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LAWRENCEHOLME FARM, OULTON, CUMBRIA TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS FROM THE BUILDINGS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard and Cliff Litton





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Lawrenceholme Farm, Oulton, Cumbria Tree-Ring Analysis of Timbers from Buildings

Alison Arnold¹, Robert Howard¹ and Cliff Litton²

Summary

A total of 31 samples was obtained from the timbers within four separate buildings at Lawrenceholme Farm, Oulton. Of these 31 samples, 22 were measured, nine samples having too few rings for reliable analysis. From these measured data, five separate site chronologies, accounting for a total of 11 samples, were created. These chronologies have overall lengths of between 68 and 162 rings.

Despite being compared to an extensive collection of reference chronologies, none of the five site chronologies, nor the 11 remaining measured but ungrouped samples, could be dated.

Keywords

Dendrochronology Standing Building

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Introduction

Lawrenceholme (Laurrence Island) (NGR NY232526, Figs I and 2), situated in Wedholme Flow (a marsh), was, in the nineteenth century, a settlement of two farms with a number of bothies and outbuildings. According to local tradition, it once contained a hermit. There are presently on the site two mainly clay dabbin houses (house 'A' and house 'B') as well as a fine two-storey stone house (house 'C'), now used for storage. There is also a mixed stone/clay cruck barn (barn 1), plus a mainly clay dabbin cruck barn (barn 2). There is also a series of modern farm buildings. Although the clay dabbin house, 'A' was inhabited within living memory, only the more recent clay building, house 'B', is now lived in. The mixed stone/clay cruck barn (barn 1) is attached to the older, uninhabited, stone house (house 'C'). The second cruck dabbin barn is attached to the uninhabited clay dabbin house 'A'.

Sampling and analysis by tree-ring dating of timbers from the four clay buildings at Lawrenceholme Farm were commissioned by English Heritage. This analysis was undertaken as a part of a pilot research project on the clay buildings of the Solway Plain in Cumbria, which aims to develop a firm evidence base for this nationally important and threatened building type. The project ultimately aims to understand the significance of these historic structures and to inform their conservation, by raising awareness of their historical significance and extent, and promoting a programme of training in the specific craft skills necessary to repair and maintain these buildings.

Sampling

From the timbers available, a total of 31 core samples was obtained, the samples being spread as evenly and as widely as possible between the four clay buildings. This total, which comprised all of the suitable timbers, might have been considered insufficient to date some of the structures investigated, apart from the fact that they were part of the pilot project. Each sample was given the code LRH-A (for Lawrenceholme, site 'A') and numbered 01–31. The positions of these samples are marked on Figures 3 and 4a–d. Details of the samples are given in Table 1. In this Table, all frames or trusses, and individual timbers, are identified and numbered according to the plans provided.

The Laboratory would like to take this opportunity to particularly thank Mr and Mrs McKie of Lawrenceholme Farm for their help and cooperation during sampling. We would also like to thank Nina Jennings for her constant efforts in promoting this project, for arranging access to the site, and for providing the details in the introduction above. The Laboratory would also like to thank Peter Messenger for his helpful discussions on the possible phasing and interpretation of the building.

Analysis

Each of the 31 samples obtained was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that nine samples, LRH-A03, A04, A13, A14, A15, A19, A23, A25, and A29, had less than the minimum of 54 rings required for reliable tree-ring dating and were rejected from the programme of analysis. The annual growth-ring widths of all the remaining 22 samples were, however, measured, the data of these measurements being given at the end of the report.

The growth-ring widths of all 22 measured samples were compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix). At a minimum value of t=4.5, five groups,

comprising one group of three samples and four groups of two samples each, could be formed. The cross-matching samples were combined with each other at their indicated positions (see bar diagrams Figs 5–9) to form site chronologies LRHASQ01–SQ05. These site chronologies range in length from 68 rings to 162 rings.

Each of the five site chronologies, plus the remaining 11 measured but ungrouped samples, was then compared to an extensive collection of reference chronologies for oak. There was, however, no satisfactory cross-matching at any position. All the samples must, therefore, remain undated for the moment.

Interpretation and conclusion

Although there is no dating for any site chronology or any of the individual samples, it would appear very likely that some of the grouped samples represent timbers felled at the same time. Samples LRH-A27 and A30, for example, representing the two principal rafters of the same truss in house 'A', have identical relative heartwood/boundary positions in site chronology LRHASQ03. Samples LRH-A26 and A28, also from house 'A', also have the same relative heartwood/sapwood boundary positions as each other in site chronology LRHASQ04. A third example of identical relative heartwood/sapwood boundaries may be seen with samples LRH-A01 and A02 in site chronology LRHASQ05. In this case the samples represent the two blades of a single cruck truss in cruck barn 1. In each case it is very likely that the pairs of timbers represented by each individual site chronology were felled at the same time.

Such an interpretation is further supported by the fact that the pairs of samples cross-match with each other with values high enough to suggest that the timbers might be derived from the same tree, or at least from trees growing very close to each other. Samples LRH-A27 and A30, for example cross-match each other with a value of t=10.3. While this does not prove that the timbers were from the same tree, it is unlikely that two different trees which were once growing close to each other were felled at different times and yet ended up as one of a pair of cruck blades or rafters.

Table	I: Details	of samples fro	m buildings at	Lawrenceholme	Farm, Cumbr	~ia
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Sample number	Sample location Cruck barn I	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
LRH-A01	Cruck blade A	/ 1	21C			
		61				
LRH-A02	Cruck blade AI	63	15			
LRH-A03	North-west purlin	nm				
LRH-A04	South-west purlin	nm				
LRH-A05	Ridge to west	59	8			
LRH-A06	North-east purlin	54	h/s			
LRH-A07	South-east purlin	75	17			
LRH-A08	Collar A – AI	59	29C			
	Cruck barn 2					
LRH-A09	Cruck blade BI	162	h/s			
LRH-A10	Backing rafter BI	100	h/s			
LRH-AII	Purlin AI – BI	55	h/s			
LRH-A12	Cruck blade A	54	h/s			
LRH-A13	Collar A – A I	nm				
LRH-A14	Backing rafter AI	nm				
LRH-A15	Collar B – BI	nm				
LRH-A16	Cruck blade AI	83	10			

Table I: Continued

Sample number	Sample location House A (east section)	Total rings	*Sapwood rings	First measured ring date	Last heartwood ring date	Last measured ring date
LRH-A17	South-west purlin	58	18			
LRH-A18	North-west purlin	77	41C			
LRH-A19	West ridge beam	nm				
LRH-A20	West lintel to doorway	62	h/s			
LRH-A21	Middle lintel to doorway	92	no h/s			
LRH-A22	East lintel to doorway	85	no h/s			
LRH-A23	Lower south-east purlin	nm				
LRH-A24	East ridge	62	h/s			
LRH-A25	Lower north-east purlin	nm				
	House A (west section)					
LRH-A26	Lower south-east purlin	74	20C			
LRH-A27	North principal rafter	66	19			
LRH-A28	Upper south-east purlin	70	20C			
LRH-A29	Collar	nm				
LRH-A30	South principal rafter	68	21C			
LRH-A31	South common rafter 3	89	h/s			

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

C = complete sapwood retained on the sample

nm = sample not measured

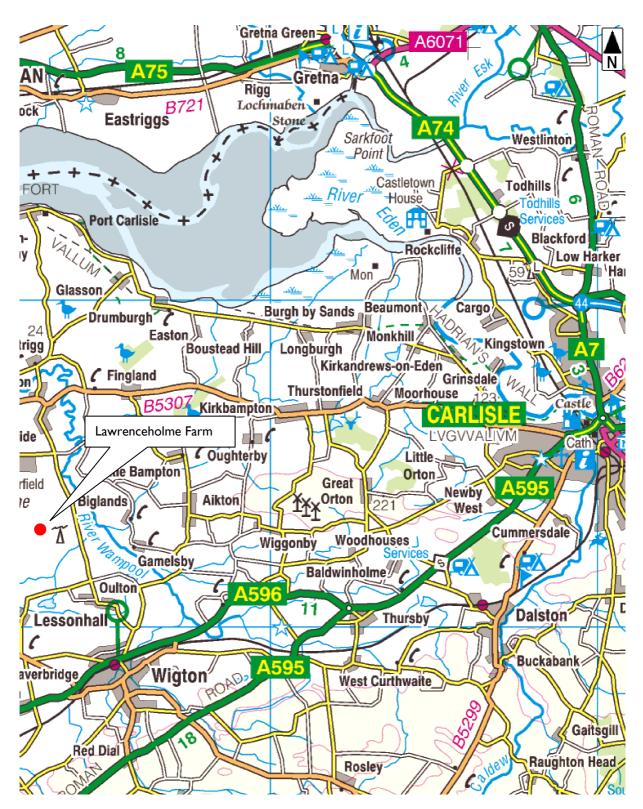


Figure 1: Map showing the location of Lawrenceholme Farm, Oulton, Cumbria.



Figure 2: Map of Lawrenceholme Farm, Oulton, Cumbria.

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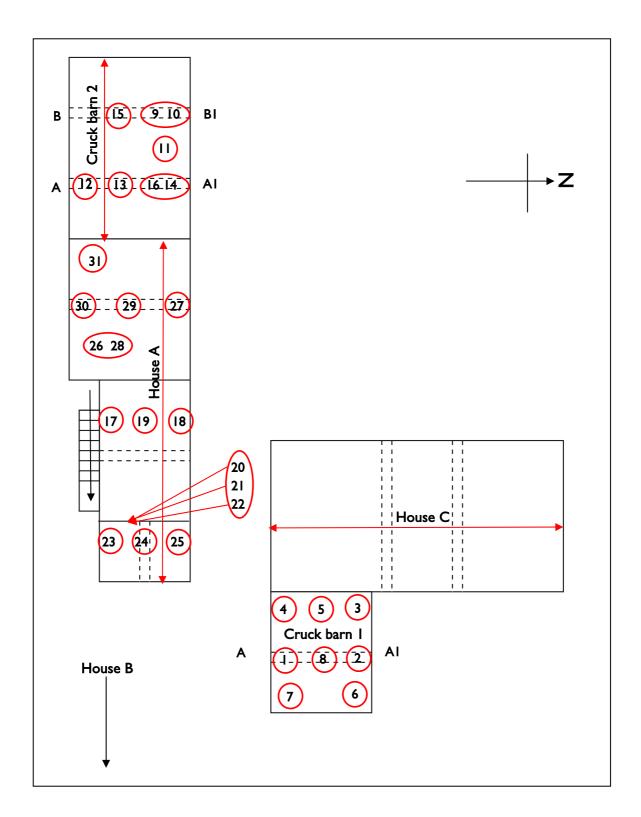


Figure 3: Schematic plan of clay buildings at Lawrenceholme Farm, indicating the positions of the timbers sampled for dendrochronology. Based on original drawings by Nina Jennings

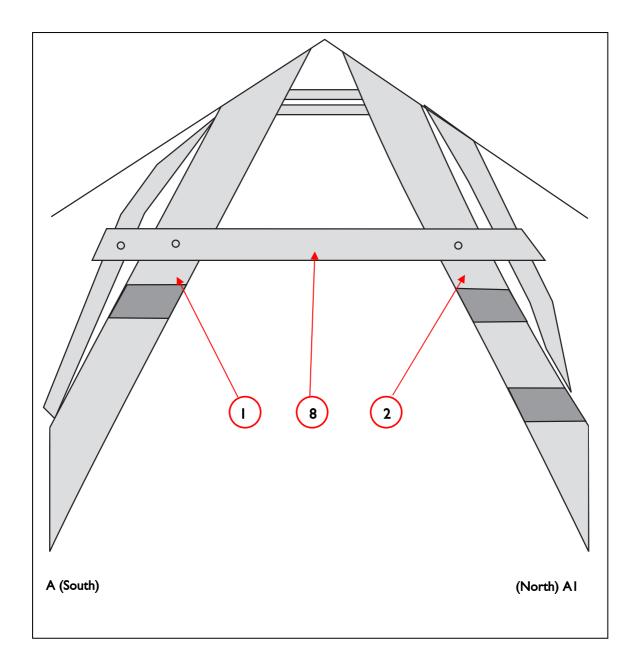


Figure 4a: Barn I – schematic section of cruck truss A-AI (truncated by modern roof line) to show sampled timbers. Shaded areas indicate redundant half-lap joints (viewed from the east looking west)

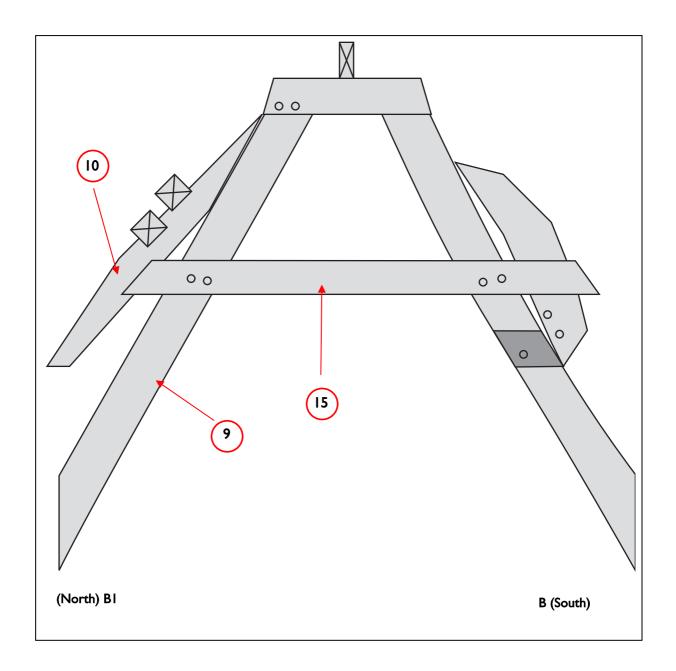


Figure 4b: Barn 2 – schematic section of truss B-B1 to show sampled timbers. The shaded area indicates a redundant half-lap joint (viewed from the west looking east)

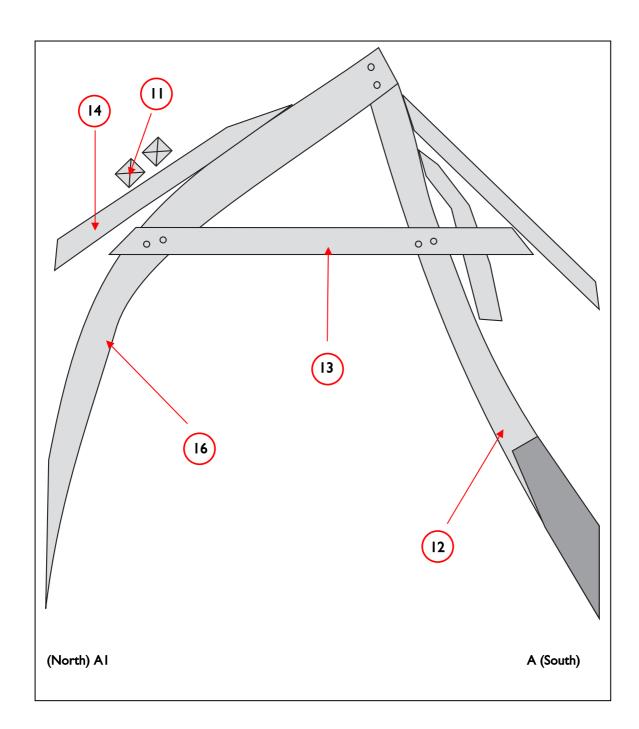


Figure 4c: Barn 2 – schematic section of truss A-AI to show sampled timbers. The shaded area indicates a redundant half-lap joint (viewed from the west looking east)

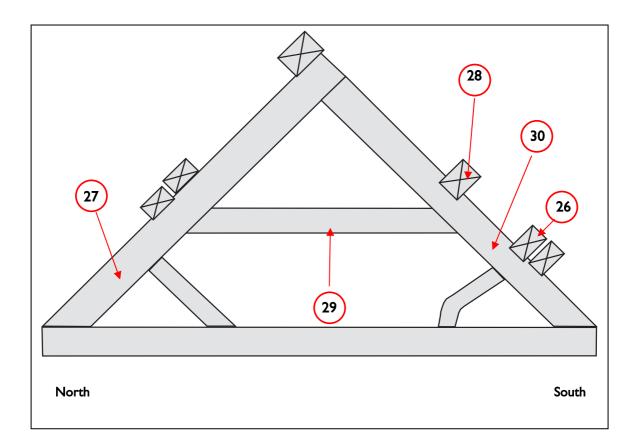
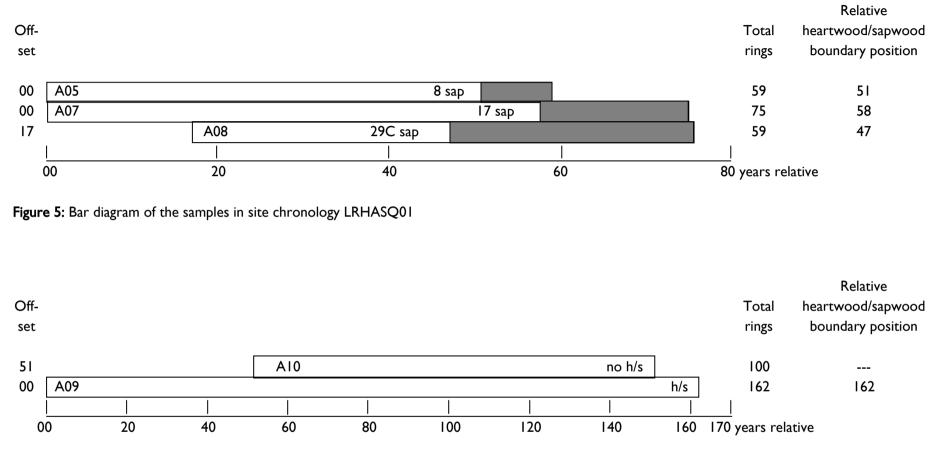


Figure 4d: House A – schematic section of west wing central truss to show sampled timbers (viewed from the west looking east)



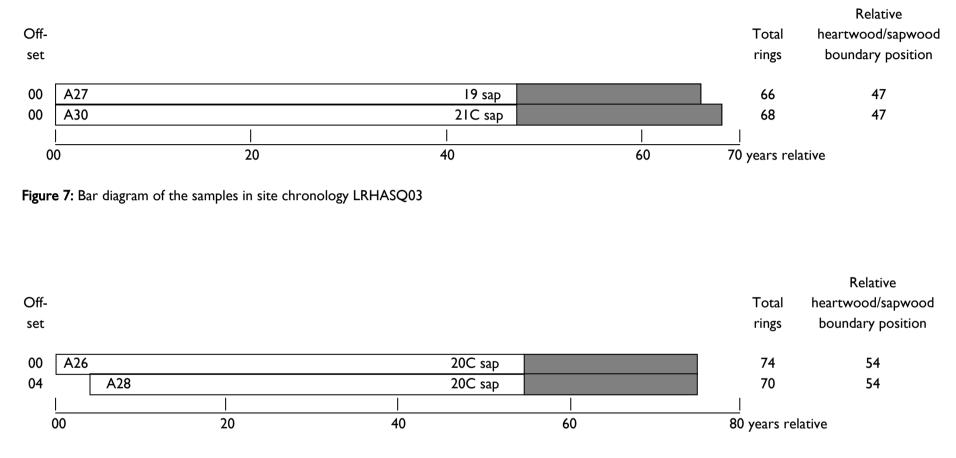
white bars = heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings

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 LRHASQ02

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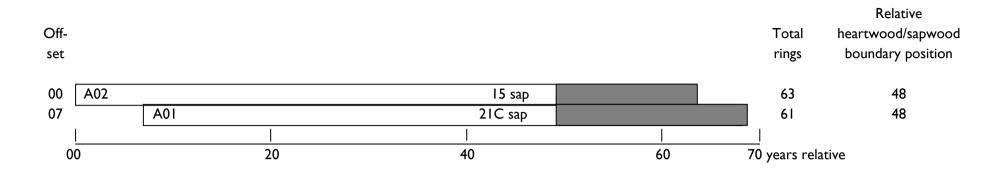
white bars = heartwood rings, shaded area = sapwood rings

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

C = complete sapwood retained on sample

Figure 8: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology LRHASQ04

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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 9: Bar diagram of the samples in site chronology LRHASQ05

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Data of measured samples - measurements in 0.01 mm units

200 166 236 240 248 209 279 212 322 154 145 235 278 304

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 I 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 I, 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 2 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 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.

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.



Figure 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 be determined by counting back from the outside ring, which grew in 1976.



Figure 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.



Figure 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 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 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.

- 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).
- З. *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 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 tvalue 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 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 Figure 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 some 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 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.
- 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 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 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

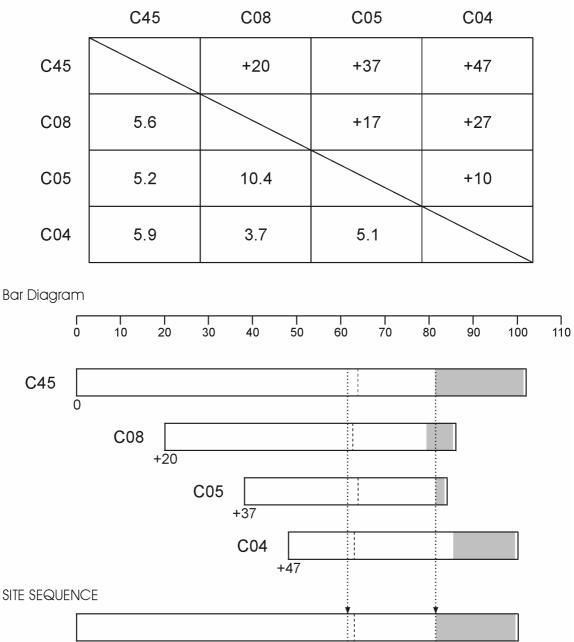


Figure 5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them.

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.

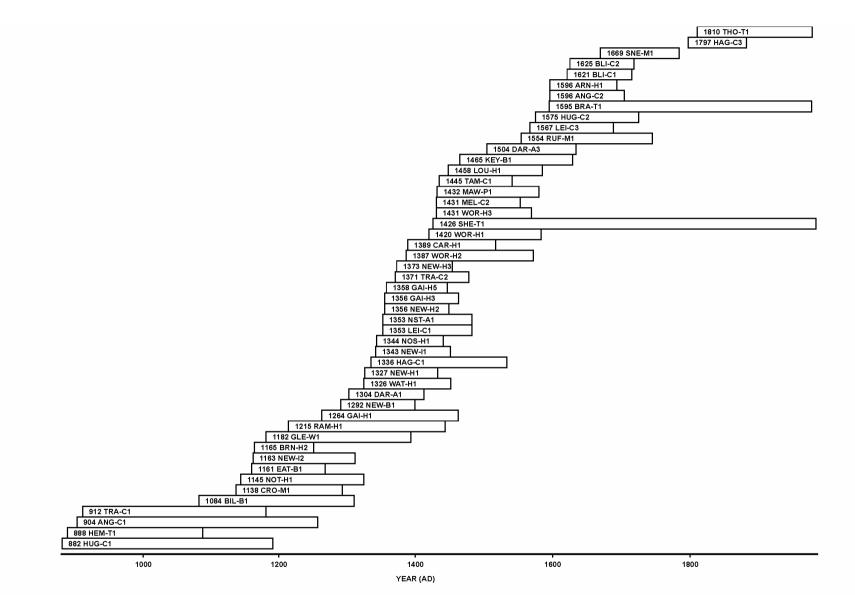


Figure 6: Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87

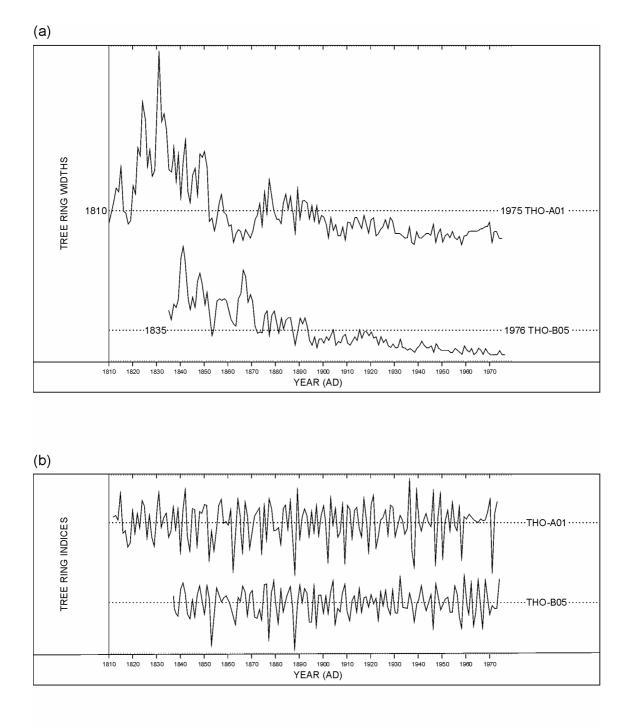


Figure 7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known. Here the ring widths are plotted vertically, one for each year, so that peaks represent wide rings and troughs narrow ones. Notice the growth-trends in each; on average the earlier rings of the young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

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

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