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## THE DOVECOTE, BREAKSPEAR HOUSE, BREAKSPEAR ROAD NORTH, HAREFIELD, HILLINGDON, LONDON TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

## SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard







Research Department Report Series 37-2011

## THE DOVECOTE, BREAKSPEAR HOUSE, BREAKSPEAR ROAD NORTH, HAREFIELD, HILLINGDON, LONDON

## TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

Alison J Arnold and Robert E Howard

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#### SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis of the roof of the dovecote at Breakspear House, has produced a single dated site chronology comprising nine of the 10 samples measured. This site chronology has an overall length of 75 rings, these dated as spanning the years AD 1695–1769. Interpretation of the sapwood on the dated samples, all common rafters, indicates that the roof is composed of timber felled between late summer AD 1769 and very early AD 1770.

A single measured sample remains ungrouped and undated.

#### CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Nottingham Tree-ring Dating Laboratory would like to thank Geoff Potter of Compass Archaeology Ltd for his help and advice in respect of the possible phasing of this building, and for the providing us with information and plans on the building. We would also like to thank John Kelly, and other staff of Clancy Developments Ltd, for their on-site help and assistance during sampling. Finally we would like to thank Dr Peter Marshall, Scientific Dating Coordinator, for commissioning this programme of tree-ring dating.

#### **ARCHIVE LOCATION**

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## INTRODUCTION

Breakspear House is a large, Grade I listed, red-brick mansion, standing in its own grounds approximately one kilometre to the south-east of Harefield Village, west London, in the county of Middlesex (TQ 06016 89692, Figs I and 2). Although an earlier house, possibly dating from the early- to mid-sixteenth century, may have existed here, the present house contains timber dated by tree-ring analysis to the early-seventeenth century, the late-seventeenth century, and possibly to the early-eighteenth century (Arnold and Howard 2010). The house has been the subject of an archaeological assessment and historic building report (Compass Archaeology Ltd 2009).

Within the grounds, to the north-west of Breakspear House, stands a two-storey dovecote, also the subject of archaeological assessment and survey (Compass Archaeology Ltd, forthcoming). This is a square, red brick building, with a slightly jettied first floor over a moulded string course, with battered angle-buttresses to the ground floor. The dovecote has a pyramidal tiled roof surmounted by a fine bell cupola with clock, the mechanism still retained within the attic. There are 'Tudor' arched entrances on the east and west sides, and a lancet opening in south side. The building is listed as Grade II\*. The fabric of the dovecote, and other associated buildings, has experienced such deterioration since the site was abandoned in 1987 that that they are now on the Heritage at Risk register (www.english-heritage.org.uk).

Although constructed of brick, and believed to date in this form from the seventeenth century, the dovecote, following the recent survey, is now thought to have originally been a timber-framed structure, and, like the earlier house on this site, to possibly date from the early- to mid-sixteenth century. Differences in the brickwork to the ground and first-floor levels suggest that any timberwork which might have existed here may have been replaced piecemeal, and at different times, as possible decay of the frame dictated. In this interpretation, although the wall framing has been replaced, the timbers of the roof are possibly still original.

### SAMPLING

Sampling and analysis by dendrochronology of the timbers of the dovecote were requested by Kim Stabler, Archaeology Advisor in English Heritage's Greater London Archaeological Advisory Service, and Will Reading, Historic Building and Areas Advisor in English Heritage's London Region Office. This was undertaken in an attempt to more fully understand the history of the dovecote and to determine the extent of survival of the historic fabric. It was hoped that this analysis would inform the historic buildings appraisal being undertaken in advance of potential redevelopment, and inform the associated listed building consent as appropriate.

A thorough assessment of the potential of the dovecote timbers for tree-ring analysis was made prior to sampling. This showed that although there were one or two oak timbers

I

used as lintels to now-blocked ground-floor openings, these were very small, deeply buried in the walls, and apparently derived from fast-grown trees. As such, it was felt very unlikely that they would provide samples with a sufficient number of rings, here deemed to be in excess of 50, for reliable analysis.

A further series of large timber joists were seen forming the ceiling of both the ground and first-floor chambers. These, however, were all deemed to be of some type of softwood, possibly pine, and again to have insufficient rings for reliable analysis.

It was thus only in the, possibly original, roof that a sufficient number of oak timbers could be found, the majority of these being common rafters which, although of slightly small scantling, appeared to have sufficient rings (Fig 3). In addition to the common rafters there were four slightly larger rafters, though hardly principals, at the corners of each pitch of the roof, along with plates to the top of each of the four walls. These last two sets of timbers, however, again appeared to be derived from fast grown timbers and to be generally unsuitable for tree-ring analysis, thus sampling focussed predominantly on the common rafters.

Thus, from the timbers available a total of 11 oak samples was obtained by coring. Each sample was given the code HFD-C (for Harefield, site 'C') and numbered 01–11. The location of the sampled timbers was noted at the time of coring and marked on a plan made by STRUCTA, consulting engineers, and provided by Compass Archaeology Ltd. This is reproduced here as Figure 4. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1.

## ANALYSIS

Each of the 11 samples obtained was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that one sample, HFD-C11, had less than the minimum of 50 rings here deemed necessary for reliable dating, and it was rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth-ring widths of the remaining 10 samples were, however, measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of this report.

The data of the 10 measured samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), allowing a single group of nine cross-matching samples to be formed at a particularly high minimum value of t=8.0 (see section on intra-site cross-matching below). The nine samples cross-match as shown in Figure 5. The cross-matching samples of this group were combined at their indicated offset positions to form HFDCSQ01, a site chronology with an overall length of 75 rings.

Site chronology HFDCSQ01 was then compared to an extensive corpus of reference material for oak, this indicating a consistent and repeated match with a number of these when the date of its first ring is AD 1695 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1769. The evidence for this dating is given in Table 2.

Site chronology HFDCSQ01 was also compared to the single remaining measured but ungrouped sample, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. This single remaining sample was then compared individually to the full corpus of reference data, but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching and this sample must, therefore, remain undated.

## INTERPRETATION AND CONCLUSION

Analysis by dendrochronology of 10 measured samples from this building has produced a single site chronology comprising nine samples, its 75 rings dated as spanning the years AD 1695–1769. As may be seen from Table I and the bar diagram, Figure 5, all but two of these nine samples, HFD-C03 and C08, retain complete sapwood (the last ring produced by the tree from which the beam has been derived before it was cut down), this being indicated by upper case 'C' in Table I and the bar diagram. In every case, judging by the development of large amounts of summer cell growth for this last year and the lack of any spring cell growth for the following year, the condition of this last, complete, sapwood ring indicates that the trees represented were felled between the late summer of AD 1769 and the spring of AD 1770.

The two other dated samples in this site chronology, HFD-C03 and C08, come from timbers which do have complete sapwood on them. Small amounts of the sapwood, however, have been lost from these samples in coring, this due to the soft and fragile nature of this part of the wood (this is indicated by lower case 'c' in Table I and the bar diagram). The average date of the boundary on these two samples is AD 1754. Using a 95% confidence limit of 15–40 rings for the amount of sapwood these trees might have had would give the timbers represented an estimated felling date in the range AD 1769–94. It may be seen that this estimated range brackets the known felling date of seven other timbers suggesting the two timbers in question could have been felled at a very similar, if not identical, time.

It will of course be seen from Table I that all the dated timbers are solely common rafters, and it is thus possible that other beams, principal rafters, wall plates, etc, are of a different date. It would perhaps be necessary to undertake a survey of the roof to address whether it is entirely of a single phase of construction, or if older timbers have been reused, or more recent timbers inserted. The undated principal rafter, for example (HFD-C05), provides the sample with the longest ring sequence from the site and is also the fastest grown. This could be taken as some indication that the timber was sourced from a different woodland, and thus could possibly be of a different date. Tree-ring dating of timbers from the main house to the early-seventeenth century, the late-seventeenth century, and possibly to the early-eighteenth century, show that timbers of different dates can be found in the same building.

Apart from dating the timbers, it may be of interest to note that the intra-site crossmatching of the samples of site chronology HFDCSQ01, is such as to suggest that the timbers represented have been derived from a single woodland source, a number of samples cross-matching with each other with values in excess of t=9.0. Indeed, the level of cross-matching between some samples, HFD-C01, C07, and C09, or between HFD-C02, C08, and C10 for example, where values in excess of t=10, t=11.0 and t=12.0 are seen, is sufficiently high as to suggest the possibility that the two or more timbers are derived from the same tree. Such an interpretation is supported by the probability that many of the common rafters appeared to be quarter-trees.

Where this source woodland was cannot be identified precisely by dendrochronology (eg Bridge 2000). However, as may be seen from Table 2, which lists a short selection of the reference chronologies used to date site sequence HFDCSQ01, the majority of better cross-matches tend to be with reference chronologies from north of London and this could be taken as evidence of a possible general source area. In respect of this, the London composite reference chronology is relatively poorly replicated in its latter years, ie, the time relevant to the dovecote. The data obtained from the dovecote and Breakspear House samples are thus welcome additions to the relatively scarce lateseventeenth and eighteenth century London dataset.

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#### Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from The Dovecote, Breakspear House, Harefield, Hillingdon, London

Sample	Sample location	Total	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured
number		rings	rings*	ring date AD	ring date AD	ring date AD
HFD-C01	North pitch, rafter 7 (from east)	75	2IC	1695	1748	1769
HFD-C02	South pitch, rafter 4 (from east)	63	20C	1707	1749	1769
HFD-C03	South pitch, rafter 7	63	12c	1702	1752	1764
HFD-C04	South pitch, rafter 8	65	20C	1705	1749	1769
HFD-C05	South east principal rafter	87	2			
HFD-C06	East pitch, rafter 9 (from north)	66	15C	1704	1754	1769
HFD-C07	East pitch, rafter 8	66	19C	1704	1750	1769
HFD-C08	West pitch, rafter 5 (from north)	63	8c	1702	1756	1764
HFD-C09	West pitch, rafter 7	68	17C	1702	1752	1769
HFD-CI0	West pitch, rafter 8	66	12C	1704	1757	1769
HFD-CII	South wall plate	nm				

nm = sample not measured

c = complete sapwood is found on the timber, but all or part has been lost from the sample in coring

C = complete sapwood is retained on the sample; the last measured ring date is the felling date of the tree represented

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence HFDCSQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1695 and the
last-ring date is AD 1769

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	t-value	Reference
Tilbury Fort, Thurrock, Essex	AD 1678–1777	7.9	( Groves 1993 )
Ely Cathedral, Ely, Cambs	AD 1678-1828	6.2	(Esling et al 1989)
HMS Victory, Greenwich, London	AD 1640-1800	6.2	(Barefoot 1975)
Clothall Bury Farmhouse, Wallingford, Herts	AD 1636-1753	6.1	( Amold et al 2003 )
Burghley House, Burghley, Cambs	AD 1686-1809	5.8	( Howard et al 1992 )
Hampshire county chronology	AD 443-1972	5.7	( Miles 2003 )
Manor barn, Great Newstead, Staplehurst, Kent	AD 1670-1780	5.6	( Arnold et al 2003 )
Cobham Hall, Cobham, Kent	AD 1656–1774	5.5	( Amold et al 2003 )

#### **FIGURES**

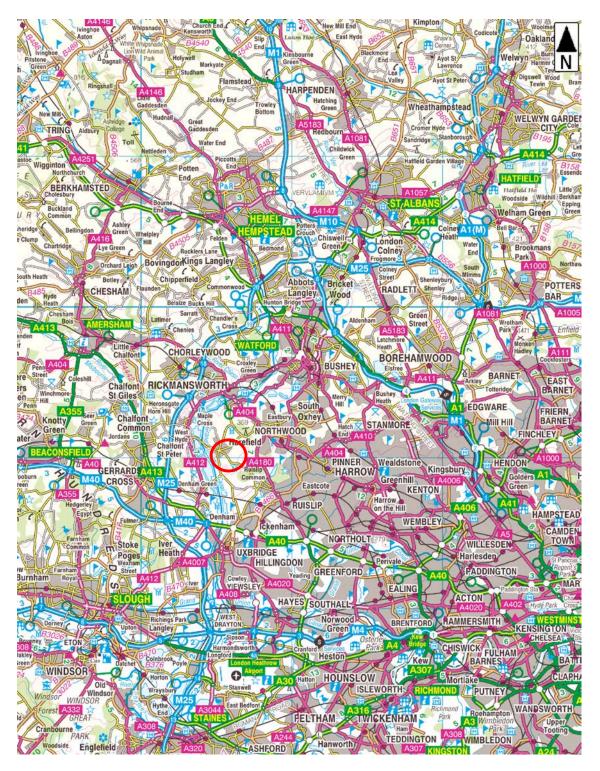


Figure 1: Map to show the location of Breakspear House (based on the Ordnance Survey map with permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office, © Crown Copyright)

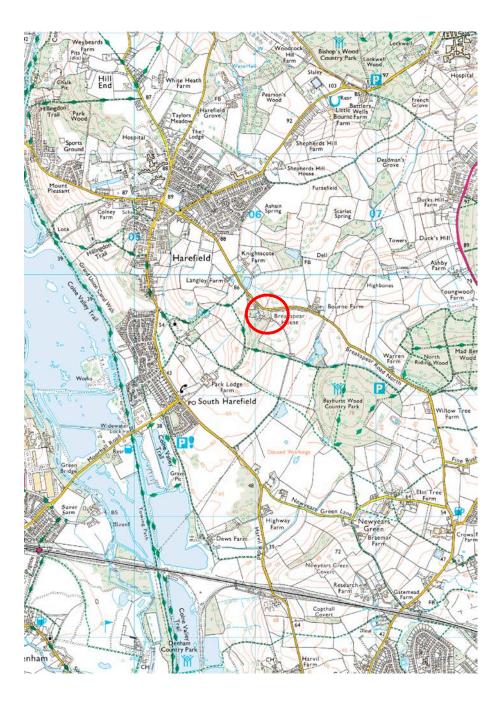


Figure 2: Map to show the location of Breakspear House (based on the Ordnance Survey map with permission of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office, ©Crown Copyright)



Figure 3: The dovecote roof viewed from the south-east

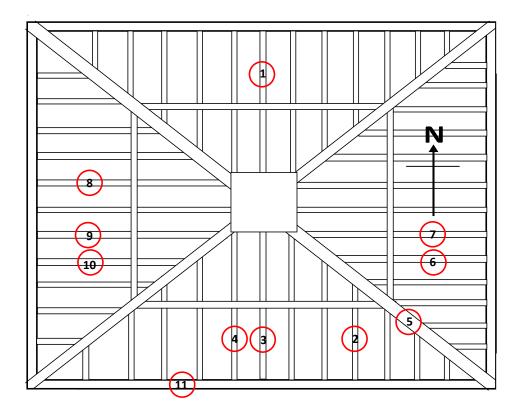
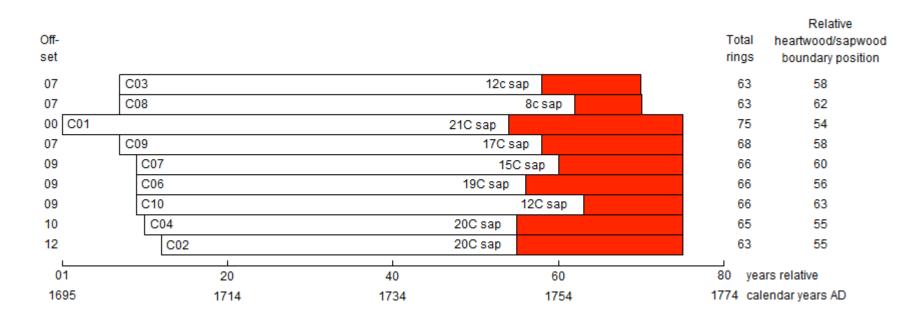


Figure 4: Plan of the dovecote roof to show sampled timbers (after STRUCTA, consulting engineers)



White bars =heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings

c = complete sapwood is found on the timber, but all or part has been lost from the sample in coring

C = complete sapwood is retained on the sample; the last measured ring date is the felling date of the tree represented

Figure 5: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology HFDCSQ01

### DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01 mm units

355 195 156 128 173 104 188 202 234 309 216 278 260 180 181 231 219 372 272 242

270 203 243 161 208 140

## 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.

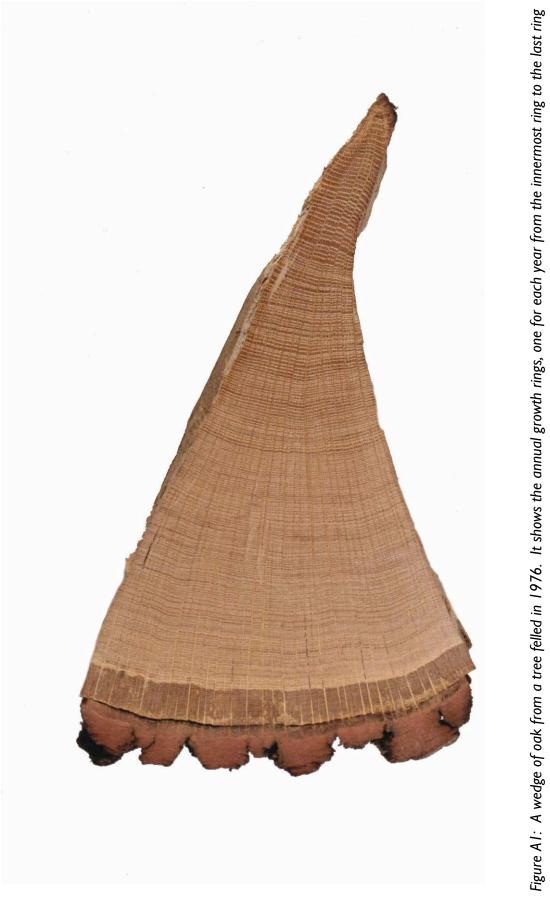


Figure A1: A wedge of oak from a tree felled in 1976. It shows the annual growth rings, one for each year from the innermost ring to the last ring on the outside just inside the bark. The year of each ring can be determined by counting back from the outside ring, which grew in 1976



Figure A2: Cross-section of a rafter, showing sapwood rings in the left-hand corner, the arrow points to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S); and a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil



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



Figure A4: Three cores from timbers in a building. They come from trees growing at the same time. Notice that, although the sequences of widths look similar, they are not identical. This is typical

2. Measuring Ring Widths. Each core is sanded down with a belt sander using medium-grit paper and then finished by hand with flourgrade-grit paper. The rings are then clearly visible and differentiated from each other with a result very much like that shown in Figure A2. The core is then mounted on a movable table below a microscope and the ring-widths measured individually from the innermost ring to the outermost. The widths are automatically recorded in a computer file as they are measured (see Fig A3).

3. Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the local climate which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig A4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the t-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum t-value among the t-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a t-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et 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.

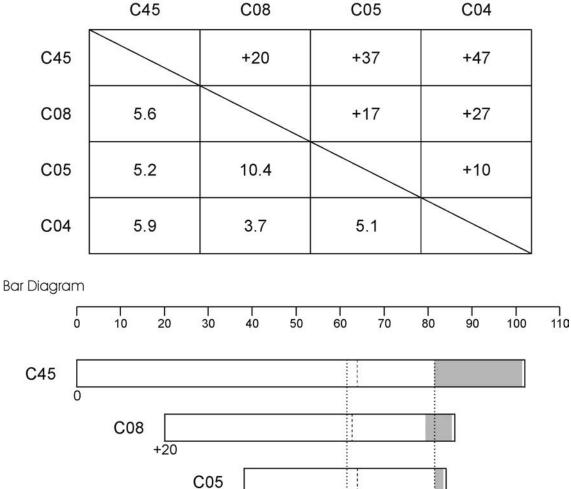
Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on a sample, but none of the heartwood rings are, then an estimate of the felling-date range is possible by adding on the full compliment of, say, 15 to 35 years to the date of the last heartwood ring (called the heartwood/ sapwood boundary or transition ring 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 C45



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

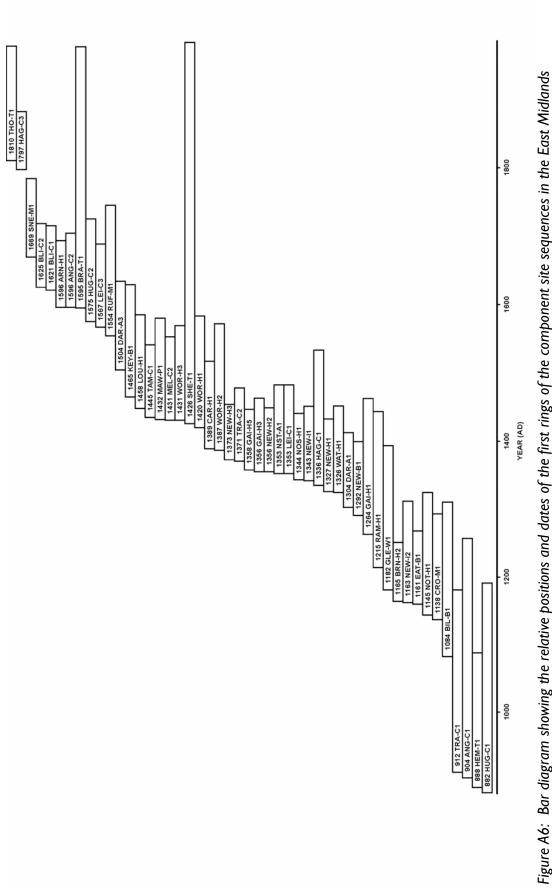
+47

+37

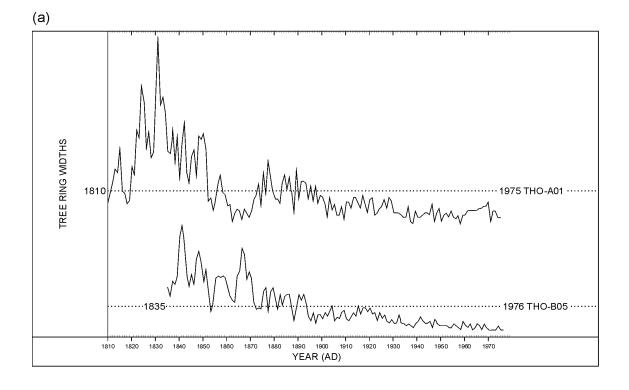
C04

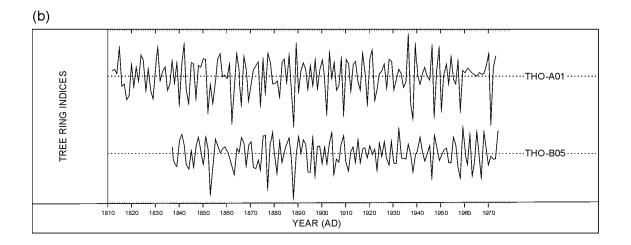
The bar diagram represents these sequences without the rings themselves. The length of the bar is proportional to the number of rings in the sequence. Here the four sequences are set at relative positions (offsets) to each other at which they have maximum correlation as measured by the *t*-values. The *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

SITE SEQUENCE









## 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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