

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

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22 **Key Points**

- 23 • We find widespread robust changes in two measures of interannual precipitation  
24 variability across the United States
- 25 • We detect increases (decreases) in annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency  
26 across the eastern (western) United States
- 27 • We explore the interaction of changes in precipitation frequency and wet day  
28 precipitation intensity on interannual variability

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30

31 **Abstract**

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33 Characterizing changes in precipitation patterns over time is critical for hydrologically-  
34 dependent fields like water resource management and agriculture. Here, we explore observed  
35 trends in interannual precipitation variability using a suite of metrics that describe changes in  
36 precipitation over time. We analyze daily *in-situ* Global Historical Climatology Network  
37 precipitation data from 1970 to present over seventeen internally consistent sub-national United  
38 States domains using a regional Mann-Kendall trend test. We find robustly increasing trends in  
39 annual mean precipitation and wet day frequency for most of the central and eastern U.S., but  
40 decreasing trends in the western U.S. Importantly, we identify widespread significant trends in  
41 interannual precipitation variability, with increasing variability in the southeast, decreasing  
42 variability in the far west, and mixed signals in the Rocky Mountains and north-central U.S. Our

43 results provide important context for water resource managers and a new observational  
44 standard for climate model performance assessments.

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## 47 **Plain Language Summary**

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49 While many studies have examined how annual precipitation totals and precipitation frequency  
50 have changed, few examine the variability, or consistency, of year-over-year precipitation. We  
51 test for these trends in daily observations across seventeen regions within the U.S. We find  
52 changes in yearly precipitation variability for most regions, though results in the central U.S. are  
53 mixed. We also identify rising average annual precipitation and precipitation frequency for the  
54 central and eastern U.S. and falling average annual precipitation and frequency for the western  
55 U.S. Our results are important for agriculture and water resource management and can be  
56 compared against historical climate model simulations to determine how well they reproduce  
57 observations.

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## 61 **Keywords**

62 precipitation, interannual variability, precipitation variability, GHCN, NEON, NCA

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## 65 **Introduction**

66

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

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

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

91

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

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

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

109 (2018) find increasing variability for California across multiple metrics using a suite of RCP8.5-  
110 driven CMIP5 models.

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

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121

## 122 **Methods**

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124 To characterize interannual precipitation variability in the U.S., we use daily *in-situ* station data  
125 from the Global Historical Climatology Network Daily (GHCN-D). The National Centers for  
126 Environmental Information (NCEI) curate the GHCN-D database, which includes the most  
127 complete collection of U.S. daily data available (Menne et al., 2012). GHCN-D observations have  
128 a sensitivity of 0.1 mm and are subjected to a sequence of quality control tests (Durre et al.,  
129 2010). To identify station observations with sufficient length and completeness for trend  
130 analysis, we require station records to consist of 90% or more complete station-years to qualify,

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

142 We employ regional Mann-Kendall trend tests to identify trends in precipitation at the  
143 NEON-domain level. Mann-Kendall trend tests are nonparametric, rank-based tests which  
144 determine if a trend exists in data regardless of underlying distribution (Mann, 1945; Kendall,  
145 1975). They are suitable for detecting robust trends in hydrological time series (Hamed, 2008)  
146 and commonly used in studies assessing trends of precipitation over time (e.g., Zhang et al.,  
147 2021; Roque-Malo and Kumar, 2017). The regional Mann-Kendall trend test determines if a  
148 trend is present within a collection of time series by combining individual test statistics and  
149 examining the consistency in trend direction across station-specific Mann-Kendall trend tests;  
150 further description of the regional Mann-Kendall test can be found in Helsel and Frans, 2006.  
151 We apply the Trend-Free Pre-Whitened Mann-Kendall trend test (Yue et al., 2002) to account for

152 lag-one autocorrelation present within the investigated data. We use the Theil-Sen slope  
153 estimator to determine the slope of identified trends (Sen, 1968; Theil, 1950).

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

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

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

180

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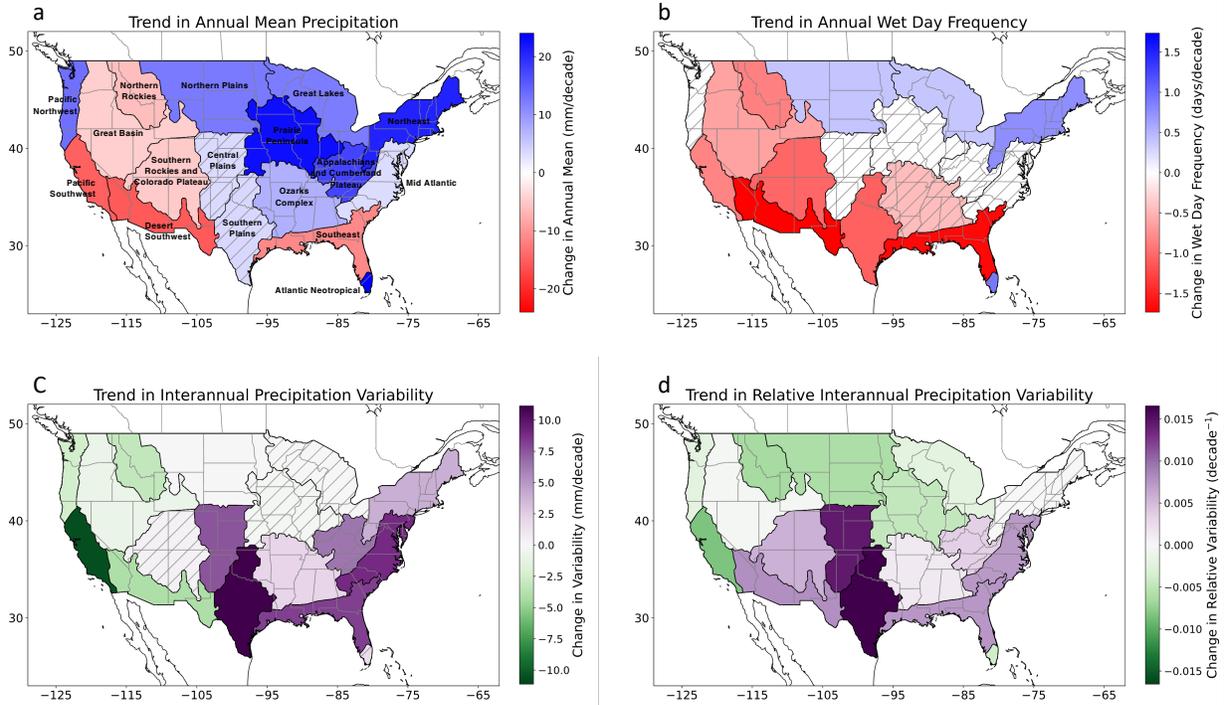
## 182 **Results**

183

184 To properly contextualize changes in interannual variability, we must first assess changes in  
185 annual mean precipitation and precipitation frequency over our domain. We find statistically  
186 significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increases in annual mean precipitation for the majority of domains east of  
187 the Rocky Mountains. These increases range from 3.3-22.7 mm/decade (0.3-2.7%/decade), with  
188 larger increases for a subset of central and eastern domains ranging from 12.3-22.7 mm/decade  
189 (1.4-2.7%/decade; Figures 1a and 2, Tables S9-S10). We identify statistically significant negative  
190 trends in annual mean precipitation over the western U.S. between -14.9 to -4.7 mm/decade (-5.8  
191 to -1.4%/decade), with annual mean precipitation increasing only in the Pacific Northwest (13.4  
192 mm/decade, 0.9%/decade). Spatial patterns in annual wet day frequency changes largely mirror  
193 changes in annual mean precipitation, with some additional non-significant domains (Figure  
194 1b). We observe statistically significant increases in wet day frequency for northern domains

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

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



214

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

221



222

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

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

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

230

231

## 232 **Discussion**

233

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

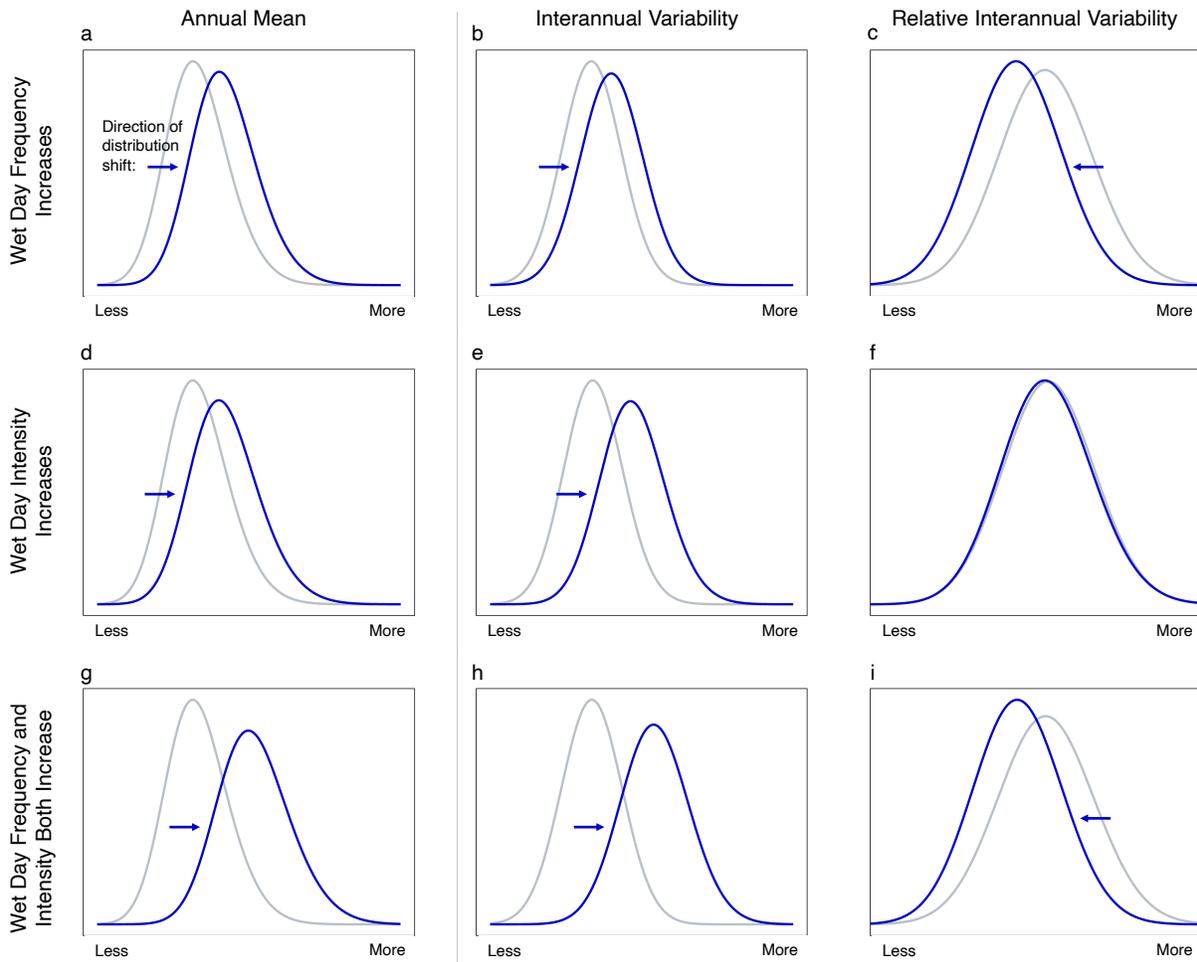
240 One result of particular interest is the finding that in the Desert Southwest interannual  
241 variability *decreased* but relative interannual variability *increased* at a statistically significant  
242 level. In addition, the magnitude of trends in variability differed across metrics by one percent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

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

247 between these four metrics with the theoretical example in Figure 3, which depicts the  
 248 differential and combined effects of: a 10% increase in precipitation frequency (Figure 3a-c), a  
 249 10% increase in wet day intensity (Figure 3d-f), and both simultaneously (Figure 3g-i). In these  
 250 examples, when intensity increases, it does so uniformly across the underlying precipitation  
 251 distribution (i.e., not driven solely by intensity increases in extreme events).

252

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



253

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

256 annual precipitation totals based on Great Lakes domain precipitation intensity distribution. Projected  
257 probability distribution function (blue) after incorporating 10% increase in wet day frequency. (b) Same  
258 as (a) but for interannual variability of precipitation. (c) Same as (a) but for relative interannual  
259 variability of precipitation. (d-f) Same as (a-c) but projected probability distribution function incorporates  
260 a 10% increase in mean wet day intensity while the standard deviation of precipitation intensity  
261 distribution remains the same. (g-i) Same as (a-c) but projected distribution function incorporates a 10%  
262 increase in both wet day frequency and mean wet day intensity.

263

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

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

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

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

315

### 316 *Comparison with earlier literature*

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

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

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

343 the generally uniform nationwide-increases projected by Wood et al. (2021) and Polade (2014),  
344 particularly in the western U.S. Similarly, our findings of falling interannual variability in  
345 California disagree with modeled increases presented in Berg and Hall (2015) and Swain et al.  
346 (2018), though neither study predicts an emergence of signal until the mid-21st century. Lastly,  
347 it should be noted that while our study examines changes in interannual variability over a  
348 period of rapidly increasing greenhouse gas concentrations and subsequent climate impacts,  
349 unlike the above studies, we do not explicitly examine the effects of climate change on  
350 interannual variability.

351

#### 352 *Limitations and Sensitivity Analysis Implications*

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

365 1970 start date. This shift occurs in trends for all metrics and across at least half of the western  
366 NEON domains (Tables S2-S6). Thus, while we have focused on results using a 1970 start date  
367 and 11-year moving window, we note that this combination should not be considered definitive  
368 and as such include results of analyses based on a 1950 start date in the Supporting Information  
369 (Figures S5-S8, Tables S13-S16). We used the Trend-Free Pre-Whitened Mann-Kendall test for  
370 this analysis. While this limits the effects of short-term autocorrelation, it does not address  
371 longer-term persistence caused by decadal or multi-decadal climate variability, such as the  
372 Pacific Decadal Oscillation, which may influence our findings (Kumar et al., 2013; Su et al.,  
373 2013).

374 Finally, we emphasize that although we examine trends in precipitation through a  
375 period of time of increasing greenhouse gas emissions and resultant climate impacts, we do not  
376 attempt to formally attribute changes to anthropogenic forcings. Indeed, attribution with  
377 observations alone ranges from challenging to impossible (NASEM, 2016). Observed records  
378 undersample the full distribution of potential underlying climatic states and may contain  
379 statistically significant but anthropogenically unforced trends (Lehner & Deser, 2023). To avoid  
380 such pitfalls and increase confidence, attribution analyses using single or even multi-model  
381 initial condition perturbation ensembles are recommended (Diffenbaugh et al., 2020; Deser et  
382 al., 2020).

383

## 384 **Conclusion**

385 We use curated daily *in-situ* precipitation measurements from the GHCN to examine  
386 domain-level trends in annual precipitation metrics, with a focus on interannual variability. We

387 identify rises in annual mean precipitation in the central and eastern U.S. and declines in the  
388 western U.S. Trends in wet day frequency broadly mirror those of annual mean precipitation.  
389 We also reveal significant trends in interannual precipitation variability and relative  
390 precipitation variability across the U.S., though with some differences in within-domain trends  
391 depending on the variability metric of interest. Broadly, we find an increase in precipitation  
392 variability across both metrics for the southeastern U.S., a decrease along the west coast, and  
393 mixed signals in the central U.S. These findings have important implications for understanding  
394 the impact of changing precipitation variability on agriculture and water resource planning.  
395 The full complement of our results can be compared against historical climate model projections  
396 to inform climate model analyses across the full spectrum of precipitation metrics. Finally, we  
397 recommend that future studies carefully consider how interannual precipitation variability is  
398 characterized (i.e., interannual variability vs relative interannual variability) and any  
399 subsequent implications.

400

401

402

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404 We first thank the NCEI for publicly sharing the GHCN-D dataset. We also express our  
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409

410

411 **Open Research and Availability Statement**

412 The NCEI hosts publicly available GHCN-D data at <https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/land->

413 [based-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

414 conduct the data analysis and visualization within this study is available are publicly available

415 and preserved at [doi:10.5281/zenodo.8065611](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8065611) and developed openly at

416 [https://github.com/ryandharp/Observed\\_Changes\\_in\\_Interannual\\_Precipitation\\_Variability\\_in](https://github.com/ryandharp/Observed_Changes_in_Interannual_Precipitation_Variability_in_the_United_States)

417 [the\\_United\\_States](https://github.com/ryandharp/Observed_Changes_in_Interannual_Precipitation_Variability_in_the_United_States).

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