

Ruins of Former Manor House, Witchampton, near Wimborne, Dorset

Tree-ring Analysis of Timbers

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

Discovery, Innovation and Science in the Historic Environment



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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on six of the seven samples obtained from a series of lintels and wall timbers to the ruins of the former Manor House at Witchampton. This analysis produced a single site chronology comprising three samples and having an overall length of 123 rings. These rings were dated as spanning the years AD 1432–1554. Interpretation of the sapwood on these samples would suggest that the timbers represented were felled in the period AD 1569–94. Three further measured samples remain ungrouped and undated.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Nottingham Tree-ring Dating Laboratory would like to thank David and Felice Hodges, the owners of Abbey House in whose grounds the ruins are now located, for their support and enthusiasm for this programme of tree-ring analysis. We would also like to thank Meriel O'Dowd (Historic England Heritage at Risk Architect/Surveyor) for requesting the analysis and Keith Miller (Historic England Inspector of Ancient Monuments) for his help in arranging access and for much of the background information on the site used below. Finally, we would like to thank Shahina Farid and Cathy Tyers (Historic England Scientific Dating Team) for commissioning this programme of tree-ring dating and their assistance during the production of this report.

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INTRODUCTION

The Grade II listed "*ruins of former manor house*" are on the Heritage at Risk register and lie within the area designated as a Scheduled Monument, identified in the National Heritage List for England as "*remains of medieval buildings ('Abbey buildings')*". The structures are the remains of a substantial early medieval domestic building, thought likely to be a manor house. It was evidently of high status as it is of two storeys and built of flint and rubble walls with ashlar dressings. It is believed to have been originally constructed in the thirteenth century but was reduced to use for agricultural activities by the eighteenth/nineteenth century.

The partially standing walls are located in an isolated area in the grounds of Abbey House next to the River Allen (Figs 1–2). Recent removal of ivy has exposed the walls revealing six *in situ* timbers comprising wall beams and lintels, and one *ex situ* timber (Figs 3–5). The now *ex situ* timber is thought to be a lintel shown *in situ* in Figure 4a. Whilst the extant walls had been cleared of much overgrowth, the terrain is uneven and overgrown and the tops of the walls remained unconsolidated with a danger of falling masonry.

SAMPLING

Sampling and analysis by dendrochronology of the timbers to the ruins were requested by Meriel O'Dowd to obtain, if possible, precise independent dating evidence for the timbers, which it was thought might potentially be associated with the primary construction phase, and hence help inform a proposed programme of repair and regeneration. Thus, from the small number of timbers available a total of six samples was obtained by coring, with a seventh sample being sliced from the *ex situ* lintel with a chainsaw. Each sample was given the code WCH-A (for Witchampton, site 'A') and numbered 01–07 (Table 1). Although most of the timbers were believed to be potentially associated with the primary phase of construction, one (represented by sample WCH-A02) was somewhat thinner and, hence, thought more likely to be a later insertion. The locations of these samples were recorded at the time of sampling and annotated on to a rectified photograph, reproduced here in Figure 6.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Each of the seven samples obtained from the lintels and wall beams was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that one sample, WCH-A02, had too few rings for reliable dating, and it was rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth ring widths of the remaining six samples were measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of this report. The data of the six measured samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix).

This comparative process indicated that three samples, WCH-A01, WCH-A03, and WCH-A07, cross-matched with each other. Series WCH-A03 and WCH-A07 show a very high level of similarity with each other (t=8.3) whereas WCH-A01, shows a lower level of similarity with both WCH-A03 and WCH-A07 (t=3.8 and t=3.4 respectively). This potential cross-matching was, nevertheless, confirmed by the comparison of sample WCH-A01 with reference chronologies, which confirmed that it was coeval with these other two timbers. Thus, all three samples were combined to form site chronology WCHASQ01, this being 123 rings long (Fig 7). Site chronology WCHASQ01 was then compared to the reference material for oak, this indicating a consistent and repeated match when the date of its first ring is AD 1432 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1554 (Table 2).

The three remaining measured but ungrouped samples were then compared individually to the reference material for oak, but there was no satisfactory cross-matching. These three samples must, therefore, remain undated.

Site chronology	Number of	Number of rings	Date span AD
	samples		(where dated)
WCHASQ01	3	123	1432-1554
ungrouped	3		undated
unmeasured			

This analysis may be summarised thus:

INTERPRETATION

Analysis by dendrochronology of the timbers of the ruins of the former manor house has produced a single site chronology, WCHASQ01, its 123 rings dated as spanning the years AD 1432–1554. None of the dated samples retains complete sapwood (the last ring produced by the trees before they were felled) and it is, thus, not possible to determine the exact felling date for any of the timbers, although it appears likely that all three are coeval.

Two of the samples (WCH-A01 and WCH-A03) do, however, retain the heartwood/sapwood boundary (Table I and Fig 7). This means that although the timbers - both wall beams, have lost all of their sapwood, it is only the sapwood that has been lost and it is, therefore, possible, by allowing for 15–40 sapwood rings (the 95% confidence interval), to estimate their likely felling date range. This boundary is only a year apart on the two samples, with the average date of it being AD 1554. Allowing for the missing sapwood, this would give these two wall beams an estimated felling date in the range AD 1569–94.

The felling date of the timber represented by the third sample, WCH-A07, in site chronology WCHASQ01, cannot be determined because, not only is it missing all of its sapwood rings, but an unknown number of heartwood rings as well. However, given that it cross-matches so well with sample WCH-A03, it is very likely that the source trees for both timbers were growing in the same woodland and are likely to have been felled at a similar time. The inference, therefore, is that the tree from which this lintel was derived was also felled in the period AD 1569–94.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It would thus appear that at least three timbers, two wall beams and a lintel, are coeval, these having been felled during the later-sixteenth century. These timbers are, therefore, significantly later than the presumed thirteenth century origins for the building and hence appear likely to relate to an alteration or a repair phase.

As intimated above, the cross-matching between samples WCH-A03 and WCH-A07 would suggest that the timbers were probably derived from a single area of woodland source; the individual trees probably growing quite close to each other. The third timber, represented by sample WCH-A01, may have come from another area of woodland. It is likely, however, that the woodland source for the dated timbers was relatively local for, although site sequence WCHASQ01 was compared with reference data for all parts of England, the highest levels of similarity are generally found with reference chronologies from south-west England.

Three measured samples remain ungrouped and undated, despite all of them having sufficient rings for reliable analysis, and none showing any problems such as distortion or compression, which would make cross-matching difficult. It is, however, a common feature of tree-ring analysis for some samples not to combine or to date individually and it is possible that these timbers represent different phases of construction or alteration.

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TABLES

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from the ruins of former Manor House, Witchampton, near Wimborne, Dorse	Table 1: Details of	of tree-ring samples	s from the ruins of former	Manor House, Witchampt	on, near Wimborne, Dorset
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Sample	Sample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured ring
number		rings	rings	ring date AD	ring date AD	date AD
WCH-A01	Wall beam I	65	h/s	1489	1553	1553
WCH-A02	Wall beam 2	nm				
WCH-A03	Wall beam 3	23	h/s	1432	1554	1554
WCH-A04	Lintel I (ex-situ)	60	h/s			
WCH-A05	Lintel 2	68	h/s			
WCH-A06	Lintel 3 (outer)	54	no h/s			
WCH-A07	Lintel 4 (inner)	89	no h/s	1443		1531

h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample nm = sample not measured

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence WCHASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1432 and the last-ring date is AD 1554

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t-</i> value	Reference
Avebury Manor, Avebury, Wiltshire	AD 1393-1596	7.8	(Arnold and Howard 2011 unpubl)
Pye Corner, Moulsford, Oxfordshire	AD 1340-1558	7.7	(Alcock <i>et al</i> 1991)
Fiddleford Manor, Sturminster Newton, Dorset	AD 1433-1553	6.9	(Bridge 2003)
Priest's House, Wimborne Minster, Dorset	AD 1259–1634	6.8	(Miles 1994)
Poltimore House, Poltimore, Devon	AD 1380-1559	6.7	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2005)
Dauntesy House, Dauntsey, Wiltshire	AD 1393-1580	6.4	(Tyers <i>et al</i> 2014 unpubl)
The Old Mansion, Clarendon, Wiltshire	AD 1315-1625	6.3	(Tyers 1999)
Holy Cross Church, Crediton, Devon	AD 1317-1536	6.1	(Tyers 2004)

FIGURES

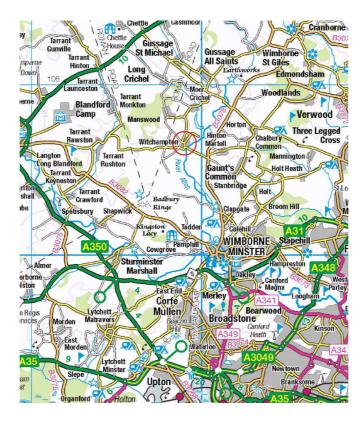


Figure 1 a: Map to show the general location of Witchampton, © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 1b: Map to show the village and the location of the "ruins of former manor house", © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 1 c: Map to show the detailed location of the "ruins of former manor house". © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900

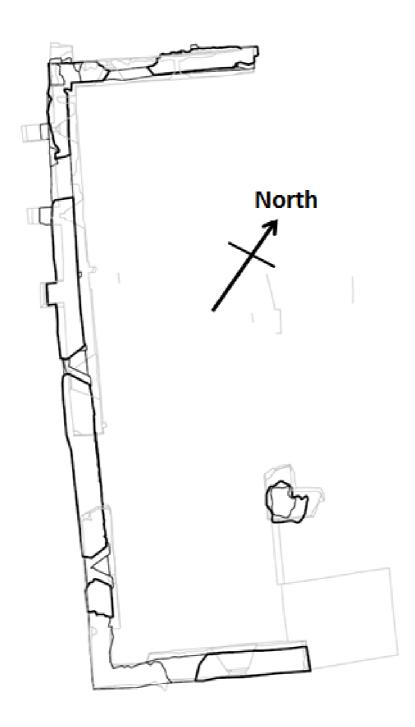


Figure 2: Plan of the ruins at first floor level (after English Heritage Drawn Survey Team)



Figure 3: Photograph of the ruins with the location of some of the surviving timbers indicated (viewed from approximately north-east looking south-west. Photograph Robert Howard)

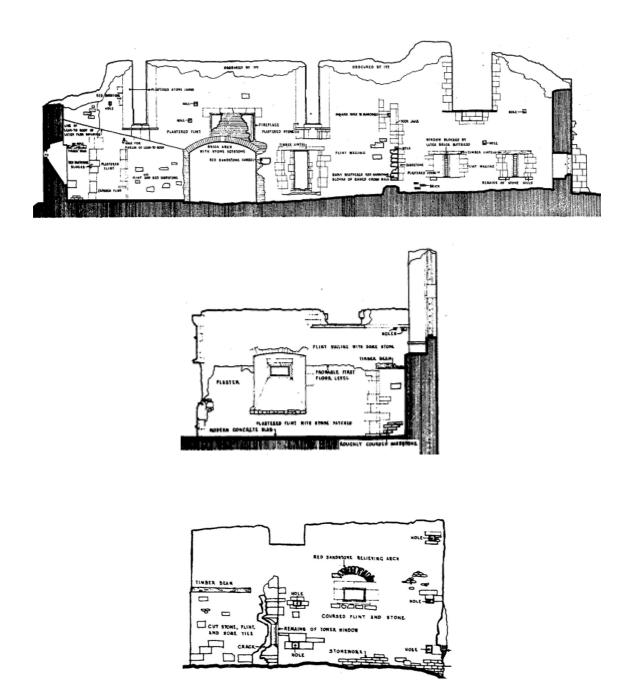


Figure 4a–c: Internal elevation of south-west wall (top) plus internal and external elevations of the south east wall (middle and bottom) (W A V Nutall, July 1961, "medieval field study", The School of Architecture, Liverpool College of Building)



Figure 5: Photograph showing the one of the window lintels (photograph Meriel O'Dowd,)

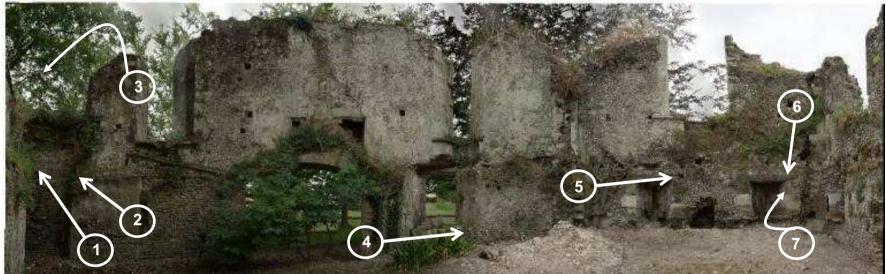
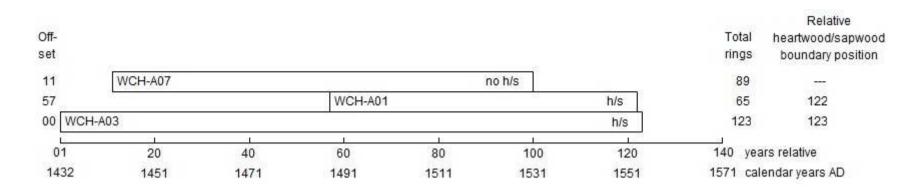


Figure 6: Annotated rectified photograph to locate the sampled timbers (ruins viewed from approximately north-east looking south-west. After English Heritage Drawn Survey Team)



White bars = heartwood rings; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary

Figure 7: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology WCHASQ01

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

WCH-A06B 54

157
184
238
204
188
259
94
50
83
75
68
90
48
68
56
83
112
137
103
121

198
214
257
241
266
255
240
166
195
251
210
267
270
346
407
276
260
257
371
248

326
434
267
214
167
301
240
278
167
315
335
264
253
291

WCH-A07A
89
225
216
213
284
196
127
113
123
156
140
141
201
151
140
152
98
78
74
44
76

162
110
160
178
153
136
91
112
97
135
165
182
196
110
64
71
125
103
176
164

191
207
214
159
194
199
<

215 163 132 118 162 204 176 168 239

WCH-A07B 89

229 229 204 283 172 130 120 118 173 139 146 170 139 151 148 94 83 82 42 80 160 107 171 186 157 127 108 108 108 150 159 168 185 121 57 82 114 101 167 172 197 207 214 168 187 200 159 196 195 139 115 217 146 192 135 120 121 150 157 304 167 185 170 125 132 171 188 170 200 181 201 206 221

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 Buildings (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

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian the timbers in a building are inspected to try to ensure that those sampled are not reused or later insertions. Sampling is almost always done by coring into the timber, which has the great advantage that we can sample *in situ* timbers and those judged best to give the date of construction, or phase of construction if there is more than one in the building. The timbers to be sampled are also inspected to see how many rings they have. We normally look for timbers with at least 70 rings, and preferably more. With fewer

rings than this, 50 for example, sequences of widths become difficult to match to a unique position within a master sequence of ring widths and so are difficult to date (Litton and Zainodin 1991). The cross-section of the rafter shown in Figure A2 has about 120 rings; about 20 of which are sapwood rings – the lighter rings on the outside. Similarly the core has just over 100 rings with a few sapwood rings.

To ensure that we are getting the date of the building as a whole, or the whole of a phase of construction if there is more than one, about 8–10 samples per phase are usually taken. Sometimes we take many more, especially if the construction is complicated. One reason for taking so many samples is that, in general, some will fail to give a date. There may be many reasons why a particular sequence of ring widths from a sample of timber fails to give a date even though others from the same building do. For example, a particular tree may have grown in an odd ecological niche, so odd indeed that the widths of its rings were determined by factors other than the local climate! In such circumstances it will be impossible to date a timber from this tree using the master sequence whose widths, we can assume, were predominantly determined by the local climate at the time.

Sampling is done by coring into the timber with a hollow corer attached to an electric drill and usually from its outer rings inwards towards where the centre of the tree, the pith, is judged to be. An illustration of a core is shown in Figure A2; it is about 150mm long and 10mm diameter. Great care has to be taken to ensure that as few as possible of the outer rings are lost in coring. This can be difficult as these outer rings are often very soft (see below on sapwood). Each sample is given a code which identifies uniquely which timber it comes from, which building it is from and where the building is located. For example, CRO-A06 is the sixth core taken from the first building (A) sampled by the Laboratory in Cropwell Bishop. Where it came from in that building will be shown in the sampling records and drawings. No structural damage is done to any timbers by coring, nor does it weaken them.

During the initial inspection of the building and its timbers the dendrochronologist may come to the conclusion that, as far as can be judged, none of the timbers have sufficient rings in them for dating purposes and may advise against sampling to save further unwarranted expense.

All sampling by the Laboratory is undertaken according to current Health and Safety Standards. The Laboratory's dendrochronologists are insured.







Figure 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

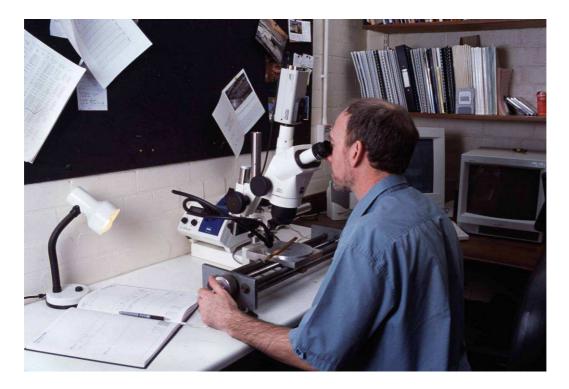


Figure A3: Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measured twice to ensure that an error has not been made. This type of apparatus is needed to process a large number of samples on a regular basis



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 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.

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

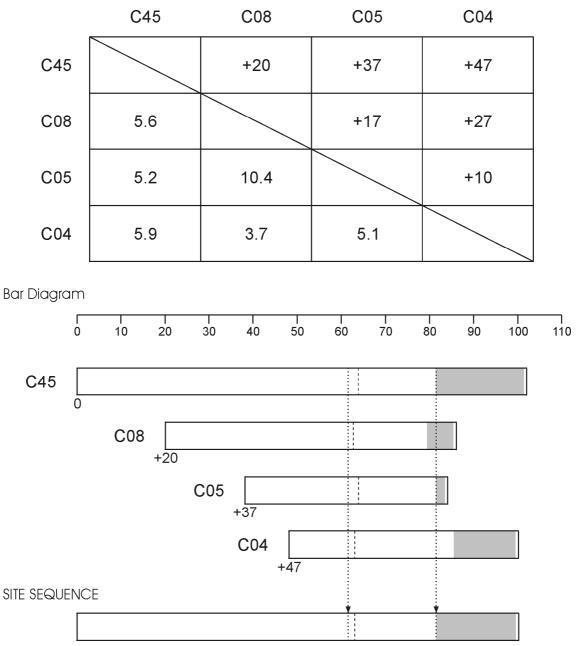
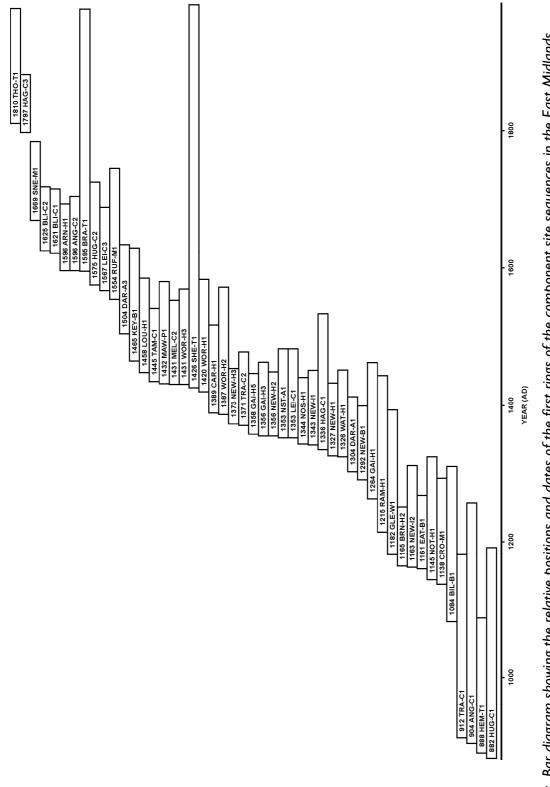
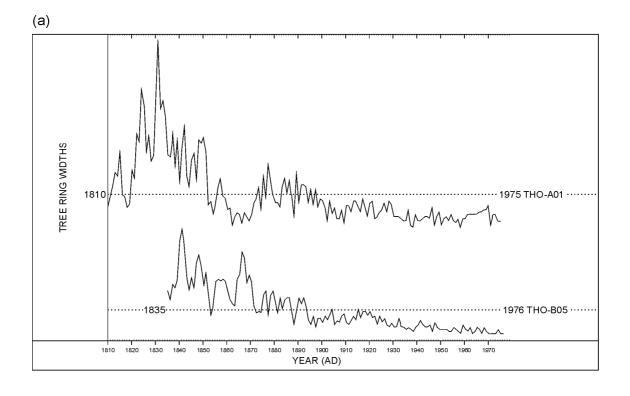


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

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.







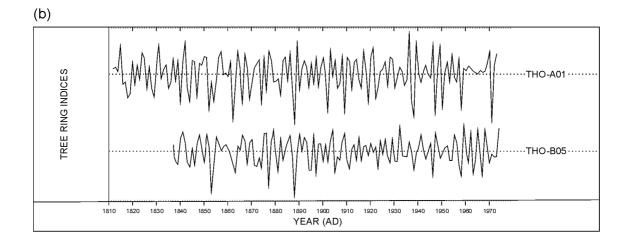


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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