

1 **Muted orbital-scale Monsoon Variability over the Korean**
2 **Peninsula**

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12 **Abstract.** A recent study identified an east-west dipole pattern in Asian Summer Monsoon
13 precipitation and in its oxygen-isotope composition variability in response to orbital forcing
14 (Wen et al., 2024). The Korean Peninsula (KP) is situated near the nodal line of this dipole and
15 should therefore exhibit muted precessional variability in both. So far, this conjecture has not
16 been tested using paleoclimatic data. Here, we present speleothem oxygen isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
17 records from the KP, which support the notion of suppressed orbital-scale hydroclimate
18 variability. Conducting a transient model simulation with the isotope-enabled Community
19 Earth System Model (iCESM1.2) covering the past 130,000 years, along with tagging
20 experiments for low and high insolation conditions, we show that, on precessional timescales,
21 isotopic contributions from oceanic and continental moisture sources compensate each other
22 over the KP, resulting in only a weak regional signal in precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Based on iCESM1.2
23 simulations, we further demonstrate that deuterium excess (d-excess) variability over the KP
24 would still capture the moisture source region's zonal seesaw response to precessional forcing.
25 We propose that, given the region's strong sensitivity to changes in moisture sources, paleo-
26 water d-excess reconstructions from East Asia speleothems could provide valuable additional
27 constraints on the drivers of regional monsoon systems. This study offers new insights into the
28 spatiotemporal variability of Pan-Asian hydroclimates and its links to changes in moisture
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1 Introduction

Speleothem (secondary carbonate deposits in caves) records, leveraged by radiometrically constrained chronologies, have been a valuable resource for reconstructing paleo-hydroclimate variability in tropical and subtropical regions (Braun et al., 2019; Cai et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Gasse et al., 2011; Jo et al., 2017; Maher and Thompson, 2012). Such work is predicated on stable oxygen isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) measurements of speleothem calcite ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$), which ultimately derives from atmospheric moisture. When speleothem CaCO_3 precipitates under near-equilibrium conditions, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$ encodes cave air temperature and drip water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. Drip water typically reflects the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{p}}$), integrating processes such as Rayleigh fractionation along water-vapor pathways and, in some regions, the amount of regional rainfall (Lachniet, 2009). In regions where large changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{p}}$ are expected with respect to the effect of temperature, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$ is often considered as an indicator of atmospheric variability. Considering $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$ as an indicator of atmospheric variability, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$ -records from Chinese caves (e.g., Cheng et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2001) have provided key insights into seasonal and centennial-to-orbital-scale variability in the Asian monsoon system. Speleothems that grew within the two sub-monsoon branches of this system, the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) and the East Asian Summer Monsoon (EASM), generally show a close correspondence in their $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{c}}$ variability (Cai et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2019; Kathayat et al., 2016), at least on orbital timescales. The relationship was initially interpreted as an illustration of large-scale in-phase variations in atmospheric processes across both monsoon s (Cheng et al., 2009, 2016; Kathayat et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2001). However, unlike the ISM, the EASM is characterized by more complex spatial patterns in precipitation and in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{p}}$, even under present-day climate conditions (Chiang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2012).

Our current understanding is that the EASM precipitation pattern is mainly driven by the

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84 position of the subtropical front, which responds to Northern Hemispheric Summer Insolation
85 (NHSI). The frontal system, established through interactions between the Westerly jet and the
86 Western North Pacific Subtropical High (WNPSH), separates moist tropical air masses and
87 drier, colder extratropical air masses. The front is a primary rain-producing feature (Meiyu-
88 Baiu rainband, or Changma for the Korean Summer Monsoon) in the EASM (Chen and Chang,
89 1980; Ding, 2004; Wang et al., 2008), and it controls the seasonality (Hu et al., 2019; Liu et
90 al., 2022; Wang et al., 2008), rainfall distribution, intensity, and extent of the moisture
91 advection from tropical oceans (Lin et al., 2024; Volonté et al., 2022).

92 Speleothem-based studies, complemented by climate simulations, have reported a connection
93 between the EASM's characteristics (intensity and pattern) and frontal movements across
94 different timescales and under extreme climatic conditions (Chiang et al., 2015; Liu et al.,
95 2014; Volonté et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2018). For instance, Liu et al., (2014)
96 demonstrate that frontal interactions with synoptic weather lead to heavier rainfall in northern
97 China during high NHSI (boreal summer perihelion conditions). Later, studies have reported
98 wetter conditions in central-eastern China and spatially opposite rainfall signals across Asia
99 during the last deglaciation (Termination I), in association with shifts in the position of the
100 Westerlies (He et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018). A recent study by Xue et al. (2025) proposed
101 that WNPSH intensity played a key role in shaping hydrological conditions across central
102 China over various timescales.

103 On precessional timescales, a significant correlation exists between variability in Asian
104 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{e}$ records and NHSI, indicating that the latter primarily controls the large-scale
105 circulation of the Asian summer monsoon and its associated moisture transport. Chinese
106 speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{e}$ has commonly been interpreted as reflecting changes in large-scale monsoon
107 circulation, integrated moisture transport, and upstream rainout processes, rather than local

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118 precipitation amount alone (Cai et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Kathayat et al., 2016; Wang et
 119 al., 2001). The interpretation of Chinese speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ as a proxy for local precipitation
 120 amount remains debated because independent precipitation-sensitive proxies from East Asia,
 121 such as loess magnetic susceptibility and reconstructed seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{r}$ (Beck et al., 2018;
 122 Clemens et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2006; Zheng et al., 2022), show only a weak correspondence
 123 with the precessional cycle. Cheng et al. (2021) addressed the discrepancies and complexities
 124 of hydroclimate proxies in Eastern Asia, explaining that loess, marine, and cave records are
 125 complementary and preferentially capture specific aspects of Asian monsoon dynamics.
 126 Further supported by Li et al. (2024), who found that the ratio of dithionite–citrate–bicarbonate
 127 extractable iron to total iron in Chinese loess deposits potentially records precipitation cycles
 128 on precessional timescales. However, uncertainties in interpreting the magnetic-susceptibility-
 129 based reconstructions remain, as they might reflect a smoothed precipitation signal or be
 130 dominated by other forcings (Cheng et al., 2021; Sun and Huang, 2006).

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131 Climate model simulations generally show enhanced Asian summer monsoon precipitation
 132 under stronger NHSI (Bosmans et al., 2018), although the magnitude of the simulated response
 133 may differ from that inferred from paleoclimate evidence (Lee et al., 2019). Isotope-enabled
 134 modeling offers an opportunity to further evaluate the roles of atmospheric, land, and oceanic
 135 processes in a changing climate (i.e., transient simulations). They can help interpret
 136 precipitation-based proxies by tracing the stable isotopologues of water spatiotemporally
 137 (Battisti et al., 2014; Brady et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2021). Such modeling studies have also
 138 shown that other processes may dominate on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ more than the Amount effect, including
 139 atmospheric circulation, moisture pathways, and upstream rainout (Liu et al., 2014; Maher and
 140 Thompson, 2012; Pausata et al., 2011). Subsequent studies have examined the complex
 141 relationships among orbital-scale EASM $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variability, NHSI, rainy seasons, and regional
 142 circulation patterns (Dai et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024). Though the major

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155 features of simulated climate-isotopic signals across southern and eastern Asia agree with
 156 Chinese speleothem isotope records, some models suggest a pronounced out-of-phase
 157 precipitation response between the EASM rainband and the rest of the Asian monsoon on
 158 orbital timescales (Bosmans et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2019). Some isotope-enabled climate
 159 models also reveal large-scale differences in the response of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ to precessional forcing
 160 across Asia, with weaker anomalies over the eastern domain than over the western domain
 161 (Battisti et al., 2014; Tabor et al., 2018). A recent study elucidated the mechanisms by which
 162 the precession-driven insolation forcing reorganizes the large-scale Asian summer monsoon
 163 circulation, including the strength of the southwesterly monsoon flow, the position of the
 164 upper-level westerly jet, and the position and strength of WNPSH, thereby altering regional
 165 precipitation and the relative contributions of remote and nearby moisture sources to $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 166 (Wen et al., 2024). These processes produce a grand dipole pattern of precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 167 variability across the Asian monsoon region, characterized by an antiphase precipitation pattern
 168 between South Asia and Japan. This pattern suggests that precipitation variability on
 169 precessional timescales may be weaker over nodal regions such as the Korean Peninsula (KP).
 170 The KP lies at the boundary between northeast Asia and the Pacific, and moisture transport
 171 through the WNPSH strongly controls summer precipitation variability over the region (Ha et
 172 al., 2012; Wang and Lin, 2002). Under present-day conditions, precipitation isotope
 173 compositions over these regions are influenced by seasonal shifts in atmospheric circulation
 174 that alter moisture source regions, moisture transport pathways, and the associated upstream
 175 rainout history during transport (Araguás-Araguás et al., 1998; Jung et al., 2022; Kim et al.,
 176 2019; Zhu et al., 2023). Studies have suggested that variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over KP are strongly
 177 influenced by seasonal changes in atmospheric circulation and moisture transport, as reflected
 178 in the pronounced seasonality of precipitation deuterium excess (d-excess) (Lee et al., 2001;
 179 Park et al., 2006). The seasonal cycle in d-excess primarily reflects changes in climatic

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197 conditions in the moisture-evaporation region, particularly relative humidity during
 198 evaporation. Further, d-excess can also be modified by changes in dominant air masses and
 199 moisture transport pathways, as well as secondary processes such as condensation and raindrop
 200 evaporation. Consequently, the seasonal contrast in precipitation d-excess, with generally
 201 lower values in summer and higher values in winter, has been associated with the distinct
 202 climatic conditions accompanying the EASM and East Asian winter monsoon, respectively
 203 (Yoshimura and Ichiyanagi, 2009).

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204 While many studies (Clemens et al., 2018; Hayashi et al., 2017, 2021; Igarashi and Oba, 2006;
 205 Iwamoto and Inouchi, 2007; Wen et al., 2024) have extensively examined the eastern boundary
 206 of the EASM system, the KP has received less attention. We close this gap in our study by
 207 focusing on variations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the KP and their underlying mechanisms, aiming to
 208 enhance our understanding of the pan-Asian monsoon system. Here, we explore the dynamics
 209 by tracking and quantifying the moisture sources and their precessional modulation of seasonal
 210 rainfall and isotopes over the KP. To this end, we consider the Korean stalagmites' 550,000-

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211 year $\delta^{18}\text{O}_e$ records (discontinuous), which include a new $\delta^{18}\text{O}_e$ record from the Eden Cave
 212 stalagmite (ED1) and previously published $\delta^{18}\text{O}_e$ records from Gwaneum Cave stalagmite
 213 (GE1) (Jo et al., 2010, 2014). To link large-scale atmospheric circulation, moisture transport,

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214 and precipitation isotope variability over the KP on orbital timescales, we conducted a series
 215 of transient climate simulations, time-slice experiments, and water-tagging simulations using
 216 the isotope-enabled Community Earth System Model version 1.2 (iCESM1.2), focusing solely

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217 on the effect of orbital forcings. The transient simulation with an orbital acceleration (Lorenz
 218 and Lohmann, 2004a) of 100 spans the past 130,000 years (130 ka). The iCESM1.2 time-slice
 219 simulations were conducted with fixed minimum and maximum values of the precession index,
 220 reflecting Northern Hemisphere summer perihelion and aphelion conditions, respectively. The
 221 results are further interpreted using previously conducted high-resolution CESM1.2

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simulations (Chu et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Raavi et al., 2023; Wengel et al., 2021) and a lower resolution transient CESM1.2 simulation, which includes orbital, greenhouse gas, and ice sheet forcings (Timmermann et al., 2022; Yun et al., 2023).

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 South Korean Speleothem Records

We present $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ records from two Korean stalagmites obtained from ED_v (Eden Cave (Jo et al., 2014)) and GE_v (Gwaneum Cave (Jo et al., 2010)) (see locations in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2a), which grew intermittently. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ records for ED1 and GE1 stalagmites were previously measured along with stable carbon isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_\text{p}$) within the scope of Jo et al. (2010, 2014). However, the ED1 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ record remained unpublished to date. Further details regarding the GE1 and ED1 records and their covered time spans are provided in Supplementary Table S1. Previous studies of the ED1 and GE1 stalagmites documented their growth fabrics, depositional histories, stable cave environment, and stable-isotope characteristics, thereby constraining the conditions under which their isotopic signals were preserved. The principal growth phase of GE1 was interpreted to have formed under conditions approaching isotopic equilibrium, based on its calcite textures and stable-isotope characteristics, whereas intervals associated with coralloid growth and limited dripwater supply were identified as distinct depositional phases (Jo et al., 2010). ED1, similarly, contains well-characterized growth intervals separated by hiatuses and changes in depositional fabric, supported by an extensive U-series chronology (Jo et al., 2006, 2014). Although certain intervals exhibit high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ variability, partially due to the low resolution of the records, the absence of a pronounced precessional cycle is notably observed in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ profiles (Fig. S1). From another Korean cave, Jo et al. (2017) identified clear millennial-scale resemblances among late Holocene $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ records from both Korean and Chinese stalagmites, providing an in-depth discussion on the issue in question. These

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observations suggest that, despite potential site-specific modifications of the calcite isotopic signal, the well-characterized portions of these records can provide observational constraints for evaluating the modeled $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ response over the KP.

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2.2 Isotope-enabled model simulations

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For this study, we performed a series of fully coupled paleoclimate simulations with the iCESM1.2 (Brady et al., 2019), using a model resolution of approximately $1.9^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ in the atmosphere and land and $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ in the ocean and sea ice, respectively, providing simulated precipitation oxygen and hydrogen isotopes ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$) (Brady et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2019; Tabor et al., 2018). We also combine simulated precipitation stable-isotope data to examine precessional variations in precipitation d-excess ($\delta^2\text{H} - 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}$) (Dansgaard, 1964). To validate our iCESM1.2 present-day (iCESM-PD) simulations, we have used the available IAEA Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) datasets for the Asian domain (Accessible at <https://nucleus.iaea.org/wiser>), published precipitation isotope records (Sinha et al., 2019), and data from the isotopes-incorporated Global Spectral Model – isoGSM2 (Yoshimura et al., 2008).

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First, we conducted an idealized transient simulation covering the orbital forcing history of the past 130,000 years (iCESM-130ka), using fixed pre-industrial conditions of greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations, ice sheets, and bathymetry. The transient simulation employs an orbital temporal acceleration (Lorenz and Lohmann, 2004a; Timmermann et al., 2007) factor of 100, consistent with previous studies, which compresses the 130,000-year forcing history into 1,300 model years. The acceleration choice is justified by the fact that we focus here on atmospheric processes primarily controlled by changes in land and ocean surface temperatures, with adjustment timescales that are orders of magnitude faster than the precessional cycle forcing. In our 130 ka-orbitally forced iCESM1.2 simulation, we analyzed the spatiotemporal patterns

314 of annual-mean anomalies of precipitation amount and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$. We further compared our
315 simulated precipitation patterns with the transient CESM1.2 simulation over the past three
316 million years (CESM-3Ma) (Timmermann et al., 2022; Yun et al., 2023), which was forced by
317 time-varying orbital, GHG, and ice-sheet forcings. CESM-3Ma simulation uses a lower
318 horizontal resolution (3.75° in the atmosphere and 3° in the ocean), and an orbital acceleration
319 of only 5, but does not include isotopes.

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320 Next, we performed model sensitivity experiments with iCESM1.2 to evaluate the equilibrium
321 climate responses to maximum ($P_{\max}$) and minimum ($P_{\min}$) precession conditions (iCESM- $P_{\max}$
322 and iCESM- $P_{\min}$). These 100-year-long fully coupled time-slice sensitivity experiments branch
323 off from year 900 of a 1,000-year-long iCESM-PD control experiment. The two idealized
324 simulations use a high eccentricity (Berger and Loutre, 1991) of 0.0493 to amplify the
325 precessional effects. The simulations reach a quasi-equilibrium state for important atmospheric
326 variables within 100 years. Much of our analysis from these two simulations is based on the
327 June-July-August (JJA) seasonal averages of the last 40 model years. Furthermore, we
328 compared iCESM $P_{\min}$ and $P_{\max}$ precipitation and circulation patterns with ultra-high-resolution
329 simulations ($1/4^\circ$ in the atmosphere and $1/10^\circ$ in the ocean) conducted for Marine Isotope
330 Stages (MIS)-5d (115 ka) and MIS-5e (125 ka) using the CESM1.2 (Chu et al., 2020; Huang
331 et al., 2021; Raavi et al., 2023; Wengel et al., 2021) (hiresCESM-5d and hiresCESM-5e). This
332 analysis provides further insights into the robustness of our results, enabling a more nuanced
333 characterization of regional aspects.

334 To quantify the KP precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ responses to the $P_{\min}$ and $P_{\max}$ conditions, we
335 performed water-tagging experiments using the iCESM to track changes in source regions and
336 their relative contributions to the KP. The experiments were conducted using orbital parameters
337 corresponding to 124 ka ($P_{\min}$) and 119 ka ($P_{\max}$), along with current atmospheric and

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oceanic conditions (including the initial isotopic composition) derived from the iCESM-PD simulation. We tag a total of 14 boxes (7 each over land and Ocean), based on the major contributors to the Asian region (Hu et al., 2019). The box latitude and longitude were chosen following Wen et al. (2024), although we have excluded regions from the calculations with minimal contribution ($< 10\%$) to the total rainfall and no effect on the anomalous $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$. The regional pattern of the simulated $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ is determined by the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the vapor from the tagged regions, followed by hydrological processes and rainout history (Tabor et al., 2018). Each tagging experiment was conducted over 40 model years, with the mean values from the last 20 years (both summer and annual) used for analysis. Further information on the tagging experiment is provided in the supplementary material (Section S1).

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$: Model and Proxies

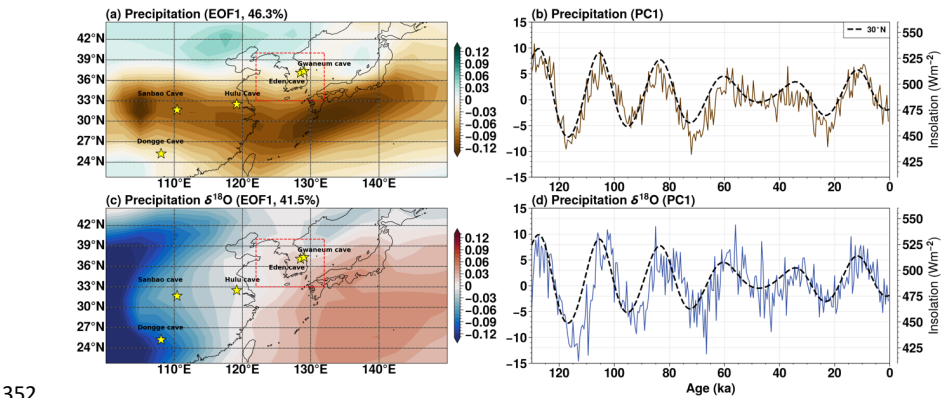


Figure 1: First empirical orthogonal function (EOF1) and corresponding principal component (PC1) of precipitation (a, b) and precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (c, d) annual anomalies for the selected Eastern Asian region (22-45°N, 100-150°E). Annual anomalies were calculated by subtracting the long-term annual mean value (i.e., the climatological annual mean) from each annual mean. Annual means were obtained by averaging the monthly simulated values. Korean caves and cave locations for the China composite record are marked with yellow stars in (a) and (c).

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364 A red dashed box marks the Korean Peninsula (KP) region. The black dashed curve in (b, d)
365 represents summer insolation at 30°N.

366 To extract the dominant modes of variability in Eastern Asia, we used precipitation amount
367 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ annual anomalies from the transient iCESM-130ka simulation. We calculated the
368 first Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF1) and the corresponding principal component (PC1)
369 time series for the selected Eastern Asian region (22-45°N, 100-150°E), including eastern
370 China, the KP, and Japan (Fig. 1). The leading EOF of annual mean precipitation variability
371 exhibits a north-south dipole in the selected EASM domain (Fig. 1a), characterized by strong
372 precessional variability and correlating with the NHSI at 30°N (Fig. 1b). The precipitation
373 anomalies associated with the change in boreal summer insolation exhibit the strongest signal
374 in an east-west elongated structure between 25°N and 35°N. For northern-hemisphere summer
375 perihelion conditions (low precessional index), this area is characterized by anomalously dry
376 conditions, whereas for northern-hemisphere summer aphelion conditions (high precessional
377 index), it is characterized by anomalously wet conditions (Fig. S2). Most notably, Korea lies
378 on the nodal line of the precipitation dipole pattern, suggesting a weak annual-mean precession
379 signal over the KP (Fig. 1a). A similar precipitation pattern also emerges for the CESM-3Ma
380 transient simulation (Yun et al., 2023) over the study area (Fig. S3), indicating that the effects
381 of GHGs and ice sheet forcing are relatively minor in driving the EASM spatial precipitation
382 patterns on precession scales. However, in this case, the nodal line lies slightly south of the KP.
383 The ultra-high-resolution simulations confirm the overall large-scale response pattern in
384 summer precipitation to changes in the precessional index, albeit with somewhat drier
385 conditions over the KP, relative to the coarser-resolution CESM-3Ma and iCESM-130ka
386 simulations (See comparisons in Fig. S2).

387 Contrasting the meridional dipole in precipitation, the leading mode of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ variability
388 exhibits an east-west (zonal) dipole pattern over our selected study region (Fig. 1c). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$

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393 dipole, which is characterized by relative ^{18}O -depletion (enrichment) for western (eastern) Asia
 394 during Northern Hemisphere summer perihelion, has previously been presented as a notable
 395 feature over the broader Asian summer monsoon region on precession scales (Wen et al., 2024).

396 In the western part of this dipole (China), we observe pronounced precessional ~~timescales~~ $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 397 signals; in the eastern part (Japan, Korea, and nearby seas), we generally find weaker variability
 398 that is antiphase with the west (Fig. 1c and Fig. 1d). For the KP region, the simulated
 399 precessional signal in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ is strongly suppressed (similar to the rainfall pattern), and no
 400 distinct precession cyclicality is evident in the simulated time series (Fig. S4).

401 The near absence of precessional variability in hydroclimate predicted by the models can now
 402 be tested using our speleothem isotope data from the KP (Fig. 2a). The Korean speleothem

403 stable carbon isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}_s$) records aligns well with Chinese $\delta^{18}\text{O}_c$ during overlapping periods
 404 (Fig. 2b), and the growth frequency of Korean speleothems exhibits clear signals that
 405 correspond to orbital-timescale hydrologic changes (Jo et al., 2014). However, Korean

406 stalagmites records show no apparent precessional signal (Fig. 2b). The weak covariation
 407 between $\delta^{13}\text{C}_s$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_c$ (ED1, $R^2 = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$; GE1, $R^2 = 0.04$, $p = 0.02$) suggests that
 408 kinetic effects are unlikely to be the primary control on their variability. Moreover, the
 409 precessional-scale variability in the Korean $\delta^{18}\text{O}_c$ records is strongly suppressed relative to the
 410 relatively pronounced ($\sim 4\%$) variability observed in the Chinese composite $\delta^{18}\text{O}_c$ record (Fig.
 411 2b). This observational evidence is consistent with the muted response of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the KP to

412 precessional forcing in the simulations (Fig. 1c). This raises the question of which physical
 413 processes govern the Korean $\delta^{13}\text{C}_s$ on precessional timescales. Previous studies from the KP

414 (Jo et al., 2010, 2011, 2014) suggested that glacial-interglacial changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_s$ could be related
 415 to summer-temperature and rainfall-driven anomalies in terrestrial productivity. However, a

416 more detailed investigation of the underlying processes driving precessional-scale variations
 417 in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_s$ is beyond the scope of our comprehensive water-isotope analysis of the KP.

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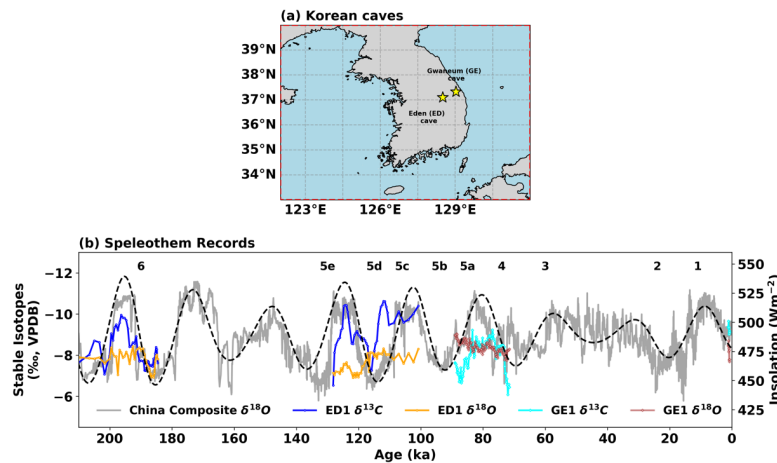


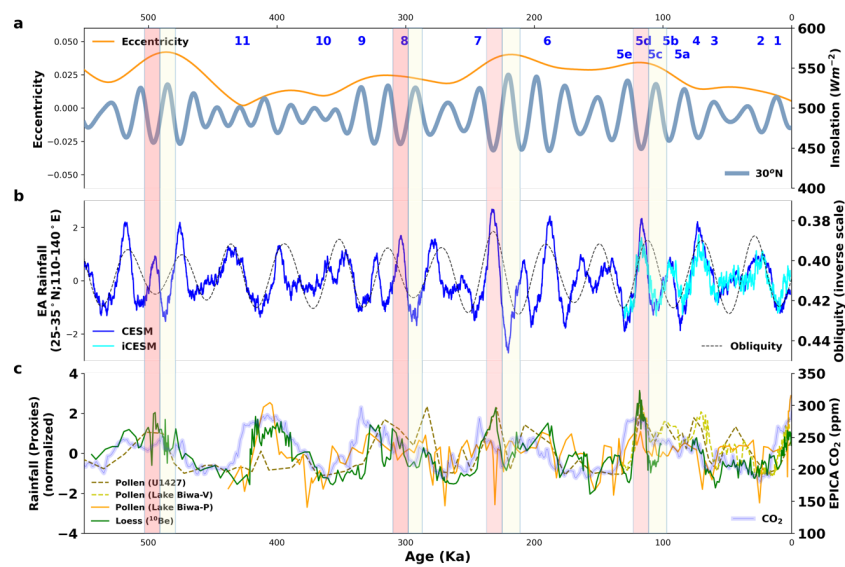
Figure 2: Korean Peninsula (red box, Figure 1) with Korea cave locations (a). Speleothem stable isotope records ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) from Korean caves (Gwaneum (GE) cave and Eden (ED) cave) stalagmites (GE1 and ED1) and the Chinese caves composite- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record comparison (b). The marine isotope stage (MIS) is indicated above the curves in (b). The black dashed curve in (b) represents summer insolation at 30°N.

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According to the transient iCESM-130ka and CESM-3Ma simulations, precipitation over Eastern Asia (Fig. 3b) exhibits precessional signals, which are out of phase with insolation. It is important to note that simulated precessional scale precipitation suppresses during glacial maxima in eastern Asia, documenting the influence of the 80-120 kyr eccentricity forcing on the amplitude modulation of precession (Fig. 3a and Fig. 3b). There are several East Asian hydroclimate proxies, such as ^{10}Be in loess from central China (Beck et al., 2018), pollen records from Japan (Hayashi et al., 2017, 2021; Tarasov et al., 2011) (Fig. 3c), and total nitrogen content in Lake Biwa (Iwamoto and Inouchi, 2007), which support and demonstrate the above-mentioned features in regional-simulated precipitation. Speleothem records from Japan (Kato et al., 2021; Mori et al., 2018) lack sufficient data points within the 0-130ka simulated period, and the intermittent time span does not encompass high-insolation periods, which would be necessary to validate the simulated isotopic composition. Some mismatches between the pollen records and the model occur during MIS11 and low- CO_2 conditions,

464 suggesting that vegetation dynamics in the region may, in part, be driven directly by CO₂, either
465 through temperature or the CO₂ fertilization effect. However, uncertainties in the chronology
466 of the palynological reconstruction preclude a definitive conclusion at this time. Moreover, the
467 simulations indicate a stronger 41ka obliquity signal, particularly during periods of low
468 eccentricity, which seems absent in the paleo proxy records (Fig. 3b).



470 **Figure 3:** Comparison of simulated Eastern Asian (EA) rainfall from the climate model
471 simulations with prominent precipitation proxy records from the region over the last 550 ka.
472 Summer Insolation (30 °N) and eccentricity (high eccentricity and low/high insolation
473 highlighted with pink/yellow bars) (a). Rainfall (mm/day) from iCESM (this study) and CESM
474 3Ma simulations, along with obliquity (b). Loess ¹⁰Be (central China) and EASM rainfall (Beck
475 et al., 2018), along with CO₂ and palynological (Japan) rainfall reconstructions using the Lake
476 Biwa pollen records (c). Lake Biwa-V (Hayashi et al., 2017) is based on vegetation response,
477 and Lake Biwa-P (Tarasov et al., 2011) is based on the modern analogue technique. The marine
478 isotope stage (MIS) is indicated above the top panel curves. For records' references, see Table
479 S1. It should be noted that the Chinese ¹⁰Be record has been plotted after shifting the age by -
480 6ka (see Section S2), which then aligns well with other regional proxies (c) and model-
481 simulated precipitation (Fig. S5).

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3.2 Precession versus EASM atmospheric circulation

485 As discussed in the previous section, under low precession conditions, a region of low
486 precipitation in the eastern EASM domain zonally extends from KP across southern Japan into
487 the central North Pacific. Our simulation shows that the region of low precipitation is co-
488 located with an anomalously high sea level pressure (SLP; contour lines, Fig. 4a) and
489 suppression of atmospheric convection (Fig. S6c, contour), in concordance with the
490 intensification of the anomalous WNPSH (geopotential height, Fig. S6c). Supporting evidence
491 comes from an integrated moist static energy budget analysis by Wen et al. (2024), which
492 showed that the reduction in rainfall is linked to descending air motion. Our simulated
493 precipitation pattern, meridional and zonal wind components, and strength of anomalous
494 WNPSH are well supported by the difference of the hiresCESM-5e and hiresCESM-5d
495 experiments (Fig. 4b and Fig. S6), even though the anomalies over the KP are slightly stronger
496 compared to the ~2 degree resolution iCESM.

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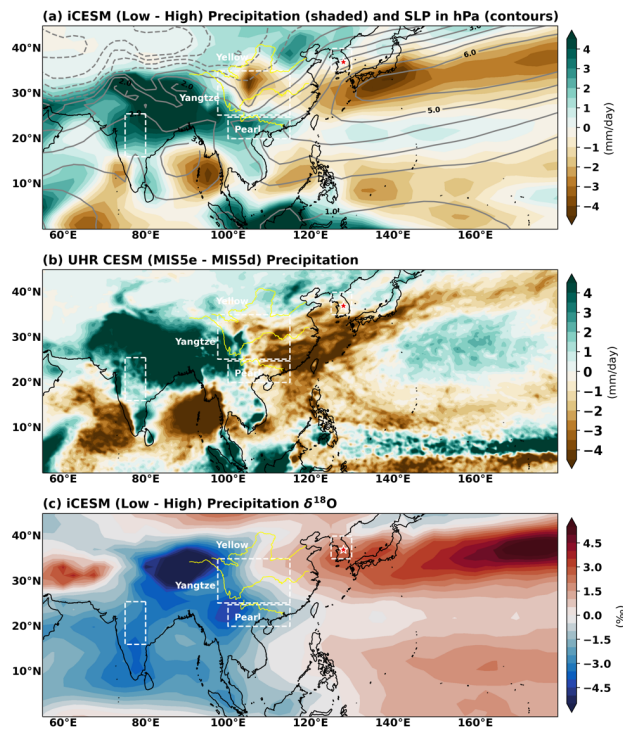


Figure 4: Difference between precession minimum (Low) and maximum (High). Composites of summer mean precipitation (shaded) and sea level pressure (SLP, contour), from iCESM1.2 (a). Same as (a) with CESM Ultra High Resolution (UHR) simulation for MIS5e and 5d (b), and summer mean precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, from iCESM1.2 (c). The dashed boxes shown are used to extract 130 ka time series from the model simulations: India, central China, South China, and Korea (left to right in increasing longitude order). The yellow curves on the map indicate major rivers in China. The red star represents the Korean cave region.

In addition, the simulated western branch of the anomalously strong WNPSH (Fig. S6c, d) might help transport more moisture from the Pacific Ocean toward northern China and the northern part of KP, resulting in regional positive precipitation anomalies in the model. The rainfall pattern corresponds to an overall weakening and a slight northward shift of the Korean and Japanese summer monsoon systems, specifically the Changma and Meiyu-Baiu fronts, respectively. On the other hand, the KP hydroclimate reconstructed from speleothem proxies (viz., growth frequency) suggests signals of a wetter climate during interglacial periods (Jo et

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519 al., 2014), which are characterized by northern hemisphere summer perihelion. These
520 observations highlight the importance of considering speleothem-specific characteristics,
521 including site location, local orography, cave processes, and chronological precision, when
522 comparing individual speleothem records with spatially resolved simulations, particularly for
523 distinguishing hydroclimatic changes between closely spaced intervals such as MIS 5e and
524 MIS 5d. It is worth noting that the Korean caves are primarily located in the mountainous
525 Gangwon-do region of South Korea and range in altitude (Jo et al., 2014). It is possible that
526 orbital forcing may also influence the precipitation intensity and the extent of the nodal line,
527 relative to local topographic features (Fig. 4b). Thus, the apparent contrast between the
528 speleothem growth-frequency records and the simulated muted response over the broader KP
529 region may partly reflect spatial heterogeneity in the regional hydroclimate response.

530 We further explored the mechanisms underlying the precessional-scale muting of precipitation
531 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for the KP and other parts along the nodal line, both for summer (JJA) and annual-
532 mean, conditions. Using the water tagging method, we estimated the contributions from
533 different moisture sources to precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at the KP in JJA (Fig. 5). The Pacific
534 Ocean transports more moisture to the KP region during the northern hemisphere summer
535 perihelion (Fig. 5a). This anomalous moisture predominantly originates from the subtropical
536 North Pacific (SNP, 0.40 mm/d) due to the strengthening and northwest shift of the NWPSH.
537 Land moisture (Fig. 5b) from the East Asia region also contributes to the anomalous $P_{\min}$
538 precipitation over the KP in JJA (EAS, 0.11 mm/d). However, during $P_{\min}$ less moisture from
539 the northern North Pacific (NNP, -0.15 mm/d) and the equatorial Indian Ocean (EQI, -0.09
540 mm/d) arrives in KP, which compensates the increase with a small cumulative change in
541 summer precipitation of 0.28 mm/d as a result. The annual-mean KP precipitation anomaly
542 between $P_{\min} - P_{\max}$, shows only a small change, ranging from 0.023 (SNP) to -0.15 mm/d
543 (EAS) in terms of moisture contributions (Fig. S7, Table S2).

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549 JJA $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the KP, will be determined both, by regional rainfall and water vapor transport
 550 contributions from the different source regions. Using the isotope tagging method, we
 551 calculated summer precipitation-weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values (Sect. S1 and Table S2) at the KP
 552 (inset, Fig. 5). We find that the moisture transported from the SNP oceanic region to the KP is
 553 characterized by anomalously high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (i.e., enriched in ^{18}O) during $P_{\min}$ relative to
 554 $P_{\max}$ by +0.22‰, with EAS land moisture also contributing higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ($P_{\min} - P_{\max} =$
 555 +0.31‰). However, the moisture transported from the distant Indian Ocean (EQI) and the land
 556 (SAS) regions shows a compensating effect, with lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values ($\text{EQI} + \text{SAS} = -0.38\text{‰}$).
 557 Combining the positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ contributions from the SNP and EAS regions with the negative
 558 contributions from the EQI and SAS regions results in a small net increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$,
 559 corresponding to higher JJA $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values (+0.22 ‰) over the KP during $P_{\min}$. On annual
 560 timescales (inset, Fig. S7), this compensation is even more pronounced, leading to a slight net
 561 depletion in ^{18}O (lower in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values) over the KP by -0.10‰ ($P_{\min} - P_{\max}$). Furthermore, the
 562 tagging experiment reveals that, for annual means, the Indian region plays a negligible role in
 563 precessional-scale changes in precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the KP (Fig. S7, Table S2).

Deleted: Using the tagging methods and calculating summer precipitation-weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values (Sect. S1 and Table S2) at KP (inset, Figure 5), we find that the moisture transported from the SNP oceanic region to the KP is anomalously enriched in $P_{\min}$ relative to $P_{\max}$ (+0.22‰), with additional contributions also from EAS land moisture ($P_{\min} - P_{\max} = +0.31\text{‰}$). However, the transport of moisture from the distant Indian Ocean (EQI) and the land (SAS) regions shows a compensating effect ($\text{EQI} + \text{SAS} = -0.38\text{‰}$). Combined the SNP and EAS effects (enrichment) and the EQI and SAS contributions (depletion) result in a small net anomalous enrichment of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ (+0.22 ‰) in JJA over KP during $P_{\min}$. On annual timescales (inset, Fig. S6), the compensation is even more pronounced, leading to a small net depletion of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the KP region by -0.1‰ ($P_{\min} - P_{\max}$).

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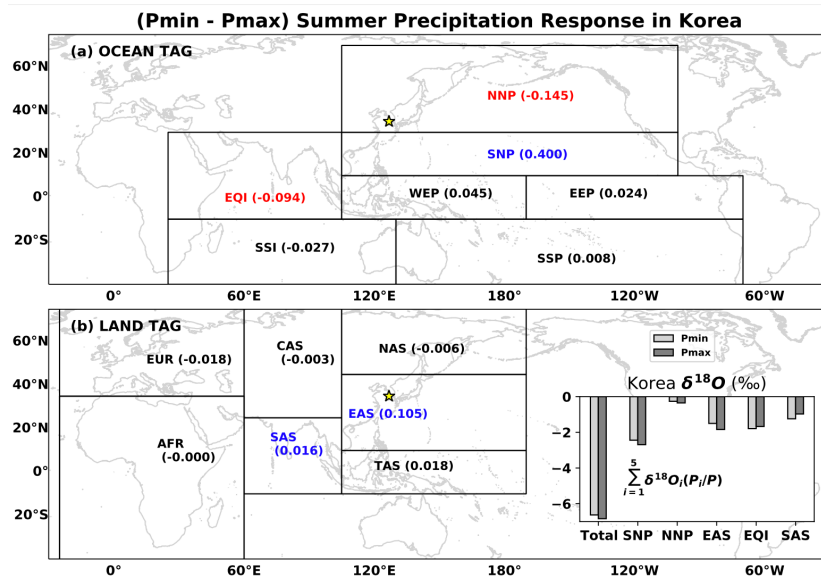
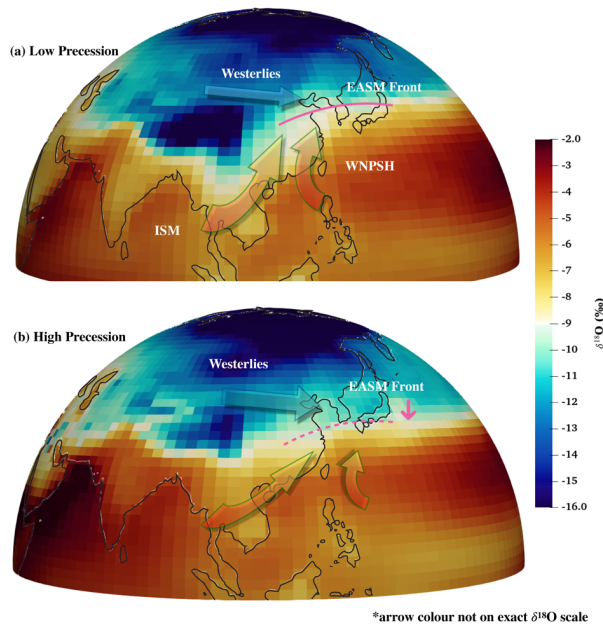


Figure 5: Differences in average summer (Jun-Aug) precipitation (mm/day) on the Korean Peninsula between P_{min} and P_{max} from various moisture sources over (a) ocean and (b) land. Colored text refers to the major contributors (mean-state) to the Korean Peninsula (blue-positive and red-negative for $P_{min}-P_{max}$), as shown in Table S2, which was considered in the total calculations. Inset plot (lower right): the summer precipitation-weighted $\delta^{18}O$ in Korea from major and nearby source contributors from Land (EAS, SAS) and the Ocean (SNP, NNP, EQI). Korea is marked by a yellow star. See the supplementary material for the acronyms.

Overall, there is a tug-of-war between contributions from different oceanic and continental regions to KP $\delta^{18}O_p$, leading to the muting of the precessional signal. For instance, the anomalous WNPSH leads to a westward (eastward) shift of the ISM branch towards northern China under low (high) precession conditions, as documented by an analysis of the vertically integrated moisture transport (VIMT, Fig. S8). The schematic in Figure 6 summarizes these findings by highlighting changes in circulation patterns and simulated $\delta^{18}O_p$ values for P_{min} and P_{max} conditions.

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600 **Figure 6:** Schematics of precession effects on summer East Asian monsoon circulation and
 601 spatial distribution of precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (blue to dark orange: depleted (low $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) to enriched
 602 (high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) *in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$* in relative to low and high precession conditions). The thickness of the arrows
 603 represents the strength of the circulation systems. The solid and dashed pink lines indicate the
 604 location of the EASM front. (a) In the low precession case, ISM strengthening (a more southerly
 605 component), Westerlies (northward), and WNPSH (northwest) result in low (high) $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over
 606 India to northern China (eastern Asia). The solid pink line indicates the EASM front location.
 607 (b) For the high precession case, the combined effects of the weakening of the ISM (more
 608 northeast component), the southward migration of the Westerlies, and the eastward
 609 movement of the WNPSH result in suppressed transport of Pacific moisture into the eastern
 610 domain of the EASM, result in high $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ across India to East Asia, however leading to
 611 relatively low $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in eastern Asia. The interactions between two circulation systems (ISM
 612 and EASM) and the Westerlies create a nodal zone, which includes the Korean Peninsula (KP).

613

614 Given the oceanic-continental moisture contributions to the orbital-scale characteristics of
 615 precessional-scale changes in KP hydroclimate, we anticipate that the dynamics will also be
 616 well captured in d-excess, which reflects the source region (Araguás-Araguás et al., 2000;
 617 Jouzel et al., 2013; Pfahl and Sodemann, 2014) and evaporative conditions (Masson-Delmotte
 618 et al., 2005; Uemura et al., 2008) of the moisture source. Like the d-excess seasonal variations,

619 to some extent, can serve as an analog for precessional changes, as precessional forcing
620 oftentimes modulates the amplitude of the seasonal signals in precipitation and isotopic
621 composition, due to the strength and position of atmospheric circulation (Bosmans et al., 2018).
622 As such, we examined d-excess variations on precessional timescales in our iCESM
623 simulations.

624 **3.3 Deuterium excess in simulations**

625 d-excess, a secondary parameter derived from stable water isotopic ratios, provides additional
626 insights into hydrological processes. Non-equilibrium conditions can lead to enrichment of ²H
627 in the less stable phase (e.g., the gas phase) due to the higher diffusivity of hydrogen isotopes
628 relative to oxygen. For instance, during evaporation from the ocean surface, the strong gradient
629 in relative humidity accompanied by strong winds leads to higher d-excess in the vapor (Craig
630 and Gordon, 1965; Uemura et al., 2008). It has been suggested that climatic influences on
631 relative humidity, mediated by changes in atmospheric circulation, are captured in the d-excess
632 proxy in precipitation-based paleoarchives (Pfahl and Sodemann, 2014) (e.g., ice core,
633 speleothem). Studies have shown that the d-excess in paleowater can, in fact, be recovered
634 from fluid-inclusion data in certain speleothems (Held et al., 2025; Matthews et al., 2021).

635 The precipitation d-excess is sensitive to various hydrological processes between the “source”
636 and the “sink” (Xia et al., 2023), such as evaporation at the moisture source location (Craig and
637 Gordon, 1965; Merlivat and Jouzel, 1979), moisture recycling from the land (Gat, 1996; Gat et
638 al., 1994), raindrop evaporation (Risi et al., 2008; Stewart, 1975), and Rayleigh distillation
639 (Xia et al., 2023). On precessional timescales, one crucial parameter is the near-surface relative
640 humidity (Rh_s) at the source location. Over the tropical monsoon region, Rh_s changes may
641 occur mainly in conjunction with wind anomalies, as the annual mean surface temperature
642 changes are quite small on precession scales (Clement et al., 2004). We have analyzed the

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647 characteristics of simulated R_h at plausible source locations and d-excess variations at the
648 sinks. The spatial pattern and gradient of surface relative humidity over the Asian region are
649 reasonably well captured in the present-day simulation (Fig. S9). Brady et al. (2019) reported
650 that the d-excess values simulated by iCESM1 exhibit a positive median bias of 3.3‰ and a
651 poor correlation with GNIP observations. Our reinvestigation of simulated d-excess in the
652 Asian region for present-day conditions shows that GNIP and model data align reasonably well
653 (Fig. S10). A closer look at Fig. 4(b) in Brady et al. (Brady et al., 2019) supports this
654 conclusion. For the Asian region, we found good agreement ($r = +0.52$, $p < 0.01$) between the
655 annual mean d-excess in GNIP observations and our iCESM-PD simulation (Fig. S11), with a
656 smaller median bias of +1.75‰, compared to the 3.3‰ global mean bias. Moreover, the strong
657 seasonality in the observed (GNIP) d-excess for East Asia, specifically for north and eastern
658 Asian sites, is well captured in iCESM-PD (Fig. S12), which is crucial in the current context
659 because precessional shifts are likely to influence the amplitude of the seasonal cycle, rather
660 than the annual mean.

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661 To refine our interpretation of d-excess as a proxy for precessional signals over Asia, we further
662 investigate R_h variability in the Asian monsoon oceanic source domains, including the Indian
663 and Pacific Oceans. In the calculated EOFs for the R_h from the iCESM-130ka simulation,
664 EOF2 represents precessional-scale changes (Fig. 7). Over the southeast Indian Ocean and
665 northwest Pacific Ocean (rectangular boxes in Fig. 7), we observe strong precessional-scale
666 variability in R_h (Fig. 7b), with an amplitude change of approximately 3%-4% (Fig. 7c, d).
667 The chosen blue and red boxes, which exhibit strong out-of-phase variability (Fig. 7a),
668 respectively, closely correspond with the dominant moisture source regions to the South Asian
669 (Tabor et al., 2018) and Eastern Asian (Wen et al., 2024) monsoon regions under $P_{\min}$ climate
670 (black dashed boxes, Fig. 7a). Subsequently, our results indicate that the South Asian and East
671 Asia (mainly Northeast China) continental domains also exhibit a substantial precessional-

scale variability in Rh_s (Fig. S13a, b), with an amplitude of about 10% change and in phase with the NHSI (Fig. S13c, d).

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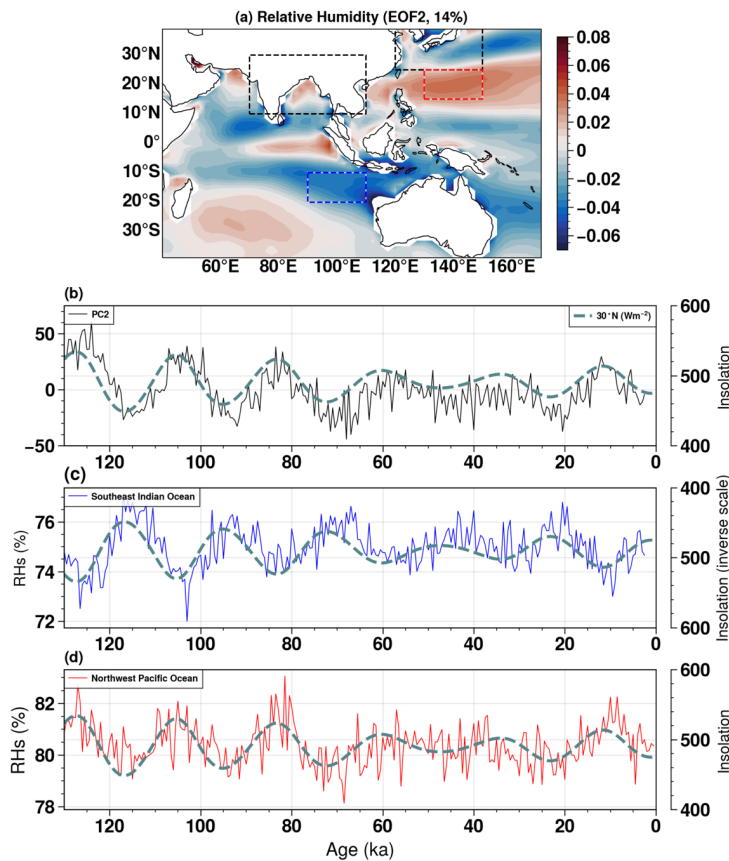


Figure 7. Second empirical orthogonal function (EOF2, a) and corresponding principal component (PC2, b) for the summer mean surface relative humidity for the 130ka transient simulation on iCESM1.2. Temporal evolution of surface relative humidity over oceanic source regions, Southeast Indian Ocean: blue curve (c) over blue dashed box (a); and Northwest Pacific Ocean: red curve (d) over red dashed box (a). The black dashed boxes represent the South Asian summer monsoon and the eastern extent of the EASM region (a). The dashed curve represents summer insolation at 30°N.

Moreover, our results show that the P_{min} and P_{max} conditions exhibit opposite signals in precipitation d-excess values between South Asia and East Asia (Fig. 8a). The d-excess is high

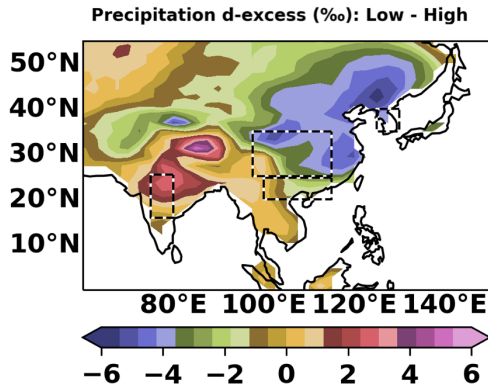
690 over India and low over central China for $P_{\min}$. Specifically, in the KP, d-excess is low (high)
 691 for high (low) NHSI. It should be noted that the KP d-excess differences for $P_{\min} - P_{\max}$ are
 692 predominantly from the changes during the summer season; however, the Indian region's d-
 693 excess values are higher throughout the year for $P_{\min}$ relative to $P_{\max}$ (Fig. S14). Our tagging
 694 results also show that transported moisture from the Pacific Ocean and the East Asia
 695 continental regions contributes to lower d-excess at KP under $P_{\min}$ conditions (Fig. S15), likely
 696 due to relatively higher humidity over the source regions (Fig. 7d and Fig. S12d). To evaluate
 697 the R_h s and d-excess relationship quantitatively, the translation of the source region's R_h s
 698 change to the sink's precipitation d-excess has been estimated from the iCESM-130ka
 699 simulation. A regional R_h s regression on d-excess shows about a 0.3-0.4‰ increase in summer
 700 precipitation d-excess values over South Asia with a 1% decrease in source region (southeast
 701 Indian ocean) R_h s (i.e., $\Delta(\text{d-excess})/\Delta R_h = \sim -0.4$) (Fig. S16a). And a 1% increase in R_h s in
 702 the northwest Pacific Ocean can cause a 0.7-0.8‰ decrease in summer precipitation d-excess
 703 across Eastern Asia (i.e., $\Delta(\text{d-excess})/\Delta R_h = \sim -0.8$) (Fig. S16b).

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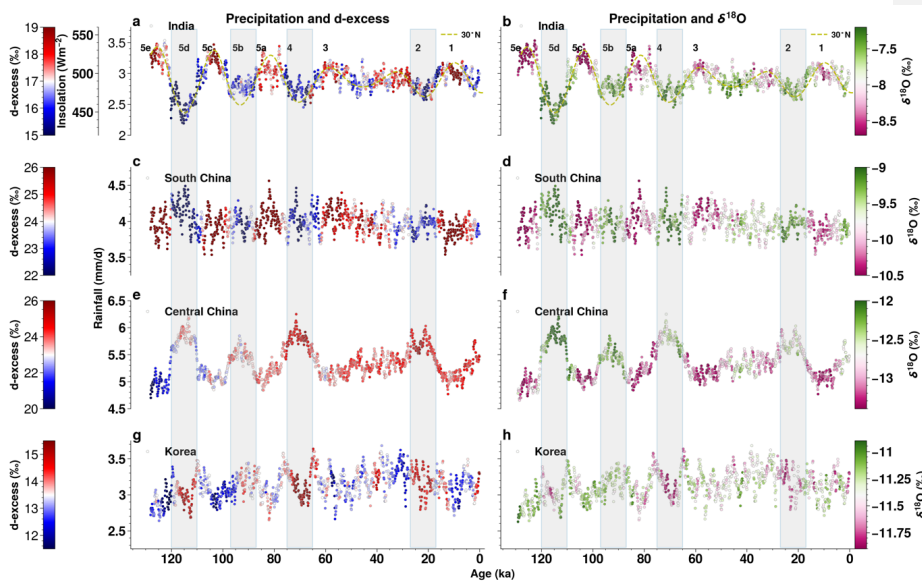
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705 **Figure 8:** Precipitation d-excess for Low ($P_{\min}$) - High ($P_{\max}$) precession conditions. Black dashed
 706 boxes represent regions: India, Central China, South China, and Korea (left to right), used to
 707 extract the time series from the iCESM1.2 simulations.

712 **3.4 Pan-Asian monsoon context**

713 In this section, we refine our understanding of speleothem records from the KP in the broader
714 context of hydroclimate changes across South to Eastern Asia in our transient simulation (Fig.
715 S4). The iCESM-130ka simulation shows dominant anti-correlated precessional variability in
716 precipitation between India (representative of Southern Asia) and central China (Fig. 9a and
717 Fig. 9e). Furthermore, the amplitude of this variability is stronger (weaker) for high (low)
718 eccentricity values, such as during MIS 5a-e and MIS3. On the other hand, precessional-scale
719 variability in simulated KP precipitation, as well as in parts of southern China, is strongly
720 muted (Fig. 9c and Fig. 9g), as discussed above. Moreover, over the KP, we found that
721 precipitation exhibits an 11-kyr higher-order precessional harmonic, for instance, during MIS
722 5d and MIS 4 (Fig. 9g). This signal likely arises from the nonlinearity of the moisture transport
723 equation, which multiplies precessional-scale winds with precessional changes in moisture,
724 leading to semi-precessional variability.

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727 **Figure 9:** Simulated annual mean variations in precipitation (dots) for the last 130ka from an
728 orbital forced transient simulation conducted with iCESM1.2 for India (a,b), South China (c,d),
729 central China (e,f), and Korea (g,h) (see selected region boxes in Figure 8) in addition, colors
730 of dots show precipitation- $\delta^{18}O$ (pink to green, right panel) and d-excess (blue to red, left
731 panel) changes. Low insolation periods are marked by gray bars. The marine isotope stage
732 (MIS) is indicated above the top panel curves.

733
734 In the Indian region, apart from the strong precessional signals in precipitation, we see
735 precessional variability in d-excess and $\delta^{18}O_p$, with high (low) d-excess and depleted (enriched)
736 $\delta^{18}O_p$ values for high (low) insolation (Fig. 9a and Fig. 9b). Here, the change in d-excess values
737 is predominantly controlled by the surface conditions at the ISM moisture source region, that
738 is, high and low R_h s values for low and high precession conditions, respectively, as discussed
739 above. In central China, $\delta^{18}O_p$ varies in phase with the anomalies over India (Fig. 9b and Fig.
740 9f). However, their d-excess variations are essentially anti-correlated (Fig. 9a and Fig. 9e), in
741 particular for MIS5e and 5c, reflecting the complex interplay between the Indian and Pacific
742 Ocean moisture sources and continental moisture effects. Our results support the previously
743 suggested role of the ISM branch in controlling precipitation isotopic ratios across China (see
744 supporting Fig. S4a and Fig. S4b). Furthermore, we observe that KP precipitation and $\delta^{18}O_p$
745 exhibit little precessional variability due to the compensating effects described above. In
746 contrast, d-excess over the KP shows a more pronounced precessional signal (Fig. 9g). This d-
747 excess variability responds to the balance between oceanic and continental moisture transport
748 and changes in the surface conditions of source regions (i.e., R_h s) on precessional scales.
749 Moreover, the KP d-excess precessional-scale variability is a unique feature as compared to
750 other Eastern Asian regions, with high values occurring during MIS 5d, b, 4, and 2. The positive
751 feedback (kinetic effect) to the vapor d-excess could be even stronger for P_{max} relative to P_{min}
752 when dry/cold winds pass over the ocean (Yoshimura and Ichiyanagi, 2009) (e.g., the Yellow
753 Sea).

754

755 4 Summary and concluding remarks

756 Our study focuses on the muted precessional-scale hydroclimate variations in the KP region,
757 as observed in our transient climate model simulations and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ records from South Korean
758 caves. The muting of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$ signal can be attributed to compensating effects between
759 oceanic and continental moisture sources. We further explored how the KP hydroclimate is
760 linked to large-scale pan-Asian atmospheric variability. Our study illustrates that even along
761 the nodal line of the oxygen isotope dipole pattern, where $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{c}$ and the iCESM simulation
762 indicate weak precessional variability in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_\text{p}$, the d-excess may still contain important
763 precessional signals, which are associated with large-scale changes in Pacific, Indian, and
764 continental moisture source region conditions, driven by the precessional changes in the Asian
765 summer monsoon circulation and in the intensity of the WNPSH. Therefore, we advocate
766 validating model simulations using speleothem fluid inclusions (paleowater) to shed more light
767 on regional rainfall variability and large-scale atmospheric circulation changes across multiple
768 timescales, even in regions like the KP where oxygen isotope signals are muted.

769 Our simulations exhibit another interesting feature that has not previously been recognized:
770 simulated Korean precipitation shows evidence of semi-precessional hydroclimate variability.
771 A few studies have suggested that such semi-precessional signals may result from a response
772 to solar insolation in low latitudes, modulating the EASM. Other potential mechanisms include
773 combination tones of the moisture transport, emerging from the product between precessional
774 signals in specific humidity and atmospheric advection. However, the underlying mechanism
775 for the semi-precessional variability over the KP remains unclear and may require further
776 investigation.

777 The present study highlights the importance of a multi-proxy approach, utilizing additional
778 speleothem proxies, such as trace elements, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and growth rate or frequency, in conjunction

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781 with fluid inclusions (d-excess). While reconstructions of paleo-water d-excess provide
782 valuable information on past moisture source conditions and evaporation processes, suitable
783 fluid inclusions are not always preserved or available for analysis. In such cases, oxygen-17
784 excess (^{17}O -excess) measured directly from speleothem calcite and is not sensitive to
785 temperature variations, offers a promising complementary proxy (Sha et al., 2020, 2023).
786 Future paired measurements of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, d-excess, and ^{17}O -excess in speleothems could therefore
787 provide a powerful framework for testing the circulation and moisture-source mechanisms
788 inferred in this study. In addition, multiproxy speleothem data, along with data from marine
789 and lacustrine archives, may provide further insights into regional hydroclimatic variability in
790 the EASM region, and help reconcile different hydroclimatic records and elucidate their
791 underlying mechanisms.

Deleted: The present study highlights the importance of a multi-proxy approach, utilizing additional speleothem proxies, such as trace elements, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and growth rate or frequency, in conjunction with fluid inclusions. These proxies, along with data from marine and lacustrine archives, may provide further insights to help reconcile regional hydroclimatic records from the EASM region and elucidate their underlying mechanisms.

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816 Aleph. N.S. analyzed model data with inputs from A.T. and S.-S.L. N.S. prepared all figures,
817 interpreted the results with A.T., S.-S.L., and J.A.W., and wrote the first draft. Inputs from
818 A.T., D.M.C., J.A.W., and S.-S.L. improved the overall structure of the manuscript. All authors
819 reviewed the final manuscript.

820 **Data Availability:**

821 The Korean speleothem $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record is included in the supplementary material (Table S3).

822 **Competing interests:**

823 The author(s) declare no competing interests.

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1 **Muted orbital-scale Monsoon Variability over the Korean**
2 **Peninsula**

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20 **This file includes:**

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Section S1: Tagging Experiment

The water tagging experiment has been conducted with the iCESM₂ and we used the following source regions (Figure S7):

Land Tagging:

SAS - South Asia, **CAS** - Central Asia, **TAS** - Tropical Asia, **EAS** - East Asia, **NAS** - North Asia, **AFR** - Africa, **EUR** - Europe, **LND** - All land.

Ocean Tagging:

NNP - northern North Pacific, **SNP** - subtropical North Pacific, **EEP** - east equatorial Pacific, **WEP** - west equatorial Pacific, **SSP** - subtropical South Pacific, **EQI** - equatorial Indian, **SSI** - subtropical South Indian.

P is the total precipitation at the target location (KP) with contributions P_i from all the tagged source regions.

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i$$

$\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at a particular grid cell is the sum of precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}_i$ originating from all tagged source regions (i), weighted by their precipitation contribution:

$$\delta^{18}\text{O}_p = \sum_{i=1}^n \delta^{18}\text{O}_i \frac{P_i}{P}$$

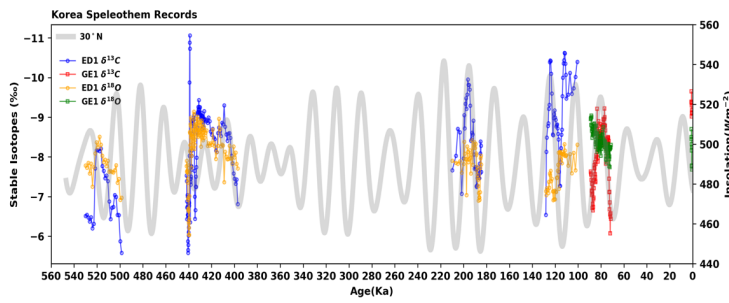


Fig. S1. Speleothem ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) records from Eden Cave (ED1) and Gwaneum Cave (GE1) in South Korea. Refer to Jo et al. (Jo et al., 2011, 2014) for further details.

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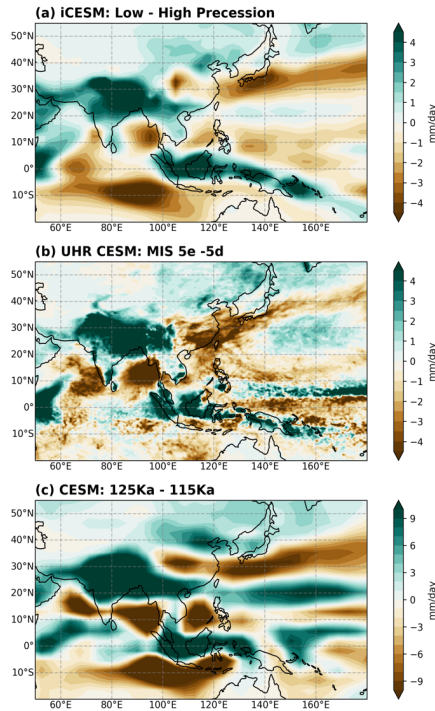


Fig. S2. Summer mean precipitation differences for (a) Low – High precession from iCESM simulation ($\sim 2^\circ$ horizontal resolution), (b) MIS5e – MIS5d from ultra-high-resolution (UHR) CESM simulations ($\sim 0.25^\circ$ horizontal resolution), and (c) time slices for 125 ka – 115 ka from 3Ma transient simulation. ($\sim 3.75^\circ$ horizontal resolution),

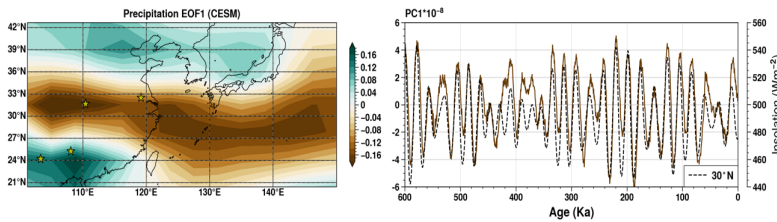


Fig. S3. First empirical orthogonal function (EOF1) for annual mean precipitation (shaded, left panel) and corresponding principal component (PC1) (brown curve, right panel) for Eastern Asia using 3Ma transient simulation. The EOF analysis is based on the last 600 kyr of the simulation. Major studied caves in China are marked by a yellow star symbol (left panel), refer to Figure 1. The black dashed curve represents summer insolation at 30°N (right panel).

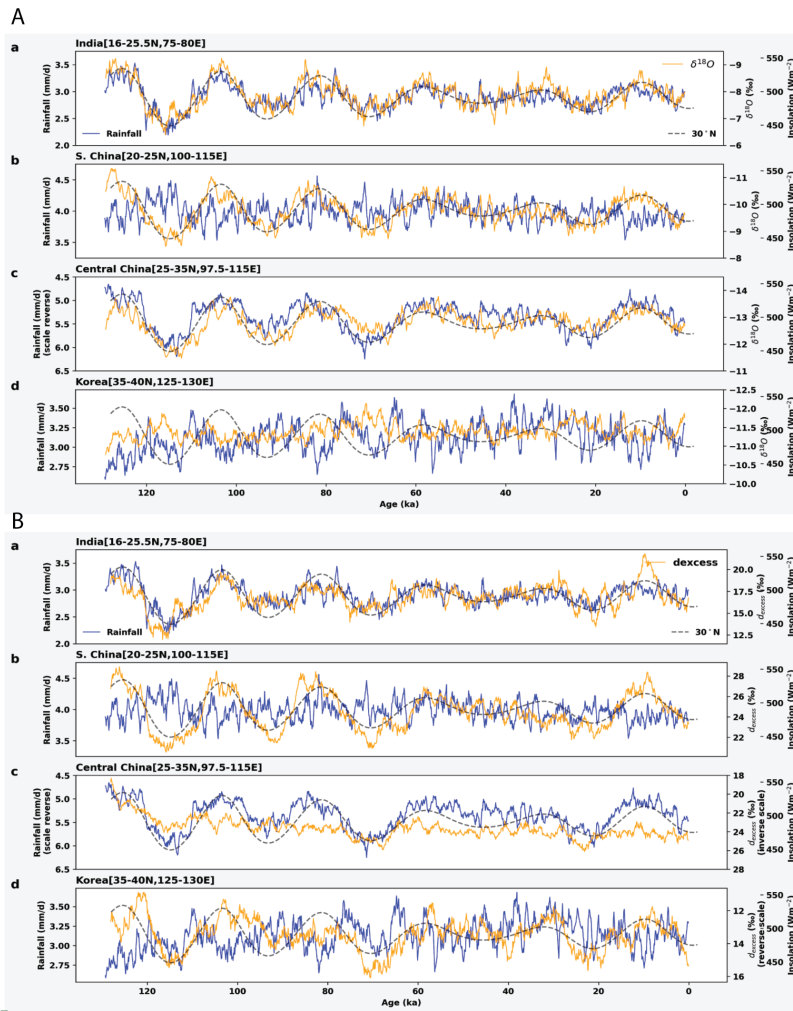


Fig. S4. Simulated annual mean variations in precipitation (blue curves) for (a) India, (b) South (S.) China, (c) central China, and (d) Korea in the last 130ka from an orbitally forced transient simulation conducted with iCESM1.2. Orange curves in panel A (B) show precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (d-excess). Dashed black curves represent insolation (30°N) insolation changes.

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Section S2

Beck's (Beck et al., 2018) ^{10}Be reconstruction corresponds well to simulated regional rainfall over the Loess area if we shift the ^{10}Be record by ~ 6 ka (Fig. S5c). The shifted ^{10}Be shows a higher correlation ($R^2 = 0.30$) with the simulated rainfall than the reported $R^2 = 0.16$ with the Sanbao $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sp}}$ record. The ^{10}Be record (6 ka shifted) also matches quite well with *Cryptomeria* pollen records from Japan (Hayashi et al., 2021; Igarashi and Oba, 2006) (Figure 3c). Now, we understand that the precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ spatial patterns as a grand dipole response to orbital forcing (Wen et al., 2024). The age shift may be justified as ^{10}Be age determination uses one of the assumptions that the Chinese speleothem- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record was controlled by regional EASM rainfall intensity. Moreover, our model simulations also do not support the EASM precipitation and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ uniform temporal or spatial relationship throughout the region on orbital timescales, such as Chinese speleothem- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ does not correspond well with simulated China rainfall but with India rainfall (Fig. S5a and S5b).

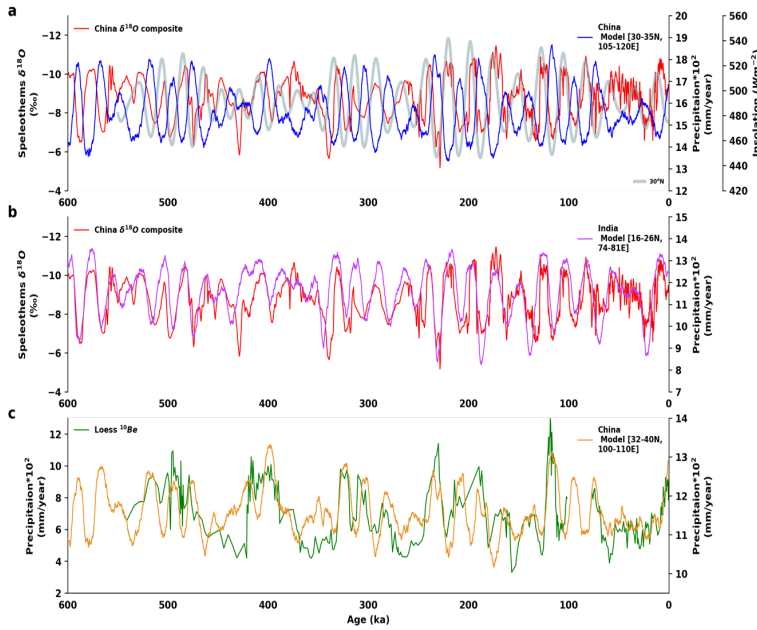


Fig. S5 Comparison of simulated precipitation change by 3 Ma transient simulation (only the last 600 kyr are shown here) and proxies from (a) Eastern Asia and China speleothem- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ composite record, (b) India and China speleothem- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ composite record, and (c) China and Loess ^{10}Be record. Summer insolation at 30°N is shown in panel (a).

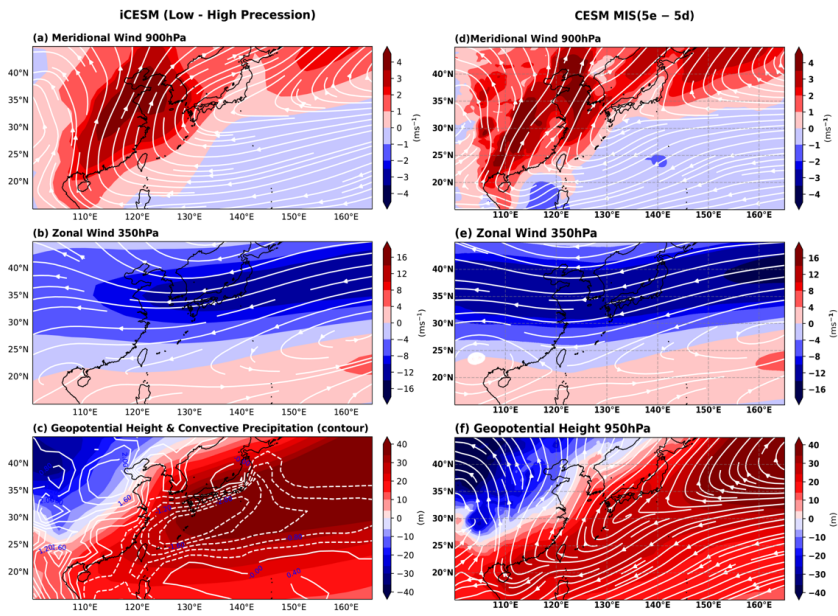


Fig. S6 Differences between P_{min} and P_{max} in iCESM-130ka (left panels) and between hiresCESM-5d and hiresCESM-5e (right panels). (a)(d) Meridional wind at 900 hPa (shading) and streamlines. (b)(e) Zonal wind at 350 hPa (shading) and streamlines. (c) Geopotential height 950 hPa (shading) and convective precipitation (contour). (f) Geopotential height 950 hPa (shading) and streamlines.

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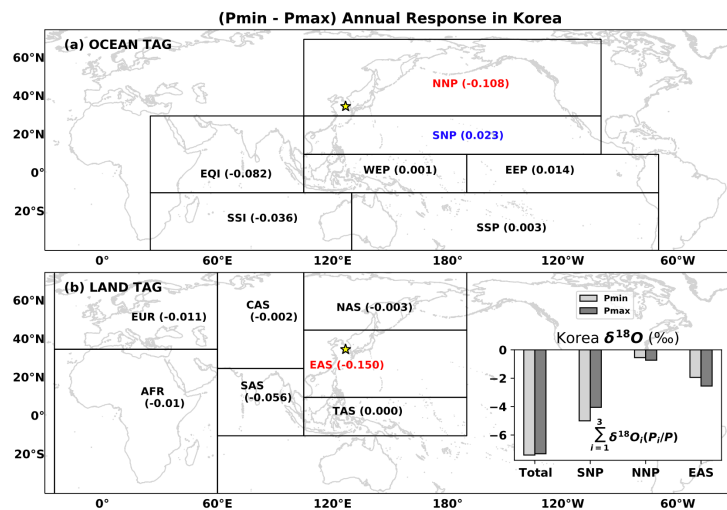
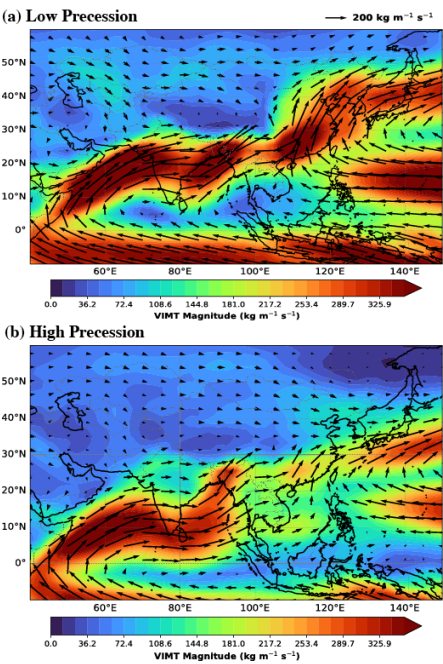


Figure S7. Differences in annual precipitation (mm/day) on the Korean Peninsula between P_{min} and P_{max} from various moisture sources over (a) ocean and (b) land. Color text is a major contributor to the Korean Peninsula (blue positive and red negative for $P_{min} - P_{max}$). Inset plot (lower right): the summer precipitation $\delta^{18}O$ in Korea from major and near-source contributors from Land (EAS) and the Ocean (SNP, NNP). “Total” represents the precipitation- $\delta^{18}O$ combination from all tag regions in Korea. Korea is marked by a yellow star.

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119 **Fig. S8.** Vertically integrated moisture transport (VIMT) during boreal summer (JJA) under low precession (a)
120 and high precession (b) conditions. VIMT magnitude (kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹) showing the spatial distribution and intensity of
121 moisture transport across Asia. Black arrows indicate VIMT vector direction and relative magnitude (reference
122 vector: 200 kg m⁻¹ s⁻¹).

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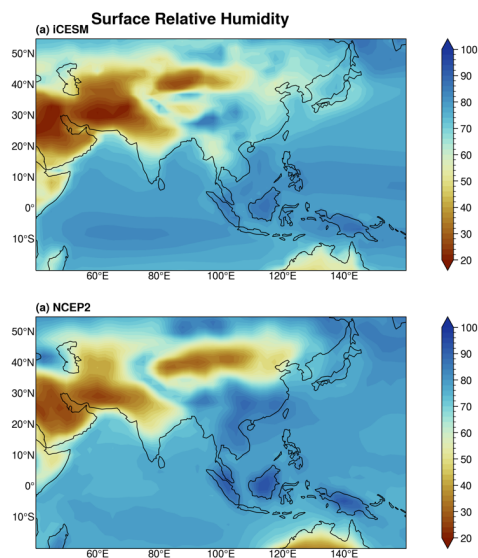


Fig. S9. (a) Relative humidity simulated in iCESM for present day conditions in comparison to (b) NCEP2 reanalysis data for the last 40 years (accessed through APDRC OPeNDAP Server (<http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/index.php>)). Model captures the spatial pattern reasonably well, except lower humidity over the southeast Asian region.

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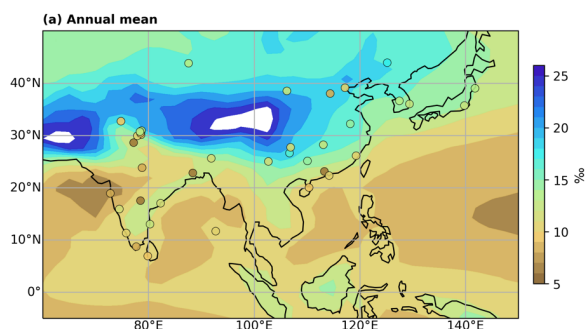


Fig. S10. Present day iCESM simulated (shaded) d-excess and GNIP sites (circle) annual mean d-excess comparison.

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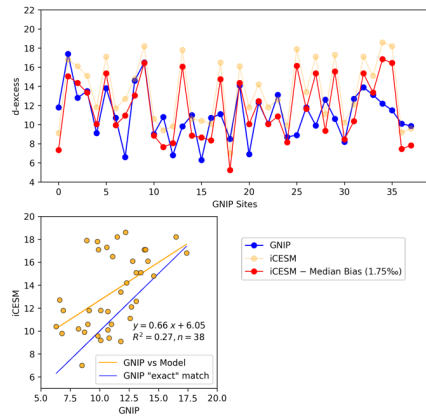


Fig. S11. Upper panel shows the series of d -excess values for 38 Asian sites, GNIP (blue), iCESM (orange), and iCESM Median bias adjusted (red). Lower left panel shows the correlation between simulated and GNIP mean annual d -excess values for Asian sites. Note: All Asian GNIP sites are considered here, a screening has been applied, such as only the sites which have at least 2 years of data.

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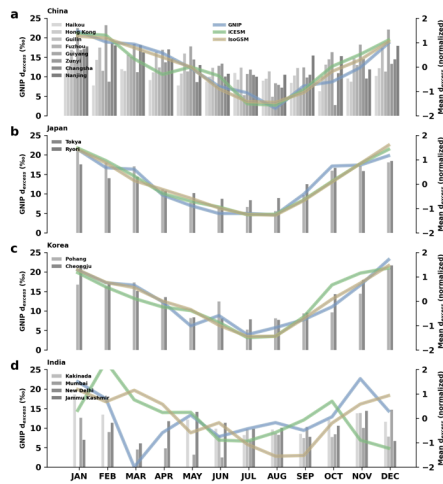


Fig. S12. A comparison between the monthly climatology of d -excess from GNIP (light blue), iCESM simulation (light green), and IsoGSM2 (light brown) for some of the sites from China, Japan, Korea, and India. Gray bars show mean monthly d -excess for individual GNIP sites, gray shading represents site latitude from low to high (lighter to darker).

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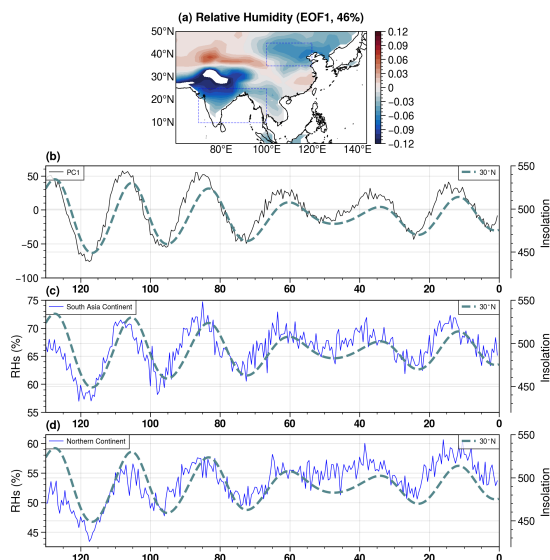


Fig. S13. First empirical orthogonal function (EOF1(a)) and corresponding principal component (PC1, b) for the summer mean surface relative humidity for the 130 ka transient simulation on iCESM1.2. Temporal evolution of surface relative humidity over continental regions (c, d). The selected boxes are shown on the spatial map (a). The dashed curve represents summer insolation at 30°N. It is worth mentioning here that the EAS region in the tagging experiments covers the Chinese continent up to 45°N and 100°E.

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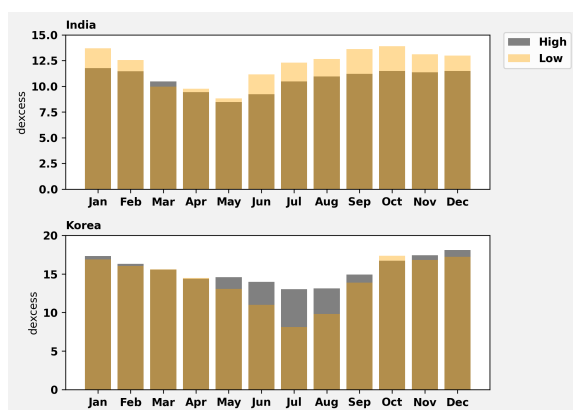
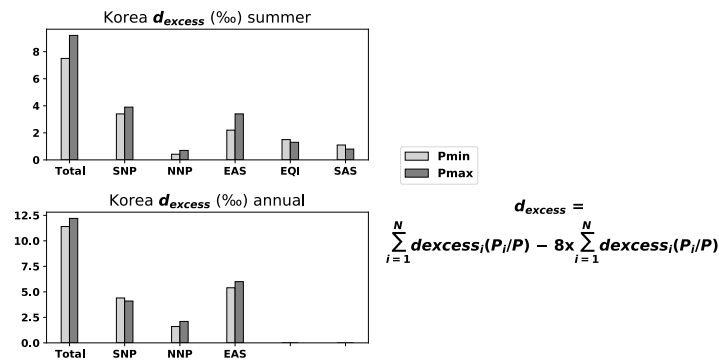


Fig. S14. d-excess monthly climatology for low precession (Low) and high precession (High) over the Indian and the Korean regions.

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Figure S15: The summer and annual precipitation d-excess in Korea from major and near-source contributors from land and ocean. "Total" represents the d-excess from all tag regions to Korea.

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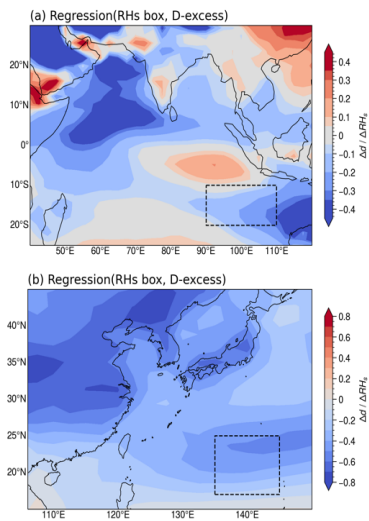


Fig. S16. (a) Southern Indian Ocean (10-20°S; 90-110°E) and (b) Northwest Pacific Ocean (15-25°N; 135-145°E) surface relative (Rel.) humidity (RHs) regressed over the spatial d-excess(d) values for 130 ka transient simulation. The shading shows slope; $\Delta d/\Delta RH_s$.

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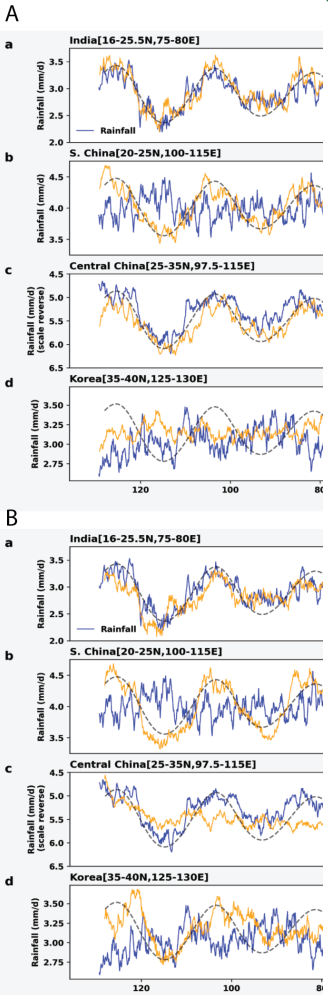
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Table S1: Details on the speleothem stable isotopes records and other proxies used in this study.

Speleothem- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records			
	~ Ages (ka)	Location ($^{\circ}\text{N}/^{\circ}\text{E}$)	Reference
Korea			
1. Eden cave (ED1)	100 – 128, 184 – 209, 397 – 442, 498 – 530	37.10/128.50	(Jo et al., 2011, 2014)
2. Gwaneum cave (GE1)	0.70 – 1.18, 71 – 89	37.32/129.03	
China			
1. Composite	0 – 640	several	(Cheng et al., 2016)
Other proxy records	~ Ages (ka)	Location ($^{\circ}\text{N}/^{\circ}\text{E}$)	Reference
1. Loess ^{10}Be	0 – 84 and 107 – 550	34.43/107.12	(Beck et al., 2018)
2. U1427 pollen	0.65 – 551	35.96/134.43	(Hayashi et al., 2021)
3. Lake Biwa	1.8 – 134.3 and 0 - 430	~35/~136	(Hayashi et al., 2017; Tarasov et al., 2011)
Atmospheric CO_2			
1. EPICA Dome CO_2	0-800	-75.1/158.72	(Lüthi et al., n.d.)

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Fig. S16. Simulated annual mean variations in precipitation (blue curves) for (a) India, (b) South (S.) China, (c) central China, and (d) Korea in the last 130ka from an orbitally forced transient simulation conducted with iCESM1.2. Orange curves in panel A (B) show precipitation- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (d-excess). Dashed black curves represent insolation (30°N) insolation changes.

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183 **Table S2: Tagging results.** Blank spaces indicate tag regions not used in the total calculation (column “Total”),
184 as they have no contribution to the anomalous $\delta^{18}O_p$ (Pmin- Pmax).
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(a) d18O																
Annual	SNP Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	NNP Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	EAS Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	EQI Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	SAS Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	Total P d18O
Pmax	0.99	-11.26	-3.43	0.44	-4.49	-0.62	1.31	-5.32	-2.16	0.2773	-16.81	-1.44	0.215	-16.67	-1.11	3.24 -8.76
Pmin	1.01	-12.31	-4.34	0.34	-4.07	-0.48	1.16	-4.13	-1.68	0.1955	-19.36	-1.32	0.159	-19.09	-1.06	2.86 -8.88
Pmin - Pmax	0.023		-0.91			0.14			0.48			0.12			0.05	-0.37 -0.12
Pmax	0.99	-11.26	-4.05	0.44	-4.49	-0.73	1.31	-5.32	-2.55							2.74 -7.32
Pmin	1.01	-12.31	-4.96	0.34	-4.07	-0.55	1.16	-4.13	-1.91							2.51 -7.42
Pmin - Pmax	0.023		-0.91			0.18			0.63							-0.23 -0.09
Summer	Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	Pi	d18Oi	d18Oi*(Pi/P)	P d18O
Pmax	1.60	-7.48	-2.41	0.37	-4.18	-0.31	1.76	-4.67	-1.66	0.73	-10.26	-1.50	0.502	-9.54	-0.97	4.96 -6.85
Pmin	2.00	-5.76	-2.20	0.23	-5.53	-0.24	1.87	-3.78	-1.35	0.63	-13.35	-1.61	0.518	-12.56	-1.24	5.24 -6.63
Pmin - Pmax	0.400		0.22			0.07			0.31			-0.11			-0.28	0.28 0.22
(b) dD																
Annual	SNP Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	NNP Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	EAS Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	EQI Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	SAS Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	Total P d18O
Pmax	0.99	-78.75	-28.33	0.44	-23.89	-3.71	1.31	-30.03	-14.36							2.74 -46.40
Pmin	1.01	-87.61	-35.27	0.34	-20.25	-2.72	1.16	-21.30	-9.86							2.51 -47.85
Pmin - Pmax	0.023		-6.94			0.99			4.49							-0.23 -1.45
Summer	SNP Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	NNP Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	EAS Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	EQI Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	SAS Pi	dDi	dDi*(Pi/P)	Total P d18O
Pmax	1.60	-49.11	-15.85	0.37	-25.20	-1.88	1.76	-28.64	-10.17	0.73	-74.25	-10.86	0.502	-68.43	-6.93	4.96 -45.69
Pmin	2.00	-38.14	-14.56	0.23	-35.55	-1.53	1.87	-24.57	-8.74	0.63	-95.66	-11.54	0.518	-89.5	-8.85	5.24 -45.21
Pmin - Pmax	0.400		1.29			0.35			1.42			-0.67			-1.92	0.28 0.48
(c) d-excess																
Annual	SNP Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	NNP Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	EAS Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	EQI Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	SAS Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	Total P dexc
Pmax	0.99	11.33	4.08	0.44	13.00	2.11	1.31	12.55	6.00							2.74 12.19
Pmin	1.01	10.87	4.38	0.34	12.29	1.65	1.16	11.76	5.45							2.51 11.47
Pmin - Pmax	0.023		0.30			-0.46			-0.55							-0.23 -0.71
Summer	SNP Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	NNP Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	EAS Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	EQI Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	SAS Pi	dex_i	dex_i*(Pi/P)	Total P dexc
Pmax	1.60	10.73	3.46	0.37	8.20	0.61	1.76	8.70	3.09	0.73	7.83	1.15	0.502	7.89	0.80	4.96 9.11
Pmin	2.00	7.94	3.03	0.23	8.71	0.37	1.87	5.67	2.02	0.63	11.14	1.34	0.518	10.98	1.09	5.24 7.85
Pmin - Pmax	0.400		-0.43			-0.24			-1.07			0.20			0.29	0.28 -1.26

Table S3: Korean Speleothem- $\delta^{18}O$ records.

(a) Eden Cave		(b) Gwaneum Cave	
Age (ka BP)	$\delta^{18}O$ (‰, VPDB)	Age (ka BP)	$\delta^{18}O$ (‰, VPDB)
128.19	-7.14	89.00	-8.95
127.77	-7.04	88.83	-8.98
127.34	-7.21	88.66	-8.81
126.49	-7.18	88.49	-9.04
126.06	-7.09	88.32	-9.00
125.63	-7.37	88.15	-8.78
125.21	-7.22	87.98	-8.66
124.78	-7.58	87.81	-8.70
124.36	-7.54	87.64	-8.48
123.93	-7.65	87.47	-8.57
123.50	-7.39	87.30	-8.70
123.08	-7.45	87.13	-8.56
122.22	-7.13	86.96	-8.76
121.80	-6.91	86.79	-8.67
121.37	-7.13	86.62	-8.63
120.94	-6.93	86.45	-8.60
120.52	-7.15	86.28	-8.58
120.09	-6.93	86.11	-8.82
119.66	-7.13	85.94	-8.84
119.24	-7.12	85.77	-8.77
118.81	-7.47	85.60	-8.74
118.39	-7.48	85.43	-8.52
117.96	-7.65	85.26	-8.78
117.53	-7.80	85.09	-8.61
117.11	-8.11	84.92	-8.37
116.68	-7.20	84.75	-8.32
116.25	-8.13	84.58	-8.25
115.83	-8.12	84.41	-8.43
115.40	-8.10	84.24	-8.79
114.97	-7.94	84.07	-8.58
114.55	-8.08	83.90	-8.59
114.12	-7.84	83.73	-8.60
113.70	-8.12	83.56	-8.34
113.27	-8.07	83.39	-8.13
112.84	-8.08	83.22	-8.27
112.42	-8.04	83.05	-8.39
111.99	-8.32	82.88	-8.18
111.56	-8.16	82.71	-8.40
111.14	-8.02	82.54	-8.64

110.71	-8.04	82.37	-8.52
110.28	-8.04	82.20	-8.49
108.70	-7.78	82.03	-8.37
107.12	-8.07	81.86	-8.32
105.54	-7.59	81.69	-8.38
103.96	-8.10	81.52	-8.17
102.38	-7.66	81.35	-8.21
100.80	-8.31	81.18	-8.24
		81.01	-8.25
209.89	-7.90	80.84	-8.14
206.62	-7.85	80.67	-8.27
204.98	-7.83	80.50	-8.27
203.35	-7.89	80.33	-8.53
201.71	-7.60	80.16	-8.03
200.08	-7.82	79.99	-8.36
199.54	-8.38	79.82	-8.47
199.01	-8.08	79.65	-8.20
198.47	-7.94	79.48	-8.29
197.93	-7.95	79.31	-8.40
197.40	-7.04	79.14	-8.30
196.86	-8.26	78.97	-8.57
196.33	-8.13	78.80	-8.56
195.79	-7.87	78.63	-8.63
195.26	-7.94	78.46	-8.54
194.72	-8.17	78.29	-8.46
194.18	-7.97	78.12	-8.35
193.65	-7.58	77.95	-8.75
193.11	-8.06	77.78	-8.41
192.58	-8.42	77.61	-8.43
192.04	-7.80	77.44	-8.34
191.51	-8.23	77.27	-8.36
190.97	-8.32	77.10	-8.37
190.43	-8.37	76.93	-8.30
189.90	-8.23	76.76	-8.39
189.36	-8.33	76.59	-8.25
189.10	-8.09	76.42	-8.38
188.83	-8.05	76.25	-8.25
188.57	-7.66	76.08	-8.15
188.31	-7.75	75.91	-8.03
188.04	-7.55	75.74	-7.94
187.78	-7.47	75.57	-7.92
187.51	-7.42	75.40	-8.19
187.25	-7.26	75.23	-7.86

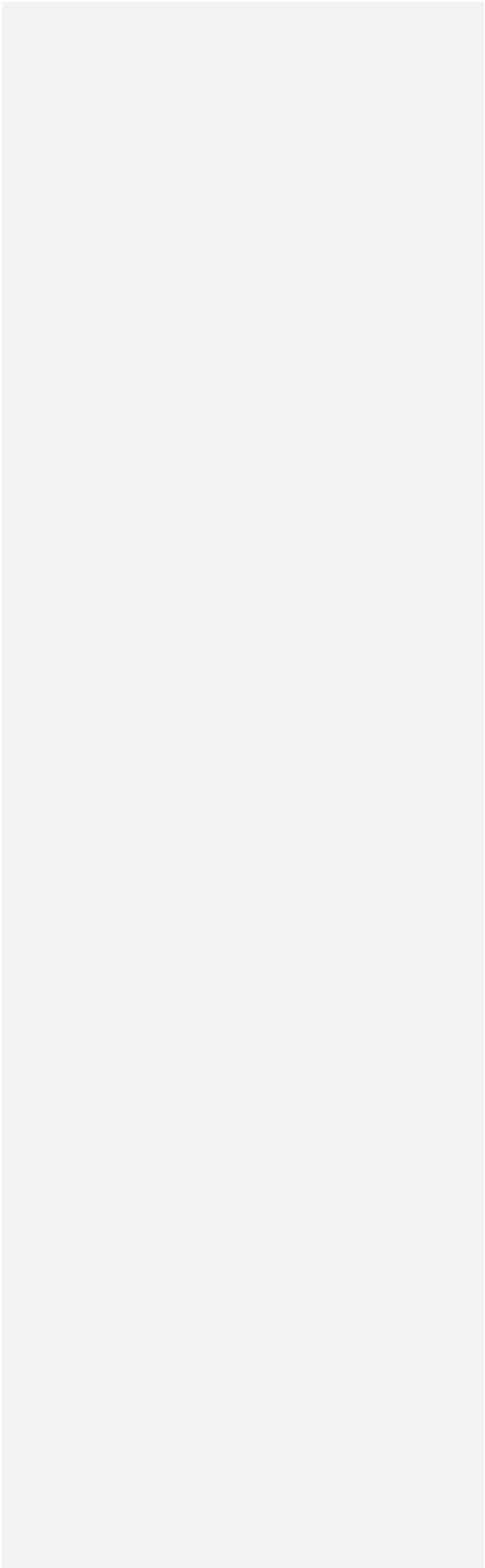
186.98	-6.90	75.06	-8.29
186.72	-7.09	74.89	-8.22
186.45	-6.98	74.72	-8.18
186.19	-6.98	74.55	-8.21
185.93	-6.92	74.38	-8.31
185.66	-7.11	74.21	-8.23
185.40	-7.72	74.04	-8.15
185.13	-7.97	73.87	-8.33
184.87	-8.03	73.70	-8.10
184.60	-7.81	73.53	-8.02
		73.36	-8.11
441.84	-7.77	73.19	-8.05
441.72	-7.90	73.02	-7.77
441.60	-7.63	72.85	-7.94
441.48	-7.64	72.68	-8.19
441.36	-7.62	72.51	-8.01
441.24	-7.61	72.34	-7.74
441.13	-7.66	72.17	-8.20
441.01	-7.79	72.00	-8.25
440.89	-7.35	71.83	-8.23
440.77	-7.44	71.66	-8.24
440.65	-6.92	71.49	-8.30
440.53	-6.97		
440.42	-6.67	1.18	-8.45
440.30	-6.70	1.12	-8.50
440.18	-6.63	1.06	-8.70
440.06	-6.37	1.00	-8.16
439.94	-6.04	0.94	-8.32
439.82	-6.32	0.88	-7.77
439.71	-6.21	0.82	-8.24
439.59	-6.44	0.76	-7.68
439.47	-6.03	0.70	-7.78
439.35	-7.01		
439.23	-7.61		
439.11	-8.63		
439.00	-8.60		
438.88	-8.15		
438.64	-8.30		
438.52	-8.83		
438.40	-8.78		
438.17	-8.99		
438.05	-8.50		
437.93	-8.94		

437.81	-8.56
437.69	-8.67
437.58	-7.73
437.46	-8.21
437.22	-8.03
436.99	-8.58
436.76	-8.51
436.52	-8.54
436.29	-8.22
436.06	-8.40
435.82	-8.69
435.59	-9.14
435.36	-9.08
435.12	-8.66
434.89	-8.20
434.66	-8.43
434.42	-8.30
434.19	-8.79
433.96	-8.72
433.72	-8.83
433.49	-8.52
433.26	-8.96
433.02	-8.63
432.79	-8.85
432.56	-8.69
432.32	-9.01
432.09	-8.68
431.86	-8.95
431.62	-8.51
431.39	-8.62
431.16	-8.55
430.92	-8.61
430.69	-8.69
430.46	-8.87
430.22	-8.65
429.99	-8.81
429.76	-8.89
429.52	-8.55
429.29	-8.26
429.06	-8.67
428.82	-8.50
428.59	-8.92
428.36	-8.74

428.12	-8.84
427.89	-8.60
427.66	-8.47
427.42	-8.42
427.19	-8.63
426.96	-8.71
426.72	-8.77
426.49	-8.68
426.26	-8.49
425.35	-8.61
424.44	-8.67
423.53	-8.28
422.63	-8.34
421.72	-8.29
420.81	-8.34
419.90	-8.31
418.99	-8.69
418.09	-8.36
417.18	-8.27
416.27	-7.95
415.36	-8.12
414.45	-8.28
413.55	-8.96
412.64	-8.70
411.73	-8.27
410.82	-8.31
409.91	-8.29
409.00	-7.36
408.10	-8.13
407.19	-8.01
406.28	-7.94
405.37	-7.95
404.46	-8.28
403.56	-7.96
402.65	-7.96
401.74	-7.82
400.83	-8.26
399.92	-7.99
399.02	-8.11
398.11	-7.82
397.20	-7.71
529.99	-7.78

528.78	-7.73
527.57	-7.85
526.36	-7.58
525.15	-7.83
523.94	-7.25
522.73	-7.74
521.52	-8.09
520.31	-8.37
519.10	-8.24
517.89	-8.51
516.68	-8.31
515.47	-8.03
514.26	-7.87
513.04	-7.93
511.83	-7.77
510.62	-7.90
509.41	-7.63
508.20	-7.64
506.99	-7.62
505.78	-7.61
504.57	-7.66
503.36	-7.79
502.15	-7.35
500.94	-7.44
499.73	-6.92
498.52	-6.97

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