

Scientific Dating

Tabley Old Hall, Chester Road, Nether Tabley, Knutsford, Chester

Tree-ring Analysis of Oak Timbers

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard, and Cathy Tyers



Research Report Series no. 15-2018

Front Cover: Tabley Old Hall with fallen, decayed, and entangled timbers. Photo: Robert Howard

TABLEY OLD HALL CHESTER ROAD NETHER TABLEY KNUTSFORD CHESHIRE

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SUMMARY

Dendrochronological analysis was undertaken on 18 of the 20 samples obtained from timbers associated with the now abandoned and derelict Tabley Old Hall. This analysis produced four site chronologies, TABHSQ01–TABHSQ04, accounting for 11 samples. Only the first site chronology, comprising samples from three timbers, could be dated, its 158 rings spanning AD 1179–1336. Interpretation of the sapwood gives these timbers an estimated felling date range of AD 1351–76. The three other site chronologies are undated. Two other samples were dated individually, TAB-H01 having an estimated felling date in the range AD 1667–92, whilst TAB-H12 has a felled after date of AD 1643. The five remaining measured samples are undated.

CONTRIBUTORS

Alison Arnold, Robert Howard, and Cathy Tyers

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INTRODUCTION

The ruinous remains of Tabley Old Hall are Grade II* listed and are part of the scheduled moated site and gatehouse on the Heritage at Risk register. The remains are located on an island, formerly a peninsula protruding into Tabley Mere, in the parish of Tabley Inferior, approximately 3.5km west-southwest of Knutsford (Figs 1a–c).

The following information is based on the National Heritage List for England (List Entry Numbers 1012354 and 1139011), Hartwell *et al* (2011) and supplemented by information from the investigation by the Historic England Historic Places Investigation team (Rimmer, Taylor and Went 2017).

Tabley Old Hall (Figs 2a/b) was thought to have been built *c* AD 1380 by John Leycester (Leicester), although the estate of Nether Tabley was acquired by the Leycester family in the thirteenth century. Tabley Old Hall originally comprised a timber-framed hall with screens passage and service wing. It was subsequently extended in the sixteenth century, probably by Adam de Leycester, with further alterations being made in the latter half of the seventeenth century, giving the house an E-shaped façade, probably by Sir Peter Leycester. The chapel is thought to be associated with Sir Peter Leycester, whilst the tower was added in the eighteenth century. Further alterations were undertaken during the nineteenth century but the early twentieth century saw the house begin to deteriorate due to severe subsidence resulting from brine extraction beneath the Cheshire plain. The house was abandoned in the 1920s and has further deteriorated to a state of collapse with only parts of the shell of the building still standing (Figs 3a/b).

SAMPLING

A dendrochronological survey was requested by Simon Taylor as part of the investigation of Tabley Old Hall by the Historic England Historic Places Investigation Team aimed at enhancing understanding and hence informing significance and future management of the site. It was hoped that the dendrochronological survey would provide independent dating evidence in relation to the potential late-fourteenth century timber framed structure embedded within the shell of the ruinous seventeenth century structure, as well as for subsequent phases of the development of the building.

The timbers were mostly long-since fallen, possibly moved from their original location, and covered by substantial quantities of building debris, masses of wild undergrowth, and shrubbery. Given the length of time these timbers have lain here, many of them were badly decayed and in some cases completely rotted. However, despite the state of collapse of the building, there were still a few timbers that survived *in situ*, or in some cases, partially so.

The dendrochronological assessment identified that there were timbers suitable for analysis. However, given the decayed nature of the *ex situ* timbers, sampling was only possible by the removal of a complete cross-sectional slice using a chainsaw. Eighteen timbers were sampled in this way. Two *in situ* timbers, deemed safely accessible, were also sampled but these were cored, as is more usual for *in situ* timbers in historic buildings. Each sample was given the code TAB-H and numbered 01–20 (Table 1). The exact original location of the *ex situ* timbers timbers is completely unknown, and in most cases, their actual function can only be surmised. The timbers were photographed as they were sampled, these being shown here as Figures 4a–d.

ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Each of the 20 samples thus obtained was prepared by sanding and polishing. It was seen at this time that two, TAB-H06 and TAB-H20, had less than the 40 rings deemed necessary for reliable dating here and were therefore, rejected from this programme of analysis. The annual growth ring widths of the remaining 18 samples were, however, measured, this data being given at the end of this report. The 18 measured series were then compared with each other by the Litton/Zainodin grouping procedure (see Appendix), this comparative process resulting in the identification of four groups of cross-matching samples.

Site chronology TABHSQ01

The first group comprises three samples, TAB-H09, TAB-H13, and TAB-H14, these cross-matching with each other as shown in Figure 5a. These three cross-matching samples were combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology TABHSQ01, this having an overall length of 158 rings. Site chronology TABHSQ01 was then compared to an extensive corpus of reference chronologies for oak, this indicating a consistent and repeated match when the date of its first ring is AD 1179 and the date of its last measured ring is AD 1336 (Table 2).

These three samples are clearly broadly coeval but the heartwood/sapwood boundary is found on only one sample (TAB-H13). This heartwood/sapwood boundary is dated AD 1336 which, using the 15-40 (95% confidence interval) ring sapwood estimate, gives the timber represented an estimated felling date range of AD 1351–76. However, the high level of cross-matching between all three samples suggests that these three timbers, two probable tiebeams and one timber of indeterminate function, are coeval.

Site chronology TABHSQ02

The second group also comprises three samples (TAB-H10, TAB-H17, and TAB-H18), representing a timber of indeterminate function and two timbers thought to be either main bridging beams, lintels or joists, these cross-matching with each other as shown in Figure 5b. These three samples were also combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology TABHSQ02, this having an overall length of 100 rings. Site chronology TABHSQ02 was also compared to the reference chronologies for oak, but there was no satisfactory cross-dating. However, despite not dating, it can be said that the three timbers represented, are clearly broadly coeval, with the timbers represented by TAB-H17 and TAB-H18 cross-matching with a *t*-value of 10.3 and probably being derived from a single tree.

Site chronology TABHSQ03

The third group also comprises three samples (TAB-H04, TAB-H07, and TAB-H08), representing a main bridging beam or lintel, a joist or lintel, and a brace or strut, these cross-matching with each other as shown in Figure 5c. These three cross-matching samples were again combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology TABHSQ03, this having an overall length of 86 rings. However, despite again being compared to the reference chronologies there was no satisfactory cross-dating. It is possible that the three timbers represented are coeval, though this is not certain.

Site chronology TABHSQ04

The fourth and final group comprises two samples (TAB-H15 and TAB-H16), representing a brace or strut and a timber of indeterminate function, these crossmatching with each other as shown in Figure 5d. These two samples were also combined at their indicated offset positions to form site chronology TABHSQ04, this having an overall length of 93 rings. Site chronology TABHSQ04 was also compared to the reference chronologies for oak, but again there was no satisfactory cross-matching and dating. The high level of similarity between these two ring series indicates that it is probable that the two timbers represented are coeval.

Individual ungrouped samples

The seven remaining measured but ungrouped samples were compared with the four site chronologies created, TABHSQ01–TABHSQ04, but there was no further satisfactory cross-matching. Each of these ungrouped samples was then compared individually with the full corpus of oak reference data. This indicated consistent and repeated matches for two of these samples. The 99 rings of sample TAB-H01, probably representing a bridging beam or a tiebeam, span the years AD 1554–1652

(Table 3), whilst the 65 rings of sample TAB-H12, probably representing a tiebeam, span the years AD 1564–1628 (Table 4).

These two dated timbers are clearly broadly coeval but the low level of similarity between the two ring series suggests the possibility that they may have been derived from different woodland sources and hence could potentially represent two different periods of felling activity. Sample TAB-H01 has an estimated felling date range of AD 1667–92, whilst TAB-H12 has a *terminus post quem* for felling of AD 1643.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Tree-ring analysis at Tabley Old Hall has successfully dated five of the 18 timbers which were sampled and measured (Fig 6). The three timbers felled in the range AD 1351–76 appear likely to be associated with the primary construction of Tabley Old Hall and may suggest, albeit based on only limited evidence, that this original construction phase could have been slightly earlier than the *c* AD 1380 usually ascribed. Alternatively it is possible that the trees utilised had more sapwood rings than usual or that they were felled and stored for a short period prior to be used in the construction of original building. Two other timbers appear likely to have been felled in the latter half of the seventeenth century and were probably associated with the period of major construction activity at that time.

In some programmes of tree-ring analysis it may be possible to comment in respect of the location of the woodland source for the timbers used in a particular building or phase of construction. In this instance, however, neither the dated site chronology, nor the two individually dated samples, shows a distinct tendency to cross-match with reference chronologies concentrated in any particular locality, though there is a noticeable trend with reference chronologies from other sites in northern and western England (Tables 2, 3, and 4). This, taken with evidence from sites previously examined in the north-west region, suggests that the dated timbers are all likely to have come from relatively local, although potentially disparate, woodland sources.

The disparate nature of these woodland sources is emphasised by the undated material and the variable nature of the cross-matching of the overall assemblage, this latter being a feature noted quite frequently with sites in this general locality. The cross-matching and dating of this assemblage will also have been adversely affected by the presence of periodic bands of very narrow rings in a number of the samples, as opposed to the less sensitive growth patterns seen in the dated samples (Fig 7). These sudden growth suppression events, followed by a period of recovery, mask the general climatic signal required for successful cross-matching and dating. Such growth suppression events may be the result of localised environmental affects or alternatively anthropogenic affects such as woodland management.

Five measured samples (TAB-H02, TAB-H03, TAB-H05, TAB-H11, TAB-H19) remain both ungrouped and undated. While all these samples have sufficient rings for reliable dating purposes (Table 1), several of these (eg TAB-H03) have periodic bands of very narrow rings (Fig 8) which, as indicated above, will hamper successful analysis, whilst TAB-H11 by contrast is unusual within this assemblage of material in having much wider rings and a far more complacent growth pattern (Fig 8). It is also possible, but unproven, that these ungrouped and undated samples may represent different periods of building activity. It should however be noted that it is very common in most programmes of tree-ring analysis to find that some samples remain ungrouped and undated, often for no apparent reason.

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	5 5 1 5 5	/	/	5/	5 /	
Sample	Sample location	Total rings	Sapwood	First measured	Last heartwood	Last measured
number			rings	ring date AD	ring date AD	ring date AD
TAB-H01	Main bridging beam or possibly tiebeam	99	h/s	1554	1652	1652
TAB-H02	Main joist	58	h/s			
TAB-H03	Lintel	73	no h/s			
TAB-H04	Main bridging beam or lintel	75	h/s			
TAB-H05	Lintel	167	h/s			
TAB-H06	Tiebeam	nm				
TAB-H07	Joist or lintel	76	h/s			
TAB-H08	Brace/strut	80	h/s			
TAB-H09	Tiebeam	119	no h/s	1179		1297
TAB-H10	Indeterminate	96	no h/s			
TAB-H11	Main beam	74	no h/s			
TAB-H12	Tiebeam	65	no h/s	1564		1628
TAB-H13	Indeterminate	118	h/s	1219	1336	1336
TAB-H14	Tiebeam	113	no h/s	1185		1297
TAB-H15	Brace/strut	56	h/s			
TAB-H16	Indeterminate	90	no h/s			
TAB-H17	Main beam/lintel/joist	100	no h/s			
TAB-H18	Main beam/lintel/joist	81	no h/s			
TAB-H19	North (RH) ground floor window lintel	68	h/s			
TAB-H20	Wall beam, wall adjacent to front entrance	nm				

Table 1: Details of tree-ring samples from Tabley Old Hall, Chester Road, Nether Tabley, Knutsford, Cheshire

h/s = the heartwood/sapwood ring is the last ring on the sample nm = not measured

Table 2: Results of the cross-matching of site sequence TABHSQ01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1179 and the last-ring date is AD 1336

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Reference
Baguley Hall, Greater Manchester	AD 1015 – 1390	7.8	(Nayling 2005)
Gatehouse, Kenilworth Castle, Warwickshire	AD 1092 – 1332	7.7	(Arnold and Howard 2007)
Angel Choir, Lincoln Cathedral, Lincoln	AD 904 – 1257	7.6	(Laxton and Litton 1988)
Lancaster Castle, Castle Park, Lancaster	AD 950 – 1404	7.6	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2016)
Manor House, West Bromwich, West Midlands	AD 1107 – 1269	7.2	(Arnold and Howard 2009)
Second Wood Street, Nantwich, Cheshire	AD 932 – 1506	6.6	(Tyers 2005)
Lamb Hotel, Nantwich, Cheshire	AD 941 – 1276	6.2	(Tyers 2004)
Old Hall, Bewsey, nr Warrington, Lancashire	AD 1117 – 1362	5.8	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1990 unpubl)

Table 3: Results of the cross-matching of sample TAB-H01 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1554 and the last-ring date is AD 1652

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Reference
Cromford Bridge House, Cromford, Derbyshire	AD 1550 – 1662	8.6	(Arnold and Howard 2007 unpubl)
Tonge Hall, Rochdale, Lancashire	AD 1449 – 1687	7.4	(Arnold and Howard 2014a)
Hulme Hall, Allostock, Cheshire	AD 1574 – 1689	6.2	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2003)
Rushall Hall Barn, Rushall, Walsall, West Midlands	AD 1510 – 1672	6.2	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2000 unpubl)
Cheddleton Grange, Cheddleton, Staffordshire	AD 1551 – 1682	5.7	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2008)
Staircase House, Stockport, Greater Manchester	AD 1489 – 1656	5.5	(Howard <i>et al</i> 2003)
Sinai House, Burton on Trent, Staffordshire	AD 1555 – 1665	5.5	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1999)
Church of St Mary, Stockport, Greater Manchester	AD 1510 – 1623	5.3	(Arnold and Howard 2014b)

Table 4: Results of the cross-matching of sample TAB-H12 and relevant reference chronologies when the first-ring date is AD 1564 and the last-ring date is AD 1628

Reference chronology	Span of chronology	<i>t</i> -value	Reference
St Andrew's Church, Owston, Leicestershire	AD 1485 – 1611	5.9	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1998)
Main Guard, Pontefract Castle, West Yorkshire	AD 1507 – 1656	5.7	(Arnold and Howard 2005)
Upwich, Droitwich, Worcestershire	AD 1454 – 1651	5.6	(Groves and Hillam 1997)
Sinai House, Burton on Trent, Staffordshire	AD 1555 – 1665	5.4	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1999)
Astley Castle, Warwickshire	AD 1495 – 1627	5.3	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1997)
5 Church Street, Newark, Nottinghamshire	AD 1403 – 1655	5.2	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2002)
Yews Farmhouse, Styrrup, Nottinghamshire	AD 1548 – 1656	5.1	(Arnold <i>et al</i> 2001)
Moor Farm Cottage, Shardlow, Derbyshire	AD 1437 – 1616	5.1	(Howard <i>et al</i> 1994)

FIGURES



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



Figure 1b: Map to show the general location of Tabley Old Hall, Nether Tabley, Knutsford, Cheshire (red ellipse). © Crown Copyright and database right 2018. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 1c: Map to show the detailed location of Tabley Old Hall, Nether Tabley, Knutsford, Cheshire (red ellipse). © Crown Copyright and database right 2018. All rights reserved. Ordnance Survey Licence number 100024900



Figure 2a: External view of Tabley Old Hall as it once was (© The Tabley House Collection, University of Manchester)



Figure 2b: Internal view of Tabley Old Hall as it once was (© The Tabley House Collection, University of Manchester)



Figure 3a: View of the building with its fallen, decayed, and entangled timbers as it now appears (photograph Robert Howard)



Figure 3b: Views of the fallen, decayed, and entangled timbers as it they now appear (photograph Robert Howard)



Figure 4a: Annotated photographs to help locate sampled timbers (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 4b: Annotated photographs to help locate sampled timbers (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 4c: Annotated photographs to help locate sampled timbers (photographs Robert Howard)



Figure 4d: Annotated photograph to help locate sampled timber (photograph Robert Howard)



TABHSQ01



TABHSQ02



TABHSQ03



TABHSQ04

Figures 5a - 5d: Bar diagrams of cross-matching samples in site chronologies TABHSQ01 - TABHSQ04

Key: white bars = heartwood rings; h/s = heartwood/sapwood boundary



Figure 6: Bar diagram of all five dated samples showing felling date ranges



Figure 7: The ring width series for the undated sample TAB-H17, which shows three growth suppression events, and the dated sample TAB-H09, which shows no sudden changes in growth rate



Figure 8: The ring width series for the undated and ungrouped sample TAB-H11, which shows the fast rate of growth and relative complacency, and the undated and ungrouped sample TAB-H03 which shows three growth suppression events

DATA OF MEASURED SAMPLES

Measurements in 0.01mm units

TAB-H01A 99

420 438 443 401 393 375 343 370 450 423 427 382 499 541 405 164 139 176 148 101 245 270 384 258 509 426 112 92 114 73 70 76 131 95 117 133 263 259 390 391 375 382 95 78 67 82 82 97 128 120 127 138 83 108 197 206 96 59 46 40 78 102 125 159 122 156 162 142 147 165 212 207 189 109 190

TAB-H09B 119

315 225 285 308 242 196 251 250 334 217 239 391 243 253 228 306 330 300 214 267 $235\ 175\ 232\ 199\ 199\ 206\ 167\ 204\ 193\ 237\ 215\ 235\ 248\ 262\ 260\ 268\ 222\ 248\ 287\ 257$ $283\ 286\ 312\ 200\ 267\ 256\ 225\ 239\ 208\ 209\ 212\ 218\ 162\ 192\ 153\ 184\ 158\ 135\ 217\ 203$ 211 186 132 192 243 233 202 196 251 204 253 195 200 134 171 165 185 157 206 207 300 187 193 240 170 189 236 137 169 252 171 175 190 178 198 192 170 160 217 245 271 222 204 198 180 244 209 200 168 168 218 146 188 215 212 196 201 175 202 **TAB-H10A 96**

286 177 177 256 247 185 200 229 255 187 126 182 164 132 96 62 71 49 48 55

66 51 63 73 60 57 63 59 100 122 133 127 167 120 92 162 115 128 125 171 96 135 173 105 87 83 96 139 150 153 203 174 165 181 145 175 107 187 125 182 92 39 53 71 95 156 239 185 209 207 190 239 145 142 162 142 226 276 110 56 60 46 51 78 82 76 60 106 123 198 96 100 101 117 186 179

TAB-H10B 96

307 166 184 256 242 184 206 221 248 194 135 180 171 128 89 66 66 48 50 62 61 51 60 78 60 57 65 49 107 121 133 133 164 120 94 164 120 136 121 171 99 135 182 100 79 88 99 140 161 171 218 183 158 179 157 159 117 170 132 182 85 40 56 71 95 155 240 187 204 210 196 229 150 141 160 132 229 262 104 65 55 50 51 79 82 73 62 104 120 206 108 87 96 121 197 187

TAB-H11A 74

216 272 241 263 186 203 182 221 225 201 323 235 339 468 384 552 462 368 450 366 360 392 297 365 346 615 451 476 313 376 478 242 278 407 667 370 454 325 540 364 413 324 379 439 412 406 471 451 628 568 556 637 596 389 388 297 353 336 322 378 430 278 271 205 234 198 197 175 184 176 143 175 181 185

TAB-H11B 74 203 269 245 275 183 206 176 214 247 217 321 239 395 461 373 559 446 385 437 389 385 391 275 339 350 592 457 496 298 384 477 237 262 407 648 374 434 341 581 418 418 304 395 456 463 406 485 471 628 568 507 583 591 382 430 367 360 310 350 369 469 295 249 200 230 185 188 187 184 181 129 168 193 188

TAB-H12A 65

256 220 243 217 261 293 303 253 174 232 302 285 237 297 197 187 223 214 202 148 236 175 238 243 225 239 221 175 212 318 401 320 239 234 262 281 226 303 253 264 301 139 243 292 264 199 289 214 240 292 213 253 182 215 287 246 193 187 236 246 135 206 204 247 228

TAB-H12B 65

259 217 224 251 271 274 294 235 187 216 314 289 225 275 192 192 295 185 198 139 205 205 235 234 213 219 230 170 235 296 384 329 273 226 275 259 240 317 251 263 306 153 267 282 272 204 282 212 221 293 217 234 182 234 268 235 225 168 230 248 132 202 216 260 230

TAB-H13A 118

438 551 500 330 314 446 464 562 389 373 254 242 239 229 181 203 195 159 256 256 300 301 220 264 271 336 260 260 240 221 224 242 235 170 192 200 236 250 246 228 275 218 183 326 361 248 236 146 178 314 230 377 256 236 340 281 207 211 256 240 250 257 192 164 161 215 189 185 178 228 217 181 224 243 270 204 156 210 225 228 189 270 324 414 341 401 448 360 275 267 290 317 252 309 221 187 292 309 284 353 281 212 320 279 235 171 270 176 310 212 234 208 190 196 284 264 366 336 TAB-H13B 118

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APPENDIX: TREE-RING DATING

The Principles of Tree-Ring Dating

Tree-ring dating, or dendrochronology as it is known, is discussed in some detail in the Nottingham Tree-ring DatingLaboratory's Monograph, An East Midlands Master Tree-Ring Chronology and its uses for dating Vernacular Buildings (Laxton and Litton 1988) and Dendrochronology: Guidelines on Producing and Interpreting Dendrochronological Dates (English Heritage 1998). Here we will give the bare outlines. Each year an oak tree grows an extra ring on the outside of its trunk and all its branches just inside its bark. The width of this annual ring depends largely on the weather during the growing season, about April to October, and possibly also on the weather during the previous year. Good growing seasons give rise to relatively wide rings, poor ones to very narrow rings and average ones to relatively average ring widths. Since the climate is so variable from year to year, almost random-like, the widths of these rings will also appear random-like in sequence, reflecting the seasons. This is illustrated in Figure A1 where, for example, the widest rings appear at irregular intervals. This is the key to dating by tree rings, or rather, by their widths. Records of the average ring widths for oaks, one for each year for the last 1000 years or more, are available for different areas. These are called master chronologies. Because of the random-like nature of these sequences of widths, there is usually only one position at which a sequence of ring widths from a sample of oak timber with at least 70 rings will match a master. This will date the timber and, in particular, the last ring.

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

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

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.



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).

Cross-Matching and Dating the Samples. Because of the factors besides the 3. local climate which may determine the annual widths of a tree's rings, no two sequences of ring widths from different oaks growing at the same time are exactly alike (Fig A4). Indeed, the sequences may not be exactly alike even when the trees are growing near to each other. Consequently, in the Laboratory we do not attempt to match two sequences of ring widths by eye, or graphically, or by any other subjective method. Instead, it is done objectively (ie statistically) on a computer by a process called cross-matching. The output from the computer tells us the extent of correlation between two sample sequences of widths or, if we are dating, between a sample sequence of widths and the master, at each relative position of one to the other (offsets). The extent of the correlation at an offset is determined by the *t*-value (defined in almost any introductory book on statistics). That offset with the maximum *t*-value among the *t*-values at all the offsets will be the best candidate for dating one sequence relative to the other. If one of these is a master chronology, then this will date the other. Experiments carried out in the past with sequences from oaks of known date suggest that a *t*-value of at least 4.5, and preferably at least 5.0, is usually adequate for the dating to be accepted with reasonable confidence (Laxton and Litton 1988; Laxton et al 1988; Howard et al 1984–1995).

This is illustrated in Figure A5 with timbers from one of the roofs of Lincoln Cathedral. Here four sequences of ring widths, LIN-C04, 05, 08, and 45, have been cross-matched with each other. The ring widths themselves have been omitted in the bar diagram, as is usual, but the offsets at which they best cross-match each other are shown; eg the sequence of ring widths of C08 matches the sequence of ring widths of C45 best when it is at a position starting 20 rings after the first ring of C45, and similarly for the others. The actual t-values between the four at these offsets of best correlations are in the matrix. Thus at the offset of +20 rings, the tvalue 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 6. widths, or a site sequence, we need a master sequence of dated ring widths with which to cross-match it, a Master Chronology. To construct such a sequence we have to start with a sequence of widths whose dates are known and this means beginning with a sequence from an oak tree whose date of felling is known. In Figure A6 such a sequence is SHE-T, which came from a tree in Sherwood Forest which was blown down in a recent gale. After this other sequences which crossmatch with it are added and gradually the sequence is 'pushed back in time' as far as the age of samples will allow. This process is illustrated in Figure A6. We have a master chronological sequence of widths for Nottinghamshire and East Midlands oak for each year from AD 882 to 1981. It is described in great detail in Laxton and Litton (1988), but the components it contains are shown here in the form of a bar diagram. As can be seen, it is well replicated in that for each year in this period there are several sample sequences having widths for that year. The master is the average of these. This master can now be used to date oak from this area and from the surrounding areas where the climate is very similar to that in the East Midlands. The Laboratory has also constructed a master for Kent (Laxton and Litton 1989). The method the Laboratory uses to construct a master sequence, such as the East Midlands and Kent, is completely objective and uses the Litton-Zainodin grouping procedure (Laxton et al 1988). Other laboratories and individuals have constructed masters for other areas and have made them available. As well as these masters, local (dated) site chronologies can be used to date other buildings from nearby. The Laboratory has hundreds of these site sequences from many parts of England and Wales covering many short periods.

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.

t-value/offset Matrix



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

The bar diagram represents these sequences without the rings themselves. The length of the bar is proportional to the number of rings in the sequence. Here the four sequences are set at relative positions (offsets) to each other at which they have maximum correlation as measured by the *t*-values. The *t*-value/offset matrix contains the maximum *t*-values below the diagonal and the offsets above it. Thus, the maximum *t*-value between C08 and C45 occurs at the offset of +20 rings and the *t*-value is then 5.6. The site sequence is composed of the average of the corresponding widths, as illustrated with one width.











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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