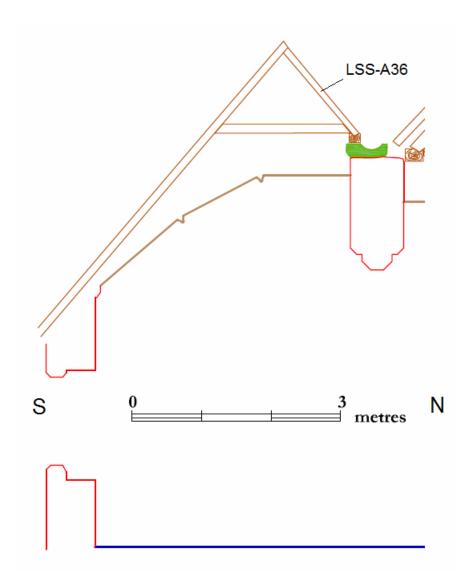


Figure 23: South aisle; frame 3, showing the location of sample LSS-A36 (John Crook)

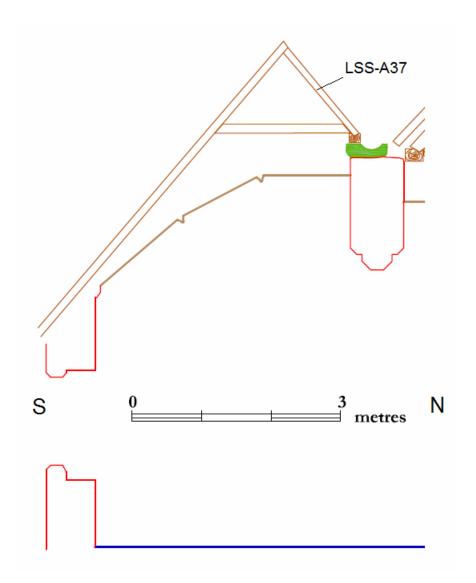


Figure 24: South aisle; frame 4, showing the location of sample LSS-A37 (John Crook)

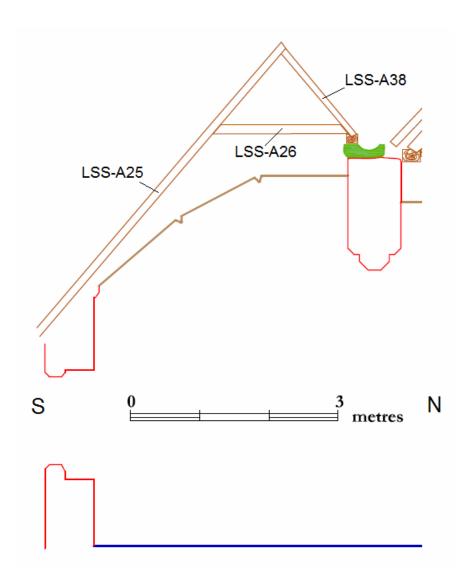


Figure 25: South aisle; frame 5, showing the location of samples LSS-A25, LSS-A26, and LSS-A38 (John Crook)

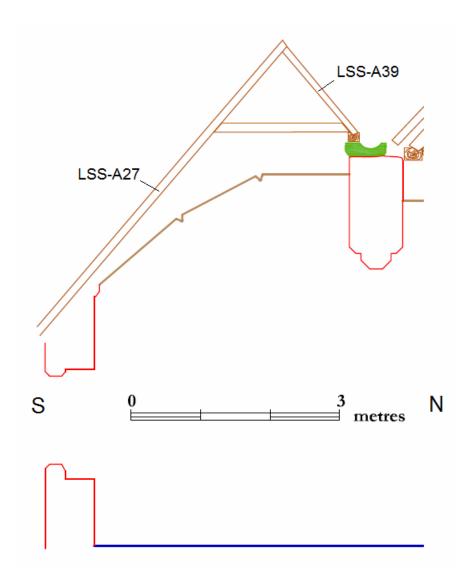


Figure 26: South aisle; frame 6, showing the location of samples LSS-A27 and LSS-A39 (John Crook)

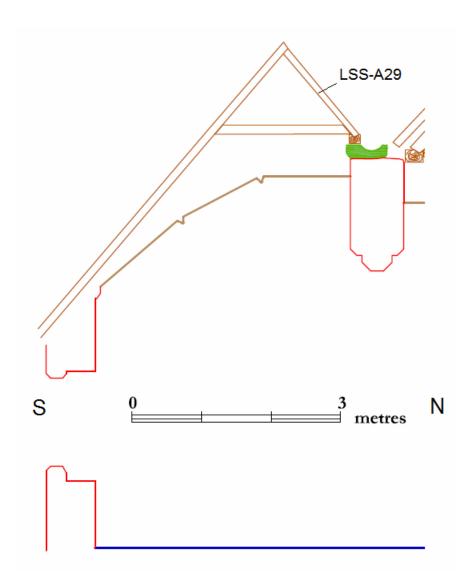


Figure 27: South aisle; frame 8, showing the location of sample LSS-A29 (John Crook)

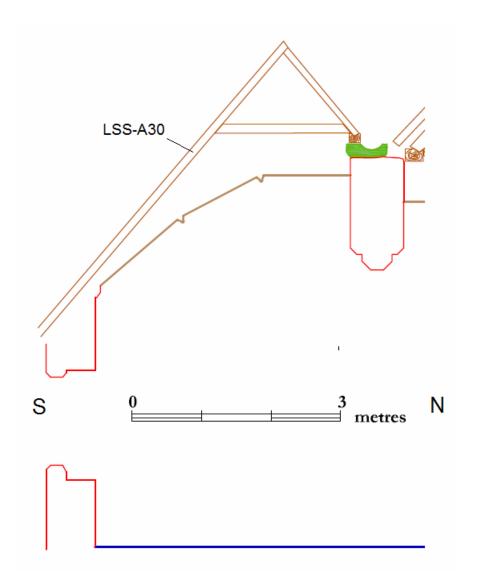


Figure 28: South aisle; frame 9, showing the location of sample LSS-A30 (John Crook)

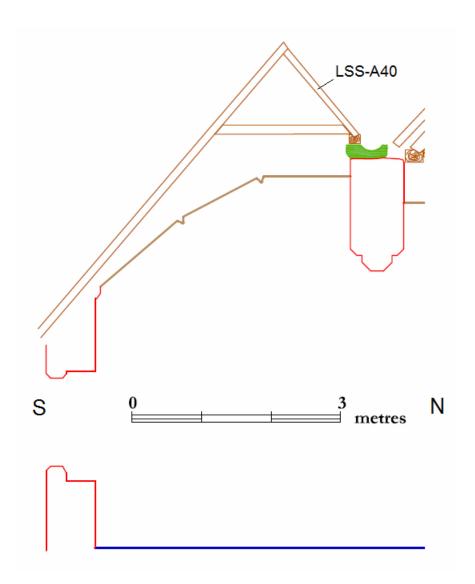


Figure 29: South aisle; frame 12, showing the location of sample LSS-A40 (John Crook)

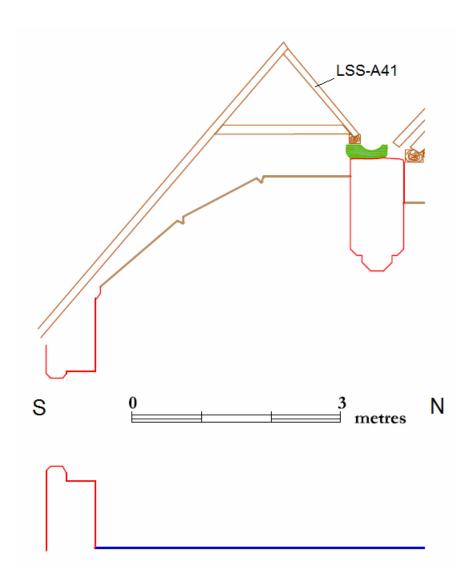


Figure 30: South aisle; frame 14, showing the location of sample LSS-A41 (John Crook)

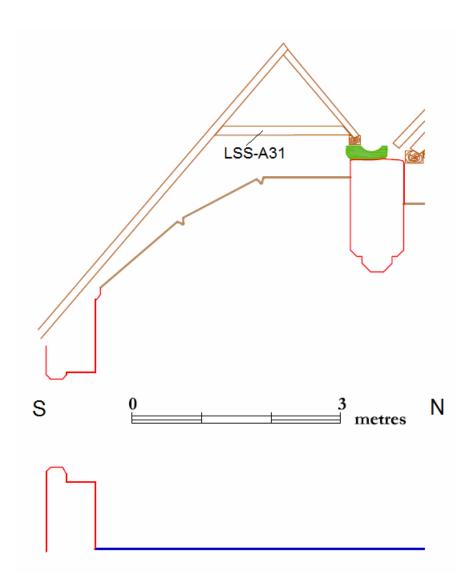


Figure 31: South aisle; frame 15, showing the location of sample LSS-A31 (John Crook)

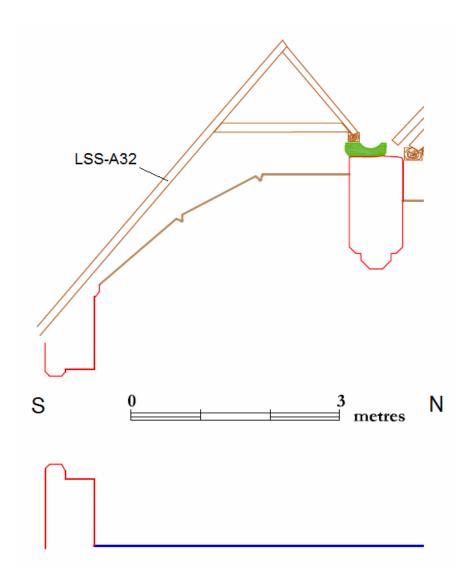


Figure 32: South aisle; frame 17, showing the location of sample LSS-A32 (John Crook)

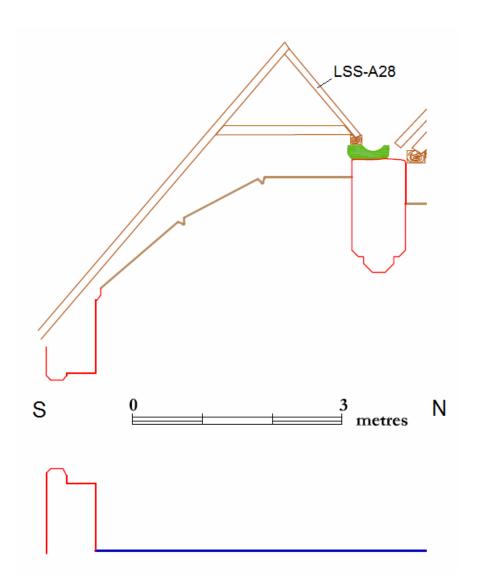


Figure 33: South aisle; frame 18, showing the location of sample LSS-A28 (John Crook)

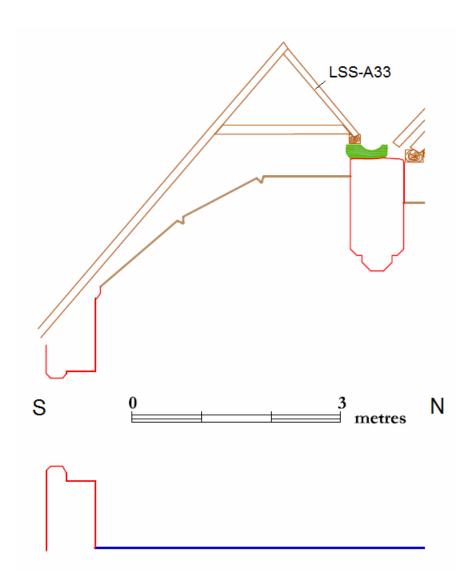


Figure 34: South aisle; frame 21, showing the location of sample LSS-A33 (John Crook)

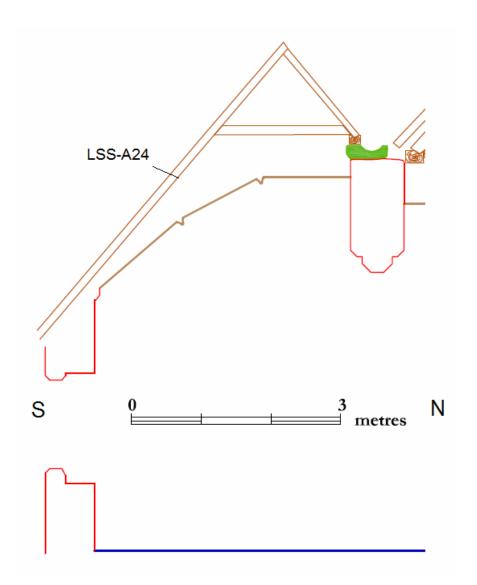


Figure 35: South aisle; frame 22, showing the location of sample LSS-A24 (John Crook)

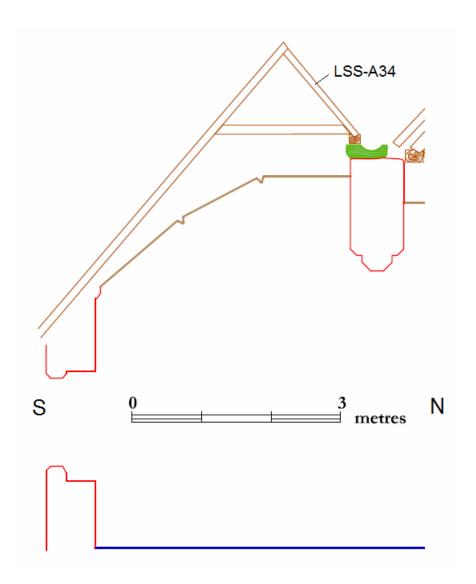


Figure 36: South aisle; frame 23, showing the location of sample LSS-A34 (John Crook)

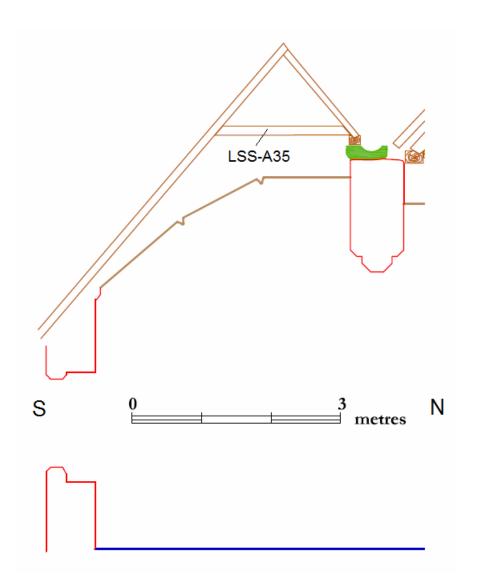


Figure 37: South aisle; frame 25, showing the location of sample LSS-A35 (John Crook)

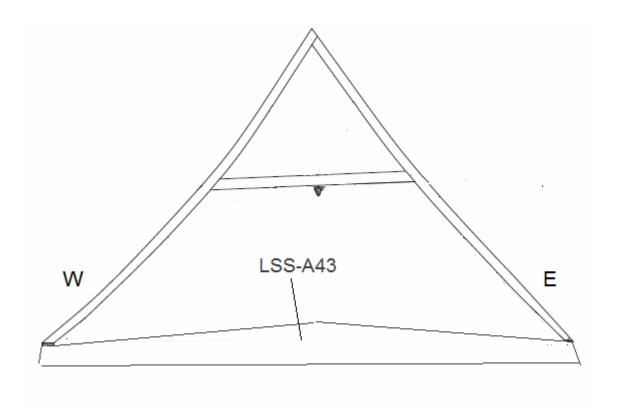


Figure 38: Porch; frame 1, showing the location of sample LSS-A43

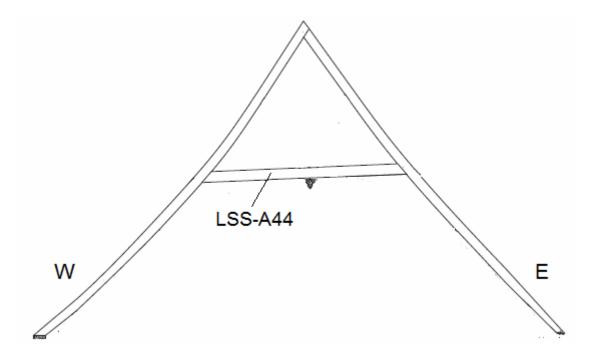


Figure 39: Porch; frame 2, showing the location of sample LSS-A44

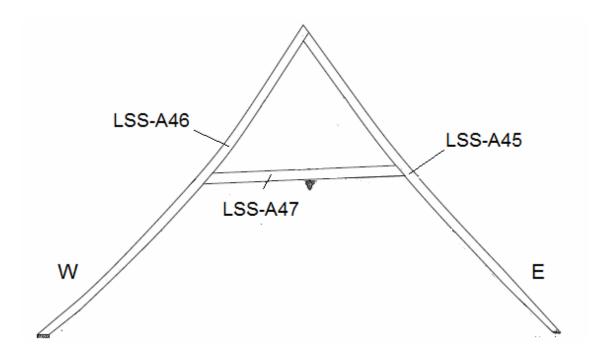


Figure 40: Porch; frame 3, showing the location of samples LSS-A45–7

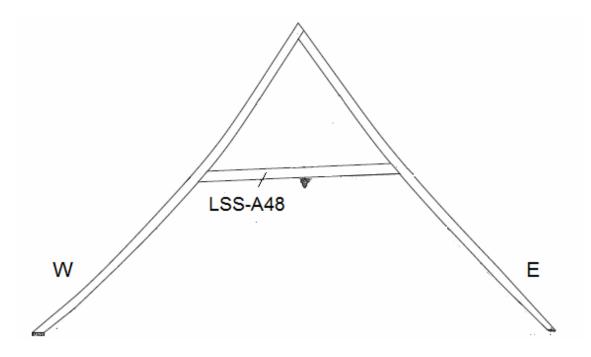


Figure 41: Porch; frame 4, showing the location of sample LSS-A48

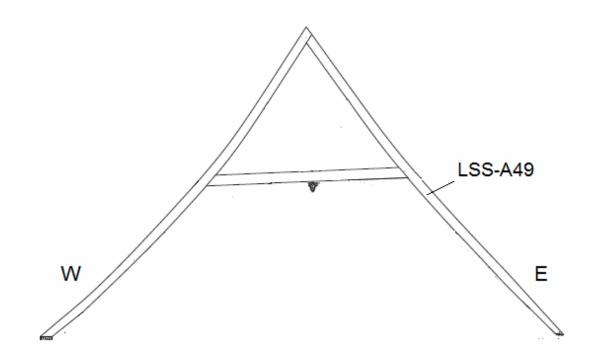


Figure 42: Porch; frame 5, showing the location of sample LSS-A49

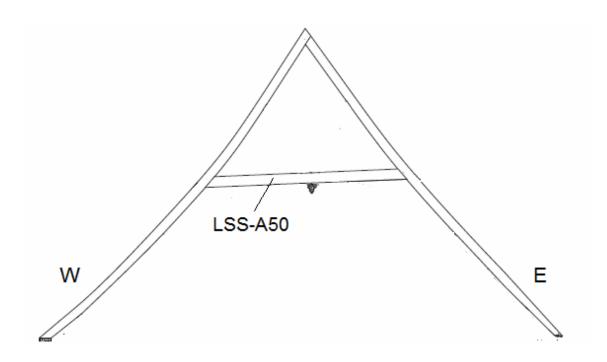


Figure 43: Porch; frame 6, showing the location of sample LSS-A50

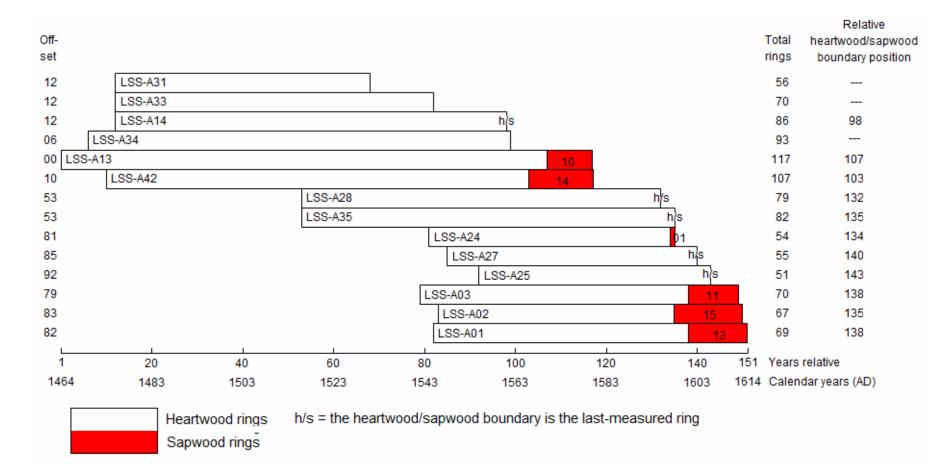


Figure 44: Bar diagram of samples in site sequence LSSASQ01

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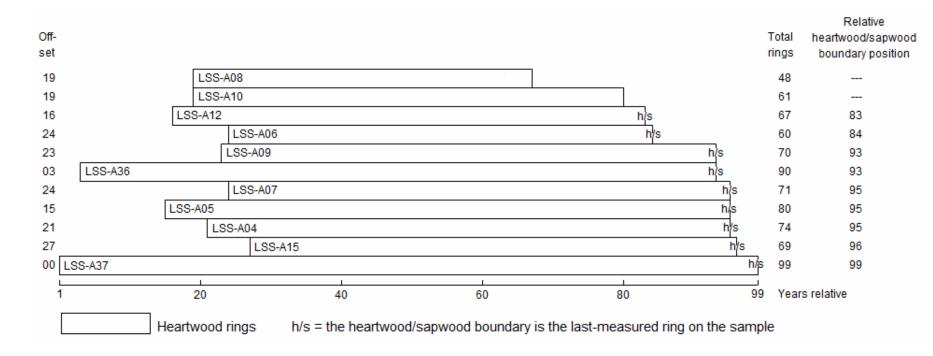
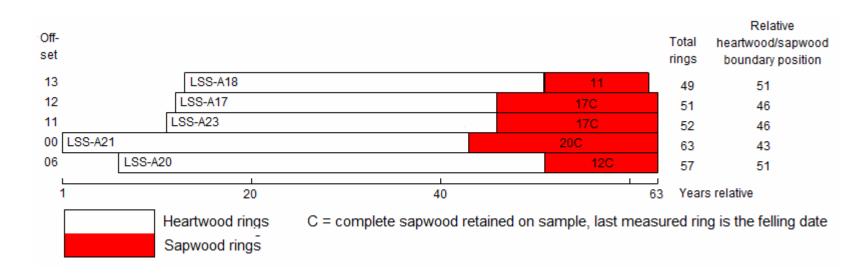


Figure 45: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence LSSASQ02



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Figure 46: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence LSSASQ03

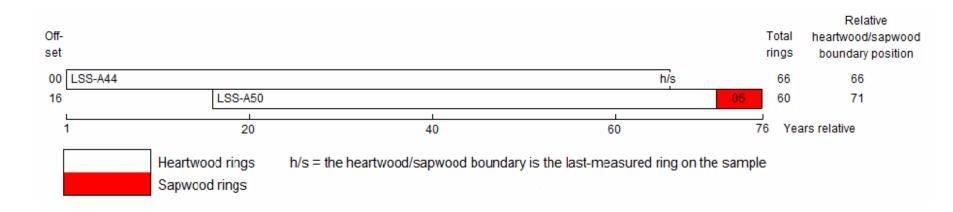


Figure 47: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence LSSASQ04

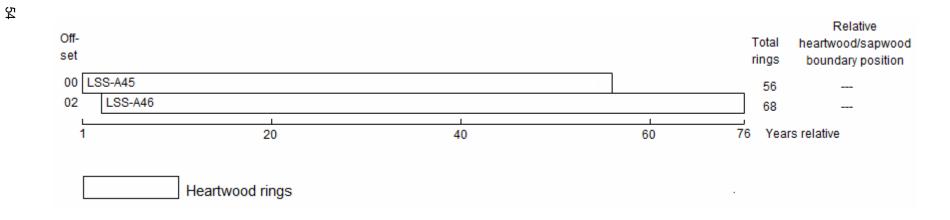


Figure 48: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence LSSASQ05

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01 mm units

229 176 175 261 283 181 204 207 263 307 186 203 155 LSS-A49A 45 495 492 399 382 454 396 345 379 304 323 364 364 390 262 282 222 194 130 163 132 155 202 244 132 168 159 190 354 258 317 195 232 271 230 244 213 199 255 248 199 200 238 189 222 236 LSS-A49B 45 548 493 400 388 465 413 326 359 323 346 361 365 392 266 277 235 194 143 166 137 159 209 258 120 173 145 185 362 257 321 206 217 277 223 230 225 195 255 251 197 199 245 182 223 246

LSS-A50A 60

195 159 157 199 279 258 237 132 223 202 183 209 214 233 289 203 195 297 206 256 142 188 134 296 273 228 293 270 198 183 165 219 150 193 184 273 283 252 235 264 235 266 322 331 313 187 165 166 159 265 281 193 148 188 217 175 181 193 183 237 LSS-A50B 60

206 177 145 191 290 252 246 132 221 204 187 204 224 232 286 204 200 301 208 258 139 190 136 302 274 223 292 278 196 185 164 226 148 205 171 272 282 256 236 259 240 257 324 332 313 186 172 157 160 260 284 191 153 192 222 178 180 210 197 214

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 1998) and Dendrochronology: Guidelines on Producing and Interpreting Dendrochronological Dates (English Heritage 1998). 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.



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

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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 eve, 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.

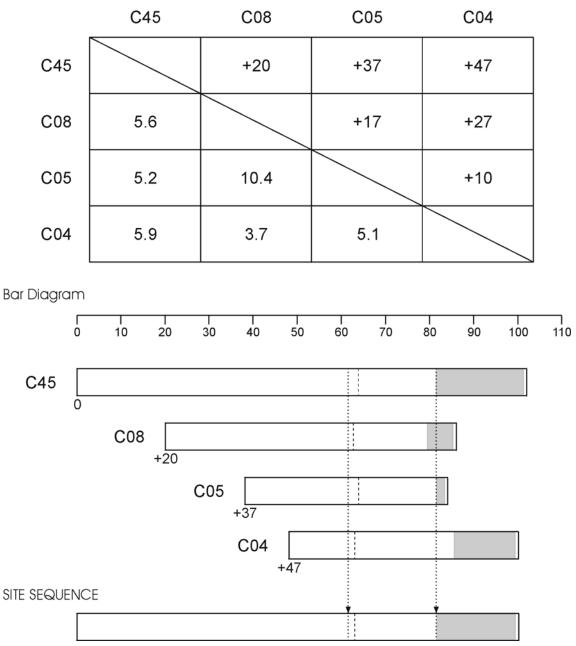
Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on a sample, but none of the heartwood rings are, then an estimate of the felling-date range is possible by adding on the full compliment of, say, 15 to 35 years to the date of the last heartwood ring (called the heartwood/ sapwood boundary or transition ring 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.

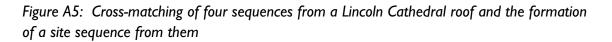
5. Estimating the Date of Construction. There is a considerable body of evidence collected by dendrochronologists over the years that oak timbers used in buildings were not seasoned in medieval or early modern times (English Heritage 1998; Miles 1997, 50–5). Hence, provided that all the samples in a 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.

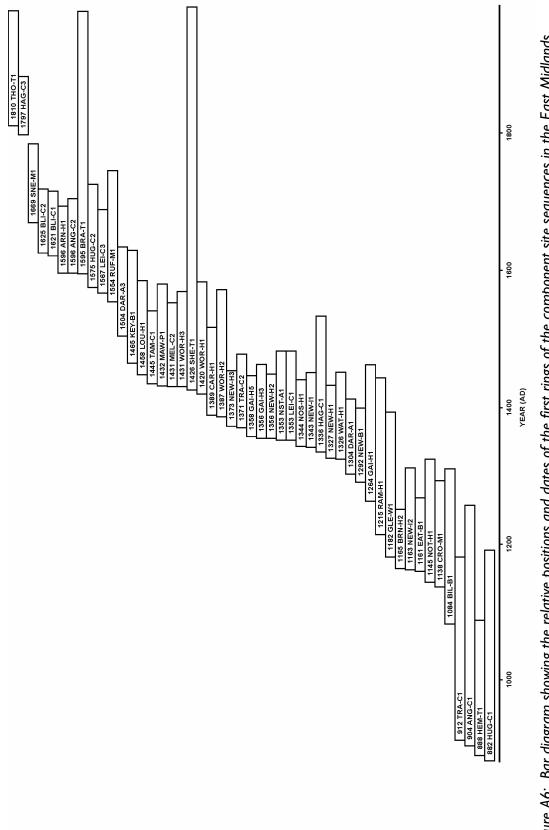
t-value/offset Matrix





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.

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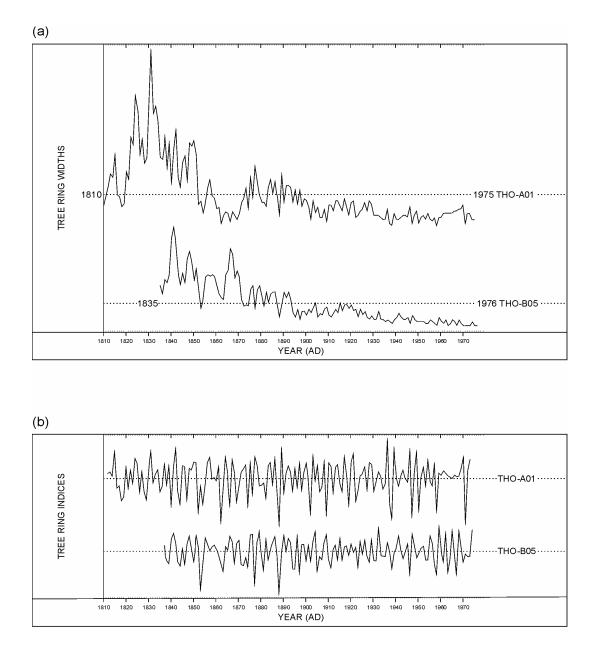


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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ENGLISH HERITAGE RESEARCH AND THE HISTORIC ENVIRONMENT

English Heritage undertakes and commissions research into the historic environment, and the issues that affect its condition and survival, in order to provide the understanding necessary for informed policy and decision making, for the protection and sustainable management of the resource, and to promote the widest access, appreciation and enjoyment of our heritage. Much of this work is conceived and implemented in the context of the National Heritage Protection Plan. For more information on the NHPP please go to http://www.english-heritage. org.uk/professional/protection/national-heritage-protection-plan/.

The Heritage Protection Department provides English Heritage with this capacity in the fields of building history, archaeology, archaeological science, imaging and visualisation, landscape history, and remote sensing. It brings together four teams with complementary investigative, analytical and technical skills to provide integrated applied research expertise across the range of the historic environment. These are:

- * Intervention and Analysis (including Archaeology Projects, Archives, Environmental Studies, Archaeological Conservation and Technology, and Scientific Dating)
- * Assessment (including Archaeological and Architectural Investigation, the Blue Plaques Team and the Survey of London)
- * Imaging and Visualisation (including Technical Survey, Graphics and Photography)
- * Remote Sensing (including Mapping, Photogrammetry and Geophysics)

The Heritage Protection Department undertakes a wide range of investigative and analytical projects, and provides quality assurance and management support for externally-commissioned research. We aim for innovative work of the highest quality which will set agendas and standards for the historic environment sector. In support of this, and to build capacity and promote best practice in the sector, we also publish guidance and provide advice and training. We support community engagement and build this in to our projects and programmes wherever possible.

We make the results of our work available through the Research Report Series, and through journal publications and monographs. Our newsletter *Research News*, which appears twice a year, aims to keep our partners within and outside English Heritage up-to-date with our projects and activities.

A full list of Research Reports, with abstracts and information on how to obtain copies, may be found on www.english-heritage.org.uk/researchreports

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