Recent intensification of extreme precipitation over Antarctica driven by increases in greenhouse gases and stratospheric ozone

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Abstract. Extreme precipitation is a major contributor to the total precipitation over Antarctica, as well as its variability. However, it's still poorly understood whether any recent trends in extreme precipitation over Antarctica have occurred, and if so, whether they are anthropogenically driven. Here we address this knowledge gap by using ERA5 data from 1979 to 2023 to identify six Antarctic drainage basins with significant positive trends in total and extreme precipitation. These basins include one in the Antarctic Peninsula, one in West Antarctica, and four in East Antarctica. We subsequently perform a detection and attribution analysis of these trends using precipitation outputs from CESM1 global climate model large ensembles based on "all-forcing" (ALL) simulations and "single-forcing" simulations that isolate the effects of greenhouse gases (GHG), anthropogenic aerosols (AER), and stratospheric ozone (O3). Our analysis indicates that a combination of both anthropogenic and natural forcings are responsible for these trends in five of the basins located in West and East Antarctica, specifically within the Filchner-Ronne basin, Dronning Maud Land, and Enderby Land. The results further show that the precipitation changes are robustly attributed to increases in greenhouse gases in four basins and stratospheric ozone depletion in three basins, and increases in anthropogenic aerosols in only one basin. Repeating the analysis using CESM2 ensembles for ALL, GHG, and AER also indicated that greenhouse gases are an important driver of the precipitation trends over these basins. However, these results suggest that increases in anthropogenic aerosol emissions can oppose / offset the increases in precipitation from increased greenhouse gases over our five basins, which contradicts the findings based on CESM1. Finally, we show that the precipitation trends are partly due to an increased occurrence of atmospheric rivers.

1 Introduction

Extreme precipitation events (EPEs, i.e., where the amount of precipitation at a location is substantially greater than normal) have increased in intensity and frequency globally in recent decades (Donat et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2021; Dunn et al., 2020;

Li et al., 2024), which has been attributed to anthropogenically-induced climate change (Min et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013; Paik et al., 2020; Kirchmeier-Young et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2020, 2021; Estrada et al., 2023; IPCC 2023). In Antarctica, EPEs account for over 40% of the continent's total precipitation and almost 70% of the variance in annual precipitation, and are often associated with intense atmosphere rivers (ARs) (Gorodetskaya et al., 2014; Turner et al., 2019; Adusumilli et al., 2021; Wille et al., 2021, 2024, 2025; Gehring et al., 2022; Maclennan et al., 2022, 2023; Simon et al., 2024). However, identifying positive trends in EPEs over recent decades in Antarctica is hampered by such events being rare and difficult to separate from the substantial interannual precipitation variability that characterises its climate, as well as limited observations (Connolley, 1997; Hosking et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2018, 2025). For example, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) assessments of observed extreme precipitation changes largely exclude Antarctica (Seneviratne et al., 2021). Nevertheless, positive trends in the number of EPEs occurring over recent decades have been identified over parts of East Antarctica (Yu et al., 2018; Simon et al., 2024).

Antarctic precipitation and EPEs are the major component of surface mass balance (Turner et al., 2019; Kittel et al., 2021; Mottram et al., 2021; Clem and Raphael, 2024; Davison et al., 2023; Wille et al., 2024) and thus play a crucial role in controlling the stability of the Antarctic ice sheet by offsetting dynamically driven ice-losses (Favier et al., 2017; Zwally et al., 2017; Paolo et al., 2018; Rignot et al., 2019; Kromer and Trusel, 2023; Otosaka et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2025). Furthermore, mass gained from precipitation and EPEs over Antarctic ice shelves can partially compensate for mass-losses caused by either basal or surface melting (Paolo et al., 2015; Pattyn et al., 2017; Gardner et al., 2018; Rignot et al., 2019; Nakayama et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022). This is especially critical as ice shelf thinning results in the acceleration of grounded ice toward the ocean, where the ice subsequently calves into the ocean as icebergs and causes increased sea-level rise (Rott et al. 1996; Pritchard et al. 2012; Rignot et al. 2019). Additionally, snowfall is an essential factor in minimizing the susceptibility of ice shelves to surface melt pond formation, which can initiate hydrofracturing of ice shelves, by counteracting any firn air depletion caused by surface melting (Scambos et al. 2000; Munneke et al., 2014; Banwell and MacAyeal 2015; Lai et al. 2020; Orr et al., 2023; Van Wessem et al., 2023).

Therefore, a better physical understanding of the trends in EPEs during the past decades over Antarctica is critical. Moreover, an enhanced understanding of the drivers of these trends, such as anthropogenically-induced changes (i.e., external climate forcing), is also of critical importance to better highlight how EPEs and associated impacts might change under future climate projections (Kittel et al., 2021; Vignon et al., 2021). For example, Dalaiden et al. (2022) identified that increased greenhouse gas emissions and stratospheric ozone depletion were the primary drivers of increased precipitation and temperature over West Antarctica since the middle of the twentieth century. These two drivers were also identified as causing recent changes in Southern Ocean temperature and salinity by Swart et al. (2018) and Hobbs et al. (2021). Additionally, increased anthropogenic aerosol emissions in Asia in recent decades have been suggested by Gu et al. (2025) to affect Antarctica's climate by Rossby-wave teleconnections. However, the strong internal variability prevailing in the Southern

Hemisphere high latitudes makes it challenging to detect the signal of anthropogenically-produced climatic changes from the observed changes during the past decades (e.g., Fyke et al., 2017), as well as when this signal will emerge from natural variability in the future (Trusel et al., 2015; Previdi and Polvani, 2016; Morioka et al., 2024).

This study addresses the knowledge gap around our understanding of the drivers of changes in EPEs over Antarctica by performing a detection and attribution (D&A) analysis to investigate the influence of external forcings and natural variability on annual trends in total and extreme precipitation across Antarctica from 1979 to the present-day. Our approach uses precipitation from: i) ERA5 atmospheric reanalysis to identify trends, and ii) large ensembles performed using the Community Earth System Model Versions 1 and 2 (CESM1 and CESM2), which are fully-coupled global climate models, to undertake D&A of the ERA5-based trends and determine the role of different external climate forcings versus internal climate variability.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Datasets

In situ measurements of precipitation over Antarctica are extremely scarce and difficult to make due to the challenging remote environment and difficulties distinguishing between falling and wind-driven snow (Pritchard, 2021). Therefore, we use hourly precipitation (both rainfall and snowfall) data from the ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2020) at a horizontal resolution of 0.25° to identify present-day precipitation trends in Antarctica as this provides complete spatial and temporal coverage of this region for the period of interest. ERA5 precipitation has been used previously in studies examining daily precipitation over Antarctica (Vignon et al., 2021; Carter et al., 2022; Tewari et al., 2022) and for extreme event analysis (Yu et al., 2025). However, for this study we only use data from 1979 to 2023 (45 years), as prior to this period there were relatively few satellite observations over the Southern Ocean and Antarctica, which are necessary to constrain the reanalysis (Bromwich et al., 2024). Additionally, as ARs are an important contributor to EPEs (Gorodetskaya et al., 2014; Maclennan et al., 2022; Wille et al., 2025), we identify their occurrence using a 3-hourly AR detection catalog at a horizontal resolution of 0.5°, derived from ERA5 reanalysis (Wille et al., 2021). Here, ARs are identified based on the meridional component of integrated vapor transport exceeding the 98th percentile of the monthly climatologies.

We also use daily precipitation (both rainfall and snowfall) output for the period 1979 to 2023 from the large ensemble simulations performed with the CESM1 and CESM2 models. These simulations were selected because they have a number of factors that are crucial for the D&A analysis, including: i) "all-forcing" (ALL) large ensembles that consider forcings from all anthropogenic and natural (such as solar variability and volcanic eruptions) sources, ii) "single-forcing" large ensembles that isolate the impact of specific external forcings resulting from anthropogenic activities, such as greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, aerosol (AER) emissions, and stratospheric ozone depletion (O3) and iii) a relatively good representation of the surface climate of Antarctica (Dunmire et al., 2022; Dalaiden et al., 2021, 2022; England et al., 2016; Landrum et al., 2017; Lenaerts et al., 2016). Note that the atmosphere component of CESM1 is stratospheric-resolving and includes interactive ozone chemistry, while CESM2 has a model top near 40 km and uses prescribed stratospheric ozone depletion (Kay et al., 2015; Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Deser et al., 2020; Simpson et al., 2023).

CESM1 includes a 40-member ALL ensemble that spans the period from 1920 to 2100, based on CMIP5 (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5) historical radiative forcing from 1920 to 2005 and the RCP8.5 (Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5, representing additional radiative forcing of 8.5 W m^{-2} by 2100) scenario from 2006 to 2100 (Kay et al., 2015). Its single-forcing large ensembles employ an "all-but-one" design (Deser et al., 2020): all external forcings evolve in time as in the ALL large ensemble, except the forcing of interest, which is held fixed throughout the simulation. It includes 20-member all-but-one forcing ensembles from 1920 to 2080 with greenhouse gases (xGHG) and anthropogenic aerosols (xAER) fixed at 1920 levels. In the xAER ensemble, the aerosols included are from industrial, agricultural, household, and transportation-related sources but exclude any anthropogenic biomass burning sources. Additionally, CESM1 also includes an 8-member all-but-one forcing ensemble from 1955 to 2005 with stratospheric ozone (xO3) fixed at 1955 levels (Landrum et al., 2017). Following Deser et al. (2020), the individual members of the single-forcing ensembles (GHG, AER, O3) are calculated from the all-but-one forcing ensembles (xGHG, xAER, xO3) as follows:

$$GHG_i = xGHG_i - 2xGHG_{em} + ALL_{em} , (1)$$

$$AER_i = xAER_i - 2xAER_{em} + ALL_{em} , (2)$$

$$O3_i = xO3_i - 2xO3_{em} + ALL_{em} , (3)$$

where the subscript "i'" represents an individual ensemble member and "em" the ensemble mean. To assess internal variability we use the CESM1 pre-industrial 2200-year long control simulation (with all external forcings fixed at 1850 values), but exclude the first 400 years of the simulation to avoid any artificial related to the initialization.

CESM2 includes a 50-member ALL ensemble that spans the period from 1850 to 2100 based on the CMIP6 (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6) historical forcings from 1850 to 2014 and the SSP370 (Shared Socioeconomic Pathways, representing additional radiative forcing of 7 W m^{-2} by 2100) scenario from 2015 to 2100. Its single-forcing large ensembles employ an "only" design (Simpson et al., 2023): all external forcings are held fixed at 1850 values, except the forcing of interest, which evolve in time throughout the simulation. It includes a 15-member GHG ensemble and a 20-member AER ensemble from 1850 to 2050. In the AER ensemble, anthropogenic biomass burning sources are again excluded. To assess internal variability we use the CESM2 pre-industrial 2000-year long control simulation (with external forcings fixed at 1850 values). Note that there are no CESM2 single-forcing simulations for stratospheric ozone depletion available (Simpson et al., 2023).

2.2 Methods

Hourly ERA5 precipitation outputs are firstly re-gridded onto the CESM1 grid (resolution of 1°) using an area-weighted averaging method, and then summed over 24-hour intervals to produce daily values. We then compute trends in total and extreme precipitation for ERA5 and the CESM1 ensembles ALL, GHG, and AER for the period 1979 to 2023 and O3 for the period 1979 to 2005. Here, precipitation days are defined as days with precipitation exceeding a threshold of 0.02 mm day^{-1}, and extreme precipitation as days with precipitation exceeding the 95th percentile of all precipitation days over the period 1979 to 2023, following Swetha Chittella et al. (2022). These daily data are then annually aggregated to obtain an annual time-series of both total and extreme precipitation for ERA5 and each member of the ALL, GHG, and AER ensembles from 1979 to 2023 and the O3 ensemble from 1979 to 2005. The ERA5 annual time-series are subsequently used to identify precipitation trends over Antarctica by calculating statistically significant (90% confidence interval): i) spatial distributions of linear trends of total and extreme precipitation , and ii) basin-averaged linear trends of total precipitation and extreme precipitation for Antarctica's 18 drainage basins (mapped using the Ice Sheet Mass Balance Inter-comparison (IMBIE) dataset shown in Fig. 1; Rignot et al., 2019).

Next we perform an initial comparison between the precipitation trends from ERA5 and the CESM1 ALL ensemble for the period 1979 to 2023. Here, if the basin-averaged linear trends in the total and extreme precipitation time-series from the ALL ensemble are significant at the 90% level and consistent with the trends estimated by ERA5, then the CESM1 ALL ensemble was judged to reproduce the ERA5-based trends for that basin. For the basins identified during this step, we subsequently conduct a preliminary attribution analysis by assessing the contribution of the trends in the total and extreme precipitation time-series from the GHG, AER and O3 ensembles to the trends in the ALL ensemble. This was primarily achieved by comparing probability density distributions for the precipitation trends for each of the basins, calculated using a kernel density estimation method (significant at the 90% confidence level).

We then apply a regression-based D&A technique for the selected drainage basins, based on a least-squares fitting statistical approach (Allen and Stott, 2003; Ribes et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2020; Hobbs et al., 2021; Dalaiden et al., 2022), to formally quantify to what extent the total and extreme precipitation trends from ERA5 is related to external forcing. This method calculates the scaling factors between observations (in this study, ERA5) and the estimated forced response from climate model ensembles (including all external forcing or only a subset), which is expressed as follows (Ribes et al., 2013; Dalaiden et al., 2022):

$$y^* = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i x_i^*, \quad (4)$$

where y^* is the "true" climate response to all external forcings, x_i^* the simulated climate response to the i^{th} specific external forcing considered (up to a total of n), and β_i the scaling factor (regression coefficient) for the i^{th} external forcing. Here the actual observations $y = y^* + \epsilon_0$, with ϵ_0 corresponding to the noise term on y, i.e., internal climate variability. And $x_i = x_i^* + \epsilon_i$ represents the ensemble mean of the simulated response to the i^{th} external forcing, with ϵ_i the noise term on forcing x_i, i.e., internal variability. This method also provides confidence intervals associated with the scaling factors. If the scaling factor, including the confidence interval, is greater than zero, then the observed changes are outside the range of internal variability. We therefore conclude that the observed changes can only be explained by external forcing (Dong et al., 2020; Dalaiden et al., 2022). In the case the scaling factor, including the confidence interval, is greater (lower) than one, this implies that the model significantly underestimates (overestimates) the observed trends. Finally, if the lower bound of the confidence interval is smaller than or equal to zero, we cannot conclude a statistically impact of external forcing on the observed changes.

Note that to improve the signal-to-noise ratio, D&A studies commonly apply a pre-whitening step to both observations and model simulated responses to suppress the contribution from internal climate variability (e.g., Allen and Stott, 2003). For the regression-based D&A technique, the ERA5 time series and the model responses are therefore pre-whitened using the covariance matrix of internal variability (also referred to as the noise covariance matrix). We estimate this matrix using the regularized optimal fingerprinting approach of Ribes et al. (2013). Additionally, as the ensemble mean smoothed out the impact of internal variability, we scaled up the variance of the ensemble mean response by using the square root of ensemble size (Allen and Stott, 2003; Ribes et al., 2013; Kirchmeier-Young et al., 2017).

Using the regression-based D&A technique, detection is performed by applying a one-signal analysis for CESM1, where the basin-averaged total and extreme precipitation time-series from the ALL ensemble (along with internal variability) are regressed onto the ERA5 time-series, resulting in scaling factors (and confidence intervals) for ALL (Dalaiden et al., 2022). Following this, attribution is performed in CESM1 by applying a two-signal analysis, where the basin-averaged total and extreme precipitation time-series from the ALL and all-but-one forcing ensembles are regressed onto the ERA5 time-series, resulting in the scaling factors for a specific external forcing and for all other forcing except that specific forcing (Dalaiden et al., 2022). In other words, regressing: i) ALL and xGHG against ERA5, results in the scaling factors for GHG and xGHG, ii) ALL and xAER against ERA5, results in scaling factors for AER and xAER, and iii) ALL and xO3 against ERA5, results in scaling factors for O3 and xO3 (Dalaiden et al., 2022). However, here we only focus on the scaling factors (and confidence intervals) associated with GHG, AER, and O3. Both the one-signal and two-signal analysis involving the GHG and AER ensembles were performed with the same number of members, which was therefore limited to 20, i.e., the number from the GHG and AER ensembles, as this was less than the ALL (40) ensembles. However, the two-signal analysis involving the O3 ensemble was limited to 8 members. Note that the one-signal analysis results in CESM1 using all 40 members from the ALL ensemble were largely identical to those using 20 members (not shown). For CESM1, the noise covariance matrix is derived from pre-industrial control simulations. More details on the method are provided in Ribes et al. (2013) and Kirchmeier-Young et al. (2017).

The above analysis is then repeated using the CESM2 ensembles ALL, GHG, and AER to assess to what extent the ERA5 trends can be detected and attributed to specific external forcings using this model. For the regression-based D&A technique, we again apply a one-signal analysis to regress the ALL ensemble onto the ERA5 time-series. However, since the single-forcing ensembles for CESM2 were generated differently than for CESM1, attribution is also performed by applying a three-signal analysis, where the basin-averaged total and extreme precipitation time-series from the ALL, GHG and AER ensembles (along with internal variability) are regressed onto the ERA5 time-series (Dalaiden et al., 2022). This results in scaling factors (and confidence intervals) for GHG and AER, and also all forcings other than greenhouse gases and anthropogenic aerosols, which is labelled OTHERS (Gillett et al., 2021; Dalaiden et al., 2022). Similarly to CESM1, the noise covariance matrix is derived from the pre-industrial control simulation. Both one-signal and two-signal analysis were performed with a common number of members from each ensemble, which was therefore limited to 15, i.e., the number from the GHG ensemble, as this was less than both the ALL (50) and AER (20) ensembles. However, the one-signal analysis results in CESM2, using all 50 members from the ALL ensemble, was largely identical to using 15 members (not shown). Investigating results from two climate models is important as they enable an assessment of the robustness of the results. However, the investigation will predominately focus on analysis of the CESM1 results, as these include an O3 ensemble.

Finally, we examine trends in AR-associated total and extreme precipitation from 1980 to 2023 by combining the AR detection catalog with ERA5 precipitation. Here, daily values of AR-associated total and extreme precipitation are calculated by estimating the amount of ERA5 total and extreme precipitation occurring within each AR footprint. These daily data are then annually aggregated to obtain an annual time-series of both AR-associated total and extreme precipitation. Following the approach of Maclennan et al. (2022), this was subsequently used to investigate: i) the spatial distribution of statistically significant (90% confidence interval) trends in AR-associated total and extreme precipitation from 1980 to 2023, and ii) the relative contribution of AR-associated total and extreme precipitation trends to the ERA5-based total and extreme precipitation trends from 1980 to 2023 (which required regridding the total and extreme precipitation from ERA5 onto the AR detection catalog grid). Note that spuriously large percentages for the relative contributions of AR-associated total and extreme precipitation trends are produced if the ERA5-based total and extreme precipitation trends are close to zero, which is avoided by only calculating this for grid cells where the ERA5-based trends exceed a threshold of 0.05 mm year^{-1}.

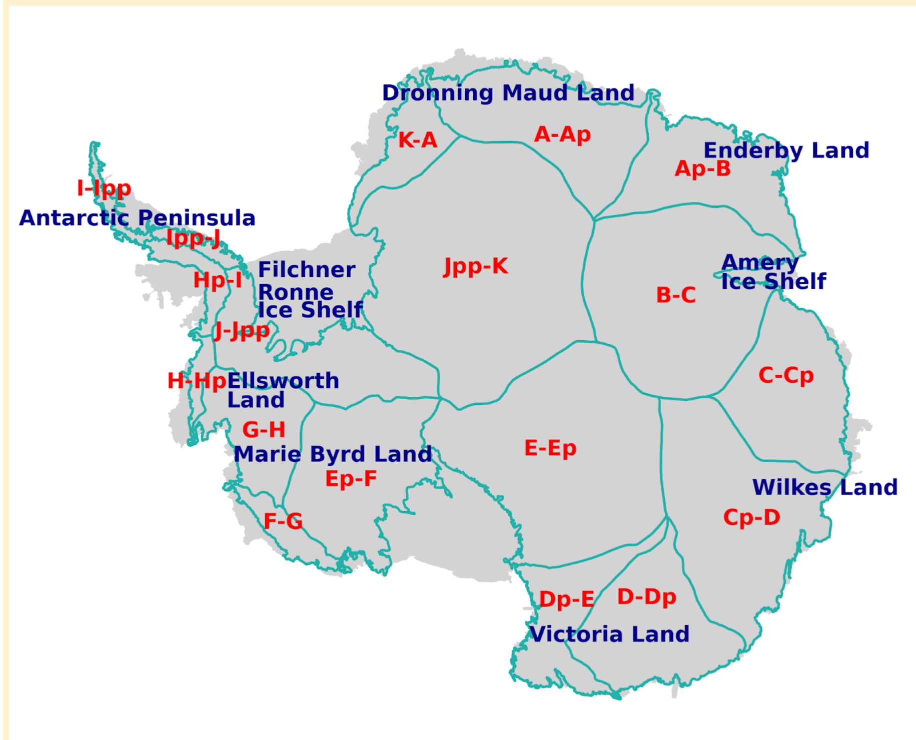

Figure 1: Map of Antarctica showing key regions of interest (names in blue) and the 18 major drainage basins (names in red), as defined in the IMBIE dataset (Rignot et al., 2019).

3 Results

3.1 Identification of precipitation trends in ERA5

Figure 2 (a, e) shows annual trends in total and extreme precipitation from ERA5 from 1979 to 2023. This shows that broad positive trends for both total and extreme precipitation (up to 2 mm year^{-1}) are apparent from Ellsworth Land in West Antarctica to the Amery ice shelf in East Antarctica, while negative trends (up to -2 mm year^{-1}) are evident from Marie Byrd Land in West Antarctica to Wilkes Land in East Antarctica (see Fig. 1 for locations). However, for some of these regions, the trends are statistically insignificant, with only Ellsworth Land, the Filchner-Ronne basin, Dronning Maud Land, Enderby Land, and the Amery Ice Shelf showing relatively large areas with significant positive trends. By contrast, the regions showing significant negative trends are patchy and confined to Marie Byrd Land, Victoria Land, and Wilkes Land. Over the Antarctic Peninsula, the ERA5 trends in total and extreme precipitation differ in direction, with total precipitation increasing and extreme precipitation decreasing, although only the trends over the northern Antarctic Peninsula are significant.

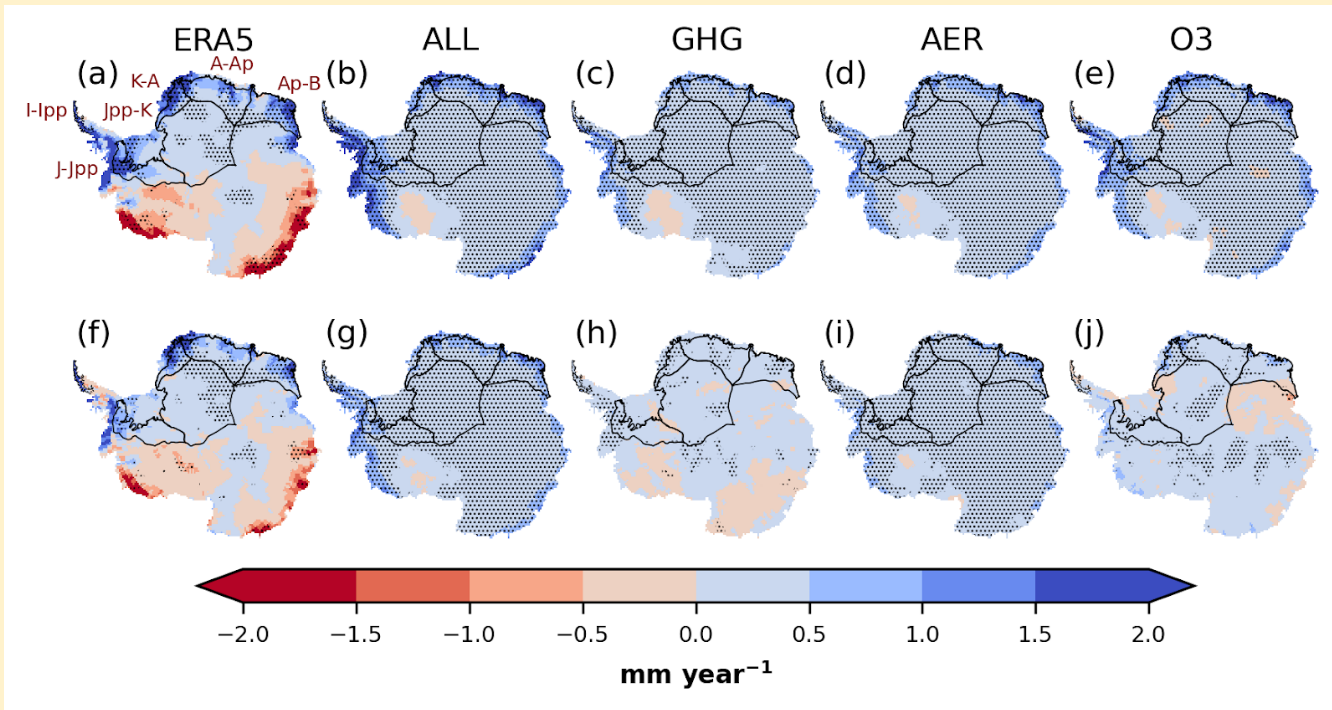

Figure 2: Annual trends in (a-e) total and (f-j) extreme precipitation over Antarctica from 1979 to 2023 (mm year^{-1}) for (a, f) ERA5 and the CESM1 ensemble mean for (b, g) ALL, (c, h) GHG, (d, i) AER and (e, j) O3. Stippling indicates regions where trends are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level. Also shown in panel (a) are the locations of the I-Ipp drainage basin in the Antarctic Peninsula, the J-Jpp basin in West Antarctica and the Jpp-K basin in East Antarctica (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), and the K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land) drainage basins in East Antarctica (outlined in black).

Within the regions showing positive ERA5-based trends, we identified six drainage basins that showed significant basin-averaged positive trends in both total and extreme precipitation (Figs. 2 and 3). These are basin I-Ipp in the Antarctic Peninsula, basins J-Jpp in West Antarctica and Jpp-K in East Antarctica (both part of the Filchner-Ronne basin), basins K-A and A-Ap in East Antarctica (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and basin Ap-B in East Antarctica (Enderby Land) (see Figs. 1 and 2 for locations). The basins J-Jpp, A-Ap, and Ap-B all have similar basin-averaged ERA5 trends of about 1 mm year^{-1} for total precipitation and 0.5 mm year^{-1} for extreme precipitation, whereas basins Jpp-K, K-A, and I-Ipp have trends of about 0.1, 1.5, and 5 mm year^{-1} for total precipitation respectively, and 0.1, 1, and 2.5 mm year^{-1} for extreme precipitation respectively (Fig. 3). Note that within the regions showing negative ERA5-based trends, none of the drainage basins showed significant negative basin-averaged trends.

3.2 Detection of precipitation trends in CESM1

Figure 2 (b, g) demonstrates that the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL also shows significant positive trends for both total and extreme precipitation (up to 2 mm year^{-1}) from Ellsworth Land to the Amery ice shelf, which agree with ERA5. For example, it largely captures the spatial pattern and magnitude of the significant positive trends from ERA5 for total and extreme precipitation over Ellsworth Land, the Filchner-Ronne basin, Dronning Maud Land, Enderby Land, and the Amery ice shelf. Additionally, the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL also shows significant positive trends for total precipitation over the Antarctic Peninsula, which agree with the significant positive trends from ERA5. By contrast, the ensemble mean for ALL shows positive trends in total and extreme precipitation over Marie Byrd Land, Wilkes Land, and Victoria Land, and positive trends for extreme precipitation over the Antarctic Peninsula, which disagree with ERA5. However, some differences in trends between the ALL ensemble and ERA5 results are to be expected as the ALL results are based on an ensemble of model means, which would therefore artificially reduce the contribution from internal variability.

For the six drainage basins that are identified as having significant positive trends in both total and extreme precipitation from ERA5, Fig. 3 shows that for five of them (J-Jpp in West Antarctica, and Jpp-K, A-Ap, Ap-B, and K-A in East Antarctica) that: i) the basin-averaged trends from the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL are close to the ERA5 trends (although this is less apparent for basin K-A), and ii) the range of the basin-averaged ALL trends from the different members includes the ERA5 trends. We therefore identify these five basins as having ALL trends that are in good agreement with ERA5 trends, and focus on these basins for the rest of our analysis. By contrast, the ERA5 trend for the remaining basin (I-Ipp in the Antarctic Peninsula) is outside the range of the ALL trends from the different members, and therefore is not considered for further analysis. Additionally, to further compare the basin-averaged trends between ERA5 and the ensemble mean for ALL, Fig. 4 shows their time-series of total and extreme precipitation from 1979 to 2023 for our five selected basins. Consistent with Fig. 3, this shows broadly similar positive trends for all five basins for both ERA5 and ALL. Additionally, for all basins the ensemble spread of ALL encompasses the ERA5-based precipitation amounts, indicating confidence in the ability of CESM1 to capture regional internal variability, as well as the trends.

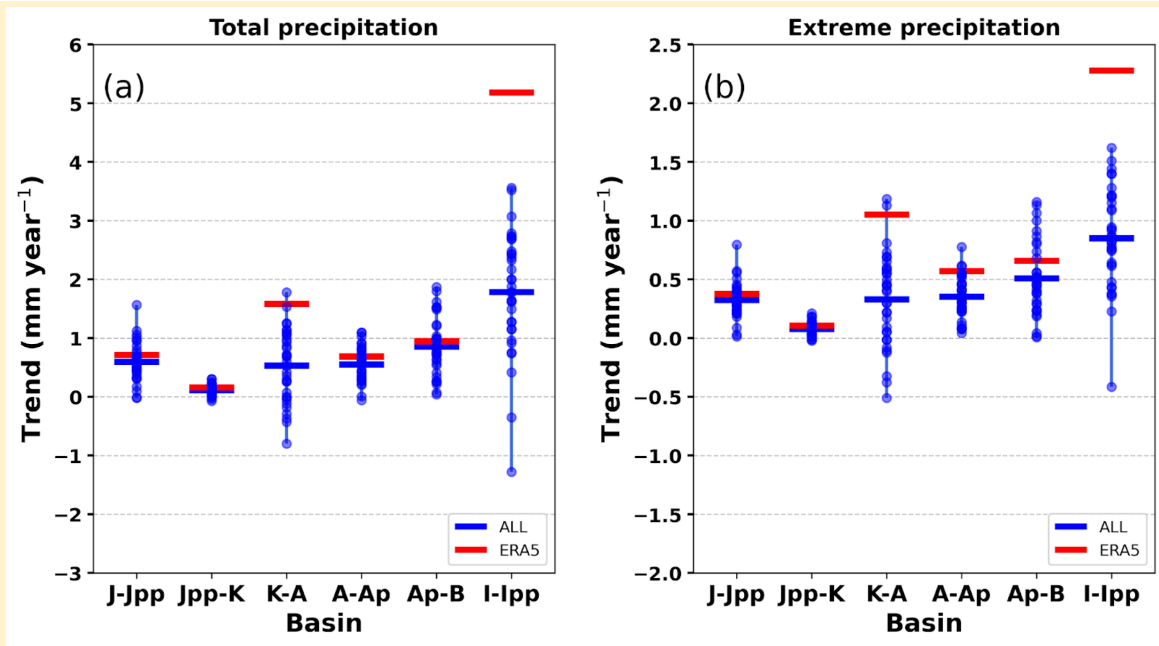

Figure 3: Basin-averaged annual trends in (a) total and (b) extreme precipitation for drainage basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land), and I-Ipp (Antarctic Peninsula) from 1979 to 2023 (mm year^{-1}) for ERA5 (thick red line) and the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL (thick blue line). Also shown are the basin-averaged trends from the different members (40) of the ALL ensemble (filled blue circles). The trends are statistically significant with a 90% confidence level.

Figure 5 presents the one-signal D&A results for total and extreme precipitation across the five selected basins, based on regression of the CESM1 ALL ensemble onto ERA5. This shows: i) scaling factors of around 0.9 to 1.1 for both total and extreme precipitation, and ii) relatively small confidence intervals, with total precipitation showing narrower intervals than extreme precipitation. Since the scaling factors are greater than zero and the confidence intervals are relatively small, and because the confidence intervals include unity for basins K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land) for total precipitation and for basins K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land) and Ap-B (Enderby Land) for extreme precipitation, this indicates that the observed (i.e., ERA5-based) linear trends in total and extreme precipitation from 1979 to 2023 for these five basins is explained by external forcing (i.e., successful detection, and supporting the results from Figs. 2, 3 and 4). Additionally, since the scaling factors are slightly less than one for basins Jpp-K (part of Filchner-Ronne basin) and Ap-B (Enderby Land) for total precipitation, and for basin J-Jpp (part of Filchner-Ronne basin) for extreme precipitation, this suggests that for these basins that ALL tends to overestimate the associated ERA5-based trends. In contrast, the scaling factors are slightly greater than one for basin J-Jpp (part of Filchner-Ronne basin) for both total and extreme precipitation, suggesting that for this basin that ALL tends to underestimate the associated ERA5-based trends. Also, the slightly narrower intervals for total precipitation indicates that the influence of internal variability is larger for extreme precipitation compared to total precipitation.

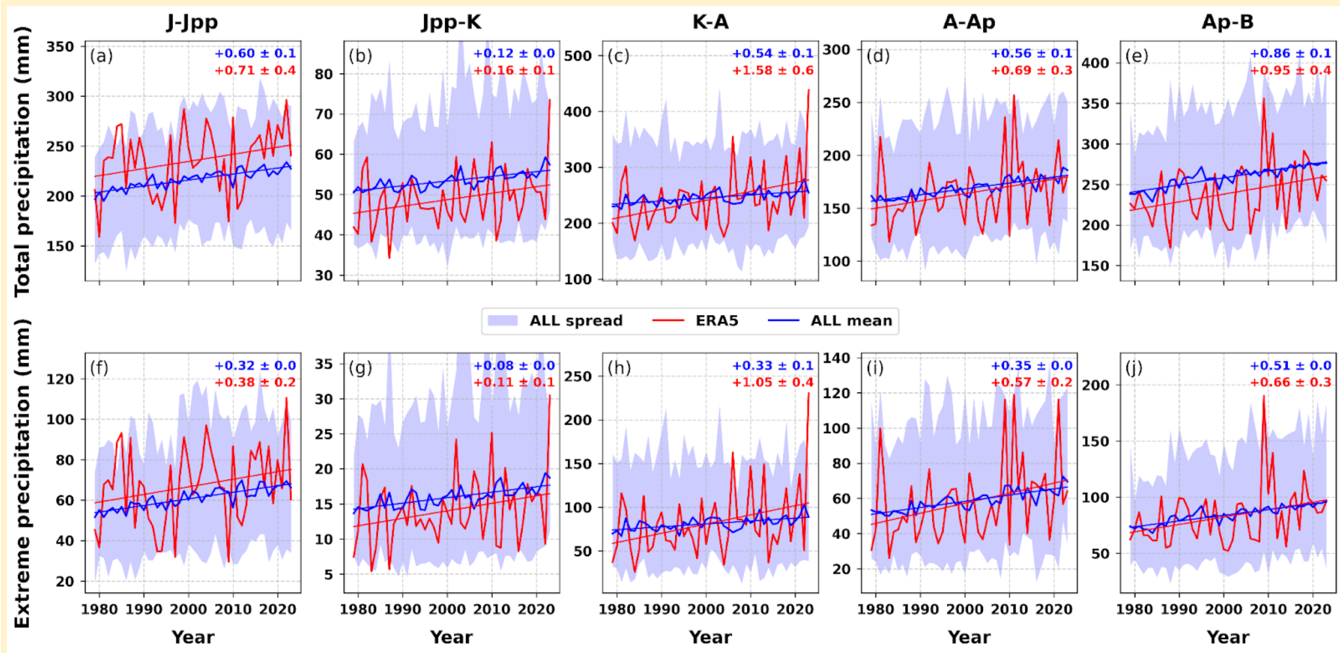

Figure 4: Times series of basin-averaged annual (a-e) total and (f-j) extreme precipitation (mm) for drainage basins (a, f) J-Jpp, (b, g) Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), (c, h) K-A, (d, i) A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and (e, j) Ap-B (Enderby Land) from 1979 to 2023 from ERA5 (red) and the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL (blue). Linear trends (statistically significant at 90% confidence level) for ERA5 and ALL are represented by the red and blue lines, respectively. Blue shading represents the maximum and minimum ensemble spread of ALL. Each panel also shows the linear trend and the standard error (mm year^{-1}).

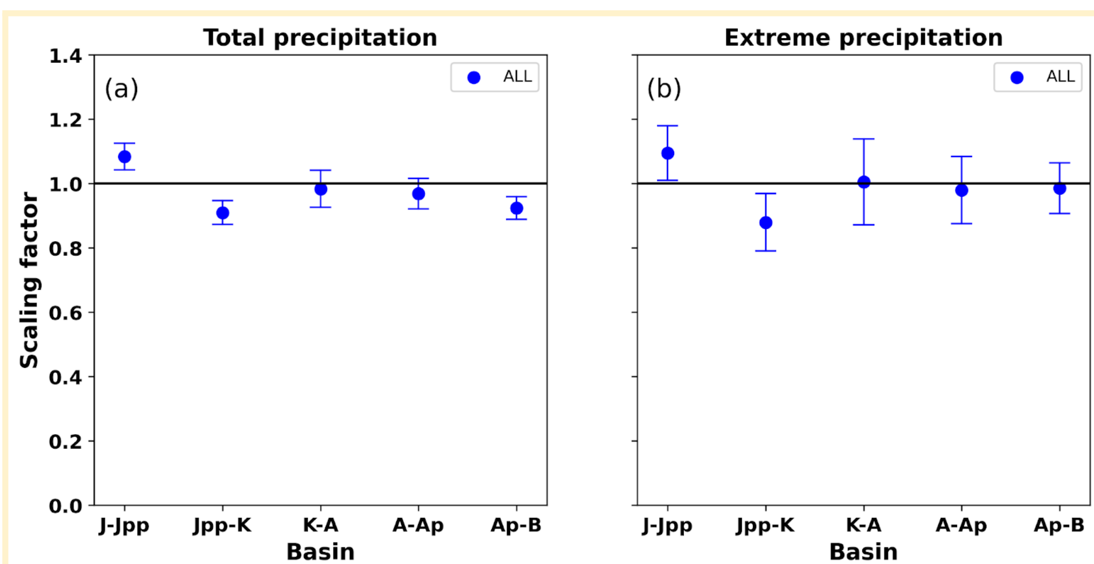

Figure 5: One-signal estimates of basin-averaged scaling factors (solid blue circles) for annual (a) total and (b) extreme precipitation for drainage basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud

Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land) from 1979 to 2023 based on regressing the CESM1 ALL ensemble against ERA5. The error bars denote the 90% confidence intervals and the horizontal line indicates a scaling factor of one.

Table 1: Basin-averaged annual trends in total and extreme precipitation (mm year^{-1}) for drainage basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land) from 1979 to 2023 (mm year^{-1}) for the CESM1 ensemble mean for ALL, GHG, AER and O3. Trendsfd that are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level are shown in bold.

	ALL		GHG		AER		O3	
Basin	Total precipitation	Extreme precipitation	Total precipitation	Extreme precipitation	Total precipitation	Extreme precipitation	Total precipitation	Extreme precipitation
J-Jpp	**0.60**	**0.33**	**0.28**	**0.07**	**0.36**	**0.23**	**0.44**	**0.15**
Jpp-K	**0.12**	**0.08**	**0.06**	0.01	**0.09**	**0.07**	**0.06**	0.04
K-A	**0.54**	**0.33**	**0.31**	**0.13**	**0.35**	**0.19**	**0.53**	**0.33**
A-Ap	**0.55**	**0.35**	**0.30**	**0.07**	**0.4**	**0.23**	**0.38**	**0.20**
Ap-B	**0.86**	**0.51**	**0.42**	**0.08**	**0.6**	**0.4**	**0.65**	**0.18**

3.3 Attribution of precipitation trends in CESM1

An initial assessment of the contribution from different external forcings to the statistically significant positive ensemble mean trends for CESM1 ALL for both total and extreme precipitation over Ellsworth Land, the Filchner-Ronne basin, Dronning Maud Land, Enderby Land, and the Amery ice shelf (i.e., the regions in agreement with ERA5) was made by comparing these trends with the CESM1 ensemble mean trends for GHG, AER and O3 (Fig. 2). These results show that the ensemble mean trends in total and extreme precipitation for GHG, AER, and O3 are mostly positive and significant over these regions, indicating that greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosols, and stratospheric ozone are all important drivers of the positive precipitation trends in the ALL response over these regions. However, for extreme precipitation, the trends for GHG and O3 are notably weaker, sometimes non-significant, and less spatially coherent than the AER trends, indicating that greenhouse gases and stratospheric ozone are less important for driving the positive extreme precipitation trends in the ALL response over these regions.

To assess the contribution from different external forcings to the positive ensemble mean trends for CESM1 ALL for both total and extreme precipitation for the five target basins (Figs. 3 and 4), Table 1 compares basin-averaged ensemble mean trends for ALL, GHG, AER and O3 for each of these sites. For total precipitation, the basin-averaged ensemble mean trends for ALL are significant and positive across all five basins, with values ranging from 0.12 to 0.86 mm year^{-1}. By comparison, the trends for total precipitation for: i) GHG are also significant and positive across all basins, but with values around half that of the ALL trends, ranging from 0.06 to 0.42 mm year^{-1}, and ii) significant and positive and largely similar for AER and O3 across all five basins, with values slightly larger than the GHG trends but lower than ALL, varying from 0.09 to 0.60 mm year^{-1} for AER and from 0.06 to 0.65 mm year^{-1} for O3. However, for basin K-A (Dronning Maud Land) the total precipitation trend for O3 and ALL are 0.53 and 0.54 mm year^{-1}, respectively, so comparable in size. For extreme precipitation, the ensemble mean trends for ALL are also significant and positive across all five basins, but with values considerably less than for the total precipitation trends, varying from 0.08 to 0.51 mm year^{-1}. By comparison, the trends for extreme precipitation for: i) GHG are significant and positive for four of the five basins, with values ranging from 0.07 to 0.13 mm year^{-1}, which are typically around a fifth of the ALL trends, ii) AER are significant and positive for all five basins, ranging from 0.07 to 0.4 mm year^{-1}, which are much higher than the GHG trends and slightly less than the ALL trends (consistent with Fig. 2), and iii) O3 are significant and positive for four of the five basins, with values typically lower than AER but higher than GHG trends, ranging from 0.15 to 0.33 mm year^{-1} (consistent with Fig. 2).

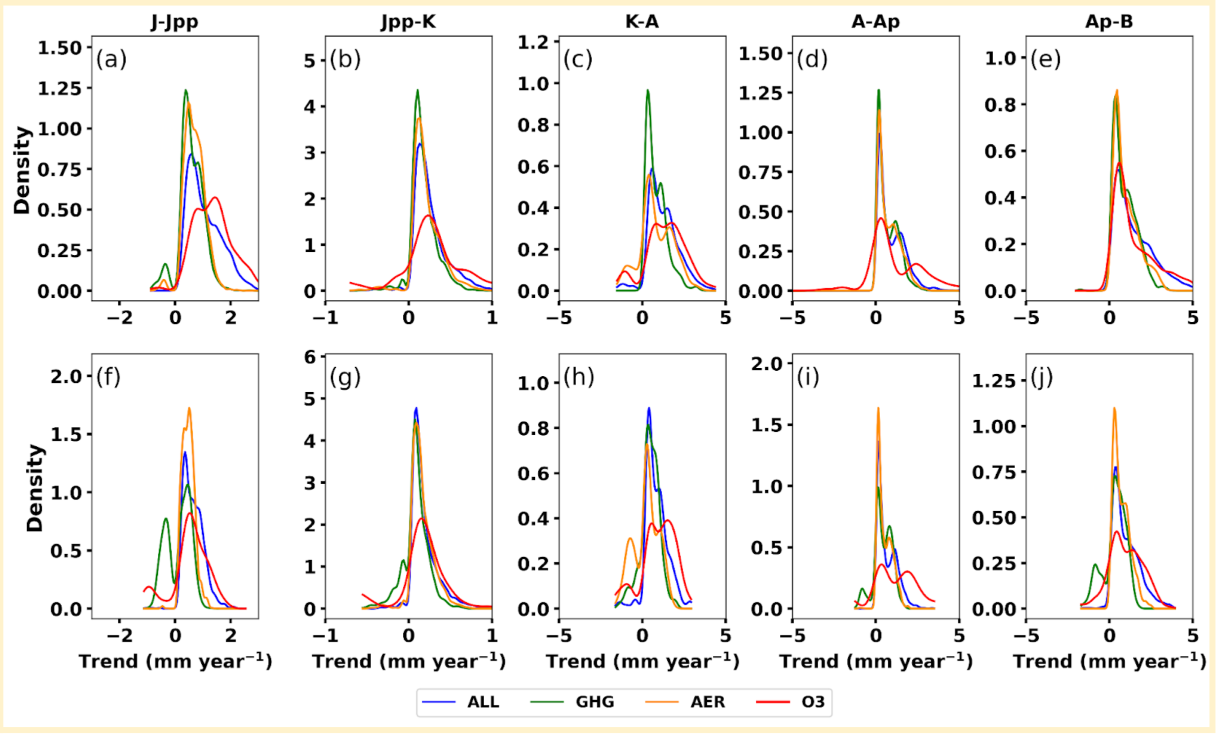

Figure 6: Probability density functions of annual trends in (a-e) total and (f-j) extreme precipitation for drainage basins (a, f) J-Jpp, (b, g) Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), (c, h) K-A, (d, i) A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and (e, j) Ap-B (Enderby Land) from 1979 to 2023 (mm year^{-1}) for all of the CESM1 ensembles for ALL (blue), GHG (green), AER (orange) and O3 (red). The results are based only on annual trends from grid points in the basin that are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level.

The importance of greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosol and stratospheric ozone forcings for producing the positive trends in total and extreme precipitation over the five selected basins is also evident from comparison of the probability distribution functions of the trends for all of the CESM1 ensembles for ALL, GHG, AER and O3 (Fig. 6). These results show considerable similarities between the different distributions, which are generally shifted towards positive trends and largely overlap each other, although ALL is especially positively skewed and generally has a longer right-hand-side tail (consistent with Table 1). However, for total precipitation the results also show that the O3 distributions are especially positively skewed and have a longer right-hand-side tail compared to GHG and AER (consistent with Table 1), and in several basins overlap with ALL (e.g., basin K-A, Dronning Maud Land). However, may partly reflect the shorter O3 simulation period (1979-2005) and the smaller ensemble size (8 members), both of which increase the sensitivity of the estimated trends to internal variability. For extreme precipitation, the results show that the GHG distributions are less positively skewed / weaker compared to O3 and AER (consistent with Table 1), suggesting again that greenhouse gases are less important for driving the positive extreme precipitation trends.

Figure 7 presents the two-signal D&A results for total and extreme precipitation across the five selected basins, showing scaling factors (and confidence intervals) for the CESM1 ensembles GHG, AER, and O3. The results indicate that the precipitation signal in four basins is formally related to increased greenhouse gas emissions. As for the stratospheric ozone depletion, the precipitation signal for three basins presents a statistically significant impact. Changes in anthropogenic aerosols are associated with precipitation changes in two basins. For GHG, its signal is found in basins J-Jpp (Filchner-Ronne basin, extreme precipitation only), Jpp-K (Filcher-Ronne basin, total and extreme precipitation), A-Ap (Dronning Maud Land, total and extreme precipitation), and Ap-B (Enderby Land, total and extreme precipitation). These were generally associated with relatively small confidence intervals, i.e., indicating high confidence that greenhouse gas forcing was responsible for the ERA5 precipitation changes in these basins. The one exception to this is extreme precipitation for basin Jpp-K, which had a relatively larger confidence interval, indicating lower confidence in the estimated scaling factor. For AER, its signal is found in basins J-Jpp (Filchner-Ronne basin, extreme precipitation only) and K-A (Dronning Maud Land, total and extreme precipitation). However, the result for extreme precipitation for basin J-Jpp was associated with a relatively small confidence interval (indicating higher confidence), while total precipitation for basin K-A was associated with a relatively large confidence interval (indicating lower confidence). For O3, its signal is found in basins J-Jpp (Filchner-Ronne basin, total and extreme precipitation), K-A (Dronning Maud Land, total precipitation only) and Ap-B (Enderby Land, total and extreme precipitation). The signals were again characterised by differences in confidence intervals, with the results for extreme precipitation associated with relatively small confidence intervals (indicating higher confidence), and total precipitation associated with relatively larger confidence intervals (indicating lower confidence). The remaining results were associated with confidence intervals that included zero, indicating that the precipitation signal cannot be formally associated with these external forcings.

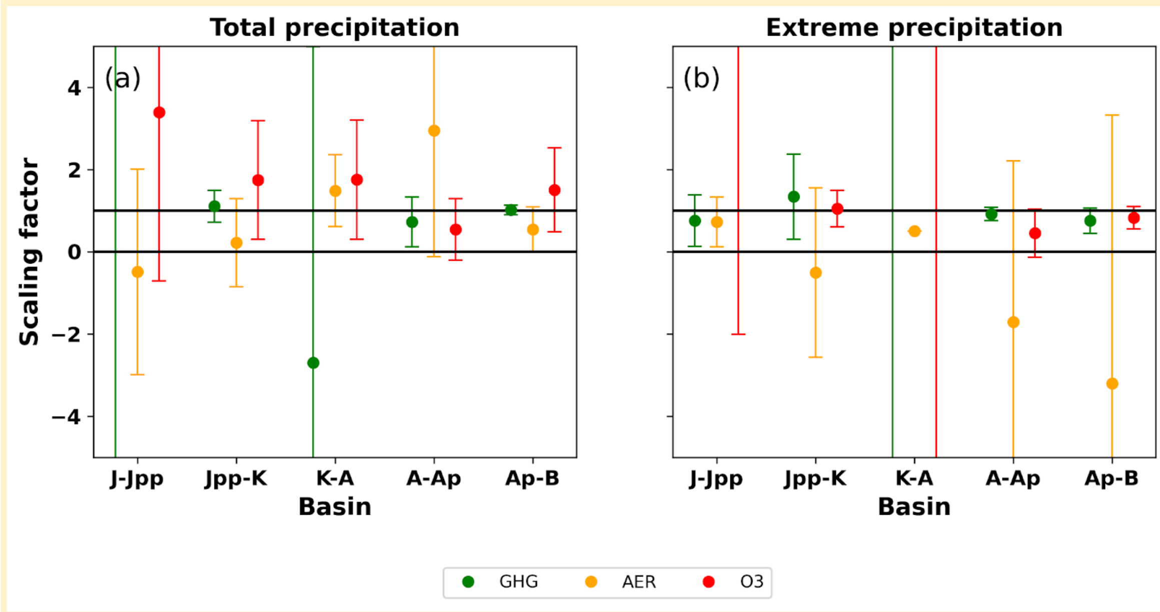

Figure 7: As Fig. 5, but showing two-signal estimates of basin-averaged scaling factors for annual (a) total and (b) extreme precipitation for drainage basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land) from 1979 to 2023 for the CESM1 ensembles for GHG (solid green circles), AER (solid orange circles), and O3 (solid red circles). The GHG scaling factors are based on regressing ALL and xGHG against ERA5, AER scaling factors based on regressing ALL and xAER against ERA5, and O3 scaling factors based on regressing ALL and xO3 against ERA5. The error bars denote the 90% confidence intervals and the horizontal line indicates a scaling factor of one.

3.4 Detection and attribution of precipitation trends using CESM2

Figures S1 to S6 in the Supplementary Material are analogous to Figs. 2 to 7, but based on results from the CESM2 ensembles for ALL, GHG, and AER. For the detection analysis, the results based on the CESM2 ALL ensemble are broadly consistent with those based on the CESM1 ALL ensemble, showing significant positive annual trends in total and extreme precipitation over the same regions, which agree with ERA5 (Fig. S1). Additionally, the results based on the CESM2 ALL ensemble also identify the same five basins that are associated with significant positive trends in both total and extreme precipitation, which agree with ERA5 (Fig. S2). Although one difference between the CESM1 and CESM2 results is that the CESM2 ensemble mean for ALL shows considerably higher precipitation amounts than ERA5 over the basins at the start of the period analysed (Fig. S3), reflecting a mean state bias in the CESM2 model (Dunmire et al., 2022). Additionally, the one-signal D&A results for total and extreme precipitation across the five selected basins, based on regression of the CESM2 ALL ensemble onto ERA5, suggest with high confidence that the signal from the ALL ensemble is detectable in ERA5 (Fig. S4), consistent with CESM1. Although, because the scaling factors are less than one, this suggests that the CESM2 ALL ensemble tends to overestimate the trends apparent in ERA5.

For the attribution analysis, the results show that the ensemble mean trends in total and extreme precipitation from the CESM2 GHG ensemble are in good agreement with those from the CESM2 ALL ensemble over much of Antarctica (Fig.

S1), i.e., indicating that greenhouse gas forcing is the primary driver of the positive trends in the CESM2 ALL ensemble, consistent with CESM1. For example, the CESM2 GHG ensemble captures the positive trends from Marie Byrd Land to the western section of Wilkes Land that are apparent in ALL (Fig. S1). By contrast, the trends of the ensemble mean of the CESM2 AER ensemble are mostly negative for total and extreme precipitation over Antarctica, although areas that show significant trends are rather patchy (Fig. S1), i.e., indicating that the effects of increased anthropogenic aerosols tend to offset the positive trends from increased greenhouse gases, which is inconsistent with CESM1 results. The importance of greenhouse gas forcing for producing the positive trends in total and extreme precipitation over the five selected basins is also evident from probability distribution functions of the trends from the CESM2 ensembles for ALL, GHG, and AER, which shows considerable similarities between the distributions for the GHG and ALL trends (Fig. S5). The distribution of the AER trends also confirms the offsetting effect of anthropogenic aerosols for the Jpp-K and K-A basins, where AAER distributions are skewed towards negative values. By contrast, for the remaining basins the AAER distributions are more mixed, with both positive and negative trends.

Finally, Fig. S6 presents the three-signal D&A results for total and extreme precipitation across the five selected basins, based on regression of the CESM2 ensembles for ALL, GHG, and AER against ERA5, which produces scaling factors for GHG, AER, and OTHERS (i.e., all forcings other than greenhouse gases and anthropogenic aerosols). Here, the scaling factors were all associated with large confidence intervals that included zero. Therefore, the signals from the CESM2 ensembles for GHG and AER (and OTHERS) cannot be considered statistically significant for either total or extreme precipitation. One exception is basin Jpp-K, where the greenhouse gas forcing is found in the precipitation signal. However, this result still lacks consistency as the upper bound of the confidence interval is less than one, which suggests that GHG tends to overestimate the trends apparent in ERA5.

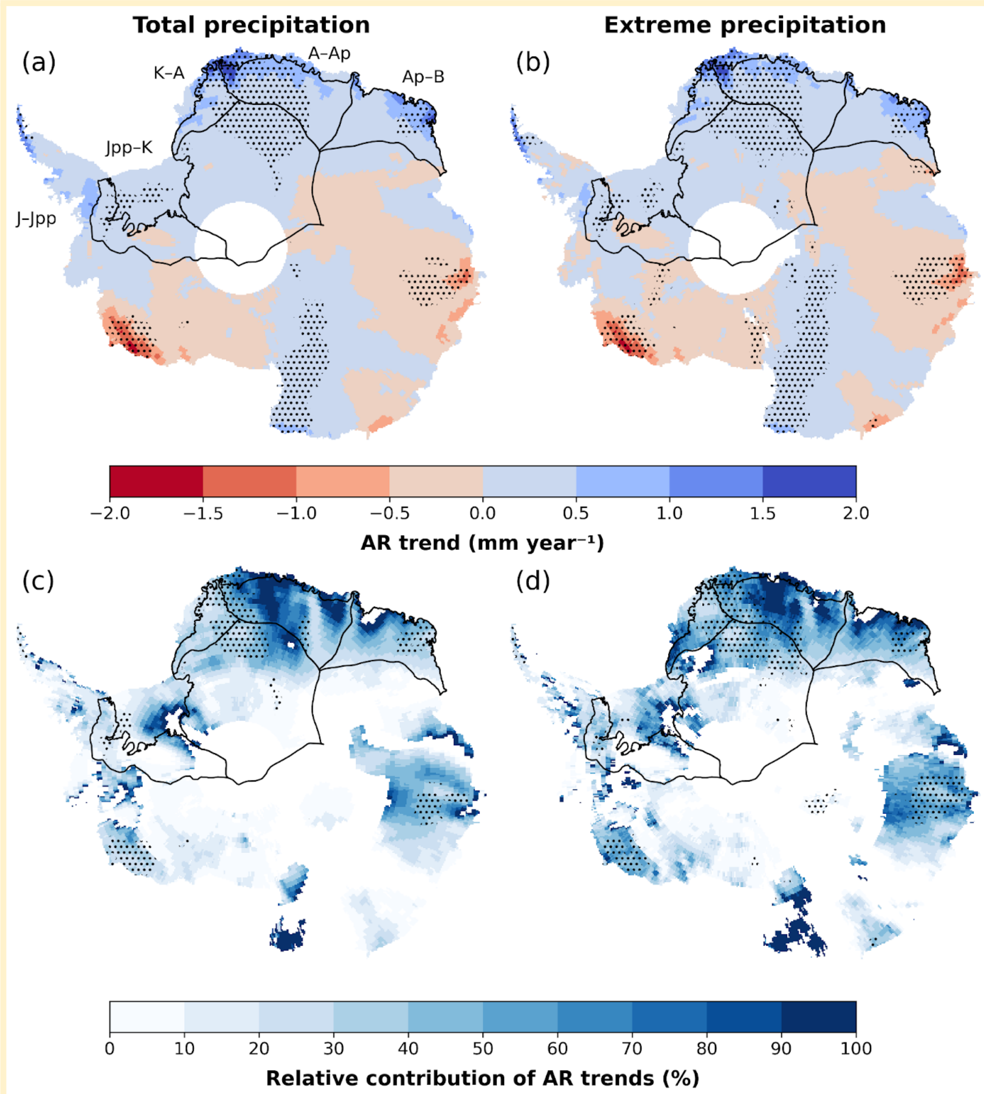

Figure 8: Annual trends in AR-associated (a) total and (b) extreme precipitation over Antarctica from 1980 to 2023 (mm year^{-1}) from the AR detection dataset. Also shown are the relative contribution of the (c) AR-associated total precipitation trend to the ERA5-based total precipitation trend (%), and the (d) AR-associated extreme precipitation trend to the ERA5-based extreme precipitation trend (%). Stippling indicates regions where trends are statistically significant at the 90% confidence level. Also shown in panel (a) are the locations of drainage basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land).

3.5 Role of atmospheric rivers in driving precipitation trends

Finally, to assess the role of ARs in driving the positive trends of total and extreme precipitation that are apparent in ERA5 over these five basins (Figs. 2 and 3), we also show the annual trends in AR-associated total and extreme precipitation from 1980 to 2023 (Fig. 8a, b), as well as the relative contribution of these trends to the total and extreme precipitation trends from ERA5 (Fig. 8c, d). The results show broadly significant positive trends in AR-associated total and extreme precipitation over the basins considered, with trends around 0.5 mm $year^{-1}$ over basins J-Jpp and Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin) and up to 2 mm $year^{-1}$ over basins K-A, A-Ap (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and Ap-B (Enderby Land). Additionally, the relative contribution of the AR trends to the ERA5-based total and extreme precipitation trends has increased across all five basins, with values of 10 to 40% over sections of basins J-Jpp, Jpp-K (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), and K-A (Dronning Maud Land), and up to 100% over sections of basins A-Ap (Dronning Maud Land) and Ap-B (Enderby Land).

4 Discussion and Conclusions

This study confirms a statistically significant increase in both total and extreme precipitation (up to 2 mm $year^{-1}$) across six drainage basins in Antarctica from 1979 to 2023, based on ERA5 reanalysis (Fig. 2). These are basin I-Ipp in the Antarctic Peninsula, basin J-Jpp in West Antarctica and basin Jpp-K in East Antarctica (both part of Filchner-Ronne basin), basins K-A and A-Ap in East Antarctica (both part of Dronning Maud Land), and basin Ap-B in East Antarctica (Enderby Land). For five of these six basins (J-Jpp, Jpp-K, A-Ap, Ap-B, and K-A) the total and extreme precipitation trends from the CESM1 ensembles for ALL are in good agreement with those from ERA5 (Figs. 2, 3 and 4), i.e., suggesting that a combination of both anthropogenic and natural forcings are responsible for the present-day trends in total and extreme precipitation over these basins. Similar results were found using the CESM2 ensembles for ALL (Figs. S1, S2, and S3).

One of the main challenges in detecting a trend in total and extreme precipitation is separating the signal from forced variability and internal variability, which is exacerbated in Antarctica by the climate being particularly characterized by strong internal variability (Jones et al., 2016; Previdi and Polvani, 2016; Stenni et al., 2017). Thus, detection of the signal in ERA5 in the CESM1 ensembles for ALL using the one-signal regression-based D&A analysis is therefore only confined to five drainage basins (Fig. 5) where the forced signal emerges more clearly above internal variability, with four of the five basins located in East Antarctica and the other in West Antarctica. This agrees with Casado et al. (2023), who found weaker multi-decadal variability in East Antarctica compared to West Antarctica, i.e., the relatively weaker internal multi-decadal variability in East Antarctica likely increases the signal-to-noise ratio, and enables a more robust detection of the forced signal in this region. Similar results were found using the CESM2 ensembles for ALL (Fig. S4).

Our initial attribution analysis using the CESM1 ensembles of the contribution from different external forcings to the statistically significant positive trends for both total and extreme precipitation for our five target basins indicated that the evolution of greenhouse gases, anthropogenic aerosols, and stratospheric ozone since 1979 are all important drivers of the trends (Figs. 2 and 6, Table 1). By contrast, the two-signal regression-based D&A analysis using the CESM1 ensembles for ALL and GHG, ALL and AER, and ALL and O3 (resulting in scaling factors for GHG, AER, and O3) found robust attribution to greenhouse gases in four basins and stratospheric ozone in three basins, and for anthropogenic aerosols in only one basin (Fig. 7). Repeating this initial attribution analysis using the CESM2 ensembles also indicated that greenhouse gases are an important driver of the precipitation trends over these basins (Figs. S1 and S5). However, these results also suggest that increases in anthropogenic aerosol emissions can oppose / offset the increases in precipitation from increased greenhouse gases over our five basins, which contradicts the findings based on CESM1. Moreover, the three-signal regression-based D&A analysis using the CESM2 ensembles ALL, GHG and AER ensembles (resulting in scaling factors for GHG, AER, and OTHERS) was unable to provide robust attribution for total or extreme precipitation to any specific single-forcing, including greenhouse gases (Fig. S6). These inconsistencies between the results demonstrate that detecting the fingerprint of anthropogenic forcing on recent Antarctic precipitation changes remains challenging (Previdi and Polvani, 2016; Dalaiden et al., 2022). Furthermore, the combined and potentially non-linear effects of different forcings is also likely important for representing precipitation, and especially for extreme precipitation where linear assumptions are least valid (Meehl et al., 2003; Pope et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the results demonstrate that the effects of greenhouse gases and stratospheric ozone are particularly important for driving the present-day increases in total and extreme precipitation over the five target basins, while the role of anthropogenic aerosols remains uncertain.

We also showed that the trends in total and extreme precipitation over the five target basins can be linked to increasing ARs (Fig. 8). This provides physical support for the analysis, highlighting the consistency between the identification of the trends and the underlying dynamical drivers. This result is also consistent with previous results that suggested that ARs contribute up to 20% of total precipitation in East Antarctica (Wille et al., 2021, 2025; Maclennan et al., 2022), and as much as 50 to 70% of extreme precipitation (Wille et al., 2021, 2025; Simon et al., 2024). The increased ARs are likely associated with anomalous northerly airflow, combined with increased atmospheric moisture from warmer oceans, which could be linked to recent regional climate changes such as sea-ice loss in the East Antarctic sector and a strengthening of the low-pressure system off the East Antarctic coast (Goosse et al., 2024). Moreover, additional anomalous transport from the midlatitudes through Rossby-wave teleconnections could also be a factor (Wille et al., 2025). In addition, future increases in greenhouse gas concentrations are expected to strengthen Antarctic total and extreme precipitation by causing warmer atmospheric conditions (leading to more moisture, via the Clausius-Clapeyron relation) and a reduction in sea-ice cover (Frieler et al., 2015; Lenaerts et al., 2016; Previdi and Polvani, 2016; Kittel et al., 2021; Vignon et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2023; Nicola et al., 2023).

It's noteworthy that the effects of increased greenhouse gas emissions are generally considered to be a positive trend in the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) (Kushner et al., 2001; Arblaster and Meehl, 2006), which corresponds to stronger, poleward-shifted westerlies around Antarctica, resulting in reduced temperatures (and precipitation) over East Antarctica (Thompson and Solomon, 2002). Based on this, as greenhouse gases are one of the primary drivers of the present-day trends, a decrease in precipitation and extreme precipitation over our five target basins (four of which are in East Antarctica) would be expected, rather than an increase. However, one reason for this contradiction may be a reversal in the relationship between SAM and temperature anomalies across East Antarctica during the twenty-first century, which occurred in response to anomalous high pressure over East Antarctica (Marshall et al., 2013). This anomalous circulation would result in increased northerly airflow into East Antarctica, i.e., consistent with our results showing increased precipitation and intensification of ARs. Additionally, increased anthropogenic aerosol emissions are generally considered to result in a negative trend in the SAM (Gillett et al., 2013; Pope et al., 2020), corresponding to weaker circumpolar westerlies, which would likely result in enhanced precipitation over Antarctica - consistent with the results based on CESM1 only. Also, the Antarctic ozone hole has been the primary driver of summertime atmospheric circulation changes in the Southern hemisphere from around 1980 onwards (Thompson and Solomon, 2002; Polvani et al., 2011; Orr et al., 2021), which Dalaiden et al. (2022) showed was partly responsible for recent increases in precipitation over West Antarctica.

As a future perspective, given the importance of ARs for Antarctic surface climate, applying the D&A framework to changes in their properties (e.g., intensity, duration, and spatial extent) would represent an important step toward identifying the contribution of external forcing versus internal variability in the AR changes, as well as their associated impacts (e.g., heatwave or surface melting).

Code and data availability

The code used in this study can be obtained from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Precipitation output from the ERA5 reanalysis dataset is publicly available through the Copernicus Climate Data Store: https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=overview.
Precipitation output from the CESM1 ensembles with all external forcings, single-forcings and pre-industrial control simulation are available at: https://gdex.ucar.edu/datasets/d651027/. Precipitation output from the CESM1 ensembles of stratospheric ozone are available at: https://gdex.ucar.edu/datasets/d651053/. Precipitation output from the CESM2 ensembles with all external forcings are available at: https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/d651056/. Precipitation output from the CESM2 ensembles with single-forcings are available at: https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/d651055/dataaccess/#. Precipitation output from the CESM2 pre-industrial control simulation are available at: https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ucar.cgd.cesm2.b.e21.B1850.f09_g17.CMIP6-piControl.001.atm.proc.daily_ave.PRECT.html. The AR detection dataset derived from ERA5 is available at: https://zenodo.org/records/15830634.

Author contributions

SPSC designed the study and, together with PD and AO, conceptualized it. SPSC carried out the primary analysis with support from PD, AO, and QD. SPSC and AO were primarily responsible for writing the manuscript, with additions from PD and QD.

Competing interests

The corresponding author affirms that none of the authors have any financial or personal conflicts of interest to disclose.

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