

1 Ranking of tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions of the past millennium

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37 **Abstract**

38 To place recent hydroclimate changes, including drought occurrences, in a long-term historical
39 context, tree-ring records serve as an important natural archive. Here, we evaluate 46
40 millennium-long tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions for their *data homogeneity*,
41 *sample replication*, *growth coherence*, *chronology development*, and *climate signal* based on
42 criteria published by Esper et al. (2016) to assess tree-ring based temperature reconstructions.
43 The compilation of 46 individually calibrated site reconstructions includes 37 different tree
44 species and stem from North America (29), Asia (10); Europe (5), northern Africa (1) and
45 southern South America (1). For each criterion, the individual reconstructions were ranked in
46 four groups, and results showed that no reconstruction scores highest or lowest for all analyzed
47 parameters. We find no geographical differences in the overall ranking, but reconstructions
48 from arid and semi-arid environments tend to score highest. A strong and stable hydroclimate
49 signal is found to be of greater importance than a long calibration period. The most challenging
50 trade-off identified is between high continuous sample replications, as well as a well-mixed age
51 class distribution over time, and a good internal growth coherence. Unlike temperature
52 reconstructions, a high proportion of the hydroclimate reconstructions are produced using
53 individual series detrending methods removing centennial-scale variability. By providing a
54 quantitative and objective evaluation of all available tree-ring based hydroclimate
55 reconstructions we hope to boost future improvements in the development of such records and
56 provide practical guidance to secondary users of these reconstructions.

57

58 **Keywords:** Paleoclimate; Dendrochronology; Dendroclimatology; Hydroclimate; Proxy data;
59 Past millennium; Climate change.

60 **1. Introduction**

61 Tree-ring chronologies built from living and dead trees offer a valuable source of information
62 for understanding different aspects of natural and human history, ranging from archeological
63 dating to past climate conditions. Tree-ring chronologies are both annually resolved and
64 precisely dated (Douglass 1909; 1920; 1928; 1941; Stokes and Smiley 1968; Fritts, 1976;
65 Schweingruber, 1988; Speer, 2010; Anchukaitis, 2017; Büntgen et al., 2018). Long
66 chronologies can be developed in most temperate and subtropical areas of the world across
67 almost all types of habitats (St George, 2014; St George and Ault, 2014). The availability of
68 numerous tree-ring data sets from different sites and tree species, from diverse natural
69 environments, allows for comprehensive statistical analyses (e.g., Björklund et al., 2017;
70 Seftigen et al., 2018; Babst et al., 2019; Büntgen et al., 2019).

71 Depending on the dominant growth-limiting climate factor in a particular site, tree-ring data
72 can be used to reconstruct either growing season temperature or hydroclimate variability (Fritts,
73 1976). Millennium-long temperature reconstructions, entirely or partly derived from tree-ring
74 data, have gained the widest attention through their almost iconic status in the current global
75 warming discourse (see, e.g., Frank et al., 2010; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013; Smerdon and
76 Pollack, 2016; Esper et al., 2018). Tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions are perhaps
77 less widely known, but they play an equally important role in contributing to our understanding
78 of climate variability over the past one to two millennia. The use of tree-ring data to understand
79 past hydroclimate variability has also a considerably longer history than the use of tree-ring
80 data to address temperature variability, as the science of dendrochronology was developed in
81 the moisture-limited growth environment of the southwestern United States (Douglass, 1929;
82 1941). Notable earlier works in the field include Bogue (1905), Douglass (1917), Hawley and
83 Clark (1940), Shulman (1956), and Fritts (1976). Some of the earliest examples of long
84 calibrated precipitation, drought and streamflow reconstructions can be found in Schulman
85 (1945), Meko et al. (1980), Cook and Jacoby (1983).

86 Reconstructing hydroclimate is more challenging than reconstructing temperature as
87 precipitation and drought are highly affected by topography and local features (Feng et al.,
88 2013) and have greater spatial variability (Osborn and Hulme, 1997; Datta et al., 2003; Hofstra
89 and New, 2009; Büntgen et al., 2010; Wan et al., 2013). Precipitation shows significant spatial
90 correlations of ~500–700 km at decadal time-scales (Cook et al., 2004; Ljungqvist et al., 2016;

91 [Schneider et al., 2019](#)) compared to up to several thousand kilometers for temperature ([Jones](#)
92 [et al., 1997](#); [Christiansen and Ljungqvist, 2017](#)).

93 Despite these challenges several large-scale gridded hydroclimate reconstructions, covering
94 major portions of continents, have been produced using tree-ring data: e.g. the North American
95 Drought Atlas ([Cook et al., 2004](#)), the Monsoon Asia Drought Atlas ([Cook et al., 2010](#)), the
96 Old World Drought Atlas ([Cook et al., 2015](#)), the Mexican Drought Atlas ([Stahle et al., 2016](#)),
97 the Eastern Australia and New Zealand Drought Atlas ([Palmer et al., 2015](#)) and recently the
98 combined Global Drought Atlas ([Marvel et al., 2019](#)) covering large portions of the world back
99 to 1400 CE and offering reasonable coverage for parts of the Northern Hemisphere back to
100 1000 CE. However, the majority of tree-ring chronologies included in these gridded
101 reconstructions have not been published as individual quality-assessed hydroclimate
102 reconstructions. Although the chronologies in the drought atlases, when used together, provide
103 a skillful drought reconstruction over space and time, their strength lies in the representation of
104 the general hydroclimatic condition in a region due to the applied aggregation, and thus
105 interpolation, approach. Complementary to those drought atlases, however, it is important to
106 use individual tree-ring based site reconstructions to understand the underlying data and
107 investigate local hydroclimatic conditions. This is of paramount importance especially when
108 the local hydroclimate–tree growth relationship deviates in season or in hydroclimatic metric
109 from the one used in the drought atlases.

110 The network of millennium-long hydroclimate tree-ring based reconstructions is
111 geographically confined to a few regions ([Fig. 1](#)) with the largest concentration in the
112 southwestern United States, and a smaller cluster on the edge of the northeastern Tibetan
113 Plateau. Considering the drought change difference 1983–2016 between 1950–1982, one finds
114 hydroclimate reconstructions distributed over both regions that tend to get wetter and regions
115 that tend to get drier ([Fig. 1](#)). It is obvious that the present network of millennium-long
116 reconstructions is woefully inadequate for capturing the spatially heterogeneous nature of
117 hydroclimate variability.

118

119 *1.1. Objectives*

120 Future hydroclimate changes are arguably the largest uncertainty connected with global
121 warming that, at the same time, likely have the largest environmental and societal impacts ([Field](#)
122 [et al., 2014](#); [Schewe et al., 2014](#), [Lehner et al., 2017](#); [Trnka et al., 2018](#)). State-of-the-art climate
123 model simulations provide highly uncertain projections of hydroclimate changes at regional to
124 continental scales ([Stephens et al., 2010](#); [Orlowsky and Seneviratne, 2013](#); [Christensen et al.,](#)

125 2014; Nasrollahi et al., 2015). Climate model evaluation through paleoclimate reconstruction–
126 simulation comparison studies is thus of uttermost importance to improve the models' skill
127 (e.g., Ault et al., 2013; 2014; Coats et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2015; 2016; Smerdon et al., 2015;
128 Ljungqvist et al., 2016; 2019; Xoplaki et al., 2016; 2018; Seftigen et al., 2017; Bothe et al.,
129 2019). Hydroclimate reconstructions are therefore highly important for a deeper understanding
130 of past, present and future hydroclimatic conditions and it is critically important to objectively
131 assess and communicate the strengths and weaknesses of each individual record.

132 In this article, we evaluate and rank 46 millennium-long tree-ring based hydroclimate
133 reconstructions by considering their *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample Replication*, *Growth*
134 *Coherence*, *Chronology Development*, and *Climate Signal* using an ordinal scoring scheme set
135 forth in Esper et al. (2016) for ranking tree-ring based temperature reconstructions. We discuss
136 the implications of the ranking, provide recommendations for how to select hydroclimate
137 reconstructions to use for different purposes, and make recommendations for the development
138 of new hydroclimate reconstructions. In addition, we compare the results of the two rankings
139 of hydroclimate and temperature reconstructions.

140

141 1.2. Reconstructed hydroclimatic metrics

142 Our compilation of tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions, extending back to 1000 CE,
143 includes 24 reconstructions of precipitation, 11 reconstructions of streamflow, 6 reconstructions
144 of the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI; Palmer, 1965; van der Schrier et al., 2011), 3
145 reconstructions of moisture availability/balance, 1 reconstruction of the Standardized
146 Precipitation Index (SPI; McKee et al., 1993), and 1 reconstruction of Palmer Hydrological
147 Drought Index (PHDI) (Karl, 1986). Precipitation is the most easily available metric as it is
148 directly derived from meteorological station data, although it does not fully reflect the complex
149 hydrological systems. Furthermore, tree-ring hydroclimate sensitivity might vary depending on
150 soil characteristics and evapotranspiration rates, making different drought metrics more or less
151 suitable.

152 PDSI integrates precipitation and temperature to estimate relative dryness ranging from –10
153 (very dry) to +10 (very wet) (Palmer, 1965; Dai et al., 2004; Wells et al., 2004; van der Schrier
154 et al., 2011). It tracks long-term changes in physiological drought, relative to the mean
155 conditions in a given region, as it combines a physical water balance model with temperature
156 and thus considers potential evapotranspiration (Hobbins et al., 2008). PHDI captures the
157 slower impacts of drought and was developed to quantify long-term hydrological effects better
158 than the PDSI (Jacobi et al., 2013).

159 SPI quantifies the observed precipitation as a standardized departure from the long-term
160 mean (Keyantash and Dracup, 2002). One potential weakness with SPI is that it does not
161 consider changes in evapotranspiration since it only reflects changes in water supply. The
162 metric relates well to soil moisture on shorter timescales and to groundwater and reservoir
163 storage on longer timescales (McKee et al., 1993). It is typically a more comparable metric
164 across regions than PDSI, albeit this limitation of PDSI is greatly relieved in self-calibrated
165 PDSI variant (scPDSI; Wells et al., 2004; van der Schrier et al., 2011).

166 Streamflow can be reconstructed from tree-ring data, as both river discharge and tree growth
167 could be modulated by common precipitation and evaporation patterns at a local to regional
168 scale (Schulman, 1945; Stockton, 1975; Stockton and Jacoby, 1976; Woodhouse et al., 2006;
169 Ho et al., 2016). However, streamflow has its own characteristics: after a heavy precipitation,
170 discharge typically reaches a peak, and then gradually subsides to base flow.

171

172 **2. Materials and methods**

173 *2.1. Tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions*

174 A literature review resulted in the identification of 48 tree-ring width based hydroclimate
175 reconstructions extending back to at least 1000 CE, each with a minimum replication in any
176 given year of at least three measurement series. Only 46 of these 48 reconstructions are included
177 in this assessment since the raw data and sufficient information from two reconstructions – the
178 Northeastern Tibetan Plateau precipitation reconstruction by Liu et al. (2006) and the Qaidam
179 Basin moisture availability reconstruction by Yin et al. (2008) – could not be obtained. All data
180 used here were otherwise either accessible from public repositories or made available to us by
181 the original authors. We did not include older reconstructions using mainly the same tree-ring
182 material as in a newer version.¹ Moreover, all tree-ring isotope based reconstructions (see e.g.,
183 Duffy et al., 2019) were excluded from this assessment as they either lack annual resolution
184 (e.g., Edwards et al., 2008; 2017; Wang et al., 2013; Kress et al., 2014) or the reconstruction
185 was derived from annually pooled samples (e.g., Treydte et al., 2006; Grießinger et al., 2017),
186 precluding the calculation of key metrics used in this assessment.

187 Out of the 46 tree-ring width based hydroclimate reconstructions, 10 are from Asia, 5 from
188 Europe, 1 from (northern) Africa, 29 from North America, and 1 from (southern) South
189 America. The five reconstructions from Europe and the one from (northern) Africa are treated
190 as one group (Fig. 1; Table 1). The 46 reconstructions are derived from 37 tree species

¹ For example, the Heihe River, China, streamflow reconstruction by Qin et al. (2010) is superseded by that in Yang et al. (2012).

191 representing 16 different genera, with *Pinus* ($n = 21$), *Pseudotsuga* ($n = 14$), and *Juniperus* (n
192 $= 11$) being the most common. Most species ($n = 22$), however, occur only in one single
193 reconstruction. The majority of the reconstructions ($n = 29$) are composed of one tree species,
194 but 11 include two species, and six combine three or more species (Table 1). Only seven
195 reconstructions are composed of ring width data solely from living trees, mainly from China,
196 while 39 are composed of living trees in combination with relict material from archeological,
197 historical, remnant, and/or sub-fossil samples. The season of the strongest tree-growth response
198 to hydroclimate differs among the reconstructions (see column “Season” in Table 1).

199

200 2.2. Hydroclimate tree-ring chronology characteristics and metrics

201 The characteristics *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample Replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology*
202 *Development*, and *Climate Signal* described in Esper et al. (2016) are here adapted for
203 hydroclimate reconstructions (sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.5). In most instances, information about
204 *Data Homogeneity* and *Climate Signal* were obtained from the original publications. For the
205 remaining characteristics, each value was calculated using the program ARSTAN (version
206 ARS41d_xp) (Cook and Krusic, 2005). Each characteristic (see sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.5) is used
207 to produce an ordinal scoring scheme to rank the 46 tree-ring hydroclimate reconstructions. The
208 scores for each criterion and their combination are divided into four classes (from highest to
209 lowest rank): class A, class B, class C, and class D. In the quantitative ranking of *Sample*
210 *Replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology Development*, and *Climate Signal*, the 12 top-
211 ranked hydroclimate reconstructions fall in class A, ranks 13–24 in class B, ranks 25–35 in
212 class C, and ranks 36–46 in class D. In the mainly qualitative ranking of the *Data Homogeneity*
213 an uneven number of reconstructions fall into the four hierarchical classes (11 reconstructions in
214 class A, 14 class B, 14 class C, and 7 class D). To produce an overall score, the individual
215 ranking order for each characteristic (sections 2.3.1 to 2.3.5) is combined.

216

217 2.2.1. Data Homogeneity

218 The category *Data Homogeneity* combines characteristics of the (i) “*Source*” of tree-ring
219 samples, (ii) “*Type of chronology*”, (iii) “*Number*” of tree species, (iv) “*Temporal clustering*”
220 of tree-ring data, and (v) more general “*Remarks*” on the sampling site(s). *Source* includes
221 information about the origin of tree-ring samples, the number of sampling sites, and their
222 location in relation to each other. The *Data Homogeneity* score takes into account whether, and
223 to what extent, the tree-ring samples originate from one or more sites. This information was
224 obtained either from the original publication or via personal communication with the

225 author(s)/data contributor(s). *Chronology type* differentiates between two types of tree-ring
226 reconstructions: composite “C” reconstructions, composed of living in addition to relict
227 (*historical/remnant/sub-fossil*) material, and living “L” reconstructions composed only of
228 samples from living trees. *Historic* denotes samples from *both* archaeological excavations and
229 standing structures. *Remnant* denotes samples from dead wood found on the ground in different
230 states of conservation. *Sub-fossil* denotes samples retrieved from sediments. *Number of Species*
231 considers the number of different tree species contributing to a reconstruction. *Temporal*
232 *clustering* refers to when the contribution of tree-ring data from distinct homogeneous sites
233 and/or a specific tree species dominate specific periods of the past millennium. Such clustering
234 can complicate the preservation of low-frequency climate information (*sensu*, [Melvin et al.,](#)
235 [2013](#)). *Remark* summarizes particular features of the data in a particular reconstruction relevant
236 to the *Data Homogeneity* score.

237

238 2.2.2. *Sample Replication*

239 The availability of tree-ring series varies over time, resulting in an uneven temporal distribution
240 over the past millennium with typically increasingly fewer series back in time. We consider
241 how these temporal changes affect reconstruction skill in the *Sample Replication* metric by
242 integrating information about (i) “*Mean replication*”, (ii) “*Maximum replication*”, (iii)
243 “*Minimum replication*”, and (iv) “*11th/20th Century Ratio*”. *Mean Replication* denotes the
244 average number of measurement series (either core samples or radii from disks) considering all
245 years from 1000 CE to the most recent year of a reconstruction (thus, meaning that the exact
246 number of years can differ slightly due to the different end dates of the reconstructions).
247 *Maximum Replication* and *Minimum Replication* refer to the maximum and minimum numbers
248 of contributing measurements at any year in the reconstruction. The *11th/20th Century Ratio*
249 refers to the mean 11th century replication divided by the mean 20th century replication
250 multiplied by 100. This metric is particularly important since tree-ring based reconstructions
251 are calibrated over the typically well-replicated recent period. We calculate the combined
252 *Sample Replication* score by summing the first three values ($i + ii + iii$) and multiplying the
253 result by (iv). As explained in [Esper et al. \(2016\)](#), these measures – as well as those for the other
254 scores described below – are somewhat arbitrary but derived through dendroclimatological
255 expert knowledge to produce an ordinal scoring system that permits the comparison and ranking

256 of tree-ring based reconstructions. *Sample Replication* was calculated using the program
257 ARSTAN.²

258

259 2.2.3. Growth coherence

260 *Growth coherence* is expressed by the correlation between the individual measurement series:
261 the so-called inter-series correlation (Rbar) (Wigley et al., 1984). *Growth Coherence* is an
262 important chronology characteristic when evaluating the temporal reliability of a tree-ring
263 based climate reconstruction. Using the program ARSTAN, we calculated the running mean
264 Rbar value for every 10 years of a chronology using a 100-year window with an overlap of 90
265 years from 1000 CE onwards. The final *Growth Coherence* score is obtained by summing the
266 (i) mean Rbar, (ii) maximum Rbar, and (iii) minimum Rbar and multiplying the resulting sum
267 by the (iv) 11th / 20th century ratio Rbar (in %). The mean, as well as the minimum and maximum
268 Rbar were calculated in a similar manner from 1050 CE onwards. In order to avoid biased
269 positive results from very high Rbar values in the 11th century compared to in the 20th century,
270 the maximum allowed Rbar ratio is capped at 150% in the calculation of the final *Growth*
271 *Coherence* score. This 150% ceiling only affects three reconstructions, all from the United
272 States: Potomac River (Maxwell et al., 2011), Southern Sierra Nevada (Graumlich, 1993), and
273 Upper Arkansas River Basin (Woodhouse et al., 2011).

274

275 2.2.4. Chronology Development

276 The *Chronology Development* score incorporates four metrics: (i) type of detrending (“1” for
277 Regional Curve Standardization (RCS), and “2” for individual-series detrending method), (ii)
278 the square root of the difference between the maximum and the minimum age, (iii) the slope of
279 the linear regression in the age curve multiplied by 100, and (iv) the maximum retained low-
280 frequency score (“1” for multi-centennial and “2” for decadal to centennial). The choice of
281 detrending method to remove tree-age related growth trends from the raw measurement series
282 can have profound effect on the ability to preserve low-frequency variability and long-term
283 trends in tree-ring reconstructions. Only certain detrending methods can overcome limitations
284 induced by the segment length of individual tree-ring series (Cook et al., 1995). The RCS
285 method (Briffa et al., 1992; Esper et al., 2003) is most commonly used to achieve trend
286 preservation and the maximum retained low-frequency score is “1” for RCS detrended.
287 Reconstructions produced by individual series detrending are by default supposed not to

² The 11th century sample depth is calculated over the period 1001 to 1100, and the 20th century sample depth is calculated from 1901 to the most recent year of a reconstruction.

288 preserve low-frequency variability beyond their segment length and obtain the score “2”.
289 However, chronologies with tree-ring series, on average, exceeding 400 years are still supposed
290 to retain some multi-centennial variability. We calculated the difference between the maximum
291 and minimum age over the past millennium, and the slope of the linear regression fit to the age
292 curve. In the ranking of temperature reconstructions by [Esper et al. \(2016\)](#), the maximum low-
293 frequency information a reconstruction is arguably able to retain is divided into three categories:
294 multi-centennial = “1”, to centennial = “2”, to decadal = “3”. Here, for our ranking, we only
295 use two categories: multi-centennial = “1” and decadal to centennial = “2”. The rationale for a
296 two-category scale when working with hydroclimate reconstructions is because, compared to
297 temperature, it is less certain what are the deterministic and stochastic controls on hydroclimate
298 low-frequency variability ([Hurst, 1951](#); [Pelletier and Turcotte, 1997](#); [Markonis and
299 Koutsoyiannis, 2016](#)). The final *Chronology Development* score is obtained by multiplying (i)
300 the method score (“1” for RCS, “2” for individual detrending), with (ii) the square root of the
301 maximum–minimum age difference, (iii) the absolute linear regression slope multiplied by 100,
302 and (iv) the maximum retained low-frequency score.

303

304 2.2.5. *Climate Signal*

305 We acknowledge the limitations with the *Climate Signal* metric considering that the assessment
306 of hydroclimate signal strength to a large degree is dependent on the quality and length of the
307 instrumental data. Moreover, in some cases, especially in regions with a short and sparse
308 network of instrumental data, the hydroclimate signal in the trees may in fact be better than the
309 instrumental data used for calibration. The *Climate Signal* score is derived by (i) calculating the
310 square root of the number of years of overlap between the reconstruction and the instrumental
311 target used for calibration, multiplied by the residual between, (ii) the correlation coefficients
312 between tree-ring chronologies and instrumental climate data, and (iii) the difference between
313 correlation values of the calibration/verification periods. When the calibration/verification
314 statistics are not reported, we estimate the difference based on our calculations using gridded
315 instrumental data. In addition, we included another variable (iv) to account for a calibration
316 period that was deliberately shortened to avoid “divergence”, i.e., an anomalous offset between
317 tree growth and climate sensitivity (*sensu* [D’Arrigo et al., 2008](#)). When such “divergence” is
318 reported in the original publication, and the calibration period has been truncated, we use 0.5

319 as a multiplier instead of 1 as in all other cases. The final *Climate Signal* score is obtained by
320 calculating the square root $i \times (ii-iii) \times iv$.

321

322 **3. Results**

323 *3.1. Detailed tree-ring chronology rankings*

324 *3.1.1. Data Homogeneity*

325 The reconstructions scoring the highest (rank A) by *Data Homogeneity* (Table 3), of which
326 none are from Europe, are derived from only one site or, in case of the Tavaputs Plateau (Knight
327 et al., 2010), from two very nearby sites in one canyon. Moreover, when the reconstructions are
328 only based on one tree species, and when the data are from only one site, it is not possible for
329 temporal clustering to occur. The reconstructions scoring second highest (class B) are based on
330 tree-ring material from either one or two or several sites (e.g., Barranca de Amealco; Stahle et
331 al., 2011 and Flowerpot; Buckley et al., 2004). In cases when they are based on only one site
332 this site includes less homogeneous material than those in class A. When the data are from two
333 or more sites, these are typically homogeneous growth environments in close proximity and the
334 reconstructions are composed of at most two species. There may exist inhomogeneities such as
335 early chronology portions that are based on only one site (e.g., Atlas Mountains; Esper et al.,
336 2007), substantial changes in mean ring width level (e.g., Barranca de Amealco; Stahle et al.,
337 2011), data obtained from two different river systems (e.g., Choctawhatchee River; Stahle et
338 al., 2012), different microsite conditions (e.g., Flowerpot; Buckley et al., 2004).

339 Reconstructions scoring less well (class C) typically consist of rather inhomogeneous
340 material, often collected across a large region. In some cases, the data are from a larger number
341 of sites (e.g., 17 living tree sites and 5 archeological sites on the Northeastern Tibetan Plateau;
342 Yang et al., 2014). Parts of the chronologies may also be derived from historical and/or
343 archeological wood that does not necessarily provenance from the same area or environment as
344 the living or remnant samples in the same chronology (e.g., Central Europe; Büntgen et al.,
345 2011, Dulan; Sheppard et al., 2004, East Anglia; Cooper et al., 2013, Southeastern England;
346 Wilson et al., 2013, and Mesa Verde; Stahle et al., 2015). The reconstructions scoring lowest
347 in *Data Homogeneity* (class D) do not necessarily consist of more sites than those in class C.
348 However, the sites are geographically more dispersed as well as diverse in their growth
349 environments. All reconstructions in class D, except one, include three to up to nine different
350 tree species (see Table 2). All class D reconstructions are from North America, including many
351 that consist of numerous sites, widely dispersed over several states, and separated by distances
352 up to several hundreds of kilometers. It is thus the number of sites, plus the distance between

353 them, as well as the inhomogeneous growth environments that primarily are impacting *Data*
354 *Homogeneity*. However, when a reconstruction includes three or more tree species the scoring
355 decreases to the point where it contributes to place the reconstruction in class D. Temporal
356 clustering is present in most class C and D chronologies.

357

358 3.1.2. *Sample Replication*

359 Reconstructions from Asia and Europe generally include more samples than reconstructions
360 from North America (Table 4). Overall, mean replication is similar between Asia and Europe
361 except for the sharp replication increase after *c.* 1850 in Europe at (Fig. 2). Noteworthy is also
362 the decreasing sample replication towards the present in Asia as well as gradual post-1500
363 increase seen in many reconstructions from North America. The post-1850 replication increase
364 in Europe biases the (20th century) calibration statistics – a feature absent in Asia and North
365 America. Mean and maximum replication are highest in Europe and lowest in North America.
366 The 11th/20th century ratio of the mean replication is highest, and with the largest spread, in
367 Asia, and basically identical in Europe and North America (Fig. 5).

368 The reconstruction ranking highest in the category *Sample Replication* is the Northeastern
369 Tibetan Plateau including 837 measurement series (Yang et al., 2014), followed by Central
370 Europe (3124 series; Büntgen et al., 2011) and Colorado River (390 series; MacDonald et al.,
371 2008). Reconstructions scoring well in *Sample Replication* are disproportionately often from
372 Asia and Europe, whereas the majority of low scoring ones are from North America. The latter
373 is even more apparent when considering the minimum replication: except two, all
374 reconstructions including periods during which replication falls below 10 samples are from
375 North America (Table 4).

376

377 3.1.3. *Growth Coherence*

378 Mean Rbar values are highest in North America (0.42) and lowest in Europe (0.25), with values
379 in Asia (0.38) closer to those of North America (Fig. 3). The low Rbar values in Europe likely
380 result from the inclusion of tree-ring material that is less homogeneous over time, including
381 material derived from historical construction timber harvested over a wide region in different
382 growth environment conditions. Another possible explanation for the low Rbar values in
383 Europe is a lower proportion of the tree-ring material that is derived from arid or semi-arid
384 environments.

385 Reconstructions scoring well in the category *Sample Replication* perform in some cases less
386 well in the category *Growth Coherence* and vice versa. This is presumably related to data from

387 sites, with various growth conditions, being included in many of the reconstruction with high
388 replication resulting a weaker common signal. All reconstructions with the highest *Growth*
389 *Coherence* (class A) come from North America. There is no consistent geographical pattern
390 associated with those reconstructions with the lowest *Growth Coherence* (class D). Three
391 reconstructions have negative Rbar values at some point during the past millennium (1000–
392 2000 CE). Interestingly, these negative Rbar values do not necessarily appear in the, generally
393 most weakly replicated, early part of the chronology.³

394

395 *3.1.4. Chronology Development*

396 Whereas reconstructions from Europe are overrepresented among those with the highest
397 *Chronology Development* scores (class A) several reconstructions from China ($n = 4$) and North
398 America ($n = 7$) appear in class D (Table 6). The low *Chronology Development* scores are
399 related to a large age range and a steep age trend in combination with individual detrending
400 instead of RCS detrending (Fig. 3). An uneven age distribution also introduces a climate signal
401 age effect bias (e.g., Linderholm and Linderholm, 2004; Rossi et al., 2008; Rozas et al., 2009;
402 Čermák et al., 2019). Asian chronologies have the largest age range and age trend – as well as
403 the largest spread in both parameters – whereas European chronologies have the smallest age
404 range and age trend (Fig. 7). The smaller observed average age trend in Europe, compared to
405 in Asia and North America, is both related to the relative absence of long-lived tree species in
406 Europe and to a long history of heavy human land use over most of the continent. The European
407 chronologies have a flat age trend until the late nineteenth century in Europe, whereas in Asia
408 the increase is visible already by *c.* 1300, and by *c.* 1700 in North America (Fig. 3). In addition,
409 the spread in the age trend between chronologies from North America increases after *c.* 1600.
410 All three continents have a strong age trend increase during the twentieth century. It is more
411 common for chronologies from Europe to retain centennial to multi-centennial variability than
412 for chronologies from Asia or North America as RCS has been applied to composite datasets.

413

414 *3.1.5. Climate Signal*

415 All 12 reconstructions in the highest *Climate Signal* class A are from North America (Table 7).
416 These reconstructions calibrate exceptionally well (mean 0.79 ± 0.07) against relatively long

³ The East Anglia precipitation reconstruction (Cooper et al., 2013) has a minimum Rbar value of -0.24 centered in the 1190s, the Jemez Mountain precipitation reconstruction (Touchan et al., 2011) has a minimum Rbar value of -0.22 centered in the 1430s, and the Central European precipitation reconstruction (Büntgen et al., 2011) a minimum Rbar value of -0.13 centered in the first decade of the nineteenth century.

417 instrumental data (mean 96 ± 13 years) and in most cases the calibration/verification difference
418 is a very small one (mean $r. 0.08\pm 0.05$) (Fig. 8). A very high correlation coefficient can
419 compensate for a shorter calibration period and a larger calibration/verification difference. The
420 reconstruction with the highest correlation to instrumental data ($r. 0.90$), the Bear River
421 streamflow reconstruction (DeRose et al., 2015), has a calibration period of only 68 years and
422 the calibration/verification difference is as large as $r. 0.18$, but is still placed in class A. There
423 is an obvious overrepresentation of humid sites among those reconstructions with the lowest
424 *Climate Signal* scores (class D). The eleven reconstructions of the lowest *Climate Signal* class
425 D are characterized by comparatively low correlation values to their instrumental targets ($r.$
426 0.63 ± 0.09), rather large calibration/verification differences ($r. 0.14\pm 0.08$), but highly variable
427 calibration period lengths ranging from 34 to 115 years. The calibration period of all *Climate*
428 *Signal* class D reconstructions has been truncated due to a “divergence” problem. In Asia, the
429 short calibration periods stand out, but the correlation values are similar to those of North
430 America. The reconstructions from Europe are typically calibrated over periods of similar
431 length as those for North America but correlation values are lower (Fig. 8c). It can be noted that
432 the majority of the evaluated hydroclimate tree-ring records show a weak negative correlation
433 to local annual mean temperature over the twentieth century, with a mean of -0.12 and range
434 from -0.01 and -0.25 between the first and the third quartiles.

435

436 3.2. Overall tree-ring hydroclimate reconstruction ranking

437 The results from our assessment of *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample Replication*, *Growth*
438 *Coherence*, *Chronology Development*, and *Climate Signal* of 46 millennium-long tree-ring
439 based hydroclimate reconstructions are presented in Tables 3–7. Clear differences between
440 reconstructions become apparent in the overall tree-ring chronology ranking shown in Table 8.
441 Two reconstructions, Khorgo and Uurgat (Hessl et al., 2018), score high (class A or class B) in
442 all five categories. Nine reconstructions score high (class A or class B) in four of out five
443 categories. Eleven reconstructions score less well (class C and class D) in at least four out of
444 five categories.

445 Some reconstructions score high in some parameters and low in some others. The most
446 notable example is the Central Europe precipitation reconstruction (Büntgen et al., 2011). It
447 ranks #1 in *Chronology Development* and #2 in *Sample Replication*, but #45 in *Growth*
448 *Coherence* and #44 in *Climate Signal*. Another reconstruction, Southern Sierra Nevada
449 (Graumlich, 1993), scores the highest (class A) in all categories except in *Sample Replication*
450 where it scores the lowest (class D). Conversely, the Colorado River reconstruction

451 (MacDonald et al., 2008) scores low (class D) in all categories except in *Sample Replication*
452 where it scores high (class A).

453 No geographical differences are apparent in the overall tree-ring hydroclimate reconstruction
454 ranking. However, with only a few exceptions – e.g., two reconstructions from humid United
455 Kingdom – reconstructions from arid and semi-arid environments dominate those in class A.
456 Reconstructions from humid environments are on the other hand overrepresented in class D,
457 although several reconstructions from arid and semi-arid environments are also found there.
458 We also find that recently developed reconstructions are not necessarily better than older ones,
459 except for the ability to preserve low-frequency information. Three of the highest-ranking
460 reconstructions – El Malpais (Grissino-Mayer, 1995), Southern Sierra Nevada (Graumlich,
461 1993) and White Mountains (Hughes and Graumlich, 1996) – were actually among the earliest
462 developed millennium-long hydroclimate reconstructions.

463

464 **4. Discussion**

465 *4.1. Implications of the ranking of hydroclimate reconstructions*

466 This article attempts to provide an objective evaluation of the strength and weakness of
467 millennium-long tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions. Our ranking offers guidance for
468 users of these reconstructions inside and outside the dendroclimatological community. It
469 emphasizes the complexity of a comprehensive assessment in which the correlation with
470 instrumental data – arguably the most intuitive quality criterion – is only one out of many
471 aspects. In practice, different research questions will pose different selection criteria so that the
472 ranking presented here will be not equally applicable to all dendroclimatological studies. For
473 example, if the objective is to infer the influence of drought stress on long-term agricultural
474 productivity, it is desirable to select the best, regionally representative, reconstruction.
475 Furthermore, if the focus is on the effect of climatic extreme events, a lack of low-frequency
476 information may be less of a problem. On the other hand, a wide spatial coverage, even sample
477 replication over time, and preserved low-frequency information, are desirable if the goal is to
478 investigate where warm–wet and warm–dry associations tend to occur or to understand the
479 synoptic climate situations and feedback mechanisms responsible for such patterns. The design
480 of our criteria includes variability at timescales from inter-annual to multi-centennial, with a
481 specific accentuation on the lower frequencies that cannot be controlled in the period of
482 instrumental overlap. An issue to consider is that poor replication during the first centuries,
483 compared to the (20th century) calibration period, makes the quantification of the severity of
484 medieval megadroughts or enhanced monsoon precipitation in comparison to recent “extremes”

485 uncertain. In this context, it can also be noted that several reconstructions, published as
486 millennium-long, were excluded from this assessment as they either stopped just short of 1000
487 CE or did not have the sufficient replication (of at least three samples) all the way back to 1000
488 CE (e.g., [Büntgen et al., 2010](#); [Stambaugh et al., 2011](#)). The threshold of at least three
489 measurement series is set rather low. Generally speaking, at least 10 ring width measurement
490 series from different trees ought to be included in a reliable reconstruction, though the precise
491 number depends on the inter-series correlation (R_{bar}) and the climate signal strength inherent
492 to the particular data.

493 Hydroclimate is a complex climatological metric as it includes precipitation, soil moisture
494 and temperature-driven evapotranspiration. It also possesses a higher spatial heterogeneity than
495 temperature and a multi-faceted spectral character. The much shorter spatial co-variance of
496 precipitation and all other metrics of hydroclimate compared to temperature makes it less
497 feasible than for temperature to only include the highest-ranking hydroclimate reconstructions
498 in further assessments or large-scale reconstructions. In the interpretation of the low-frequency
499 hydroclimate variability it is important to consider to what extent a reconstruction actually
500 preserves information on longer than multi-decadal time-scales. We here identified a
501 problematic feature with the tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions, as opposed to most
502 state-of-the-art tree-ring based temperature reconstructions, in the low proportion of
503 reconstructions produced through RCS. The general application of individual-series detrending
504 methods to produce most of the hydroclimate reconstructions risk removal of centennial-scale
505 variability. Including “noisy” reconstructions, with only a few measurement series back in time,
506 does not necessarily improve any network analysis. It is rather recommended to evaluate each
507 individual chronology and include only those reconstructions that can be expected to include
508 relevant information. Thus, data selection based on only the calibration statistics is not
509 recommended.

510 Evaluating the robustness of the tree-ring based reconstruction based on other types of
511 hydroclimate proxy records are unfortunately difficult for several reasons (and cannot thus be
512 turned into an evaluation criteria). Tree-ring records are by far the most abundant natural
513 climate archive, with a temporal resolution and age control that allows for calibration and
514 validation against instrumental observations, and for many of the evaluated tree-ring
515 chronologies, there exist no other type of calibrated proxy records in the region. Investigating
516 the agreement of the low-frequency signal in the hydroclimate reconstructions with that of
517 lower resolution records is not as a straightforward option as it may appear. Recent studies (e.g.,
518 [Schneider et al., 2019](#)) show that a robust quality estimation requires a very dense proxy

519 network that is composed of various archives rather than only a single neighboring proxy
520 record.

521 The frequently short and unevenly distributed meteorological station data in Asia (normally
522 starting after 1950) pose severe constraints on the calibration and verification statistics for this
523 portion of the hydroclimate network. Several reconstructions from Asia – most notably the one
524 from the Northeastern Tibetan Plateau (Yang et al., 2014), reaching a correlation to instrumental
525 precipitation data of $r = 0.84$, would rank high in the category *Climate Signal* along with the
526 records from North America, if a longer (reliable) instrumental calibration period was available.
527 Allowing for a 100-year long calibration period would potentially score the Northeastern
528 Tibetan Plateau (Yang et al., 2014), Heihe River Basin (Yang et al., 2012), Khorgo and Uurgat
529 (Hessl et al., 2018) in *Climate Signal* class A. Likewise, it could improve the ranking of
530 A'nyêmaqên (Gou et al., 2010), Delingha (Shao et al., 2005), Hexi Corridor (Yang et al., 2019),
531 and Qilian Mountains (Zhang et al., 2011).

532

533 4.2. Comparison with the temperature reconstruction ranking

534 Unlike the tree-ring based temperature reconstructions (Esper et al., 2016), the hydroclimate
535 reconstructions can include more (up to nine) species (Table 2). The largest difference between
536 the ranking of the hydroclimate and temperature reconstructions is found for *Sample*
537 *Replication*. A similar replication for the chronologies between continents is found for
538 temperature reconstructions, compared to a much higher replication for Asia and Europe and a
539 lower replication for North America for hydroclimate reconstructions. The relative *Growth*
540 *Coherence* between continents are, on the other hand, similar for the hydroclimate and
541 temperature reconstructions, with the lowest values for Europe and comparable ones for Asia
542 and North America. The highest *Chronology Development* scores, with the smallest spread, are
543 found in Europe for both hydroclimate and temperature reconstructions. A larger *Chronology*
544 *Development* spread is evident for hydroclimate reconstructions in Asia and for temperature
545 reconstructions in North America. *Climate Signal* scores are similar for each continent in both
546 the hydroclimate and temperature reconstructions, with Europe having overall the highest
547 scores.

548 Severe climatic conditions for tree growth at the species' distribution limit (Fritts, 1976)
549 resulted in the highest *Growth Coherence* scores for both tree-ring based hydroclimate and
550 temperature reconstructions. The twelve *Growth Coherence* best-scoring hydroclimate
551 reconstructions are from arid or semi-arid environments in the southwestern United States (see
552 e.g., St George, 2014; St George and Ault, 2014), whereas the three best-scoring temperature

553 reconstructions are all from northern Siberia: Indigirka (Sidorova et al., 2006), Yamal (Briffa
554 et al., 2013), and Taimyr (Briffa et al., 2008). The trees included in these reconstructions,
555 growing in a shallow active layer in the continuous permafrost zone, likely experience a shorter
556 growing season than any of the other temperature reconstructions included in Esper et al.
557 (2016).

558 The four highest-ranking reconstructions in the category *Chronology Development*, both for
559 hydroclimate and temperature, are from Europe. For hydroclimate, it is Central Europe
560 (Büntgen et al., 2011), East Anglia (Cooper et al., 2013), Southern Finland (Helama et al.,
561 2009), and Southcentral England (Wilson et al., 2013), whereas for temperature it is Northern
562 Scandinavia (Esper et al., 2012), Finland (Helama et al., 2010), tree-ring width version of
563 Torneträsk (Melvin et al., 2013), and Lötshental (Büntgen et al., 2006). High scores in
564 *Chronology Development* typically result from a combination of a small age range and minor
565 linear trends in mean age curve over the past millennium, in combination with the application
566 of RCS detrending, to emphasize centennial to multi-centennial climate variability.

567 Overall, the average correlation between the tree-ring reconstructions and the instrumental
568 data is higher for hydroclimate reconstructions (mean r . 0.69 ± 0.11) than for temperature
569 reconstructions (r . 0.59 ± 0.15), which perhaps appears surprising given the spatially
570 homogeneous nature of hydroclimate. The region with the generally highest relationship
571 between tree growth and hydroclimate is found in the southwestern United States (see, e.g., St
572 George, 2014; St George and Ault, 2014) whereas the highest relationship between tree growth
573 and temperature is generally found in high latitude Eurasia and in the European Alps (Esper et
574 al., 2016). The calibration period is generally shorter for the hydroclimate reconstructions
575 (mean 79 ± 23 years) than for temperature reconstructions (mean 101 ± 43 years). This provides
576 a larger challenge to skillfully calibrate especially the low-frequency component of
577 hydroclimate variability. Typically, precipitation measurements are either shorter or contain
578 more noise prior to the twentieth century than temperature measurements (Pauling et al., 2006;
579 Harris et al., 2014).

580

581 4.3. Expansion of the hydroclimate tree-ring reconstruction network

582 At present, millennium-long tree-ring based reconstructions with a well-verified hydroclimate
583 signal are only available from few locations in the world (Fig. 1). As tree-ring records are the
584 only natural hydroclimate proxy with annual resolution and exact dating control, there is an
585 urgent need to expand this network. From more mesic locations there is a general challenge to
586 extend hydroclimate tree-ring records back in time, as they offer generally less favorable

587 conditions for wood preservation. In China, subfossil woods in lake or river sediments are
588 difficult to find (He et al., 2019), and old living trees and remnant woods can mainly be
589 collected in the dry parts of the country (Liu et al., 2019). In some places, not least in Europe,
590 tree-ring based reconstructions can be extended with wood from archaeological sites and old
591 buildings (Tegel et al., 2010).

592 An additional challenge is posed by the decrease in hydroclimate sensitivity of tree growth
593 in cool and wet environments. One solution to this problem is to reconstruct soil moisture
594 availability using tree-ring data from temperature-limited environments by considering the
595 pivotal role of surface temperature in determining the land surface heat flux, evapotranspiration
596 and consequently the water balance (Cook et al., 2015; Seftigen et al., 2015). However, such
597 reconstructions need to be treated with caution – both Beak et al. (2017) and Ljungqvist et al.
598 (2019) found that they may overestimate the influence of temperature variability on soil
599 moisture. Moreover, temperature and precipitation contain different spectral characteristics,
600 where the former contains larger low-frequency loadings than the latter (Bunde et al. 2013;
601 Franke et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), making it problematic to use temperature-sensitive tree-
602 ring data for hydroclimate reconstructions.

603 Despite such constraints, it has been demonstrated that tree-ring chronologies with a strong
604 hydroclimatic signal can be developed in cooler and wetter environments. Hydroclimate
605 reconstructions have been developed in Scandinavia spanning the past three to five centuries
606 (see e.g., Helama and Lindholm, 2003; Linderholm et al., 2004; Jönsson and Nilsson, 2009;
607 Drobyshev et al., 2011, Seftigen et al., 2015a; 2015b). The potential to develop millennium-
608 long reconstructions is evident from the Helama et al. (2009) May–June precipitation
609 reconstruction from south-east Finland. In European Russia (52–57°N, 35–52°E), most tree-
610 ring chronologies have been shown to correlate weakly but significantly with hydroclimate
611 (Matskovsky, 2016; Matskovsky et al., 2017; Solomina et al., 2017), but all the available
612 hydroclimate tree-ring reconstructions at present only reach back to the eighteenth century.

613 The development of millennium-long hydroclimate-sensitive tree-ring records is particularly
614 difficult in sub-Arctic in general (Linderholm et al., 2018) and, in particular, in those parts of
615 the boreal zone that are underlain by permafrost serving as a source of additional water supply
616 for the trees during dry summers (Sugimoto et al., 2002; Saurer et al., 2016). Although potential
617 to develop long chronologies in the region exist (Thomsen, 2001; Agafonov et al., 2016) only
618 a limited number of Siberian sites show statistically significant, albeit weak, correlations
619 between tree growth and either monthly (Kirdyanov et al., 2013; Shestakova et al., 2019) or
620 summer (Hellmann et al., 2016) precipitation or monthly SPEI (Arzac et al., 2019, in press).

621 Not surprisingly, hydroclimate reconstructions in the warmer and drier southern Siberia have
622 shown greater promise (Shah et al., 2015; Belokopytova et al., 2018; Kostyakova et al., 2018).
623 A new impetus to long hydroclimate reconstructions in the boreal zone, particular in Siberia,
624 may be provided with the development of tree-ring stable isotope chronologies (e.g.,
625 Waterhouse et al., 2000; Kirilyanov et al., 2008; Sidorova et al., 2009; 2010; 2012; Knorre et
626 al., 2010; Tei et al., 2013; 2015; Panyushkina et al., 2016; Shestakova et al., 2017).

627 The moisture-limited tree growth environments of Central Asia, the Middle East, and North
628 Africa have a high potential to yield millennium-long hydroclimate tree-ring reconstructions
629 but comparatively little work has so far been done in the region. However, several century long
630 reconstructions have been developed for Turkey (D'Arrigo and Cullen, 2001; Touchan et al.,
631 2003; 2007; Akkemik and Aras, 2005; Akkemik et al., 2005; 2008), Jordan (Touchan et al.,
632 1999) and the Caucasus (Martin-Benito et al., 2016). For instance, Solomina et al. (2014), Seim
633 et al. (2016a;b), Wang et al. (2017), Zhang et al. (2017), Chen et al. (2019) demonstrated the
634 feasibility to reconstruct drought or precipitation in Central Asia. Opała-Owczarek and
635 Niedźwiedź (2018) showed that it is possible to extend hydroclimate reconstructions for this
636 region for the full past millennium or more. Likewise, Esper et al. (2007) successfully
637 developed a past millennium reconstruction from the Atlas Mountains of Morocco.

638 Although the vast majority of existing tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions are from
639 Northern Hemisphere, there are potential to develop moisture-sensitive chronologies in the
640 Southern Hemisphere as well. Early efforts by Schulman (1956) recognized a number of South
641 American tree species sensitive to precipitation variations, and in the 1970s the first tree-ring
642 based estimates of past hydroclimate conditions was developed in southern South America
643 (LaMarche, 1978; Holmes et al., 1979). Recent work includes streamflow reconstructions
644 spanning the past four to six centuries from the sub-Antarctic (Lara et al., 2008; 2015), the
645 temperate (Urrutia et al., 2011; Mundo et al., 2012; Muñoz et al., 2016) and the subtropical
646 (Ferrero et al., 2015) regions along the Andes, and even longer hydroclimate reconstructions
647 from the Andes of central Chile (LeQuesne et al., 2006; 2009; Masiokas, et al. 2012) and the
648 Bolivian Altiplano (Morales et al., 2012). Recent studies have also shown a potential in the
649 South American tropics (Lopez et al., 2017; Granato-Souza et al., 2019), as well as Australia,
650 although efforts in the latter region are hampered by large spatial hydroclimatic heterogeneity
651 (Allen et al., 2017) as well as the short temporal extension of the data (Allen et al., 2015).

652

653 *4.4. Recommendations for future hydroclimate reconstructions*

654 The six recommendations presented by [Esper et al. \(2016\)](#) for tree-ring based temperature
655 reconstructions also hold true for the development of hydroclimate reconstructions: (a)
656 preserving centennial-scale variability, using RCS detrending, for understanding low-frequency
657 variance, (b) avoiding a strong decrease of series back in time, (c) strive for a homogeneous
658 sample composition over time, (d) avoid too large replication and inter-series correlation
659 changes, (e) avoid strong age curve changes over time, and (f) keep in mind that the calibration
660 statistics may give a false impression of reconstruction skill. Based on the results from this
661 assessment, we find it important to improve the replication in the earlier parts of the
662 reconstructions, especially in North America, as a weak replication during medieval times
663 precludes robust comparisons with recent hydroclimate conditions. It is equally important to
664 include young and old trees throughout time in the chronologies to achieve a more evenly
665 distributed age curve. The most difficult trade-off, however, is likely between achieving a high
666 sample replication (over time) and a strong growth coherence, as the inclusion of additional
667 sites can degrade growth coherence within a reconstruction. It appears less advisable to include
668 more than, at most, two tree species in any reconstruction and they should ideally derive from
669 the same genera. When tree-ring material is obtained from multiple sites, it is important that it
670 originates from similar environments with regard to moisture stress. Whenever notable micro
671 site conditions exist ([Düthorn et al., 2015](#)), temporal clustering of a certain micro site condition
672 should be avoided.

673 For tree-ring datasets composed of relatively young trees it is essential to successfully apply
674 RCS detrending to preserve low-frequency information. This requires a large number of raw
675 measurement series from relatively evenly distributed tree age over time. If the biological age
676 of measurements shows a steep increase towards the present RCS should only be applied with
677 great caution. The use of measurement series from very old trees as an alternative to RCS
678 detrending, at the price of a steep age curve, to preserve low-frequency variability may
679 introduce biases from a climate signal age effect ([Esper et al., 2008](#); [Konter et al., 2016](#)) and
680 should be avoided if possible.

681 We find that a strong and stable hydroclimate signal is of far greater importance than having
682 a long calibration period. This implies that it is fully feasible to develop well-verified tree-ring
683 based hydroclimate also from regions with short instrumental measurements. Moreover, it
684 needs to be kept in mind that the calibration statistics obtained, regardless of the length of
685 instrumental measurements, typically are optimistic estimates in the sense that the inter-series

686 correlation as well as sample replication typically decreases back in time. If the calibration had
687 been conducted on a less replicated part of the reconstruction, with lower inter-series correlation
688 values, the correlation values would in most cases have been lower. Tests including artificially
689 reduced-sample chronologies (Esper et al., 2012) are thus recommended.

690

691 **5. Conclusions**

692 Following a scheme developed by Esper et al. (2016) for temperature reconstructions, we
693 assessed and ranked 46 millennium-long tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions. This
694 scoring considers: *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample Replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology*
695 *Development*, and *Climate Signal*. Most of these characteristics, with the exception of *Climate*
696 *Signal*, are rarely or ever considered outside the dendrochronological community, but impacts
697 paleoclimate reconstruction–model simulation comparison studies. Our assessment will guide
698 secondary users of tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions by providing information on
699 the strength and limitations of the individual records beyond their simple correlation with
700 instrumental data. Moreover, we hope these results will advance future work on developing
701 new tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions or improving and extending the existing ones.

702 The ranking scores produced for each of the five evaluation categories represent an attempt
703 at objectively identifying suitable and less suitable hydroclimate reconstructions to use for
704 different purposes. For example, in a study of short-term hydroclimate impacts following large
705 volcanic eruptions, long-term trends and variations are less important in a particular
706 reconstruction. On the other hand, if the purpose is to compare the average hydroclimate
707 conditions during medieval times with those of today, it is advisable to only consider
708 reconstructions that realistically retain low-frequency variability. We conclude that the same
709 ranking implications and related recommendations for tree-ring based temperature
710 reconstructions by Esper et al. (2016) are also valid for tree-ring based hydroclimate
711 reconstructions (see section 4.2).

712 The systematic assessment of 46 tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions, covering the
713 past millennium, permitted ranking them into four groups (class A to class D) for each of the
714 five categories *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample Replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology*
715 *Development*, and *Climate Signal*. All reconstructions have their various strengths and
716 weaknesses – and no reconstruction ranked A or D in all five categories – but there are some
717 reconstructions that consistently performed high: Khorgo (Hessl et al., 2018), the Northeastern
718 Tibetan Plateau (Yang et al., 2014), and Uurgat (Hessl et al., 2018) from Asia; East Anglia
719 (Cooper et al., 2013) and Southerncentral England (Wilson et al., 2013) from Europe; Tavaputs

720 Plateau (Knight et al., 2010), El Malpais (Grissino-Mayer, 1995), Southern Sierra Nevada
721 (Graumlich, 1993), Summitville (Routson et al., 2011), and Bear River (DeRose et al., 2015)
722 from North America. Though it is our goal to provide evaluations that will assist investigators
723 in making informed selections for their purposes, we at the same time recognize that all the
724 reconstructions contain valuable information depending on the questions asked of them.

725

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741 [mainz.de/fb09climatology](http://www.blogs.uni-mainz.de/fb09climatology).

742

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1380 **Table 1.** List of all the 46 tree-ring reconstructions, extending back at least to 1000 CE, published as
 1381 calibrated hydroclimate reconstructions. The abbreviation code for tree species follows the standard
 1382 used in the International Tree-Ring Data Bank (ITRDB; [Grissino-Mayer et al., 1997](#)) as listed in
 1383 [Grissino-Mayer \(1993\)](#). Abbreviations: EW = earlywood; LW = latewood.

Reconstruction	Reference	Long. Lat.	Species	Signal	Season
1. Albemarle Sound, USA (EW)	Stahle et al. (2013)	-76.00 36.00	TADI	PHDI	July
2. A'nyêmaqên, China	Gou et al. (2010)	99.50 34.50	JUPR	Streamflow	August–July
3. Atlas Mountains, Morocco	Esper et al. (2007)	-5.07 33.02	COAL	PDSI	February–June
4. Barranca de Amealco, Mexico	Stahle et al. (2011)	-100.07 20.21	TACU	PDSI	June
5. Bear River, USA	DeRose et al. (2015)	-110.85 40.97	JUOS	Streamflow	October–September
6. Central Chile	Garreaud et al. (2017)	-70.34 -34.35	AUCH	Precipitation	June–December
7. Central Europe	Büntgen et al. (2011)	9.00 50.00	QUSP	Precipitation	
8. Choctawhatchee River, USA (EW)	Stahle et al. (2012)	-85.88 30.47	TADI	Precipitation	April–May
9. Choctawhatchee River, USA (LW)	Stahle et al. (2012)	-85.88 30.47	TADI	Precipitation	June–July
10. Colorado River, USA	MacDonald et al. (2008)	-114.50 33.50	PIAR, PILO, PIFL, LALY, PSME	Streamflow	October–September
11. Delingha, China	Shao et al. (2005)	97.80 37.10	JUPR	Precipitation	July–June
12. Dulan, China	Sheppard et al. (2004)	99.00 37.00	SBPI	Precipitation	July–June
13. East Anglia, UK	Cooper et al. (2013)	1.00 52.50	QUPE, QURO	Precipitation	March–July
14. El Malpais, USA	Grissino-Mayer (1995)	-108.18 34.97	PSME, PIPO	Precipitation	July–July
15. El Malpais, USA (EW)	Stahle et al. (2009)	-108.18 34.97	PSME, PIPO	Precipitation	September–May
16. El Malpais, USA (LW)	Stahle et al. (2009)	-108.18 34.97	PSME, PIPO	Precipitation	June–July
17. Flowerpot, Canada	Buckley et al. (2004)	-81.50 45.10	THOC	Precipitation	June–July
18. Georgia, USA	Stahle and Cleaveland (1992)	-81.80 31.62	TADI	Precipitation	March–July
19. Heihe River Basin, China	Yang et al. (2012)	100.00 38.20	SBPI	Streamflow	August–July
20. Hexi Corridor, China	Yang et al. (2019)	98.03 39.55	JUPR	scPDSI	May–June
21. Jemez Mountains, USA	Touchan et al. (2011)	-106.50 36.00	PSME, PISF, PIPO	Precipitation	October–June
22. Khorgo, Mongolia	Hessl et al. (2018)	99.87 48.17	PISI	PDSI	June–September
23. Lee Ferry, USA	Meko et al. (2007)	-111.58 36.85	PSME, PIED	Streamflow	
24. Little Snake River, USA	Gray et al. (2011)	-107.75 40.75	PSME, PIMO	Streamflow	October–September
25. Mesa Verde, USA	Stahle et al. (2015)	-108.48 37.18	PSME	Moisture balance	September–May
26. Mesa Verde, USA	Stahle et al. (2015)	-108.48 37.18	PSME	Moisture balance	June–July
27. Mount San Gorgonio, USA	MacDonald (2007)	-116.80 34.12	PIJE	PDSI	January–April
28. Mount Smolikas, Greece	Klippel et al. (2018)	20.75 40.25	PIHE	SPI	June–July
29. Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, China	Yang et al. (2014)	98.00 37.00	JUPR	Precipitation	July–June
30. Pamir-Alay Mountains, Tajikistan	Opala-Owczarek and Niedźwiedz (2018)	69.00 39.00	JUSM	Precipitation	December–February
31. Potomac River, USA	Maxwell et al. (2011)	-77.53 39.27	CYOV, JUVI, LITU, MAAC, PCRU, QUAL, QUPR, TADI, TSCA	Streamflow	May–September
32. Qilian Mountains, China	Zhang et al. (2011)	99.50 38.50	JUPR	Precipitation	August–July
33. Sacramento River, USA	MacDonald et al. (2008)	-121.63 38.70	PILO, PIFL, JUOC	Streamflow	
34. Southern Colorado Plateau, USA	Salzer and Kipfmueller (2005)	-111.40 35.20	PSME, PIED	Precipitation	October–July
35. Southern Finland	Helama et al. (2009)	28.50 61.50	PISY	Precipitation	May–June
36. Southern Sierra Nevada, USA	Graumlich (1993)	-118.90 36.90	JUOC	Precipitation	December–February
37. Southerncentral England, UK	Wilson et al. (2013)	-1.50 52.00	QUPE, QURO	Precipitation	March–July
38. Summitville, USA	Routson et al. (2011)	-106.59 37.43	PIAR	Precipitation	March–July
39. Tavaputs Plateau, USA	Knight et al. (2010)	-110.40 39.70	PSME	Precipitation	July–June
40. Upper Arkansas River Basin, USA	Woodhouse et al. (2011)	-106.00 38.50	PSME, PIPO, PIED	Moisture availability	October–September
41. Upper Klamath River Basin, USA	Malevich et al. (2013)	-121.78 42.20	JUOC, PIPO, PIJE, QUDG	Precipitation	October–September
42. Uurgat, Mongolia	Hessl et al. (2018)	101.77 46.68	PISI	PDSI	June–September
43. Whirlpool point, Canada	Case and MacDonald (2003)	-116.45 52.00	PIFL, PCMA	Streamflow	October–September
44. White Mountains, USA	Hughes and Graumlich (1996)	-118.17 37.45	PILO	Precipitation	July–June

45. White River, USA	Gray et al. (2011)	-108.00 40.00	PSME, PIMO	Streamflow	October– September
46. Yampa River, USA	Gray et al. (2011)	-108.33 40.48	PSME, PIMO	Streamflow	October– September

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1386 **Table 2.** Abbreviations of tree species included in this study (see Table 1), used in the International Tree-Ring
 1387 Data Bank (ITRDB; Grissino-Mayer, et al., 1997), following Grissino-Mayer (1993) with later updates. No refers
 1388 to number of chronologies derived from the tree species.

Latin name	Common name	Family	Genera	ITRDB code	No
<i>Austrocedrus chilensis</i> (D.Don) Pic.Serm. & Bizzarri	Chilean cedar	Cupressaceae	Austrocedrus	AUCH	1
<i>Carya ovata</i> (Mill.) K.Koch	Shagbark hickory	Juglandaceae	Carya	CYOV	1
<i>Cedrus atlantica</i> Endl.	Atlas cedar	Pinaceae	Cordia	COAL	1
<i>Juniperus occidentalis</i> Hook	Western juniper	Cupressaceae	Juniperus	JUOC	3
<i>Juniperus osteosperma</i> (Torr.) Little	Utah juniper	Cupressaceae	Juniperus	JUOS	1
<i>Juniperus przewalskii</i> Kom.	Qilianshan juniper	Cupressaceae	Juniperus	JUPR	5
<i>Juniperus semiglobosa</i> Regel	Himalayan pencil juniper	Cupressaceae	Juniperus	JUSM	1
<i>Juniperus virginiana</i> L.	Eastern redcedar	Cupressaceae	Juniperus	JUVI	1
<i>Larix lyallii</i> Parl.	Alpine larch	Pinaceae	Larix	LALY	1
<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i> L.	Tulip tree	Magnoliaceae	Liriodendron	LITU	1
<i>Magnolia accuminata</i> (L.) L.	Cucumbertree	Magnoliaceae	Magnolia	MAAC	1
<i>Picea mariana</i> (Mill.) Britton, Sterns & Poggenb.	Black spruce	Pinaceae	Picea	PCMA	1
<i>Picea rubens</i> Sarg.	Red spruce	Pinaceae	Picea	PCRU	1
<i>Pinus aristata</i> Engelm.	Rocky Mountain bristlecone pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIAR	2
<i>Pinus edulis</i> Engelm.	Colorado pinyon	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIED	3
<i>Pinus flexilis</i> E.James	Limber pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIFL	3
<i>Pinus heldreichii</i> Christ	Heldreich's pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIHE	1
<i>Pinus jeffreyi</i> A.Murray bis	Jeffrey pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIJE	2
<i>Pinus longaeva</i> D.K.Bailey	Intermountain bristlecone pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PILO	3
<i>Pinus ponderosa</i> Douglas ex C.Lawson	Ponderosa pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIPO	6
<i>Pinus sibirica</i> (Ledeb.) Turcz.	Siberian stone pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PISI	2
<i>Pinus strobiformis</i> Engelm.	Southwestern white pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PISF	1
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	Scots pine	Pinaceae	Pinus	PISY	1
<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> (Mirb.) Franco	Douglas fir	Pinaceae	Pseudotsuga	PSME	14
<i>Pinus monophylla</i> Torr. & Frém.	Singleleaf pinyon	Pinaceae	Pinus	PIMO	3
<i>Quercus alba</i> L.	White oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QUAL	1
<i>Quercus douglasii</i> Hook. & Arn.	Blue oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QUDG	1
<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl.	Sessile oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QUPE	2
<i>Quercus prinus</i> L.	Chestnut oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QUPR	1
<i>Quercus robur</i> L.	English oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QURO	2
<i>Quercus sp.</i>	Oak	Fagaceae	Quercus	QUSP	2
<i>Sabina przewalskii</i> (Kom.) W.C.Cheng & L.K.Fu	Qilian juniper	Cupressaceae	Sabina	SBPI	2
<i>Tsuga canadensis</i> (L.) Carrière	Eastern hemlock	Pinaceae	Tsuga	TSCA	1
<i>Thuja occidentalis</i> L.	Northern white cedar	Cupressaceae	Thuja	THOC	1
<i>Taxodium distichum</i> (L.) Rich.	Baldcypress	Cupressaceae	Taxodium	TADI	5
<i>Taxodium mucronatum</i> Ten.	Montezuma bald cypress	Cupressaceae	Taxus	TACU	1

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Table 3. Data Homogeneity scores. Chronology type “C” refers to reconstructions derived from a composite of material from living trees, remnant, historical and/or sub-fossil wood. Type “L” refers to reconstructions derived from only living trees. Temporal clustering (Yes) indicates reconstructions composed of data from distinct sites or species concentrated in discrete periods over the past 1000 years. Other abbreviations: AM = archeological material; HM = historical material; RM = remnant material; SF = subfossil material.

1. Source	2. Chronology type	3. Species number	4. Temporal clustering	5. Remark	6. Homogeneity
A'nyêm aqên, China	L, 1 site	L	1 No	Site at the lowest forest border on a south-facing slope	●
Bear River, USA	1 site	C	1 No	From south-facing slopes on one site	●
Hexi Corridor, China	L, 1 site	L	1 No	From open stands 3000–3520 m a.s.l.	●
Khorgo, Mongolia	1 site	C	1 No	Stunted trees growing on basaltic lava	●
Mount San Gorgonio	1 site	C	1 No	New measurements combined with old ones from the 1970s	●
Pamir-Alay Mountains, Tajikistan	L, 1 site	L	1 No	Sampled trees grow on a southern exposure 30–40° slope	●
Southern Sierra Nevada, USA	1 site	C	1 No	Only 3 radii in 1000 CE, increasing correlation back in time	●
Summitville, USA	1 site	C	1 No	Based on relatively few trees	●
Tavaputs Plateau, USA	L and RM, 2 sides	C	1 No	Merged into the Harmon Canyon chronology	●
Uurgat, Mongolia	1 site	C	1 No	Stunted trees growing on basaltic lava	●
White Mountains, USA	1 site	C	1 No	Very old trees from small area	●
Albemarle Sound, USA	2 sites	C	1 No	Combination of two chronologies	●
Atlas Mountains, Morocco	L, several sites	L	1 Yes	Pre-1200 data dominated by one site	●
Barranca de Amealco, Mexico	1 site	C	1 Yes	Jump from lower to higher TRW level in 16 th century	●
Central Chile	2 sites	C	1 Yes	Data from two rather nearby sites	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (EW)	SF, 2 sites	C	1 No	EW data from two river systems in Florida and Georgia	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (LW)	SF, 2 sites	C	1 No	EW data from two river systems in Florida and Georgia	●
Delingha, China	L, 7 sites	L	1 No	Maximum distance between sites is 137 km	●
El Malpais, USA	2 sites	C	2 No	Temporal coverage of the two species unclear	●
El Malpais, USA (EW)	2 sites	C	2 No	Include data from Grissino-Mayer (1995) plus new living material	●
El Malpais, USA (LW)	2 sites	C	2 No	Include data from Grissino-Mayer (1995) plus new living material	●
Flowerpot, Canada	1 site	C	1 No	Severely changing microsite conditions	●
Heihe River Basin, China	3 sites	L	1 No	Merged Hugershoff and negative exponential sub-chronologies	●
Mount Smolikas, Greece	8 sites	C	1 No	Small micro-site differences exist	●
Whirlpool point, Canada	1 site	C	2 No	Also used in the PDO reconstruction	●
Central Europe	HM, multiple sites	C	1 No	Data from numerous sites across Central Europe	●
Dulan, China	HM, several sites	C	1 Yes	Historical material from lower elevations	●
East Anglia, UK	HM, multiple sites	C	2 Yes	Multiple sites from homogeneous region	●
Georgia, USA	3 sites	C	1 Yes	Based on only one site before 1206	●
Little Snake River, USA	5 sites over a large area	C	2 Yes	Same tree-ring data used for three reconstructions	●
Mesa Verde, USA (EW)	5 sites: L, RM and AM	C	1 Yes	Archeological wood only prior to 1250 CE	●
Mesa Verde, USA (LW)	5 sites: L, RM and AM	C	1 Yes	Archeological wood only prior to 1250 CE	●
Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, China	17 sites L and 5 sites AM	C	1 Yes	Trees growing from 3200–4200 m a.s.l.	●
Qilian Mountains, China	Living trees, 3 sites	L	1 Yes	One site not covering the whole 11 th century	●
Southern Colorado Plateau, USA	RM, multiple sites	C	2 Yes	Sites treated separately, and combined to one reconstruction	●
Southern Finland	L and RM, 3 sites	C	1 Yes	From 61°–62°N, 29°–28°E	●
Southerncentral England, UK	HM, multiple sites	C	2 Yes	Multiple sites from larger region, 15 living tree sites	●
White River, USA	5 sites from large area	C	2 Yes	Same tree-ring data used for three reconstructions	●
Yampa River, USA	5 sites from large area	C	2 Yes	Same tree-ring data used for three reconstructions	●
Colorado River, USA	11 sites	C	5 No	Predictor pooled from a very wide area	●
Jemez Mountains, USA	5 sites	C	3 Yes	Only one site extends back to 1000 CE	●
Lee Ferry, USA	11 sites	C	2 Yes	Widely dispersed sites in Colorado River watershed region	●
Potomac River, USA	27 sites	C	9 Yes	More sites and species than in any other reconstruction	●
Sacramento River, USA	7 sites	C	3 No	Predictor pooled from a very wide area	●
Upper Arkansas River Basin, USA	8 sites	C	3 Yes	Eight sites located long from each other of three species	●
Upper Klamath River Basin, USA	17 sites	C	4 Yes	Predictor pooled from a very wide area	●

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● Class A ● Class B ● Class C ● Class D

1397 **Table 4.** *Sample Replication* scores. The number of measurement series included in the reconstructions.
 1398 11th/20th is the ratio of the mean replication during the 11th century relative to the mean replication during
 1399 the 20th century.

	1. Mean	2. Maximum	3. Minimum	4. 11 th /20 th [%]	5. Replication
Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, China	628	810	266	69	●
Central Europe	337	502	58	76	●
Khorgo, Mongolia	64	82	42	127	●
Colorado River, USA	284	362	12	62	●
Sacramento River, USA	175	253	42	43	●
Heihe River Basin, China	116	160	52	114	●
Delingha, China	236	275	101	60	●
Southern Finland	122	265	26	40	●
Dulan, China	154	216	42	35	●
Southerncentral England, UK	198	349	51	22	●
East Anglia, UK	89	306	11	31	●
Hexi Corridor, China	124	203	13	17	●
El Malpais, USA	81	123	18	49	●
Flowerpot, Canada	50	111	15	57	●
Urgat, Mongolia	31	40	24	93	●
Mount Smolikas, Greece	195	363	39	13	●
White Mountains, USA	45	56	15	65	●
A'nyêmaqên, China	58	83	21	41	●
Tavaputs Plateau, USA	24	29	18	92	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (EW)	36	51	8	3	●
Lee Ferry, USA	194	355	29	9	●
Southern Colorado Plateau, USA	194	355	29	9	●
Barranca de Amealco, Mexico	23	36	12	63	●
Summitville, USA	12	14	9	115	●
Albemarle Sound, USA	39	58	13	34	●
Whirlpool point, Canada	50	94	16	23	●
Qilian Mountains, China	42	68	13	28	●
Georgia, USA	58	87	10	2	●
Bear River, USA	20	45	9	37	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (LW)	33	49	8	3	●
Mount San Gorgonio	17	24	6	27	●
El Malpais, USA (EW)	25	66	8	23	●
El Malpais, USA (LW)	23	50	8	26	●
Atlas Mountains, Morocco	134	294	3	4	●
Potomac River, USA	104	309	9	4	●
Central Chile	17	24	6	27	●
Pamir-Alay Mountains, Tajikistan	32	63	4	9	●
Little Snake River, USA	98	104	5	4	●
White River, USA	98	104	5	4	●
Yampa River, USA	98	104	5	4	●
Upper Arkansas River Basin, USA	13	18	3	22	●
Southern Sierra Nevada, USA	14	33	3	13	●
Mesa Verde, USA (EW)	23	52	5	8	●
Mesa Verde, USA (LW)	23	52	5	8	●
Jemez Mountains, USA	59	208	3	2	●
Upper Klamath River Basin, USA	14	32	6	8	●

● Class A
 ● Class B
 ● Class C
 ● Class D

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Table 5. *Growth Coherence* scores. Mean, maximum, and minimum correlations among the series included in the reconstructions. 11th/20th is the ratio of the correlation during the 11th century relative to the 20th century correlation.

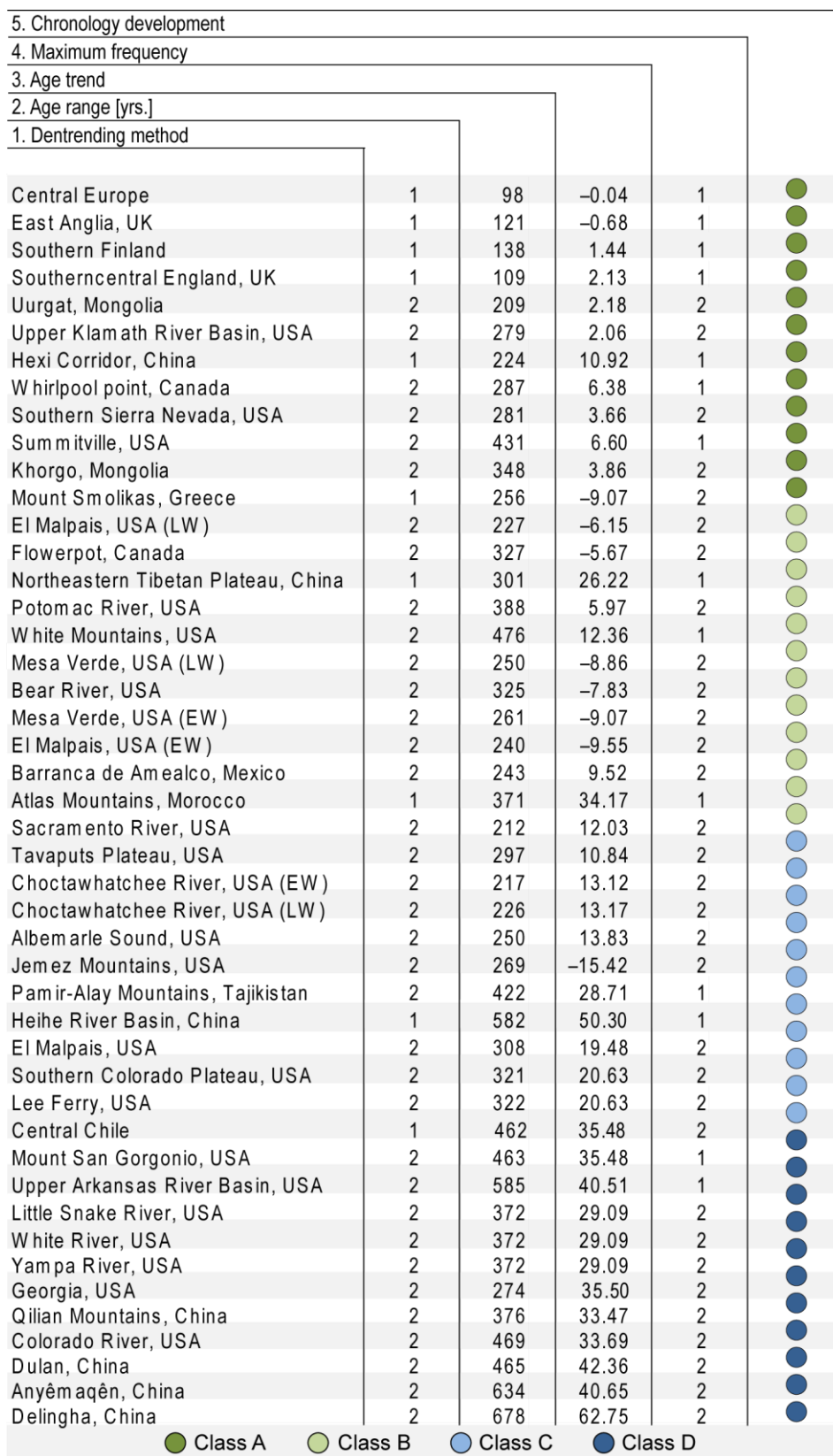
	1. Mean	2. Maximum	3. Minimum	4. 11 th /20 th [%]	
5. Growth coherence					
4. 11 th /20 th [%]					
3. Minimum					
2. Maximum					
1. Mean					
El Malpais, USA (EW)	0.72	0.83	0.63	112%	●
Upper Arkansas River Basin, USA	0.50	0.78	0.30	150%	●
Upper Klamath River Basin, USA	0.66	0.78	0.52	113%	●
Whirlpool point, Canada	0.57	0.68	0.47	123%	●
El Malpais, USA	0.67	0.75	0.57	104%	●
Southern Sierra Nevada, USA	0.36	0.77	0.15	150%	●
Tavaputs Plateau, USA	0.64	0.73	0.50	102%	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (EW)	0.40	0.58	0.27	150%	●
Summitville, USA	0.50	0.63	0.36	122%	●
White Mountains, USA	0.51	0.59	0.39	121%	●
Bear River, USA	0.62	0.84	0.42	93%	●
Mesa Verde, USA (EW)	0.69	0.85	0.54	78%	●
Khorgo, Mongolia	0.58	0.66	0.52	83%	●
Jemez Mountains, USA	0.44	0.80	-0.22	132%	●
Potomac River, USA	0.26	0.56	0.06	150%	●
A'nyêmaqên, China	0.43	0.54	0.35	92%	●
Dulan, China	0.40	0.46	0.31	100%	●
Delingha, China	0.44	0.54	0.33	82%	●
Urgat, Mongolia	0.45	0.57	0.32	78%	●
El Malpais, USA (LW)	0.43	0.59	0.26	80%	●
Heihe River Basin, China	0.23	0.36	0.13	139%	●
Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, China	0.27	0.35	0.20	115%	●
Mount San Gorgonio, USA	0.36	0.73	0.19	72%	●
Atlas Mountains, Morocco	0.29	0.40	0.11	113%	●
East Anglia, UK	0.20	0.76	-0.24	124%	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (LW)	0.29	0.47	0.22	89%	●
Mesa Verde, USA (LW)	0.44	0.60	0.29	59%	●
Qilian Mountains, China	0.32	0.45	0.21	72%	●
Southerncentral England, UK	0.15	0.29	0.08	133%	●
Georgia, USA	0.33	0.39	0.20	74%	●
Lee Ferry, USA	0.33	0.39	0.20	74%	●
Central Chile	0.23	0.34	0.15	91%	●
Southern Colorado Plateau, USA	0.32	0.28	0.22	77%	●
Mount Smolikas, Greece	0.28	0.43	0.17	71%	●
Barranca de Amealco, Mexico	0.22	0.48	0.11	76%	●
Albemarle Sound, USA	0.21	0.36	0.14	85%	●
Little Snake River, USA	0.40	0.62	0.17	50%	●
White River, USA	0.40	0.62	0.17	50%	●
Yampa River, USA	0.40	0.62	0.17	50%	●
Hexi Corridor, China	0.36	0.57	0.15	51%	●
Flowerpot, Canada	0.24	0.49	0.10	58%	●
Sacramento River, USA	0.17	0.30	0.13	66%	●
Pamir-Alay Mountains, Tajikistan	0.28	0.54	0.11	42%	●
Southern Finland	0.33	0.69	0.15	30%	●
Colorado River, USA	0.18	0.37	0.11	44%	●
Central Europe	0.13	0.23	-0.13	72%	●

● Class A ● Class B ● Class C ● Class D

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Table 6. *Chronology Development* scores. Detrending method 1 = RCS (and Signal Free), and 2 = individual detrending. Age range is the difference between highest and lowest point on the mean age curve over the past millennium. Age trend is the slope of a linear regression fit to the mean age curve over the past millennium (times 100). Maximum frequency indicates the wavelength of lowest frequency information retained in a reconstruction, with 1 = centennial to multi-centennial, and 2 = decadal to centennial.



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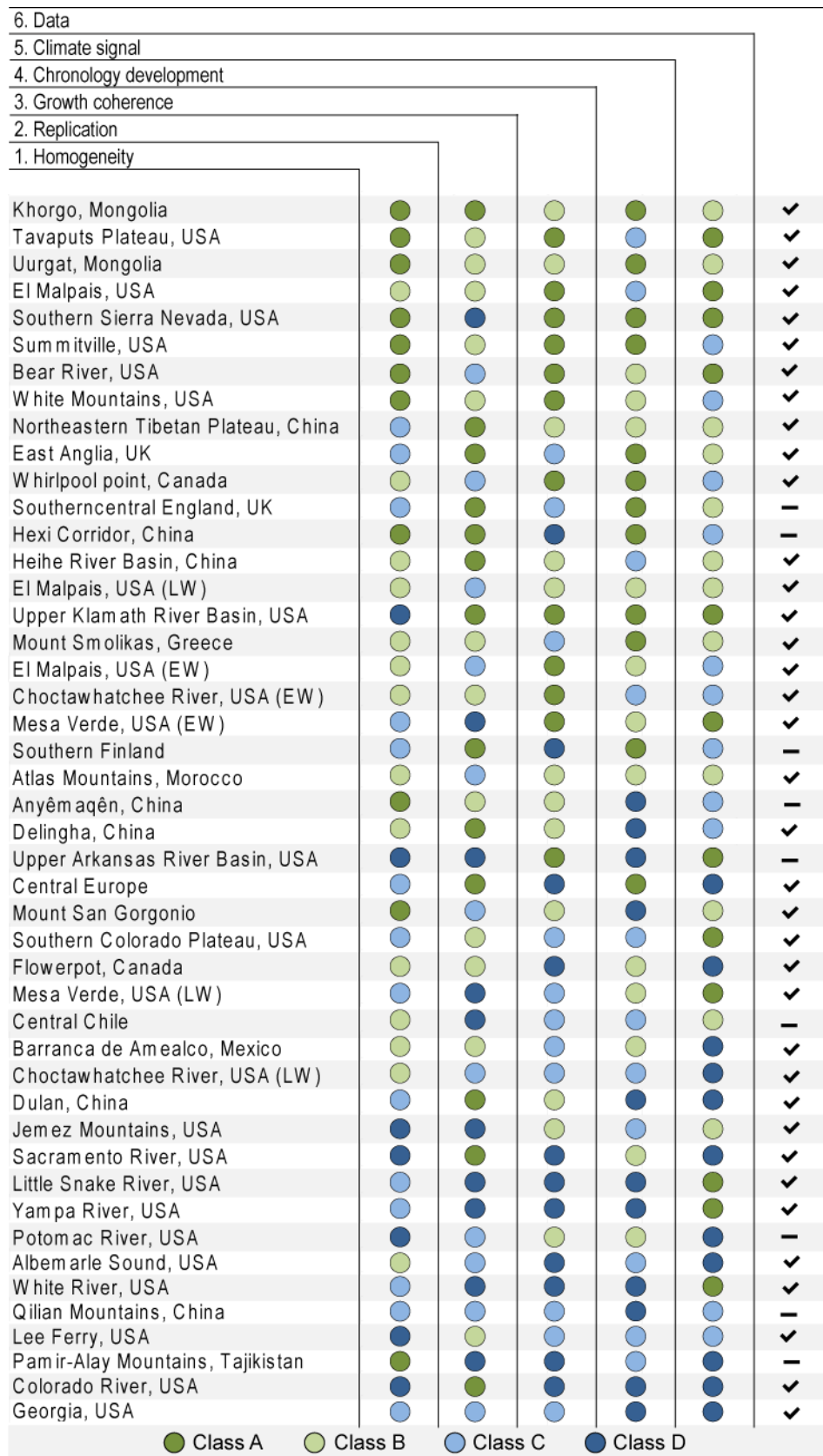
1414 **Table 7.** *Climate Signal* scores. Length is the period of overlap with instrumental temperature data in years.
 1415 Correlation is the Pearson correlation coefficient between the tree-ring chronology and the instrumental data over
 1416 the calibration period. Calibration/verification difference indicates the correlation range between different periods
 1417 of overlap with instrumental data. Truncation = 0.5 if the calibration period was shortened (e.g. due to divergence),
 1418 truncation = 1 if this is not the case.
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	1. Length [yrs.]	2. Correlation	3. Calibration/verification difference	4. Truncation	5. Climate signal
Upper Arkansas River Basin, USA	107	0.83	0.04	1	●
Yampa River, USA	97	0.82	0.06	1	●
Tavaputs Plateau, USA	87	0.89	0.10	1	●
Mesa Verde, USA (EW)	86	0.83	0.04	1	●
El Malpais, USA	97	0.76	0.02	1	●
Upper Klamath River Basin, USA	115	0.73	0.06	1	●
Little Snake River, USA	96	0.78	0.05	1	●
White River, USA	97	0.82	0.15	1	●
Southern Colorado Plateau, USA	98	0.77	0.11	1	●
Southern Sierra Nevada, USA	116	0.70	0.11	1	●
Bear River, USA	68	0.90	0.18	1	●
Mesa Verde, USA (LW)	86	0.65	0.02	1	●
El Malpais, USA (LW)	71	0.71	0.02	1	●
Jemez Mountains, USA	112	0.60	0.06	1	●
Atlas Mountains, Morocco	71	0.75	0.10	1	●
Central Chile	85	0.67	0.08	1	●
Northeastern Tibetan Plateau, China	55	0.84	0.14	1	●
Uurgat, Mongolia	52	0.74	0.03	1	●
Heihe River Basin	49	0.74	0.01	1	●
Southerncentral England, UK	107	0.57	0.08	1	●
Mount Smolikas, Greece	54	0.69	0.04	1	●
East Anglia, UK	109	0.56	0.11	1	●
Khorgo, Mongolia	52	0.71	0.06	1	●
Mount San Gorgonio, USA	102	0.60	0.16	1	●
Southern Finland	84	0.67	0.19	1	●
Summitville, USA	115	0.47	0.06	1	●
Hexi Corridor, China	61	0.63	0.12	1	●
Anyêmaqên, China	48	0.74	0.17	1	●
Delingha, China	46	0.63	0.06	1	●
White Mountains, USA	48	0.59	0.04	1	●
El Malpais, USA (EW)	71	0.68	0.23	1	●
Qilian Mountains, China	45	0.66	0.10	1	●
Whirlpool point, Canada	85	0.51	0.13	1	●
Lee Ferry, USA	65	0.85	0.02	1	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (EW)	91	0.64	0.03	0.5	●
Colorado River, USA	65	0.71	0.02	1	●
Choctawhatchee River, USA (LW)	91	0.62	0.06	0.5	●
Sacramento River, USA	73	0.70	0.08	0.5	●
Georgia, USA	91	0.60	0.09	0.5	●
Barranca de Amealco, Mexico	54	0.79	0.25	0.5	●
Dulan, China	34	0.70	0.05	0.5	●
Flowerpot, Canada	115	0.50	0.15	0.5	●
Pamir-Alay Mountains, Tajikistan	54	0.69	0.21	0.5	●
Albemarle Sound, USA	89	0.57	0.22	0.5	●
Central Europe	80	0.50	0.15	0.5	●
Potomac River, USA	70	0.59	0.23	0.5	●

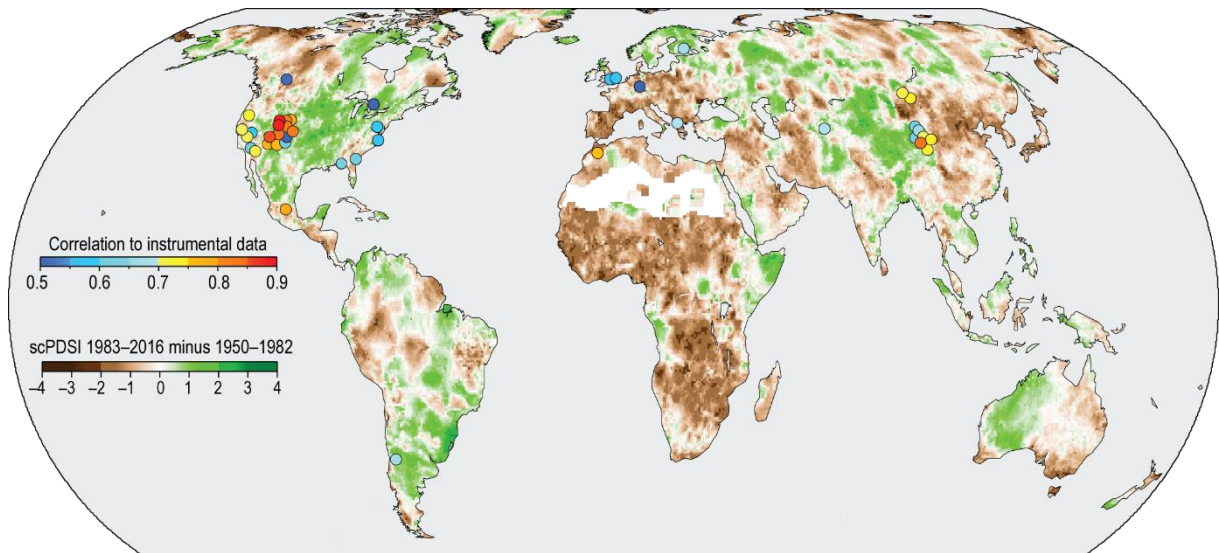
1420

● Class A ● Class B ● Class C ● Class D

1421 **Table 8.** Ranking of the 46 tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions based on their *Data Homogeneity*, *Sample*
 1422 *replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology Development*, and *Climate Signal* scores. Last column indicates
 1423 which datasets are publicly available.
 1424

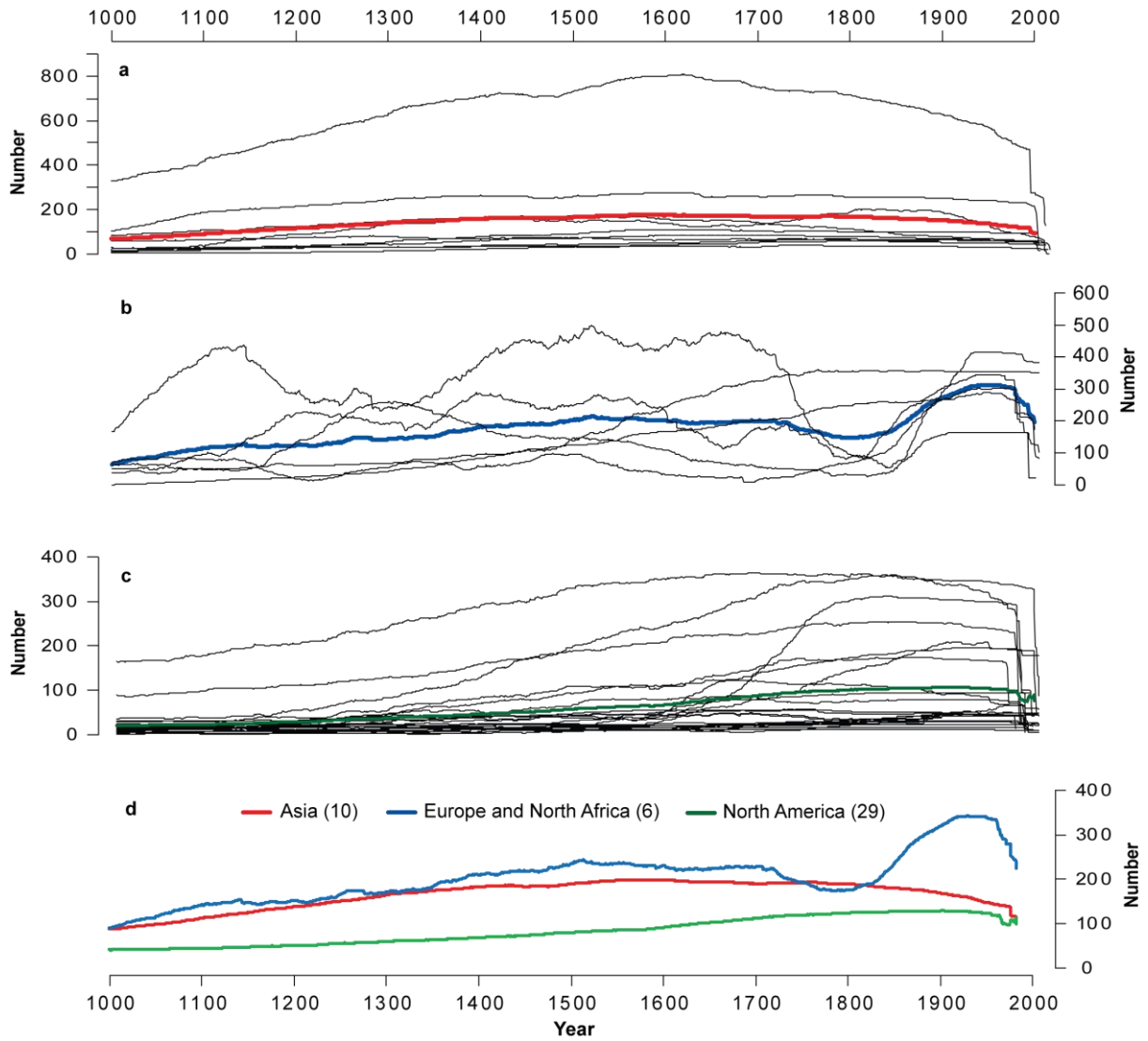


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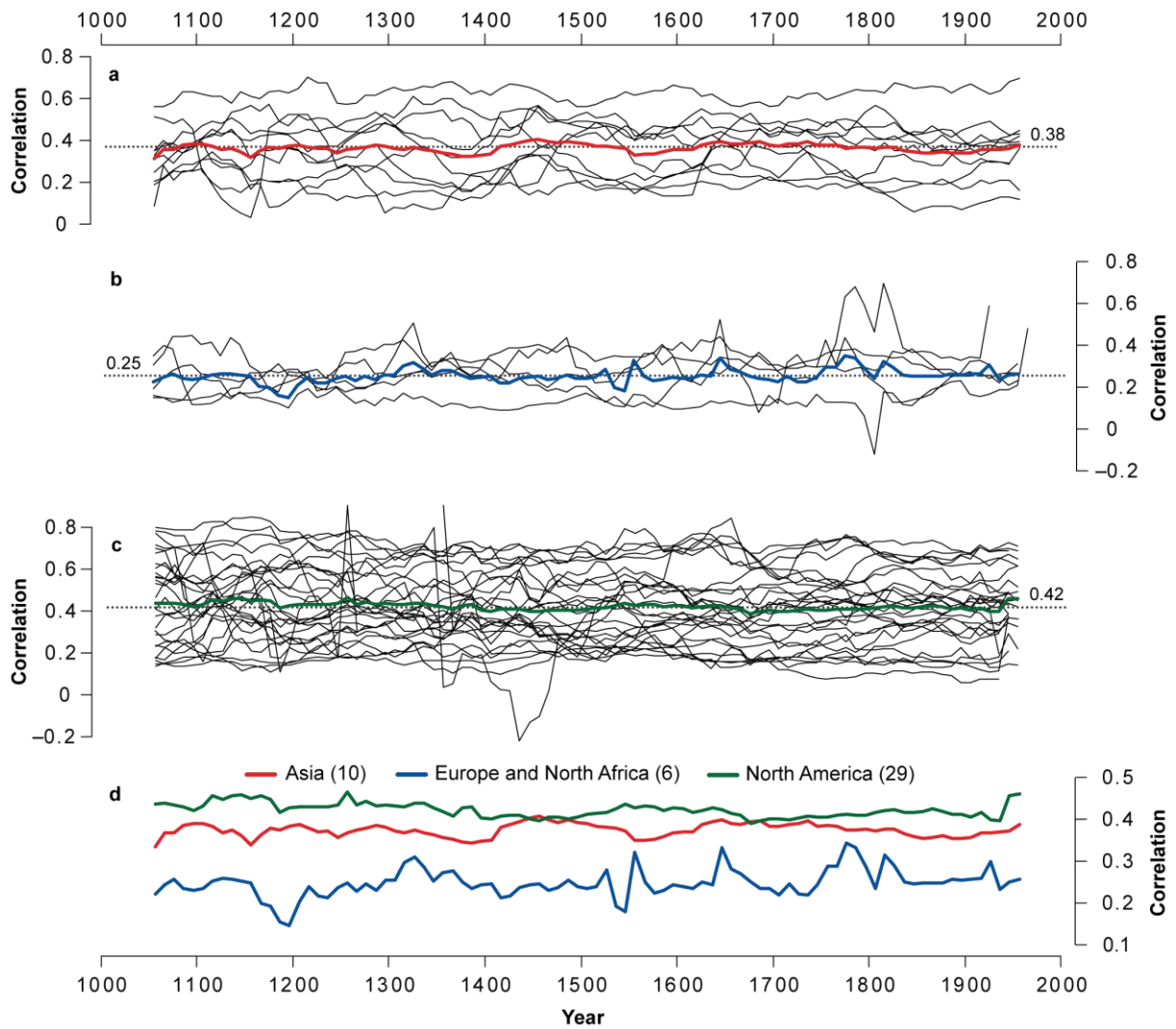
1426

1427 **Fig. 1.** Map of the locations of the 46 calibrated millennium-long hydroclimate tree-ring based
1428 reconstructions as filled circles showing the instrumental correlation values superimposed on annual
1429 mean scPDSI ([van der Schrier et al., 2011](#)) values of the period 1983–2016 minus the period 1950–
1430 1982.



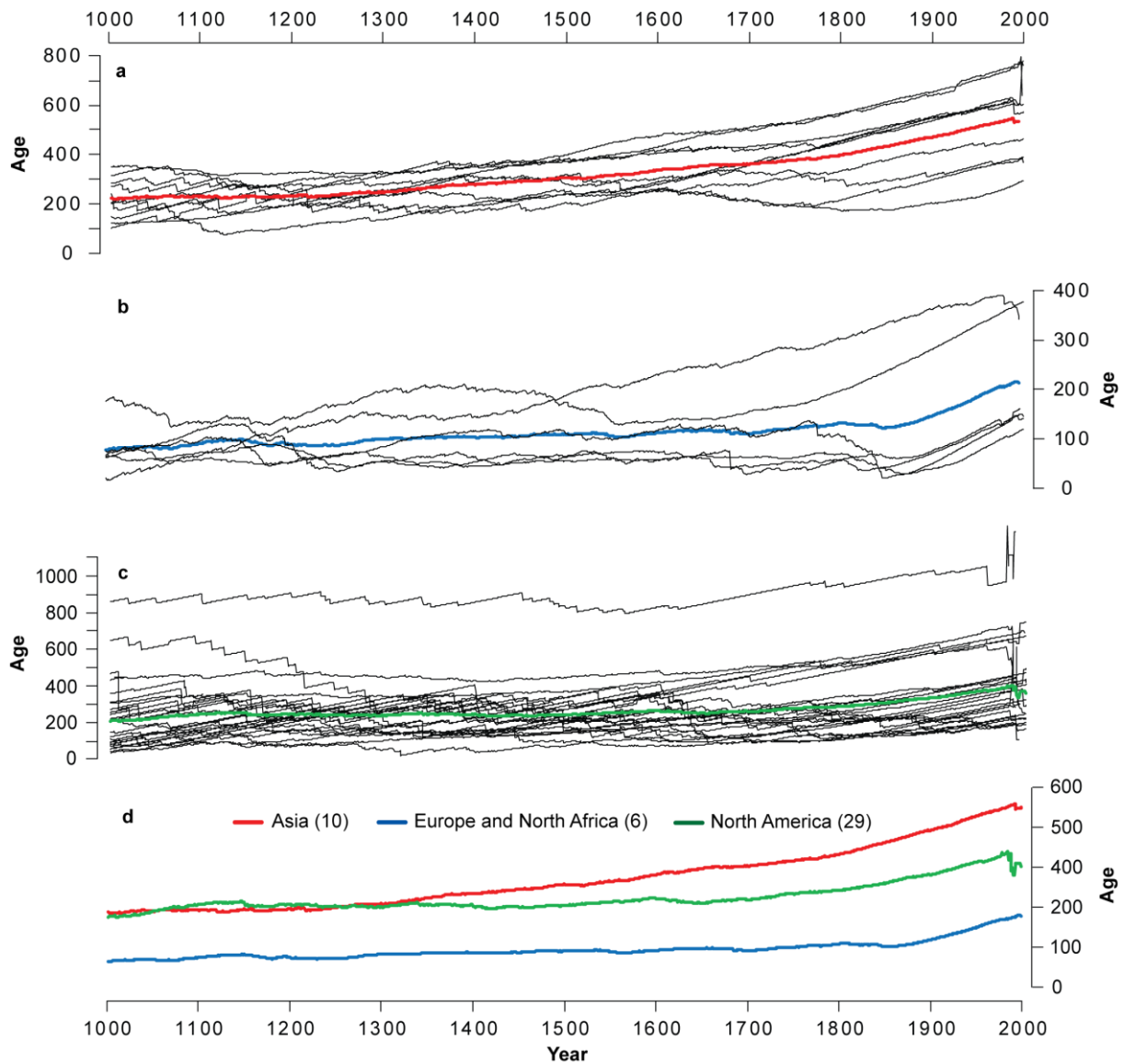
1431

1432 **Fig. 2.** Tree-ring chronology replication curves. Thin black curves show the changing number of tree-
 1433 ring width measurement series within the hydroclimate reconstructions from Asia (a), Europe and North
 1434 Africa (b), and North America (c). The colored curves represent the arithmetic means calculated over
 1435 the common period covered by all reconstructions in each of the three regions. (d) Comparison of the
 1436 mean curves for Europe/North Africa, Asia, and North America.



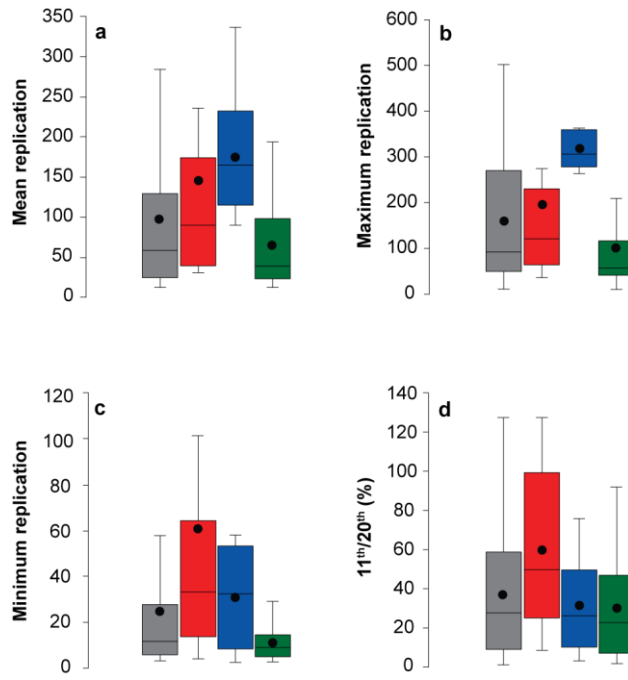
1437

1438 **Fig. 3.** Tree-ring chronology inter-series correlations. Thin black curves show the correlation
 1439 coefficients among the tree-ring width measurement series used in the local hydroclimate
 1440 reconstructions from Asia (a), Europe and North Africa (b), and North America (c). Correlations are
 1441 calculated over 100-year periods shifted in 10-year steps throughout the past millennium (from 1000 CE
 1442 to the end of the chronology). The earliest value is centered on 1050 CE, the most recent value on 1950
 1443 CE. Colored curves represent the arithmetic means calculated for each of the three regions, and the
 1444 dashed black lines indicate the mean values over the past millennium. (d) Comparison of the mean inter-
 1445 series correlation curves for Europe/North Africa, Asia, and North America.



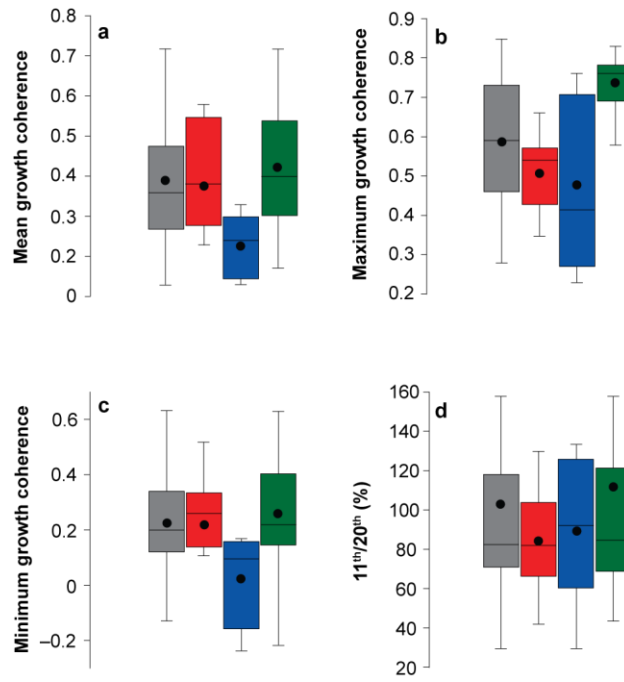
1446

1447 **Fig. 4.** Tree-ring chronology age curves. Thin black curves show the mean tree age of the tree-ring width
 1448 data used in the local hydroclimate reconstructions from Asia (a), Europe and North Africa (b), and
 1449 North America (c). Colored curves are the arithmetic means calculated over the common period covered
 1450 by all reconstructions in each of the three regions. (d) Comparison of mean replication curves for
 1451 Europe/North Africa, Asia, and North America.



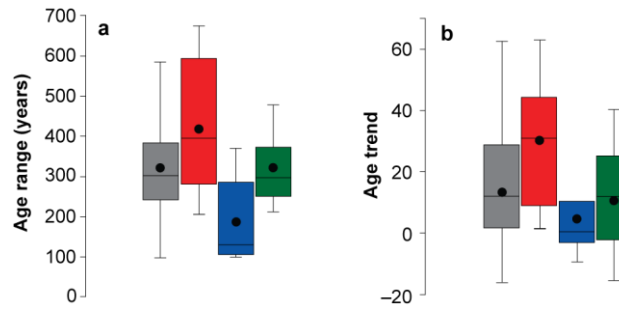
1452

1453 **Fig. 5.** Box plot figures showing the distribution of *Sample Replication* scores for all 46 reconstructions
 1454 (grey), Asia (red), Europe and North Africa (blue), and North America (green) with a box drawn between
 1455 the first and third quartiles, a line across the box shows the median, the black dot shows the mean, and
 1456 minimum and maximum values indicated by whiskers. **(a)** Mean replication. **(b)** Maximum replication.
 1457 **(c)** Minimum replication. **(d)** The ratio of the mean replication during the 11th century relative to the
 1458 mean replication during the 20th century.



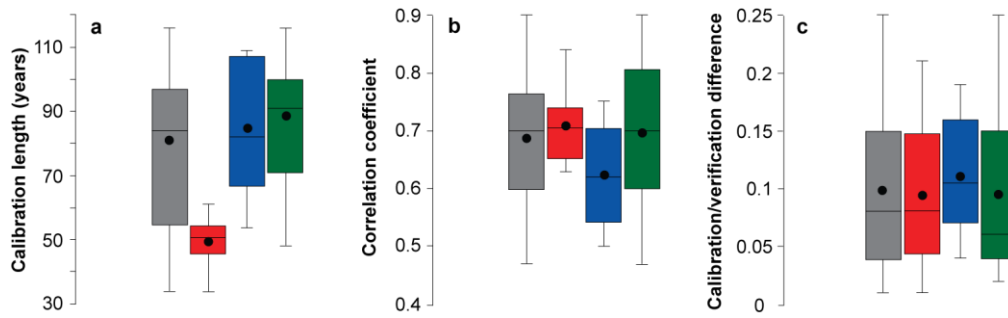
1459

1460 **Fig. 6.** Box plot figures showing the distribution of *Growth Coherence* scores for all 46 reconstructions
 1461 (grey), Asia (red), Europe and North Africa (blue), and North America (green) with a box drawn between
 1462 the first and third quartiles, a line across the box shows the median, the black dot shows the mean, and
 1463 minimum and maximum values indicated by whiskers. **(a)** Mean Rbar. **(b)** Maximum Rbar. **(c)**
 1464 Minimum Rbar. **(d)** The ratio of the mean Rbar during the 11th century relative to the mean Rbar during
 1465 the 20th century.



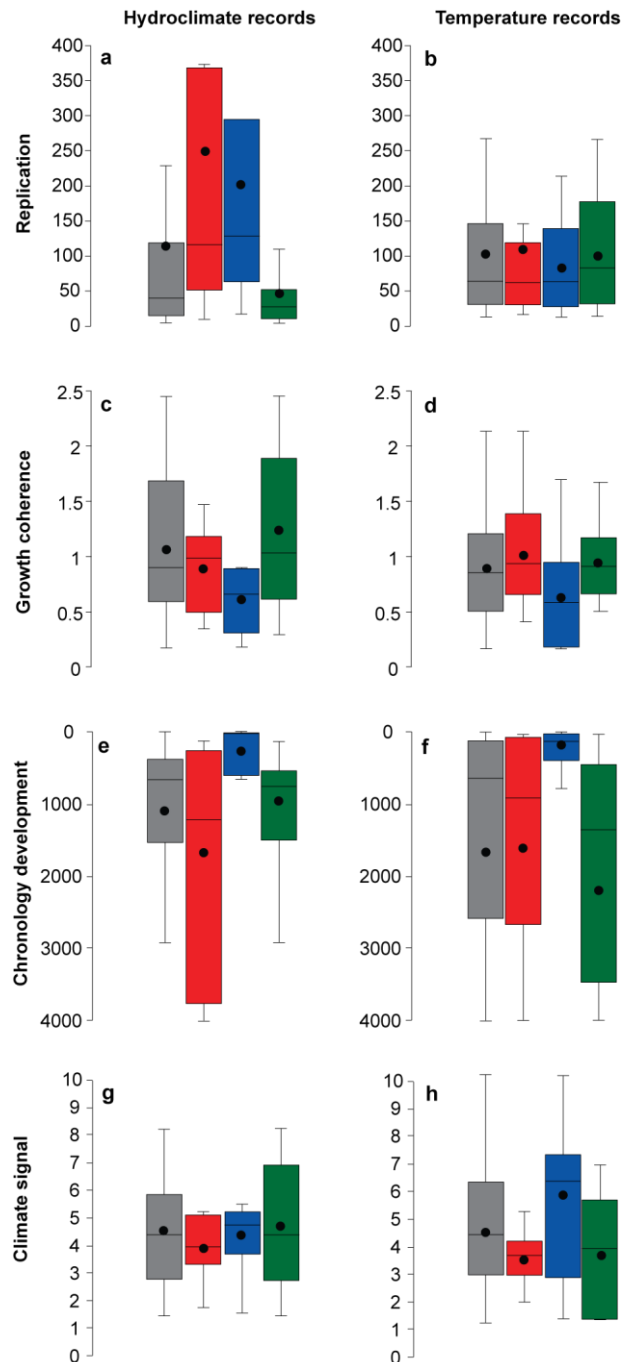
1466

1467 **Fig. 7.** Box plot figures showing the distribution of *Chronology Development* scores for all 46
 1468 reconstructions (grey), Asia (red), Europe and North Africa (blue), and North America (green) with a
 1469 box drawn between the first and third quartiles, a line across the box shows the median, the black dot
 1470 shows the mean, and minimum and maximum values indicated by whiskers. **(a)** Age range between the
 1471 highest and lowest point on the mean age curve over the past millennium. **(b)** Age trend as a slope of a
 1472 linear regression fit to the mean age curve over the past millennium (times 100).



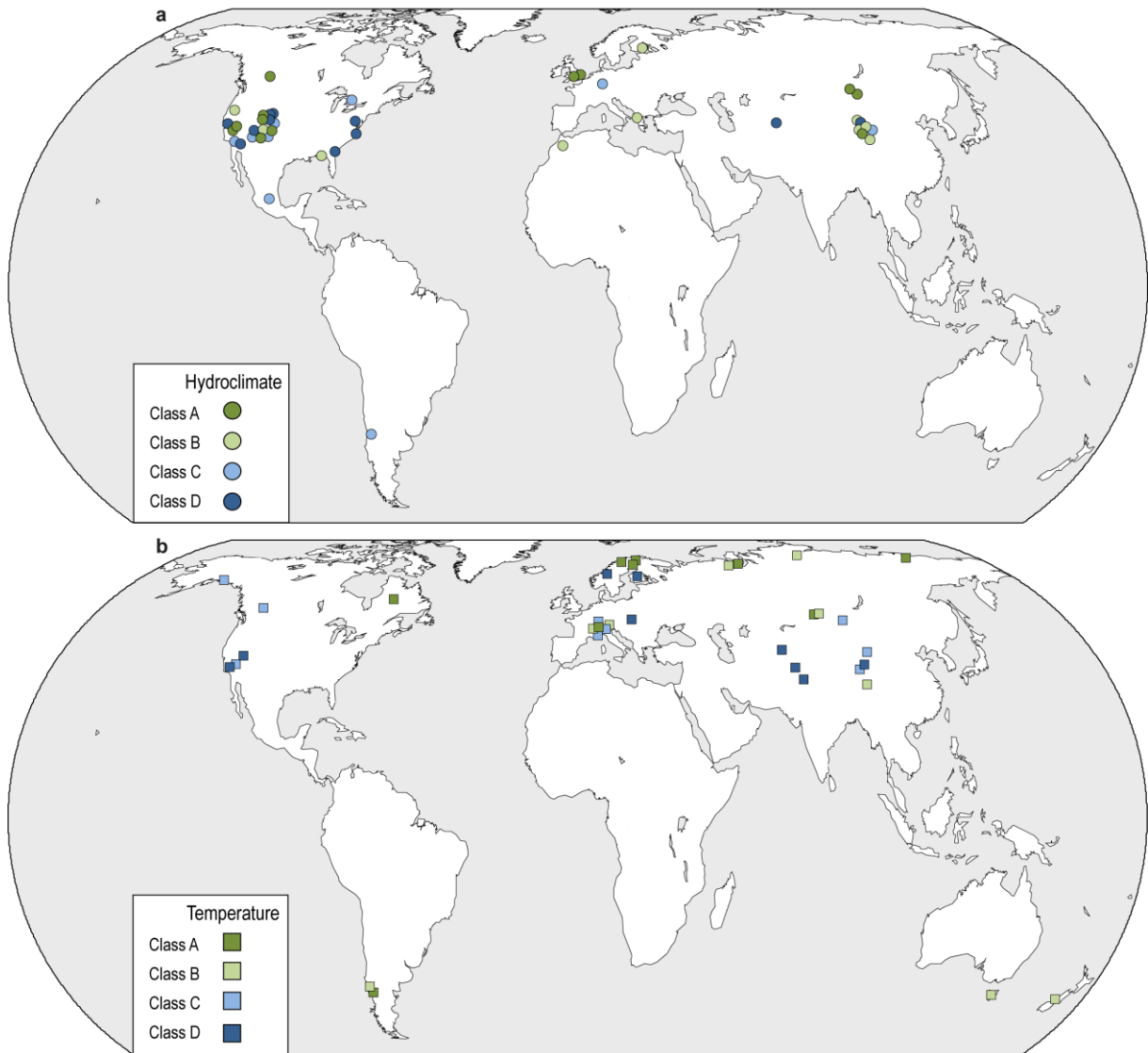
1473

1474 **Fig. 8.** Box plot figures showing the distribution of *Climate Signal* scores for all 46 reconstructions
 1475 (grey), Asia (red), Europe and North Africa (blue), and North America (green) with a box drawn between
 1476 the first and third quartiles, a line across the box shows the median, the black dot shows the mean, and
 1477 minimum and maximum values indicated by whiskers. **(a)** Length of the calibration period in years. **(b)**
 1478 Pearson correlation coefficient between the tree-ring chronology and the instrumental data over the
 1479 calibration period. **(c)** Difference between correlation values of the calibration/verification periods.



1480

1481 **Fig. 9.** Comparison of *Sample Replication*, *Growth Coherence*, *Chronology Development*, and *Climate*
 1482 *Signal* scores for the 46 hydroclimate reconstructions in this study and the 39 temperature
 1483 reconstructions from [Esper et al. \(2016\)](#), with a box drawn between the first and third quartiles, a line
 1484 across the box shows the median, the black dot shows the mean, and minimum and maximum values
 1485 indicated by whiskers. All reconstructions (grey), Asia (red), Europe and North Africa (blue), and North
 1486 America (green). (a) *Sample Replication* scores for hydroclimate reconstructions. (b) *Sample*
 1487 *Replication* scores for temperature reconstructions. (c) *Growth Coherence* scores for hydroclimate
 1488 reconstructions. (d) *Growth Coherence* scores for temperature reconstructions. (e) *Chronology*
 1489 *Development* scores for hydroclimate reconstructions. (f) *Chronology Development* scores for
 1490 temperature reconstructions. (g) *Climate Signal* scores for hydroclimate reconstructions. (h) *Climate*
 1491 *Signal* scores for temperature reconstructions.



1492

1493 **Fig. 10.** Maps showing (a) the distributions of the 46 tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions (this
 1494 study), and (b) the 39 temperature reconstructions (Esper et al., 2016) divided into four ranking classes
 1495 A to D.