

Documentary evidence of urban droughts and their impact in the eastern Netherlands: the cases of Deventer and Zutphen, 1500–1795

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Abstract: Compared to other parts of Europe, very little is known about pre-instrumental drought periods in the Netherlands. Existing reconstructions are based primarily on data from England, France, and Germany, while more local studies on drought and its impact are still absent. This article thus aims to expand our knowledge of droughts in the Netherlands between 1500 and 1795, by focusing specifically on drought in an urban context to provide a more precise and local idea of the impact and severity of drought. The main case studies are cities in the eastern part of the country, Deventer and Zutphen. Both cities lay in relative close proximity to each other and share similar geological and hydrological conditions, as well as extensive archives that can be used to gather documentary data regarding historical drought periods. The three primary aims of the article are: 1) to examine the potential use of documentary data from the city archives of Deventer and Zutphen for historical drought reconstruction; 2) to establish droughts for both cities on the basis of the year, month/season in which they took place, as well as ranking the droughts according to the impact-based Historical Severity Drought Scale (HSDS) and 3) to compare the data from this analysis with that of other indices. In the end, the article strengthens the need to focus on documentary data from local case studies regarding drought, not only to provide more precise local reconstructions of drought-severity compared to regional studies, but also to take into account the long-term effects on urban waterscapes and the provisioning of fresh water.

1. Introduction

In recent years, droughts have become a more pressing topic of research. Worldwide, droughts of varying severity affect societies, whether on an agricultural, hydrological, or on wider socio-economic level, which is expected to increase within the current trends of climatic change (Kchouk et. al., 2021; Savelli et. al., 2022; Spinoni et. al., 2018). The study of past droughts for the pre-instrumental period on the basis of documentary evidence and natural proxies, such as dendroclimatology, has displayed the possibility to reconstruct drought-events and their societal impact in Europe, which has led to the development of several historical drought reconstructions and indices. (Bauch et. al., 2020; Brázdil et. al., 2016/2018/2019/2020; Camenisch et. al., 2020; Garnier, 2019; Kiss, 2017/2020; Leijonhufvud and Retsö, 2021; Piervitali and Colacino, 2001; Pribyl and Cornes, 2020; Stangl and Foelsche, 2022). However, very little to no historical drought data exists for the Netherlands. The limited data available from the voluminous works of Buisman (1995/1996/1998/2000/2006/2015) is based primarily on reconstructions and sources from England, France and Germany, and sporadic sources from across the Netherlands. A recent study by Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020), has emphasised the need to analyse regional

38 and local aspects of droughts by studying geographically limited source samples, such as municipal data from city
39 archives. Compared with other, supra-regional drought indices, this can lead to a more detailed understanding of
40 the extent and severity of certain droughts on a local level, while also providing insights into previously unknown
41 droughts. Even droughts with a larger geographical footprint, such as the infamous 1540 ‘Megadrought’ (Wetter
42 et. al. 2014), can thus demonstrate a greater temporal diversity if more localised data is included in the analysis
43 (Maughan et. al. 2022). As such, the data provided by Buisman cannot suffice to study the local or regional severity
44 and impact of drought for the Netherlands, and, as follows, further research is needed.

45 This article aims to expand our knowledge of pre-instrumental droughts in the Netherlands between 1500 and
46 1795, focusing on two cities in the eastern part of the country – Deventer and Zutphen. Both have rich municipal
47 archives, relatively similar geohydrological, and are located in close proximity to one another. The focus on the
48 eastern Netherlands also has a climatological reason, as a recent study has indicated that the eastern inland parts
49 of the Netherlands could be more prone to future droughts compared to the western coastal regions. While the
50 western parts also receive ample discharge from the rivers Rhine and Meuse, the eastern regions generally depend
51 more on precipitation for drought mitigation, given that their elevation above the level of the two rivers makes it
52 impossible for water to reach these areas without pumping. As such, the possibilities for drought mitigation in the
53 eastern regions are regarded as more limited compared to the west. A comparative analysis has also shown that
54 the differences in precipitation between the east and western parts are accompanied by differences in solar radiation
55 and temperature, which influence potential evapotranspiration. This trend has been visible since the 1950s, and is
56 expected to continue with stronger drying trends in the inland regions due to an increase in temperatures as a result
57 of global warming (Phillip et. al., 2020).

58 The focus on more specific urban contexts also moves away from the focus on agricultural drought, which is
59 dominant in historiography, shifting the emphasis to the wider hydrological and socio-economic impact of drought
60 within a city’s walls. This implies a focus on sources from city archives that describe the specific effects of
61 droughts on urban water provisioning, the accessibility of canals and harbours, and sanitary issues. Common
62 factors to denominate drought severity according to the Palmer Drought Severity Index, or PDSI, such as
63 temperature, precipitation levels and soil-moisture deficits, are not enough to determine the impact of droughts on
64 urban environments. Urbanisation, and other large-scale influences of human actions on the distribution and use
65 of water, have often been ignored in many classical drought indices that focused primarily on precipitation and
66 temperature data (Briffa, Van Der Schrier and Jones, 2009; Savelli et. al., 2022). Many previous studies into past
67 droughts worked in relative isolation, without taking into account the complex interactions between natural and
68 human processes in the hydrological sphere (AghaKouchak et. al., 2021; Van Loon et. al. 2016; Maughan et. al.
69 2022; Mukherjee, Mishra and Trenberth, 2018; Vörösmarty et. al., 2004)). These factors are more present in
70 another index, the Historical Severity Drought Scale (HSDS). This index allows for a reconstruction of droughts
71 based on a systemic inventory of the different hydrological and socio-economic impacts to determine levels of
72 drought severity (Garnier, 2014/2019; Metger and Jacob Rousseau, 2020). Urban documentary data provide more
73 precise local reconstructions of drought-severity, as they describe the variety of responses to droughts, allowing
74 for the creation of indices along the HSDS. As such, urban droughts refer to specific effects of drought on the
75 urban environment, which can be reconstructed with the use of urban archives to provide a the long-term
76 perspective on the effects of droughts on urban water systems. This is primarily relevant given the rising interest

77 in the effects of drought on urban environments for the present as well as the future (Machairas and Van de Ven,
78 2022; Szalinska, Otop and Tokarczyk, 2021).

79 This article has three primary aims: 1) examining the potential use of documentary data from the city archives of
80 Deventer and Zutphen for historical drought reconstruction; 2) to establish droughts for both cities on the basis of
81 the year, month/season in which they took place, as well as ranking the droughts according to the impact-based
82 Historical Drought Severity Scale; and 3) to compare the data from this analysis with that of other indices, such as
83 the Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen temperature series for the Netherlands, the supra-regional drought index
84 (SDI), which comprises data from Switzerland, France, the Netherlands and Germany, (Camenisch and Salvisberg,
85 2020), and the Old World Drought Atlas (OWDA), which provides an overview of dendrochronological drought
86 data on a regional scale (Cook et.al., 2015).

87 The article is divided in six sections. The first provides a detailed overview of the sources used in the reconstruction
88 of drought for Deventer and Zutphen. Section two will present outcomes from the study of these sources, by which
89 the drought years are presented via a chronological HSDS. Section three discusses a specific set of examples from
90 the sources, providing a more detailed analysis of the data and their respective values. Sections four, five, and six
91 compare the data gathered in this study with other indices, followed by a final discussion and conclusion.

92

93 **2. The data**

94 To reconstruct past weather and climatic phenomena, historical climatologists draw from a large amount of
95 documentary sources that provide either direct or indirect (proxy) data about changes in weather or abnormal
96 patterns of precipitation and temperatures (Brázdil et. al., 2010; Pfister, 2018). As for drought reconstructions, the
97 documentary evidence often consists of annals, chronicles, and diaries, in which people recorded daily or
98 extraordinary weather situations, or more institutional sources, such as tax and harvest records, and religious data
99 with regard to rogation ceremonies (Brazdil et. al. 2013/2019/2020; Dominguez-Castro et. al., 2012; Kiss and
100 Nolic, 2015). Throughout most parts of Europe, municipal records, from cities, towns and villages, became more
101 systematised from the end of the fifteenth century onward, often containing deliberations and resolutions that
102 indicate means by which local or state governments aimed to alleviate the effects of drought or other weather
103 extremes (Garnier, 2019; Gorostiza, Escayol and Barriendos, 2021; Grau Satorras et. al., 2021). Therefore,
104 municipal archives qualify as a reliable *Fundgrube* for (proxy) evidence of urban droughts during the pre-
105 instrumental period.

106 For this study, the municipal archives of two cities in the eastern Netherlands, Deventer and Zutphen, have been
107 studied extensively in search of references to drought-related phenomena. Deventer and Zutphen are both situated
108 along the IJssel river on sandy river dunes from the Holocene and relied on surface water from the rivers and clean
109 groundwater for everyday use (Vogelzang, 1956). The primary sources that have been studied were primarily
110 official municipal records, such as daily resolutions from the city government, ordinance books, and petitions. For
111 Deventer, a long-running series of sources, including daily resolutions, decrees from the magistracy (*buurspraken*)
112 and citizen petitions are available from 1459 until 1795. Both the daily resolutions and books of concordances
113 come with alphabetical reference books from eighteenth and nineteenth-century authors, which provide a useful,
114 yet also limited tool to find certain relevant entries regarding drought. In the case of Zutphen, the extensive series

115 of daily resolutions and can be studied from 1573 until the start of the nineteenth century. These series, including
116 the digitised reference books provided the primary source for Zutphen. In this regard, it must be noted that for
117 certain periods, particularly the seventeenth century, the amount of sources regarding Zutphen was generally less
118 extensive compared to Deventer.

119

120 **3. Methodology**

121 In this section, I discuss several indices and explain the choice for the HSDS as the preferred method to rank the
122 severity of the droughts for Deventer and Zutphen. Many historical drought reconstructions have been done on the
123 basis of natural proxy-data from dendroclimatological reconstructions. These focus on tree-ring analysis to
124 reconstruct tree growth that provides insights into precipitation and temperature levels. This can be expressed
125 along the PDSI as an estimate of relative dryness based on reconstructions of temperature and precipitation
126 (Brázdil et. al. 2018). Certain long-term dendroclimatological reconstructions, such as the OWDA for Europe and
127 parts of North-Africa, use a self-calibrating PDSI (scPDSI) to create year-by-year maps of reconstructed summer
128 droughts on a 5414-point half-degree longitude-by-latitude grid. The scPDSI has a high degree of spatial
129 comparability across a broad range of climatological regions, which allows for comparisons with other pre-
130 instrumental droughts, for example in North-America (Cook et. al. 2015).

131 One of the most commonly used indices to categorise drought-severity in Europe is based on the seven-point
132 ordinal index devised by Pfister during the 1980s, also named 'Pfister Indices' (Brázdil 2020; Nash et. al., 2021;
133 Pfister, Camenisch and Dobrovolný, 2018). These indices can indicate both temperature differences and variations
134 in precipitation. In the seven-point index for precipitation, values ranging from rather wet to extremely wet (+1 to
135 +3) and rather dry to extremely dry (-1 to -3) are used to typify periods on the basis of direct or proxy-based
136 information regarding precipitation within a certain area. Such an index cannot be built on descriptive documentary
137 evidence alone, and should also include proxy-data, such as evidence from plant-phenology and
138 dendroclimatological analysis. A merely descriptive index would only be able to use a three-point scale, only
139 taking into account the extraordinary (-1 or +1) as a deviation from the average (0). Every seven-point index also
140 requires a reference period to denote the deviations from the average, which often consists of a series of
141 instrumental measurements from the period prior to the full onset of global warming, most commonly 1906 to
142 1960 (Pfister, Camenisch and Dobrovolný, 2018).

143 Several studies into historical droughts within Europe have applied the seven-point index as a means to indicate
144 the severity of past droughts (Bauch et. al., 2020; Brázdil et. al. 2013; Camenisch and Salvisberg, 2020;
145 Leijonhufvud and Retsö, 2021). However, there are also certain limits to the seven-point index. Kiss and Nikolić
146 (2015), for example, remarked that the requirements for the index can hardly be met for the European Middle
147 Ages, where the amount of available documentary evidence is often insufficient to estimate the severity of drought
148 on a month-by-month basis. In their attempt to create a 400-year long drought-index for the cities of Bern and
149 Rouen, Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) similarly argue that, given the available data from both cities – primarily
150 chronicles and municipal records from the fourteenth to the early eighteenth century – did not allow for all three
151 index values (-1 to -3) to be used. The sources from both city's only provide instances of extreme drought events,
152 which left a significant mark on inhabitant's memory and prompted city governments to take action. Therefore,

153 instead of using all three values, only extremely dry (-3) and very dry (-2) were used in their analysis, considering
 154 that the more frequent and less impactful droughts (-1) were usually not recorded. For both cities, most droughts
 155 during the 400-year period were characterised as very dry (-2), and only a few instances were classified as
 156 extremely dry (-3). The survey also led to the identification of specific accumulations of droughts, for instance, at
 157 the end of the fourteenth, second half of the sixteenth, and the 1670s and early, as seasonal difference was
 158 discovered as the droughts in Bern often occurred during the summer, while those in Rouen were more prevalent
 159 during the spring season.

160 The previous conclusions can also be applied for the corpus of municipal sources that have been investigated for
 161 Deventer and Zutphen. However, the documentary data from Deventer and Zutphen does not allow for a precise
 162 month-by-month reconstruction, as the duration of the droughts cannot be accurately reconstructed from the
 163 primarily descriptive data. Monthly records of precipitation are required, to categorise such droughts into a seven-
 164 point index. In this case, a drought can only be denoted as very dry (-2) after at least a one-and-a-half months of
 165 reduced precipitation, while the value of extremely dry (-3) is reserved for two or more months without rainfall
 166 (Camenisch and Salvisberg, 2020). As the data from Deventer and Zutphen do not provide insights into the length
 167 of certain droughts, only referring to 'long' or 'prolonged' periods of drought, without indicating a specific
 168 timeframe, the seven-point index cannot be applied. The primary references to drought concern descriptions of its
 169 human and economic impact on a societal level, which are also more accurate representations of past perceptions
 170 of drought than modern conceptions of precipitation and evaporation (Garnier, 2015). This data can be used
 171 according to the HSDS to delineate droughts on an impact-centred scale. The HSDS distinguishes droughts on the
 172 basis of societal reactions that can be found in various sources, which are classified in categories on a 1 to 5 scale
 173 (see table 1) from an absence of precipitation to full-scale social crisis. An additional category, -1, denotes
 174 instances where both qualitative and quantitative data are considered insufficient, but a drought reference is kept
 175 solely for the purpose chronological reconstruction (Garnier, 2014). This additional category does not apply to any
 176 of the cases discussed in this article.

177 **Table 1:** Historical Severity Drought Scale (for the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries), from Garnier (2014)

Index	Description
5	exceptional drought: no possible supply, shortage, sanitary problems, very high prices of wheat, forest fires
4	severe low-water mark: navigation impossible, lay-off of wheatmills, search for new springs, forest fires, death of cattle
3	general low-water (difficulties for navigation) and water reserves
2	local low-water in rivers, first effects on vegetation
1	absence of rainfall: rogations, evidences in texts
-1	insufficient qualitative and quantitative information but the event is kept in the chronological reconstruction

178
 179 In order to identify periods of drought, an extensive study of the above-mentioned sources was carried out. When
 180 available, reference books were used as an additional tool for finding entries connected to drought-related issues.
 181 These concerned aspects like water provisioning, fires, watermills, and other matters related to waterworks and
 182 shipping, as well as a dearth in foodstuffs and other items as a result of drought. Firstly, the sources for Deventer
 183 were studied on a year-by-year basis, in which all entries were searched for direct or indirect references to drought.

184 This yielded a steady base of results that formed the foundation of the following archival research. Second in line
185 were petition books, which were also studied on a year-by-year basis. The daily resolutions were not studied on a
186 year-by-year basis because of the density of the source material, as this would render an extensive page-by-page
187 study too time-consuming. Instead, the daily resolutions were studied primarily on the basis of reference books
188 and findings from other sources. In all instances, not only the drought years found in the other sources were
189 consulted in the daily resolutions, but also two years before and after a reference to drought. This was deemed
190 relevant given the insidious nature of drought and possibility that source might display certain developments of a
191 drought on an earlier basis. After the study for Deventer was completed, the study of Zutphen began with an
192 analysis of the largely digitised reference works regarding the daily resolutions. The earlier discovered drought
193 years for Deventer were used as reference points, and were used to study specific years, including the years before
194 and after.

195 For each city, the rough data was first copied into separate databases, after which the data were filtered by setting
196 aside references that did not directly relate to drought. These included references to future measures to be taken
197 when severe droughts would occur, or measures where the relation to a drought-event was less obvious. Secondly,
198 the remaining drought-events were filtered for each city according to drought-type (meteorological, agricultural,
199 hydrological, socio-economic) and season. Hereafter, a chronological database was created combining the data
200 from Deventer and Zutphen in a chronological overview of the specific drought events for each year. This specific
201 overview was also used for the next step: ranking the severity of each drought per year according to the HSDS.

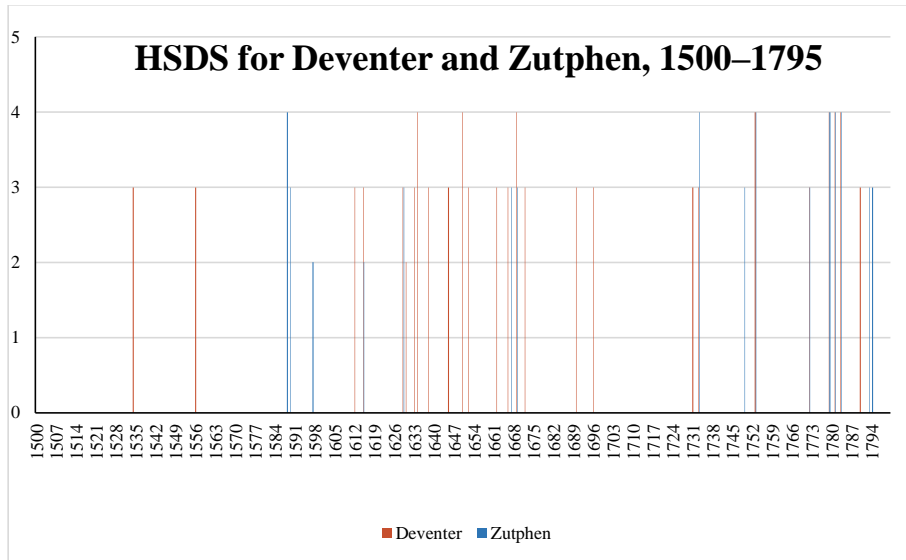
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203 **4. Outcomes**

204 The most common types of drought mentioned in documentary sources refer to instances of meteorological
205 drought, referring to a deficiency of precipitation over a specific period of time. This is usually followed by
206 agricultural drought, which refers to the effects of meteorological drought on agricultural production. Hydrological
207 drought takes into account the consequences of water shortages in rivers, streams, lakes, and underground water
208 tables, while socio-economic drought describes the effects of drought when the former causes widespread
209 economic and societal disruption, most commonly in the form of subsistence crises (Brázdil et. al., 2018; Wilhite
210 and Pulwarty, 2017). As municipal records usually only contain references to extreme weather events, the
211 descriptions of drought in the sources refer almost exclusively to extremities (Camenisch and Salvisberg, 2020;
212 Garnier, 2019).

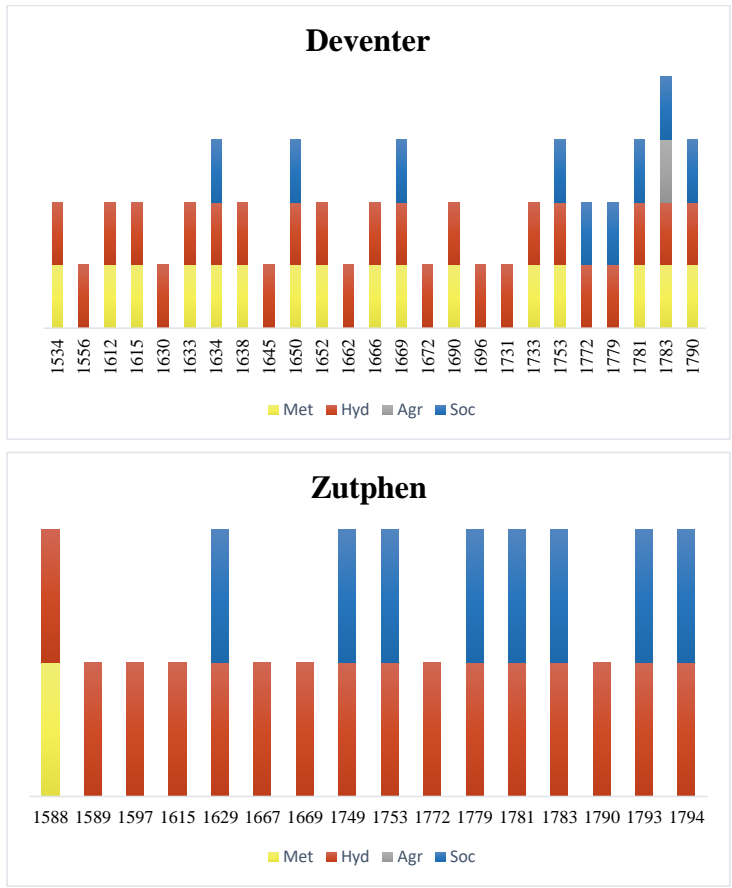
213 Based on the indicators of drought and its severity in the studied sources, an HSDS index has been constructed
214 including the data from Deventer and Zutphen (see fig.1). The index ranks droughts on an annual basis using the
215 five-point scale, although instances of purely meteorological droughts (scale 1) and its effects (rogation ceremonies
216 and public prayer) have not been found. In total, 33 years with drought have been reconstructed. This includes 26
217 drought years for Deventer, 16 for Zutphen, and only nine coinciding years for both cities. Hydrological droughts
218 with a significant impact on the city's waterway's and the availability of water (scale 3) are amongst the most
219 common forms of drought described in the sources, occurring 24 times. More extreme hydrological conditions,
220 those within scale 4, are less common but still make up a significant part of the recorded droughts, namely nine

221 instances. Scale 5, denoting full-scale societal crisis and critical shortages of food and water, has not been
222 identified.



223
224 **Figure 1: Chronology and severity levels of droughts within Deventer and Zutphen according to the Historical**
225 **Severity Drought Scale (HSDS), 1500–1795.**

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227 With regard to both Deventer and Zutphen (see fig. 2), hydrological drought is by far the most common type of
228 drought described in the sources. These refer to low water levels or a complete lack of water in certain rivers and
229 canals, as well as a shortage of water in wells and pumps. Meteorological drought is more prevalent in sources
230 from Deventer, although in general the descriptions refer exclusively to ‘excessive’, ‘strong’, ‘prolonged’, or
231 ‘long-lasting’ periods of drought, often accompanied with a reference to the hydrological effects. Agricultural
232 drought is mentioned very rarely in the sources. There is only one reference from Deventer that explicitly mentions
233 negative agricultural yields in the city’s hinterlands as a result of a drought, and the fact that this led to increased
234 prices for certain foodstuffs. Last but not least, socio-economic drought only occurs during very strong droughts,
235 usually the result of an accumulation of events leading to a severe lack of water and a shortage of food and other
236 goods. This specific factor seems absent in the sources from Deventer and Zutphen.



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Figure 2: Difference in drought types per year for Deventer and Zutphen in terms of meteorological (Met),hydrological (Hyd), agricultural (Agr) and Socio-economic (Soc), during the period 1500-1795

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While there are a number of different drought years for both cities (see fig. 2), there are several coinciding years, although this does not always occur in terms of severity. The year 1615, for example, is ranked 3 for Deventer, yet 2 for Zutphen. The sources for Deventer for 1615 indicate both a period of drought and lack of water, while Zutphen did not seem to suffer from the low water levels on the IJssel river. Explanations for such differences in hydrological drought can be found in the geohydrological differences between both cities. Apart from the IJssel river, the groundwater tables of Deventer and Zutphen were also influenced by the influx of water from two other streams coming in from the east: the Schipbeek for Deventer and Berkel for Zutphen (see fig. 3). These streams fed the surrounding moats and canals of the cities, which determined the availability of water for milling, or the water level in the wells and pumps. The Schipbeek was a man-made stream, which since its creation in the fifteenth century often suffered from silting due to increased amounts of sediment, human pollution, and poor management. Hence, the Schipbeek was considered an unreliable source of water, in particular during periods of drought (Schutten, 1981). As a natural river, the Berkel suffered less from such problems, and it was known as a relatively

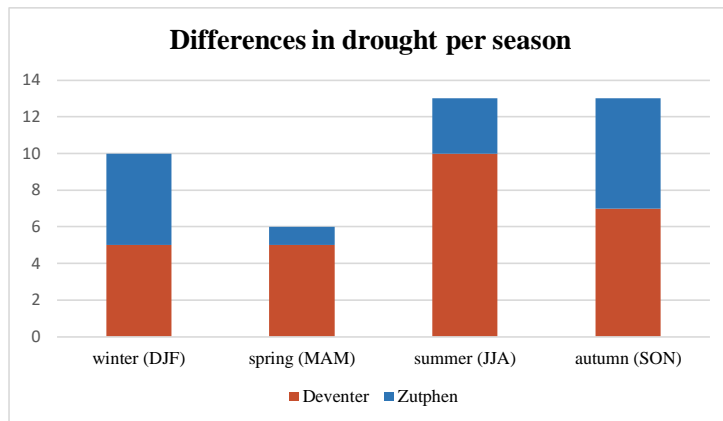
253 reliable supplier of water to the groundwater tables below Zutphen. This could explain different impacts of
254 hydrological drought between both cities. Nevertheless, many coinciding drought years, such as 1733, 1753, 1772,
255 1779, 1781, and 1783, indicate similar levels of hydrological drought for both cities., which points out similar
256 effects of the rivers.



257 **Figure 3: The locations of Deventer and Zutphen on a modern map of the Netherlands, indicating the IJssel river and**
258 **the Schipbeek and Berkel substreams (map by Bert Brouwenstijn, VU Amsterdam).**
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260 A notable level of difference between the two cities is that of seasonality (see fig. 4). Deventer seems to have a
261 much higher rate of spring droughts – recorded between March and May – and summer droughts – recorded

262 between June and August –, while Zutphen displays a larger amount of winter droughts – recorded between
 263 December and February. It must be noted that this difference is also due to the higher density in data for Deventer.
 264 However, both cities seem to have witnessed an equal amount of autumn droughts – recorded between September
 265 and November –, which, together with summer droughts constitute the most common category of droughts based
 266 on seasonality.



267 **Figure 4: The number of droughts according to season for Deventer and Zutphen, 1500-1795.**

269 Similar to the research by Camenisch and Salvisberg, the results for Deventer and Zutphen also display specific
 270 clusters or accumulations of drought years that took place within a span of several, sometimes subsequent years.
 271 Droughts with a moderate to severe impact, ranking 3 or 4 on the HSDS, occurred during the years 1630–1640,
 272 1650–1652, 1662–1669, 1731–1733, 1781–1783, and 1790–1794. This does not include years in which references
 273 are made to the damaging effects of previous droughts, often a year or even multiple years after a severe drought
 274 occurred. Most of the severe droughts ranking 4 on the HSDS occurred during the second half of the eighteenth
 275 century, between 1753 and 1783.
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278 **5. Examples from the sources**

279 It would go beyond the scope of this article to dive into the details of each specific drought year discovered for
 280 both cities. A brief overview of these can be found in appendix 1 at the end of the article. Nevertheless, to make
 281 sense of the otherwise rather abstract notions mentioned in the HSDS, it is necessary to provide a number of
 282 detailed examples. The number of examples has been restricted to the most extreme and detailed examples, some of
 283 which coincide for both Deventer and Zutphen. These are 1669, 1753, and 1783.

284 **5.1. The year 1669**

285 Deventer witnessed a period of severe drought in September 1669, which, according to municipal documents, led
 286 to extraordinarily low water levels on the IJssel river. As a result, many of the wells and pumps in the city were
 287 rendered dry and unusable. The inhabitants described the lack of water as an inconvenience and public clamour

288 regarding the scarcity of water was heard throughout the city. One of the main concerns was the risk of fire, which
289 was worsened by the shortage of water. As for Zutphen, references to the shortage of water are less explicit for
290 September that year. Here, no explicit mention of water scarcity is made in the city governments documentation,
291 but the fear of fire becomes apparent in a resolution that directed the city crier to call upon all inhabitants to store
292 water in case of an uneventful fire. While the impact of the drought is very explicit for Deventer (scale 4), the
293 reference to compulsory storing of water for Zutphen (scale 3) also implicitly links to hydrological drought but
294 less to a direct societal impact or near-crisis situation.

295 **5.3. The year 1753**

296 During the year 1753, equally severe droughts are mentioned for both Deventer and Zutphen in terms of impact.
297 In Deventer, the effects of drought were first felt in June, when an ‘excessive drought’ (*excessive droogte*) led to
298 a shortage of water in the city’s wells. This lack of water led to a general shortage of water that prompted the city
299 government to take action. In Zutphen, the impact of the drought was reported in September, which mentioned the
300 low water levels on both the IJssel and Berkel rivers that led to the ‘paralysis’ (*verlamminge*) of most wells and
301 pumps. This displays a similarity in drought severity (rank 4), which refers to societal setbacks, for example by
302 limiting water use, rather than a full socio-economic crisis, although the potential for the latter could have been
303 present.

304 **5.5. The year 1783**

305 The most detailed drought year (rank 4) recorded for both cities occurred in 1783. In Deventer, the strong and
306 excessive drought led to a lack of water in most of the wells during around the beginning of August. Later during
307 that month, a rare instance of agricultural drought is also mentioned as the a great spring drought, which led to a
308 reduced yield in buckwheat. This implies that the prolonged drought probably set in during the spring-months,
309 while its effects did not become detriment until the end of the summer when the prices of cereals increased
310 significantly. In Zutphen, the effects were primarily felt by the drying up of the Berkel river, which led to a
311 standstill of all watermills at the beginning of August. Another likely effect of the drought of 1783 was an epidemic
312 of dysentery in both Zutphen and Deventer. In Zutphen, the onset of the epidemic in towns and villages around
313 the city was noticed in early August, while the first case within the city walls was recorded on the fourth day of
314 that month. The disease spread rapidly during the following months, and the epidemic must have lasted until the
315 end of October. The spread of water-borne diseases like dysentery can be attributed to a lack of clean, fresh water
316 as a result of drought, which prompted people to use polluted water, or to seek water from unsafe sources (Brázdil
317 et. al. 2020; Camenisch et. al. 2020; Garnier, 2019; Pribyl, 2020).

318 In general, the source material often refers to similar indicators of hydrological drought, which often hindered
319 socio-economic life, but rarely resulted in a widespread disruption of daily life. Instances of agricultural drought
320 and its effects on food prices or general subsistence are very rare and only account for one particular case; the year
321 1783, when the prolonged drought led to a shortage of water, shutdown of watermills, dearth in cereals, and an
322 outbreak of dysentery in both cities. However, the sources do not suggest that this led to a moment of crisis. There
323 were also notable differences in the responses to drought, which do not correspond one-on-one for both cities
324 during most years, despite the relative proximity and similarity of both cities in terms of geological and
325 hydrological circumstances and the systems of water provisioning.

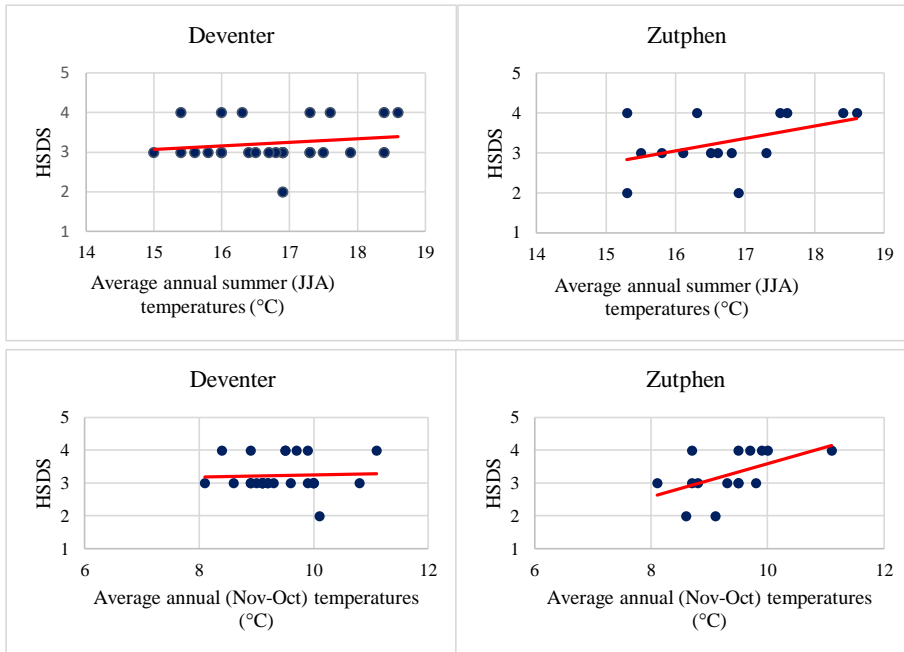
326 **6. Comparison with the Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen Temperature Series**

327 Compared to other countries, very little concrete data with regard to temperature and/or precipitation exist for the
328 Netherlands prior to the instrumental period after 1850. The Royal Netherlands Meteorological Institute (KNMI),
329 founded in 1854, has a collection of ‘antique data’, consisting of early instrumental observations from the
330 eighteenth and early nineteenth century. These datasets are comprised of observations from several weather
331 stations across the Netherlands. Most of the stations from which eighteenth century records exist are located in the
332 province of Holland – such as Amsterdam, Alkmaar, Bergen (North-Holland), Delft, Haarlem, Leiden Rijnsburg,
333 and Zwanenburg – leading to rather regional measurements more typical for the precipitation-rich western
334 provinces along the North Sea coast, not the inland provinces that are more susceptible to strong droughts. The
335 early records for the eighteenth century also contain very few consistent records regarding precipitation (Geurts
336 and Van Engelen, 1992). Most data from this period consists of reconstructions regarding winter and summer
337 temperatures.

338 The longest list of pre-instrumental, and partially instrumental, estimations of winter and summer temperatures
339 available via the KNMI is compiled by Buisman, in collaboration with Van Engelen, and IJnsen. Despite its
340 incredible length, running from 751 CE until 2000, this dataset is generally not well-known outside of Dutch-
341 speaking academia (Van Engelen, Buisman and IJnsen, 2001; Pfister, Camenisch and Dobrovolný, 2018). The
342 data-series was constructed with the use of various proxy-data from the early modern period, such as the weather
343 diary of German pastor David Fabricius for the larger Frisian area in the north of the Netherlands, a set of frost-
344 day notes from the German city of Kassel, the ‘tow barge’ records from De Vries and the Manley (1974) records
345 of monthly temperatures in central England. It also includes data from the e aforementioned weather stations
346 (1706-1905). The winter – from November to March – and summer – from May to September – temperatures in
347 this series have been categorised along an annual nine-point scale from 1 (extremely soft/cool) to 9 (extremely
348 harsh/warm) (IJnsen, 2010). In addition to the categorization of annual values, the series also contains annual
349 temperature averages in degrees Celsius. This is divided between average summer (JJA), winter (DJF) and annual
350 (November-October) mean temperature.

351 For the comparison with the HSDS for Deventer and Zutphen, only values from 7/to 9/, implying above average
352 summer and winter temperatures have been taken into account as relevant for possible correspondence between
353 drought and above or below average temperatures. Overall, the result of the comparison was rather meagre. Only
354 a handful of years displayed a correspondence between cases of moderate to strong and very strong droughts –
355 those ranking 3, 4 or 5 on the HSDS – and above or below average summer or winter temperatures.
356 Correspondences between droughts and high summer temperatures were found for the years 1534, 1556, 1669,
357 1733, 1779, 1781, and 1783. Only three years, 1556, 1781, and 1783, were ranked as extremely warm (9). Only
358 for 1672 there was a correspondence between drought below average winter temperatures (7). ~~When As the data~~
359 ~~for Deventer and Zutphen is not normally distributed, a Spearman correlation coefficient was used to perform a~~
360 ~~looking at the annual average temperature (in °C) for the summer months (JJA), a statistical comparison (see fig.~~
361 ~~5) between the annual average summer temperatures (in °C) for the summer months (JJA). These shows a rather~~
362 ~~weak Pearson correlation ($r=0.147$ with $n=26$ and a p-value of 0.46) for the Deventer and moderate correlation~~
363 ~~($r=0.425$ with $n=15$ with a p-value of 0.12) for Zutphen. This suggest very weak to moderate correlations between~~
364 ~~the annual average summer temperatures and the HSDS for either city.~~ Comparing the average annual temperature

365 series with the HSDS led to an even weaker ~~negative~~ (~~$r=-0.04$~~) correlation (~~$r=-0.01$ with $n=26$ with a p-value of~~
 366 ~~0.46~~) for Deventer, and a moderate correlation (~~$r=0.582$ with $n=15$ and a p-value of 0.02~~) for Zutphen. ~~However,~~
 367 ~~it must be noted that due to the small set of years, these results only bear a rather low level of statistical significance.~~
 368 ~~As such, only the comparison with the HSDS of Zutphen led to any statistically significant outcomes.~~



369
 370 **Figure 5: Scatterplots of the comparison between average annual summer and average annual temperatures**
 371 **with the HSDS for Deventer**

372 The ~~relatively low number of~~ correspondence ~~with the drought years for~~ ~~between the HSDS for~~ Deventer and
 373 Zutphen ~~and the temperature series by Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen~~ can indicate two aspects; 1) drought
 374 periods did not necessarily coincide with periods of above average or extreme heat (or winter droughts with
 375 extreme cold); 2) the series of temperatures provided by Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen might also not provide
 376 precise enough information, given the reliance on non-local sources for the reconstruction of pre-instrumental
 377 temperature records. While modern data mentioned earlier show a trend of rising temperatures since the 1950s
 378 contributing to increased drought-risk in the eastern regions of the Netherlands (Phillip et. al., 2020), this is not
 379 necessarily in line with the data presented in this article. A similar study with regard to northwestern Europe
 380 suggested higher correlations between temperature and droughts than for temperature and precipitation, which
 381 might indicate that drought indices refer primarily to above-average temperatures and
 382 evapotranspiration. (Leijonhufvud and Retsö, 2021). Given the relatively low correlation between the ~~Van Engelen,~~
 383 ~~Buisman, and IJnsen~~ temperature series and HSDS ~~for Deventer and moderate outcomes for Zutphen,~~ the latter
 384 cannot be ~~concluded easily concluded~~ for ~~both Deventer or Zutphen~~ ~~As cities.~~ ~~such,~~ ~~As aspect one can be is~~
 385 ~~supported by supported for~~ the comparison with Deventer, ~~but less so for and~~ Zutphen, ~~on the basis of the~~
 386 ~~comparison with Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen.~~ Aspect two can be used to proof that the reliance on data

387 from various distant locations is not always useful when studying specific territories and localities. This can also
388 be tested by using a large compiled index of drought-years for multiple nearby territories, which is the case with
389 the SDI.

390

391

392

393 **7. Comparison with the SDI**

394 The SDI was created by Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) with the use of pre-existing precipitation reconstructions
395 from documentary sources for the Netherlands and Belgium, Germany, France, and Switzerland between 1315
396 and 1715, applying the seven-point scale index. Because the SDI is based on years when a drought was reported
397 across different territories, the amount of drought-years is significantly higher than in more local indices. When
398 comparing their data from Bern and Rouen with the SDI, the number of corresponding droughts was relatively
399 low, namely a total of seventeen corresponding cases out of the 87 drought-years in the SDI.

400 When comparing the data between 1500 and 1715, there were only eight corresponding drought-years, out of 52
401 instances mentioned in the SDI for this period. These concern ten instances in total; eight specifically with regard
402 to Deventer (1534, 1556, 1615, 1630, 1634, 1645, 1666, and 1669), two concerning both Deventer and Zutphen
403 (1615 and 1669), and none specifically for Zutphen. This indicates that 44 droughts recorded in the SDI were not
404 found for Deventer and Zutphen, while 14 instances of drought (1588, 1589, 1597, 1612, 1629, 1633, 1638, 1650,
405 1652, 1662, 1667, 1672, 1690, 1696) were documented specifically for Deventer and/or Zutphen during this
406 period, but do not occur in the SDI. Comparing the HSDS values for Deventer with the SDI led to a rather weak
407 negative correlation ($r=-0.36$ with $n=8$ and a p -value of 0.19). Such a ~~rather~~ low degree in correspondence supports
408 the conclusions regarding Bern and Rouen, that generalised drought data cannot easily be applied to reconstruct
409 or strengthen knowledge of the specific local droughts. In fact, it shows that local sources can provide better
410 insights into droughts that may not appear in compiled data-sets. This prompts the need to do more in-depth
411 research for multiple regions and localities to minimise faulty generalisations about the widespread effects of
412 drought on different parts of society.

413

414 **8. Comparison with the OWDA**

415 Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) also compared their findings for Bern, Rouen, and the SDI with the OWDA The
416 OWDA is a freely accessible online database that provides year-by-year data – either via a dataset or an interactive
417 map – of drought severity throughout Europe and certain parts of North Africa and the Middle East on a 0.5 degrees
418 latitude/longitude grid, going back as far as 0 CE and coming to a halt in 2012. The OWDA displays drought-
419 severity on a scPDSI scale from extremely dry (-6) to extremely wet (6). It is based on a vast amount of
420 dendrochronological data for Europe, completed with additional information historical data on hydroclimatic
421 extremes, but only with regard to spring and summer drought conditions (Cook et. al., 2015). This is also the main
422 setback of the OWDA, as it can only be used to compare drought conditions from June to August. Another pitfall

423 is the scPDSI ranking-system, which has to be calibrated to other forms of indices, such as the seven-point Pfister
424 index or the HSDS. Camenisch and Salvisberg tested the OWDA against the data from individual indices of Bern
425 and Rouen, as well as the SDI. They used the censure of -2.5 on the scPDSI scale as the mark of moderate to severe
426 and extreme droughts. As expected, the comparisons with the drought indices for Bern and Rouen led showed low
427 similarities between the OWDA ($r=0.32$ and $r=0.22$) for the respective indices. The wider SDI yielded a more
428 moderate similarity ($r=0.42$) with the data from the OWDA, which was also the only statistically significant
429 outcome given difference in sample size.

430 For the comparison with the HSDS for Deventer and Zutphen, grid snapshots were generated for each
431 reconstructed drought year, using the area which includes Deventer and Zutphen (52.34 to 52.°N, and 6 to 6.48
432 °E) (see figure 8). Following the example of Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020), only values of -2.5 or lower were
433 taken into account for relevant comparisons. The outcome of the comparison was rather meagre, as from eleven
434 drought years corresponding to relevant outcomes of the OWDA survey (1534, 1615, 1630, 1634, 1652, 1666,
435 1669, 1753, 1790, 1793, and 1794), only one year, 1666, was relevant as it fell within the range of summer (JJA)
436 drought. No usable data was also available for the years 1638 and 1662. Another interesting aspect is that some
437 of the major summer drought-years in the HSDS, such as 1783, only received a ranking of -2 in the OWDA.
438 However, the OWDA data for certain years, such as 1615, 1630, 1669, and 1793, indicating autumn and winter
439 droughts, could perhaps indicate that the effects of the summer droughts was still felt during the following seasons.

440 A quantitative comparison between the HSDS for Deventer and the OWDA has shown a ~~moderate-weak~~ negative
441 Spearman correlation (~~$r=-0.44$~~), while for Deventer ($r=0.40$ with $n=9$ and a p-value of 0.29) and a weak positive
442 correlation for Zutphen ($r=0.42$ with $n=6$ and a p-value of 0.39) this yielded a mildly positive correlation ($r=0.37$).
443 ~~Once again, though there seems to be a moderate correlation between the two datasets,~~ it must be taken into
444 account that the sample size for this comparison remained rather small and the results are not statistically
445 significant.

446 Perhaps the reconstructions using the OWDA are susceptible to the same criticism as the comparisons to the Van
447 Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen series, as well as the SDI. Individual Comparisons between the HSDS and these
448 datasets sometimes show strong deviations for Deventer and Zutphen. This could indicate the more localised
449 character of most droughts, focusing specifically on their local effects and how these worked out on society. Yet
450 it also shows the limits of dendroclimatological analysis on the basis of tree rings as a proxy for drought, which
451 highlights the value of using documentary sources as a means to verify the occurrence of historic droughts (Bothe
452 et. al., 2019; Maughan, 2022, Pribyl, 2020).

453 9. Discussion and Conclusion

454 This article aimed to provide the first documentary evidence-based look at pre-instrumental droughts in the eastern
455 Netherlands between 1500 and 1795, focusing on two case studies: the cities of Deventer and Zutphen. This was
456 done by 1) examining the possibility of urban municipal archives to reconstruct past droughts; 2) creating drought
457 indices for both cities; and 3) by comparing the gathered data with other indices to spot possible correspondence.

458 The archives of Deventer and Zutphen contain plenty of municipal records that provided impact-based instances
459 of drought from the early sixteenth to the late eighteenth century. As for Deventer, slightly longer-running and a
460 larger amount records are available compared to Zutphen, where consistent records, such as daily resolutions date

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461 back from the second half of the sixteenth century. Nevertheless, similar examples of drought-related measures
462 were found that indicate how droughts affected both cities primarily in terms of hydrological circumstances. The
463 most common issues are related to low water levels in the rivers and canals around the city hampering navigation
464 and low groundwater tables leading to a lack of water in wells and pumps. The main problem with the information
465 from the documentary evidence from both archives is that although it provides a good view on the impact of
466 drought in cities like Deventer and Zutphen, it remains difficult to establish the exact duration of droughts. The
467 extent of droughts is only mentioned in terms of general wordings like 'prolonged' and 'extraordinary. As of such,
468 the seven-point index, in which drought-severity is measured according to monthly thresholds, cannot be applied
469 the data found for Deventer and Zutphen.

470 The alternative, creating an index along the HSDS, applies better to the source-material, yet it is less precise as
471 the seven-point index, which is also calibrated using an instrumental reference-period. Nevertheless, using the
472 HSDS for Deventer and Zutphen has led to an index with a total of 33 droughts of varying severity on the scale of
473 1 (deficiency of precipitation) to 5 (widespread societal disruption) for the period 1500–1795. As is the case with
474 municipal records, only extreme instances of drought are reported, most of which appeared to fall within the range
475 of scale 3 and 4, denoting primarily hydrological droughts in the forms of dried up waterways, wells, and pumps.
476 Widespread societal disruption in terms of scale 5 was not discovered in the sources, which indicates that the
477 droughts had a disturbing rather than a crippling effect on society. The data from both cities also suggests a
478 difference in seasonality, as there seems to be an unequal distribution between spring and summer droughts. There
479 were also notable differences between similar indexed drought years for both cities, by which the effects of drought
480 were reported differently to indicate similar levels of severity, for example by referring to dried up wells in
481 Deventer and shut-down watermills in Zutphen. Although both instances indicate a scale 4 drought on the HSDS,
482 referring to hydrological circumstances leading to socio-economic drought, it can be questioned whether both
483 examples were considered as equally severe by contemporaries. Was a low-water mark in wells and pumps, for
484 instance, considered just as bad as a period without the ability to employ watermills? The descriptive nature of the
485 HSDS makes it a valuable index for the study of qualitative data from municipal records, although the next step
486 should be to calibrate such data according to a more precise scale. This scale should be based on different
487 conceptions from contemporary records to determine drought-severity more precisely. This can be done by
488 extending the categories into different levels of, for example, hydrological drought. For instance, a lack of
489 navigation and lay-off of watermills can be regarded as more critical or disastrous compared to a general shortage
490 of water for domestic purposes like cooking and washing, while the need for a stable availability of water for
491 firefighting purposes could be regarded as more important regarding the wide-ranging socio-economic effects a
492 major fire could have on the city as a whole (Garrioch, 2018).

493 Comparisons with other indices, such as the Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen temperature series, the SDI, and
494 the OWDA, have yielded different insights when compared to the HSDS. This was both the case in terms of
495 quantitative and direct comparisons between the HSDS different datasets. The comparisons with the Van Engelen,
496 Buisman, and IJnsen temperature series, yielded weak to moderate results for average annual summer
497 temperatures, displaying no consistent strong correlation between droughts and temperature for the HSDS
498 regarding Deventer and Zutphen. The latter could also be influenced by the fact that the dataset compiled with
499 input from multiple areas outside of the Netherlands cannot be used accurately reconstruct extreme temperatures
500 on a local scale. The comparison with the SDI for the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries led to a similar limited

501 number of corresponding drought years, also indicating that supra-regional indices often have little correspondence
502 with more localised documentary-based drought reconstructions. The same can be said of the comparison with the
503 data gathered from single-year based snapshots from the OWDA. In this case the correspondence was even lower
504 regarding the sole focus on summer droughts, although the indications for certain years could point towards
505 possible long-lasting effects of summer droughts during consecutive months. For each comparison, however, the
506 limited size of the dataset for the HSDS concerning Deventer and Zutphen made quantitative analysis and
507 comparisons difficult to render on a high degree of statistical significance. To enhance this, more data from several
508 locations could be added to the existing dataset to create a more encompassing series along the HSDS for the
509 eastern Netherlands, or the country as a whole.

510 Nevertheless, the data for Deventer and Zutphen display evidence for a small number of supra-regional droughts,
511 but the sources primarily indicate a larger number of local droughts specifically mentioned in the documentary
512 sources for the period under study. These concern moderate to severe instances of drought that impacted society
513 and prompted responses from the city government to avert possible negative outcomes, such as food and water
514 shortages. As such, the sources to reconstruct droughts are closely connected to the societal responses to drought,
515 which indicates that specific instances of drought, primarily hydrological drought, impacted society not necessarily
516 by causing a widespread crisis but by limiting the use of water and waterways. The urban sources also record very
517 little instances of agricultural drought, of which only once instance was found for a 300-year period. Remarkable
518 is also that, at least for Deventer, the 'megadrought' of 1540 is entirely absent in the sources. As Camenisch and
519 Salvisberg (2020) demonstrated, however, this is not rare with regard to more localised reconstructions. Although
520 major European drought events, as in 1540, feature widely in supra-regional indices comprised of documentary
521 and natural proxy data from across different regions (Wetter et. al., 2014), they are less likely to show in more
522 local, urban documentary evidence. Drought reconstructions for specific locations, whether cities or villages with
523 adequate data density, therefore should be taken into account when compiling large-scale drought reconstructions,
524 to gain a more accurate picture of the regional and local spread of drought and its severity in terms of societal
525 impact.

526 However, comparisons between specific localities is another aspect that requires more attention. Deventer and
527 Zutphen, for example, despite their similarities and close proximity to one another yield a number of different
528 drought years. This can be explained, in part, by a difference in source-density for specific periods. More and
529 longer-running series of sources were available for Deventer, but considering the relative consistency and duration
530 of the municipal records for both cities it could also be argued that droughts were not always perceived as equally
531 menacing. Explanations for this can be found in the source-type, municipal records, which mostly refer only to
532 high-impact drought-events that required a governmental response, but also at the local level, for example by
533 studying the hydrological, geological, and socio-economic aspects of each city. This would include the dependence
534 of specific water sources for a city's economy, such as the need to operate watermills, or the general system of
535 water provisioning and how this was impacted across different areas within a city. Differing hydrological or socio-
536 political means that strengthened or helped to alleviate the effects of past drought could thus play an important
537 part in determining the severity of drought on a local level (Metzger and Jacob Rousseau, 2020). This could provide
538 a better image of droughts through human actions and natural circumstances that have an influence on the local
539 impact and severity of drought and other climatic hazards, which counts not only for the past but also the future
540 (Degroot et. al., 2021; Kchouk et. al., 2021; Savelli et. al., 2022; Van Loon et. al., 2016). More research is needed

541 in order to draw broader conclusions on the specific local impacts of urban droughts, and how this was influenced
542 by local natural or human factors over time.

543 **Data availability**

544 The data used in this article is included in two supplements attached to this article. The archival sources used for
545 the research of this paper are publicly and/or digitally accessible via the websites of the HCO
546 (<https://collectieoverijssel.nl/>) and ZuRAZ. (<https://erfgoedcentrumzutphen.nl/>) and can be found in appendix 1.
547 The Van Engelen, Buisman, and IJnsen temperature series is available via the website of the Royal Netherlands
548 Meteorological Institute (<https://www.knmi.nl/nederland-nu/klimatologie/daggegevens/antieke-waarnemingen>).
549 The SDI is available as a supplement to the article by Camenisch and Salvisberg ([https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-16-](https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-16-2173-2020)
550 [2173-2020](https://doi.org/10.5194/cp-16-2173-2020)). The OWDA can be freely consulted via the project website (<http://drought.memphis.edu/OWDA/>).

551 **Supplement**

552 The supplement related to this article is available via: <https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-x3p-camy>

553 **Competing Interests**

554 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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561 **Appendix 1: Archival sources**

562 Historisch Centrum Overijssel (HCO) (Regional Archives of Overijssel), Deventer, Stad Deventer, periode
563 Middeleeuwen, 1241-1591 (ID 0690), Edicta magistratus die buyspraecht genoemtp or Dat boick der
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565 Historisch Centrum Overijssel, Deventer, Schepenen en Raad van de stad Deventer, periode Republiek 1591-1795
566 (ID 0691), Prothocoll des Rades van dagelicken resolutien, or Liber quotidianarum resolutionum civitatis
567 Daventriensis, 1591-1795, 4.14,

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573 publicationum, 7a-g.

574 Erfgoed Centrum Zutphen (ZuRAZ) (Regional Archives of Zutphen and surrounding areas), Zutphen, Oud-
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