APSHILL HOUSE, LOWER CHICKSGROVE, WILTSHIRE TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Matt Hurford, Cathy Tyers and Robert Howard





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APSHILL HOUSE, LOWER CHICKSGROVE, WILTSHIRE

TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

M Hurford, C Tyers, and R E Howard

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on 13 of the 14 samples taken from timbers associated with the former open-hall roof at Apshill House. This resulted in the production of two site chronologies, LCAHSQ01 and LCAHSQ02, incorporating a total of 11 samples. These site chronologies can be dated as spanning the years AD 1080–1332 and AD 1220–1310 respectively.

One timber retained its final sapwood ring immediately below the bark, which dated to AD 1332. It was not possible to determine the season of felling for this timber, however, due to the narrow nature of the growth rings. The analysis suggests that all 11 of the dated timbers used in the construction of the roof probably represent a single programme of felling. Construction of this roof therefore appears likely to have taken place, shortly after felling, in the early AD 1330s.

CONTRIBUTORS

Matt Hurford, Cathy Tyers, and Robert Howard

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ARCHIVE LOCATION

Wiltshire Archaeological Service The Wiltshire and Swindon History Centre Cocklebury Road Chippenham SN15 3QN

DATE OF INVESTIGATION

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CONTACT DETAILS

Matt Hurford and Cathy Tyers Dendrochronology Laboratory Graduate School of Archaeology West Court, 2 Mappin Street Sheffield SI 4DT Tel: 0114 276 3146 Email: m.hurford@sheffield.ac.uk, c.m.tyers@sheffield.ac.uk Robert Howard Nottingham Tree-Ring Dating Laboratory 20 Hillcrest Grove Sherwood Nottingham NG5 IFT Tel: 0115 9603833 Email:roberthoward@treeringdating.co.uk

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INTRODUCTION

In 2009 the Wiltshire Buildings Record successfully obtained support through the English Heritage Historic Environment Enabling Programme for their project 'Wiltshire cruck buildings and other archaic roof types'. The detailed aims and objectives of the project are set out in the Project Design (Lloyd 2009). The overall aim is to establish a typological chronology of archaic roof types and hence elucidate the development of carpentry techniques in the county. This will then facilitate detailed comparison with other counties allowing Wiltshire to be placed in a regional context. Investigation of these late-medieval buildings (c AD 1200 – c AD 1550) will combine building survey, historical research, and dendrochronological analysis.

A series of buildings identified by the Wiltshire Buildings Record as having the potential to contribute to the aims and objectives of the project were assessed for dendrochronological suitability during 2009. In order to maximise the potential, these detailed dendrochronological assessments and the WBR's assessments of the significance of the buildings within the project informed the selection of the buildings subsequently subjected to detailed study.

A single final report produced by the Wiltshire Buildings Record (forthcoming a) will summarise the overall results from the project. However, each building included in the project will have an associated individual report produced by the WBR (forthcoming b), whilst the primary archive of the dendrochronological analysis is the English Heritage Research Department Report Series.

A brief introduction to dendrochronology can be found in the Appendix. Further details can be found in the guidelines published by English Heritage (1998), which are also available on the English Heritage website (http://www.english-heritage.org.uk/publications/dendrochronology-guidelines/).

Apshill House

Apshill House lies just to the east of the small settlement of Chicksgrove and about 0.75 km south-east of Lower Chicksgrove, Wiltshire (ST976294; Figs 1 and 2). This L-plan grade II listed property (Figs 3 and 4) incorporates a medieval open hall house, which was owned by Shaftesbury Abbey (Crowley 1987).

The details given below are summarised from the Wiltshire Buildings Record report (forthcoming b) on Apshill House. The original building appears to have been a timberframed, thatched, raised-cruck open-hall house, comprising a two-bay open hall with a room to the south and probably a cross-passage and service room at the north end. Stylistically this open-hall house appears likely to have been built during the first half of the fourteenth century, prior to the Black Death in AD 1347–8. The seventeenth century saw various successive alterations, including the insertion of a smoke bay in the open hall, the

I

replacement of the external timber framing with stone walls, followed by the flooring over of the open hall, and the construction of the cross-wing which appears to have replaced the service room and forced the relocation of the cross-passage into the hall area. The eighteenth century saw the rebuilding of the south parlour end and alterations to the cross-wing, including some reroofing. Further alterations appear to have been carried out during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The focus of this investigation is the remains of the former open hall. This comprises two trusses and associated roof elements in two bays (Fig 3). The original central open truss, Truss B (Fig 5), and the northern truss, Truss C (Fig 6), are of raised-cruck construction, both with collars and saddles. Truss B is notable for its ogee-cusped arch bracing. There are two rows of purlins and also, in the east side of bay 2, a pair of windbraces between the two cruck blades beneath the lower purlin (Fig 7). In addition there is an extant common rafter that has been sawn through when the stone chimney stack was inserted.

SAMPLING

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of the timbers associated with the roof of the former open hall at Apshill House was commissioned by English Heritage. It was hoped to provide independent dating evidence for the construction of this roof associated with the original construction of Apshill House and hence inform the overall objectives of the *Wiltshire Cruck Buildings and other archaic roof types* project. The dendrochronological study also formed part of the English Heritage-funded training programme for the first author.

A total of 14 timbers associated with the extant remains of the open hall was sampled by coring. Each sample was given the code LCA-H (for Lower Chicksgrove, Apshill House) and numbered 01–14. The sampling strategy encompassed as wide a range of elements as possible whilst focusing on those timbers with the best dendrochronological potential. However the ogee-cusped arch braces were deliberately excluded on aesthetic grounds, as any core taken would have compromised the decorative faces.

The location of samples was noted at the time of coring and marked on the drawings provided by the Wiltshire Building Record, these being reproduced here as Figures 8–10. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1. In this table the timbers have been located and numbered following the scheme on the drawings provided.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Each of the 14 samples obtained was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this point that one sample, LCA-H01, had an insufficient number of rings ie a minimum of 50, for reliable dating, and so was rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth rings of the remaining 13 samples were measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of this report. The data of these 13 samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see

Appendix) allowing two groups to be formed at a minimum value of t=4.5, the samples of each group cross-matching with each other as shown in the bar diagram (Fig 11). The analytical process was also aided by the use of software written by Tyers (2004).

Both site chronologies, LCAHSQ01 and LCAHSQ02, were compared to an extensive range of reference chronologies for oak, this indicating repeated cross-matches and dates for both of them. The evidence for this dating is given in Tables 2 and 3.

Each site chronology was also compared with the remaining two ungrouped samples but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. The two ungrouped samples were then compared individually with the reference chronologies, but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching and these samples must, therefore remain undated.

This analysis can be summarised as follows:

Site chronology	Number of	Number of	Date span
	samples	rings	(where dated)
LCAHSQ01	9	253	AD 1080-1332
LCAHSQ02	2	91	AD 1220-1310
	2		undated
			unmeasured

INTERPRETATION

The former two-bay open-hall roof is represented by 11 dated samples, nine in site chronology LCAHSQ01 and two in site chronology LCAHSQ02 (Fig 11).

Site chronology LCAHSQ01 includes a single sample, LCA-H14, which retained complete sapwood. Its final sapwood ring immediately below the bark dates to AD 1332. It is not possible to determine what season this timber was felled, however, due to the narrow nature of the growth rings. It could have been felled over a period of several months ranging from as early as summer AD 1332 to as late as early spring AD 1333. None of the remaining eight samples in site chronology LCAHSQ01 has complete sapwood, and it is thus not possible to calculate a precise felling date for the timbers represented. However, three did retain their heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, the average date for this being AD 1301. Using the 95% confidence limit of 15–40 sapwood rings appropriate for mature oaks in this part of England, an estimated felling date in the range AD 1316–41 can be calculated for these timbers. This encompasses the precise felling date produced. The overall variation of the heartwood/sapwood boundary date of all four samples on which it is present is 15 years, which suggests that these timbers probably represent a single programme of felling.

The remaining five dated samples in site chronology LCAHSQ01 have no trace of sapwood and thus it is not possible to calculate their likely felling date ranges. However

the dates of their last measured rings vary from AD 1258 to AD 1282 which, combined with the very high level of cross-matching (see below), implies that all dated timbers form a coherent group and are part of the same felling programme, for which a single precise felling date in the early AD 1330s has been obtained. Furthermore, they appear integral to the roof structure with no evidence of insertion or reuse.

Neither of the two samples in site chronology LCAHSQ02 retained complete sapwood, so a precise felling date for the timbers represented cannot be calculated. The heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, dated to AD 1308, was however present on sample LCA-H04, allowing an estimated felling date of AD 1323–48 to be calculated. The second sample, LCA-H03, did not retain its heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, but with a last measured ring of AD 1308, and a potential same-tree match with LCA-H04 (see below), it is likely that they were felled at the same time.

The estimated felling date for the two timbers represented in site chronology LCAHSQ02 encompasses the precise felling date in the AD 1330s obtained above. The low, but nevertheless significant, level of cross-matching of t=4.0 between the two site chronologies, combined with the similarity in the heartwood/sapwood boundary dates, suggests that these two timbers are also likely to be part of the same felling programme as the rest of the dated timbers. Furthermore these two timbers, along with the others dated from the former open hall, also have no evidence for insertion or reuse, suggesting that all 11 dated timbers represent a single building phase.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The dated timbers come from throughout the extant remains of the two-bay open hall. Whilst they appear to potentially represent two slightly different woodland sources, the analysis suggests that they are all probably coeval and hence that the original open hall house was likely to have been constructed shortly after felling in the early AD 1330s. It is unfortunate that neither of the cruck blades from truss C was successfully dated, but other elements associated with this truss were dated. The dendrochronological dating evidence supports the stylistic dating evidence, although it should be noted that the early AD 1330s date indicated is based on only one sample with bark edge present.

The high overall level of cross-matching between the individuals in site sequence LCAHSQ01, with the majority of *t*-values in excess of 6.0, suggests that these timbers probably originated from the same woodland source. Particularly high *t*-values in excess of 10.0 can be found between a series of samples, suggesting the possibility that samples LCA-H02, LCA-H11, LCA-H12, LCA-H13, and LCA-H14 could be derived from either the same tree, or trees located in very close proximity to each other. Thus there may well only be a few trees represented by these nine dated timbers in LCAHSQ01. In addition, the *t*-value of 12.2 between the two samples in site chronology LCAHSQ02 suggests that they may also be derived from the same tree.

The two site chronologies from Apshill House generally produce the highest *t*-values, and thus show the greatest degree of similarity, with reference chronologies from the southwest region (Tables 2 and 3). This suggests that it is likely that the timbers were derived from relatively local woodland sources. The higher *t* values produced by site chronology LCAHSQ01 are probably due to it being a much longer and better-replicated site chronology than LCAHSQ02.

It is noticeable that the timbers represented in the two site sequences are very different in character. The majority of timbers analysed are likely to be derived from relatively slowgrown trees in excess of approximately 150 years old when felled, and in some cases likely to be in the region of 250 years old. However there are three exceptions to this, including both samples in site sequence LCAHSQ02. These two sequences are derived from the cruck blades of Truss B and, along with the west cruck blade from Truss C, have noticeably wider average ring widths and are amongst the shortest ring sequences analysed. These three timbers appear likely to have been derived from faster-grown trees under approximately 150 years old when felled. They are also the timbers of largest scantling, suggesting that they could have been specifically selected from a slightly different source with a more open canopy, as would be found towards the edge of woodland or even parkland or hedgerow-type environments.

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Average Cross-section Sample Total Sapwood First measured Last heartwood Last measured Sample location ring width dimensions number ring date (AD) ring date (AD) ring date (AD) rings rings (mm) (mm) 90×100 LCA-H01 Bay I west common rafter nm -------------LCA-H02 Bay I east upper purlin 160 h/s 0.83 not recorded 1150 1309 1309 LCA-H03 1239 1308 Truss B west cruck blade 70 510×130 no h/s 2.66 ---LCA-H04 2.03 520×140 1220 1308 1310 Truss B east cruck blade 91 2 LCA-H05 0,49 80×130 1178 1296 1305 9 Truss B saddle 128 LCA-H06 Truss C west cruck blade 79 280×160 2 3.18 -------LCA-H07 Truss C east cruck blade 320x140 1.33 104 h/s -------LCA-H08 Truss C saddle 94 h/s 0.96 170x250 1204 1297 1297 LCA-H09 Bay 2 east windbrace from truss B 70x170 1166 no h/s 1.22 1280 115 --to lower purlin LCA-HI0 Bay 2 east windbrace from truss C to 70x170 152 no h/s 0.97 ||3| 1282 --lower purlin LCA-HII Bay 2 west lower purlin 1.23 180x200 1116 1258 143 no h/s ---LCA-HI2 1.34 170x170 1080 Bay I east lower purlin 187 no h/s 1266 ---LCA-HI3 Bay 2 east lower purlin no h/s 1.27 170x200 1276 166 ---0.71 150×300 1332 LCA-HI4 207 2IC 1126 1311 Truss C collar

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from Apshill House, Lower Chicksgrove, Wiltshire

nm = not measured

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

C=complete sapwood is retained on core

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence LCAHSQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1080 and the
last-ring date is AD 1332

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
Salisbury Cathedral, Wiltshire	9.7	AD 1067-1241	(Arnold et al 2003 unpubl)
Glastonbury Abbey Barn, Glastonbury, Somerset	9.3	AD 1095-1334	(Bridge 2001)
Bremhill Court, Bremhill, Wiltshire	8.3	AD - 323	(Hurford et al 2010)
Fiddleford Manor, Sturminster Newton, Dorset	8.0	AD 1167-1315	(Bridge 2003)
Exeter Cathedral, Exeter, Devon	7.5	AD 1132-1315	(Howard et al 2001)
Bridge Farm, Butleigh Somerset	6.3	AD 1136-1304	(Miles et al 1997)
Manor Farmhouse, Meare, Somerset	6.1	AD 1156-1315	(Bridge 2002a)
The Manor Barn, Avebury, Wiltshire	6.0	AD 1072-1278	(Tyers 1999)

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Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence LCAHSQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1220 and the last-ring date is AD 1310

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
England: south-west regional chronology	5.9	AD 770–1872	(Tyers pers comm)
Exeter Cathedral, Exeter, Devon	5.6	AD 1132-1315	(Howard et al 2001)
Muchelney Abbey, Somerset	5.5	AD 1148-1498	(Bridge 2002b)
Rudge, Morchard Bishop, Devon	5.3	AD 1124-1315	(Groves 2005)
Manor Farm, Tredington, Gloucestershire	5.1	AD 1218-1356	(Tyers 2002)
Glastonbury Abbey Barn, Glastonbury, Somerset	5.0	AD 1095-1334	(Bridge 2001)
Old Rectory, Bridford, Devon	5.0	AD 1220-1278	(Tyers et al forthcoming)
Thorne, Clannaborough, Devon	4.9	AD 1200-1319	(Groves 2005)

FIGURES

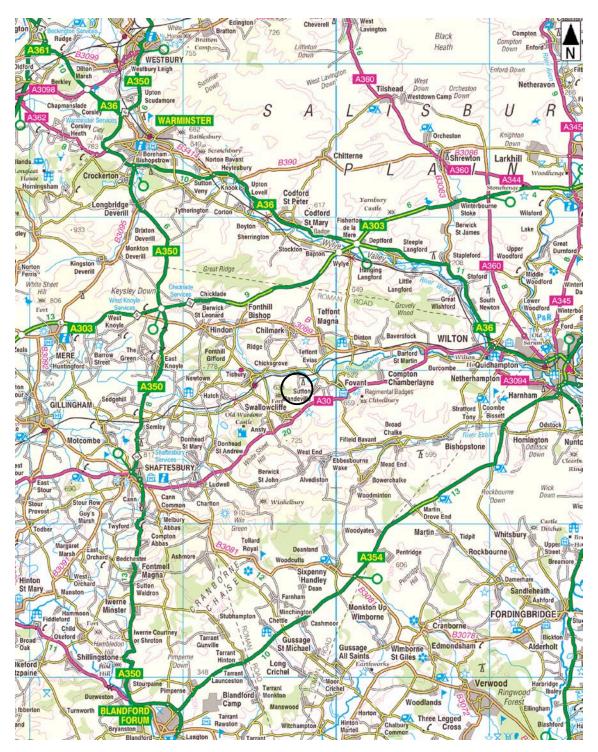


Figure 1: Map to show the location of Apshill House, Lower Chicksgrove, Tisbury, Wiltshire (based on the Ordnance Survey map with permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office, © Crown Copyright)

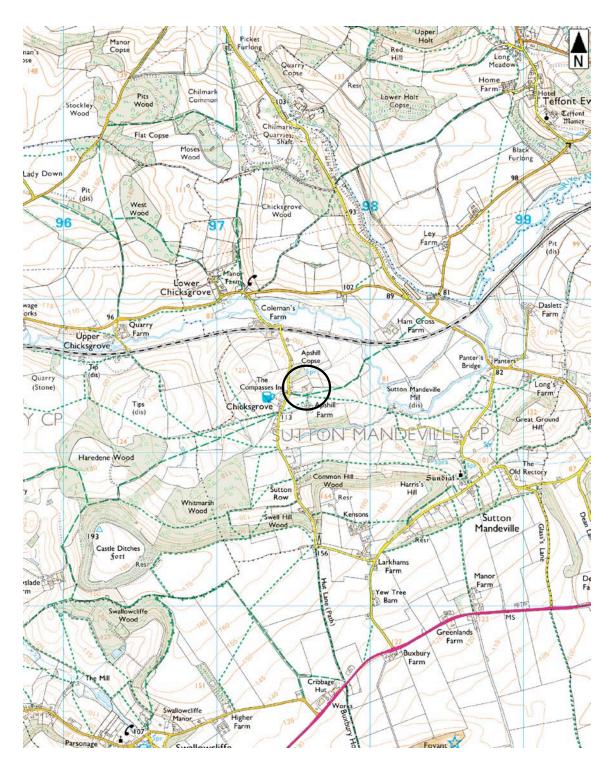


Figure 2: Map to show the location Apshill House (based on the Ordnance Survey map with permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office, © Crown Copyright)



Figure 3: East elevation of Apshill House

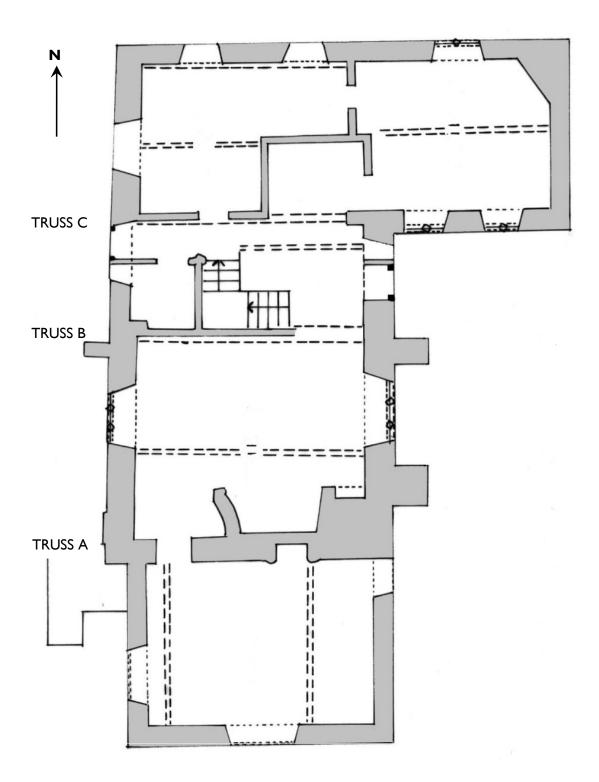


Figure 4: Ground-floor plan of Apshill House below (based on a drawing by Clive Carter of the Wiltshire Building Record)



Figure 5: Truss B north face



Figure 6: Truss C south face



Figure 7: East windbraces in bay 2

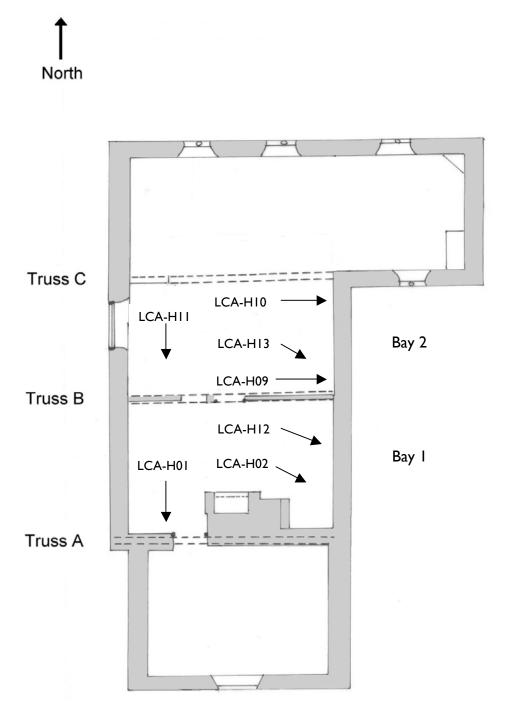


Figure 8: Plan showing the approximate locations of the samples taken from the roof and first floor not shown on the sections below (based on a drawing by Clive Carter of the Wiltshire Buildings Record)

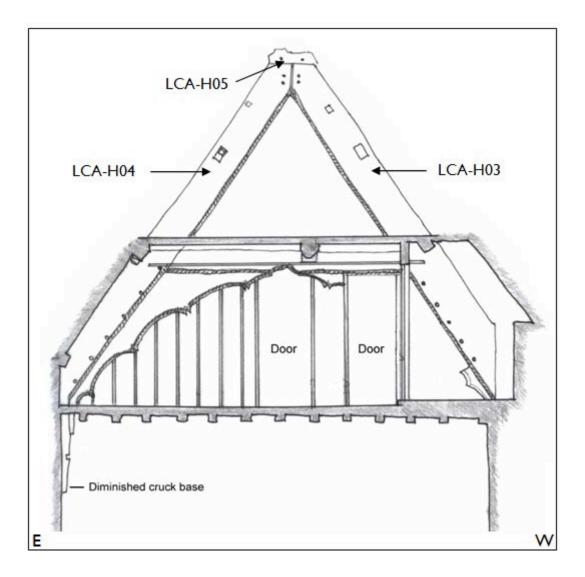


Figure 9: Sample locations from Truss B (based on a drawing by Clive Carter of the Wiltshire Buildings Record)

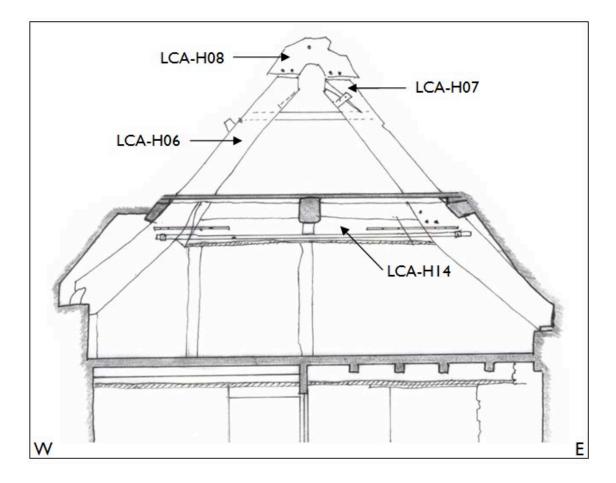
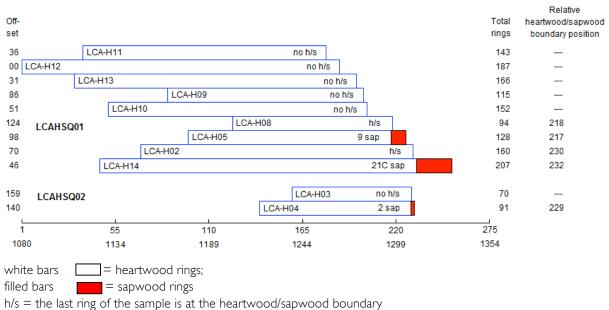


Figure 10: Sample locations from Truss C (based on a drawing by Clive Carter of the Wiltshire Buildings Record)



C= complete sapwood is retained on the sample

Figure 11: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronologies LCAHSQ01 and LCAHSQ02

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

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LCA-H02A 160
161 224 168 256 182 155 161 181 139 196 196 182 150 177 181 141 123 92 86 92
105 101 63 70 110 125 151 107 137 139 87 108 99 87 77 60 93 139 94 122
110 112 85 114 131 119 151 164 82 80 91 92 71 90 66 86 79 58 74 74
 99 58 68 63 69 66 56 56 66 79 75 93 71 50 50 41 45 36 47 57
 40 46 57 47 50 60 44 64 58 69 93 71 68 70 66 54 56 63 67 67
 70 59 66 55 62 110 60 56 51 50 72 75 93 67 58 54 74 53 50 67
 57 93 68 51 39 93 72 89 73 70 89 73 71 49 37 31 46 57 62 79
 79 50 63 50 45 57 42 42 72 40 44 96 57 60 26 41 41 41 48 36
LCA-H02B 160
156 228 168 258 180 156 155 187 130 194 199 181 152 176 189 132 120 92 82 105
108 98 59 73 108 124 155 108 143 130 84 108 110 79 76 54 99 138 92 132
106 109 82 119 128 109 158 160 82 71 93 91 75 87 68 86 81 54 76 77
100 60 61 66 62 71 59 52 66 82 73 95 73 48 46 45 47 47 56 54
 41 35 60 50 34 52 58 66 61 83 88 76 64 70 65 54 56 65 67 68
 65 61 66 53 64 108 56 57 47 47 72 75 97 71 64 53 70 53 55 69
 51 93 65 52 41 91 66 87 78 70 88 77 71 45 42 30 43 59 62 79
 70 49 67 50 41 57 44 41 68 38 45 55 59 59 24 41 38 42 44 39
LCA-H03A 70
382 375 248 237 269 270 403 360 306 339 379 311 389 219 446 240 398 316 168 340
327 229 318 282 226 361 342 353 240 320 347 401 424 187 335 442 344 166 253 241
208 263 201 287 247 181 187 168 151 155 194 255 163 224 264 231 208 195 161 173
178 235 235 224 221 158 135 159 175 252
LCA-H03B 70
380 395 254 244 279 288 408 362 301 341 385 306 374 214 459 198 367 325 177 307
331 231 318 276 209 338 330 347 239 338 336 392 429 195 354 452 341 197 232 237
210 257 197 287 251 184 189 172 154 157 195 251 158 226 265 231 202 185 165 175
178 252 222 217 221 158 138 159 172 251
LCA-H04A 91
223 259 183 209 151 120 183 186 214 222 234 172 233 221 184 266 145 377 323 387
340 219 207 279 241 322 377 340 418 340 230 262 177 290 175 353 274 167 232 243
211 278 243 207 243 223 227 183 213 227 304 288 150 173 213 187 163 181 160 142
152 135 191 181 119 103 105 74 96 123 165 108 164 196 132 131 151 132 136 145
201 176 156 140 94 96 125 165 158 107 100
LCA-H04B 91
225 271 171 208 147 117 179 177 211 222 249 169 234 209 184 262 137 374 330 386
350 224 203 284 258 325 379 338 450 354 227 266 172 295 170 350 281 155 232 225
213 280 256 198 237 218 233 176 215 228 303 295 145 164 201 185 156 178 146 143
150 136 193 180 124 104 95 85 88 125 163 108 164 197 129 131 157 135 134 135
209 | 8 | 15 | 140 89 | 05 | 20 | 67 | 59 | 03 | 0 |
LCA-H05A 128
 87 79 66 94 89 57 45 34 50 95 64 74 84 88 53 80 90 97 136 79
 73 65 55 71 66 61 42 44 58 34 49 67 59 35 41 35 35 31 36 35
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LCA-HI0A 152

35 110 172 88 98 157 176 135 133 113 80 45 56 70 65 50 72 73 83 71 95 97 89 61 62 87 102 77 114 174 125 163 155 162 175 131 113 91 124 98 120 85 101 129 183 174 115 171 140 98 116 98 70 59 45 95 121 62 84 71 96 71 130 119 133 186 214 177 109 75 110 144 109 78 72 79 52 86 103 105 76 72 69 72 79 76 79 54 84 80 114 88 71 49 56 69 70 77 91 60 51 53 46 77 81 53 88 108 116 135 93 90 113 126 105 73 65 67 92 114 91 86 74 73 122 78 64 53 60 69 100 109 97 102 78 81 57 96 87 48 140 107 75 72 93 136 148 137 143 126 96 107

LCA-H10B 152

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APPENDIX: TREE-RING DATING

The Principles of Tree-Ring Dating

Tree-ring dating, or dendrochronology as it is known, is discussed in some detail in the Laboratory's Monograph, An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Building (Laxton and Litton 1988) and Dendrochronology: Guidelines on Producing and Interpreting Dendrochronological Dates (English Heritage 1988). Here we will give the bare outlines. Each year an oak tree grows an extra ring on the outside of its trunk and all its branches just inside its bark. The width of this annual ring depends largely on the weather during the growing season, about April to October, and possibly also on the weather during the previous year. Good growing seasons give rise to relatively wide rings, poor ones to very narrow rings and average ones to relatively average ring widths. Since the climate is so variable from year to year, almost 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 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-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 al* 2001) and the east to the south down to Kent (Pearson 1995) where it has sampled extensively in the past, the Laboratory uses the shorter estimate of 15 to 35 sapwood rings in 95% of mature oaks growing in these parts. Since the sample CRO-A06 comes from a house in Cropwell Bishop in the East Midlands, a better estimate of sapwood rings lost since felling is between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and 26 (=35-9) and the felling would be estimated to have taken place between 1506 and 1526, a shorter period than before. Oak boards quite often come from the Baltic region and in these cases the 95% confidence limits for sapwood are 9 to 36 (Howard *et al* 1992, 56).

Even more precise estimates of the felling date and range can often be obtained using knowledge of a particular case and information gathered at the time of sampling. For example, at the time of sampling the dendrochronologist may have noted that the timber from which the core of Figure A2 was taken still had complete sapwood but that some of the soft sapwood rings were lost in coring. By measuring into the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 20mm, a reasonable estimate can be made of the number of sapwood rings lost, say 12 to 15 rings in this case. By adding on 12 to 15 years to the date of the last ring on the sample a good tight estimate for the range of the felling date can be obtained, which is often better than the 15 to 35 years later we would have estimated without this observation. In the example, the felling is now estimated to have taken place between AD 1512 and 1515, which is much more precise than without this extra information.

Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on a sample, but none of the heartwood rings are, then an estimate of the felling-date range is possible by adding on the full compliment of, say, 15 to 35 years to the date of the last heartwood ring (called the heartwood/ sapwood boundary or transition ring and denoted H/S). Fortunately it is often easy for a trained dendrochronologist to identify this boundary on a timber. If a timber does not have its heartwood/sapwood boundary, then only a *post quem* date for felling is possible.

5. Estimating the Date of Construction. There is a considerable body of evidence collected by dendrochronologists over the years that oak timbers used in buildings were not seasoned in medieval or early modern times (English Heritage 1998; Miles 1997, 50–5). Hence, provided that all the samples in a building have estimated felling-date ranges broadly in agreement with each other, so that they appear to have been felled as a group, then this should give an accurate estimate of the period when the structure was built, or soon after (Laxton *et al* 2001, fig 8; 34–5, where 'associated groups of fellings' are discussed in detail). However, if there is any evidence of storage before use, or if there is evidence the oak came from abroad (eg Baltic boards), then some allowance has to be made for this.

6. Master Chronological Sequences. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to crossmatch it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In Figure A6 such a sequence is SHE-T, which came from a tree in Sherwood Forest which was blown down in a recent gale. After this other sequences which cross-match with it are added and gradually the sequence is 'pushed back in time' as far as the age of samples will allow. This process is illustrated in Figure A6. We have a master chronological sequence of widths for Nottinghamshire and East Midlands oak for each year from AD 882 to 1981. It is described in great detail in Laxton and Litton (1988), but the components it contains are shown here in the form of a bar diagram. As can be seen, it is well replicated in that for each year in this period there are several sample sequences having widths for that year. The master is the average of these. This master can now be used to date oak from this area and from the surrounding areas where the climate is very similar to that in the East Midlands. The Laboratory has also constructed a master for Kent (Laxton and Litton 1989). The method the Laboratory uses to construct a master sequence, such as the East Midlands and Kent, is completely objective and uses the Litton-Zainodin grouping procedure (Laxton et al 1988). Other laboratories and individuals have constructed masters for other areas and have made them available. As well as these masters, local (dated) site chronologies can be used to date other buildings from nearby. The Laboratory has hundreds of these site sequences from many parts of England and Wales covering many short periods.

7. **Ring-Width Indices.** Tree-ring dating can be done by cross-matching the ring widths themselves, as described above. However, it is advantageous to modify the widths first. Because different trees grow at different rates and because a young oak grows in a different way from an older oak, irrespective of the climate, the widths are first standardized before any matching between them is attempted. These standard widths are known as ring-width indices and were first used in dendrochronology by Baillie and Pilcher (1973). The exact form they take is explained in this paper and in the appendix of Laxton and Litton (1988) and is illustrated in the graphs in Figure A7. Here ring-widths are plotted vertically, one for each year of growth. In the upper sequence of (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller later growth from about 1900 onwards when the tree is maturing. A similar phenomenon can be observed in the lower sequence of (a) starting in 1835. In both the widths are also changing rapidly from year to year. The peaks are the wide rings and the troughs are the narrow rings corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequence of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the immature and mature growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain, that are associated with the common climatic signal. This makes cross-matching easier.

t-value/offset Matrix

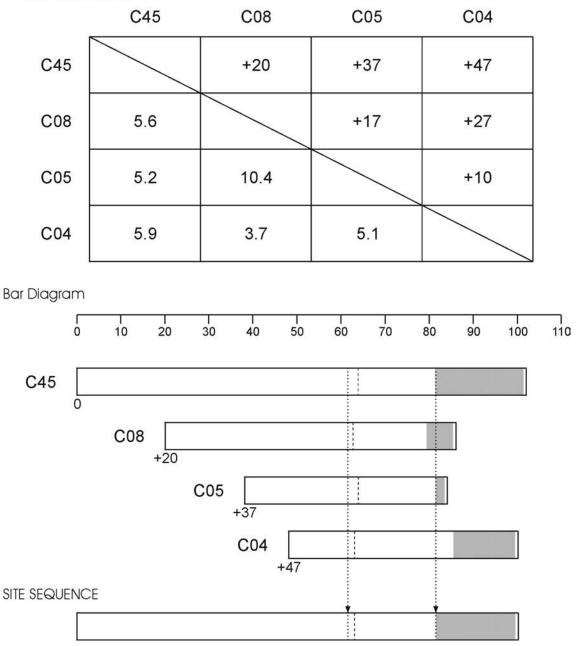
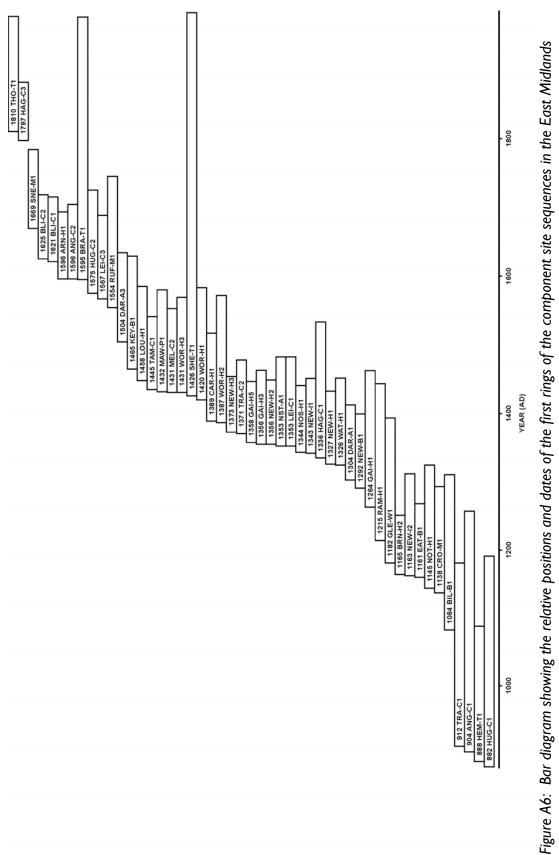
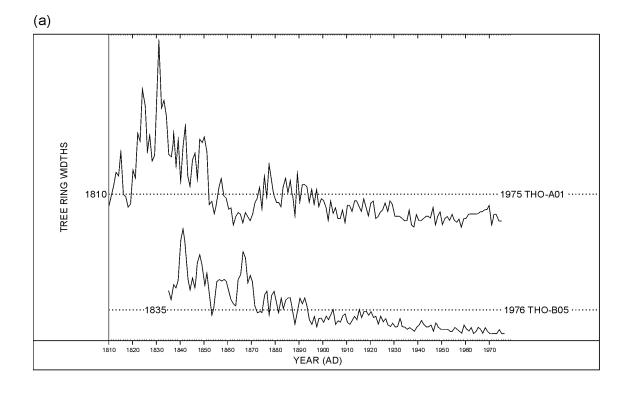


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

The bar diagram represents these sequences without the rings themselves. The length of the bar is proportional to the number of rings in the sequence. Here the four sequences are set at relative positions (offsets) to each other at which they have maximum correlation as measured by the *t*-values. The *t*-value/offset matrix contains the maximum *t*-values below the diagonal and the offsets above it. Thus, the maximum *t*-value between C08 and C45 occurs at the offset of +20 rings and the *t*-value is then 5.6. The site sequence is composed of the average of the corresponding widths, as illustrated with one width







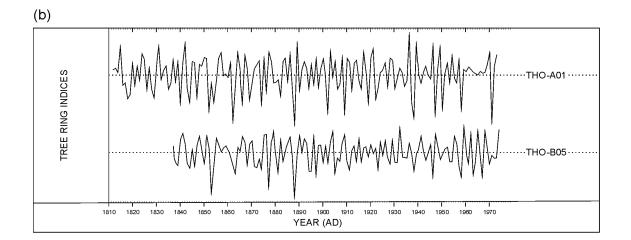


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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