

1 **Observed Changes in Interannual Precipitation Variability in the United**  
2 **States**

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15 **Key Points**

- 16 • We find widespread robust changes in two measures of interannual precipitation  
17 variability across the United States
- 18 • We detect increases (decreases) in annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency  
19 across the eastern (western) United States
- 20 • We explore the interaction of changes in precipitation frequency and wet day  
21 precipitation intensity on interannual variability

22 **Abstract**

23

24 Characterizing changes in precipitation patterns over time is critical for hydrologically-  
25 dependent fields like water resource management and agriculture. Here, we explore observed  
26 trends in interannual precipitation variability using a suite of metrics that describe changes in  
27 precipitation over time. We analyze daily *in-situ* Global Historical Climatology Network  
28 precipitation data from 1970 to present over seventeen internally consistent sub-national United  
29 States domains using a regional Mann-Kendall trend test. We find robustly increasing trends in  
30 annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency for most of the central and eastern U.S., but  
31 decreasing trends in the western U.S. Importantly, we identify widespread significant trends in  
32 interannual precipitation variability, with increasing variability in the southeast, decreasing  
33 variability in the far west, and mixed signals in the Rocky Mountains and north-central U.S. Our  
34 results provide important context for water resource managers and a new observational  
35 standard for climate model performance assessments.

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38 **Plain Language Summary**

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40 While many studies have examined how annual precipitation totals and precipitation frequency  
41 have changed, few examine the variability, or consistency, of year-over-year precipitation. We  
42 test for these trends in daily observations across seventeen regions within the U.S. We find  
43 changes in yearly precipitation variability for most regions, though results in the central U.S. are

44 mixed. We also identify rising average annual precipitation and precipitation frequency for the  
45 central and eastern U.S. and falling average annual precipitation and frequency for the western  
46 U.S. Our results are important for agriculture and water resource management and can be  
47 compared against historical climate model simulations to determine how well they reproduce  
48 observations.

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52 **Keywords**

53 precipitation, interannual variability, precipitation variability, GHCN, NEON, NCA

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## 56 **Introduction**

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58 Precipitation patterns are shifting globally due to climate change (Douville et al., 2021). These  
59 changes are broadly driven by increased moisture availability due to rising temperatures (i.e.,  
60 the Clausius-Clapeyron relationship) and shifts in atmospheric circulation patterns (e.g.,  
61 poleward expansion of the Hadley cell; Polade et al., 2014), and are constrained by Earth's  
62 energy budget (Pendergrass and Hartmann, 2014). Observationally-based historical studies and  
63 model-based future projections of precipitation commonly characterize changes in metrics like  
64 annual mean, wet day frequency, and measures of extremes. However, determining changes in  
65 the temporal variability of precipitation is important to inform a number of societally-impactful  
66 hydrological fields.

67 Interannual variability of precipitation describes the degree of consistency in year-over-  
68 year precipitation totals: higher variability equates to greater irregularity of annual totals about  
69 the annual mean, which brings challenges to fields dependent on water resources. For example,  
70 greater precipitation variability reduces crop yields (Shortridge, 2019; Rowhani et al., 2011) and  
71 decreases a grazing area's ability to support livestock (Sloat et al., 2018). Hydrologically, shifts  
72 in interannual precipitation variability are altering the effectiveness of hydroelectric dams (Qin  
73 et al., 2020; Boadi & Owusu, 2019), impacting water quality via increased agricultural runoff  
74 (Loecke et al., 2017), and may also be driving increased variability in Laurentian Great Lake  
75 water levels (Gronewold et al., 2021). Despite the importance of interannual variability,  
76 summary assessments like the U.S. National Climate Assessment have not yet included  
77 characterizations of its recent changes, instead focusing on mean and extreme precipitation

78 (Easterling et al., 2017). Here, to better describe historical changes in the year-over-year  
79 distribution of precipitation across the U.S., we examine shifts in observed interannual  
80 precipitation variability, as well as annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency – two  
81 metrics useful for understanding observed changes in interannual precipitation variability.

82

83 *How is interannual precipitation variability projected to change?*

84 Global climate models project that interannual precipitation variability will increase with rising  
85 greenhouse gas concentrations (Boer, 2009; Polade et al., 2014; Berg and Hall, 2015). Increases in  
86 the interannual variability of precipitation of 3 to 5%/K are projected globally, with 4 to 5%/K  
87 projected over land (Pendergrass et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2021; Chou and Lan, 2012), though  
88 some projections estimate smaller increases (He et al., 2018). He et al. (2018) explain that the  
89 drivers of projected changes in interannual precipitation variability vary spatially; the increase  
90 of mean state specific humidity leads to an increase in variability over areas of climatological  
91 ascent. Conversely, variability increases in areas of climatological descent are primarily driven  
92 by changes in mean state precipitation. Good et al. (2016) further tie interannual precipitation  
93 variability to wet season length, rainfall event intensity, and variability in interstorm wait times.

94 A number of studies have used global climate models to project changes in interannual  
95 precipitation variability over the U.S. Wood et al. (2021) and Polade (2014) both noted a slight,  
96 but widespread, increase in interannual variability over the U.S. by 2100 under the RCP8.5  
97 emissions scenario. Similarly, Chou and Lan (2012) and Pendergrass et al. (2017) project  
98 increased interannual variability over the U.S. midwest, northeast, and northwest using A1B  
99 and RCP8.5 emissions scenarios, respectively. Regionally, Berg and Hall (2015) and Swain et al.

100 (2018) find increasing variability for California across multiple metrics using a suite of RCP8.5-  
101 driven CMIP5 models.

102 Despite numerous model projections of interannual precipitation variability change,  
103 there remains a dearth of observation-based analyses on the topic. Recently, Zhang et al. (2021)  
104 conducted a western U.S.-focused study that identified increases in precipitation variability  
105 using *in-situ* observations from 1976-2019, however, their investigation was regionally limited  
106 and quantified trends in only one precipitation variability metric, the coefficient of variation.  
107 We are aware of no other regional or whole U.S.-focused observational precipitation variability  
108 analyses. To address this deficiency in observational studies and produce an observational  
109 standard for model studies, we explore changes in interannual variability and relevant  
110 precipitation metrics throughout the U.S. using a full complement of *in-situ* measurements.

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112

## 113 **Methods**

114

115 To characterize interannual precipitation variability in the U.S., we use daily *in-situ* station data  
116 from the Global Historical Climatology Network Daily (GHCN-D). The National Centers for  
117 Environmental Information curate the GHCN-D database, which includes the most complete  
118 collection of U.S. daily data available (Menne et al., 2012). GHCN-D observations have a  
119 sensitivity of 0.1 mm and are subjected to a sequence of quality control tests (Durre et al., 2010).  
120 To identify station observations with sufficient length and completeness for trend analysis, we  
121 require station records to consist of 90% or more complete station-years to qualify, where a

122 complete station-year must contain 90% or more of all possible daily records. This screening  
123 filtered our set of available U.S. stations from 63,571 to 2,542 (using a 1970 start year); domain  
124 summary statistics of station availability are shown in Table S1. To overcome some of the  
125 limitations of individual station statistics, such as internal variability (e.g., Fischer et al., 2013),  
126 we center our analysis on regional trends by using domains determined by the National  
127 Ecological Observatory Network (NEON). These twenty domains were created to possess  
128 internally homogeneous climates but remain distinct across-domains, as determined by a multi-  
129 variable analysis using nine climate variables (Keller et al., 2008; Schimel et al., 2011). As labeled  
130 in Figure 1a, we use the seventeen domains that lay predominantly within the contiguous  
131 United States. We also perform our analysis for U.S. National Climate Assessment regions  
132 (Easterling et al., 2017) with results included within the Supporting Information.

133         We employ regional Mann-Kendall trend tests to identify trends in precipitation at the  
134 NEON-domain level. Mann-Kendall trend tests are nonparametric, rank-based tests which  
135 determine if a trend exists in data regardless of underlying distribution (Mann, 1945; Kendall,  
136 1975). They are suitable for detecting robust trends in hydrological time series (Hamed, 2008)  
137 and commonly used in studies assessing trends of precipitation over time (e.g., Zhang et al.,  
138 2021; Roque-Malo and Kumar, 2017). The regional Mann-Kendall trend test determines if a  
139 trend is present within a collection of time series by combining individual test statistics and  
140 examining the consistency in trend direction across station-specific Mann-Kendall trend tests;  
141 further description of the regional Mann-Kendall test can be found in Helsel and Frans, 2006.  
142 We apply the Trend-Free Pre-Whitened Mann-Kendall trend test (Yue et al., 2002) to account for  
143 serial correlation present within the station data attributable to decadal or multi-decadal climate

144 variability and study design. We use the Theil-Sen slope estimator to determine the slope of  
145 identified trends (Sen, 1968; Theil, 1950).

146 We focus our analysis on four precipitation metrics: changes in interannual precipitation  
147 variability, interannual coefficient of variation (a.k.a. relative interannual variability), annual  
148 mean precipitation, and annual wet day frequency, where a wet day is defined as a station-day  
149 observing 1 mm or more of precipitation (a threshold common in precipitation analyses; e.g.,  
150 Giorgi et al., 2019). Collectively, these four variables either directly characterize interannual  
151 variability, or provide crucial information to explain shifts in interannual variability.

152 Here, we define interannual variability as the standard deviation in annual precipitation  
153 totals over a moving 11-year window. We use an 11-year window to limit the influence of  
154 known modes of interannual climate variability (e.g., ENSO), though a sensitivity analysis  
155 reveals generally stable results for five to fifteen-year moving windows (Table S2-S3). We  
156 similarly determine the coefficient of variation by dividing the aforementioned standard  
157 deviation by the mean annual precipitation over the concurrent 11-year moving window.  
158 Though not statistically independent, the coefficient of variation is often used as a measure of  
159 precipitation variability as it removes the effect of a changing mean state on precipitation  
160 variability (e.g., Giorgi et al., 2019). For example, a rise in annual mean precipitation can lead to  
161 a corresponding rise in interannual variability as a higher baseline of annual precipitation  
162 results in greater fluctuations around the baseline, even if the variations are proportionally the  
163 same. This dependency is accounted for by the coefficient of variation. For ease of  
164 understanding, we will henceforth refer to the coefficient of variation as the relative interannual  
165 variability.

166 In addition to performing a sensitivity analysis on the moving window width, we  
167 analyzed the stability of precipitation trends across time periods by incrementally performing  
168 calculations using starting dates every ten years from 1920 through 1980. We present findings  
169 using a 1970 starting date as it provides a balance of widespread station availability and length  
170 of observation record, but highlight discrepancies we identify within the sensitivity analysis in  
171 the discussion section. The full results of the sensitivity analysis are presented in the Supporting  
172 Information (Tables S2-S7).

173

174

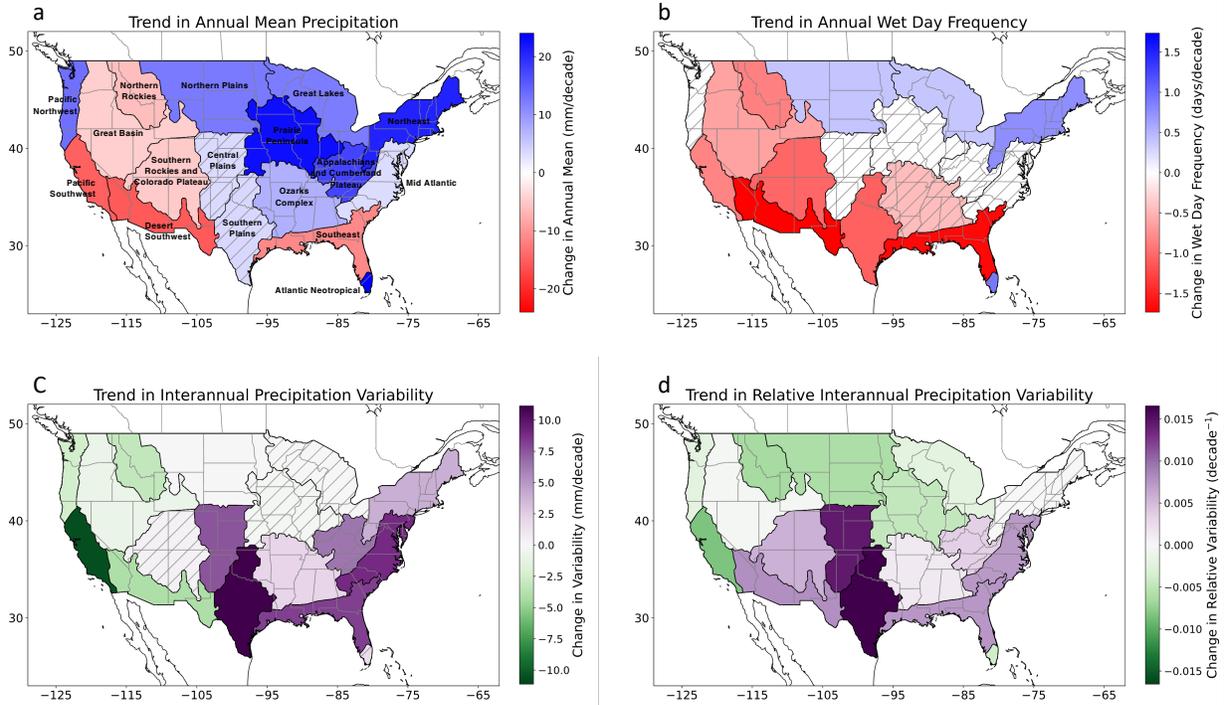
## 175 **Results**

176

177 To properly inform changes in interannual variability, we must first assess changes in annual  
178 mean precipitation and precipitation frequency over our domain. We find statistically  
179 significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increases in annual mean precipitation for the majority of domains east of  
180 the Rocky Mountains. These increases range from 3.3-22.7 mm/decade (0.3-2.7%/decade), with  
181 larger increases for a subset of central and eastern domains ranging from 12.3-22.7 mm/decade  
182 (1.4-2.7%/decade; Figures 1a and 2, Tables S9-S10). We identify statistically significant negative  
183 trends in annual mean precipitation over the western U.S. between -14.9 to -4.7 mm/decade (-5.8  
184 to -1.4%/decade), with annual mean precipitation increasing only in the Pacific Northwest (13.4  
185 mm/decade, 0.9%/decade). Spatial patterns in annual wet day frequency changes largely mirror  
186 changes in annual mean precipitation, with some additional non-significant domains (Figure  
187 1b). We observe statistically significant increases in wet day frequency for northern domains

188 east of the Rocky Mountains, and statistically significant decreases for most western domains,  
189 as well as the Southern Plains and Southeast domains. Changes in wet day frequency range  
190 from -2.0 to 0.8 wet days/decade (-6.3 to 0.7%/decade), with the greatest increases generally  
191 located in the most northern and southern domains (Figures 1b and 2, Tables S9-S10).

192         Given robust trends in observed annual precipitation, it is important to determine  
193 whether such changes were equally distributed over time, or if precipitation variability has  
194 changed. Here, we identify statistically significant trends in both the interannual variability and  
195 relative interannual variability of precipitation for most NEON domains (Figures 1c-d, 2, Tables  
196 S9-S10). Changes in interannual variability range from -10.6 to 19.9 mm/decade (-4.4 to  
197 9.5%/decade), with changes not reaching statistical significance for five domains, predominantly  
198 in the north central U.S. Generally, interannual variability is decreasing in the western U.S. and  
199 increasing in the south central and northeastern U.S. (Figure 1c). We observe broadly similar  
200 spatial patterns in trends of relative interannual variability, although five domains switch from  
201 significant to non-significant trends or vice versa. The direction of change in the Desert  
202 Southwest domain switched from significantly negative to significantly positive (Figures 1c-d,  
203 2); we explore this discrepancy in the discussion section. Collectively, trends in relative  
204 interannual variability range from -3.0 to 9.6%/decade with statistically significant changes  
205 occurring in all but one domain (Northeast). Results for U.S. NCA regions reveal similar spatial  
206 patterns and can be found in the Supporting Information (Figures S1-S2, Tables S11-S12).



207

208 *Figure 1: Domain Trends in Various Precipitation Metrics. (a) Map of changes in annual mean*  
 209 *precipitation for each NEON domain within the contiguous U.S. Red-blue fill indicates domain-level*  
 210 *trends in annual precipitation in mm/decade (dark grey borders). Hatching indicates domain trend is zero*  
 211 *or does not reach statistical significance. (b) Same as (a) but for annual wet day frequency and units of*  
 212 *days/decade. (c) Same as (a) but for interannual precipitation variability with purple-green fill and units*  
 213 *of mm/decade. (d) Same as (c) but for relative interannual precipitation variability and units of decade<sup>-1</sup>.*

214



215

216 *Figure 2: Domain Trends in Annual Precipitation Metrics. Trends in annual mean precipitation (dark*

217 *blue), annual wet day frequency (light blue), interannual precipitation variability (dark green), and*

218 *relative interannual precipitation variability (light green) for each domain. Trends are normalized against*  
219 *the mean value within each domain to produce trends in percent change/decade. Non-filled circles*  
220 *indicate non-significant domain-trends ( $p > 0.05$ ). Note that outlying trends in both metrics of*  
221 *interannual variability for the Central and Southern Plains, as well as annual mean precipitation and*  
222 *annual wet day frequency in the Desert Southwest, are not displayed.*

223

224

## 225 **Discussion**

226

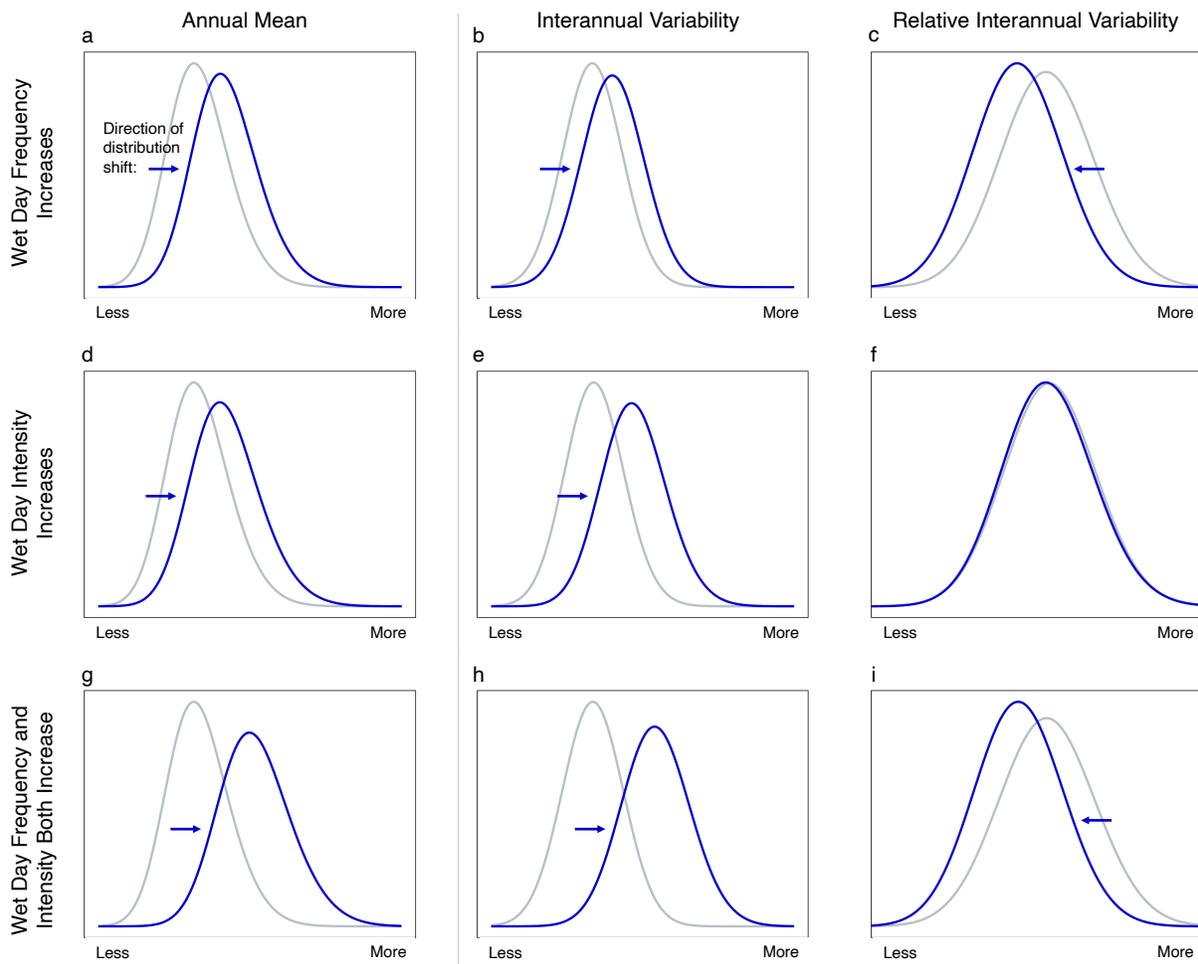
227 Broadly, our analysis of precipitation trends in the United States reveals increasing interannual  
228 variability for the south-central and eastern U.S., decreasing interannual variability for the  
229 Pacific coast, and mixed trends in the north-central and Rocky Mountain portions of the U.S.,  
230 depending on the variability metric of interest. These changes are side-by-side with generally  
231 rising annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency over the central and eastern United  
232 States, and generally falling trends in the western United States.

233 One result of particular interest is the finding that in the Desert Southwest interannual  
234 variability *decreased* but relative interannual variability *increased* at a statistically significant  
235 level. In addition, the magnitude of trends in variability differed across metrics by one percent  
236 or more for ten domains. We explain this between-metric discrepancy with an examination of  
237 the components which influence interannual variability.

238 Together, changes in frequency and daily precipitation intensity drive changes in  
239 interannual and relative interannual precipitation variability. We demonstrate the interplay

240 between these four metrics with the theoretical example in Figure 3, which depicts the  
 241 differential and combined effects of: a 10% increase in precipitation frequency (Figure 3a-c), a  
 242 10% increase in wet day intensity (Figure 3d-f), and both simultaneously (Figure 3g-i). In these  
 243 examples, when intensity increases, it does so uniformly across the underlying precipitation  
 244 distribution (i.e., not driven solely by intensity increases in extreme events).  
 245

**Responses of Annual Precipitation and Interannual Variability of Precipitation to Changes in Wet Day Frequency and Intensity**



246

247 *Figure 3: Responses of Annual Precipitation Totals and Interannual Variability of Precipitation to*  
 248 *Changes in Wet Day Frequency and Intensity. (a) Initial probability distribution function (light grey) of*

249 *annual precipitation totals based on Great Lakes domain precipitation intensity distribution. Projected*  
250 *probability distribution function (blue) after incorporating 10% increase in wet day frequency. (b) Same*  
251 *as (a) but for interannual variability of precipitation. (c) Same as (a) but for relative interannual*  
252 *variability of precipitation. (d-f) Same as (a-c) but projected probability distribution function incorporates*  
253 *a 10% increase in mean wet day intensity while the standard deviation of precipitation intensity*  
254 *distribution remains the same. (g-i) Same as (a-c) but projected distribution function incorporates a 10%*  
255 *increase in both wet day frequency and mean wet day intensity.*

256

257         Holding intensity constant, an increase solely in wet day frequency leads to an increase  
258 in interannual variability but a *decrease* in relative interannual variability (Figures 3b-c). As  
259 would be expected, an increase in wet day frequency produces an increase in annual  
260 precipitation totals (Figure 3a). This rise in mean state leads to a corresponding proportional  
261 increase in interannual variability as larger annual totals provide a greater baseline for  
262 interannual fluctuations. However, after accounting for the shift in baseline, *relative* interannual  
263 variability decreases. As wet day frequency rises, the contribution of extreme events toward  
264 annual totals is reduced, along with the likelihood that a given year of precipitation will be  
265 unduly influenced by extreme outlier events. Consequently, year-over-year annual precipitation  
266 totals become more consistent with more frequent precipitation. This scenario can be seen in  
267 reverse for the Desert Southwest domain: interannual variability decreases and relative  
268 interannual variability increases despite no shift in underlying precipitation intensities for the  
269 Desert Southwest (Harp and Horton, 2022).

270           The impacts of shifts in wet day precipitation intensity on the two metrics of interannual  
271 variability are more nuanced. Generally, increases in mean wet day precipitation intensity will  
272 lead to increases in interannual variability, however, the standard deviation of the underlying  
273 wet day precipitation intensity distribution has critical impacts on relative interannual  
274 variability. For example, if the standard deviation of wet day precipitation intensity does not  
275 change, then an increase in the mean wet day precipitation intensity leads to negligible impacts  
276 on relative interannual variability (Figure 3f). This is the case for the observed changes over the  
277 Northeast domain. Here, both wet day frequency and intensity increase (Harp and Horton,  
278 2022), leading to a 2.4% rise in interannual variability but a negligible change in relative  
279 interannual variability. Stepping back, an increase in the standard deviation of wet day  
280 intensity leads to an increase in relative interannual variability and vice versa. These intricacies  
281 are illustrated in Figures S3-S4: Figure S3 shows an increase in standard deviation driven by  
282 changes at high intensities and Figure S4 shows an increase in standard deviation driven by  
283 changes at lower-to-moderate intensities. Ultimately, changing interannual variability is a  
284 byproduct of changes in wet day frequency and the underlying precipitation intensity  
285 distribution – both the change in mean and standard deviation of the intensity distribution are  
286 important – which can combine to produce differential impacts on interannual variability and  
287 relative interannual variability.

288           A second potential path toward changes in interannual precipitation variability involves  
289 shifting of relevant modes of climate variability themselves. This is the case in the broader  
290 southeastern U.S. where we find increasing interannual variability in both metrics; a shift which  
291 has previously been linked to changes in the intensity and location of the western ridge of the

292 North Atlantic Subtropical High (a.k.a. the Bermuda High; Cherchi et al., 2018; Li et al., 2010;  
293 Bishop et al., 2019). More specifically, this change in regional climate dynamics in part explains  
294 how the Central and Southern Plains have the most substantial changes in both interannual  
295 variability (6.2% and 9.5%, respectively) and relative interannual variability (6.1% and 9.6%,  
296 respectively) despite modest shifts in annual precipitation and wet day frequency. An  
297 additional factor driving these regional changes is a strengthening of the underlying  
298 precipitation intensity distribution, with increases in mean wet day intensity of 4.6% and 8%,  
299 respectively (Harp and Horton, 2022). We also highlight results for the broader southwestern  
300 U.S. (Pacific Southwest, Desert Southwest, Southern Rockies and Colorado Plateau, and Great  
301 Basin NEON domains), portions of which have recently experienced the greatest soil moisture  
302 deficit in over 1,000 years (Williams et al., 2022). Over the past ~50 years, we find decreasing  
303 trends in annual mean precipitation, wet day frequency, and interannual precipitation  
304 variability, with mixed trends in relative interannual precipitation variability over this region  
305 (Figure 1). Underlying drivers of both observed and projected future changes in precipitation in  
306 this region remain an area of active investigation, with a cohesive picture yet to emerge (e.g.,  
307 Seager et al. 2015; Swain et al., 2018).

308

### 309 *Comparison with earlier literature*

310 Our results on changes in observed annual mean precipitation largely mirror earlier  
311 findings from the fourth National Climate Assessment (Easterling et al., 2017) with subtle  
312 differences over the south-central and northwestern U.S. Additionally, we find similar trends in  
313 wet day frequency as earlier *in-situ*, station-based observational studies such as Pal et al. (2013),

314 though there is a discrepancy in findings over the mountain west and a central band across the  
315 eastern U.S. Despite a similar observation-driven and interannual variability-focused  
316 methodology, we identify differences between our findings and those of Zhang et al. (2021),  
317 which looked at a subset of our domain of interest (the western U.S.). Specifically, within the  
318 overlapping domains in our studies, we find statistically significant changes in relative  
319 interannual variability for all domains, while Zhang et al. find statistically significant changes in  
320 just three domains. The signs of the identified trends for these three domains do, however,  
321 agree with our results. We similarly find significant results across more domains for annual  
322 mean precipitation and wet day frequency than Zhang et al., though the signs of trends nearly  
323 perfectly overlap across all three precipitation metrics. These discrepancies may be a byproduct  
324 of methodological decisions. For example, despite also using GHCN-D data, Zhang et al. focus  
325 their analysis on the period from 1976-2019 and use a shorter moving window (five years) for  
326 calculation of relative interannual variability, though our sensitivity analysis did not reveal  
327 strong window width dependency (Tables S2-S7).

328         While an imperfect comparison, we also compare our results of observed interannual  
329 variability with a suite of studies using high emission scenario model projections to determine if  
330 trends emerging in historical observations mirror future estimates. Our findings of increasing  
331 interannual variability of precipitation in the midwest and northeast match those of Chou and  
332 Lan (2012) and Pendergrass et al. (2017), though we disagree over the sign of change in the  
333 northwest U.S. Both Chou and Lan (2012) and Pendergrass et al. (2017) attribute rising  
334 interannual precipitation variability to greater moisture availability connected with increasing  
335 temperatures. The spatial patterns in interannual variability shifts we identify also differ from

336 the generally uniform nationwide-increases projected by Wood et al. (2021) and Polade (2014),  
337 particularly in the western U.S. Similarly, our findings of falling interannual variability in  
338 California disagree with modeled increases presented in Berg and Hall (2015) and Swain et al.  
339 (2018), though neither study predicts an emergence of signal until the mid-21st century. Lastly,  
340 it should be noted that while our study examines changes in interannual variability over a  
341 period of rapidly increasing greenhouse gas concentrations and subsequent climate impacts,  
342 unlike the above studies, we do not explicitly examine the effects of climate change on  
343 interannual variability.

344

#### 345 *Limitations and Sensitivity Analysis Implications*

346 There are potential limitations of our study, beginning with an underlying assumption  
347 that stations within NEON domains are sufficiently homogeneous. While NEON domains were  
348 created to possess internally consistent climates, within-domain variability may exist and  
349 inconsistent station availability may influence domain-level findings. The quantity of qualifying  
350 stations also varies between domains and can impact the reliability of results; this is especially  
351 true for the Atlantic Neotropical domain with only six qualifying stations. Our sensitivity  
352 analysis revealed two domain clusters with start year-dependent results, in agreement with  
353 Kunkel (2003), which describes the importance of length of record for analysis, and notes that  
354 shorter time series may exhibit different trends than those from a greater length of record for  
355 the same location. First, the direction of relative interannual variability trends switches over the  
356 four central domains between a 1950 and 1960 start date. Similarly, results for the western U.S.  
357 show a distinct shift in precipitation trends between a 1950 or earlier start date and a 1960 or

358 1970 start date. This shift occurs in trends for all metrics and across at least half of the western  
359 NEON domains (Tables S2-S6). Thus, while we have focused on results using a 1970 start date  
360 and 11-year moving window, we note that this combination should not be considered definitive  
361 and as such include results of analyses based on a 1950 start date in the Supporting Information  
362 (Figures S5-S8, Tables S13-S16). Finally, we emphasize that although we examine trends in  
363 precipitation through a period of time of increasing greenhouse gas emissions and resultant  
364 climate impacts, we do not attempt to formally attribute changes to anthropogenic forcings.  
365 Indeed, attribution with observations alone ranges from challenging to impossible (NASEM,  
366 2016). Observed records undersample the full distribution of potential underlying climatic  
367 states and may contain statistically significant but anthropogenically unforced trends (Lehner &  
368 Deser, 2023). To avoid such pitfalls and increase confidence, attribution analyses using single or  
369 even multi-model initial condition perturbation ensembles are recommended (Diffenbaugh et  
370 al., 2020; Deser et al., 2020).

371

## 372 **Conclusion**

373 We use curated daily *in-situ* precipitation measurements from the GHCN to examine  
374 domain-level trends in annual precipitation metrics, with a focus on interannual variability. We  
375 identify rises in annual mean precipitation in the central and eastern U.S. and declines in the  
376 western U.S. Trends in wet day frequency broadly mirror those of annual mean precipitation.  
377 We also reveal significant trends in interannual precipitation variability and relative  
378 precipitation variability across the U.S., though with some differences in within-domain trends  
379 depending on the variability metric of interest. Broadly, we find an increase in precipitation

380 variability across both metrics for the southeastern U.S., a decrease along the west coast, and  
381 mixed signals in the central U.S. These findings have important implications for understanding  
382 the impact of changing precipitation variability on agriculture and water resource planning.  
383 The full complement of our results can be compared against historical climate model projections  
384 to inform climate model analyses across the full spectrum of precipitation metrics. Finally, we  
385 recommend that future studies carefully consider how interannual precipitation variability is  
386 characterized (i.e., interannual variability vs relative interannual variability) and any  
387 subsequent implications.

388

389

390

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396 was supported in part through the computational resources and staff contributions provided for  
397 the Quest high performance computing facility at Northwestern University.

398

399

### 400 **Open Research and Availability Statement**

401 The National Centers for Environmental Information hosts publicly available Global Historical  
402 Climatology Network Daily data at [https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/land-based-](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/land-based-station/global-historical-climatology-network-daily)  
403 [station/global-historical-climatology-network-daily](https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/land-based-station/global-historical-climatology-network-daily). Code developed by the authors to conduct  
404 the analysis and produce the figures within this study is available at  
405 [github.com/ryandharp/Observed\\_Changes\\_in\\_Interannual\\_Precipitation\\_Variability\\_in\\_the\\_U](https://github.com/ryandharp/Observed_Changes_in_Interannual_Precipitation_Variability_in_the_United_States)  
406 [nited\\_States](https://github.com/ryandharp/Observed_Changes_in_Interannual_Precipitation_Variability_in_the_United_States). Analysis code will be placed and archived on Zenodo upon completion of the peer  
407 review process, at which time the finalized link to archive, DOI, and data citation will be  
408 included in this statement.

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