

Belsay Castle, Belsay, Near Morpeth, Northumberland Tree-ring and radiocarbon analysis of oak timbers

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard, Cathy Tyers, Christopher Bronk Ramsey, Elaine Dunbar and Peter Marshall

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Research Report Series 13-2018

BELSAY CASTLE BELSAY, NEAR MORPETH NORTHUMBERLAND

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SUMMARY

Tree-ring analysis was undertaken on samples taken from the coach house/stables range, the castle tower, and the castle annexe resulting in the construction of a single site sequence representing two tiebeams from the tower. This site sequence could not be conclusively dated through dendrochronology alone but tentative dating obtained has now been supported by radiocarbon wiggle-match dating. These two tiebeams are now known to have been felled in AD 1439–64_{DR}.

CONTRIBUTORS

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INTRODUCTION

The Belsay Castle complex, located in Belsay, c 22 km north west of Newcastle upon Tyne (Figs 1–2), is designated a Scheduled Ancient Monument (List Entry No. 1015517). It includes, at the western edge of the site, the medieval castle and associated buildings (Fig 3). In AD 1614 Thomas and Dorothy Middleton added a mansion range to the west side of the castle tower, which may have replaced an earlier manor house. A further wing, now ruined, was added to this house in the early-eighteenth century with walled gardens laid out to the front. A new mansion in the Greek revival style was built to replace the old castle in the early-nineteenth century.

Tower

The castle is dominated by a fortified, three-storey 'pele tower' (Fig 4) constructed from squared stone with ashlar detail and thought to date to *c* AD 1370 (Grade I listed: <u>List Entry No. 1042837</u>). The ground floor consisted of a tunnel vaulted kitchen, complete with a large fireplace, and a spiral staircase which provided access to the upper levels. The first floor was dominated by the Great Hall whilst the upper level provided high status accommodation and possibly a small chapel. The extant roof (Fig 5) is thought to be a re-roofing dating to AD 1896–7 but Arthur Middleton states in his AD 1907 account of this re-roofing of the tower that three of the original cambered oak roof beams were re-used in the new roof.

Castle annexe

Running northwards from the tower is a two-storey barn, known as the 'annexe' (Fig 4). This is thought to have been altered in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, which probably included the insertion of the softwood floors (Fig 6), but its medieval masonry suggests earlier origins.

Stables/coach house

This is a long north-south aligned range located approximately 100m to the north west of the castle (Grade II listed: <u>List Entry No. 1370665</u>). The southern end served as stables whilst the northern end was the coach house (Fig 7). Historic timbers survive as lintels, floor joists, and supporting beams to a hearth (Figs 8–10).

The estate is the subject of a 'Belsay Awakes' project, which aims to transform the visitor experience at Belsay Hall, Castle, and Gardens by enhancing the presentation and interpretation of the site, and its visitor facilities.

SAMPLING

Dendrochronological analysis was requested by Simon Taylor, Historic England's Senior Architectural Investigator who is working with the English Heritage Trust Properties Curators' team to better understand the buildings' sequence and significance of surviving fabric across the site, particularly the castle, manor house, north range, stables and other buildings within the castle courtyard. It was hoped that successful tree-ring analysis would provide independent dating evidence to better understand the development and significance of the structures and to inform the current conservation and restoration programme of works.

Twenty-one core samples were taken from timbers in the stables/coach-house range, the ground-floor ceiling of the castle annexe, and the roof and lintels in the castle tower, in accordance with the conditions of the Scheduled Ancient Monuments Consent. Each sample was given the code BEL-C and numbered 01–21. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1. The location of all samples has been marked on Figures 11–13. Trusses in the castle tower and ceiling joists in the annexe were numbered from north to south.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Three of the samples, one from the annexe, one from the stables/coach house, and one from the castle tower had too few rings for secure dating and so were rejected prior to measurement. The remaining 18 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 pine and oak and the measurements from each group then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping programme (see Appendix), resulting in two of the oak samples matching at a value of t = 6.4.

These two samples were combined at the relevant offset positions to form BELCSQ01, a site sequence of 102 rings (Fig 14). This site sequence was compared against a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak but this was inconclusive as very unusually two tentative dates were obtained, one mostly against reference chronologies from the north-east and north-west regions (Table 2), the other mostly against reference chronologies from more southern sites (Table 3). Thus these timbers remained undated by dendrochronology.

Attempts were also made to date the remaining ungrouped samples by individually comparing them against the reference chronologies but no secure matches could be identified and these are also undated.

RADIOCARBON DATING

Following the failure of the dendrochronology to provide calendar dating for the felling of the timbers in site sequence BELCSQ01, a single ring (ring 80) was sampled from timber BEL-C17 for radiocarbon dating and wiggle-matching.

Radiocarbon dating is based on the radioactive decay of ¹⁴C, which trees absorb from the atmosphere during photosynthesis and store in their growth-rings. The radiocarbon from each year is stored in a separate annual ring. Once a ring has formed, no more ¹⁴C is added to it, and so the proportion of ¹⁴C versus other carbon isotopes reduces in the ring through time as the radiocarbon decays. Radiocarbon ages, like those in Table 4, measure the proportion of ¹⁴C in a sample and are expressed in radiocarbon years BP (before present, 'present' being a constant, conventional date of AD 1950). Two radiocarbon measurements have been obtained from a single annual tree-ring from timber BEL-C17 (Table 4; Fig 15), that was split and dated at two different laboratories. Dissection was undertaken by Alison Arnold and Robert Howard at the Nottingham Tree-Ring Dating Laboratory. Prior to sub-sampling, the core was checked against the tree-ring width data. Then each annual growth ring was split from the rest of the tree-ring sample using a chisel or scalpel blade. Each annual ring, including both earlywood and latewood, was then weighed and placed in a labelled bag. Rings not selected for radiocarbon dating as part of this study have been archived by Historic England.

Sub-samples of the single ring were submitted to the Oxford Radiocarbon Accelerator Unit (ORAU) and Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC) for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) dating. The sample submitted to the Oxford University Radiocarbon Accelerator Unit was pretreated using the acid-base-acid protocol followed by bleaching with sodium chlorite (Brock *et al* 2010, Table 1 (UW)). It was combusted and graphitised as described by Brock *et al* (2010, 110) and Dee and Bronk Ramsey (2000) and dated by AMS (Bronk Ramsey *et al* 2004). The sample submitted to SUERC was converted to α -cellulose, combusted, graphitised, and dated by AMS as described by Dunbar *et al* (2016).

Both facilities maintain continual programmes of quality assurance procedures in addition to participation in international inter-comparison exercises (Scott *et al* 2017). The two results on ring 80 are statistically consistent (Table 4) and a weighted mean has been taken of them before calibration. This demonstrates the reproducibility and accuracy of these measurements.

The results are conventional radiocarbon ages, corrected for fractionation using $\delta^{13}C$ values measured by Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (Stuiver and Polach 1977; Table 4). The $\delta^{13}C$ values quoted by both laboratories were measured by Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometry, and more accurately reflect the natural isotopic composition of the sampled wood.

WIGGLE-MATCHING

Radiocarbon ages are not the same as calendar dates because the concentration of ¹⁴C in the atmosphere has fluctuated over time. A radiocarbon measurement has thus to be calibrated against an independent scale to arrive at the corresponding calendar date. That independent scale is the IntCal13 calibration curve (Reimer *et al* 2013). For the period covered by this study, this is constructed from radiocarbon measurements on tree-ring samples dated absolutely by dendrochronology. The probability distribution of the calibrated radiocarbon date from BELCSQ01, derived from the probability method (Stuiver and Reimer 1993) is shown in outline in Figure 15.

Wiggle-matching is the process of matching a series of calibrated radiocarbon dates which are separated by a known number of years to the shape of the radiocarbon calibration curve. At its simplest, this can be done visually, although statistical methods are usually employed. Floating tree-ring sequences are particularly suited to this approach as the calendar age separation of tree-rings submitted for dating is known precisely by counting the rings in the timber. A review of the method is presented by Galimberti *et al* (2004). The approach to wiggle-matching adopted here employs Bayesian chronological modelling to combine the relative dating information provided by the tree-ring analysis with the calibrated radiocarbon date (Christen and Litton 1995). It has been implemented using the program OxCal v4.3

(http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/oxcal.html; Bronk Ramsey *et al* 2001; Bronk Ramsey 2009). The modelled dates are shown in black in Figure 15 and quoted in italics in the text. The Acomb statistic shows how closely the calibrated radiocarbon date agrees with the relative dating provided by the tree-ring analysis that has been incorporated in the model; an acceptable threshold is reached when it is equal to or greater than An (a value based on the number of dates in the model). The A statistic shows how closely an individual calibrated radiocarbon date agrees its position in the sequence (most values in a model should be equal to or greater than 60).

Figure 15 illustrates the chronological model for BELCSQ01. This model incorporates the radiocarbon date, calibrated using the internationally agreed radiocarbon calibration data for the northern hemisphere, IntCal13 (Reimer *et al* 2013), and the relative number of years derived from the tree-ring analysis to the tentative dendrochronological date of AD 1428 (Table 2) for the formation of the final ring of the sequence. The other tentative tree-ring date of AD 1590 (Table 3) for the formation of the final ring of the sequence is clearly too late given the radiocarbon date.

The model has good overall agreement (Acomb: 81.4, An: 70.7, n:1), with the date on the single ring having good individual agreement (A > 60) with its positions in the sequence. The radiocarbon date is therefore in agreement with the potential dendrochronological date for the final ring of BELCSQ01 of AD 1428 (Fig 14).

INTERPRETATION

The tentative tree-ring date for site sequence BELCSQ01 against north-east and north-west reference chronologies has now been supported by the radiocarbon wiggle-match dating. Thus dates can be assigned to the ring sequences derived from samples BEL-C17 and BEL-C18 based on a combination of dendrochronological and radiocarbon dating evidence. Both of the samples in the site sequence have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring, the dates of which are similar and suggestive of a single felling. The average heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date is AD 1424_{DR} (This is distinguished from a date derived from ring-width dendchronology alone by the subscript $_{DR}$), giving an estimated felling date for the two timbers represented of AD 1439–64_{DR}.

DISCUSSION

Two of the tiebeams of the castle tower roof are now known to have been felled in AD 1439–64_{DR}. As stated above, the present roof is thought to be a re-roofing undertaken in AD 1896–7 with the tower itself dating to *c* AD 1370. If this is the case then these tiebeams cannot be survivals from the original roof. It may be that the tower is somewhat later than previously thought and these mid-fifteenth century beams do represent primary timbers or alternatively that they have been salvaged from a completely different structure.

The poor level of dating from this site is unfortunate but perhaps not unsurprising given that there is likely to be several phases of felling represented amongst the samples and that a number of them may be quite late and, therefore, belong to a period in time which is currently underrepresented within our reference databanks.

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TABLES

Table 1: Details of samples taken from Belsay Castle, Belsay, Northumberland, and associated buildings

Sample	Sample location	Total rings	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured ring	
number			rings	ring date (AD _{DR})	ring date (AD _{DR})	date (AD _{DR})	
Annexe: pine							
BEL-C01	Shop – joist 6	95	43				
BEL-C02	Shop – joist 8	45	h/s				
BEL-C03	Shop – Joist 9	199	65C				
BEL-C04	Shop – joist 10	47	h/s				
BEL-C05	Storeroom – joist 1	118					
BEL-C06	Store room – joist 8	NM					
Coach-house	and stables: oak						
BEL-C07	East hearth supporting beam	62	h/s				
BEL-C08	West hearth supporting beam	60	13				
BEL-C09	North lintel R1/2	175	21C				
BEL-C10	South lintel R1/2	56					
Coach-house	and stables: pine						
BEL-C11	R1 – lintel (south half) over entrance	NM					
BEL-C12	R1 – lintel (north half) over entrance	73					
BEL-C13	R1 – floor beam	74	43				
BEL-C14	R3 -floor beam	91	50				
BEL-C15	R4 – north joist	112	51				
BEL-C16	R4 – south joist	54	01				
Castle tower: oak							
BEL-C17	Tiebeam 2	84	h/s	1345	1428	1428	
BEL-C18	Tiebeam 6	93	h/s	1327	1419	1419	
BEL-C19	Ridge, bay 2	49	h/s				
BEL-C20	Outer lintel	NM					
BEL-C21	Inner lintel	64					

 $NM = not measured; h/s = the heartwood/sapwood boundary is the last-measured ring; C = complete sapwood retained on sample, AD_{DR} = radiocarbon-supported ring-width dendrochronology$

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence BELCSQ01 and the reference chronologies when the first-ring date is $AD 1327_{DR}$ and the last-ring date is $AD 1428_{DR}$

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> –value	Span of chronology	Reference
Hallgarth Manor Cottages, Hallgarth, Pittington, County	6.9	AD 1336–1624	Howard <i>et al</i> 2001
Durham			
The Hallgarth, HM Prison, Durham, County Durham	5.8	AD 1349–1464	Howard <i>et al</i> 1992
Central Tower, Durham Cathedral, Durham, County Durham	5.6	AD 1345–1628	Bridge and Tyers 2019
Calverley Old Hall, Calverley, West Yorkshire	5.3	AD 1261–1585	Arnold <i>et al</i> forthcoming
Tunstall Hall Farm, Hartlepool, Cleveland	5.2	AD 1316–1484	Howard <i>et al</i> 2002
Witton Hall Farm, Witton Gilbert, County Durham	5.2	AD 1342–1441	Howard <i>et al</i> 1996
Auckland Castle, Bishop Auckland, County Durham	5.1	AD 1370–1520	Arnold and Howard 2013
St Lawrence's Church, Warkworth, Northumberland	4.7	AD 1324–1443	Arnold and Howard 2010
Aisled Barn, Newark, Nottinghamshire	4.7	AD 1249–1399	Laxton <i>et al</i> 1984
Kepier Farm Hospital, Durham	4.6	AD 1304–1522	Howard <i>et al</i> 1996

Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence BELCSQ01 and the reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1489 and the last-ring dates is AD 1590

Reference chronology	<i>t</i> –value	Span of chronology	Reference
Wimpole Church, Cambridgeshire	7.1	AD 1469–1615	Bridge 1998
De Grey Mausoleum, Flitton, Bedfordshire	5.6	AD 1510–1726	Arnold et al 2003
Knole, Kent	5.5	AD 1323–1541	Arnold <i>et al</i> 2008
Old Coach House, London	5.2	AD 1504–1591	Arnold and Howard 2012
Sherborne House, Newland, Dorset	5.1	AD 1540–1670	Bridge 2014
Aslackby Manor, Lincolnshire	5.0	AD 1525–1598	Arnold and Howard 2011 unpubl
Ballingdon Bridge, Sudbury, Suffolk	4.9	AD 1484–1790	Tyers 2002
Old Clarendon Building, Oxford, Oxfordshire	4.9	AD 1539–1711	Miles and Worthington 2006
Crowle Court Barn, Worcestershire	4.7	AD 1497–1589	Hillam 1997
Riding House, St Giles House, Wimborne St Giles, Dorset	4.7	AD 1411–1615	Bailiff et al 2017

Table R4: Belsay Castle radiocarbon and stable isotope results. Replicate measurements have been tested for statistical consistency and combined by taking a weighted mean before calibration as described by Ward and Wilson (1978; T'(5%)=3.8, v=1)

Laboratory number	Sample reference	Material & context		Radiocarbon		
				Age (BP)		
OxA-36582	BEL-C17, Ring 80A	<i>Quercus</i> sp. heartwood, BEL-C17 ring 80 , relative year 98 of the 102 year chronology BELCSQ01	-25.4±0.2	466±24		
SUERC-76340	BEL-C17, Ring 80B	Replicate of OxA-36582	-23.9 ± 0.2	499±24		
¹⁴ C: 483 \pm 17 BP, T'=0.9; δ ¹³ C: -24.2 \pm 0.15‰, T'=4.5						

FIGURES

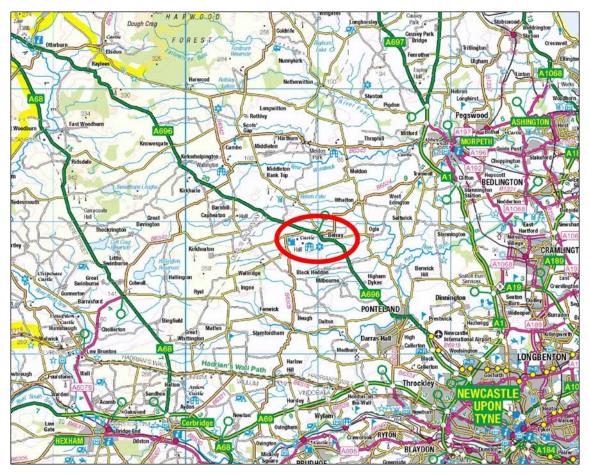


Figure 1: Map to show the general location of Belsay, Northumberland (red ellipse). ©Crown Copyright and database right 2018. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900

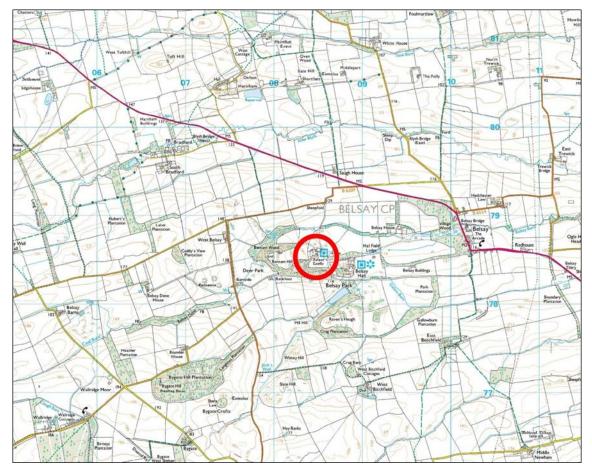


Figure 2: Map to show the location of Belsay Castle in relation to Belsay (red ellipse). ©Crown Copyright and database right 2018. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 3: Map to show the Castle tower (black), the annexe (red), and the Stables/Coach house (blue). ©Crown Copyright and database right 2018. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 4: Castle tower and annexe, photograph taken from the south (Alison Arnold)



Figure 5: Castle tower; roof, truss 5 in foreground, photograph taken from the north (Alison Arnold)



Figure 6: Portion of exposed floor frame from the annexe, photograph taken from the east (Alison Arnold)



Figure 7: Coach house (to the right) & stables, photograph taken from the west (Alison Arnold)



Figure 8: Lintels over the Coach house entrance, photograph taken from the east (Alison Arnold)



Figure 9: Surviving historic timbers; door lintel, supporting beams, and a floor beam, photograph taken from the north (Alison Arnold)



Figure 10: Stable block; remnants of floor joists, photograph taken from the west (Alison Arnold)

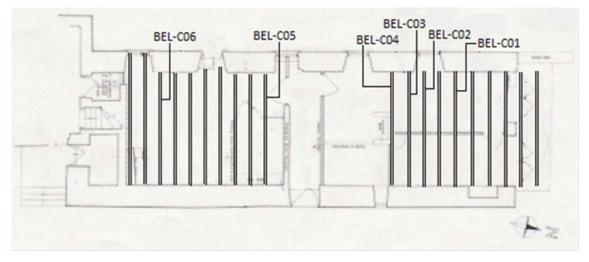


Figure 11: Ground-floor plan of the annexe, showing the location of samples BEL-C01–06 (provided by Simon Taylor)

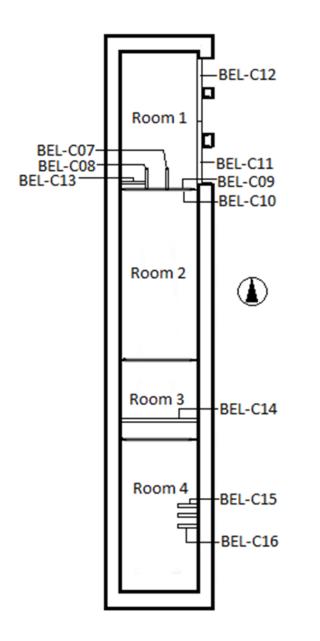


Figure 12: Sketch plan of the Coach house & Stables, showing the location of samples BEL-C07–16

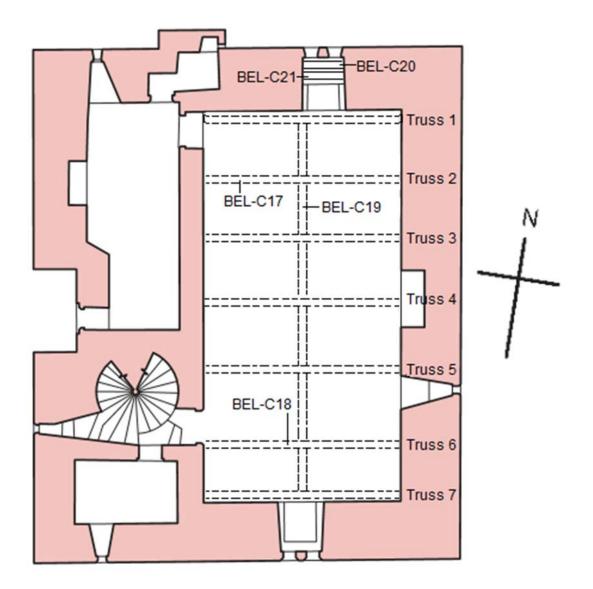


Figure 13: Plan of Castle tower, showing the location of samples BEL-C17–21

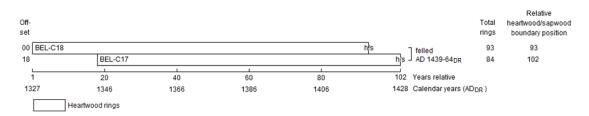


Figure 14: Bar diagram to show the relative position of samples in site sequence BELCSQ01

BELCSQ01_h/s_ AD 1428 Gap 4 R_Combine BEL-C17 [A:81]					
D_Sequence Belsay Castle [Acomb= 81.4	4; An= 70.7;	n=1]			
	1375	1400	1425	1450	1475

Posterior Density Estimate (cal AD)

Figure 15: Probability distribution of the date from BELCSQ01. The distribution represents the relative probability that an event occurs at a particular time. For the date two distributions have been plotted: one in outline, which is the simple radiocarbon calibration, and a solid one, based on the wiggle-match sequence incorporating the potential tree-ring date for the final ring of undated site sequence BELCSQ01 - AD 1428. The large square brackets down the left-hand side along with the OxCal keywords define the overall model exactly

DATE OF MEASURED SAMPLES

BEL-C12B 66

25

17 16 18 15 23 17 22 15 9 11 12 22 28 14 20 20 9 22

BEL-C05B 91

219 164 165 143

BEL-C18A 93

 $\begin{array}{c} 137\ 149\ 109\ 132\ 153\ 168\ 82\ 100\ 143\ 126\ 137\ 165\ 106\ 102\ 139\ 185\ 185\ 185\ 158\ 177\ 196\\ 225\ 309\ 457\ 319\ 261\ 248\ 319\ 284\ 177\ 270\ 297\ 324\ 476\ 280\ 217\ 136\ 135\ 120\ 155\ 173\\ 229\ 267\ 366\ 373\ 338\ 264\ 189\ 176\ 287\ 205\ 202\ 207\ 308\ 375\ 460\ 455\ 487\ 314\ 179\ 260\\ 278\ 268\ 278\ 228\ 378\ 432\ 656\ 436\ 281\ 333\ 295\ 321\ 293\ 321\ 299\ 276\ 436\ 290\ 262\ 353\\ 409\ 381\ 386\ 251\ 369\ 296\ 328\ 394\ 369\ 286\ 351\ 392\ 233\\ \end{array}$

BEL-C18B 93

 $\begin{array}{c} 127\ 143\ 117\ 119\ 154\ 138\ 109\ 105\ 137\ 133\ 144\ 161\ 115\ 111\ 120\ 188\ 192\ 166\ 180\ 199\\ 221\ 311\ 444\ 325\ 267\ 244\ 316\ 293\ 174\ 268\ 290\ 322\ 475\ 305\ 228\ 132\ 135\ 125\ 160\ 172\\ 213\ 229\ 378\ 391\ 338\ 255\ 191\ 183\ 295\ 212\ 194\ 207\ 311\ 386\ 459\ 466\ 501\ 318\ 179\ 247\\ 265\ 237\ 266\ 233\ 361\ 438\ 622\ 410\ 290\ 345\ 285\ 309\ 280\ 321\ 304\ 283\ 427\ 288\ 263\ 343\\ 399\ 379\ 378\ 237\ 351\ 293\ 364\ 359\ 361\ 279\ 358\ 369\ 216\end{array}$

BEL-C19A 49

 $\begin{array}{l} 470\ 427\ 315\ 199\ 197\ 230\ 157\ 179\ 184\ 140\ 131\ 140\ 150\ 148\ 202\ 243\ 272\ 345\ 346\ 364\\ 434\ 405\ 424\ 406\ 456\ 386\ 362\ 356\ 362\ 410\ 302\ 314\ 389\ 277\ 413\ 399\ 302\ 396\ 416\ 435\\ 461\ 457\ 562\ 552\ 371\ 538\ 616\ 560\ 543 \end{array}$

BEL-C19B 49

 $\begin{array}{l} 464\ 431\ 308\ 202\ 194\ 221\ 162\ 176\ 186\ 139\ 135\ 137\ 147\ 143\ 210\ 242\ 267\ 348\ 329\ 354\\ 382\ 371\ 429\ 408\ 456\ 387\ 364\ 345\ 361\ 417\ 302\ 314\ 391\ 277\ 416\ 396\ 299\ 388\ 431\ 436\\ 471\ 467\ 571\ 559\ 383\ 539\ 617\ 565\ 559\end{array}$

BEL-C21A64

 $\begin{array}{c} 263\ 171\ 220\ 229\ 388\ 381\ 362\ 239\ 178\ 183\ 141\ 150\ 133\ 149\ 187\ 130\ 178\ 147\ 161\ 184\\ 146\ 140\ 159\ 158\ 129\ 159\ 214\ 249\ 233\ 270\ 198\ 215\ 206\ 197\ 197\ 146\ 146\ 171\ 147\ 157\\ 119\ 110\ 137\ 121\ 102\ 81\ 131\ 107\ 110\ 134\ 123\ 136\ 152\ 127\ 106\ 121\ 148\ 141\ 121\ 122\\ 136\ 149\ 138\ 177\end{array}$

BEL-C21B 64

 $\begin{array}{c} 256 \ 176 \ 213 \ 232 \ 365 \ 364 \ 356 \ 225 \ 184 \ 184 \ 135 \ 145 \ 119 \ 153 \ 185 \ 125 \ 162 \ 136 \ 154 \ 176 \\ 151 \ 161 \ 165 \ 175 \ 125 \ 160 \ 219 \ 242 \ 237 \ 275 \ 208 \ 213 \ 217 \ 197 \ 208 \ 160 \ 156 \ 176 \ 139 \ 166 \\ 130 \ 118 \ 137 \ 119 \ 98 \ 84 \ 122 \ 114 \ 105 \ 134 \ 126 \ 136 \ 150 \ 130 \ 103 \ 118 \ 162 \ 136 \ 119 \ 109 \\ 140 \ 146 \ 134 \ 167 \end{array}$

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 1998). Here we will give the bare outlines. Each year an oak tree grows an extra ring on the outside of its trunk and all its branches just inside its bark. The width of this annual ring depends largely on the weather during the growing season, about April to October, and possibly also on the weather during the previous year. Good growing seasons give rise to relatively wide rings, poor ones to very narrow rings and average ones to relatively average ring widths. Since the climate is so variable from year to year, almost random-like, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure A1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

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

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

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian the timbers in a building are inspected to try to ensure that those sampled are not reused or later insertions. Sampling is almost always done by coring into the timber, which has the great advantage that we can sample in situ timbers and those judged best to give the date of construction, or phase of construction if there is more than one in the building. The timbers to be sampled are also inspected to see how many rings they have. We normally look for timbers with at least 70 rings, and preferably more. With fewer rings than this, 50 for example, sequences of widths become difficult to match to a unique position within a master sequence of ring widths and so are difficult to date (Litton and Zainodin 1991). The crosssection 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 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,

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).

Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the 3. 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-C04, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the bar diagram, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of C08 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual *t*-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the *t*-value between C45 and C08 is 5.6 and is the maximum found between these two among all the positions of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the ring-width sequences of the samples in a building and then to form an average from them. This average is called a site sequence of the building being dated and is illustrated in Figure A5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences of the four timbers. The site sequence width for each year is the average of the widths in each of the sample sequences which has a width for that year. Thus in Fig A5 if the widths shown are 0.8mm for C45, 0.2mm for C08, 0.7mm for C05, and 0.3mm for C04, then the corresponding width of the site sequence is the average of these, 0.55mm. The actual sequence of widths of this site sequence is stored on the computer. The reason for creating site sequences is that it is usually easier to date

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

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

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

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

Various estimates have been made and used for the average number of sapwood rings in mature oak trees (English Heritage 1998). A fairly conservative range is between 15 and 50 and that this holds for 95% of mature oaks. This means, of course, that in a small number of cases there could be fewer than 15 and more than 50 sapwood rings. For example, the core CRO-A06 has only 9 sapwood rings and some have obviously been lost over time – either they were removed originally by the carpenter and/or they rotted away in the building and/or they were lost in the coring. It is not known exactly how many sapwood rings are missing, but using the above range the Laboratory would estimate between a minimum of 6 (= 15-9) and a maximum of 41 (=50-9). If the last ring of CRO-A06 has been dated to 1500, say, then the estimated felling-date range for the tree from which it came originally would be between 1506 and 1541. The Laboratory uses this estimate for sapwood in areas of England where it has no prior information. It also uses it when dealing with samples with very many rings, about 120 to the last heartwood ring. But in other areas of England where the Laboratory has accumulated a number of samples with complete sapwood, that is, no sapwood lost since felling, other estimates in place of the conservative range of 15 to 50 are used. In the East Midlands (Laxton et al 2001) and the east to the south down to Kent (Pearson 1995) where it has

sampled extensively in the past, the Laboratory uses the shorter estimate of 15 to 35 sapwood rings in 95% of mature oaks growing in these parts. Since the sample CRO-A06 comes from a house in Cropwell Bishop in the East Midlands, a better estimate of sapwood rings lost since felling is between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and 26 (=35-9) and the felling would be estimated to have taken place between 1506 and 1526, a shorter period than before. Oak boards quite often come from the Baltic region and in these cases the 95% confidence limits for sapwood are 9 to 36 (Howard *et al* 1992, 56).

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

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

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

6. Master Chronological Sequences. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to 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 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

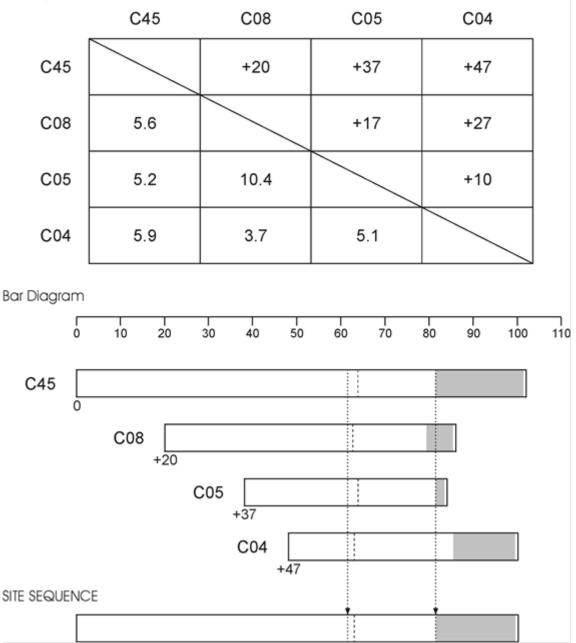
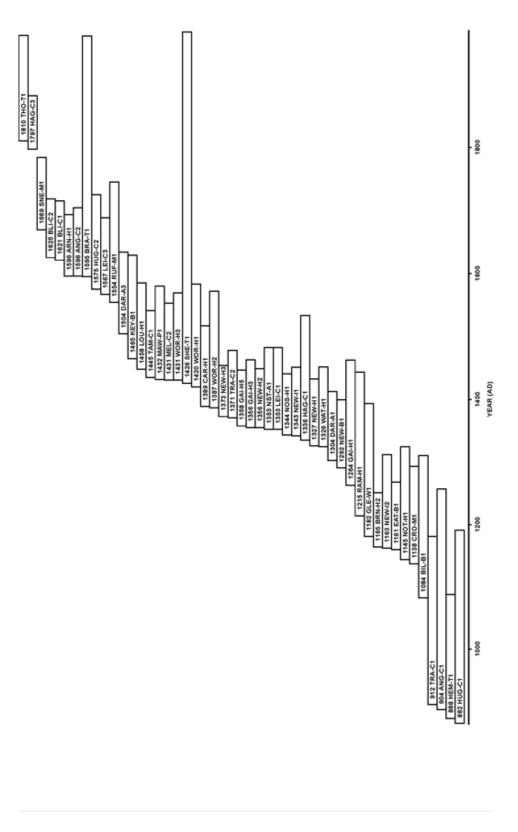


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

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.





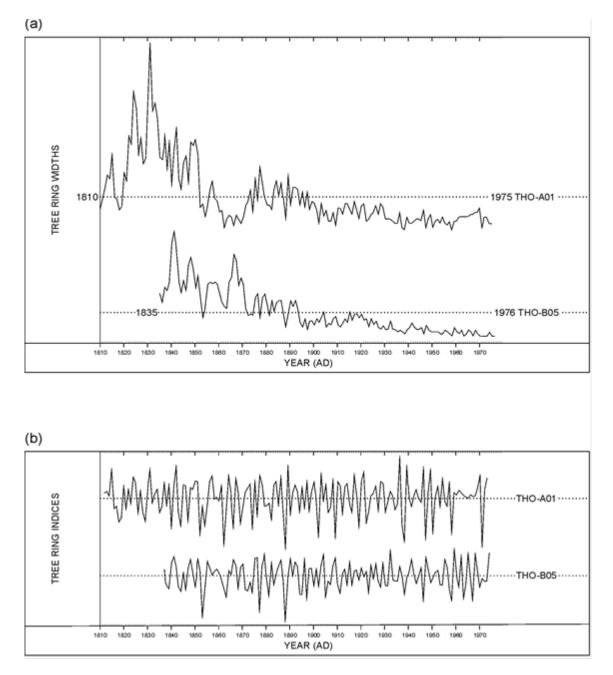


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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