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St Peter's Church, West Molesey, Elmbridge, Surrey Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers

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Summary

Tree-ring analysis undertaken on timbers of the tower roof and bell-chamber floor at this church has resulted in the successful dating of three site sequences and one individual sample.

Seven of the floor timbers have been dated to a felling within the range AD 1504–22.

Ten roof timbers have also been dated. One of these is now known to have been felled in AD 1518 and nine others to a felling within the range AD 1515–40, consistent with an AD 1518 felling.

The tower itself has been dated on stylistic grounds to the fifteenth century. It is now known that the bell-tower floor and extant roof contain timbers of the earlysixteenth century. If the fifteenth-century date attributed to the tower is correct, the tree-ring results demonstrate that neither the floor nor the roof can be original.

Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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Introduction

The Grade-II listed parish church of St Peter (Figs 1 and 2; TQ13376838) in West Molesey, Surrey was rebuilt in AD 1843 but incorporates an earlier three-stage, battlemented tower. The stone and flint tower is Perpendicular in style and believed to have been erected in about AD 1420. The present church replaced an earlier one thought to date to the end of the twelfth century, which consisted simply of a nave and chancel, and had a small porch on the south side.

The extant tower roof is of three trusses, with each truss consisting of king post and principal rafters. There is a ridge beam, common rafters, and a single purlin on each side (Fig 3). The bell-tower floor consists of eight heavy joists running east-west and three supporting beams running north-south (Fig 4).

Objectives

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating was commissioned and funded by English Heritage to inform grant-aided repairs. The two particular areas of interest identified were the tower roof and the bell-chamber floor. Presently, it is unclear as to whether either of these structures are original to the tower or represent later work. For this reason gaining felling dates for the timbers used in their construction would be extremely useful. The identification of any fifteenth-century timbers would also provide support for the stylistic date attributed to the tower itself.

Acknowledgements

The Laboratory would like to thank Nye Saunders, the project architects, for assisting with access and their help on site. Figures 5–9 were kindly provided by the structural engineers, Hockley and Dawson. Thanks are also given to Cathy Tyers of the Dendrochronology Laboratory at Sheffield University for her advice and assistance with this site, especially in providing further reference chronologies against which to date the site sequences.

Sampling

A total of 22 samples was obtained from timbers of the roof and bell-tower floor. Each sample was given the code MOL-A (for Molesey, site 'A') and numbered 01–22. Twelve of these samples were from the roof timbers (MOL-A01–12) and ten from the floor beams (MOL-A13–22). The position of samples was noted at the time of sampling and has been marked on Figures 5–9. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1. The roof trusses were identified as north, mid, and south truss, and the floor beams numbered north to south.

Within the roof are two beams which had been particularly highlighted as of interest, one adjacent to the north parapet and a second at the southern end of the roof. Unfortunately, neither of these beams was suitable for analysis. The northern timber had too few rings for secure dating and the southern beam was softwood. Therefore, neither was sampled.

Analysis and Results

At this stage it was noticed that three of the floor samples (MOL-A13, MOL-A14, and MOL-A22) had too few rings to make secure dating a possibility and these samples was rejected prior to measurement. The remaining 19 samples were prepared by sanding and polishing

and their growth-ring widths measured; the data of these measurements are given at the end of the report. All 19 samples were compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see appendix).

At a least value of t=4.5, 16 samples had formed three groups. Firstly, seven samples matched and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form MOLASQ01, a site sequence of 140 rings (Fig 10). This site sequence was then compared with a large number of relevant reference chronologies for oak indicating a consistent match when the date of its first ring is AD 1364 and of its last measured ring is AD 1503. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 2.

Five samples matched and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form MOLASQ02, a site sequence of 121 rings (Fig 10). This site sequence was then compared against the reference chronologies where it was found to match consistently at a first-ring date of AD 1382 and a last-ring date of AD 1502. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 3.

Finally, four samples matched and were again combined at the relevant offset position to form MOLASQ03, a site sequence of 109 rings. This site sequence was found to span the period AD 1410–1518. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 4.

Attempts were then made to date the remaining three ungrouped samples by individually comparing them with the reference material. This resulted in sample MOL-A11 being found to span the period AD 1440–1512. The evidence for this is given by the *t*-values in Table 5. The remaining two samples could not be matched and are undated.

Interpretation

Analysis of 19 samples taken from timbers of the roof and floor of the bell tower of this church has resulted in the construction and dating of three site sequences and the individual dating of one sample.

Site sequence MOLASQ01 contains seven samples, all from the bell-tower floor, and spans the period AD 1364–1503. All seven samples have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, the dates of which are similar and, therefore, consistent with a single felling. The average of these is AD 1482, allowing an estimated felling date to be calculated for the seven timbers represented to within the range AD 1504–22 (this allows for sample MOL-A17 having a last measured ring date of AD 1503 with incomplete sapwood.)

Ten of the roof timbers have been successfully dated within site sequences MOLASQ02 and MOLASQ03, or individually (MOL-A11). One of these samples, MOL-A04, has complete sapwood and the last measured ring date of AD 1518, the felling date of the timber represented. Seven of the other dated roof samples have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, the dates of which are broadly contemporary and, therefore, again suggestive of a single felling. The average of these dates is AD 1500, allowing an estimated felling date to be calculated for the seven timbers represented to within the range AD 1515–40, a felling date range consistent with an AD 1518 felling. Two other samples dated within site sequence MOLASQ02 do not have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date and so an estimated felling date cannot be calculated for these. However, with last measured ring dates of AD 1481 (MOL-A07) and AD 1490 (MOL-A09) it is also possible that these were felled in the early-sixteenth century.

That these two samples are contemporary with the rest of the roof timbers is supported by the high values at which they match other samples within MOLASQ02. Sample MOL-A07 matches MOL-A08 at t=11.9 and MOL-A12 at t=11.0, whilst sample MOL-A09 matches MOL-

A08 at t=16.01 and MOL-A12 at t=13.7. At the very least these high values point towards a group of trees grown very closely together being utilised for these beams, and perhaps may even suggest that two or more of them are from the same tree.

All felling date ranges have been calculated using the estimate that 95% of mature oak trees from this area have 15–40 sapwood rings.

Discussion

Prior to dendrochronological analysis being undertaken at this church, the tower itself had been dated stylistically to the fifteenth century, although whether the roof and/or bell-chamber floor were original was unclear.

Tree-ring analysis has successfully dated ten of the roof timbers. One of these is known to have been felled in AD 1518, with the felling date range calculated for another seven of the beams being consistent with these timbers having also been felled at this time.

Seven of the timbers from the bell-chamber floor have also been dated, to a felling within the range AD 1504–22.

The felling date range calculated for the timbers of the bell-chamber floor encompasses AD 1518. This may mean that the timbers used in the roof and in the floor were felled at the same time. However, when the dated samples are ordered by heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date (Fig 11) it can be seen that those of the floor timbers are consistently slightly earlier than those of the roof timbers. This might suggest that the timbers used in the construction of the floor were actually felled slightly before those used in the roof. Alternatively, it may simply be that the trees used in the floor structure had slightly more sapwood rings than those of the roof.

The analysis has shown that the timber of the roof and the bell-chamber floor falls into four distinct groups (as demonstrated by the three site sequences and single sample) rather than being a single coherent group. This is particularly of interest if the two structures are in fact contemporary as it perhaps suggests several sources of timber being used.

When tree-ring analysis was requested at this church it was hoped that by gaining a date for the roof and the bell-chamber floor it might be possible to establish whether these structures are contemporary with the tower itself. If the fifteenth-century date attributed to the tower is correct then it is clear that neither the roof nor the bell-chamber floor can be original to it, as they are constructed from timbers which were still growing at the end of the fifteenth century. Rather than belonging to the fifteenth century, the results suggest both the floor and the roof date to the first quarter of the sixteenth century.

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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)
Roof						
MOL-A01	Tiebeam, north truss	69	h/s	1434	1502	1502
MOL-A02	King post, north truss	81	h/s	1424	1504	1504
MOL-A03	Tiebeam, mid truss	64	h/s			
MOL-A04	West principal rafter, mid truss	109	14C	1410	1504	1518
MOL-A05	King post, mid truss	76	h/s	1426	1501	1501
MOL-A06	King post, south truss	99	03	1410	1505	1508
MOL-A07	North east purlin	100		1382		1481
MOL-A08	North west purlin	103	h/s	1392	1494	1494
MOL-A09	South west purlin	92		1399		1490
MOL-A10	East common rafter 2, bay 1	85	h/s			
MOL-A11	West common rafter 2, bay 2	73	15	1440	1497	1512
MOL-A12	East common rafter 4, bay 2	75	01	1422	1495	1496
<u>Floor</u>						
MOL-A13	Mid supporting beam	NM				
MOL-A14	West supporting beam	NM				
MOL-A15	Beam 1	76	h/s	1411	1486	1486
MOL-A16	Beam 2	101	h/s	1385	1485	1485
MOL-A17	Beam 3	137	17	1367	1486	1503
MOL-A18	Beam 4	96	h/s	1383	1478	1478
MOL-A19	Beam 5	108	h/s	1375	1482	1482
MOL-A20	Beam 6	89	h/s	1390	1478	1478
MOL-A21	Beam 7	118	h/s	1364	1481	1481
MOL-A22	Beam 8	NM				

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from St Peter's Church, West Molesey, Elmbridge, Surrey. Timbers numbered from north to south.

*NM = not measured

**h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample C = complete sapwood retained on sample, last measured ring is the felling date

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Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence MOLASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1364 and the last-ring date is AD 1503

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
England, London	5.6	AD 413–1728	Tyers and Groves 1999 unpubl
Kent	5.3	AD 1158–1540	Laxton and Litton 1989
Hays Wharf, Southwark, London	6.2	AD 1248–1647	Tyers 1996
Walmer Castle, Kent	5.9	AD 1396–1523	Howard et al 1997a
Headstone Manor Barn, Harrow, London	5.6	AD 1374–1505	Howard <i>et al</i> 2000
Old Palace Lane, Richmond, London	5.6	AD 1358–1584	Hillam 1997
Windsor Castle Kitchen, Berkshire	5.3	AD 1331–1573	Tyers <i>et al</i> 1997
Langmans, Woking, Surrey	5.1	AD 1437–1536	Miles and Worthington 2000

Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence MOLASQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1382 and the last-ring date is AD 1502

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
England, London	9.7	AD 413–1728	Tyers and Groves 1999 unpubl
Kent	6.7	AD 1158–1540	Laxton and Litton 1989
Hampshire	9.9	AD 443–1972	Miles 2003
St Andrews Church, Ford, West Sussex	10.7	AD 1286–1511	Bridge 2000
Hays Wharf, Southwark, London	9.0	AD 1248–1647	Tyers 1996
Abbey Gatehouse roof, Bristol Cathedral	8.0	AD 1306–1494	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2003a
Headstone Manor Barn, Harrow, London	7.5	AD 1374–1505	Howard <i>et al</i> 2000
Stonepits Manor, Seal, Kent	7.4	AD 1389–1497	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2003b

Table 4: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence MOLASQ03 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1410 and the last-ring date is AD 1518

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference	
England, London	4.2	AD 413–1728	Tyers and Groves 1999 unpubl	
Hampshire	4.5	AD 443–1972	Miles 2003	
Cowfold Barn at Singleton, West Sussex	6.0	AD 1377–1535	Tyers 1990	
Westenhanger Castle Barn, Kent	6.1	AD 1433–1578	Howard <i>et al</i> 2002	
Ightham Mote, NW Range	5.6	AD 1465–1586	Howard <i>et al</i> 1997b	
Victoria Wharf, Tower Hamlets, London	5.5	AD 1410–1585	Tyers and Hall 1997	
Rookwood Hall Barn, Abbess Roding, Essex	5.5	AD 1416–1537	Tyers and Hibberd 1993	
Chiddingly Place, East Sussex	5.4	AD 1324–1576	Arnold and Litton 2003	

Table 5: Results of the cross-matching of sample MOL-A11 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1440 and the last-ring date is AD 1512

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference	
England, London	6.2	AD 413–1728	Tyers and Groves 1999 unpubl	
Hampshire	5.7	AD 443–1972	Miles 2003	
Ightham Mote, Cottage/Dovecote	7.3	AD 1392–1463	Howard <i>et al</i> 1994	
Ightham Mote, East Range	7.1	AD 1405–1521	Howard <i>et al</i> 1996a	
Abbey Road, Barking, London	6.3	AD 1314–1599	Tyers 2001	
Hays Wharf, Southwark, London	6.0	AD 1248–1647	Tyers 1996	
Reigate Priory School, Reigate, Surrey	5.7	AD 1384–1545	Bridge 2003	
Mercer's Hall, Glos	5.4	AD 1289–1541	Howard <i>et al</i> 1996b	

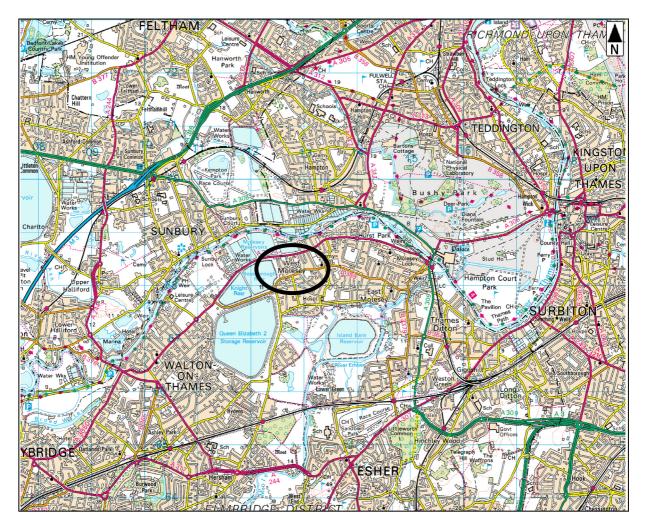


Figure 1: Map to show the location of West Molesey, Surrey

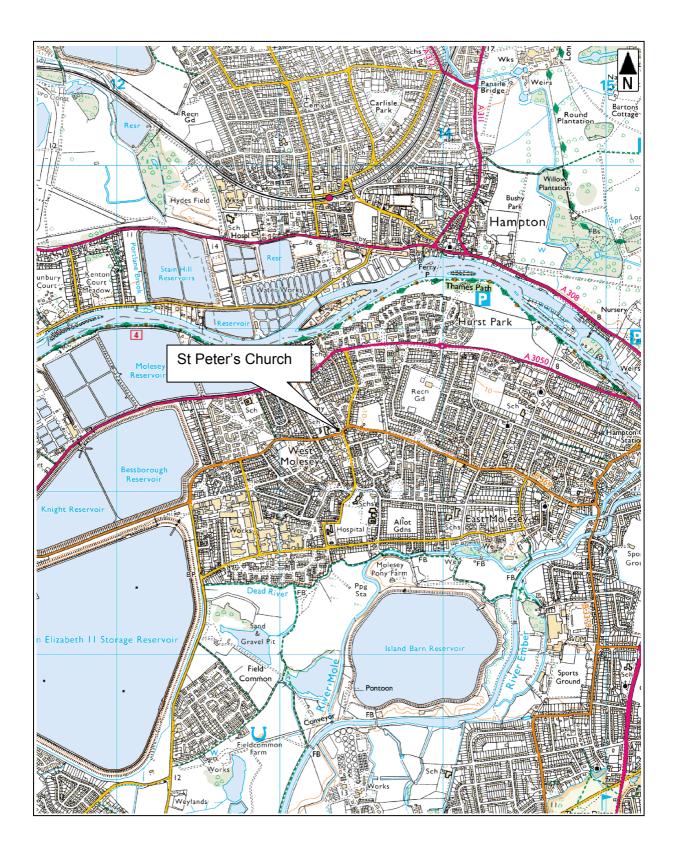


Figure 2: Map to show the location of St Peter's Church, West Molesey



Figure 3: St Peter's Church, tower roof (north truss)



Figure 4: St Peter's Church, bell-tower floor (looking north-west)

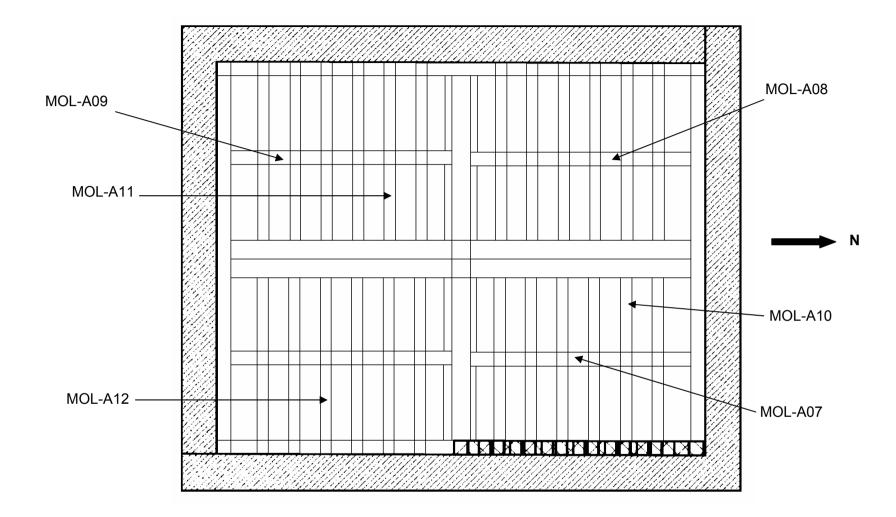


Figure 5: Plan of roof structure, showing the location of samples MOL-A07–12 (Hockley and Dawson)

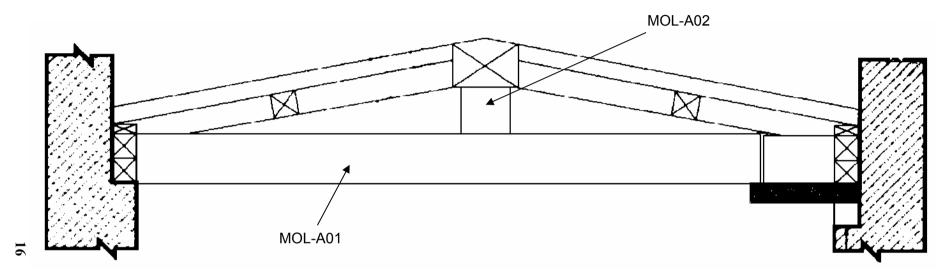


Figure 6: Roof truss, north truss, showing the location of samples MOL-A01 and MOL-A02 (Hockley and Dawson)

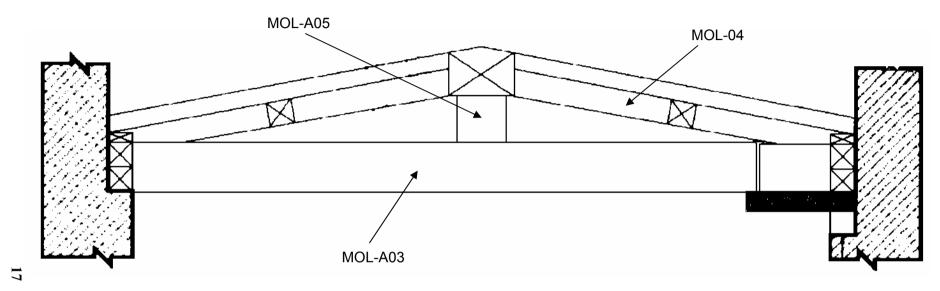


Figure 7: Roof truss, mid truss, showing the location of samples MOL-A03–5 (Hockley and Dawson)

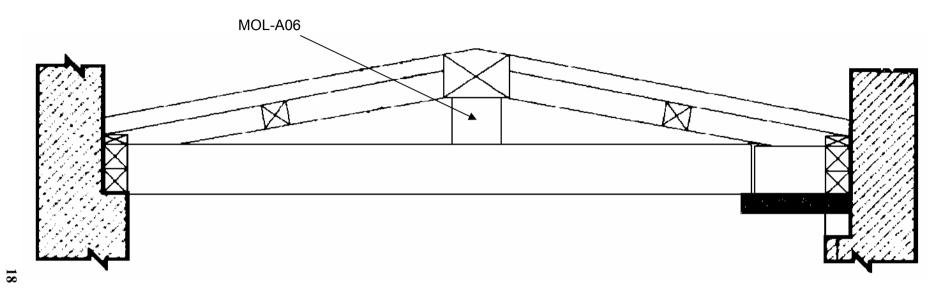
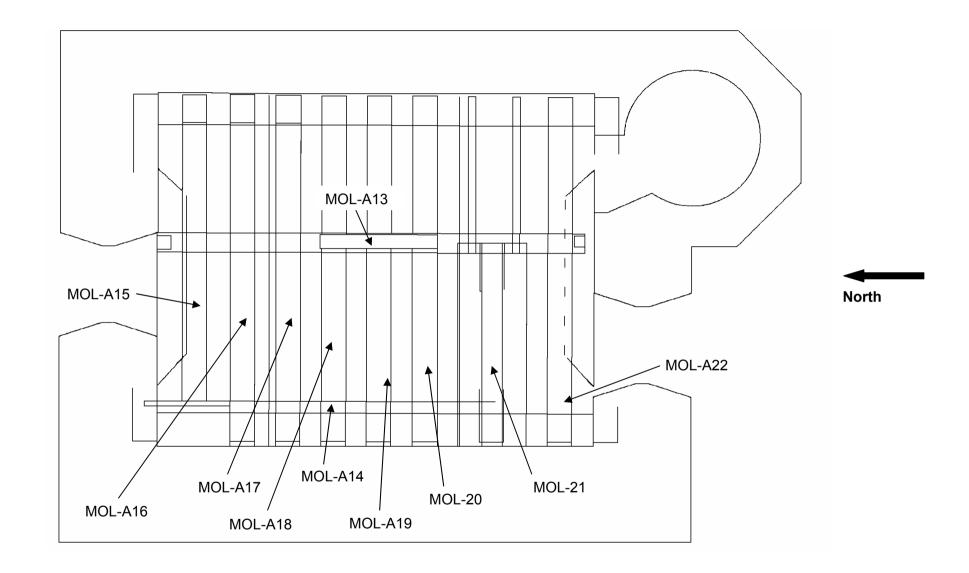
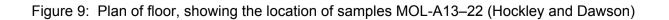
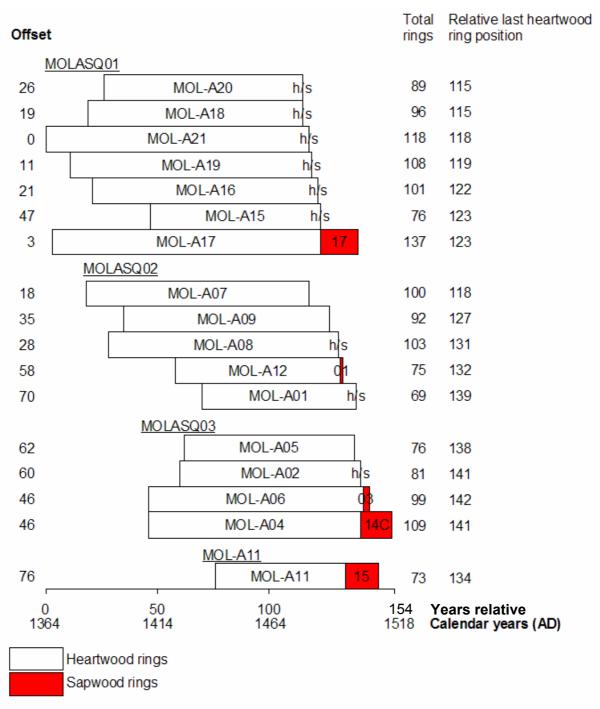
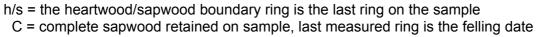


Figure 8: Roof truss, south truss, showing the location of samples MOL-A06 (Hockley and Dawson)











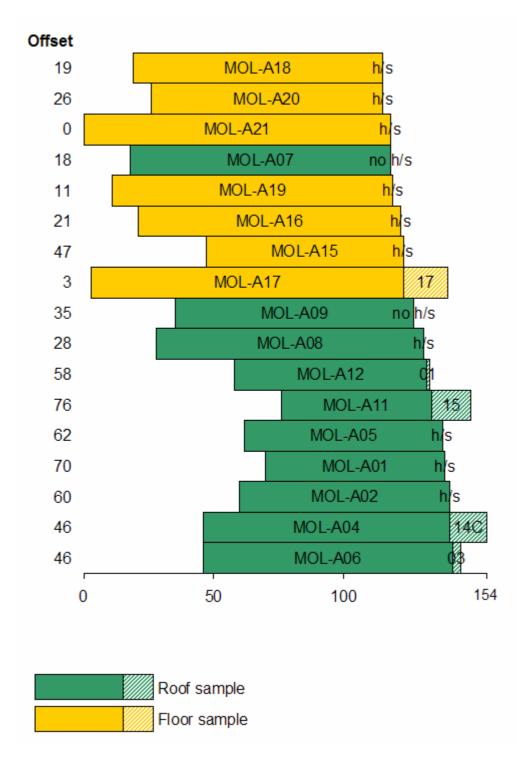


Figure 11: Bar diagram of samples in last heartwood ring date order

Data of measured samples – measurements in 0.01mm units

MOL-A20B 89

329 436 307 338 317 331 325 296 240 245 327 285 261 292 349 243 264 211 249 224 160 143 151 157 173 148 111 112 116 128 122 141 131 118 115 133 109 93 123 111 102 120 99 101 59 100 84 77 111 122 115 120 121 115 85 117 115 115 126 140 114 122 119 111 116 121 127 98 114 83 97 138 103 110 101 104 107 58 94 106 121 146 92 102 79 63 73 72 97

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 1 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 1, 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 2 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 to 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 2; it is about 15cm long and 1cm 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 1: 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 2: Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the left hand corner, the arrow is pointing to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S). Also a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil.



Figure 3: Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measure 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 4: 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 2. 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 3).
- 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 4). 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 tvalue 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 5 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 5. 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 5 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 straight forward 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. Actually it could be the year after if it had been felled in the first three months 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 2, 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 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 2 was taken still had complete sapwood but that none of the soft sapwood rings were lost in coring. By measuring into the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 2 cm, 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 and Miles 1997, 50-55). Hence provided 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, figure 8 and pages 34-5 where 'associated groups of fellings' are discussed in detail). However, if there is any evidence of storing 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 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 Fig 6 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 Fig 6. 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 Fig 7. 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

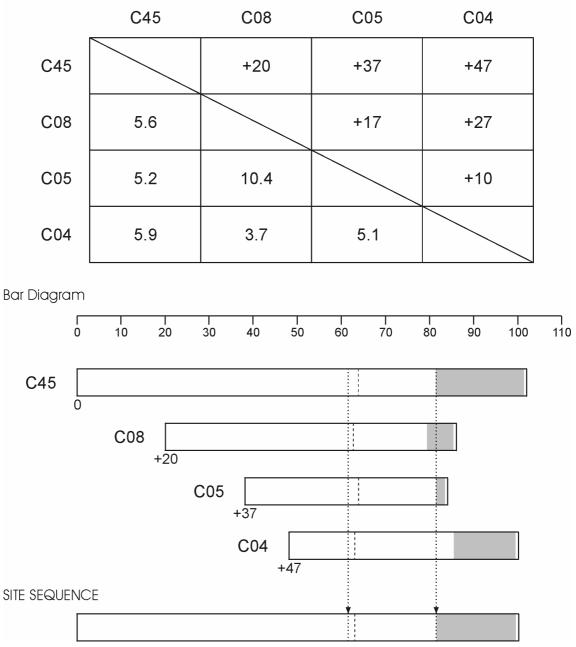


Figure 5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

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.

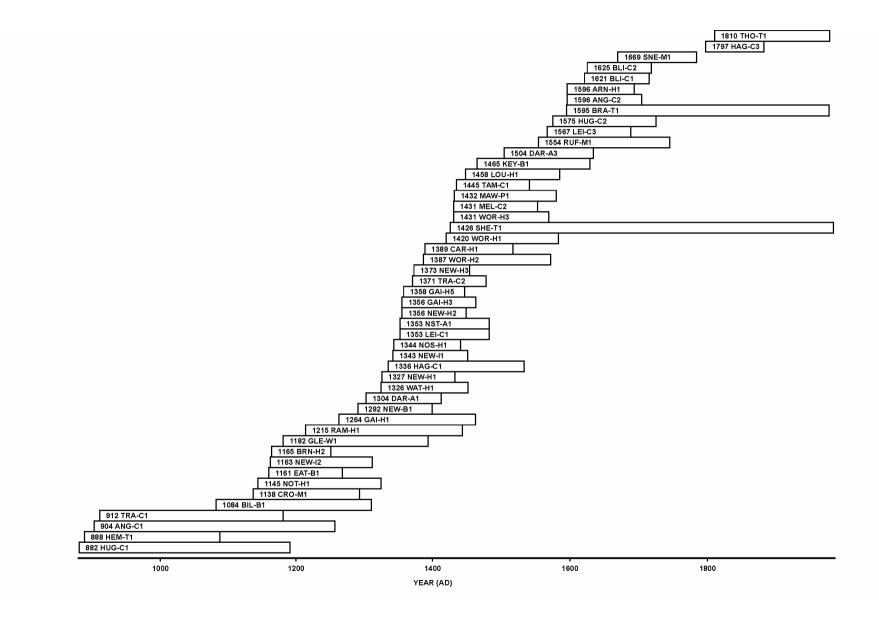


Figure 6: Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87

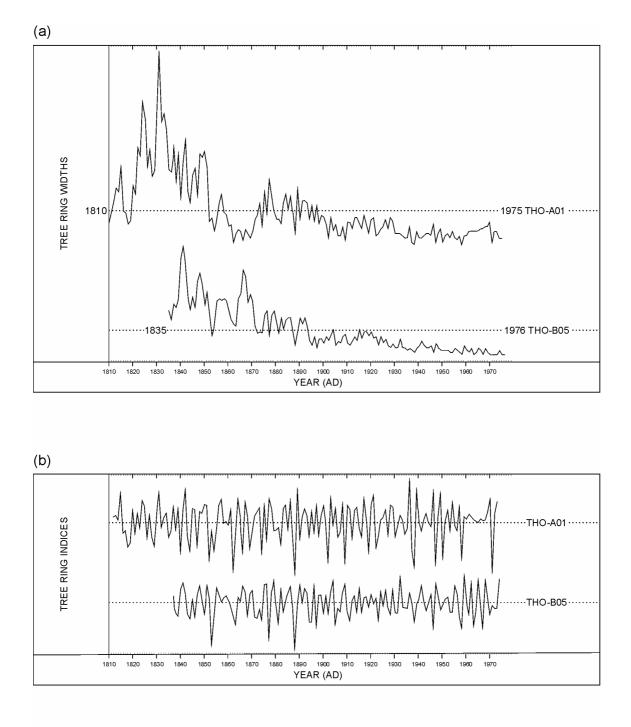


Figure 7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree are wider than the later ones of the older tree in both sequences.

Figure 7 (b): The *Baillie-Pilcher* indices of the above widths. The growth-trends have been removed completely.

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