

Lowfield Hall, Poles Lane, Lowfield Heath, Crawley, West Sussex

Tree-ring Analysis of Oak Timbers

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard and Cathy Tyers

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on 17 core samples obtained from both the primary and reused timbers associated with the initial construction of the north-south barn range of Lowfield Hall. This analysis produced a single dated site chronology comprising nine samples, with an overall length of 114 rings. These rings were dated as spanning the years AD 1484–1597. Interpretation of the sapwood on the dated samples, which are all from the primary timbers, suggests that the trees used for these beams were cut as part of a single episode of felling at some point in the period AD 1604–29. Another two samples from the primary timbers remain ungrouped and undated, as do all six samples from the reused timbers.

CONTRIBUTORS

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ARCHIVE LOCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Lowfield Hall, Lowfield Heath, lies just north of Crawley (Figs 1a–c). It comprises of two ranges, the north-south range being the primary structure with an east-west extension at its northern end (Fig 2). The north-south range was originally a three-bay barn with a central threshing bay and storage bays to either side. The original barn is currently not listed in its own right but comes under the curtilage of Charlwood House, a Grade II* listed building, which lies approximately 15m to the north-east.

The following information is summarised from Thompson (2016). The original barn is believed to date to between the mid-sixteenth to early-seventeenth century and comprises of four principal rafters with tiebeam trusses, the trusses at either end having high collars and the roof being half-hipped. Slightly curved braces run from the wall posts to the tiebeams, and raking queen posts (curving concavely) rise from tiebeams to principal rafters. There are straight windbraces between principal rafters and purlins at trusses 1 and 4 only. The trusses support single clasped purlins, these in turn supporting common rafters (Fig 3a). The common rafters show clear evidence of extensive reuse with redundant lap joints on the sides of many of them (Fig 3b) and it is thought that they may potentially originate from a domestic cross-wing or agricultural building. The extant roof, with its combination of primary and reused timber, is thought to represent a single phase of construction and it remains substantially in the form it was when first built.

During the eighteenth century the barn underwent extensive alterations with the fixing of additional studs within the wall frames and the replacement of some of the original curved down-braces with straight raking struts to enable the barn to be re-clad with feather-edged weather-boarding. The doors to either side were also altered at this time. It is believed that, at the same time, a single-storey extension was erected running eastwards across the northern external cross-frame of the original north-south barn, possibly as stabling or shelter for horses or oxen. This extension was constructed of stud framing on a low brick wall. Subsequently in the nineteenth century the feather-edged weather-boarding was removed from the external elevations of the barn and extension and replaced by brick infill panels (Figs 3c–d). During the late-1960s/early-1970s the barn was converted to a domestic dwelling.

SAMPLING

Although within the curtilage of Charlwood House, Historic England has received an application from the owner of Lowfield Hall for the listing of the building on its own merits. Dendrochronological analysis was requested by Simon Hawkins in order to inform the assessment of the listing application. It was hoped that tree-ring analysis would provide independent dating evidence for the primary and reused timbers associated with the initial construction of the north-south barn, secondary alterations/modifications to the barn, and the initial construction of the east-west extension.

The initial assessment of dendrochronological potential found that the timbers associated with the secondary alterations/modifications to the north-south barn and the initial construction of the east-west extension generally contained far too few rings for successful analysis, with only one or two timbers potentially being borderline with respect to suitability. Thus, following further discussions, it was agreed to confine the dendrochronological analysis to the primary and reused timbers associated with the initial construction of the north-south barn.

A total of 17 samples were obtained by coring. Each sample was given the code LFH-A (for Lowfield Heath, site 'A') and numbered 01–17 (Table 1). Of this total number, 11 samples (LFH-A01–LFH-A11) were obtained from what appeared to be primary use timbers, with the remaining samples (LFH-A12–LFH-A17) being obtained from common rafters that appeared to be reused within the initial construction phase. The trusses, bays, and individual timbers in the barn have been numbered from north to south, being then identified on an east-west basis as appropriate. The sampled timbers have been located on Figures 4a–c.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Each of the 17 samples obtained from the timbers of the north-south barn was prepared by sanding and polishing, the annual growth ring widths of each sample then being measured. The data of the measurements were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), this comparative process showing that nine of the 17 samples crossmatched with each other at positions as shown in Figure 5. All nine crossmatching samples are from the primary use timbers.

These nine cross-matching samples were combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology LFHASQ01, this having an overall length of 114 rings. Site chronology LFHASQ01 was then compared to an extensive corpus of reference material for oak, this indicating a consistent and repeated match with a series of reference chronologies when the date of its first ring is AD 1484 and the date of its last ring is AD 1597 (Table 2).

Site chronology LFHASQ01 was then compared with the remaining eight ungrouped samples, but there was no further conclusive cross-matching. The eight remaining samples were, therefore, compared individually with the full corpus of reference data for oak. There was again no conclusive cross-matching, and these eight individual samples remain undated.

INTERPRETATION

None of the nine dated samples in site chronology LFHASQ01 retain sapwood complete to the bark and it is thus not possible to determine precisely when any individual tree was cut. However, seven of the dated samples retain some sapwood, or at least the heartwood/sapwood boundary, this latter indicating that it is only the sapwood rings that have been lost (Table 1; Fig 5). The average date of the heartwood/sapwood boundary of these seven samples is AD 1589. Using the sapwood estimate of 15–40 rings (the 95% confidence interval) gives the seven timbers represented an estimated felling date in the range AD 1604–29. The remaining two dated samples, LFH-A06 and LFH-A10, with no trace of sapwood have lost not only all their sapwood rings but an unknown number of heartwood rings as well. Thus, using the minimum number of expected sapwood rings, the two timbers represented can be said to have been felled after AD 1558 and AD 1598 respectively.

Given the overall level of cross-matching between all nine dated samples, combined with the heartwood/sapwood boundary varying by only six years, it is likely that the trees represented were all part of a single programme of felling at some point during AD 1604–29. It should also be noted that LFH-A04 (with an h/s boundary) and LFH-A10 (without h/s) cross-match with a value of t=10.4 suggesting that it is possible that the two timbers represented have been derived from a single tree.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The analysis undertaken here thus indicates that a number of primary use timbers associated with the initial construction of the north-south barn were felled at the same time at some point in the period AD 1604–29 with construction following on shortly after felling. As such the tree-ring analysis supports but refines the mid-sixteenth to early-seventeenth century date postulated on the basis of architectural evidence.

The overall level of cross-matching between the dated samples also indicates that the timbers represented are all likely to have been sourced from a single woodland. As may be seen from Table 2, although site chronology LFHASQ01 has been compared with reference material from all over England, the highest levels of similarity are to be found with reference chronologies from sites in the surrounding counties in the south-east region. This suggests that the dated timbers at Lowfield Hall were derived from a relatively local woodland source.

It has unfortunately not been possible to provide any dating evidence for the six samples from the timbers reused as common rafters. The ring sequences show no major growth disturbances which would potentially hamper successful analysis but they are towards the lower limit with respect to numbers of rings and the lack of cross-matching in effect makes each sample a 'singleton'. While such individual samples can on occasion be dated, it usually requires them to have higher numbers of rings, and the chances of success are far less than with a group of cross-matched samples that produce a replicated site chronology. The lack of cross-matching could be a result of these reused timbers being salvaged from different buildings of different dates but this analysis can neither prove nor disprove this, and it should be noted that the similarities in physical characteristics of these timbers suggests that this may not be the case.

The two ungrouped and undated samples from the primary use timbers again show no major growth disturbances but both do have ring sequences towards the lower limit of suitability. It is, however, a frequent feature of tree-ring analysis to find that some samples will not group or date for no apparent reason, and with nine of the 11 samples from the primary use timbers in the northsouth barn dated, the success rate is within normal limits.

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Sample	Sample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured
number		rings	rings	ring date AD	ring date AD	ring date AD
	Primary timbers					
LFH-A01	Sill beam, truss 1	67	h/s	1523	1589	1589
LFH-A02	East main wall post, truss 2	53	h/s			
LFH-A03	East principal rafter, truss 2	51	h/s	1538	1588	1588
LFH-A04	East queen post, truss 2	103	h/s	1490	1592	1592
LFH-A05	West principal rafter, truss 2	74	6	1520	1587	1593
LFH-A06	West queen post, truss 2	90	no h/s	1484		1573
LFH-A07	East principal rafter, truss 3	76	h/s	1511	1586	1586
LFH-A08	East queen post, truss 3	76	h/s	1515	1590	1590
LFH-A09	West main wall post, truss 3	58	h/s			
LFH-A10	West principal rafter, truss 3	67	no h/s	1517		1583
LFH-A11	West queen post, truss 3	105	7	1493	1590	1597
	Reused timbers					
LFH-A12	East common rafter 2, bay 2	55	h/s			
LFH-A13	East common rafter 3, bay 2	54	15			
LFH-A14	West common rafter 5, bay 2	54	h/s			
LFH-A15	East common rafter 5, bay 3	47	13			
LFH-A16	East common rafter 6, bay 3	47	h/s			
LFH-A17	East common rafter 7, bay 3	45	8			

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from the original north-south barn range of Lowfield Hall, Lowfield Heath, Crawley, West Sussex

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

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence LFHASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring
date is AD 1484 and the last-ring date is AD 1597

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Reference
Chiddingly Place, Chiddingly, East Sussex	AD 1324–1576	7.0	(Arnold and Litton 2003)
49/50 Quarry Street, Guildford, Surrey	AD 1341–1583	6.7	(Arnold and Howard 2005 unpubl)
Ightham Mote, Ivy Hatch, Kent	AD 1276–1648	6.5	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2002 unpubl)
Cobham Hall, Cobham, Kent	AD 1317–1662	6.4	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2003)
Deal Castle, Deal, Kent	AD 1465–1601	6.2	(Arnold and Howard 2015)
Abbey Road Barrels, Barking, London	AD 1314–1599	6.1	(Tyers 2001)
Goddington House, Goddington, Kent	AD 1544–1621	6.0	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2008)
Causeway Farmhouse, Pirbright, Surrey	AD 1403–1557	5.6	(Miles and Worthington 2000)

FIGURES

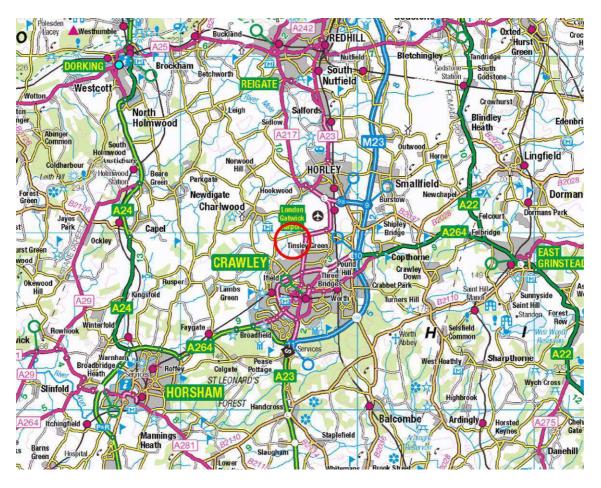


Figure 1a: Map to show the general location of Lowfield Heath, immediately north of Crawley. © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900

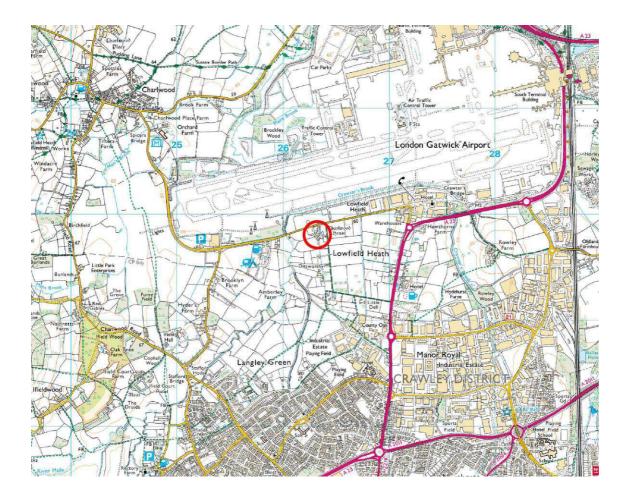


Figure 1b: Map to show the location of Lowfield Hall, Lowfield Heath. © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 1c: Map to show the detailed location of Lowfield Hall. © Crown Copyright and database right 2016. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900

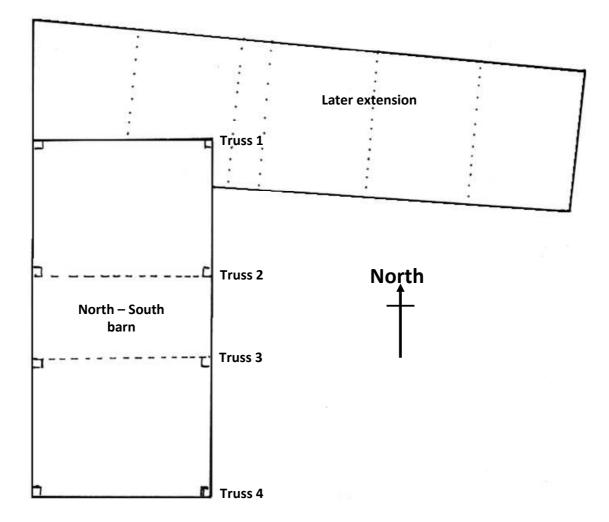


Figure 2: Plan of Lowfield Hall to show layout of the two ranges and the position of the trusses which are numbered from 1–4 from north to south in the original barn (after Thompson 2016)



Figure 3a–b: Views of the timber framing to the north-south barn (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 3c–d: Views of the framing to the west wall of the north-south barn (top) and the north wall of the later extension (bottom) (photographs Robert Howard)

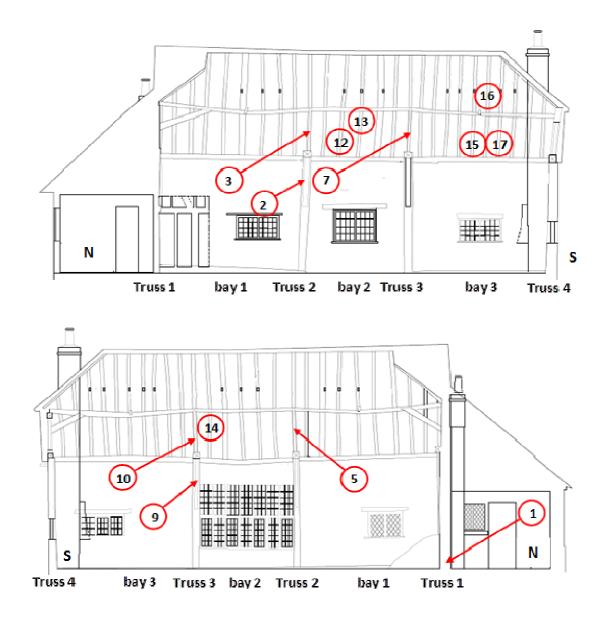
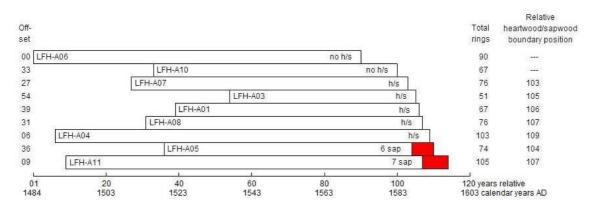


Figure 4a–b: Sections to help locate sampled timbers (after Hockley and Dawson Consulting Engineers Ltd August 2015)



Figure 4c: Annotated photograph to help locate sampled timbers (photograph Robert Howard)



white bars = heartwood rings red bars = sapwood rings h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary

Figure 5: Bar diagram of the dated samples in site chronology LFHASQ01 in last measured ring date order

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

LFH-A01A 67

361 447 301 332 311 317 326 269 144 294 332 273 309 308 246 257 238 175 214 214 192 258 104 168 207 195 207 195 160 140 170 159 214 213 179 192 159 185 184 145 148 104 126 159 207 LFH-A17B 45 362 468 294 332 318 335 371 257 155 303 327 273 306 306 266 251 232 174 196 193 200 246 120 173 210 182 209 201 156 138 172 167 212 225 181 193 159 198 178 140 143 99 129 161 199

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.



innermost ring to the last ring on the outside just inside the bark. The year of each ring can be determined by counting Figure A1: A wedge of oak from a tree felled in 1976. It shows the annual growth rings, one for each year from the 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).

Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the 3. 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 tvalue 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 Figure 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 guite 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 6. widths, or a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to cross-match it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In 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

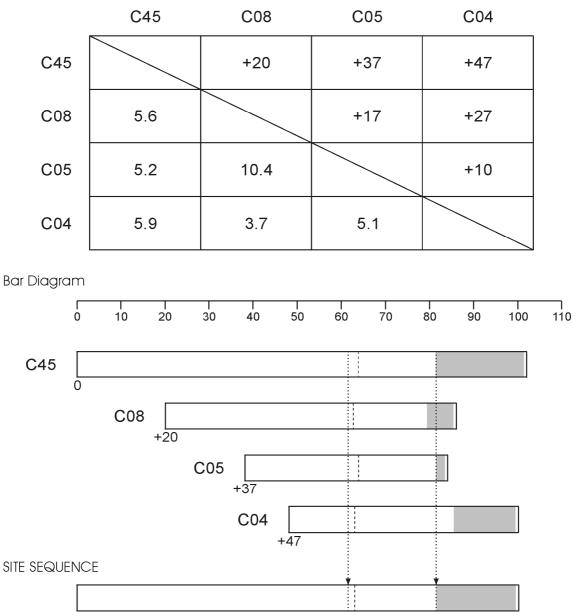
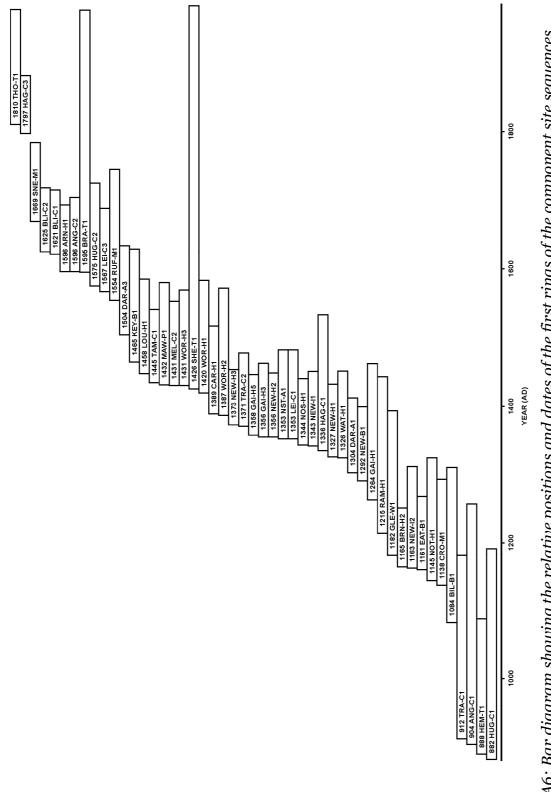
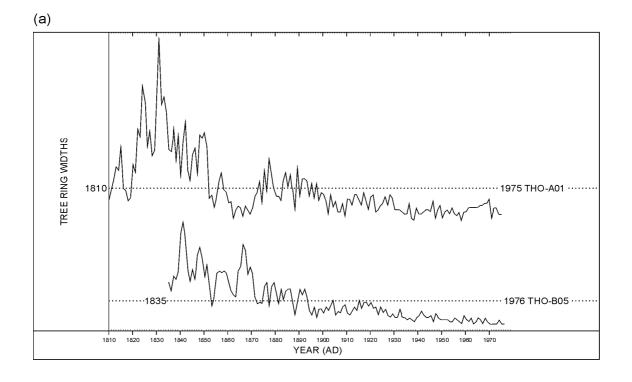


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

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.







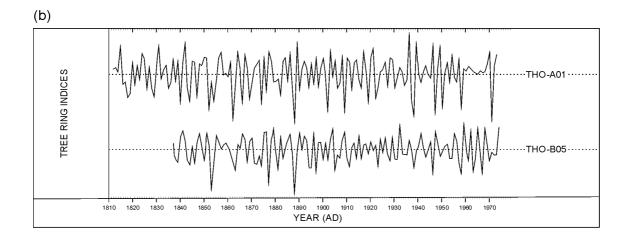


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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