

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 Buisman and IJnsen temperature series for the Netherlands, the supra-regional drought index, or SDI, which
84 comprises data from Switzerland, France, the Netherlands and Germany, (Camenisch and Salvisberg, 2020), and
85 the Old World Drought Atlas (OWDA), which provides an overview of dendrochronological drought data on a
86 regional scale (Cook et.al., 2015).

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

93

94 **2. The data**

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

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

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

120

121 **3. Methodology**

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

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

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

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

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

178 **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

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

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

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

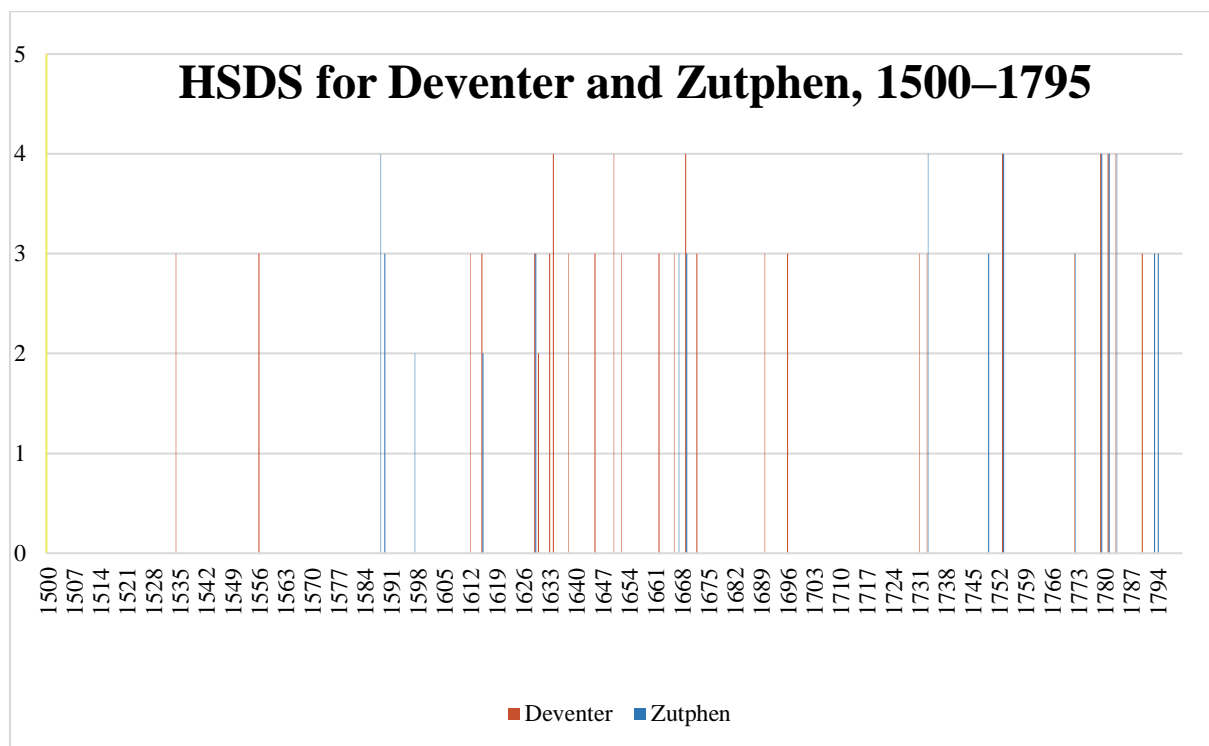
203

204 **4. Outcomes**

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

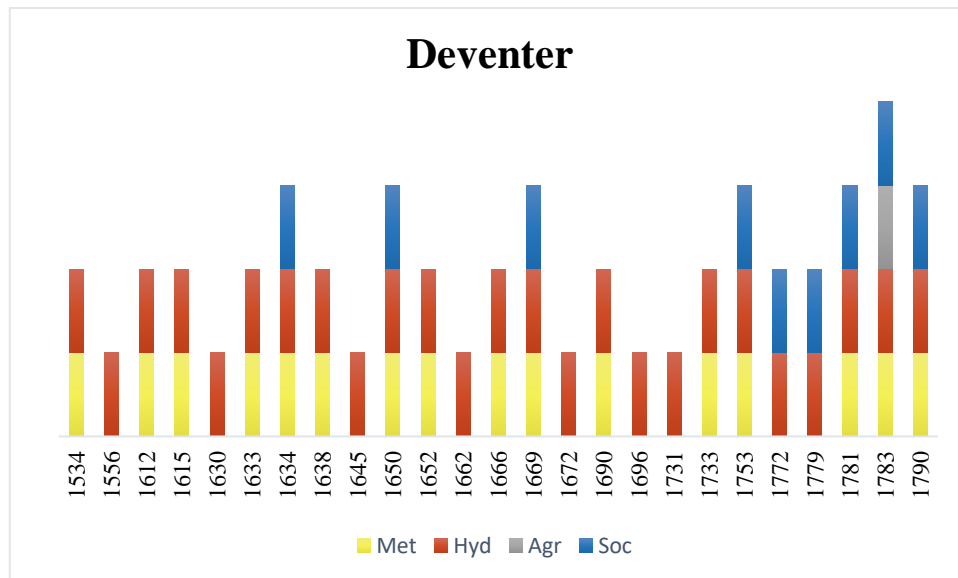
214 Based on the indicators of drought and its severity in the studied sources, an HSDS index has been constructed
215 including both data from Deventer and Zutphen (see fig.1). The index ranks droughts on an annual basis using the
216 five-point scale, although instances of purely meteorological droughts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

221 but still make up a significant part of the recorded droughts, namely nine instances. Scale 5, denoting full-scale
 222 societal crisis and critical shortages of food and water, has not been identified.

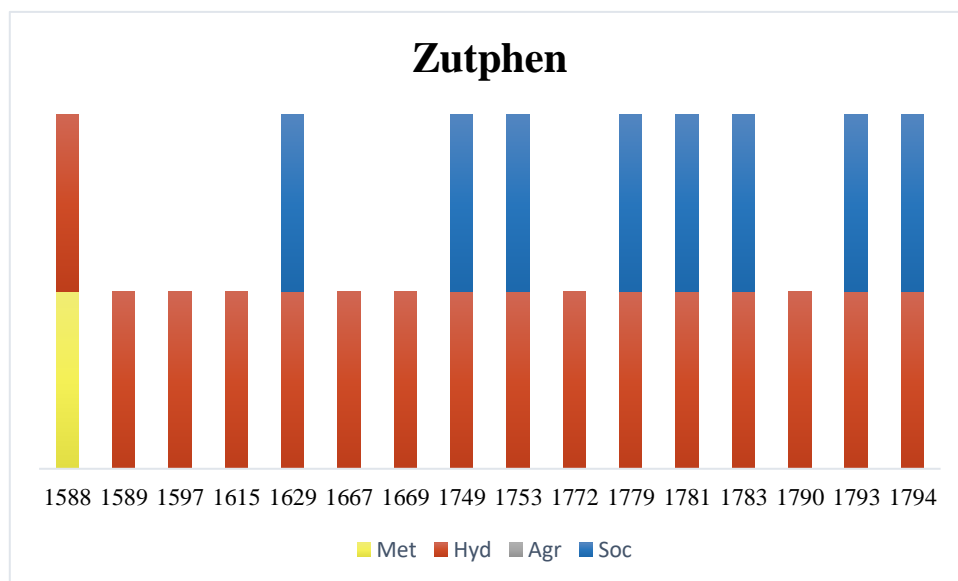


223
 224 **Figure 1: Chronology and severity levels of droughts within Deventer and Zutphen according to the Historical**
 225 **Severity Drought Scale (HSDS), 1500–1795.**

226
 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. In most cases, this refers to low water levels or a complete lack of water in certain
 229 rivers and canals, as well as a shortage of water in wells and pumps. Meteorological drought is more prevalent in
 230 sources from Deventer, although in general the descriptions refer exclusively to ‘excessive’, ‘strong’, ‘prolonged’,
 231 or ‘long-lasting’ periods of drought, often accompanied with a reference to the hydrological effects, such as dried
 232 up waterways and wells. Agricultural drought is mentioned very rarely in the sources. There is only one reference
 233 from Deventer that explicitly mentions negative agricultural yields in the city’s hinterlands as a result of a drought
 234 and the fact that this led to increased prices for certain foodstuffs. Last but not least, socio-economic drought only
 235 occurs during very strong droughts, usually the result of an accumulation of events leading to a severe lack of
 236 water and a shortage of food and other goods.



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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 specific years that coincide, although not always 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 reliable supplier of water to

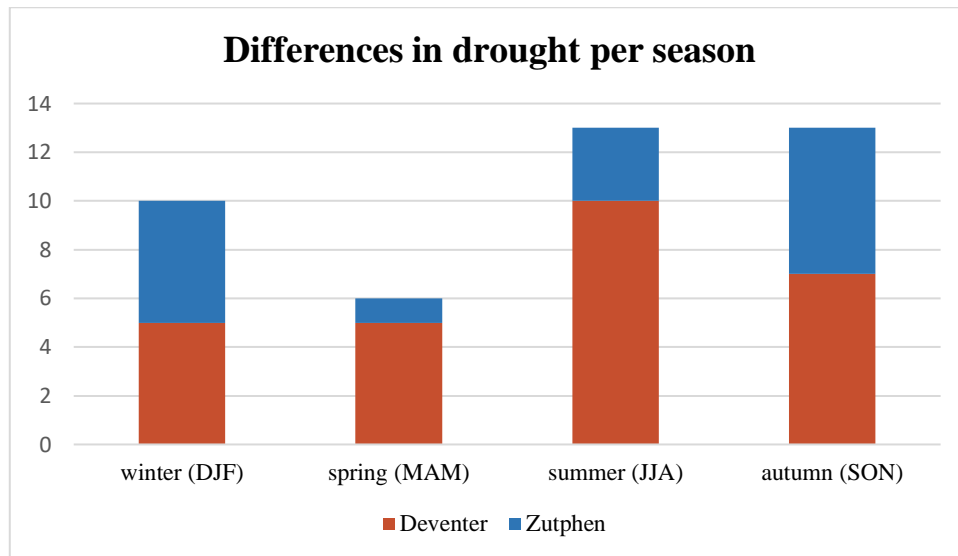
253 the groundwater tables below Zutphen. This could explain different impacts of hydrological drought between both
254 cities. Nevertheless, many coinciding drought years, such as 1733, 1753, 1772, 1779, 1781, and 1783, indicate
255 similar levels of hydrological drought for both cities.



256
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).**

259 A notable level of difference between the two cities is that of seasonality (see fig. 4). Deventer seems to have a
260 much higher rate of spring droughts – recorded between March and May – and summer droughts – recorded
261 between June and August –, while Zutphen displays a larger amount of winter droughts – recorded between

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



266
 267 **Figure 4: The number of droughts according to season for Deventer and Zutphen, 1500-1795.**
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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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277 **5. Examples from the sources**

278 It would go beyond the scope of this article to dive into the details of each specific drought year discovered for
 279 both cities. A brief overview of these can be found in appendix 1 at the end of the article. Nevertheless, to make
 280 sense of the otherwise rather abstract notions mentioned in the HSDS, it is necessary to provide a number of
 281 detailed examples. The number of examples has been restricted to the most extreme and detailed examples, some of
 282 which coincide for both Deventer and Zutphen. These are 1669, 1733, 1753, 1781, and 1783.

283 **5.1. The year 1669**

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

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

294 **5.2. The year 1733**

295 The year 1733 seems to show the opposite in terms of references. As for Deventer, the impact of the drought was
296 felt primarily during the summer, which led to a lack of water in the Schipbeek river that supplied water to the
297 city's harbour and canals. However, whether this had an impact on the water levels in the city's wells and pumps
298 is not mentioned. In Zutphen, the 1733 drought was first mentioned in October, when a genever distillery petitioned
299 to the city government that their capacity to produce suffered due to the great shortage of water within the city. In
300 this case, the effects of the hydrological drought are more explicit for Zutphen (rank 4) than for Deventer (rank 3).
301 Nevertheless, it can be assumed that the lack of water in the Schipbeek hampered navigation and the supply of
302 water power to Deventer's watermills.

303 **5.3. The year 1753**

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

312 **5.4. The year 1781**

313 In 1781, the severity of drought is indexed equally on the HSDS for both cities (rank 4). In July that year, the water
314 level in the Schipbeek was reported to have once again reached an absolute low-point, which was detrimental to the
315 city, although no further details of the negative impacts were recorded. It can be assumed, however, that the drying
316 up of the Schipbeek must have been felt, as it would have certainly paralysed the watermills. The impact of drought
317 in Zutphen was already felt in February, implying that the drought started in the winter. Here, the drought and low
318 water levels resulted in a lack of navigation via the Berkel river and a limited operation of the city's watermills.
319 However, no effects on the availability of water in both cities' wells and pumps is mentioned.

320 **5.5. The year 1783**

321 The most detailed drought year (rank 4) recorded for both cities occurred in 1783. In Deventer, the strong and
322 excessive drought led to a lack of water in most of the wells during around the beginning of August. Later during
323 that month, a rare instance of agricultural drought is also mentioned as the a great spring drought, which led to a
324 reduced yield in buckwheat. This implies that the prolonged drought probably set in during the spring-months,

325 while its effects did not become detriment until the end of the summer when the prices of cereals increased
326 significantly. In Zutphen, the effects were primarily felt by the drying up of the Berkel river, which led to a
327 standstill of all watermills at the beginning of August. Another likely effect of the drought of 1783 was an epidemic
328 of dysentery in both Zutphen and Deventer. In Zutphen, the onset of the epidemic in towns and villages around
329 the city was noticed in early August, while the first case within the city walls was recorded on the fourth day of
330 that month. The disease spread rapidly during the following months, and the epidemic must have lasted until the
331 end of October. The spread of water-borne diseases like dysentery can be attributed to a lack of clean, fresh water
332 as a result of drought, which prompted people to use polluted water, or to seek water from unsafe sources (Brázdil
333 et. al. 2020; Camenisch et. al. 2020; Garnier, 2019; Pribyl, 2020).

334 In general, the source material often refers to similar indicators of hydrological drought, which often hindered
335 socio-economic life, but rarely resulted in a widespread disruption of daily life. Instances of agricultural drought
336 and its effects on food prices or general subsistence are very rare and only account for one particular case; the year
337 1783, when the prolonged drought led to a shortage of water, shutdown of watermills, dearth in cereals, and an
338 outbreak of dysentery in both cities. However, the sources do not suggest that this led to a moment of crisis. There
339 were also notable differences in the responses to drought, which do not correspond one-on-one for both cities
340 during most years, despite the relative proximity and similarity of both cities in terms of geological and
341 hydrological circumstances and the systems of water provisioning.

342

343 **6. Comparison with Buisman-IJnsen**

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

355 The longest list of pre-instrumental, and partially instrumental, estimations of winter and summer temperatures
356 was compiled by Buismand and IJnsen. Despite its incredible length, running from the year 751 CE until 2000,
357 this data is generally not well-known outside of Dutch-speaking academia (Van Engelen, Buisman and IJnsen,
358 2001; Pfister, Camenisch and Dobrovolný, 2018). This data-series was constructed with the use of various proxy-
359 data from the early modern period, such as the weather diary of German pastor David Fabricius for the larger
360 Frisian area in the north of the Netherlands, a set of frost-day notes from the German city of Kassel, the ‘tow barge’
361 records from De Vries and the Manley (1974) records of monthly temperatures in central England. Buisman and
362 IJnsen also included data from the aforementioned records of the aforementioned weather stations (1706-1905).

363 The winter – from November to March – and summer – from May to September – temperatures in this series have
364 been categorised along an annual nine-point scale from 1 (extremely soft/cool) to 9 (extremely harsh/warm)
365 (IJnsen, 2010).

366 For the comparison, only values from 7/-7 to 9/-9, implying above average summer and winter temperatures have
367 been taken into account as relevant for possible correspondence between drought and above or below average
368 temperatures. Overall, the result of the comparison was rather meagre. Only a handful of years displayed a
369 correspondence between cases of moderate to strong and extremely strong droughts – those ranking 3, 4 or 5 on
370 the HSDS – and above or below average summer or winter temperatures. Correspondences between droughts and
371 high summer temperatures were found for the years 1534, 1556, 1669, 1733, 1779, 1781, and 1783. Only three
372 years, 1556, 1781, and 1783, were ranked as extremely warm (9). Only for 1672 there was a correspondence
373 between drought below average winter temperatures (7).

374 The low number of correspondence with the drought years for Deventer and Zutphen can indicate two aspects; 1)
375 drought periods did not necessarily coincide with periods of above average or extreme heat (or winter droughts
376 with extreme cold); 2) the series of temperatures provided by Buisman and IJnsen do not provide precise enough
377 information, given the reliance on non-local sources for the reconstruction of pre-instrumental temperature records.
378 While modern data mentioned earlier show a trend of rising temperatures since the 1950s contributing to increased
379 drought-risk in the eastern regions of the Netherlands (Phillip et. al., 2020), this is not in line with the findings of
380 the data presented in this article. Similar historical studies with regard to northwestern Europe also suggest a lower
381 influence of temperature on the severity of drought compared to precipitation during the early modern period
382 (Leijonhufvud and Retsö, 2021). As such, aspect one can be supported on the basis of the comparison with
383 Buisman-IJnsen. Aspect two can be used to proof that the reliance on data from various distant locations is not
384 always useful when studying specific territories and localities. This can also be tested by using a large compiled
385 index of drought-years for multiple nearby territories, which is the case with the SDI.

386

387 **7. Comparison with the SDI**

388 The SDI was created by Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) with the use of pre-existing precipitation reconstructions
389 from documentary sources for the Netherlands and Belgium, Germany, France, and Switzerland between 1315
390 and 1715, applying the seven-point scale index. When the data from Bern and Rouen was compared with the SDI,
391 only the years 1556, 1567, and 1681, were present in all three indices. The comparison between Bern and Rouen
392 also displayed a deviation in the data regarding certain ‘megadroughts’, as the extreme droughts of 1473 and 1540
393 were only reported in Bern. Because the SDI is based on years when a drought was reported somewhere within a
394 specific country, the amount of drought-years is significantly higher than in more local indices. When comparing
395 the data from Bern and Rouen with the SDI, the number of corresponding droughts was relatively low, namely a
396 total of seventeen corresponding cases out of the 87 drought-years in the SDI.

397 When comparing the data between 1500 and 1715, there are only eight corresponding drought-years, out of 52
398 instances mentioned in the SDI for this period. These concern ten instances in total; eight specifically with regard
399 to Deventer (1534, 1556, 1615, 1630, 1634, 1645, 1666, and 1669), two concerning both Deventer and Zutphen
400 (1615 and 1669), and none specifically for Zutphen. This indicates that 44 droughts recorded in the SDI were not

401 found in the sources for Deventer and Zutphen, while 14 instances of drought (1588, 1589, 1597, 1612, 1629,
402 1633, 1638, 1650, 1652, 1662, 1667, 1672, 1690, 1696) were documented specifically for Deventer and/or Zutphen
403 during this period, but do not occur in the SDI. Such a rather low degree in correspondence supports the
404 conclusions regarding Bern and Rouen that generalised drought data cannot easily be applied to reconstruct or
405 strengthen knowledge of the specific local droughts. In fact, it shows that local sources can provide insights into
406 droughts that may not appear in compiled data-sets, which prompts the need to do more in-depth research for
407 multiple regions and localities to minimise faulty generalisations about the widespread effects of drought on
408 different parts of society.

409

410 **8. Comparison with the OWDA**

411 Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) also compared their findings with the OWDA, a freely accessible online
412 database that provides year-by-year data – either via a dataset or an interactive map – of drought severity
413 throughout Europe and certain parts of North Africa and the Middle East on a 0.5 degrees latitude/longitude grid,
414 going back as far as 0 CE and coming to a halt in 2012. The OWDA displays drought-severity on a scPDSI scale
415 from extremely dry (-6) to extremely wet (6). It is based on a vast amount of dendrochronological data for Europe,
416 completed with additional information historical data on hydroclimatic extremes, but only with regard to spring
417 and summer drought conditions (Cook et. al., 2015). This is also the main setback of the OWDA, as it can only be
418 used to compare drought conditions from June to August. Another pitfall is the scPDSI ranking-system, which has
419 to be calibrated to other forms of indices, such as the seven-point Pfister index or the HSDS. Camenisch and
420 Salvisberg tested the OWDA against the data from individual indices of Bern and Rouen, as well as the SDI. They
421 used the censure of -2.5 on the scPDSI scale as the mark of moderate to severe and extreme droughts. As expected,
422 the comparison with the wider SDI yielded the most results that can be regarded as statistically significant using
423 the Pearson correlation ($r = 0.42$).

424 For the comparison with the HSDS for Deventer and Zutphen, grid snapshots were generated for each
425 reconstructed drought year, using the area which includes Deventer and Zutphen (52.34 to 52.°N, and 6 to 6.48
426 °E) (see figure 8). Only values of -2.5 or lower were taken into account, and no usable data was available for the
427 years 1638 and 1662. The outcome of the comparison was rather meagre, as from eleven drought years
428 corresponding to relevant outcomes of the OWDA survey (1534, 1615, 1630, 1634, 1652, 1666, 1669, 1753, 1790,
429 1793, and 1794), only one year, 1666, was relevant as it fell within the range of summer (JJA) drought. Another
430 interesting aspect is that some of the major summer drought-years, such as 1783, only receive a ranking of -2 on
431 the scPDSI scale of the OWDA. However, the OWDA data for certain years, such as 1615, 1630, 1669, and 1793,
432 which indicate autumn and winter droughts, could perhaps indicate that the effects of the summer droughts was
433 still felt during the following seasons. Perhaps the reconstructions using the OWDA are susceptible to the same
434 criticism as the comparisons to the Buisman-IJnsen series and the SDI. They strongly deviate from the drought
435 years reconstructed for Deventer and Zutphen, which indicates the more localised character of most droughts. Yet
436 it also shows the limits of dendroclimatological analysis on the basis of tree rings as a proxy for drought, which
437 highlights the value of using documentary sources as a means to verify the occurrence of historic droughts (Bothe
438 et. al., 2019; Pribyl, 2020).

439 9. Discussion and Conclusion

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

444 The archives of Deventer and Zutphen contain plenty of municipal records that provided impact-based instances
445 of drought from the early sixteenth to the late eighteenth century. As for Deventer, slightly longer-running and a
446 larger amount records are available compared to Zutphen, where consistent records, such as daily resolutions date
447 back from the second half of the sixteenth century. Nevertheless, similar examples of drought-related measures
448 were found that indicate how droughts affected both cities primarily in terms of hydrological circumstances. The
449 most common issues are related to low water levels in the rivers and canals around the city hampering navigation
450 and low groundwater tables leading to a lack of water in wells and pumps. The main problem with the information
451 from the documentary evidence from both archives is that although it provides a good view on the impact of
452 drought in cities like Deventer and Zutphen, it remains difficult to establish the exact duration of droughts. The
453 extent of droughts is only mentioned in terms of general wordings like ‘prolonged’ and ‘extraordinary. As of such,
454 the seven-point index, in which drought-severity is measured according to monthly thresholds, cannot be applied
455 the data found for Deventer and Zutphen.

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

477 firefighting purposes could be regarded as more important regarding the wide-ranging socio-economic effects a
478 major fire could have on the city as a whole (Garrioch, 2018).

479 Comparison with other indices, such as the Buisman-IJnsen temperature series, the SDI, and the OWDA, have
480 yielded different insights with regard to the data from this study. The comparison with Buisman-IJnsen turned out
481 to be unfruitful, probably because temperature was of less influence on these droughts, and because the data from
482 multiple areas outside of the Netherlands cannot be used to create regional or local reconstructions of extreme
483 temperatures. The comparison with the SDI for the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries led to a limited number of
484 corresponding drought years, which indicates that such supra-regional indices do not correspond one-on-one with
485 more localised documentary-based drought reconstructions. The same can be said of the comparison with the data
486 gathered from single-year based snapshots from the OWDA. In this case the correspondence was even lower
487 regarding the sole focus on summer droughts, although the indications for certain years could point towards
488 possible long-lasting effects of summer droughts during consecutive months.

489 All in all, the data for Deventer and Zutphen display both evidence for a small number wider supra-regional
490 droughts as well as a larger number of local droughts specifically mentioned in the documentary sources for the
491 period under study. These concern primarily moderate to severe instances of drought that impacted society and
492 prompted responses from the city government to avert possible negative outcomes, such as food and water
493 shortages. As such, the source material to reconstruct droughts is closely connected to the societal responses to
494 drought, which indicates that specific instances of drought, primarily hydrological drought, impacted society not
495 necessarily by causing a widespread crisis but by limiting the use of water and waterways. The urban sources also
496 record very little instances of agricultural drought, of which only once instance was found for a 300-year period.
497 Remarkable is also that, at least for Deventer, the ‘megadrought’ of 1540 is entirely absent in the sources. As
498 Camenisch and Salvisberg (2020) demonstrated, however, this is not rare with regard to more localised
499 reconstructions. Although major European drought events as in 1540 feature widely in supra-regional indices,
500 which are comprised of documentary and natural proxy data from across different regions (Wetter e.t. al., 2014),
501 they are less likely to show in more local, urban analyses. Drought reconstructions for specific locations, whether
502 cities or villages with adequate data density, therefore should be taken into account when compiling large-scale
503 drought reconstructions, to gain a more accurate picture of the regional and local spread of drought and its severity
504 in terms of societal impact.

505 However, comparisons between specific, localities is another aspect that requires more attention. Deventer and
506 Zutphen, for example, despite their similarities and close proximity to one another yield a number of different
507 drought years. This can be explained, in part, by a difference in source-density for specific periods. More and
508 longer-running series of sources were available for Deventer, but considering the relative consistency and duration
509 of the municipal records for both cities it could also be argued that droughts were not always perceived as equally
510 menacing. Explanations for this can be found in the source-type, municipal records, which mostly refer only to
511 high-impact drought-events that required a governmental response, but also at the local level, for example by
512 studying the hydrological, geological, and socio-economic aspects of each city. This would include the dependence
513 of specific water sources for a city’s economy, such as the need to operate watermills, or the general system of
514 water provisioning and how this was impacted across different areas within a city. Differing hydrological or socio-
515 political means that strengthened or helped to alleviate the effects of past drought could thus play an important

516 part in determining the severity of drought on a local level (Metger and Jacob Rousseau, 2020). This could provide
517 a better image of droughts through human actions and natural circumstances that have an influence on the local
518 impact and severity of drought and other climatic hazards, which counts not only for the past but also the future
519 (Degroot et. al., 2021; Kchouk et. al., 2021; Savelli et. al., 2022; Van Loon et. al., 2016). More research is needed
520 in order to draw broader conclusions on the specific local impacts of urban droughts, and how this was influenced
521 by local natural or human factors over time.

522

523 **Data availability**

524 The data used in this article is included in two supplements attached to this article. The archival sources used for
525 the research of this paper are publicly and/or digitally accessible via the websites of the HCO
526 (<https://collectieoverijssel.nl/>) and ZuRAZ. (<https://erfgoedcentrumzutphen.nl/>) and can be found in appendix 1.
527 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)
528 [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/>).

529 **Supplement**

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

531 **Competing Interests**

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

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550 **Appendix 1: Archival sources**

551 Historisch Centrum Overijssel (HCO) (Regional Archives of Overijssel), Deventer, Stad Deventer, periode
552 Middeleeuwen, 1241-1591 (ID 0690), Edicta magistratus die buyrspraecht genoemtp or Dat boick der
553 buyrspraiken, 1459-1538, 1555-1596, 135.1, 3.

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