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Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers from the Nave Roof and Ceiling of the Cathedral Church of St Peter and St Wilfred, Ripon, North Yorkshire

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Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers from the Nave Roof and Ceiling of the Cathedral Church of St Peter and St Wilfred, Ripon, North Yorkshire

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Summary

A total of 30 core samples was obtained from the principal oak timbers of the roof and the ceiling ribs of the nave of Ripon Cathedral. The analysis of these produced two major site chronologies, one of six samples, 226 rings long, and another of nine samples, 117 rings long. Two other site chronologies with only two samples each were also created.

Despite the number of samples obtained, the length of the site chronologies created, and despite being compared with a very extensive range of reference chronologies, none of the site chronologies, nor any individual samples, could be dated.

It would certainly appear that timbers within groups were felled at the same time as each other, possibly for use as specific elements. However, it is not possible to ascertain whether the groups of timbers, or the ungrouped individual timbers, are either contemporary, or whether they represent different woodland sources.

Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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Introduction

The earliest church on the site of Ripon Cathedral (NE 314 711; Fig 1) was originally part of a Scottish monastery. This was reorganised along Benedictine lines by St Wilfred in AD 660. Between then and AD 1050 it was refounded as a College of secular canons under the patronage of the Archbishop of York. It remained as a parish church even after the dissolution of the college in AD 1547. In AD 1604 the college was re-founded under James I, dissolved during the commonwealth, but founded yet again in AD 1660. It was elevated to Cathedral status in AD 1836.

Major rebuilding work was begun under Archbishop Roger, AD 1154 – 81, and completed by Walter Gray, AD 1215 – 55. A library was added in the early-fourteenth century, with further alterations in the fifteenth century. The nave is believed to have undergone substantial alterations in the early-sixteenth century, with aisles being added at this time. In AD 1615 the spire on the crossing tower collapsed and in AD 1664 the spires on the two western towers were taken down. Nineteenth-century repairs were undertaken in AD 1829 – 31 by Edward Blore, and in AD 1843 – 44 by William Railton, with more drastic alterations being made by Gilbert Scott in AD 1862.

<u>Sampling</u>

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of the timbers at Ripon Cathedral were commissioned by English Heritage. Initially this was to include timbers in both the nave and the chancel roofs. However, only the timbers of the nave were accessible. This programme of analysis was requested to inform grant-aided repairs by providing a precise date for the construction of the roof and to date any repairs or alterations. The dates, of various elements of the roof, are unclear. It is uncertain, for example, how much, if any, of the roof comprises sixteenth-century, or indeed earlier, material in its original position or possibly reused. This is particularly so with the timbers of the ceiling vault, some of which retain carpenters' marks in the form of Roman numerals. It is also uncertain as to how much of the roof might represent nineteenth-century repair material. Indeed, at the time the roof was first taken off it appeared as if all the timbers were softwood, with no oak remaining at all. A general plan of the Cathedral, taken from 'The Builder', February 1893, and provided by English Heritage, is given in Figure 2.

The nave roof consists of 15 'truncated' trusses, consisting alternately of single larger principal rafters, (trusses 1, 3, 5 etc, numbering from west to east) or of two very slightly smaller principal rafters in close-set pairs (trusses 2, 4, 6, etc). All such principal rafters are of oak. Apart from slight differences in dimension, there appear to be other very slight variations between the timbers of the two types of truss. The larger single rafters appear to be more squarely cut, and have more regular saw-marks on their faces. The smaller 'double' rafters are less well worked, being less well trimmed, and appear slightly more uneven in their sawing. It thus appears as if there are two sets of timbers within the principal trusses.

The apex of each truss appears to have been cut off (if indeed the original ever went to the ridge), and replaced in softwood. In addition the apex sections, the collars, purlins, and all

other roof timbers are of softwood. These softwood timbers have the appearance, judging by the carpentry, of being nineteenth-century pieces.

From these principal roof timbers a total of 15 core samples was obtained. Each sample was given the code RIP-C (for Ripon Cathedral) and numbered 01 - 15. An attempt was made to obtain samples from what were thought to be the two possible sets of timbers here, the single principal rafters, and the 'double' principals.

Set to the underside of the principal roof timbers are the beams of the ceiling vault. These consist of ridge and vault ribs, from which spring diagonal and intermediate ribs. All these timbers are of oak. From these beams a further 15 core samples were obtained, RIP-C16 – 30. Because of safety concerns, there being no support or platform beneath the ceiling, it was only possible to sample the ceiling beams at each end of the nave roof, where boarding could be safely laid from above. There is a substantial quantity of other oak timber which could be sampled with the aid of a harness, though preventing public access to the area below might also be necessary.

The positions of these 30 samples are shown on drawings provided by EH, reproduced here as Figure 3. Details of the samples are given in Table 1. In this report the trusses and bays have been numbered from west to east, with the 'double' principals being further designated 'A' or 'B', the west and east of the pair respectively. Individual timbers are described on a north-south basis as appropriate.

The Laboratory would like to take this opportunity to thank Jane McComish and Mark Johnson of York Archaeological Trust for their help in arranging site access, as well as the staff of Joseph Hardgrave, Roofers, Ltd, York, who were most helpful during sampling. We would also like to thank Cathy Groves of the University of Sheffield Dendrochronology Laboratory and our other, international, colleagues who all attempted to find a cross-match and date for the samples.

<u>Analysis</u>

Each of the 30 samples was prepared by sanding and polishing and their annual growthring widths measured. The data of these measurements are given at the end of the report. These data were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see appendix) and at a minimum value of t=4.5 four satisfactory site chronologies could be formed:

Site chronology	Number of samples	Sequence length	Bar diagram Figure
RIPCSQ01	6	226	4
RIPCSQ02	9	117	5
RIPCSQ03	2	130	6
RIPCSQ04	2	127	7

Each site chronology thus created was compared with an extensive range of British and European site chronologies, including those held by the Nottingham Laboratory and others, the Sheffield Dendrochronology Laboratory for example. Despite this extensive comparison, and despite the length of the site chronologies, there was no satisfactory cross-matching against any available reference chronologies.

Interpretation

Of the 30 samples obtained, 19 have been formed into one of four site chronologies. Although none of these site chronologies, or any of the remaining individual samples, can be dated, it is possible to say something about the relative felling dates of the timbers concerned.

Firstly it is certain that some timbers represent a single phase of felling. For example, five samples, RIP-C02, C03, C08, C10, and C11, in site chronology RIPCSQ01, retain complete sapwood. This means that they each have the last ring produced by the tree represented before it was felled. In each case the last sapwood ring is at the same relative position indicating that the timbers were all cut at the same time. It is highly likely that the timber represented by sample RIP-C09 was felled at the same time as well. It also appears possible that these timbers are used for specific beams. All the samples in site chronology RIPCSQ01 are from the single principal rafter trusses.

A single phase of felling is also represented by a number of samples in site chronology RIPCSQ02. Samples RIP-C05, C13, C14, C15, C20, C29, and C30 retain complete sapwood, the last sapwood ring being at the same relative position in each case. It is probable that the other timbers represented in this site chronology were felled at the same time. There again may be some specific use for the timber represented, many of the samples in this second site chronology, RIP-C05, C07, C13, C14, and C15, being from the 'double' rafter trusses. This site chronology does, however, contain some samples from the ribs of the ceiling.

A single phase of felling is represented by samples RIP-C21 and C27 in site chronology RIPCSQ03, the last complete sapwood rings on these two being in the same relative positions. It is possible, though not certain, that samples RIP-C23 and C24 in site sequence RIPCSQ04, represent a single phase of felling also.

Conclusion

Analysis by dendrochronology has in this instance not been able to provide a date for a single sample. It can show, however, that some specific beams, those of the single principal rafters, are representative of a single phase of felling, as are those of the 'double' principal rafters, and some of the ribs of the ceiling. Other samples also represent single phases of felling.

What it has not been possible to show is the relationship between these felling phases. It is possible that all the groups of timbers were felled at different times, there being no cross-matching between them because they have no temporal overlap with each other. It

is also possible that they were all felled at the same time, but there is no cross-matching between them because they are from different sources. Whatever the relative felling of the groups, the original woodland source, or sources, is not represented in any available reference chronology. It is possible that some combination of these two factors is represented by the timbers.

It is unusual to have so many highly suitable samples left undated. Were the timbers felled at different times, it would perhaps be unlikely that every group formed would be unrepresented in the gamut of reference material. Some, at least, of the site chronologies, or some of the remaining individual samples, might be dated. But this is not the case in this instance.

The fact that none of the samples are dated is perhaps most easily explained by the timber being felled at the same time from different sources, which would help account for the site chronologies not cross-matching with each other, and also by the timber being nineteenth century. There are very few reference chronologies available for Yorkshire or the northeast for this time period. Such difficulties might be compounded if, perhaps, the woodland sources were all foreign. This is possibly due to the development in the eighteenth, and especially the nineteenth century, of timber-yards, or timber merchants, along the lines that we know of today. Ripon Cathedral may not have obtained the timbers sampled direct from a single, known, woodland source, as is more often the case in the medieval period, but from a supplier who has obtained material from an extensive range of sources, including, perhaps in this case, from abroad.

Two other features of the samples are noteworthy. Firstly it will be seen from Table 1 that some of them have in excess of 200 rings, and several are in excess of 150 rings long. While this is not unusual it is not common in material of possible nineteenth century or very late-medieval date. The second feature the samples display is the low number of sapwood rings found on the samples. The 95% confidence limit for the amount of sapwood rings on mature oaks in England is usually in the range 15 – 40 rings. In a group of 30 samples it might be expected that one or maybe two samples might have more of less sapwood rings than this. It will again be seen from Table 1 that only a few samples analysed here sapwood rings on any sample where it is complete is 9. Such low numbers of sapwood rings are more common in timbers from the east of England and continental Europe.

Sample number	Sample location	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
	Principal roof timbers					
RIP-C01	South principal rafter, truss 1	159	17C			
RIP-C02	South principal rafter, truss 3	226	16C			
RIP-C03	South principal rafter, truss 5	218	14C			
RIP-C04	South principal rafter, truss 7	86	14C			Non-Star Carp Land, Land
RIP-C05	South double rafter, truss 2A	61	13C			
RIP-C06	South double rafter, truss 4B	112	no h/s			
RIP-C07	South double rafter, truss 6B	81	h/s			
RIP-C08	North principal rafter, truss 3	206	17C			
RIP-C09	North principal rafter, truss 5	108	no h/s			<u>مە</u> مە مەر ئەت تە
RIP-C10	North principal rafter, truss 9	212	14C			
RIP-C11	North principal rafter, truss 11	212	17C			
RIP-C12	North double rafter, truss 2B	75	9C			
RIP-C13	North double rafter, truss 6A	91	12C			
RIP-C14	North double rafter, truss 6B	104	12C			
RIP-C15	North double rafter, truss 10B	83	18C	ملة فلا الله علم إلى بي	nga Kiri din kin dan	Part Sair Sair Sair Sair Sair

Table 1: Details of samples from the nave roof and ceiling, Ripon Cathedral

Table 1: continued

Sample number	Sample location Ceiling, bay 1, west end	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
RIP-C16	Ceiling rib	79	14C			
RIP-C17	Ceiling rib	120	no h/s	<u> </u>		
RIP-C18	•	66	10 1/s 12C	ستدسط خلا خلا خلا بنی		
	Ceiling rib					tani dan mak data titu tan
RIP-C19	Ceiling rib	89	2		yaya 1944 deli Inda Yada Kasa	
RIP-C20	Ceiling rib	82	12C	سی پی مند نیے مند <u>نے</u>		State and a state while balance
RIP-C21	Ceiling rib	82	10C	مشاه محد مثمة فشا جمع		
RIP-C22	Ceiling rib	79	no h/s		900 PM 490 490 900	
RIP-C23	Ceiling rib	125	16		سه سه منه الله بين .	
RIP-C24	Ceiling rib	120	18C			
RIP-C25	Ceiling rib	92	5	and the first time state		
	Colling have 14.8.40					
	Ceiling, bays 11 & 12					
RIP-C26	Ceiling rib	56	13C	مشد خط الط الح وي		700 mil 100 vie 700 dat
RIP-C27	Ceiling rib	130	13C			944 AVA 244 Mar 144
RIP-C28	Ceiling rib	69	no h/s			
RIP-C29	Ceiling rib	117	11C	ومناد محد ماده محد احدا خدن		
RIP-C30	Ceiling rib	110	10C		game and they shall that	****
	*					

h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is last ring on sample C = complete sapwood retained on sample

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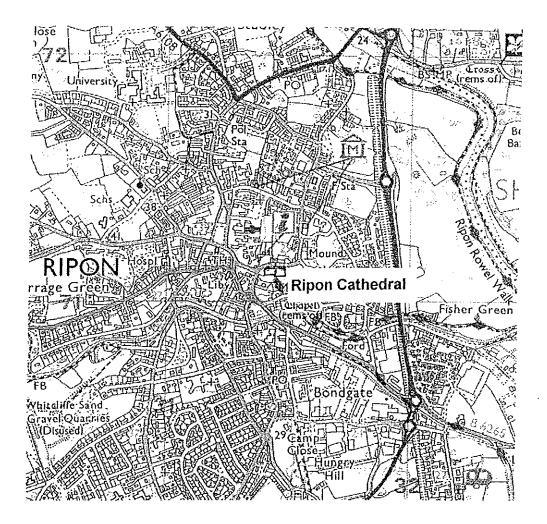
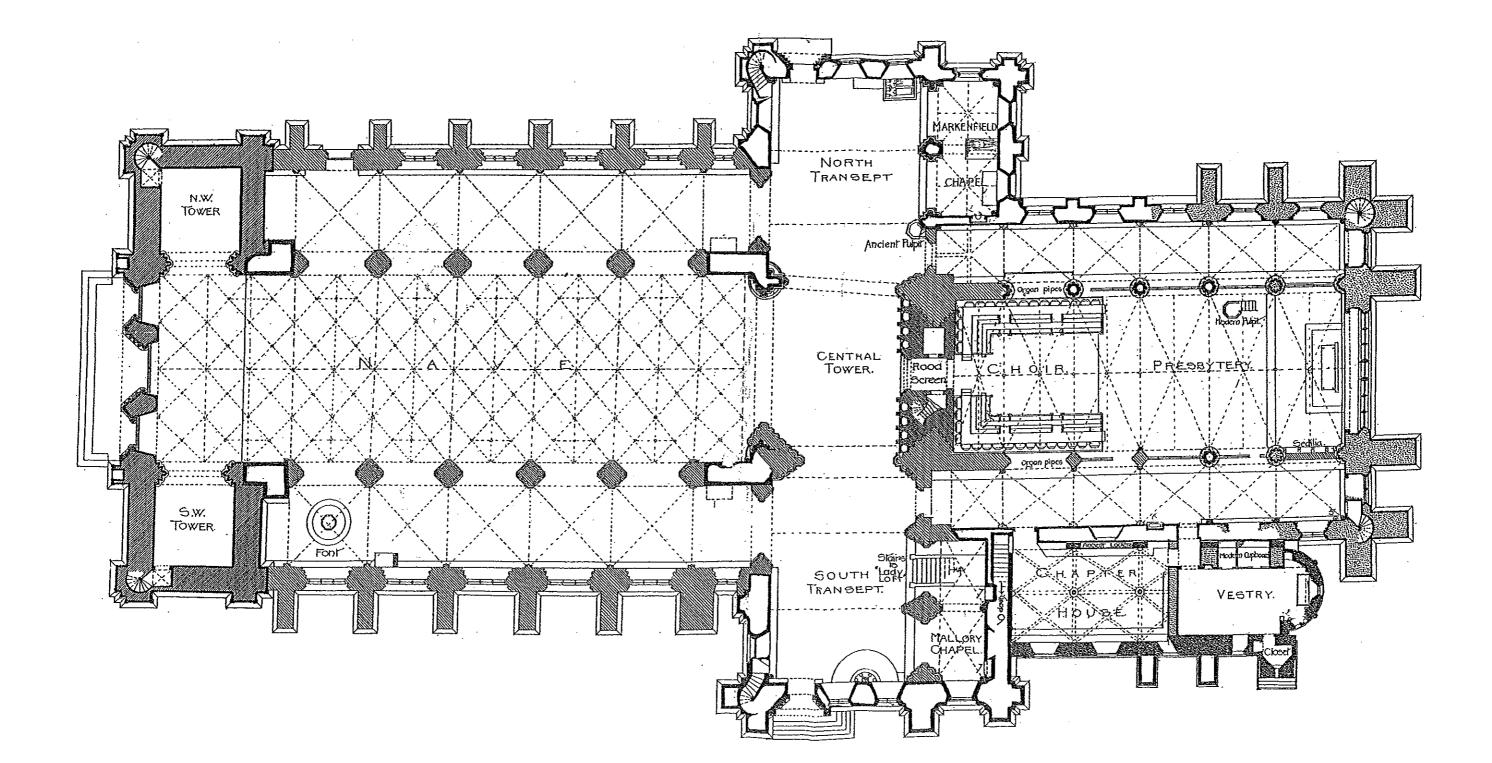


Figure 1: Map to show general location of Ripon Cathedral

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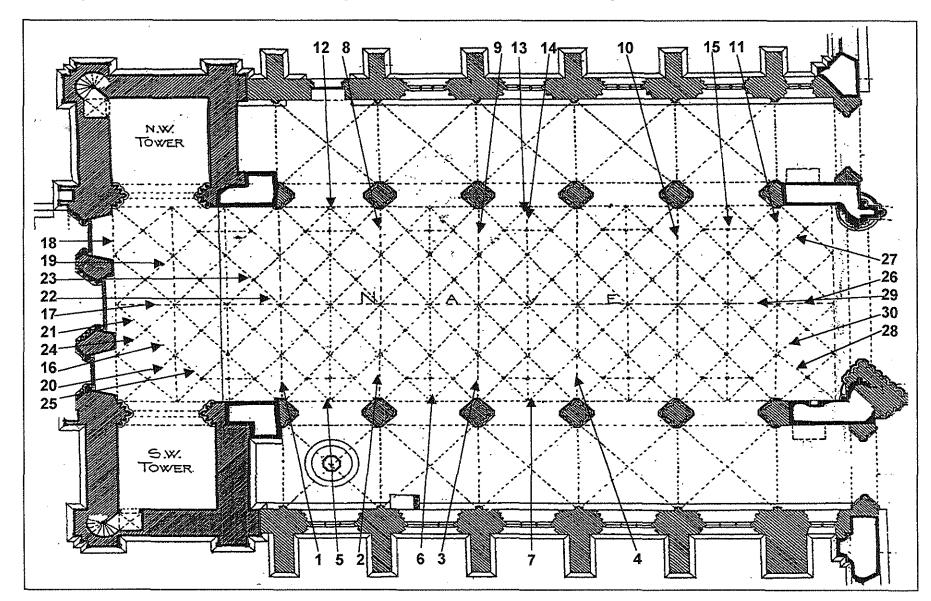


Figure 3: Plan to show position of sampled timbers from the nave roof of Ripon Cathedral © NMR 93/7827

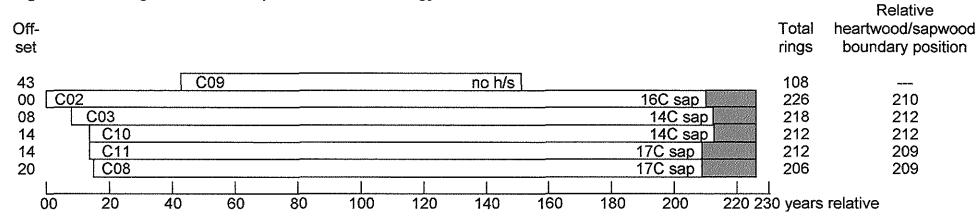


Figure 4: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology RIPCSQ01

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

C = complete sapwood retained on sample

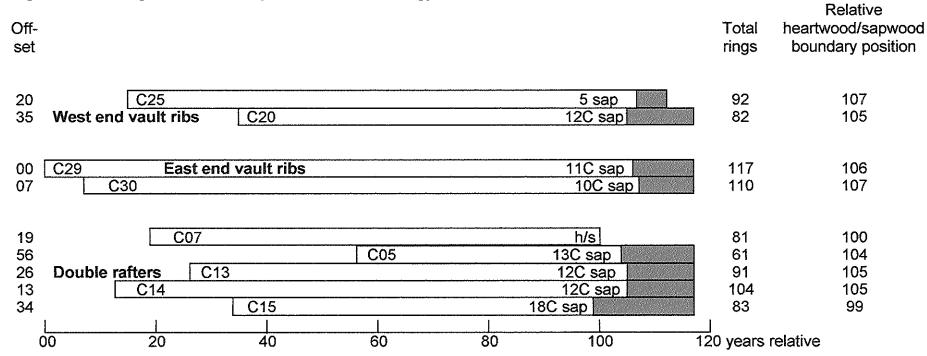


Figure 5: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology RIPCSQ02

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

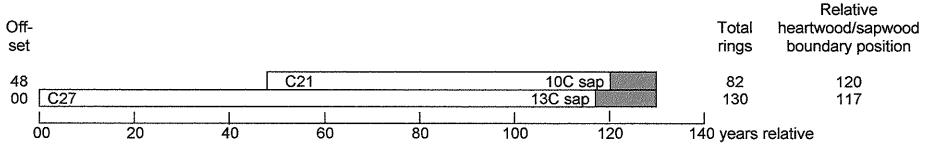
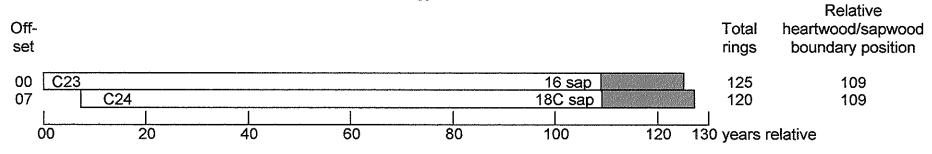


Figure 6: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology RIPCSQ03

12

Figure 7: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology RIPCSQ04



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

RIP-C03A 218

218 337 218 262 211 159 175 130 177 289 254 308 221 146 134 91 102 97 75 69 88 91 101 119 108 76 61 57 78 75 71 47 75 58 43 77 95 86 92 70 74 68 98 76 85 53 52 80 50 51 64 47 48 43 47 40 49 59 70 64 64 47 57 60 65 59 63 55 56 60 55 48 87 68 92 72 64 62 87 84 53 63 77 172 147 99 126 159 129 84 91 79 80 66 57 88 117 135 170 142 157 104 74 96 128 123 96 91 78 132 96 77 133 113 102 111 140 144 99 97 123 92 97 136 149 127 124 110 94 117 112 84 77 81 125 117 138 169 182 118 146 120 117 121 103 163 190 138 97 74 90 65 101 114 99 93 103 103 79 65 63 86 107 102 117 125 131 116 65 77 130 97 112 126 147 95 132 177 158 146 111 123 150 165 151 115 96 83 122 109 80 124 159 134 127 117 118 165 143 155 126 172 146 141 122 106 100 125 127 111 131 152 137 128 103 174 138 140 RIP-C03B 218 222 327 228 260 224 154 176 133 179 285 245 306 228 156 121 94 107 86 82 79 94 97 102 115 113 73 58 63 75 74 64 50 75 62 45 80 94 77 88 83 77 67 94 80 85 55 57 69 49 66 57 41 53 43 48 42 51 58 66 68 56 48 60 62 60 56 64 61 60 54 51 52 85 72 90 71 64 57 89 86 41 81 68 163 145 104 127 151 113 82 95 84 68 71 54 98 106 148 166 134 159 106 70 95 128 126 88 91 79 130 100 71 140 105 97 123 140 137 102 102

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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 Laboratory's Monograph, 'An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Building' (Laxton and Litton 1988) and, Dendrochronology; Guidelines on Producing and Interpreting Dendrochronological Dates (English Heritage 1988). Here we will give the bare outlines. Each year an oak tree grows an extra ring on the outside of its trunk and all its branches just inside its bark. The width of this annual ring depends largely on the weather during the growing season, about April to October, and possibly also on the weather during the previous year. Good growing seasons give rise to relatively wide rings, poor ones to very narrow rings and average ones to relatively average ring widths. Since the climate is so variable from year to year, almost random-like, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure 1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

If the bark is still on the sample, as in Figure 1, then the date of the last ring will be the date of felling of the oak from which it was cut. There is much evidence that in medieval times oaks cut down for building purposes were used almost immediately, usually within the year or so (Rackham 1976). Hence if bark is present on several main timbers in a building, none of which appear reused or are later insertions, and if they all have the same date for their last ring, then we can be quite confident that this is the date of construction or soon after. If there is no bark on the sample, then we have to make an estimate of the felling date; how this is done is explained below.

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

1. Inspecting the Building and Sampling the Timbers. Together with a building historian the timbers in a building are inspected to try to ensure that those sampled are not reused or later insertions. Sampling is almost always done by coring into the timber, which has the great advantage that we can sample *in situ* timbers and those judged best to give the date of construction, or phase of construction if there is more than one in the building. The timbers to be sampled are also inspected to see how many rings they have. We normally look for timbers with at least 70 rings, and preferably more. With fewer rings than this, 50 for example, sequences of widths become difficult to match to a unique position within a master sequence of ring widths and so are difficult to date (Litton and Zainodin 1991). The cross-section of the rafter shown in Figure 2 has about 120 rings; about 20 of which are sapwood rings.

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

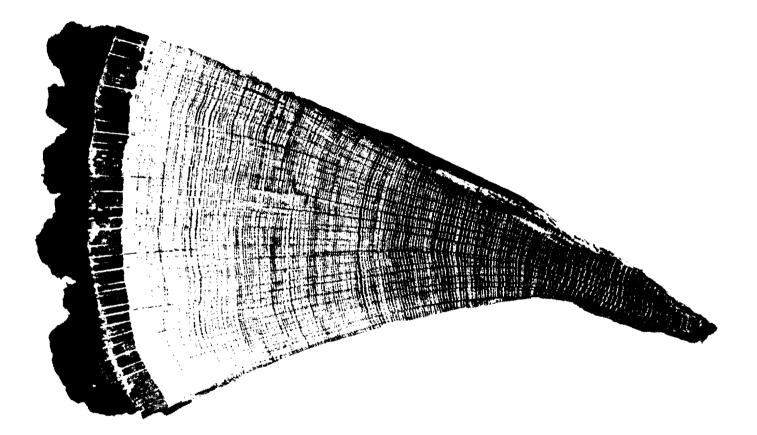


Fig 1. A wedge of oak from a tree felled in 1976. It shows the annual growth rings, one for each year from the innermost ring to the last ring on the outside just inside the bark. The year of each ring can determined by counting back from the outside ring, which grew in 1976.

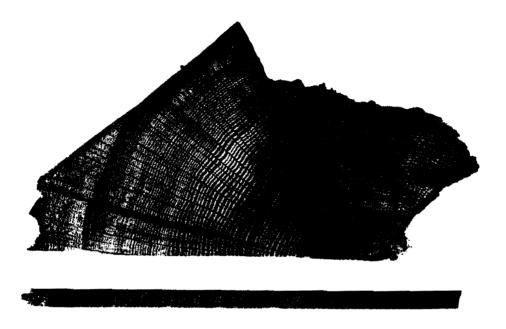


Fig 2. Cross-section of a rafter showing the presence of sapwood rings in the left hand corner, the arrow is pointing to the heartwood/sapwood boundary (H/S). Also a core with sapwood; again the arrow is pointing to the H/S. The core is about the size of a pencil.



Fig. 3 Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measure twice to ensure that an error has not been made. This type of apparatus is needed to process a large number of samples on a regular basis.

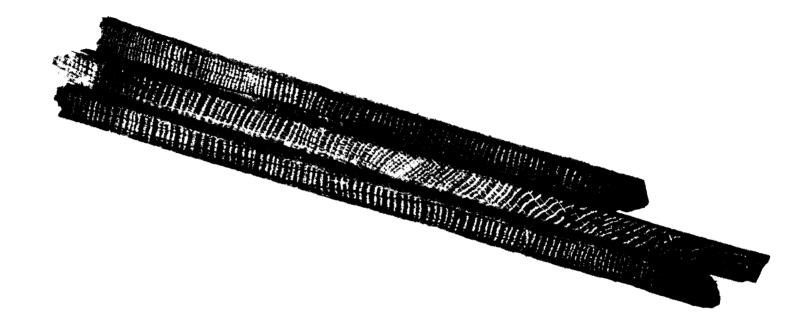


Fig 4. Three cores from timbers in a building. They come from trees growing at the same time. Notice that, although the sequences of widths look similar, they are not identical. This is typical.

Sampling is done by coring into the timber with a hollow corer attached to an electric drill and usually from its outer rings inwards towards where the centre of the tree, the pith, is judged to be. An illustration of a core is shown in Figure 2; it is about 15cm long and 1cm diameter. Great care has to be taken to ensure that as few as possible of the outer rings are lost in coring. This can be difficult as these outer rings are often very soft (see below on sapwood). Each sample is given a code which identifies uniquely which timber it comes from, which building it is from and where the building is located. For example, CRO-A06 is the sixth core taken from the first building (A) sampled by the Laboratory in Cropwell Bishop. Where it came from in that building will be shown in the sampling records and drawings. No structural damage is done to any timbers by coring, nor does it weaken them.

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

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

- 2. *Measuring Ring Widths*. Each core is sanded down with a belt sander using medium-grit paper and then finished by hand with flourgrade-grit paper. The rings are then clearly visible and differentiated from each other with a result very much like that shown in Figure 2. The core is then mounted on a movable table below a microscope and the ring-widths measured individually from the innermost ring to the outermost. The widths are automatically recorded in a computer file as they are measured (see Fig 3).
- Cross-matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the local climate 3. which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig 4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the *t*-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum *t*-value among the *t*-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a t-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et al 1988; Howard et al 1984-1995).

This is illustrated in Fig 5 with timbers from one of the roofs of Lincoln Cathedral. Here four sequences of ring widths, LIN-C04, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the *bar-diagram*, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of C08 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual *t*-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the *t*-value between C45 and C08 is 5.6 and is the maximum found between these two among all the positions of one sequence relative to the other.

It is standard practice in our Laboratory first to cross-match as many as possible of the ringwidth sequences of the samples in a building and then to form an average from them. This average is called a *site sequence* of the building being dated and is illustrated in Fig 5. The fifth bar at the bottom is a site sequence for a roof at Lincoln Cathedral and is constructed from the matching sequences of the four timbers. The site sequence width for each year is the average of the widths in each of the sample sequences which has a width for that year. Thus in Fig 5 if the widths shown are 0.8mm for C45, 0.2mm for C08, 0.7mm for C05, and 0.3mm for C04, then the corresponding width of the site sequence is the average of these, 0.55mm. The actual sequence of widths of this site sequence is stored on the computer. The reason for creating site sequences is that it is usually easier to date an average sequence of ring widths with a master sequence than it is to date the individual component sample sequences separately.

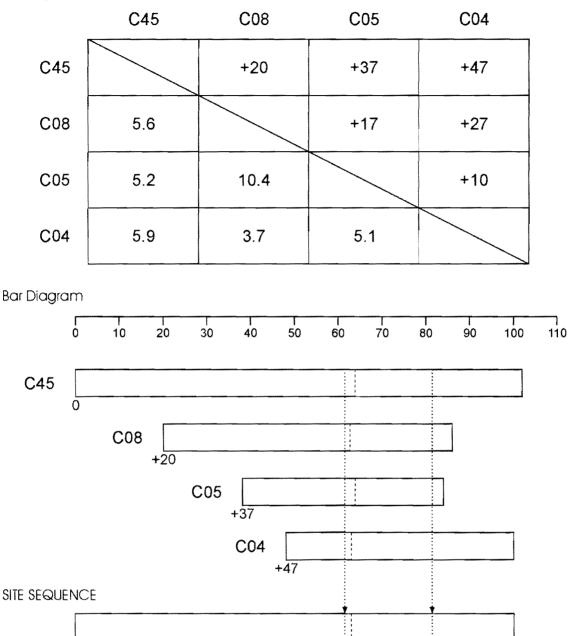
The straightforward method of cross-matching several sample sequences with each other one at a time is called the 'maximal *t*-value' method. The actual method of cross-matching a group of sequences of ring-widths used in the Laboratory involves grouping and averaging the ring-width sequences and is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

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

Quite often some, though not all, of the original outer rings are missing on a timber. The outer rings on an oak, called *sapwood* rings, are usually lighter than the inner rings, the *heartwood*, and so are relatively easy to identify. For example, sapwood can be seen in the corner of the rafter and at the outer end of the core in Figure 2, both indicated by arrows. More importantly for dendrochronology, the sapwood is relatively soft and so liable to insect attack and wear and tear. The builder, therefore, may remove some of the sapwood for precisely these reasons. Nevertheless, if at least some of the sapwood rings are left on a sample, we will know that not too many rings have been lost since felling so that the date of the last ring on the sample is only a few years before the date of the original last ring on the tree, and so to the date of felling.

Various estimates have been made and used for the average number of sapwood rings in mature oak trees (English Heritage 1998). A fairly conservative range is between 15 and 50 and that this holds for 95% of mature oaks. This means, of course, that in a small number of cases there could be fewer than 15 and more than 50 sapwood rings. For example, the core CRO-A06 has only 9 sapwood rings and some have obviously been lost over time - either they were removed originally by the carpenter and/or they rotted away in the building and/or they were lost in the coring. It is not known exactly how many sapwood rings are missing, but using the above range the Laboratory would estimate between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and a maximum of 41 (=50-9). If the last ring of CRO-A06 has been dated to 1500, say, then the estimated felling-date range for the tree from which it came originally would be between 1506 and 1541. The Laboratory uses this estimate for sapwood in areas of England where it has no prior information. It also uses it when dealing with samples with very many rings, about 120 to the last heartwood ring. But in other areas of England where the Laboratory has accumulated a number of samples with complete sapwood, that is, no sapwood lost since felling, other estimates in place of the conservative range of 15 to 50 are used. In the East Midlands (Laxton et al 2001) and the east to the south down to Kent (Pearson 1995) where it has sampled extensively in the past, the Laboratory uses the shorter estimate of 15 to 35 sapwood rings in 95% of mature oaks growing in these parts. Since the sample CRO-A06 comes from a house in Cropwell Bishop in the East Midlands, a better estimate of sapwood rings lost since felling is between a minimum of 6 (=15-9) and 26 (=35-9) and the felling would be estimated to have taken place between 1506 and 1526, a shorter period than before. (Oak boards quite often come from the Baltic and in these cases the 95% confidence limits for sapwood are 9 to 36 (Howard et al 1992, 56)).

Even more precise estimates of the felling date and range can often be obtained using knowledge of a particular case and information gathered at the time of sampling. For example, at the time of sampling the dendrochronologist may have noted that the timber from which the core of Figure 2 was taken still had complete sapwood but that none of the soft sapwood rings were lost in coring. By measuring into the timber the depth of sapwood lost, say 2 cm, a reasonable estimate can be made of the number of sapwood rings lost, say 12 to 15 rings in this case. By adding on 12 to 15 years to the date of the last ring on the sample a good tight estimate for the range of the felling date can be obtained, which is often better than the 15 to 35 years later we would have estimated without this observation. In the example, the felling is now estimated to



t-value/offset Matrix

Fig 5. Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

The *bar diagram* represents these sequences without the rings themselves. The length of the bar is proportional to the number of rings in the sequence. Here the four sequences are set at relative positions (*offsets*) to each other at which they have maximum correlation as measured by the *t*-values.

The *t*-value/offset matrix contains the maximum *t*-values below the diagonal and the offsets above it. Thus, the maximum *t*-value between C08 and C45 occurs at the offset of +20 rings and the *t*-value is then 5.6.

The *site sequence* is composed of the average of the corresponding widths, as illustrated with one width.

have taken place between AD 1512 and 1515, which is much more precise than without this extra information.

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

- 5. **Estimating the Date of Construction**. There is a considerable body of evidence collected by dendrochronologists over the years that oak timbers used in buildings were not seasoned in medieval or early modern times (English Heritage 1998 and Miles 1997, 50-55). Hence provided all the samples in a building have estimated felling-date ranges broadly in agreement with each other, so that they appear to have been felled as a group, then this should give an accurate estimate of the period when the structure was built, or soon after (Laxton *et al* 2001, figure 8 and pages 34-5 where 'associated groups of fellings' are discussed in detail). However, if there is any evidence of storing before use or if there is evidence the oak came from abroad (eg Baltic boards), then some allowance has to be made for this.
- *Master Chronological Sequences*. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or a site 6. sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to cross-match it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In Fig 6 such a sequence is SHE-T, which came from a tree in Sherwood Forest which was blown down in a recent gale. After this other sequences which cross-match with it are added and gradually the sequence is 'pushed back in time' as far as the age of samples will allow. This process is illustrated in Fig 6. We have a master chronological sequence of widths for Nottinghamshire and East Midlands oak for each year from AD 882 to 1981. It is described in great detail in Laxton and Litton (1988), but the components it contains are shown here in the form of a bar diagram. As can be seen, it is well replicated in that for each year in this period there are several sample sequences having widths for that year. The master is the average of these. This master can now be used to date oak from this area and from the surrounding areas where the climate is very similar to that in the East Midlands. The Laboratory has also constructed a master for Kent (Laxton and Litton 1989). The method the Laboratory uses to construct a master sequence, such as the East Midlands and Kent, is completely objective and uses the Litton-Zainodin grouping procedure (Laxton et al 1988). Other laboratories and individuals have constructed masters for other areas and have made them available. As well as these masters, local (dated) site chronologies can be used to date other buildings from nearby. The Laboratory has hundreds of these site sequences from many parts of England and Wales covering many short periods.
- 7. Ring-width Indices. Tree-ring dating can be done by cross-matching the ring widths themselves, as described above. However, it is advantageous to modify the widths first. Because different trees grow at different rates and because a young oak grows in a different way from an older oak, irrespective of the climate, the widths are first standardized before any matching between them is attempted. These standard widths are known as ring-width indices and were first used in dendrochronology by Baillie and Pilcher (1973). The exact form they take is explained in this paper and in the appendix of Laxton and Litton (1988) and is illustrated in the graphs in Fig 7. Here ring-widths are plotted vertically, one for each year of growth. In the upper sequence of (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller later growth from about 1900 onwards when the tree is maturing. A similar phenomena can be observed in the lower sequence of (a) starting in 1835. In both the widths are also changing rapidly from year to year. The peaks are the wide rings and the troughs are the narrow rings corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequence of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the immature and mature growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain, that are associated with the common climatic signal. This makes cross-matching easier.

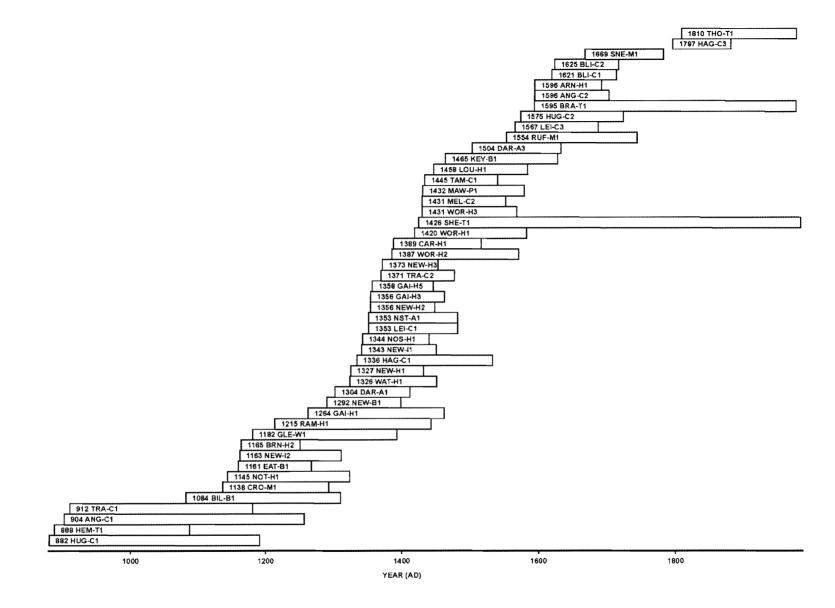


Fig. 6 Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87

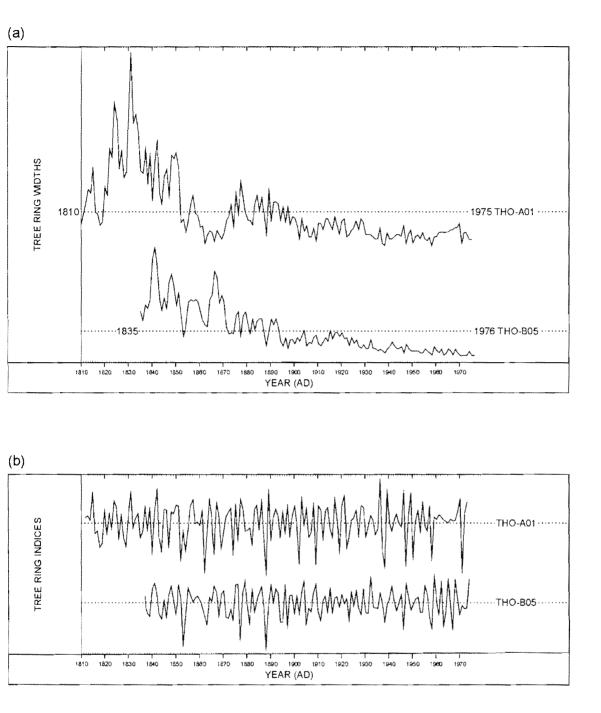


Fig 7. (a) The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young tree are wider than the later ones of the older tree in both sequences.

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

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