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# Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers from 7-9 Stourport Road, Bewdley, Worcestershire

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## Summary

Core samples were obtained from 21 different oak timbers from within numbers 7 and 9 Stourport Road, Bewdley, all sampled timbers appearing to belong to the primary phase of construction. The analysis of these cores produced a single site chronology, BWDASQ01, comprising 16 samples, and having a combined overall length of 242 rings. This site chronology was dated as spanning the years AD 1060 to AD 1301.

Interpretation of the sapwood would indicate that all the dated timbers were cut in a single phase of felling between AD 1302 and AD 1324.

## Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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# Introduction

The building which is now numbers 5 - 9 Stourport Road, Bewdley, sometimes collectively known as 'Severn View' or 'Riverside', and which is in three separate ownerships, is situated on the north bank of the River Severn (SO 787 754, Figs 1 and 2) on the B4195 Bewdley to Stourport road, about half a kilometre from the centre of the town. Externally, apart from a section of low roofline, the brick and rendered street frontage of three gables provides little indication of the possible antiquity of the site, and it is unlikely that most passers-by would give the buildings more than a second glance.

However, encased within eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth-century alterations, the site appears to have originally comprised an early-medieval two-bay open hall (number 7, now listed Grade II\*) with a two-bay cross-wing at the east end (number 9) and a single-bay cross-wing at the west end (number 5). Indeed, the understated nature of the exterior makes the unexpected timber framing within, which is often moulded, very squarely cut, and well carpentered, all the more spectacular and breathtaking. A simple plan of the site is given in Figure 3, with views to front and rear being shown in Figure 4.

The central truss of the open hall is of base-cruck type, the cruck blades jointed to a cambered tiebeam with cusped and moulded arch braces (Fig 5). The upper portion of the roof, above the tiebeam, consists of a crown post and collar purlin, the crown post supported by concave braces from the tiebeam, with straight struts from crown post to collar purlin. There is also a pair of scissor-braced rafters. Cusped and moulded arch braces also hold the purlins between the trusses from the cruck blades.

The truss forming the partition wall between the hall and the cross-wing at the east end is only slightly less moulded (Fig 6), the beams being plain and undecorated. The principal posts of the truss are held by a straight tiebeam with a central stud post below and a crown post above, the crown post supported by convex braces. The panels below show paired convex braces. Cusped arch braces again run from the posts to purlins. The truss between the hall and the cross-wing at the west end is similarly framed (Fig 7).

The cross-wing at the east end is also of two bays. Again, the central truss has a crown post with scissor-braced rafters sitting atop a slightly cambered tiebeam (Fig 8). The braces from tiebeam to crown post are concave and plain, while those from crown post to collar purlin are straight but chamfered and stopped. The braces from wall posts to tiebeam, and from wall posts to wall plates, are curved, though not cusped or chamfered. The trusses at each end are almost entirely hidden, only being visible within a cupboard, or externally in the north gable wall (Fig 9).

An exhaustive survey of the whole building, with full drawings, has never been undertaken, although The Worcestershire Archaeological Society has carried out a very useful preliminary examination of numbers 7 and 9. There are no survey drawings or notes for number 5, the western single-bay cross-wing, though it is believed to be framed in a generally similar manner. Stylistically, the framing of numbers 7 and 9 dates to the fourteenth century.

Some later alterations have been undertaken at this site, particularly the insertion of a first-floor frame in number 7, the hall range. It is believed that this was done in the eighteenth century, with further changes being made in the nineteenth century. The extent of these changes is unclear. The timbers relating to these alterations are generally of small size and derived from fast-grown trees. As such, they appeared unsuitable for tree-ring analysis and they were excluded from this programme of research.

# <u>Sampling</u>

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of the timbers of 5 - 9 Stourport Road were commissioned by English Heritage, to establish more reliably and accurately the date of the buildings in order to inform listed building consent for works being proposed for the central hall portion of the site, number 7. It was hoped that analysis would determine whether the entire building represents a single phase of construction, or whether there was a more complicated developmental history to the site.

Sampling at this site was complicated by the fact that the building is in three separate ownerships. Sadly, consent for sampling at number 5 could not be obtained and samples were thus obtained from numbers 7 and 9 only. Each sample was given the code BWD-A (for Bewdley, site "A") and numbered 01 - 21.

Twelve samples, BWD-A01 – A12 were obtained from the roof timbers of number 7, the hall range, with a further nine samples, BWD-A13 – A21, being obtained from the eastern two-bay cross-wing, in which a smaller number of timbers was available. All the timbers sampled appeared to be primary and integral to the original construction, all being jointed and pegged together.

Other timbers could have been sampled, such as, for example, those of truss 4, between the hall range and the east cross-wing. The timbers of this truss, however, appeared to be derived from faster-grown trees, and thus to have fewer rings, than the timbers of the other trusses. There were also timbers in the floor-frames of number 7, but many of these appeared to be more recent, possibly related to eighteenth-century alterations, to be of small scantling, and again to be derived from fast-grown trees. As such, they appeared to have too few rings for reliable analysis.

Where possible the positions of the samples are marked on Figures 3 - 8, which, along with Figure 9, were very kindly provided by the Worcestershire Archaeological Society, and by Birmingham Museum and Art Gallery. Details of the samples are given in Table 1. In this Table, all frames and timbers are identified on a north - south or east - west basis as appropriate.

The Laboratory would particularly like to thank to Lorna Burman, of number 7 Stourport Road, and her partner, for their help in arranging access to the building, for their enthusiasm for the project, and for their hospitality during sampling. We would also like to thank their neighbours, Mr and Mrs Giles, for allowing the Laboratory to sample the timbers at number 9. We must also thank Worcestershire Archaeological Society and Birmingham Museum and Art Gallery for the use of their descriptions and drawings.

# <u>Analysis</u>

Each of the 21 samples obtained was prepared by sanding and polishing, and its annual growth-ring widths were measured. The growth-ring widths of all 21 samples were then compared to each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see appendix). At a minimum value of *t*=4.5 a single group of 16 samples was formed, cross-matching with each other at the positions shown in the bar diagram, Figure 10. The samples were combined at these off-sets to form BWDASQ01, a site chronology of 242 rings. Site chronology BWDASQ01 was then satisfactorily dated, by comparison to a number of relevant oak reference chronologies, as spanning the years AD 1060 to AD 1301. Evidence for this dating is given in the *t*-values of Table 2.

Site chronology BWDASQ01 was then compared to the five remaining unmatched samples, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. Each of the five remaining ungrouped samples was then compared individually to a full series of reference chronologies, but again there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. These samples must, therefore, remain undated.

# Interpretation and conclusion

Analysis by dendrochronology has produced a single site chronology, BWDASQ01, comprising 16 samples, its 242 rings dated as spanning the years AD 1060 to AD 1301. Given the moulded and carved nature of many of the timbers at this site, few of the samples retain any sapwood. Sapwood was found on only two samples, BWD-A01 and A11, with the heartwood/sapwood boundary being found on only four others, BWD-A12, A14, A16, and A17. The average date of the heartwood/sapwood boundary on all the samples where it exists is AD 1284. Using a 95% confidence limit of 15 to 40 rings for the amount of sapwood on mature oaks, and allowing that the last measured ring date of any sample is AD 1301, would give the timbers an estimated felling date in the range AD 1302 to AD 1324.

There appears to be little difference, if any, in the relative positions and dates of the heartwood/sapwood boundary on samples from the hall range (number 7) and the east cross-wing (number 9) (Fig 11). This would indicate that both ranges might be considered parts of a single programme of construction, even if the timbers for the two ranges were not felled at exactly the same time. The exact constructional relationship between the two might be determined by careful structural analysis.

The estimated range of AD 1302 – 24 for the felling date of the timber is in keeping with the general fourteenth-century date suggested on the basis of stylistic evidence. The tree-ring date, however, narrows the likely construction date to the first quarter of that century and suggests, perhaps, that the style of framing and moulding seen here is older than had previously been thought. Furthermore, tree-

ring analysis clearly shows that the hall and east cross-wing are likely to represent a single programme of building.

Judging by the cross-matching between some of the samples, with values in excess of t=7.0 and t=8.0 being seen, it is very likely that a number of the timbers represent trees growing very close to each other in the same copse or stand of woodland. Indeed, some samples, such as BWD-A16, A18, and A20, cross-match with each other with values ranging from t=9.5 to t=12.7, suggesting that the timbers they represent, a brace, a crown post, and a wall post, are derived from the same tree. A cross-match with a value of t=10.2 is found between samples BWD-A13 and A14, suggesting that the two timbers represented, both braces to a crown post, are also probably derived from a single tree.

Five samples, BWD-A02, A04, A10, A15, and A19, remain ungrouped and undated. Although a couple of these are a little shorter, all the samples have sufficient numbers of rings for reliable analysis. Some of them do have distorted or erratic rings, with some compaction also being shown, as on samples BWD-A10 and A15 for example. Sample BWD-A19 possibly shows some periodicity in its growth regime, with one or two rings of wide growth followed by years of narrower growth. It is possible that these anomalies have had some impact on the climatic signal resulting in difficulty in dating, although none of them appear to be particularly severe.

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Table 1: Details of samples from 7 – 9 Stourport Road, Bewdley, Worcestershire

Sample number	Sample location	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date	
	Number 7 (open hall)						
BWD-A01	South purlin, truss 5 - 6	144	24	AD 1158	AD 1277	AD 1301	
BWD-A02	East brace to south purlin, truss 6	97	h/s				
BWD-A03	Tiebeam, truss 6	103	no h/s	AD 1142	*** *****	AD 1244	
BWD-A04	Central stud post, truss 6	93	no h/s			المتد متحدينا المتا الله الله	
BWD-A05	North brace, crown post to tiebeam, truss 6	55	no h/s	AD 1215	معلد اللغة اللغة العلم معلم	AD 1269	
BWD-A06	West brace to north purlin, truss 5	71	no h/s	AD 1182		AD 1252	
BWD-A07	West brace, crown post - collar purlin, truss 5	57	no h/s	AD 1151		AD 1207	
BWD-A08	Tiebeam, truss 5	148	no h/s	AD 1060		AD 1207	
BWD-A09	Crown post, truss 5	99	no h/s	AD 1160		AD 1258	
BWD-A10	South brace, crown post - tie beam, truss 5	63	h/s				
BWD-A11	East brace to north purlin, truss 5	106	14	AD 1195	AD 1286	AD 1300	
BWD-A12	North purlin, truss 4 - 5	137	h/s	AD 1158	AD 1294	AD 1294	
	Number 9 (east cross-wing)						
BWD-A13	South brace, crown post - collar purlin, truss 2	81	no h/s	AD 1170		AD 1250	
BWD-A14	North brace, crown post - collar purlin, truss 2	77	no h/s	AD 1170		AD 1246	
BWD-A15	East brace, crown post - collar purlin, truss 2	56	no h/s				
BWD-A16	West brace, crown post - collar purlin, truss 2	112	h/s	AD 1166	AD 1277	AD 1277	
BWD-A17	Tiebeam, truss 2	102	h/s	AD 1183	AD 1284	AD 1284	
BWD-A18	Crown post, truss 2	56	no h/s	AD 1166	100-100 table 100-100	AD 1221	
BWD-A19	Collar purlin, truss 1 - 2	106	h/s	a di ini kata kata atay mana man	100 PM 100 000 000 000		
BWD-A20	East Wall post, truss 2	62	no h/s	AD 1174		AD 1235	
BWD-A21	East wall plate, truss 1 - 2	74	h/s	AD 1212	AD 1285	AD 1285	
-		-					

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

# Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site chronology BWDASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when first ring date is AD 1060 and last ring date is AD 1301

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	
Chichester Cathedral West Sussey	AD 1173 - 1205	۹٥	(Howard et al 1992)
186/7 Horniglow St. Burton upon Trent Staffs	AD 1101 – 1345	9.0 8.8	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1995)
East Midlands	AD 882 – 1981	8.6	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
Reading Waterfront, Berks	AD 1160 – 1407	8.5	(Groves <i>et al</i> 1997)
Gloucester Blackfriars	AD 1024 – 1347	8.2	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2002)
England	AD 401 – 1981	8.1	(Baillie and Pilcher 1982 unpubl)
England, London	AD 413 – 1728	8.0	(Tyers and Groves 1999 unpubl)
Hansacre Hall, Staffs	AD 965 – 1279	7.4	(Esling <i>et al</i> 1990)



Figure 1: Map to show general location of Bewdley

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Figure 2: Map to show more specific location of 7 – 9 Stourport Road

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# Figure 3: Simple plan of 5 – 9 Stourport Road, Bewdley showing approximate position of sampled timbers

Road or river frontage

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Figure 4: Above, front view of 5 – 9 Stourport Road, rear view below (by kind permission of Steven Price)

# Figure 5: Drawing showing truss 5 (central truss) of the open hall range to show sample positions (viewed from the west looking east) (by kind permission of Steven Price)





Figure 7: Drawing to illustrate truss 6 between hall range and west cross-wing to show sample positions (viewed from the east looking west) (by kind permission of Steven Price)



# Figure 8: Drawing of truss 2 (central truss) of the east cross-wing to show sample positions (viewed from the south looking north) (by kind permission of Steven Price)



# Figure 9: Illustration of truss 1, visible in the north gable wall of the east cross-wing (by kind permission of Steven Price)





Figure 10: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology BWDASQ01

white bars = heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings h/s = the heartwood/sapwood boundary is the last ring on the sample

													Re	elative
Off-												Total	heartwo	od/sapwood
set												rings	bounda	ary position
400						40		- 1- /-				50		
106					LA	18	no	<u>on/s</u>				90		*** *****
114					г	A20		no n/	sl			62		
110					Ļ	<u>A14</u>		<u> </u>	<u>10 h/s</u>	T		77		
110			Nu	ımber 9		A13			<u>_no h/s</u>			81		
106						A16				h/	s	112		218
123						A	\17				h/s	102		225
152						<u> </u>		A21		·	h/s	74		226
								h						
91					A07		no h/s					57		
30A 00	3						no h/s					148		
82				AC	3			no	⊳h/s			103		
122						A	06		no h/s	\$		71		
100					A0	9			no l	n/s		99		
155			Numbe	r 7				A05		no h/s		55		
98					A1:	2					h/s	137		235
135							A1	1		14	sap	106		227
98					A0	1		1		24 sa	p	144		218
1	I	1	1	1							]			
00	20	40	60	80	100	120	140	160	180	200	220	240 250 yea	rs relative	

Figure 11: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology BWDASQ01 sorted by sample location

white bars = heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample

#### BWD-A01A 144

132 147 186 197 197 178 152 123 114 95 119 116 128 128 109 130 141 117 120 117 150 141 201 143 131 151 152 252 186 235 163 140 116 118 149 101 117 102 133 116 138 144 143 89 100 115 139 139 132 129 128 139 132

119 131 104 132 160 162 139 171

22

140 227

### 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 University of 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.

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 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 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.



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 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.



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 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.

- 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).
- Cross-matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the local climate 3. 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 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 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 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 ringwidth 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 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



*t*-value/offset Matrix

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.

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.
- *Master Chronological Sequences*. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or a site 6. 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 phenomena 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.



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



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.

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

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