Ancient Monuments Laboratory Report 46/98

# TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM BROCKWORTH COURT BARN, BROCKWORTH, GLOUCESTERSHIRE

R E Howard R R Laxton C D Litton

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### Summary

The objective of the dendrochronological analysis at Brockworth Court Barn, Gloucestershire, was to date this at-risk building in order to inform its future management. It was hoped that the results of the analysis would influence the process of repair or the recording of the building prior to further action. From the fourteen samples obtained, two site chronologies were formed. The first chronology, of ten timbers from what is probably the original phase, has 137 rings and spans the period AD 1141 to 1277. The relative positions of the heartwood/sapwood boundaries on the samples in this chronology give an estimated felling date in the range AD 1285 to 1310. The second site chronology, of two timbers, has 105 rings and spans the period AD 1352 to 1456. Neither of the samples in this second site chronology has the heartwood/sapwood boundary. It is thus not possible to estimate a felling date for the timbers represented except to say that it is unlikely to be before the final quarter of the fifteenth century. Two samples from the site remain undated. Given the early date of this barn, and the unstratified nature of the samples, it is thought that sampling of the timbers still in situ, particularly the crucks, would be highly beneficial. This would help confirm that the principal components of the structure are indeed early and that the dated timbers are not reused.

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### TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM BROCKWORTH COURT BARN, BROCKWORTH, GLOUCESTERSHIRE

### Introduction

The introductory description and a number of the drawings are taken from the Oxford Archaeological Unit's preliminary assessment report of 1997.

The grade II\* barn is a complex eight-bay structure of more than one period standing adjacent to the medieval and later house of Brockworth Court (SO891170, see Figs 1 and 2), a major manor house of Llanthony Abbey. The core of the barn is a four-bay cruck structure believed to be of medieval date which has later been extended at each end. An elevation and long-section of the barn is reproduced here from the Oxford Archaeological Unit's preliminary assessment report as Figure 3. The medieval bays contain base-crucks, a type in which the curved principals do not meet together at the top but are jointed by a collar beam; an illustrative example of the type is given in Figure 4. The east end extension has an open two-bay section while the west end extension has a two-bay section with a floored area. The timber-work of the later extension consists of wall-posts with tiebeams and principal rafters.

The listing description (dated 1987) suggests that the barn may be of late-fifteenth or early-sixteenth century date, though it is believed that the general date range for this style of roof in England lies between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries. A recent authority (Brady 1996) has dated the medieval portion of the barn on stylistic grounds to the fifteenth century. Brockworth would thus appear to be one of the comparatively few barns recognised to have this roof structure.

The barn was subject to a severe fire in December 1996. This appears to have started at the east end where the roof and other timbers have been almost totally destroyed. The central part, containing the medieval cruck trusses, was badly damaged and large parts of the roof fell in, though three of the four trusses remain standing to collar level. The west end of the barn was comparatively undamaged, having lost only the apex of the roof. Part of the east gable and other portions of the roof were demolished after the fire on safety grounds.

### Sampling

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of the central medieval portion and the two-bay extenuation at the east end of the barn was commissioned by English Heritage. The purpose of this undertaking was to provide dating information to inform the process of repair or enhance the level of recording prior to future action at the site.

The Oxford Archaeological Unit undertook a preliminary assessment of the building in 1997. This included an *in situ* photographic and drawn record of the position of the historic timbers, their recording, and an indication of their probable original positions. The timbers were marked with paper tags at this time by the Archaeological Unit and then stacked in piles within the now roofless barn and outside in the adjoining farmyard. In the intervening year between the fire and sampling many of the paper identifier tags have come off the timbers. The ink on most of those tags that remain attached to the timbers has worn off and these are now blank. As a result of this it was impossible to identify with confidence any timber member or its location.

It is probable that in some general way the positions of the stacked timbers do reflect their original location. For example it is probable that the stacks nearest the central medieval portion contain timbers from that area, whilst those nearest the later extensions at each end contain timbers that fell in those areas. There is,

however, likely to be some intermingling of timbers. It was noticeable too that since the original clearing of the barn there have been further falls of timber, thus adding to the confusion of some of the storage stacks. It is not at all possible to indicate from where within the barn the sampled timbers came from.

Given the unsupported and precarious nature of the remaining standing timbers and that recent collapse had taken place, it was considered unsafe to work within the barn. Thus none of the standing, *in situ*, timbers were sampled. In any case, where observations could be made it was seen that the rings of the largest timbers, the cruck blades for example, were very wide and probably unsuitable for analysis. Sampling was therefore undertaken of the fallen timbers only. These were selected on the basis that fallen beams of the same scantling and form as those still standing were likely, though not necessarily certainly, to be of the same date as the standing timbers.

An attempt was made to select timbers from both what were believed to be the medieval and later parts of the building. However, there appeared to be fewer timbers available from the later portions, particularly at the east end, due no doubt to the severity of the fire in this area. Many timbers, particularly those from the probable later portions, were of smaller scantling than others and had too few rings for suitable analysis. In total about thirty timbers were sliced using a chainsaw and of these fourteen were found to be suitable for tree-ring dating in that they had sufficient rings for satisfactory analysis. Most, but mot all, the suitable timbers were from stacks within the barn. It is probable, though not certain, that these timbers are from the medieval portion. Most of the rejected timbers were from the stacks outside the barn, although this is from where samples BRK-A11 and A12 were obtained.

The sampled timbers are from a burnt and collapsed building which have been disjointed from other timbers and moved to storage piles. In such circumstances it was not possible to use observations of redundant mortises to assess for the likelihood of reused timbers. There is thus no certainty that some, or indeed all, the timbers sampled are not reused.

#### <u>Analysis</u>

A total of fourteen samples was obtained from this site. Each sample was given the code BRK-A (for Brockworth, site "A") and numbered 01 - 14, details of the samples being given in Table 1. The samples were prepared by sanding and their growth-ring widths measured. The data of the measured samples is given at the end of the report. All samples were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix). At a value of t=4.5 two groups of samples formed.

The ten samples of the first group cross-matched with each other as shown in the bar diagram, Figure 5. The ring-widths from these ten samples were combined at these relative off-sets to form BRKASQ01, a site chronology of 137 rings. Site chronology BRKASQ01 was successfully cross-matched with a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak, giving a cross-match when the date of its first ring is AD 1141 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1277. Evidence for this date is given in Table 2. Site chronology BRKASQ01 was compared with the remaining samples, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching.

Given the severity of the fire, their rough storage, and their subsequent exposure to the elements for the last year or more, it is not surprising that the timbers have lost most of the sapwood and that any which remains is extremely fragile. Only the heartwood sapwood/boundary can be found on any of the dated samples, this having an average date of AD 1270. The usual 95% confidence limit for sapwood rings on mature oaks from this part of England is in the range 15 to 40 rings. This would give the timbers represented by this site chronology an estimated felling date in the range AD 1285 to 1310.

The two samples of the second group to form, BRK-A11 and 12, cross-matched with each other as shown in the bar diagram, Figure 6. The ring-widths from these two samples were combined at these relative offsets to form BRKASQ02, a site chronology of 105 rings. Site chronology BRKASQ02 was successfully cross-matched with a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak, giving it a first ring date of AD

1352 and a last measured ring date of AD 1456. Evidence for this date is given in Table 3. Site chronology BRKASQ02 was compared with the remaining ungrouped samples, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. Neither of the samples in this site chronology has the heartwood/sapwood boundary and it is thus not possible to estimate their felling date range except to say that it is unlikely to be before the last quarter of the fifteenth century.

The two remaining ungrouped samples, BRK-A13 and A14, were each compared individually with the relevant reference chronologies. There was, however, no satisfactory cross-matching for either of these and the timbers must, therefore, remain undated.

### **Conclusion**

Analysis by dendrochronology of material from this site has produced evidence of two phases of timber felling. The earliest, represented by site chronology BRKASQ01, is in the range AD 1285 to 1310. This is somewhat earlier than the expected fifteenth century date and would perhaps make Brockworth a very early example of its type. The later felling, represented by site chronology BRKASQ02, cannot be dated precisely but is unlikely to be earlier than the last quarter of the fifteenth century.

The samples analysed here generally show cross-matching with each other with high t-values. It is thus likely that the trees used at Brockworth Court Barn were growing quite close to each other, perhaps in the same stand or copse of woodland. The t-values of the cross-matches between some samples make it probable that some of the timbers sampled are from the same tree as each other, ie. BRK-A04, A09 and A10, and BRK-A13 and A14.

Two samples, BRK-A13 and A14, have not dated. Although they are sufficiently long for satisfactory analysis, both show a sudden change to much narrower rings in their later years, see Figure 7. This may indicate a period of stressed growth of non-climatic origin that may account for the lack of cross-matching and dating.

It is felt highly desirable that further sampling should be undertaken. This additional sampling would most usefully be concentrated on the main structural timbers remaining *in situ*. The dating of these would show conclusively and reliably that the barn is indeed any early example of its type and that the relatively small number of timbers reported upon here are not reused. It may also be worth sampling both *in situ* and *ex situ* timbers from what remains of the east end and from those of the west end in an attempt to ascertain the felling date of these and more fully show the development of this important building.

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Sample no	Sample location	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
BRK-A01	Unknown	96	no h/s	AD 1141	<del>بع بند به بن ا</del> بد	1236
BRK-A02	Unknown	125	h/s	AD 1151	1275	1275
BRK-A03	Unknown	108	h/s	AD 1160	1267	1267
BRK-A04	Unknown	113	h/s	AD 1155	1267	1267
BRK-A05	Unknown	89	h/s	AD 1178	1266	1266
BRK-A06	Unknown	93	h/s	AD 1180	1272	1272
BRK-A07	Unknown	102	h/s	AD 1176	1277	1277
BRK-A08	Unknown	91	no h/s	AD 1156	iyay gita kati dalifidi ury	1246
BRK-A09	Unknown	80	no h/s	AD 1158	Marcada dari Minama kay	1237
BRK-A10	Unknown	80	h/s	AD 1186	1265	1265
BRK-A11	Unknown	101	no h/s	AD 1352	ijer das san sin eine inte	1452
BRK-A12	Unknown	95	no h/s	AD 1362	*****	1456
BRK-A13	Unknown	65	h/s		Qui ago mai dei sen tar	****
BRK-A14	Unknown	60	h/s		des sur dif his de se	No. was not all our day

# Table 1: Details of samples from Brockworth Court Barn, Brockworth, Gloucestershire

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

# Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology BRKASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1141 and last measured ring date is AD 1277

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	t-value	
East Midlands	AD 882 - 1981	5,4	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
Kent-88	AD 1158 – 1540	6.8	(Laxton and Litton 1989)
Southern England	AD 1083 - 1589	7.2	(Bridge 1988)
186/7 Horninglow St, Burton upon Trent, Staffs	AD 1101 - 1345	7.5	(Howard et al 1995)
Salisbury Cathedral, Salisbury, Wilts	AD 1119 - 1241	7.0	(Howard et al 1992)
Worcester Cathedral, Worcester, Worcs	AD 1181 - 1291	7.1	(Howard et al 1995)

# Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology BRKASQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1352 and last measured ring date is AD 1456

Reference chronology	Span of chronolog	gy t-value	
East Midlands	AD 882 - 198	1 4.4	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
Southern England	AD 1083 - 158	9 3.7	(Bridge 1988)
Binton, Warwicks	AD 1369 - 147	3 5.5	(Howard et al 1988)
Stratford-upon-Avon, Warwicks	AD 1319 - 146	2 5.7	(Alcock et al 1991)
Lodge Park, Aldsworth, Glos	AD 1324 - 158	7 5.5	(Howard et al 1995)
Steeple Claydon, Bucks	AD 1365 - 144	4 5.0	(Alcock <i>et al</i> 1990)

Figure 1: Map to show general location of Brockworth



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Figure 2: Map to show specific location of Brockworth Court

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Figure 3: Drawing to show south elevation of Brockworth Court Barn and long-section looking north









Figure 5: Bar diagram of samples in site chronology BRKASQ01

Figure 6: Bar diagram of samples in site chronology BRKASQ02



White bars = heartwood rings

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

Figure 7: Undated samples BRK-A13 and BRK-A14 showing sudden change to narrow growth rings in later years



Data of measured samples - measurements in 0.01mm units

#### BRK-A01A 96

524 462 340 344 491 516 588 619 493 426 496 424 560 506 426 588 602 606 593 658

### 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 Buildings' (Laxton and Litton 1988b) and, for example, in Tree-Ring Dating and Archaeology (Baillie 1982) or A Slice Through Time (Baillie 1995). 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, 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 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. 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 University of Nottingham Tree-Ring dating Laboratory

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian we inspect the timbers in a building 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. Similarly the core has just over 100 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.



Fig 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.



Fig 2. Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the corners, 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.



Fig 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 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.



Fig 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.

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. 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 inspecton 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 is insured with the CBA.

- 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 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 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton *et al* 1988a,b; Howard *et al* 1984 1995).

This is illustrated in Fig 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. C08 matches C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of 45, 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 between these two whatever the position of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the 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 Fig 5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences from 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. 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.

average sequence of ring widths with a master sequence than it is to date the individual component sample sequences separately.

This 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'. This was developed and tested in the Laboratory and has been published (Litton and Zainodin 1991; Laxton *et al* 1988a). To illustrate the difference between the two approaches with the above example, consider sequences C08 and C05. They are the most similar pair with a t-value of 10.4. Therefore, these two are first averaged with the first ring of C05 at +17 rings relative to C08 (the offset at which they match each other). This average sequence is then used in place of the individual sequences C08 and C05. The cross-matching continues in this way gradually building up averages at each stage eventually to form the site sequence.

4. Estimating the Felling Date. 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, they can be seen in two upper corners of the rafter and at the outer end of the core in Figure 2. 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 for 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. Thus in these circumstances the date of the present last ring is at least close to the date of the original last ring on the tree, and so to the date of felling.

Various estimates have been made for the average number of sapwood rings in a mature oak. One estimate is 30 rings, based on data from living oaks. So, in the case of the core in Figure 2 where 9 sapwood rings remain, this would give an estimate for the felling date of 21 (= 30 - 9) years later than of the date of the last ring on the core. Actually, it is better in these situations to give an estimated range for the felling date. Another estimate is that in 95% of mature oaks there are between 15 and 50 sapwood rings. So in this example this would mean that the felling took place between 6 (= 15 - 9) and 41 (= 50 - 9) years after the date of the last ring on the core and is expected to be right in at least 95% of the cases (Hughes *et al* 1981; see also Hillam *et al* 1987).

Data from the Laboratory has shown that when sequences are considered together in groups, rather than separately, the estimates for the number of sapwood can be put at between 15 and 40 rings in 95% of the cases with the expected number being 25 rings. We would use these estimates, for example, in calculating the range for the common felling date of the four sequences from Lincoln Cathedral using the average position of the heartwood/sapwood boundary (Fig 5). These new estimates are now used by us in all our publications except for timbers from Kent and Nottinghamshire where 25 and between 15 to 35 sapwood rings, respectively, is used instead (Pearson 1995).

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. Sapwood rings were only lost in coring, because of their softness By measuring in the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 2 cm., a reasonable estimate can be made of the number of sapwood rings missing from the core, 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 40 years later we would have estimated without this observation.

## T-value/Offset Matrix

	C45	C08	C05	C04
C45	$\backslash$	+20	+37	+47
C08	5.6		+17	+27
C05	5.2	10.4		+10
C04	5.9	3.7	5.1	$\geq$

### **Bar Diagram**



Fig 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.

Even if all the sapwood rings are missing on all the timbers sampled, an estimate of the felling date is still possible in certain cases. For provided the original last heartwood ring of the tree, called the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S), is still on some of the samples, an estimate for the felling date of the group of trees can be obtained by adding on the full 25 years, or 15 to 40 for the range of felling dates.

If none of the timbers have their heartwood/sapwood boundaries, then only a *post quem* date for felling is possible.

- 5. Estimating the Date of Construction. There is a considerable body of evidence in the data collected by the Laboratory that the oak timbers used in vernacular buildings, at least, were used 'green' (see also Rackham (1976)). Hence provided the samples are taken *in situ*, and several dated with the same estimated common felling date, then this felling date will give an estimated date for the construction of the building, or for the phase of construction. If for some reason or other we are rather restricted in what samples we can take, then an estimated common felling date may not be such a precise estimate of the date of construction. More sampling may be needed 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 1988b, 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 1988a). 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 (1988b) 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 (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller generally later growth from about 1900 onwards. A similar difference can be observed in the lower sequence 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, hopefully corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequences of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the early and late growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain only associated with the common climatic signal and so make cross-matching easier.

![](_page_25_Figure_0.jpeg)

Fig 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.

![](_page_26_Figure_0.jpeg)

Fig 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.

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

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