ISSN 1749-8775

CHURCH OF ST ANDREW, FENITON COURT, FENITON, DEVON TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard and Matt Hurford





ARCHAEOLOGICAL SCIENCE

CHURCH OF ST ANDREW, FENITON COURT, FENITON, DEVON

TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

A J Arnold, R E Howard, and M Hurford

NGR: SY 109 994

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ISSN 1749-8775

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on timbers of the south aisle and nave roofs at this church.

Seven samples from the timbers of the south aisle roof grouped to form three site sequences, which were successfully matched against the reference material to span the periods AD 1386–1477, AD 1422–79, and AD 1377–1471. A single sample, FEN-C07, was dated individually to the period AD 1409–73. Interpretation of the heartwood/sapwood boundary on these dated samples suggests felling of the timbers represented in AD 1489–1514.

Prior to tree-ring analysis, the south aisle had been attributed to Joan Malherbe and her second husband, some time between *c* AD 1520 and her death in AD 1554, although stylistically it was felt to be slightly earlier. The dendrochronology has now demonstrated that the roof over this part of the church contains timber of the late fifteenth or early-sixteenth century.

Two site sequences containing samples from the nave roof were also constructed, but could not be dated.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard, and Matt Hurford

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Laboratory would like to thank John Allen of Exeter Archaeology who arranged access and provided invaluable on-site advice. The description of the south aisle roof, below, is based on his survey of this part of the church and he provided the drawings on which samples have been located.

ARCHIVE LOCATION

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DATE OF INVESTIGATION

2008

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INTRODUCTION

The Grade II* listed parish church of Feniton is located a few miles to the west of Honiton (SY 109 994; Figs I and 2) in the county of Devon. It consists of nave and chancel (which includes the Patteson Chapel, so named after John Coleridge Patteson, the missionary bishop who died in Melanesia in 1871), the south aisle, which runs the full length of both of these, west tower, and north transept and vestry to the north of the chancel. There is a porch in the angle of the tower and south aisle. Although the church has its origins in the Norman period, parts are thought to date to the fifteenth and earlysixteenth centuries and it is known to have undergone substantial renovations in AD 1877. This is believed to have included some work on the roofs of the nave and south aisle.

The south aisle is of six bays and seven trusses, with each truss consisting of principal rafters, cranked tiebeams, and braces which rise from the tiebeam to the principals. These latter elements are thought to be later insertions. There is a diagonally set ridgepiece and two sets of purlins to each slope (Fig 3). Stylistically the aisle belongs to the late fifteenth or early-sixteenth century. Other dating is suggested by the punning devices of the Ferrers family, the Malherbes, and the Kirkhams, displayed on the arcade capitals. Together these refer to Joan Malherbe, the daughter and heiress of William Malherbe, whose first marriage was to Richard Ferrers, and those second was to John Kirkham. On this evidence it has been suggested that Joan Malherbe was the patron of the building programme, perhaps with John Kirkham. Although it is not known when these two married, it has been suggested that, since John Kirkham became Sheriff of Devon in AD 1522, construction of the south aisle is likely have occurred some time from c AD 1522 and Joan Malherbe's death in AD 1554.

The roof over the nave is of a type known as wagon roof. It consists of 28 pairs of rafters, upper and lower arch braces, and collars (Figs 4 and 5). This type of roof is a particular feature of the south-west and research undertaken by this Laboratory on roofs of this type has successfully dated timbers from a number of these to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, such as at St Veep (Arnold *et a*/2005), East Looe (Arnold *et a*/2006a), Lansallos (Arnold *et a*/2006b), and St Teath (Arnold *et a*/2007).

This description has been based on the building's Listing Description (<u>www.imagesofengland.co.uk</u>) and the survey of the south aisle roof undertaken by John Allen of Exeter Archaeology (2007).

SAMPLING

Tree-ring dating of the nave and south aisle roofs of the Church of St Andrew was requested by Jenny Chesher, Historic Buildings Inspector at English Heritage's Bristol office, to inform statutory advice in the context of repairs taking place to all the roofs. It was hoped that successful dating of the timbers of the nave and south aisle roofs would provide an accurate date for their construction and establish the relative relationship between the two structures. Additionally, it was hoped to ascertain the extent of the survival of historic fabric and identify any secondary phases of work within the roofs.

A total of 34 timbers was sampled. Each sample was given the code FEN-C (for Feniton Church) and numbered 01-34. Nineteen of these were taken from the timbers of the south aisle roof (FEN-C01-19) and the other 15 from the timbers of the nave roof (FEN-C20-34). The location of samples was noted at the time of sampling and has been marked on Figures 6–18. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1. Roof trusses and frames have been numbered from east to west (Fig 6).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

At this stage it was noticed that six of the samples from the south aisle roof (FEN-C01, FEN-C08, FEN-C09, FEN-C10, FEN-C18, and FEN-C19) had too few rings to make secure dating a possibility. These samples were rejected prior to measurement. The remaining 28 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. The samples were then divided into nave and south aisle samples and each set of samples compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix).

South aisle roof

At a least value of t=4.5, seven samples grouped to form three site sequences. Firstly, two samples matched each other and were combined at the relevant off-set positions to form FENCSQ01, a site sequence of 92 rings (Fig 19). This site sequence was then compared against a large number of relevant reference chronologies where it was found to have a consistent match at the first-ring date of AD 1386 and the last-measured ring date of AD 1477. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 2.

A further two samples matched each other and were again combined at the relevant offset positions to form FENCSQ02, a site sequence of 58 rings (Fig 19). This site sequence was found to have a secure and consistent match at a first-ring date of AD 1422 and a last-measured ring date of AD 1479. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 3.

Finally, three samples matched and were combined at the relevant off-set positions to form FENCSQ03, a site sequence of 95 rings (Fig 19). When compared against the relevant reference chronologies a consistent match was found when the first-ring date was AD 1377 and the last-measured ring date AD 1471. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 4. Although consistent, the matching is not as good as one would hope and it was thought possible that a series of compacted rings towards the end of the site sequence might be adversely influencing the matching. Therefore, the last 20 rings were removed and the resultant site sequence of 75 rings was again compared

against the reference material when it was found to produce greatly improved *t*-values (Table 4) at the expected date.

Attempts were then made to date the remaining ungrouped south aisle samples by individually comparing them against the reference material. This resulted in sample FEN-C07 matching at a first-ring date of AD 1409 and a last-measured ring date of AD 1473 (Table 5). The remaining samples could not be matched and remain undated.

The analysis has resulted in the successful dating of eight of the south aisle timbers. Five of these dated samples have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, the dates of which are broadly contemporary and suggestive of a single felling (Fig 19). The average heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date for these five samples is AD 1474, allowing an estimated felling date to be calculated for the five timbers represented to the range AD 1489–1514. The remaining three dated samples do not have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring dates cannot be calculated for them. However, with last-measured ring dates of AD 1467 (FEN-C11), AD 1450 (FEN-C16), and AD 1455 (FEN-C17) it is quite possible that these timbers were also felled in the late fifteenth or early-sixteenth century.

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

Nave roof

Analysis of these samples resulted in six samples forming two groups. Firstly, three samples matched each other and were combined to form FENCSQ04, a site sequence of 111 rings (Fig 20). A further three samples matched and were combined to form FENCSQ05, a site sequence of 79 rings (Fig 21). Attempts to date these two site sequences and the remaining ungrouped nave samples by comparing them against the reference chronologies were unsuccessful and all remain undated.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Prior to the tree-ring analysis being undertaken, both the nave and south aisle roofs had been dated stylistically to the fifteenth or sixteenth century. Furthermore, it had been suggested that the south aisle was associated with Joan Malherbe and her second husband, John Kirkham, with the proposed construction date being c AD 1520–54 (Allen 2007). It was thought that repairs had been undertaken on both of these roofs during the restoration of the church in AD 1877 and it was hoped that dendrochronology might identify the extent of survival of historic timber and any secondary modifications.

It is now known that the south aisle roof contains timber felled in AD 1489–1514, supporting the late fifteenth/early-sixteenth century date assigned to it on stylistic grounds but slightly earlier than that suggested by other evidence. The dated timbers consist of

four tiebeams, three principal rafters, and a plate, all major structural elements. It is still possible that Joan Malherbe was the patron of this work, but it does now seem unlikely that construction was undertaken during her marriage to John Kirkham, unless they married earlier than the suggested date of c AD 1520. Having said this, it should be noted that the precise date of their wedding is not recorded in any readily available sources. Alternatively, it may be the case that the decoration on the arcade capitals was a later addition, as suggested by Cresswell (1919), or at least the Kirkham family detail was added post-construction, perhaps in recognition of Joan Malherbe's new husband.

It is unfortunate that neither of the two sampled struts (FEN-C18 and FEN-C19) had sufficient number of rings to warrant measurement and analysis, as it would have been useful to have been able to confirm or refute the suggestion that these are later modifications, perhaps belonging to the repair campaign of AD 1877.

Although neither of the two site sequences constructed from timbers of the nave roof could be dated, it is possible to make some observations about them. By looking at the relative heartwood/sapwood boundary ring positions, where present, of the samples making up sequence FENCSQ04 and FENCSQ05, it is possible to say that in both cases at least two timbers would have probably been felled at the same time (Figs 20 and 21). However, whether those timbers represented by the samples in FENCSQ04 were felled at the same time as those in FENCSQ05 is not known. Also worth noting is that all three samples in FENCSQ04 are common rafters, whereas those in FENCSQ05 are collars.

Generally, there is poor intra-site matching of samples in both the nave and the south aisle roofs, with analysis of the former producing two separate site sequences and nine ungrouped samples and the latter three separate site sequences and seven ungrouped samples. Certainly, this will have made successful dating more difficult, as the better-replicated a site sequence is, the more chance there is of matching it against the reference material. This seems to be especially important in the south-west where, despite recent successes, tree-ring dating is still problematic. In the case of the south aisle samples, where a proportion of the timber is now known to be of the same date, this poor grouping suggests that rather than using a coherent group of trees from a single source for the timber, the joiners responsible utilised a disparate series of trees from potentially diverse sources. Of course, with no samples dating from the nave roof it is not possible to say whether this is the same situation or whether more than one phase of construction is represented amongst the timbers.

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TABLES

Table I: Details of tree-ring samples from the Church of St Andrew, Feniton Court, Devon

Sample	Sample location		Sapwood	First measured ring	Last heartwood ring	Last measured ring	
number		rings*	rings**	date (AD)	date (AD)	date (AD)	
<u>Aisle roof</u>							
FEN-C01	Tiebeam, truss I	NM					
FEN-C02	North principal rafter, truss I	53	h/s				
FEN-C03	Tiebeam, truss 2	54	h/s	1426	1479	1479	
FEN-C04	Tiebeam, truss 3	92	h/s	1386	1477	1477	
FEN-C05	North principal rafter, truss 3	47	h/s				
FEN-C06	North principal rafter, truss 4	78	h/s				
FEN-C07	Tiebeam, truss 4	65	h/s	1409	1473	1473	
FEN-C08	North principal rafter, truss 5	NM					
FEN-C09	South principal rafter, truss 5	NM					
FEN-CI0	Tiebeam, truss 5	NM					
FEN-CII	Mid-plate, bay 5 (truss 5-6)	53		1415		1467	
FEN-C12	North upper purlin, trusses 5-6	44	04				
FEN-C13	North principal rafter, truss 6	54	h/s				
FEN-C14	South principal rafter, truss 6	61	h/s	4	47	1471	
FEN-C15	Tiebeam, truss 6	50	h/s	1422	47	1471	
FEN-C16	North principal rafter, truss 7	66		1385		1450	
FEN-C17	South principal rafter, truss 7	79		1377		1455	
FEN-C18	North strut, truss 7	NM					
FEN-C19	South strut, truss 7	NM					

Sample	Sample location	Total	Sanwood	First measured ring	Last heartwood ring	Last measured ring		
number		rings*	rings**	date (AD)	date (AD)	date (AD)		
<u>Nave roof</u>		-						
FEN-C20	North common rafter 3	79						
FEN-C21	South common rafter 3	64	h/s					
FEN-C22	North common rafter 8	91	h/s					
FEN-C23	North common rafter 11	58	h/s					
FEN-C24	South common rafter 13	98						
FEN-C25	South common rafter 15	79	03					
FEN-C26	North common rafter 18	94	h/s					
FEN-C27	North common rafter 19	90	h/s					
FEN-C28	Collar 4	58	h/s					
FEN-C29	Collar 6	52	h/s					
FEN-C30	Collar 10	64	h/s					
FEN-C31	Collar I I	60	h/s					
FEN-C32	Collar 12	59						
FEN-C33	Collar 14	65	h/s					
FEN-C34	Collar 18	62	03					

*NM = not measured **h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence FENCSQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1386 and the last-ring date is AD 1477

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
Warleigh House, Tamerton Foliot, Devon	7.2	AD 1367–1539	Howard <i>et al</i> 2006
Devon county chronology	6.9	AD 775–1799	Tyers and Groves pers comm
Naas House, Lydney, Glos	6.7	AD 1373–1568	Howard <i>et al</i> 1998
Church of St Martin, East Looe, Cornwall	6.2	AD 1363-1518	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2006a
Townsend farmhouse, Stockland, Devon	6.2	AD 1422-84	Tyers and Groves 2003
Pendennis Castle, Comwall	6.1	AD 1358-1541	Tyers 2004a
Church of St Ildierna, Lansallos, Cornwall	5.8	AD 1355-1514	Arnold and Howard 2006b

 Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence FENCSQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD

 1422 and the last-ring date is AD

 1479

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
Devon county chronology	6.7	AD 775–1799	Tyers and Groves pers comm.
Leigh Barton, Churchstow, Devon	6.0	AD 1345–1484	Groves 2006
St Teatha's Church, St Teath	5.4	AD 1362–1487	Arnold and Howard 2007
Church of St Martin, East Looe, Cornwall	5.4	AD 1363-1518	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2006a
Church of St Ildierna, Lansallos, Cornwall	5.3	AD 1355-1514	Arnold and Howard 2006b
Lancin Farmhouse, Wambrook, Somerset	5.3	AD 1374–1533	Tyers 1994
Woodhouse Farm, Staplow, Herefordshire	5.2	AD 1368-1558	Tyers pers comm

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value (AD1471)	<i>t</i> -value (AD1451)	Span of chronology	Reference			
Hampshire county chronology	4.8	5.6	AD 443–1972	Miles 2003			
Ightham Mote, Kent	4.3	6.0	AD 1337–1580	Howard 2002 unpubl			
Roscarrock, Cornwall	3.9	5.4	AD 1373-1500	Tyers 2004b			
Devon county chronology	4.0	5.1	AD 775–1799	Tyers and Groves pers comm			
Field Place Barn, West Sussex	4.7	5.1	AD 1309-1465	Bridge 1993			
Tickenham Court, Somerset	3.4	4.8	AD 1372–1475	Bridge and Miles 2004			
Clunbury Church, Shropshire	2.8	4.8	AD 1239–1494	Tyers 2000			
Warleigh House, Tamerton Foliot, Devon	2.8	4.8	AD 1367–1539	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2005			
South Coombe, Cheriton Fitzpaine, Devon	4.2	4.8	AD 1384-1513	Miles and Worthington 1998			
South Yarde, Rose Ash, Devon	4.8	4.7	AD 1309-1447	Hillam and Groves 1993			
Bishops Palace, Salisbury Chapel, Wiltshire	4.5	4.6	AD 1387-1540	Miles 1998 unpubl			
Church of St Ciricus and St Julitta, St Veep, Cornwall	4.3	4.6	AD 1352-1512	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2005			

 Table 4: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence FENCSQ03 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD

 1377 and the last-ring date is AD 1471 and AD 1451 (truncated version)

 Table 5: Results of the cross-matching of truncated site sequence FEN-C07 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1473

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Span of chronology	Reference
Devon county chronology	4.9	AD 775–1799	Tyers and Groves pers comm
St Mary's Church, Axminster, Devon	6.4	AD 1393-1520	Bridge 2005
Sherborne Abbey Church, Dorset	5.7	AD 770–1872	Bridge 1993
Queen Elizabeth Hunting Lodge, Chingford, London	5.6	AD 1398-1541	Tyers 1993
Church of St Ildierna, Lansallos, Cornwall	5.3	AD 1355-1514	Arnold and Howard 2006b
Muchelney Abbey, Somerset	5.2	AD 1148-1498	Bridge 2002
Tickenham Court, Somerset	4.7	AD 1372–1475	Bridge and Miles 2004

FIGURES



Figure I: Map to show the location of Feniton

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Figure 2: Map to show the location of St Andrew's Church, Feniton

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Figure 3: St Andrew's Church, South Aisle roof, Truss 6 in foreground



Figure 4: St Andrews Church, Nave roof, looking west



Figure 5: St Andrew's Church, Nave roof



Figure 6: Plans, showing the location of samples FEN-C01, FEN-C03–04, FEN-C07, FEN-C10–11, FEN-C15, and FEN-C18–27 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)





Figure 7: Section through the nave and south aisle roofs, showing the location of samples FEN-C06 and FEN-C32 (provided by John Allen)



Figure 8: Truss 1, showing the location of sample FEN-C02 (based on Truss 4 provided by John Allen)



Figure 9: Truss 3, showing the location of sample FEN-C05 (based on Truss 4 provided by John Allen)



Figure 10: Truss 5, showing the location of samples FEN-C08, FEN-C09, and FEN-C12 (based on Truss 4, provided by John Allen)



Figure 11: Truss 6, showing the location of samples FEN-C13 and FEN-C14 (based on Truss 4, provided by John Allen)



Figure 12: Truss 7, showing the location of samples FEN-C16 and FEN-C17 (based on Truss 4, provided by John Allen)



Figure 13: Frame 4, showing the location of sample FEN-C28 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Figure 14: Frame 6, showing the location of sample FEN-C29 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Figure 15: Frame 10, showing the location of sample FEN-C30 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Figure 16: Frame 11, showing the location of sample FEN-C31 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Figure 17: Frame 14, showing the location of sample FEN-C33 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Figure 18: Frame 18, showing the location of sample FEN-C34 (based on a drawing provided by John Allen)



Heartwood rings

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





Heartwood rings Heartwood sapwood boundary ring is the last-measured ring on the sample





Heartwood rings

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

Figure 21: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence FENCSQ05

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

measurements in 0.01mm units

239 260 239 226 147 245 206 251 241 258 291 207 254 228 245 249 344 223 452 369

263 348 269 250 219 311 342 193 218 167 215 166 204 192 184 259 215 215

129	116																		
FEN-	-C34	B 62	-																
427	439	474	250	265	195	420	426	533	734	520	237	274	288	222	188	179	211	236	335
255	359	253	271	260	221	305	128	120	267	156	264	243	132	109	67	110	219	176	135
177	198	179	219	274	196	221	204	177	173	127	131	135	104	113	113	105	86	115	110
126	116																		

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 randomlike, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure A1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

If the bark is still on the sample, as in Figure A1, then the date of the last ring will be the date of felling of the oak from which it was cut. There is much evidence that in medieval times oaks cut down for building purposes were used almost immediately, usually within the year or so (Rackham 1976). Hence if bark is present on several main timbers in a building, none of which appear reused or are later insertions, and if they all have the same date for their last ring, then we can be quite confident that this is the date of construction or soon after. If there is no bark on the sample, then we have to make an estimate of the felling date; how this is done is explained below.

The Practice of Tree-Ring Dating at the Nottingham Tree-Ring Dating Laboratory

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian the timbers in a building are inspected to try to ensure that those sampled are not reused or later insertions. Sampling is almost always done by coring into the timber, which has the great advantage that we can sample *in situ* timbers and those judged best to give the date of construction, or phase of construction if there is more than one in the building. The timbers to be sampled are also inspected to see how many rings they have. We normally look for timbers with at least 70 rings, and preferably more. With fewer rings than this, 50 for example, sequences of widths become difficult to match to a unique

position within a master sequence of ring widths and so are difficult to date (Litton and Zainodin 1991). The cross-section of the rafter shown in Figure A2 has about 120 rings; about 20 of which are sapwood rings – the lighter rings on the outside. Similarly the core has just over 100 rings with a few sapwood rings.

To ensure that we are getting the date of the building as a whole, or the whole of a phase of construction if there is more than one, about 8–10 samples per phase are usually taken. Sometimes we take many more, especially if the construction is complicated. One reason for taking so many samples is that, in general, some will fail to give a date. There may be many reasons why a particular sequence of ring widths from a sample of timber fails to give a date even though others from the same building do. For example, a particular tree may have grown in an odd ecological niche, so odd indeed that the widths of its rings were determined by factors other than the local climate! In such circumstances it will be impossible to date a timber from this tree using the master sequence whose widths, we can assume, were predominantly determined by the local climate at the time.

Sampling is done by coring into the timber with a hollow corer attached to an electric drill and usually from its outer rings inwards towards where the centre of the tree, the pith, is judged to be. An illustration of a core is shown in Figure A2; it is about 150mm long and 10mm diameter. Great care has to be taken to ensure that as few as possible of the outer rings are lost in coring. This can be difficult as these outer rings are often very soft (see below on sapwood). Each sample is given a code which identifies uniquely which timber it comes from, which building it is from and where the building is located. For example, CRO-A06 is the sixth core taken from the first building (A) sampled by the Laboratory in Cropwell Bishop. Where it came from in that building will be shown in the sampling records and drawings. No structural damage is done to any timbers by coring, nor does it weaken them.

During the initial inspection of the building and its timbers the dendrochronologist may come to the conclusion that, as far as can be judged, none of the timbers have sufficient rings in them for dating purposes and may advise against sampling to save further unwarranted expense.

All sampling by the Laboratory is undertaken according to current Health and Safety Standards. The Laboratory's dendrochronologists are insured.



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



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



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



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

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

3. Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the local climate which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig A4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the *t*-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum t-value among the t-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a *t*-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et al 1988; Howard et al 1984–1995).

This is illustrated in Figure A5 with timbers from one of the roofs of Lincoln Cathedral. Here four sequences of ring widths, LIN-CO4, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the bar diagram, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of CO8 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual *t*-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the *t*-value between C45 and C08 is 5.6 and is the maximum found between these two among all the positions of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the ring-width sequences of the samples in a building and then to form an average from them. This average is called a site sequence of the building being dated and is illustrated in Figure A5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences of the four timbers. The site sequence width for each year is the average of the widths in each of the sample sequences which has a width for that year. Thus in Fig A5 if the widths shown are 0.8mm for C45, 0.2mm for C08, 0.7mm for C05, and 0.3mm for C04, then the corresponding width of the site

sequence is the average of these, 0.55mm. The actual sequence of widths of this site sequence is stored on the computer. The reason for creating site sequences is that it is usually easier to date an average sequence of ring widths with a master sequence than it is to date the individual component sample sequences separately.

The straightforward method of cross-matching several sample sequences with each other one at a time is called the 'maximal *t*-value' method. The actual method of cross-matching a group of sequences of ring-widths used in the Laboratory involves grouping and averaging the ring-width sequences and is called the 'Litton-Zainodin Grouping Procedure'. It is a modification of the straightforward method and was successfully developed and tested in the Laboratory and has been published (Litton and Zainodin 1991; Laxton *et al* 1988).

4. Estimating the Felling Date. As mentioned above, if the bark is present on a sample, then the date of its last ring is the date of the felling of its tree (or the last full year before felling, if it was felled in the first three months of the following calendar year, before any new growth had started, but this is not too important a consideration in most cases). The actual bark may not be present on a timber in a building, though the dendrochronologist who is sampling can often see from its surface that only the bark is missing. In these cases the date of the last ring is still the date of felling.

Quite often some, though not all, of the original outer rings are missing on a timber. The outer rings on an oak, called sapwood rings, are usually lighter than the inner rings, the heartwood, and so are relatively easy to identify. For example, sapwood can be seen in the corner of the rafter and at the outer end of the core in Figure A2, both indicated by arrows. More importantly for dendrochronology, the sapwood is relatively soft and so liable to insect attack and wear and tear. The builder, therefore, may remove some of the sapwood for precisely these reasons. Nevertheless, if at least some of the sapwood rings are left on a sample, we will know that not too many rings have been lost since felling so that the date of the last ring on the sample is only a few years before the date of the original last ring on the tree, and so to the date of felling.

Various estimates have been made and used for the average number of sapwood rings in mature oak trees (English Heritage 1998). A fairly conservative range is between 15 and 50 and that this holds for 95% of mature oaks. This means, of course, that in a small number of cases there could be fewer than 15 and more than 50 sapwood rings. For example, the core CRO-A06 has only 9 sapwood rings and some have obviously been lost over time – either they were removed originally by the carpenter and/or they rotted away in the building and/or they were lost in the coring. It is not known exactly how many sapwood rings are missing, but using the above range the Laboratory would estimate between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and a maximum of 41 (=50-9). If the last ring of CRO-A06 has been dated to 1500, say, then the estimated felling-date range for the tree from which it came originally would be between 1506 and 1541. The Laboratory uses this estimate for sapwood in areas of England where it has no prior information. It

also uses it when dealing with samples with very many rings, about 120 to the last heartwood ring. But in other areas of England where the Laboratory has accumulated a number of samples with complete sapwood, that is, no sapwood lost since felling, other estimates in place of the conservative range of 15 to 50 are used. In the East Midlands (Laxton *et a*/2001) and the east to the south down to Kent (Pearson 1995) where it has sampled extensively in the past, the Laboratory uses the shorter estimate of 15 to 35 sapwood rings in 95% of mature oaks growing in these parts. Since the sample CRO-A06 comes from a house in Cropwell Bishop in the East Midlands, a better estimate of sapwood rings lost since felling is between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and 26 (=35-9) and the felling would be estimated to have taken place between 1506 and 1526, a shorter period than before. Oak boards quite often come from the Baltic region and in these cases the 95% confidence limits for sapwood are 9 to 36 (Howard *et al* 1992, 56).

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

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

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

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

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

t-value/offset Matrix



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

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



Figure A6: 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

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

Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree are wider than the later ones of the older tree in both sequences

Figure A7 (b): The Baillie-Pilcher indices of the above widths

The growth trends have been removed completely

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