CHURCH OF ST NICHOLAS, CHURCH ROAD, POTTER HEIGHAM, NORFOLK

TREE-RING ANALYSIS OF TIMBERS

SCIENTIFIC DATING REPORT

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard



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SUMMARY

Fourteen samples taken from the timbers of the nave roof were analysed along with the re-analysis of 12 samples previously taken from the north aisle roof. This resulted in the construction of five site sequences, of which four were dated. Thus, eight of the north aisle samples have been dated, with interpretation of the sapwood suggesting felling of these timbers in AD 1533–58, and eleven nave samples have been dated indicating that these timbers were felled in AD 1485–1509.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold and Robert Howard

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Laboratory would like to thank Richard Bannister, lead contractor on site, for facilitating access and for all his assistance during sampling. Thanks are also given to Cathy Tyers and Shahina Farid of the English Heritage Scientific Dating Team for their advice and assistance throughout the production of this report. Figures were provided by Nicholas Warns Architect Limited.

ARCHIVE LOCATION

Norfolk Historic Environment Record Union House Gressenhall Dereham Norfolk NR20 4DR

DATE OF INVESTIGATION

2012/13

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INTRODUCTION

The Grade I listed parish church of St Nicholas, located in Potter Heigham, Norfolk (Figs 1–3), is believed to have its origins in the twelfth century. Remnants of this early church are thought to be the west tower and chancel, although both were re-modelled in the fifteenth century. The nave and aisles are believed to date to the thirteenth century but bequests dating from AD 1479 to AD 1535 had suggested modifications to these areas, including re-roofing, in *c* AD 1500. Previous dendrochronological analysis of the timbers of the north aisle had demonstrated the use of timber felled in AD 1533–58, slightly later than expected (Arnold and Howard 2007).

North aisle

The roof over the north (and south) aisle consists of nine principal-rafter trusses, with alternating trusses having arch braces, springing from posts. The principal rafters have roll moulding decoration, as do the braces, wall posts, and plates. There is a single tier of purlins running between the trusses (Fig 4).

Nave

The roof over the nave is of hammer-beam type with wooden wall posts rising from stone corbels. The hammer beams and principal rafters are supported by arch braces. All timbers are moulded and decorated and the spandrels between the braces filled with tracery. There are two tiers of butt purlins and a ridge piece with bosses (Fig 5).

SAMPLING

Following on from the grant-aided repair work undertaken on the north-aisle roof in 2006, further grant-aid was forthcoming for repairs to the nave roof. Ian Harper (English Heritage, Heritage at Risk Architect/Surveyor) requested dendrochronological sampling to be undertaken to ascertain whether the nave roof is of a similar date to the north aisle roof and also determine whether the provision of additional data from the site allowed any of the undated samples from the north aisle to be dated.

A total of 17 timbers from the nave roof was sampled by coring. Each sample was given the code PTH-A and numbered 13–29, following on from the north aisle samples (PTH-A01–12). The location of samples from both the north aisle and nave roofs was noted at the time of sampling and has been marked on Figures 6–18. Further details relating to the samples can be found in Table 1.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Three of the nave-roof samples had too few rings for secure dating and so were discarded prior to measurement. The remaining 14 samples were prepared by sanding and polishing and their growth-ring widths measured; the data of these measurements from these, and the north aisle roof sample, are given at the end of the report. These newly measured samples and those taken from the north aisle were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping programme (see Appendix), resulting in 21 samples matching to form five groups.

Firstly, three of the north-aisle samples, all from braces, matched each other and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form PTHASQ01, a site sequence of 124 rings (Fig 19). This site sequence was compared against a series of relevant reference chronologies for oak where it was found to span the period AD 1356–1479. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 2.

Three other north-aisle samples, from an aisle plate and two common rafters, grouped to form PTHASQ02, a site sequence of 65 rings (Fig 20). This was dated to spanning the period AD 1456–1520 (Table 3).

Two north-aisle samples, representing an aisle plate and a wall post, matched each other and were combined to form PTHASQ03, a site sequence of 92 rings (Fig 21). This was found to match consistently and securely at a first-ring date of AD 1425 and a last-measured ring date of AD 1516 (Table 4).

A fourth site sequence of 66 rings, PTHASQ04 (Fig 22), contains two samples representing a principal rafter and a common rafter, but attempts to date this site sequence were unsuccessful and it remains undated.

Finally, 11 of the samples from the nave matched each other and were combined at the relevant offset positions to form PTHASQ05, a site sequence of 132 rings (Fig 23). This site sequence was compared against the reference chronologies where it was found to match securely and consistently at a first-ring date of AD 1353 and a last-measured ring date of AD 1484. The evidence for this dating is given by the *t*-values in Table 5.

The remaining five ungrouped samples were then compared individually against the reference chronologies but no secure matches were found and all remain undated.

INTERPRETATION

Felling date ranges have been calculated using the estimate that mature oak trees in this region have 15–40 sapwood rings.

North aisle

Tree-ring dating has resulted in the successful dating of eight of the north-aisle samples, four of which have similar heartwood/sapwood boundary ring dates (Fig 24). The average of these is AD 1518, allowing an estimated felling date to be calculated for the four timbers represented to within the range AD 1533–58. Four of the dated samples do not have the heartwood/sapwood boundary, however it is thought likely that these were also felled in AD 1533–58. This is despite the fact that three of them, PTH-A03, PTH-A04, and PTH-A08, all taken from curved braces, have first and last-measured ring dates somewhat earlier than those of the other five dated samples (Table 1; Fig 24). This may be due to the way in which these three braces were cut from the original timber, with all three probably being cut from near the middle of the same tree (*t*-values as high as 12.0 and 10.6 being found between these samples), whilst the other beams have been cut from the outer portions of their respective trees.

Nave

Eleven of these samples have been dated, nine of which have the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring. Although there is some variation in these heartwood/sapwood boundary ring dates (from AD 1459 to AD 1481) these are broadly contemporary and likely to indicate a single-felling programme. The average heartwood/sapwood boundary ring date is AD 1469, allowing an estimated felling date to be calculated for the timbers represented within the range AD 1485–1509, taking into account the date of the outermost measured ring of sample PTH-A26. The other two nave samples without the heartwood/sapwood boundary ring have last-measured heartwood dates in the first half of the fifteenth century making it possible they were also felled in AD 1485–1509 which, from the overall level of cross-matching within this group of timbers, seems likely.

DISCUSSION

Prior to tree-ring dating being undertaken, the documentary evidence relating to a series of bequests received between AD 1479 and AD 1535 had been taken to relate to works including re-roofing of the nave and the aisles.

The timbers of the nave are now known to have been felled in AD 1485–1509, with construction likely to have occurred soon after, and thus the re-roofing of the nave does appear to relate to the bequests made. The timbers from the north aisle roof, however,

were felled, and utilised sometime later, in AD 1533–58, perhaps having to await sufficient funding to become available.

It had been hoped that analysing samples from the two areas would aid the dating of the four undated north-aisle samples and that there might be some matching between timbers used in the two areas. However, this has not occurred, with timbers from each area only matching with others of the same area, despite there being some overlap in date. It may be that a different source for the timber was used for the nave and the north aisle, which might account for the lack of matching. However, this is not obvious when looking at which reference chronologies match each site sequence most highly, with all seemingly to be relatively close (Tables 2–5).

The intra-site matching of samples from the nave is very good, pointing to all timber utilised being taken from a single source whereas the samples taken from the north aisle have grouped into four distinct site sequences suggesting a somewhat more disparate source of timber being used. However, it should be noted that the overlap in date between site sequence PTHASQ01, thought to represent timbers cut from the middle of a tree, and site sequence PTHASQ02 is only 20 years which would not be long enough to cross-match. There is some evidence for a tree being utilised to produce more than one timber within the north-aisle roof. The three braces represented by samples PTH-A03, PTH-A04, and PTH-A08 mentioned above and also samples PTH-A06 and PTH-A07, both taken from aisle plates, match each other at the extremely high value of *t*=17.

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TABLES

Table 1: Details of samples from the Church of St Nicholas, Potter Heigham, Norfolk

Sample	Sample location	Total rings*	Sapwood rings**	First measured ring	Last heartwood ring	Last measured ring
number				date (AD)	date (AD)	date (AD)
North aisle r	oof					
PTH-A01	North aisle plate bay A	64	h/s	1456	1519	1519
PTH-A02	Common rafter 5, bay A	54	h/s	1467	1520	1520
PTH-A03	South brace, truss 3	120		1360		1479
PTH-A04	South brace, truss 5	119		1356		1474
PTH-A05	Common rafter 4, bay D	56		1459		1514
PTH-A06	North aisle plate, bay F	90	h/s	1426	1515	1515
PTH-A07	North wall post, truss 7	92	h/s	1425	1516	1516
PTH-A08	North brace, truss 7	92		1372		1463
PTH-A09	South brace, truss 7	55				
PTH-A10	North aisle plate, bay G	56				
PTH-A11	Principal rafter, truss 8	62	h/s			
PTH-A12	Common rafter 3, bay H	63				
Nave roof		•	•	•	•	•
PTH-A13	North lower archbrace, truss A	NM				
PTH-A14	North principal rafter, truss AB	NM				
PTH-A15	North hammerbeam, truss AB	73		1362		1434
PTH-A16	North common rafter 3, bay B	78	h/s	1400	1477	1477
PTH-A17	South principal rafter, truss BC	86	h/s	1389	1474	1474
PTH-A18	North principal rafter, truss BC	102	h/s	1360	1461	1461
PTH-A19	South lower archbrace, truss BC	98	h/s	1374	1471	1471
PTH-A20	North lower archbrace, truss CD	79	h/s	1403	1481	1481
PTH-A21	Ridge, bay D	72	h/s	1402	1473	1473
PTH-A22	North lower archbrace, truss DE	61				
PTH-A23	South principal rafter, truss DE	107	h/s	1364	1470	1470
PTH-A24	South upper purlin, bay E	NM				

Table 1: (cont)

PTH-A25	Ridge, bay E	107	h/s	1353	1459	1459
PTH-A26	South hammerbeam, truss EF	121	25	1364	1459	1484
PTH-A27	North hammerbeam, truss EF	84	h/s			
PTH-A28	South lower archbrace, truss FG	66		1368		1433
PTH-A29	South hammerbeam, truss FG	59	h/s			

^{*}NM = not measured
**h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary is the last-measured ring

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence PTHASQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1356 and the last-measured ring date is AD 1479

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
East Anglia	7.7	AD 406-2001	Tyers pers comm 2004
Church House, Edenbridge, Kent	6.6	AD 1377-1538	Howard et al 2000a
Lawns Farm, Great Leighs, Essex	6.3	AD 1377-1536	Miles et al 2004
Chicksands Priory, Bedfordshire	6.1	AD 1175–1541	Howard et al 1998
Sutton House, Hackney, London	5.6	AD 1319–1534	Tyers 1991
Thaxted Church, Essex	5.2	AD1345-1526	Tyers 1990
Ashpools, Chapel Lane, Northall, Buckinghamshire	5.1	AD 1260–1466	Howard et al 1990 unpubl

Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence PTHASQ02 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1456 and the last-measured ring date is AD 1520

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
East Anglia	5.8	AD 406-2001	Tyers pers comm 2004
Post Mill, Drinkstone, Suffolk	8.4	AD 1464–1586	Bridge 2001a
Chiddingly Place, East Sussex	6.1	AD 1324–1576	Arnold and Litton 2003
Otley Hall, Suffolk	6.0	AD 1380-1555	Tyers 2000
Lacock Abbey, Wiltshire	5.6	AD 1395–1546	Esling et al 1990
Priory Barn, Little Wymondley, Hertfordshire	5.3	AD 1450-1540	Bridge 2001b
Fiddleford Manor, Sturminster Newton, Dorset	5.3	AD 1433–1553	Bridge 2003

Table 4: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence PTHASQ03 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1425 and the last-measured ring date is AD 1516

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
East Anglia	5.9	AD 406-2001	Tyers pers comm 2004
Abbas Hall, Great Cornard, Suffolk	6.6	AD 1421–1548	Bridge 2000
Thames foreshore, Richmond, London	5.3	AD 1358–1584	Hillam 1997
St Mary's Church, Strethall, Essex	5.1	AD 1347–1511	Bridge 2004
All Saints Church, Little Totham, Essex	5.0	AD 1380-1517	Tyers 1996
Manningtree, Essex	5.0	AD 1384-1534	Loader pers comm 1996
White Colne, Essex	5.0	AD 1439–1516	Tyers pers comm 2002

Table 5: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence PTHASQ05 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1353 and the last-measured ring date is AD 1484

Reference chronology	t-value	Span of chronology	Reference
East Anglia	5.3	AD 406-2001	Tyers pers comm 2004
Marriots warehouse, Kings Lynn, Norfolk	7.8	AD 1310-1583	Tyers 1999
Ayscoffee Hall, Spalding, Lincolnshire	6.7	AD 1343-1452	Howard 2004 unpubl
Abbey Farm Barns, Thetford, Norfolk	6.4	AD 1332-1536	Howard et al 2000b
Gainsborough Old Hall, Lincolnshire	5.8	AD 1264-1462	Howard et al 1988
Bellframe, Cranfield, Bedfordshire	5.5	AD 1342-1469	Bridge 1998
9–11 East Street, Crowland, Lincolnshire	5.5	AD 1345-1444	Arnold et al 2008

FIGURES



Figure 1: Map to show the location of Potter Heigham, circled. © Crown Copyright and database right 2013. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900.

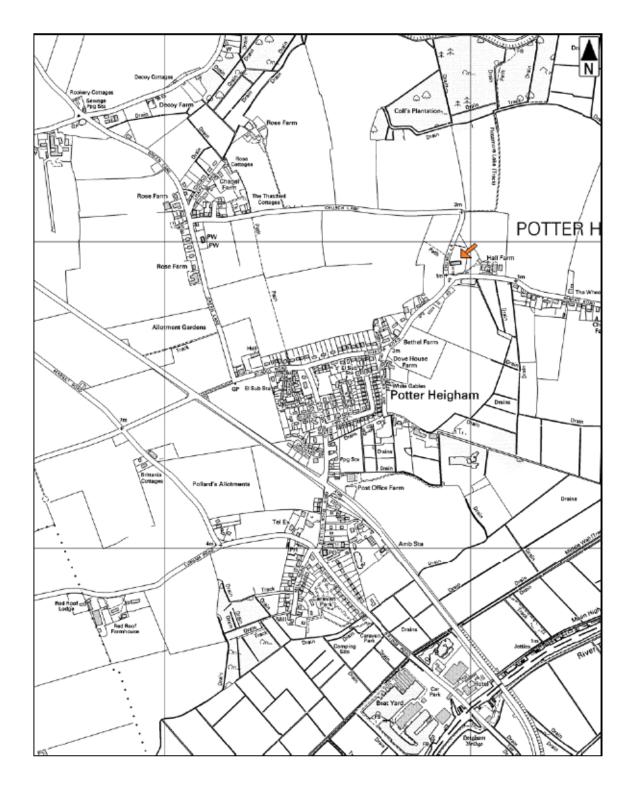


Figure 2: Map to show the general location of St Nicholas Church, arrowed. © Crown Copyright and database right 2013. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900

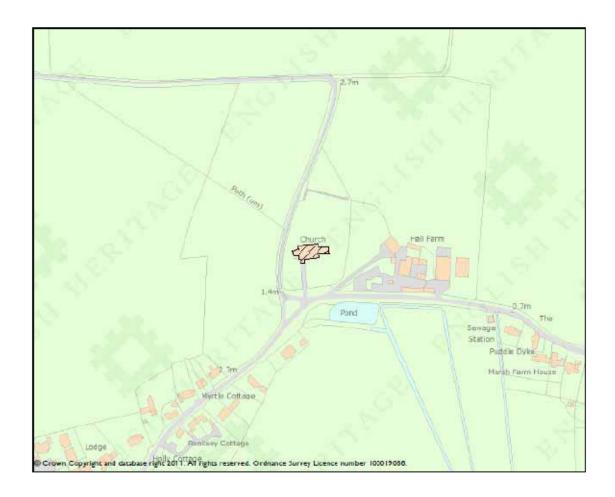


Figure 3: Map to show the location of the Church of St Nicholas, hashed. © Crown Copyright and database right 2013. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900.



Figure 4: North aisle roof, photograph taken looking east (Robert Howard)



Figure 5: Nave roof, photograph taken looking west (Robert Howard)

Figure 6: North aisle, section (internal elevation looking north), showing the location of samples PTH-A01–02, PTH-A05–06, PTH-A10 and PTH-A12 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

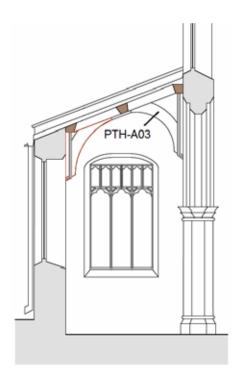


Figure 7: North aisle, truss 3, showing the location of sample PTH-A03 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

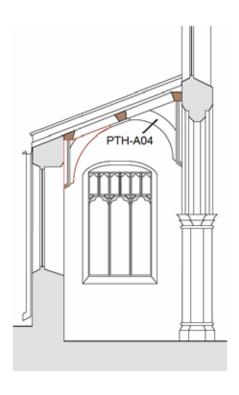


Figure 8: North aisle, truss 5, showing the location of sample PTH-A04 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

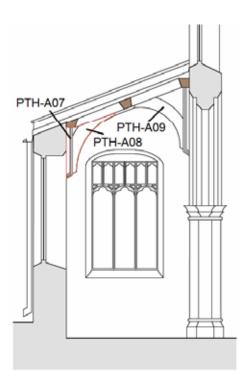


Figure 9: North aisle, truss 7, showing the location of samples PTH-A07–09 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

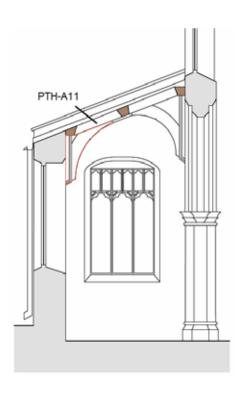


Figure 10: North aisle, truss 8, showing the location of sample PTH-A11 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

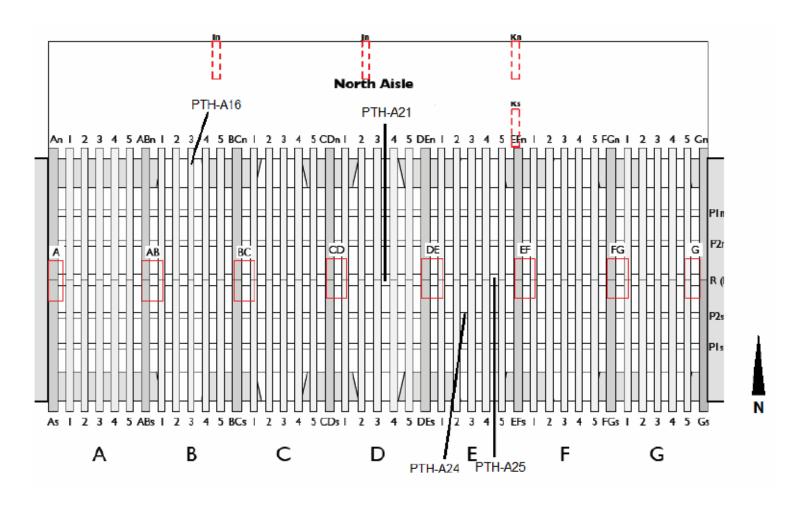


Figure 11: Nave, plan, showing the location of samples PTH-A16, PTH-A21, and PTH-A24-5 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

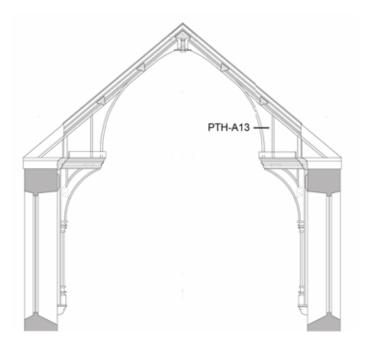


Figure 12: Nave, truss A, showing the location of sample PTH-A13 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

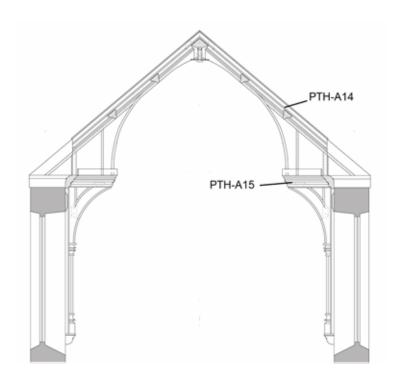


Figure 13: Nave roof, truss AB, showing the location of samples PTH-A14 and PTH-A15 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

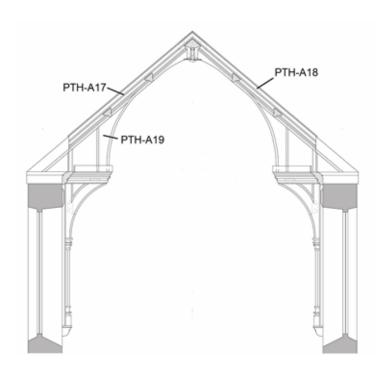


Figure 14: Nave roof, truss BC, showing the location of samples PTH-A17–19 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

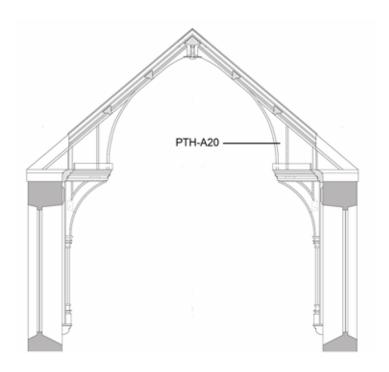


Figure 15: Nave roof, truss CD, showing the location of sample PTH-A20 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

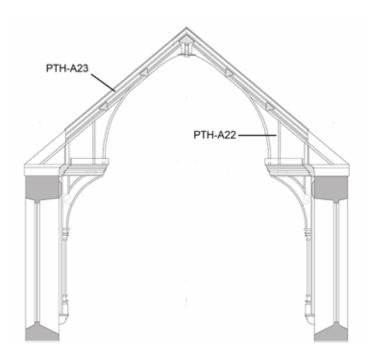


Figure 16: Nave roof, truss DE, showing the location of samples PTH-A22 and PTH-A23 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

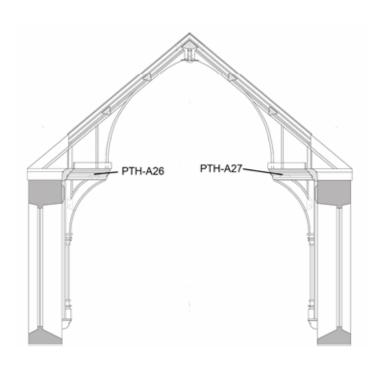


Figure 17: Nave roof, truss EF, showing the location of samples PTH-A26 and PTH-A27 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

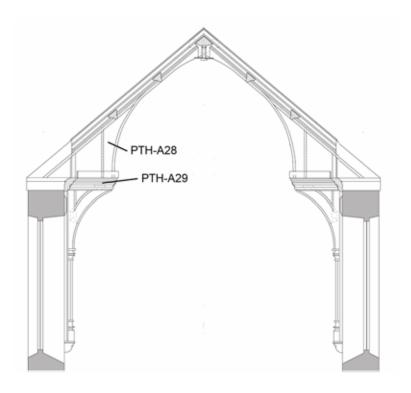


Figure 18: Nave, truss FG, showing the location of samples PTH-A28 and PTH-A29 (Nicholas Warns Architects Limited)

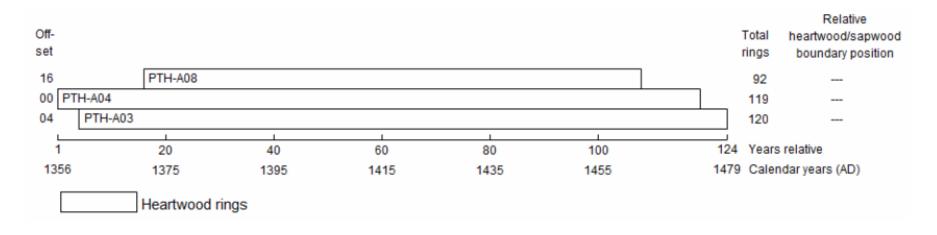


Figure 19: Bar diagram of samples in site sequence PTHASQ01



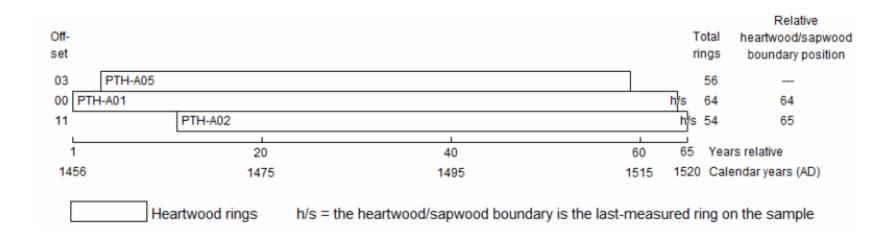


Figure 20: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence PTHASQ02



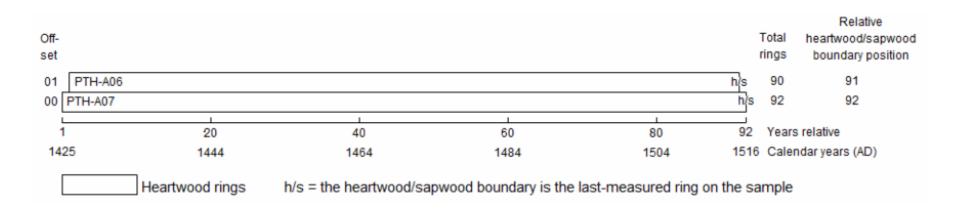


Figure 21: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence PTHASQ03

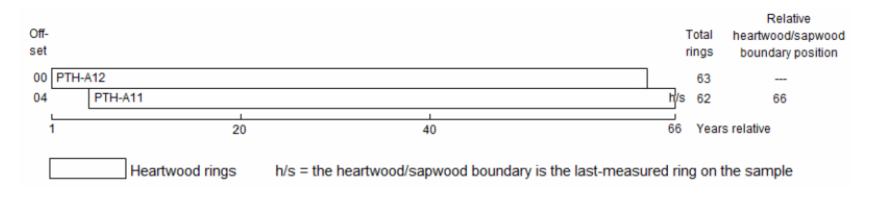


Figure 22: Bar diagram of samples in undated site sequence PTHASQ04

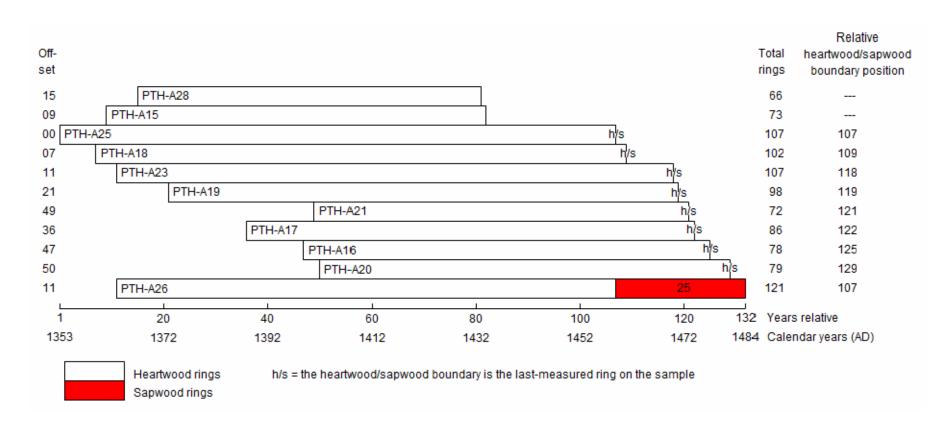


Figure 23: Bar diagram of samples in site sequence PTHASQ05

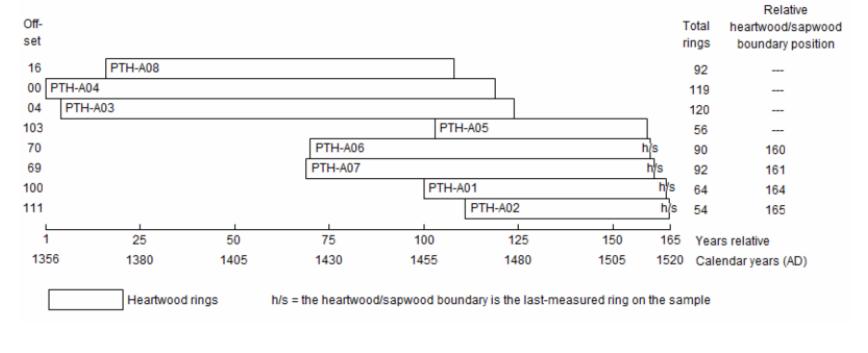


Figure 24: Bar diagram of all dated north aisle samples

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

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PTH-A01A 64
196 182 199 226 174 98 246 297 263 350 436 366 267 359 418 284 384 333 322 327
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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 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 randomlike, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure A1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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



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

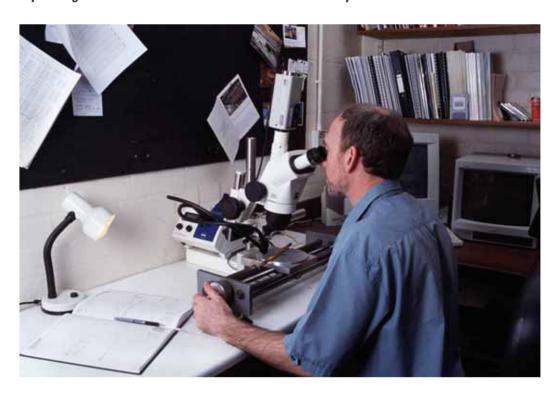


Figure A3: Measuring ring widths under a microscope. The microscope is fixed while the sample is on a moving platform. The total sequence of widths is measured twice to ensure that an error has not been made. This type of apparatus is needed to process a large number of samples on a regular basis



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

- 2. Measuring Ring Widths. Each core is sanded down with a belt sander using medium-grit paper and then finished by hand with flourgrade-grit paper. The rings are then clearly visible and differentiated from each other with a result very much like that shown in Figure A2. The core is then mounted on a movable table below a microscope and the ring-widths measured individually from the innermost ring to the outermost. The widths are automatically recorded in a computer file as they are measured (see Fig A3).
- 3. Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the local climate which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig A4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the t-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum t-value among the t-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a t-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et al 1988; Howard et al 1984-1995).

This is illustrated in Figure A5 with timbers from one of the roofs of Lincoln Cathedral. Here four sequences of ring widths, LIN-C04, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the bar diagram, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of C08 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual t-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the t-value between C45 and C08 is 5.6 and is the maximum found between these two among all the positions of one sequence relative to the other.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Master Chronological Sequences. Ultimately, to date a sequence of ring widths, or 6. a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to crossmatch it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In Figure A6 such a sequence is SHE-T, which came from a tree in Sherwood Forest which was blown down in a recent gale. After this other sequences which cross-match with it are added and gradually the sequence is 'pushed back in time' as far as the age of samples will allow. This process is illustrated in Figure A6. We have a master chronological seguence 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 Figure A7. Here ring-widths are plotted vertically, one for each year of growth. In the upper sequence of (a), the generally large early growth after 1810 is very apparent as is the smaller later growth from about 1900 onwards when the tree is maturing. A similar phenomenon can be observed in the lower sequence of (a) starting in 1835. In both the widths are also changing rapidly from year to year. The peaks are the wide rings and the troughs are the narrow rings corresponding to good and poor growing seasons, respectively. The two corresponding sequence of Baillie-Pilcher indices are plotted in (b) where the differences in the immature and mature growths have been removed and only the rapidly changing peaks and troughs remain, that are associated with the common climatic signal. This makes cross-matching easier.



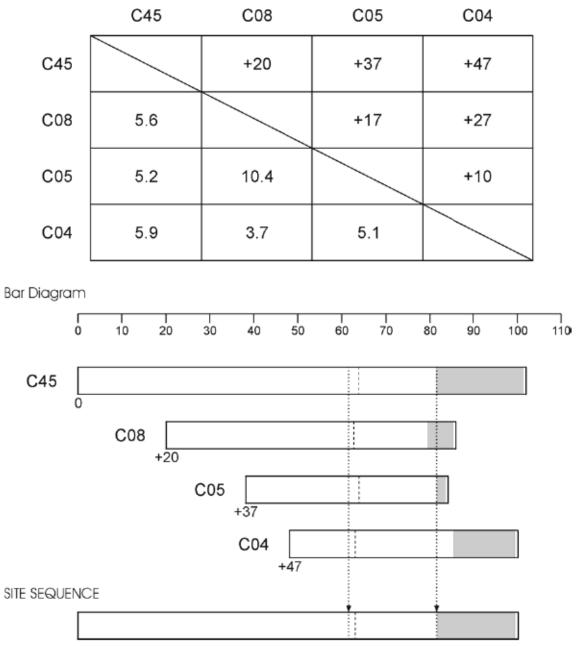


Figure A5: Cross-matching of four sequences from a Lincoln Cathedral roof and the formation of a site sequence from them

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.

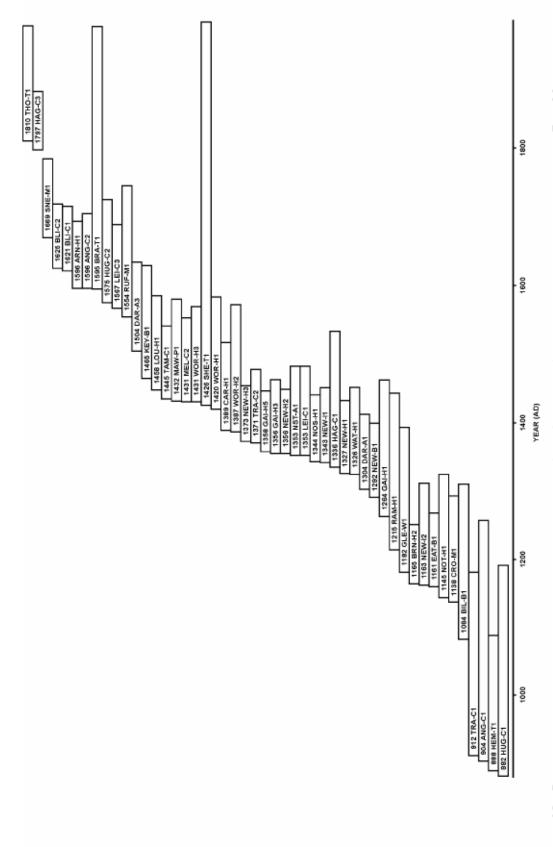
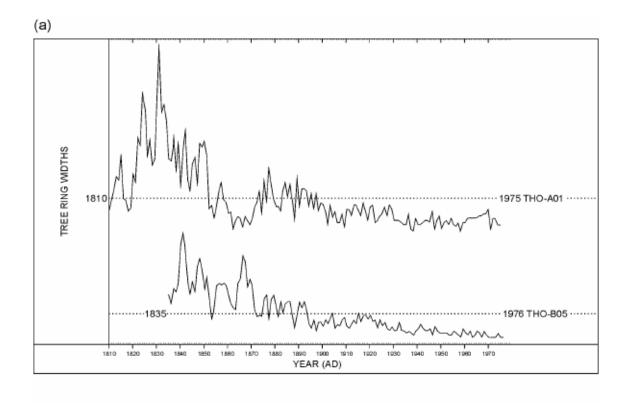


Figure 46: Bar diagram showing the relative positions and dates of the first rings of the component site sequences in the East Midlands Master Dendrochronological Sequence, EM08/87



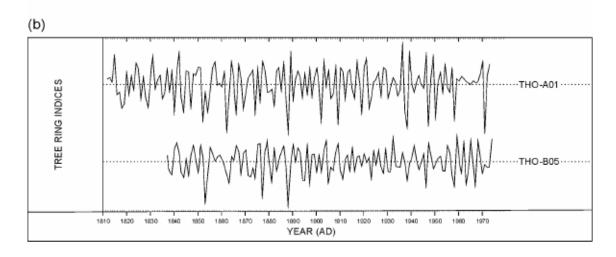


Figure A7 (a): The raw ring-widths of two samples, THO-A01 and THO-B05, whose felling dates are known

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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