

Scientific Dating

Hall Farm Barn, Hall Lane, Hemsby, Norfolk

Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

Discovery, Innovation and Science in the Historic Environment



Research Report Series no. 41-2015

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TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on 23 of the 24 samples obtained from different timbers in the barn at Hall Farm, Hemsby. This analysis produced a single dated site chronology comprising 12 samples with an overall length of 126 rings. These rings were dated as spanning the years AD 1158–1283. Interpretation of the sapwood on the dated samples indicates the timbers represented were all probably cut as part of a single episode of felling in AD 1283 for the construction of the barn.

The remaining 12 samples are all ungrouped and undated.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

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Norfolk Historic Environment Record Norfolk Historic Environment Service Union House Gressenhall Dereham Norfolk NR20 4DR

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CONTACT DETAILS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard Nottingham Tree-ring Dating Laboratory 20 Hillcrest Grove Sherwood Nottingham NG5 IFT 0115 960 3833 roberthoward@tree-ringdating.co.uk alisonarnold@tree-ringdating.co.uk

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INTRODUCTION

The barn at Hall Farm, Hemsby (Fig 1a/b), is an impressive Grade I listed building. It is of substantial size comprising eight bays formed by seven trusses and the gable walls, with aisles to both north and south sides, and two threshing floors (Fig 2).

The listing entry describes the barn as being an early fourteenth-century timber-frame structure beneath a thatched roof (now half hipped, but originally gabled; the east gable with brick tumbling), with brick walls added in the eighteenth century (although some flint is also used). The north side has two symmetrically placed double timber doors rising into swept eyebrows under the thatch. At intervals there are blocked slit ventilation lights, and four stepped buttresses remain (Fig 3a). The south side has opposing entrances, now blocked, and two, twentieth-century, sloping brick buttresses to the west and several eighteenth-century brick piers throughout (Fig 3b).

The listing entry further describes the interior as having seven pairs of square-section aisleposts which stand on timber sole spurs running from the base of the outer wall posts. Many of the sole spurs are now replaced with brick, and the wall posts have either been removed in the eighteenth century or else embedded in brickwork of that date. Curved braces rise on both sides of the arcade posts to the arcade plate and inwards to tie beams. Curved passing braces rise from the wall posts, through trenches in the aisle ties and arcade posts and tenon into the underside of tiebeams with notched lap joints. From the tiebeams, queen posts rise to the lower of two tiers of through purlins, both upper and lower purlins being linked by a collar. There are no principal rafters or windbraces (Fig. 4a-d). There is a remarkable series of scarf joints in the arcade plate, splayed and tabled with transverse key and sallied under-squinted abutments (Hewett 1980, 265). The barn is believed to share many of the characteristics of the earliest surviving large timberframed structures in the region, the barns at Cressing and Coggeshall in Essex, for example. Brown (2005) notes that the barns' stylistic and constructional features date it to around AD 1300 making it potentially one of Norfolk's oldest standing timber-framed buildings.

SAMPLING

Sampling and analysis by dendrochronology of Hemsby Hall Farm Barn was requested by Will Fletcher (then English Heritage Inspector of Ancient Monuments) to provide a precise date in order to determine its importance, and contribute to its future management should it be added to the Heritage at Risk register. The aim of analysis was to obtain independent dating evidence for the primary construction of the barn and determine if there was any evidence for historical development.

Thus, having first assessed the timbers as to their suitability for tree-ring analysis, a total of 24 samples was obtained, each sample being given the code HMS-A (for Hemsby, site 'A') and numbered 01-24 (Table 1). The sampling strategy focussed on those timbers

with the maximum dating potential, whilst also aiming to ensure that as wide a range of elements as possible were sampled throughout the barn. For the purposes of this programme of analysis the trusses and bays of the barn have been numbered from site east to site west (left to right as the barn is viewed from the front), following the scheme of the drawings provided. Timbers were then further identified on a north-south or eastwest basis as appropriate. The locations of these samples were recorded at the time of sampling on the drawings provided, these being shown here as Figure 5a–g.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Each of the 24 samples obtained from the barn was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that one sample, HMS-A01, had less than 50 rings, the minimum here deemed necessary for reliable dating, and it was thus rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth ring widths of the remaining 23 samples were, however, measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of this report. The data of the 23 measured samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix) this resulting in the production of a single-site chronology comprising I2 samples. These I2 samples, cross-matching with each other as shown in Figure 6, were combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology HMSASQ01, this having an overall length of I26 rings.

Site chronology HMSASQ01 was then compared to an extensive corpus of reference material for oak, this indicating a consistent and repeated match with a series of these when the date of its first ring is AD 1158 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1283 (Table 2).

Site chronology HMSASQ01 was also compared to the 11 remaining measured but ungrouped samples, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. These 11 ungrouped samples were then compared individually to the full corpus of reference data, but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching and they must, therefore, remain undated.

INTERPRETATION AND CONCLUSION

Analysis by dendrochronology of the timbers has produced a single dated site chronology, HMSASQ01, comprising 12 samples. One of these 12 dated samples, HMS-A02, retains complete sapwood (the last ring produced by the tree before felling), this last ring (and thus the felling of the tree represented) being dated to AD 1283 (Fig 6; Table 1). The analysis indicates that all of the other dated samples also appear likely to have been felled in, or around, AD 1283. The heartwood/sapwood boundary varies by only 11 years, from relative position 103 (AD 1260) on sample HMS-A23, to relative position 114 (AD 1271) on sample HMS-A13 and is highly indicative of a single episode of felling. It thus seems likely that all the timbers were felled as part of a single programme of felling with the construction of the barn occurring shortly afterwards. Thus the dendrochronological

evidence indicates that the barn is of late thirteenth-century date, broadly in line with that suggested by the stylistic evidence, and hence is indeed one of Norfolk's oldest timber-framed buildings.

The overall cross-matching between all 12 samples in the dated site chronology suggests the possibility that the trees were derived from a rather disparate woodland source. Perhaps, given the length of some of the timber elements, *ie*, arcade posts and passing braces, it was difficult to locate trees of the required size from a single discrete woodland source.

Some pairs of samples do, however, cross-match sufficiently highly to suggest that the timbers represented may be derived from a single tree, or from two trees growing close to each other in the same woodland. Samples HMS-A03 and A06 for example (respectively the east and west braces between the south arcade post of truss 2 and the arcade plate) cross-match with a value of t=7.0, while samples HMS-A09 and A13 (respectively the south arcade posts of trusses 3 and 5) cross-match with a value of t=7.6.

In respect of the location of the source woodlands, it may be noted from Table 2 that, although site chronology HMSASQ01 has been compared to reference chronologies from all parts of England, the highest levels of similarity (as indicated by the *t*-values) are generally found with other sites in eastern England. This would suggest that the timbers used in the barn are from a relatively local woodland source.

Despite having sufficient rings for reliable dating and showing no problems, such as compressed or distorted rings, 11 of the 23 measured samples remain ungrouped and undated. Whilst this may be indicative of these trees having been sourced from different woodlands, it is more likely that it is associated with highly localised growth conditions which mask the overall climatic signal required for successful analysis. The presence of undated samples is a frequent feature of tree-ring analysis in Norfolk which has proved to be a difficult area for successful dendrochronological analysis.

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Sample	Cample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured ring	Last heartwood	Last measured ring
number	Sample location	rings	rings	date (AD)	ring date (AD)	date (AD)
HMS-A01	North passing brace, truss 2	nm				
HMS-A02	South passing brace, truss 2	88	19C	1196	1264	1283
HMS-A03	East brace, south arcade post truss 2 to arcade plate	76	h/s	1188	1263	1263
HMS-A04	North arcade plate, truss 2 - 3	89	h/s	1180	1268	1268
HMS-A05	South arcade plate, truss I - 2	86	16	1193	1262	1278
HMS-A06	West brace, south arcade post truss 2 to arcade plate	99	9	77	1266	1275
HMS-A07	West brace, north arcade post truss 2 to arcade plate	87	8			
HMS-A08	East brace, north arcade post truss 3 to arcade plate	66	h/s			
HMS-A09	South arcade post, truss 3	88	8	1189	1268	1276
HMS-AI0	North passing brace, truss 3	83	h/s	1185	1267	1267
HMS-AII	South aisle tie, truss 3	104				
HMS-A12	South aisle tie, truss 4	61	no h/s			
HMS-A13	South arcade post, truss 5	75	h/s	1197	27	27
HMS-A14	South passing brace, truss 5	57	h/s	1212	1268	1268
HMS-A15	East brace, north arcade post truss 5 to arcade plate	62	h/s	1204	1265	1265
HMS-A16	West brace, south arcade post truss 5 to arcade plate	58	no h/s			
HMS-A17	North aisle tie, truss 5	77	h/s			
HMS-A18	South brace truss 5 north side	67	h/s			
HMS-A19	North passing brace, truss 6	54	h/s			
HMS-A20	South passing brace, truss 6	64	no h/s			
HMS-A21	North arcade post, truss 7	76	no h/s	1182		1257
HMS-A22	North aisle tie, truss 7	78	h/s			
HMS-A23	South arcade post, truss 7	103	h/s	1158	1260	1260
HMS-A24	South aisle tie, truss 7	73	no h/s			

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from Hall Farm Barn, Hall Lane, Hemsby, Norfolk

nm = not measured; h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample; C = complete sapwood is retained on the sample, the last measured ring date is the

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence HMSASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1158 and the last-ring date is AD 1283

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Reference
Abbas Hall, Great Cornard, Suffolk	AD 1150-1289	6.6	(Bridge 2000)
Place House, Bluecoat Yard, Ware, Hertfordshire	AD 1179-1253	6.1	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1990)
Upton Court, nr Slough, Berkshire	AD 1170-1319	5.9	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1988)
Mermaid Theatre, City of London	AD 1143-1234	5.7	(Hillam 1979)
St Albans Cathedral, Hertfordshire	AD 1151-1263	5.6	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2002)
Prior's House (south-east wing), Ely Cathedral, Cambridgeshire	AD 1201-1307	5.5	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2004)
Lodge Farm, Denton, Norfolk	AD 1215-1335	5.4	(Groves and Hillam 1993)
Millennium Bridge, City of London	AD 999-1389	5.4	(Tyers 1999)

FIGURES



Figure 1*a*/*b*: Maps to show the location of Hemsby (top) and Hall Farm Barn, Hemsby, (bottom) © Crown Copyright and database right 2015. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 2: Plan of Hall Farm Barn, Hemsby, to show the layout and arrangement of the trusses (after John Walker)



Figure 3a/b: Views of the front (north) side of the barn (top) and the rear (south) side (bottom, photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 4a/b: Interior views of the barn (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 4c/d: Interior detail views (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 5a–c: Cross-section through the trusses to help locate sampled timbers, viewed from the east looking west (after John Walker)



Figure 5d–f: Cross-section through the trusses to help locate sampled timbers, viewed from the east looking west (after John Walker)



Figure 5g: Cross-section through truss to help locate sampled timbers, viewed from the east looking west (after John Walker)



White bars = heartwood rings; shaded bars = sapwood rings; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary; C= complete sapwood is retained on the sample, the last measured ring date is the felling date of the tree represented

Figure 6: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology HMSASQ01

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

92 74 157

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 Nottingham Tree-ring Dating 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 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 random-like, 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

I. 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 a/ 1988; Howard et a/ 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-CO4, 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 CO8 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 a*/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 complement 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.

Master Chronological Sequences. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or 6. 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 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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