

The Crown Hotel and 32 Main Road (The Crown Inn), Higham, Derbyshire

Tree-ring Analysis of Oak and Elm Timbers

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard



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Summary

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on 22 of the 32 timbers sampled from this multi-element building, the remaining samples having too few rings for secure dating purposes. This analysis produced four separate site chronologies, accounting for a total of 17 samples. Only one of these site chronologies, HIHCSQ01, accounting for eight samples, could be dated. This site chronology is 104 rings long, these rings dated as spanning the years AD 1353–1456. These timbers, all common joists to the ground-floor ceiling of the north cottage, have an estimated felling date in the range of AD 1464–89. The five remaining ungrouped individual samples also remain undated

Contributors

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

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Front cover image

The Crown Hotel and 32 Main Road, Higham, Derbyshire. [© North East Derbyshire District Council]

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Introduction

The Crown Hotel and 32 Main Road, also previously known as the Crown Inn, Higham (Fig 1), is a Grade II listed building (List Entry Number: 1158913 https://historicengland.org.uk/listing/the-list/list-entry/1158913). It originally comprised four properties, but the Crown Inn appears, on mapping evidence, to have been in existence by the late-nineteenth century with Archaeological Research Services (2023) indicating that the building is perhaps best described as "a large historic inn flanked by smaller cottage-type dwellings which were latterly absorbed into the premises". As of 2019, the building had ceased to operate as a hotel.

Much of the building is thought to date to the eighteenth century with refronting having occurred in the nineteenth century. The research undertaken by Archaeological Research Services (2023) indicates that the extant footprint of the building remains largely similar to that of the late-nineteenth century, as evidenced by the Ordnance Survey Map published in AD 1878. There are a number of extant historic features including elements of potentially original timber framing and wall or jowl posts in the south and centre cottages, and apparently in situ historic joists and main beams in the paired north cottages with the conclusion being that a half-timbered, half-stone building initially occupied the footprint (Fig 2).



Figure 1: Maps to show the location of The Crown Inn, Higham in Derbyshire, marked in red. Scale: top right 1:105;800, bottom: 1:3,300. [© Crown Copyright and database right 2025. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900]



Figure 2: Plan of the ground floor to help locate sampled timbers. [after 2K Design Ltd.]

Sampling

A programme of renovation and redevelopment revealed historic timbers potentially related to the primary construction of the building and its subsequent change and development. Dendrochronological analysis was requested by Tim Allen of Historic England to provide independent dating evidence to enhance understanding of the building and inform significance.

An initial inspection of the timbers showed that while the building contained a number of oak timbers, there appeared to be other, potentially historic, timber types such as elm and conifer (particularly to the long rear-range extension), as well as a substantial number of modern, or relatively modern, conifer timbers. As such, while timbers other than oak can sometimes be dated by dendrochronology, it was seen at this time that the elm timbers appeared to have a very low number of annual growth rings and were thus considered unsuitable for secure dating purposes. The conifer timbers to the rear range, along with the modern conifer timbers, were outside the scope of the immediate programme of tree-ring analysis which focussed on the historic core of the building.

In addition, it appeared likely that those timbers thought to be associated with the historic core did not represent an integrated single phase of building works. This is perhaps unsurprising given that the site appears to have been several separate properties initially, which have subsequently been modified, and it is possible that some inserted timbers may relate to inspiring the illusion of historical antiquity and hence possibly be relatively modern.

Thus, despite the possible variation of timber in this assemblage, a total of 32 timbers were sampled by coring. All were oak (*Quercus* spp.) with the exception of a single elm (*Ulmus* spp.) timber sampled to confirm the presence of elm and confirm the limited number of rings in the elm timbers. Each sample was given the code HIH-C (for Higham, Crown) and numbered 01–32 (Table 1). The sampled timbers have been located by reference to a survey drawing, shown here as Figure 2, with individual timbers being further identified in a series of annotated photographs shown here as Figures 3a–k.

| Sample | Sample location | Total rings | Sapwood | First measured ring | Last heartwood ring | Last measured ring |
|---------|---|-------------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| number | | | rings | date AD | date AD | date AD |
| | South Cottage | | | | | |
| HIH-C01 | Ground floor ceiling beam, truss 1 | 59 | 10 | | | |
| HIH-C02 | West/front main wall post, truss 1 | 62 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C03 | East/ rear main wall post, truss 1 | 40 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C04 | Tiebeam, truss 1 | 31 | no h/s | | | |
| HIH-C05 | West/front main wall post, truss 2 | 49 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C06 | Brace to west/front main wall post, truss 2 | 50 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C07 | Tiebeam, truss 2 | 67 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C24 | East common rafter 3, bay 9 | nm (22) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C25 | East common rafter 4, bay 9 | nm (17) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C26 | East common rafter 5, bay 9 | nm (13) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C27 | East common rafter 6, bay 9 | nm (18) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C28 | West common rafter 3, bay 9 | nm (20) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C29 | West common rafter 4, bay 9 | nm (20) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C30 | West common rafter 5, bay 9 | nm (13) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C31 | West common rafter 6, bay 9 | nm (17) | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C32 | West wall plate, bay 9 | 39 | no h/s | | | |
| | Centre Cottage | | | | | |
| HIH-C08 | Ground floor ceiling joist 2 (from west), bay 7 | 73 | 11 | | | |
| HIH-C09 | Ground floor ceiling joist 3, bay 7 | 73 | 21C | | | |
| HIH-C10 | Ground floor ceiling joist 4, bay 7 | 67 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C11 | Ground floor ceiling beam, bay 5/6 | 41 | h/s | | | |
| HIH-C23 | Common joist 6 (from west), bay 6 (elm) | nm (16) | no h/s | | | |
| | North Cottage | | | | | |
| HIH-C12 | Ground floor ceiling beam, bay 2/3 | 77 | 9 | | | |
| HIH-C13 | Ground floor ceiling beam, bay 1/2 | 67 | 12 | | | |
| HIH-C14 | Common joist 2 (from west), bay 4 | 69 | no h/s | 1362 | | 1430 |
| HIH-C15 | Common joist 2 (from west), bay 1 | 70 | no h/s | 1353 | | 1422 |
| HIH-C16 | Common joist 6 (from west), bay 1 | nm (28) | no h/s | | | |
| HIH-C17 | Common joist 1 (from west), bay 3 | 54 | 4 | 1402 | 1451 | 1455 |
| HIH-C18 | Common joist 4 (from west), bay 3 | 73 | 7 | 1383 | 1448 | 1455 |

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from The Crown Inn, Main Road, Shirland and Higham, North East Derbyshire

| HIH-C19 | Common joist 5 (from west), bay 3 | 70 | 8 | 1387 | 1448 | 1456 |
|---------|-----------------------------------|----|--------|------|------|------|
| HIH-C20 | Common joist 9 (from west), bay 3 | 68 | no h/s | 1354 | | 1421 |
| HIH-C21 | Common joist 7 (from west), bay 4 | 61 | no h/s | 1371 | | 1431 |
| HIH-C22 | Common joist 1 (from west), bay 4 | 68 | no h/s | 1371 | | 1438 |

nm = sample not measured; C = complete sapwood is retained on the sample; h/s = the sample retains the heartwood/sapwood boundary



Figure 3a: South Cottage, truss 1, viewed looking south. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3b: South Cottage, truss 2 (party wall to Centre Cottage), viewed looking north. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3c: Centre Cottage viewed looking north. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3d: Centre Cottage viewed looking south. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3e: North Cottage, south bay, viewed looking north east. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3f: North Cottage, north bay, viewed looking south west. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3g: North Cottage, south bay, viewed looking southeast. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3h: North Cottage, north bay, viewed looking northwest. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3i: Centre Cottage, south bay, viewed looking southeast. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3j: South Cottage, viewed looking east. [photograph Robert Howard]



Figure 3k: South Cottage, viewed looking west. [photograph Robert Howard]

Analysis and Results

Each of the samples obtained from the various timbers was prepared by sanding and polishing to allow the ring boundaries to be clearly distinguished. It was seen at this time that 10 samples, including the only elm sample, had no more than 30 rings, too few for secure dating by ring-width dendrochronology, and they were rejected from this programme of analysis, although the number of rings present was recorded. The growth ring widths of the remaining 22 samples were, however, measured, the data being given at the end of this report. The 22 measured series were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), this comparative process resulting in the production of four separate groups of cross-matching samples.

The first group comprises eight samples which cross-match at a minimum value of t=5.2 at the positions illustrated in Figure 4. These samples were combined at their indicated offset positions to form HIHCSQ01, a site chronology with an overall length of 104 rings. Site chronology HIHCSQ01 was then compared with an extensive range of reference chronologies for oak, this indicating a repeated series of cross-matches when the date of its first ring is AD 1353 and the date of its latest ring is AD 1456 (Table 2).

The second group comprises five samples, grouping at a minimum value of t=5.9 at the positions illustrated in Figure 5. These five samples were similarly combined at their indicated offset positions to form HIHCSQ02, a site chronology with an overall length of 86 rings. This site chronology was also compared with an extensive range of oak reference chronologies, but in this case there was no secure cross-matching identified and these five samples remain undated.

The third group comprises two samples cross-matching at a value of t=6.3 at the positions illustrated in Figure 6. These two samples were combined to form HIHCSQ03, a site chronology with an overall length of 77 rings. This site chronology was compared with an extensive range of oak reference chronologies, but again there was no secure cross-matching identified and these three samples therefore also remain undated.

The fourth and final group also comprises two samples which cross-match at a value of t=5.8 at the positions illustrated in Figure 7. These two samples were again combined at their indicated offset positions to form HIHCSQ04, a site chronology with an overall length of 59 rings. This site chronology again produced no secure cross-matching when compared with an extensive range of oak reference chronologies and these two samples also remain undated.

The four site chronologies were compared with each other and the five remaining measured but ungrouped samples, but no further secure cross-matching was obtained. The five ungrouped samples were, therefore, compared individually with the same extensive range of oak reference chronologies, but to no avail and thus these five samples also remain undated.



White bars = heartwood rings; red bars = sapwood rings; no h/s = there is no heartwood/sapwood boundary on the sample

Figure 4: Bar diagram showing the relative position of overlap of the samples in the dated site chronology HIHCSQ01.

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence HIHCSQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1353 and the last-ring date is AD 1456

| Reference chronology | Span of chronology | t-value | Reference |
|---|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------------|
| | | | |
| Groby Old Hall, Groby, Leicestershire | AD 1321 – 1516 | 7.5 | Arnold and Howard 2014 |
| Central tower, York Minster, North Yorkshire | AD 1214 – 1462 | 6.9 | Hillam pers. comm. 1997 |
| Norton Conyers Hall, Wath, North Yorkshire | AD 1365 – 1486 | 6.7 | Arnold and Howard 2008 unpubl |
| Trinity House, Newcastle upon Tyne, Tyne and Wear | AD 1397 – 1524 | 6.3 | Howard et al. 2002 |
| Upper Spon Street, Coventry, Warwickshire | AD 1327 – 1454 | 6.2 | Miles and Worthington 1999 |
| Gotham Manor, Gotham, Nottinghamshire | AD 1330 – 1460 | 6.1 | Howard et al. 1991 unpubl |
| Lyddington Manor, Rutland | AD 1239 – 1487 | 6.1 | Arnold and Howard 2015 unpubl |
| Nappa Hall, Askrigg, North Yorkshire | AD 1300 – 1476 | 6.1 | Arnold and Howard 2013 |
| Abbey House, Winchcombe, Gloucestershire | AD 1250 – 1499 | 6.0 | Arnold et al. 2008 |
| The Governor's House, Newark, Nottinghamshire | AD 1319 – 1471 | 5.7 | Arnold et al. 2002 |



White bars = heartwood rings; red bars = sapwood rings; no h/s = there is no heartwood/sapwood boundary on the sample; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary

Figure 5: Bar diagram showing the relative position of overlap of the samples in site chronology HIHCSQ02.



White bars = heartwood rings; red bars = sapwood rings; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary

Figure 6: Bar diagram showing the relative overlap of the samples in site chronology HIHCSQ03.



White bars = heartwood rings; red bars = sapwood rings; no h/s = there is no heartwood/sapwood boundary on the sample; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary

Figure 7: Bar diagram showing the relative overlap of the samples in site chronology HIHCSQ04.

Interpretation

As may be seen from Table 1 and the bar diagram Figure 4, none of the eight samples in dated site chronology HIHCSQ01, all from common joists in the north cottage, retain sapwood complete to the bark, and it is thus, not possible to provide a felling date precise to the year. Three samples do, however, retain some sapwood, the average heartwood/sapwood boundary on these samples being dated to AD 1449. Allowing for the standard minimum and maximum number sapwood rings these trees might have had 15 to 40 sapwood rings (the 95% confidence interval), which produces an estimated felling date range of AD 1464–89 for the trees from which these timbers were derived.

The five other dated samples of this group have no sapwood, this potentially having been removed when the joists were given chamfered arrises. As such, it is in theory, possible that they went on growing for many years after their last extant heartwood rings dates. However, given the broadly coeval nature of the samples and the level of similarity between all eight samples, it is likely that the source trees were growing relatively close to each other in the same woodland. As such, it appears likely that they were all felled at, or at least about, the same time as each other (it being considered something of a coincidence that trees, once close neighbours of each other in the same woodland, had they been felled at very different times, should come to be used for the same purpose in the same building), towards the middle of the latter half of the fifteenth century.

The samples in each of the other undated group appear to be coeval and most likely felled at the same, or similar, time, but a felling date for each of these groups of related timbers cannot be determined.

Discussion and Conclusion

It appears likely that the extant historic material within this building complex are an eclectic assemblage of possible different date and different source timbers, this making dating by dendrochronology more challenging than had they been a large single-phase collection of timbers. Despite this, it has been possible to successfully date eight common joists from the north cottage to the later fifteenth century. This dating evidence is significantly earlier than the eighteenth-century date assumed for the construction of these properties. Thus, these results need to be considered carefully in relation to their structural integrity within the north cottage. However, in short, the dendrochronological analysis has identified the presence of medieval timbers in at least part of this building complex.

Woodland sources

In some programmes of tree-ring analysis it is possible to suggest the general locality or region from which the dated timbers used in a particular building might have been sourced. This is usually intimated by any site chronology created during analysis, although having been compared with reference material from all over England, tending to match more strongly with reference chronologies from some particular region or area rather than elsewhere. However, as may be seen in Table 2 for site chronology HIHCSQ01, the reference chronologies listed show a very wide geographical dispersion and no particular locality or regional trend can be discerned.

Undated samples

Tree-ring dating is usually most successful when groups of well-replicated, coeval timbers, are sampled. Even so, in most programmes of tree-ring analysis a small percentage of samples will remain both ungrouped and undated, the lack of dating sometimes being due to obvious problems with the growth rings such as distortion or stress, although often there is no apparent reason for non-dating.

In this case, the lack of dating amongst the measured samples is somewhat unusual, most samples showing no signs of abnormalities to their growth rings. It is possible, however, given the known history of this site, with the present building having originated as a number of separate properties, perhaps each of a different date, and the propensity for change and alteration during its time as an Inn, that the assemblage of timbers found is too diverse and does not contain sufficient numbers of coeval timbers to provide a suitable, well-replicated group of samples. It is possible that some timbers are individual

'singletons' of quite different date, and while single samples can sometimes be dated individually, it is usually much less successful than with groups of same-phase samples.

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Data of measured samples

Units of 0.01mm

HIH-C01A 59

530 771 672 675 547 565 605 517 427 426 376 497 381 372 242 415 263 486 421 104 34 33 65 73 90 135 151 118 120 96 96 94 116 111 190 163 93 128 118 134 133 140 148 135 128 100 140 106 81 110 143 246 318 284 209 134 87 103 153

HIH-C01B 59

556 757 670 669 553 558 614 507 432 428 375 477 375 381 250 399 265 493 424 104 50 57 62 68 99 154 165 113 115 92 112 90 113 113 182 154 87 134 121 146 115 151 159 137 132 98 143 100 93 112 173 229 315 280 211 136 84 104 162

HIH-C02A 62

443 393 333 279 276 278 260 187 235 188 151 120 129 104 112 86 131 115 155 160 97 92 132 196 288 256 275 286 285 251 207 242 225 185 178 134 135 203 184 192 232 248 356 279 298 276 171 156 137 150 228 360 291 312 145 109 112 164 203 160 143 248

HIH-C02B 62

441 395 347 287 282 289 217 208 226 180 159 102 129 119 131 85 115 137 142 148 87 100 142 197 281 272 281 271 278 253 213 248 220 175 180 131 137 197 189 200 232 248 365 264 304 279 162 165 135 156 224 343 289 331 146 111 102 170 189 167 157 241

HIH-C03A 40

165 155 71 72 225 268 203 165 195 309 162 167 227 348 265 221 217 88 122 175 153 182 174 264 299 235 232 128 106 225 367 358 320 196 126 107 98 104 199 297

HIH-C03B 40

163 164 81 89 230 279 208 176 198 296 167 175 230 336 323 227 201 94 124 189 142 175 182 260 300 242 243 110 115 223 382 361 334 204 126 92 96 109 203 301

HIH-C04A 31

356 392 367 359 301 364 285 312 275 356 282 428 510 411 369 135 139 139 145 279 281 231 292 301 343 284 395 296 203 348 298

HIH-C04B 31

403 376 361 352 289 351 287 301 267 359 278 432 503 400 361 137 150 139 138 267 294 229 290 315 368 261 401 295 181 325 266

HIH-C05A 49

463 404 365 368 294 268 406 275 214 189 175 272 290 207 319 513 350 276 139 166 185 314 409 370 323 293 231 204 148 199 227 227 357 289 237 529 429 292 395 628 586 437 462 515 209 188 228 242 362

HIH-C05B 49

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583 440 501 510 229 191 213 249 347

HIH-C06A 50

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HIH-C06B 50

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HIH-C07A 67

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HIH-C07B 67

317 334 488 349 345 428 438 486 384 400 385 442 443 421 387 492 429 462 439 393 414 392 393 418 376 367 318 276 228 265 279 360 382 407 350 195 139 125 228 367 349 330 283 271 278 203 294 256 250 281 214 169 221 253 267 270 212 133 81 103 165 170 119 102 112 190 295

HIH-C08A 73

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HIH-C08B 73

391 296 347 303 297 373 360 343 285 297 257 368 287 236 186 237 254 267 175 404 395 264 159 128 135 148 201 251 209 256 250 156 185 231 368 245 248 215 146 196 234 181 183 265 409 454 209 312 237 92 108 84 115 164 231 203 131 56 83 89 113 150 131 150 293 314 242 178 262 209 234 223 306

HIH-C09A 73

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HIH-C10A 67

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246 224 245 225 151 228 197 263 231 184 164 129 145 235 264 171 200 245 329 153 209 151 73 101 74 140 210

HIH-C10B 67

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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 Nottingham Tree-ring Dating Laboratory's Monograph, An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Buildings (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

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.



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.

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 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 (i.e. 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).

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; e.g. 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 Figure 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).

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 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, 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 guite 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 complement 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.

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 (e.g. 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 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 crossmatch 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 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 AD 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller later growth from about AD 1900 onwards when the tree is maturing. A similar phenomenon can be observed in the lower sequence of (a) starting in AD 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.



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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