



# A Phanerozoic-style icehouse climate in the middle Ediacaran

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**Abstract.** Geological evidence points to icehouse conditions during the Ediacaran Period (635 to 538.8 Ma) both before and  
15 during the emergence of animals in the fossil record. However, the temporal and spatial distributions of Ediacaran ice sheets  
are not well constrained due to uncertainties in palaeogeography, chronostratigraphy, and the depositional settings of candidate  
glaciogenic deposits. Here, we systematically evaluate the evidence for the depositional ages of candidate Ediacaran  
glaciogenic deposits and establish the likelihood that each deposit was formed by ice-driven processes using observation-  
driven weighting criteria. Our analysis supports the existence of discrete mid- and late Ediacaran icehouse intervals (MEIH  
20 and LEIH respectively), each followed by greenhouse conditions. Focussing on the older MEIH, we integrate our quality-  
controlled geological dataset with climate and ice sheet model simulations to characterise glacial conditions during this interval  
(~593 to 579 Ma), which encompasses the 'Gaskiers glaciation'. Our results indicate that the MEIH was a Phanerozoic-style  
icehouse, with latitudinally-constrained and fluctuating ice sheets, marking a break from the preceding Cryogenian snowball  
Earth motif, and occurring before the first known appearance of animals in the fossil record. By mapping robustly identified  
25 glaciogenic deposits onto contrasting middle Ediacaran palaeogeographic reconstructions, we show how these deposits can be  
used to constrain hypotheses of Ediacaran continental configuration.

## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Icehouse intervals in Earth history

Throughout the Phanerozoic Eon (~538.8 Ma to present), Earth's climate has alternated between two primary states, icehouse  
30 and greenhouse (e.g. Fischer, 1981; Judd et al., 2024; Macdonald et al., 2019; Scotese et al., 2021; Umbgrove, 1947;  
Westerhold et al., 2020). To a first approximation, conditions during the various Phanerozoic icehouse intervals were  
remarkably consistent in terms of global mean surface temperatures (Judd et al., 2024; Scotese et al., 2021; Westerhold et al.,  
2020) and the maximum latitudinal extent of low-altitude ice sheets (Evans, 2003; Macdonald et al., 2019; Merdith et al.,



2025). Coupled climate-ice sheet model simulations suggest that the land-ice front readily advances to  $\sim 40^\circ$  latitude, but  
 35 feedbacks between ice sheets and global climate cause the ice line to stabilise at these latitudes, and the steep temperature  
 gradient towards the equator makes further ice advance much more challenging to achieve (Pohl et al., 2016a).  
 However, this pattern does not hold for earlier icehouse intervals in Earth’s history (Hoffman et al., 1998, 2017; Kirschvink,  
 1992). Rocks deposited during the Neoproterozoic Cryogenian Period ( $\sim 720$  to 635 Ma) contain evidence that has been  
 interpreted as recording two episodes of extreme ‘snowball Earth’ glaciation, with global or near-global ice coverage (Evans,  
 40 2003; Hoffman et al., 1998, 2017; Kirschvink, 1992). Simple energy balance models and some more complex general  
 circulation models suggest that feedbacks in the climate system render a snowball-style glaciation inevitable once the ice line  
 reaches tropical latitudes (e.g. Budyko, 1969; Hoffman et al., 2017; Tasistro-Hart et al., 2025). The Cryogenian and  
 Phanerozoic therefore present two distinct modes of icehouse climate state on Earth (Table 1), and the change between these  
 modes has been implicated in the emergence of animals during the Ediacaran Period ( $\sim 635$  to 538.8 Ma) (e.g. Evans, 2003).  
 45 The Ediacaran Period was a transformational interval for the Earth system bridging the Proterozoic and Phanerozoic worlds,  
 and witnessed the emergence of marine ecosystems with complex macroscopic organisms including animals (Boag et al., 2024;  
 Matthews et al., 2021; Pu et al., 2016; Rooney et al., 2020; Xiao and Narbonne, 2020; Yang et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2011).  
 Resolving the nature of Ediacaran climate is thus crucial to understanding the primary controls on Earth’s climate system, the  
 timing of the transition from ‘snowball Earth’ to Phanerozoic-type climate states, and the interplay of the physical Earth system  
 50 with biotic innovations through this interval (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). In this study, we set out to test climate and ice sheet  
 model simulations against the geological record of mid-Ediacaran glacial ice to provide a robust first-order constraint on the  
 nature of the Ediacaran climate system.

**Table 1. A summary of Neoproterozoic and Phanerozoic icehouse climate intervals. See Data S2.**

Name	Duration	Lowest latitude of low altitude ice sheets	References
Late Cenozoic icehouse	Eocene-Oligocene transition to present day ( $\sim 34$ to 0 Ma)	$\sim 40^\circ$	Macdonald et al. (2019)
Late Palaeozoic Ice Age (LPIA)	Middle Mississippian to Guadalupian ( $\sim 340$ to 260 Ma)	$\sim 40^\circ$	Macdonald et al. (2019)
Late Devonian icehouse (the early part of or a prelude to the LPIA)	Famennian ( $\sim 365$ to 357 Ma)	$\sim 70^\circ$	Macdonald et al. (2019)
Early Palaeozoic icehouse	Ordovician to Silurian ( $\sim 460$ to 420 Ma)	$\sim 40^\circ$	Macdonald et al. (2019)
Late Ediacaran icehouse (LEIH)	Late Ediacaran ( $\sim 565$ or 560 to 550 Ma)	Uncertain; not global	Wong Hearing et al. (2026) and this study
Mid-Ediacaran icehouse (MEIH)	Mid-Ediacaran ( $\sim 593$ to 579 Ma)	$\sim 40^\circ$ (PALEOMAP); $\sim 30^\circ$ (MERDITH2021)	This study
Marinoan icehouse	Late Cryogenian (650 or 639 to 635 Ma)	Global?	Hoffman et al. (2017); Tasistro-Hart et al. (2025)
Sturtian icehouse	Early to mid-Cryogenian (717 to 659 Ma)	Global?	Hoffman et al. (2017); Tasistro-Hart et al. (2025)



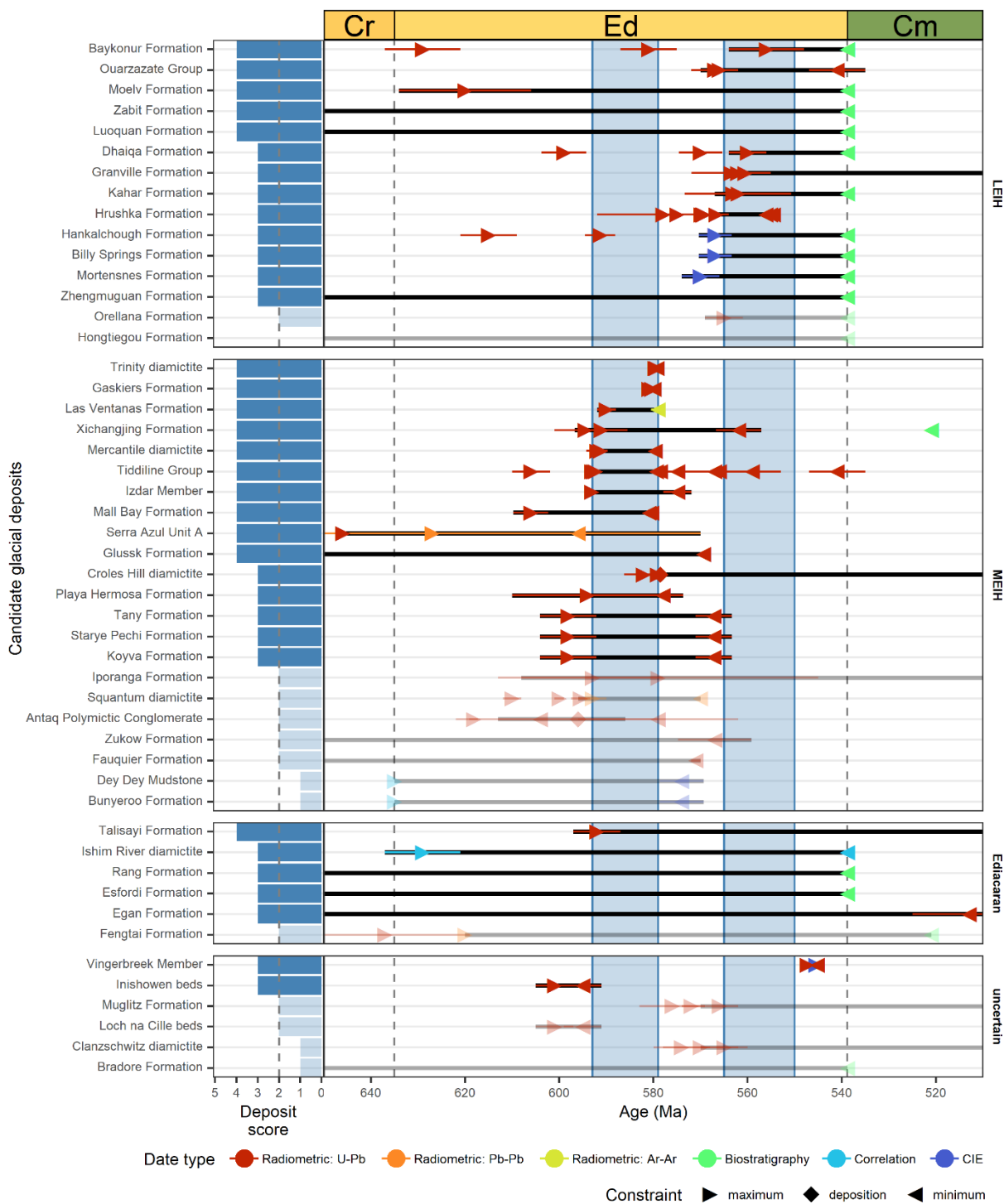
## 1.2 Icehouse conditions in the Ediacaran Period

55 There is strong evidence for at least one, and possibly up to four, major glaciations during the Ediacaran Period (Chumakov, 2009; Linnemann et al., 2018, 2022; Liu et al., 2025; Niu et al., 2024; Pu et al., 2016; Retallack, 2022; Wang et al., 2023a, b; Wong Hearing et al., 2026; Youbi et al., 2020). Confusion has developed in the published literature regarding the number and temporal distribution of candidate Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits and, therefore, of glacial episodes, largely because of a lack of consideration of the geological constraints on the depositional age and formation conditions of these deposits (Wong  
60 Hearing et al., 2026). In particular, two schools of thought have developed: one which interprets the record as reflecting a series of discrete glacial episodes (Linnemann et al., 2018, 2022; Niu et al., 2024; Retallack, 2022; Youbi et al., 2020), and one which interprets the record as reflecting a single 20 to 40 million year ‘great late Ediacaran ice age’ (Liu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023a, b). An extraordinary palaeogeographic hypothesis of inertial interchange true polar wander has been invoked to explain the distribution of candidate glacial deposits under the great late Ediacaran ice age model (Wang et al., 2023a).

65 Our previous work, updated here (Fig. 1), evaluated the likelihood that candidate mid- to late Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits were in fact mid- to late Ediacaran in age and glacial in origin (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). We found that careful consideration of the evidence for both depositional age and environment indicates that there were most likely two icehouse intervals and two greenhouse intervals in the mid- to late Ediacaran (Fig. 1), which correspond with distinct biotic assemblages in the fossil record (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). In particular, we found that there was an absence of well-constrained glaciogenic deposits  
70 between 579 to 565 Ma, including in regions that have positive evidence of well-constrained glaciogenic deposits before and after this interval, supporting two distinct icehouse climate states: the ‘mid-Ediacaran icehouse’ (MEIH) and the ‘late Ediacaran icehouse’ (LEIH) (Wong Hearing et al., 2026).

### 1.3 The ‘mid-Ediacaran icehouse’ (MEIH)

In this study we focus on constraining the timing, palaeogeographic extent, and climatic characteristics of the first of the glacial  
75 intervals, the ‘mid-Ediacaran icehouse’. The MEIH has primarily been associated with deposits of the Gaskiers Formation and the Trinity diamictite of eastern Newfoundland, Canada, which were interpreted as recording a short-lived glaciation (possibly as little as 1 Myr duration; Pu et al., 2016) of uncertain geographical extent. However, recently discovered field evidence suggests that these iconic deposits represent the final phase of a more protracted cold interval on Avalonia (Fitzgerald et al., 2024; Gómez et al., 2025a, b, 2026; Mills et al., 2024). Underlying the Gaskiers Formation, rocks of the Mall Bay Formation  
80 were deposited proximal to sea level freezing conditions for perhaps the preceding 5 Myr (Fitzgerald et al., 2024). Recent radiometric dating and sedimentological work on the Rocky Harbour Group, containing the Trinity and Mercantile diamictites, also suggest that glacial conditions existed on Avalonia between ~589 to 579 Ma (Gómez et al., 2025a, b, 2026; Mills et al., 2024). Additional candidate glaciogenic deposits generally correlated with the Gaskiers Formation (Carto and Eyles, 2011; Letsch et al., 2018; Linnemann et al., 2018; Niu et al., 2024; Pecoits et al., 2011; Thompson and Bowring, 2000; Youbi et al.,  
85 2020) further support a longer duration icehouse interval terminating at ~579 Ma (Fig. 1).





90 **Fig. 1. Temporal distribution of Ediacaran candidate glaciogenic deposits and their likelihood (deposit score) of having a glacial origin. Deposits arranged by likely interval: MEIH = mid-Ediacaran icehouse, ~593 to 579 Ma; LEIH = late Ediacaran icehouse, ~565 to 550 Ma; “Ediacaran” deposits are constrained only to the Ediacaran Period; “uncertain” deposits may be Ediacaran in age but have unreliable or disputed age constraints (see Supplementary Information). Deposits scoring less than three stars (less than circumstantial) are faded out. Thick solid lines show the maximum permitted range for each deposit, including analytical uncertainty where relevant. Symbols show the type of constraint, i.e. whether the date provides a minimum, maximum, or depositional age for a deposit. Vertical blue regions show the likely intervals of the MEIH and LEIH. CIE: carbon isotope excursion; Cr: Cryogenian (pars.); Ed: Ediacaran; Cm: Cambrian (pars.). See Wong Hearing et al. (2026).**

#### 95 1.4 Palaeogeography and modelling Ediacaran climate

In contrast to the preceding Cryogenian, there have been few attempts to use numerical models to simulate Ediacaran climate (e.g. Godd ris et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2025). This is likely to reflect uncertainty in reconstructing palaeogeography during this period, which is a required boundary condition for general circulation models. A disparate range of palaeogeographic hypotheses have been suggested for the Ediacaran (e.g. Domeier et al., 2023; Merdith et al., 2021; Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018; Wen et al., 2022), and Ediacaran palaeogeography remains uncertain in part because palaeomagnetic data from this interval are very difficult to interpret (Domeier et al., 2023). Possible explanations include remagnetisation, anomalous magnetic field behaviour, anomalously high rates of plate motion, or one or more intervals of inertial interchange true polar wander (TPW) in which Earth’s continents rapidly reorientated relative to its rotation and magnetic field axes (Domeier et al., 2023).

105 Late Ediacaran redistribution of the continents due to TPW (Wen et al., 2022) has been invoked to support the hypothesis of a ‘great late Ediacaran ice age’ (Liu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023a, b). In particular, a recent modelling study set out to test whether the ‘great late Ediacaran ice age’ could be sustained over most of the late Ediacaran interval (~580 to <560 Ma) and explain the observed distribution of glacial deposits using a TPW-derived palaeogeographic configuration (Liu et al., 2025). Liu et al. (2025) concluded that aligning their data compilation with their model results required very low atmospheric partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub> (*p*CO<sub>2</sub>) ranging between 35 and 280 ppmv (0.125 to 1 times pre-industrial atmospheric levels [PAL]). The simulated climates were very cold, with global mean surface temperatures of -4.2 to +1.6 °C, and were characterised by sea ice cover extending into the subtropics. Any further equatorward extension of the sea ice line would likely trigger a pan-glacial snowball state (Bendtsen, 2002; Budyko, 1969; Hoffman et al., 2017). These results suggest that only a narrow range of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations could allow a mid-Ediacaran ice sheet to align with the sedimentological evidence while avoiding global glaciation. This inference calls into question the geological stability, and therefore plausibility, of Phanerozoic-like, non-snowball, icehouse conditions during the mid-Ediacaran.

Here, we test whether palaeogeographic configurations not derived from hypotheses of a TPW event can find agreement between rigorously vetted geological data and model simulations of Ediacaran climate. We explicitly consider two possible continental configurations for the mid-Ediacaran: PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) and MERDITH2021 (Merdith et al., 2021). These configurations are widely used in deep time climate and palaeobiology studies, and have the advantage of belonging to series of internally consistent rotation models that span the Neoproterozoic–Phanerozoic transition, ensuring that models are reconciled with the better constrained positions of continents in the early



Phanerozoic. We also draw comparisons between our results using the PALEOMAP and MERDITH2021 configurations, and those derived from a TPW palaeogeography (Liu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023a, b). Our analyses enable us to constrain the nature of the icehouse mode Earth's climate system was operating under immediately prior to the emergence of animal-rich marine ecosystems in the late Ediacaran (from ~575 Ma; Boag et al., 2024; Matthews et al., 2021).

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Geological data

The glaciogenic sedimentary record provides the best constraint on first-order climate state for the Ediacaran because of the absence of robust and widespread palaeo-temperature proxies for this interval (e.g. Evans, 2003; Evans and Raub, 2011; Macdonald et al., 2019; Merdith et al., 2025). However, inconsistencies and uncertainties in the identification of candidate glaciogenic deposits have hampered our understanding of the Ediacaran glaciogenic sedimentary record because previous studies have not provided systematic and reproducible criteria for including or excluding specific deposits (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). To tackle this, we compiled a dataset of candidate mid- and late Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits following Wong Hearing et al. (2026). Our dataset considers all deposits included in recent compilations of candidate Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits (Niu et al., 2024; Retallack, 2022; Wang et al., 2023a, b; Youbi et al., 2020) and additional data drawn from literature searches. The full dataset is presented in Data S1.

For each deposit, we first assessed the depositional age constraints (see below). Deposits with a plausibly mid-Ediacaran depositional age were further assessed for the likelihood that they were glacial in origin (see below). Detailed glaciogenicity assessments of the candidate mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits are provided in the Supplementary Information.

### 2.2 Assessing depositional age

Radiometric date constraints are the preferred means of depositional age control, with chemical abrasion isotope dilution thermal ionisation mass spectrometry (CA-ID-TIMS) U-Pb dates from igneous zircons considered the most informative. Detrital zircon and shale Re-Os dates are also used to establish maximum and depositional age constraints, respectively. We include the reported analytical uncertainty of radiometric dates in our analysis. Where relevant, Phanerozoic fossils are used to indicate that the host deposit is younger than 538.8 Ma (the current age of the Ediacaran–Cambrian boundary following the International Commission on Stratigraphy; Cohen et al., 2025), or to provide a more specific age where possible. Note that the numeric age of the Ediacaran–Cambrian boundary (currently 538.8 Ma) is less significant in this case than is the recognition of the stratigraphic boundary itself, and that the numeric age is likely to change in the near future (Bowyer and Nelson, 2026). Where Ediacaran fossils are found overlying a candidate glaciogenic deposit, we consider these to provide a minimum depositional age constraint of 538.8 Ma, i.e. deposition before the end of the Ediacaran Period, although we only use Ediacaran palaeontological constraints when radiometric ages are unavailable. Carbon isotope stratigraphy is used only in the case of the



Shuram carbon isotope excursion which has a distinctive profile and is dated to ~574 to 567 Ma (Busch et al., 2023; Rooney et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021).

### 155 2.3 Assessing glaciogenicity

We follow the glaciogenicity rating scheme originally devised by Tindal (2023) and applied by Wong Hearing et al. (2026), updated here to better account for broader depositional context (see Supplementary Information). The deposit scoring scheme accounts for the wide variety of sedimentological and depositional evidence for glaciogenicity observed in the rock record (Table 2), much of which can also result from non-glacial processes. The scheme is summarised in Table 2 and Table 3, and is described in detail in the Supplementary Information, including the specific sedimentological characteristics used to assign star ratings, with an overview provided here.

The deposit scoring scheme combines multiple individual lines of sedimentological evidence, including overall rock texture, clast shape, angularity or roundness, surface features, lithology, geomorphology, and depositional context. Under this additive scheme, multiple lines of weaker evidence co-occurring within a single deposit contribute to a stronger overall score for the likely glaciogenicity of the deposit as a whole. This overall deposit score is derived from the geometric progression (interval ratio  $\frac{1}{2}$ ) combining multiple lines of evidence (Table 3); that is, a one-star line of evidence is worth half that of a two-star line of evidence, and similarly a one-star deposit score is worth half the value of a two-star deposit score (Tindal, 2023). The overall rating for a deposit is calculated from the weighted sum of the different reported lines of evidence. In this way, we can apply the semi-quantitative scheme consistently across deposits with different degrees of information, and ratings can be readily updated as new information comes to light.

This rating scheme does not guarantee the glaciogenicity or lack thereof for any deposit, as it seeks to quantify a range of qualitative data and necessarily loses some of the nuance essential to any holistic sedimentological study. It provides a systematic approach for assessing potential glaciogenicity throughout the geological record, but should only be considered a guide to support the interpretation of candidate glaciogenic deposits (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). Following Tindal (2023) and Wong Hearing et al. (2026), we suggest that deposits meeting a specific threshold should be regarded as plausibly glaciogenic, while those falling below the threshold are either unlikely to be glaciogenic, or have not been described in sufficient detail to support a confident glaciogenic interpretation.

Applying a threshold requires striking a balance between minimising false positives (deposits erroneously interpreted as glaciogenic on the basis of insufficient evidence) and false negatives (truly glaciogenic deposits with either relatively weak sedimentological evidence, or inadequately described for assessment). We adopt a three-star score (= “circumstantial”; Table 3) as a suitable minimum threshold for a deposit being plausibly glaciogenic and worthy of further consideration. The three-star threshold will still include deposits that may be considered unlikely to be glaciogenic on the basis of other evidence, and three-star deposits in particular should be inspected on a case-by-case basis.



185 **Table 2. Summary of the sedimentary and geomorphological evidence used in Tindal's (2023) deposit scoring scheme. Adapted from Tindal (2023, table 2.1 to 2.11) and Wong Hearing et al. (2026, table 2). For a full description and an explanation of the evidence categories and ranking see Tindal (2023, chapter 2).**

Evidence category	Star rating of each line of evidence				
	★★★★★	★★★★	★★★	★★	★
Clast-rich diamictite	–	–	Oversized clasts deposited as a massive or stratified diamictite in a flat or distal setting not on or near the base of a slope.	–	Oversized clasts deposited as a massive or stratified diamictite in a setting with other reworked deposits.
Clast-poor diamictite	–	–	Oversized clasts that: (i) disrupt laminae above/below in a flat or distal setting not on or near the base of a slope; or (ii) are deposited as a massive or stratified diamictite in a flat or distal setting not on or near the base of a slope.	Oversized clasts that disrupt laminae above/below, from a setting where downslope transport is not reported, or confirmed absent.	Oversized clasts that may disrupt laminae above/below in or associated with reworked deposits.
Clast shape	–	–	–	Several elongate or fragile clasts.	Clasts from at least four of Powers (1953) grades of roundness, including subangular and subrounded, or a few elongate clasts.
Clast surfaces	–	–	Clasts with striated and faceted surfaces.	–	Clasts with either faceted surfaces or striae.
Clast lithologies	–	–	Clasts include all of siliciclastic, carbonate, metamorphic, and igneous lithologies; or lithologies not otherwise known from the basin; or non-abraded clasts (i.e. little physical weathering) that must have travelled at least 100 km.	Clasts include three of siliciclastic, carbonate, metamorphic, and igneous lithologies.	Clasts include two of siliciclastic, carbonate, metamorphic, and igneous lithologies; or diamictite described as “heterogeneous” or “polymict” without further description.



Grain clusters	–	Uncemented clusters of close-packed interlocking outsized grains, isolated in a fine-grained sediment without evidence of current flow, disrupting laminae (if present), and occurring at multiple closely spaced stratigraphic horizons.	Uncemented clusters of close-packed interlocking outsized grains, isolated in a fine-grained sediment without evidence of current flow and disrupting laminae (if present).	Uncemented clusters of outsized granules in a fine-grained matrix that may host other sediment grains without specific evidence of current flow for their deposition though surrounding sediment may show signs of current flow for deposition.	Uncemented clusters of outsized clasts without evidence of erosive lower contacts.
Surface striation	Extensive striated surfaces with crescentic gouges, chattermarks and s-forms.	Extensive surfaces with striae and some but not all of the features listed for a five.	Extensive surfaces with striae and/or small surfaces with features listed above	Large smooth surfaces and/or small surfaces with striae	Small smooth surfaces
Geomorphological forms	–	–	U-shaped valleys or branching valley networks	Roche moutonnée-like palaeotopography, moraine-like ridges	–
Glacio-tectonism	–	Extensive surfaces of parallel grooves showing multiple phases of scraping	>10 m scale cylindrical folding of beds with undeformed underlying beds	Cylindrical folding of beds with undeformed underlying beds	Deformed beds with undeformed underlying beds
Soft sediment ploughing (keel drag)	–	–	Extensive surfaces of parallel grooves	Small surfaces of parallel grooves	Deformed beds
Frost polygons	–	Extensive areas of large polygons with infilled wedges deeper than 20 cm	Extensive areas of large polygons of wedges infilled with coarse material	Large polygonal cracks	Infilled wedges deeper than 20 cm
Cryoturbation	–	–	Extensive (>1 km <sup>2</sup> ) areas of deformed sediment with rigidly deformed layers and oriented stones	Deformed sediment described as cryoturbation with rigidly deformed layers and/or oriented stones	–
Casts of ice crystals	–	Blade-shaped imprints of ice crystals	Imprints of ice crystals (no further description)	–	–
Shattered clasts	–	–	<i>In situ</i> clast, fractured into multiple pieces on subaerial substrate	<i>In situ</i> clast, fractured into multiple pieces	Angular clasts of the same lithology in close proximity



Varves	–	–	–	Rhythmically spaced parallel laminations of alternating composition	Parallel laminations of alternating composition
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190 **Table 3. Summary of the overall deposit score (zero to five stars) system presented in the figures and analysis used here, adapted from Tindal (2023, tbl. 2.1) and Wong Hearing et al. (2026, tbl. 3). See Supplementary Information for a full discussion on rating glaciogenic deposits under this scheme.**

Strength	Deposit score	Relative weight <sup>a</sup>	Example deposit
Unequivocal	★★★★★	1	NA <sup>b</sup>
Strong	★★★★	1/2	Gaskiers Formation: diamictite and dropstones (★) with very angular to well-rounded clasts (★) from 3 lithological groups (★★), some of which are faceted or striated (★★★).
Circumstantial	★★★	1/4	Granville Formation: diamictite with rounded to well-rounded clasts from three lithological groups (★★), some of which are striated (★★★).
Weak	★★	1/8	Orellana Formation: diamictite and dropstones (★) with clasts of unreported roundness from one lithological group, some of which are faceted (★).
Equivocal	★	1/16	Bunyeroo Formation: lonestones (★) with clasts of unreported roundness from one lithological group.
Insufficient	☆	0	Hongtiogou Formation: diamictite with subangular to subrounded clasts from one lithological group.

<sup>a</sup>Confidence weight relative to a five-star deposit (weight = 1) which is (almost) certain to be glaciogenic in origin. One- to five-star deposits follow a geometric relationship with a ratio of 1/2. Zero-star deposits are considered completely uninformative about the presence of ice during deposition on current evidence (weight = 0).

<sup>b</sup>No Ediacaran deposits identified in this study currently meet the five-star threshold (Tindal, 2023; Wong Hearing et al., 2026).

## 2.4 Palaeogeographic reconstructions

195 Uncertainty in reconstructing Ediacaran palaeogeography stems from uncertainty in how to interpret Ediacaran palaeomagnetic data (e.g. Domeier et al., 2023). The hypothesis of a true polar wander (TPW) event (e.g. Domeier et al., 2023; Wen et al., 2022) has recently been evaluated using candidate Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits and climate simulations (Liu et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2023a, b). Here we consider two other possible mid-Ediacaran palaeogeographic reconstructions that do not invoke a TPW event: PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) and MERDITH2021 (Merdith et al., 2021). Although we consider the palaeolatitudinal positions of candidate glaciogenic deposits on both of these reconstructions, we focus on the PALEOMAP configuration for our model simulations because this is the only palaeogeography currently available with resolved topography and bathymetry (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018). We use the 600 Ma configuration of both rotation models because the PALEOMAP rotation model has resolved topography and bathymetry for its 600 Ma time step, which is taken as representative of the mid-Ediacaran Gaskiers glaciation interval. The difference between the 600 Ma and 580 Ma configurations is negligible in comparison to the differences between rotation models.

205 We also draw comparisons between our results on the PALEOMAP and MERDITH2021 configurations and results from a study (Liu et al., 2025) using the TPW reconstruction. We note that the Wen et al. (2022) rotation model and its derivatives as



used in Liu et al. (2025) are not published, and our comparisons are therefore qualitative. Notable differences between the three configurations at 580 Ma, the earliest time step of the palaeogeography used in Liu et al. (2025), are as follows:

- a. West Gondwana (North Africa and South America) is placed at mid- to high palaeolatitudes in the PALEOMAP and MERDITH2021 configurations, but low palaeolatitudes in the Wen et al. (2022) configuration,
- b. Baltica (the Baltic region and Eastern Europe) is placed at mid- to high palaeolatitudes in the PALEOMAP and MERDITH2021 configurations, but low palaeolatitudes in the Wen et al. (2022) configuration, and
- c. Laurentia (North America and Greenland) is placed at high southern latitudes in the PALEOMAP and Wen et al. (2022) configurations, but mid- to low latitudes in the MERDITH2021 configuration.

Temporally well-constrained geological evidence weighted by confidence in glaciogenicity should be able to discriminate between the substantial differences in the hypothesised positions of these three major palaeocontinents in the Ediacaran.

## 2.5 Climate and ice-sheet model simulations

We used general circulation model (GCM) and ice sheet model simulations to quantify the response of mid-Ediacaran climate and land ice to different atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels, following a similar but simpler approach to that of Pohl et al. (2016a) as outlined below.

### 2.5.1 General boundary conditions

All simulations used the ‘mid-Ediacaran’ (600 Ma) PALEOMAP palaeogeographic reconstruction (figs. S1-2; Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) with the land surface defined as a rocky desert with an albedo of 0.24, modified by snow when present, due to the absence of land plants in the Ediacaran (e.g. Lenton et al., 2016). All simulations used a solar luminosity of  $1303.12 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (4.98 % weaker than present day) following Gough (1981). In the absence of reliable constraints on Ediacaran atmospheric composition, notably  $p\text{CO}_2$  proxy data (e.g. Mills et al., 2025), we evaluated a range of  $p\text{CO}_2$  values, from 1 to 32 times pre-industrial atmospheric levels (PAL = 280 ppmv). Note that we only vary atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  and not other atmospheric greenhouse gases, meaning that our simulations evaluate  $p\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent greenhouse gas forcing. In the absence of reliable constraints on Earth’s orbital conditions beyond a few tens of millions of years (e.g. Laskar et al., 2004), we evaluated both a median orbital configuration similar to the present day (eccentricity: 0; obliquity:  $23.5^\circ$ ; date of perihelion: 21 March), and an orbital configuration that favours a warm austral summer (eccentricity: 0.07; obliquity:  $23.5^\circ$ ; date of perihelion: 29 December) which would tend to inhibit Southern Hemisphere ice sheet growth.

### 2.5.2 FOAM general circulation model simulations

We used the Fast Ocean Atmosphere Model (FOAM) version 1.5 (Jacob, 1997) general circulation model (GCM) to simulate mid-Ediacaran climate conditions. The quick turnaround time of FOAM makes it suitable for deep-time palaeoclimate studies where a wide range of loosely constrained boundary conditions need to be evaluated (e.g. Pohl et al., 2016a; Wong Hearing et al., 2021). FOAM is a mixed-resolution coupled ocean-atmosphere GCM with no flux corrections. The atmosphere module is



a parallelised version of the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Community Climate Model 2 (CCM2) with upgraded radiative and hydrologic physics from CCM3 version 3.2. The atmosphere module is run with R15 spectral resolution  
240 (4.5° × 7.5°) and 18 vertical levels. The ocean module is Ocean Model version 3 (OM3), which is run with 2.8° × 1.4°  
longitude–latitude resolution and 24 vertical levels. Sea ice is simulated by the NCAR Climate System Model 1.4 sea ice  
module. The FOAM simulations were initialised with a warm ice-free ocean of homogeneous salinity of 35 ‰. FOAM  
simulations were run for 2000 years to allow the deep ocean to approach equilibrium. Each run was extended by 50 years with  
the monthly output saved to produce the climatology files. The FOAM climatology files are available in Data S3. The FOAM  
245 simulations were used both to compare simulated sea-ice extent with geological data and to provide sea-surface temperature  
fields used as boundary conditions for the higher-resolution LMDZ atmosphere-only simulations.

### 2.5.3 LMDZ atmospheric circulation simulations

The LMDzOR model consists of the atmospheric general circulation model LMDz6 (Hourdin et al., 2020) coupled with the  
land surface ORCHIDEE model (Krinner et al., 2005). The atmospheric grid has a resolution of 2.5° in longitude and 1.26° in  
250 latitude (144 × 142 longitude-latitude grid), with 79 vertical layers extending from the surface to an altitude of 80 km. The  
LMDz dynamical core is based on finite difference and finite volume discretization of the primitive equations governing  
atmospheric dynamics and physics, coupled to a suite of physical parameterizations (Hourdin et al., 2020). The radiative  
transfer is handled by the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (Mlawer et al., 1997). The land surface ORCHIDEE includes a  
river runoff module that routes the water on the continents (d’Orgeval et al., 2008). Vegetation is simulated through 11 plant  
255 functional types, among which one PFT corresponds to bare soil, which was prescribed here.

The prescribed boundary conditions for the Ediacaran include palaeogeography, bare soil terrestrial surface, monthly mean  
sea surface temperature, and sea ice fraction derived from FOAM simulations and interpolated onto the higher-resolution  
LMDz6 grid. No continental ice sheets were included. The solar constant and orbital parameters were set to produce the same  
daily incoming solar flux as in the FOAM simulations. Due to numerical instabilities, the LMDz6 model was unable to reach  
260 equilibrium at a  $p\text{CO}_2$  of 32 PAL. Simulations were run for 50 years, and outputs were averaged over the last 10 years. The  
LMDzOR outputs provided monthly mean surface air temperature and precipitation fields used as input for the ice-sheet model  
simulations.

### 2.5.4 GRISLI ice sheet simulations

We used the GRenoble Ice-Shelf and Land Ice (GRISLI) model to simulate Southern Hemisphere glacial onset. GRISLI is a  
265 three-dimensional ice-sheet model that accounts for both temperature and ice velocity, simulating both grounded and floating  
ice as ice sheets, ice streams, and ice shelves using a 40 km × 40 km resolution grid (Ritz et al., 2001). The type of ice (or  
none) in each grid cell is determined for each time step. The initial (monthly) surface air temperature and precipitation fields  
were provided by the LMDZ atmosphere simulations. These fields were subsequently updated throughout ice-sheet model  
integration time as a function of ice-sheet height, using an adiabatic lapse rate (5 K km<sup>-1</sup>) for surface air temperature and an



270 exponential law for precipitation (based on the Clausius-Clapeyron dependency). These online corrections permit capture of  
the impact of land ice on local climate. They do not, however, permit account of the feedbacks of the ice sheet on climate  
(including ocean and atmospheric dynamics) as would do a coupled climate-ice-sheet model. The resolution of the FOAM  
ocean module is insufficient to simulate melting underneath ice shelves, so we imposed a melting rate of  $0.2 \text{ m a}^{-1}$  on  
continental shelves (depth  $\leq 600 \text{ m}$ ) and  $2 \text{ m a}^{-1}$  beyond continental shelves (depth  $> 600 \text{ m}$ ) (Pohl et al., 2016a). In our  
275 simulations, the vast majority of ice remained grounded. GRISLI simulates ice-sheet evolution in response to climate with a  
surface mass balance equating to the sum of accumulation minus ablation following mean monthly surface temperature and  
precipitation. Ablation follows the positive degree day method with a surface melt refreezing rate of 60 % and air temperature  
variability (standard deviation) of 5 K over each month. Isostatic adjustment of the bedrock due to ice loading is accounted for  
using the parameterised elastic lithosphere/relaxing asthenosphere (ELRA) model with a standard relaxation time of 3 kyr.

## 280 3. Results

### 3.1 Geological evidence for mid-Ediacaran glaciation

285 We evaluated 91 candidate glaciogenic deposits for which a mid-Ediacaran age has been suggested (Fig. 1; Supplementary  
Information; Data S1). All of the deposits considered here have some relevant dating evidence, even if the age constraints are  
sometimes poor. These deposits fall into two groups of distinct depositional ages (Wong Hearing et al., 2026): (1) those older than  
 $\sim 579 \text{ Ma}$ , and (2) those younger than  $\sim 565 \text{ Ma}$  (Fig. 1). A systematic evaluation of the available geochronological and stratigraphic  
constraints revealed that many deposits in the older group are substantially older and, in fact, probably Cryogenian in age (Wong  
Hearing et al., 2026). Here, we focus on those deposits with plausible depositional ages between 635 to 579 Ma, i.e. early to mid-  
Ediacaran, of which there are 28, of which 22 are identified as most likely being deposited in the MEIH, between  $\sim 593$  to  $579 \text{ Ma}$  (  
; Data S1; Data S6).

290 Of these 22 candidate MEIH deposits, five obtained a three-star score and 10 obtained a four-star score (  
) . No Ediacaran deposits have so far received a five-star rating (Tindal, 2023; Wong Hearing et al., 2026). Several three- and  
four-star mid-Ediacaran deposits are located on the Avalonia, Baltica, and West Gondwana (North Africa and South America)  
palaeocontinents. There are no three- and four-star deposits from the Laurentia, Siberia, or South China palaeocontinents  
during the MEIH (Fig. 2). Most candidate glaciogenic deposits on the North China Craton and surrounding terranes (e.g.  
295 Qaidam, Tarim) likely fall into the post-565 Ma suite of deposits (e.g. Wang et al., 2021; Wong Hearing et al., 2026; Xiao et  
al., 2004) and are not considered further here. The Fengtai Formation from the North China Craton (Tan et al., 2025; Yue et  
al., 2025) is plausibly of MEIH age but is given a two-star score here (see Supplementary Information). The four-star  
Xichangjing Formation is plausibly of MEIH age and was deposited on the northern margin of either the North China or Tarim  
cratons (regional correlation is uncertain; Niu et al., 2024). The only three-star deposit from East Gondwana is the Croles Hill  
300 diamictite (Tasmania, Australia) which is well dated to the late MEIH interval (Calver et al., 2026); it is parsimoniously  
interpreted as a submarine mass flow deposit in a tectonically active setting with or without a glaciogenic interpretation  
(Supplementary Information; Mulder et al., 2020).



305 There is evidence for multiple local advances and retreats of ice sheets during the MEIH on Avalonia, Baltica, and West Gondwana (Supplementary Information). In particular, repeated ice-sheet fluctuations are supported by likely glaciogenic diamictites alternating with shales and sandstones throughout the Tiddiline Group (North African Gondwana) (Letsch et al., 2018) and Glusck Formation (Baltica) (Chumakov, 2004), as well as in parasequences developed in the Rocky Harbour Formation in and between the Trinity and Mercantile diamictites (Avalonia) (Gómez et al., 2026).

### 3.2 Palaeolatitudinal extent of geological evidence

310 **The reconstructed palaeolatitudinal extent of the candidate mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits depends on the chosen rotation model (**

**; Data S6). The PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) and MERDITH2021 (Merdith et al., 2021) rotation models produce quantitatively but not qualitatively different results (Fig. 2; Fig. 3;**

**)**, with the majority of high-scoring mid-Ediacaran deposits positioned polewards of 30° latitude in both reconstructions.

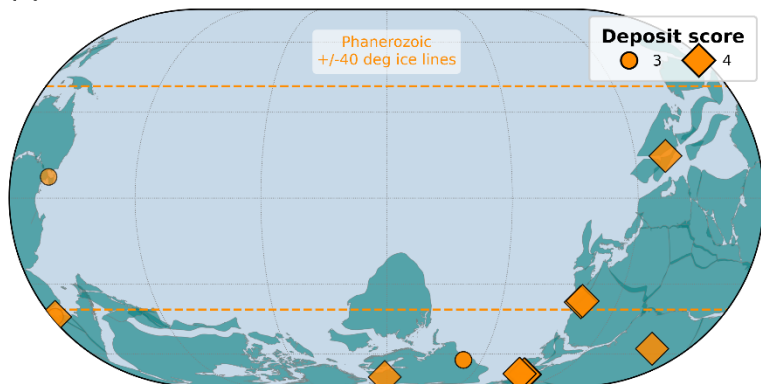
315 Following the three-star threshold for plausible glaciogenicity detailed above, it is only on the PALEOMAP rotation model that the Croles Hill diamictite and Xichangjing Formation are reconstructed at lower latitudes (7.2 °N and 14.5 °N, respectively). On the MERDITH2021 rotation model, the Crole Hill diamictite is reconstructed at 1.1 °S latitude, and the four-star Las Ventanas and correlative three-star Playa Hermosa formations (Rio de la Plata craton) are reconstructed at lower latitudes (26.9 °S and 26.2 °S, respectively). As noted above, the Croles Hill diamictite is parsimoniously interpreted as a submarine mass flow deposit (Supplementary Information). All other low palaeolatitude outliers are rated less than three stars  
320 or are of uncertain Ediacaran age.

**On the PALEOMAP rotation model, three-star deposits have a median absolute palaeolatitude of 28.2° (mean = 33.6°; standard deviation [s.d.] = 24.9°) and four-star deposits have a median absolute palaeolatitude of 57.3° (mean = 51.1°; s.d. = 24.6°) (**

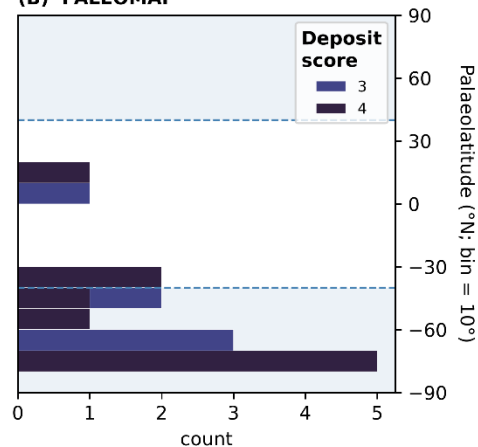
325 **).** **On the MERDITH2021 rotation model, three-star deposits have a median absolute palaeolatitude of 39.7° (mean = 33.9°; s.d. = 21.0°) and four-star deposits have a median absolute palaeolatitude of 43.3° (mean = 41.9°; s.d. = 8.5°) (**



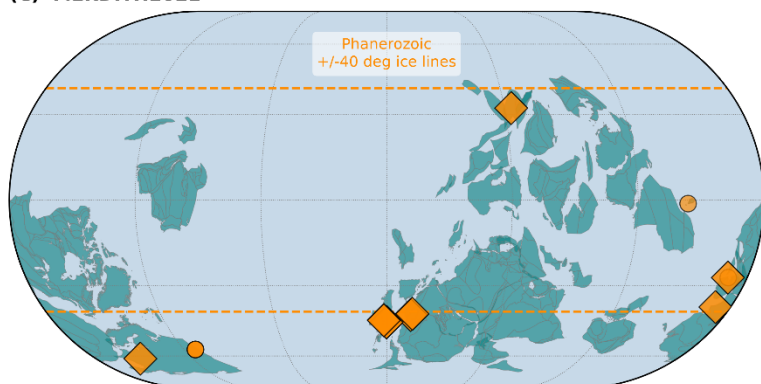
(A) PALEOMAP



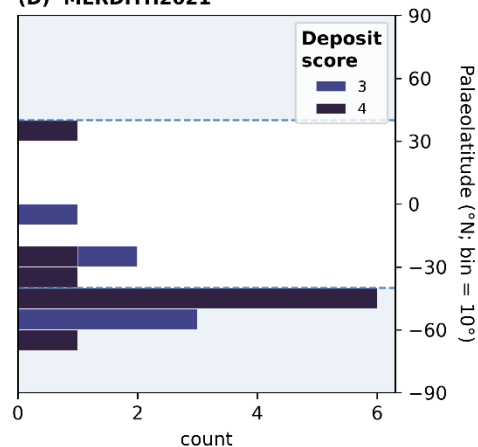
(B) PALEOMAP



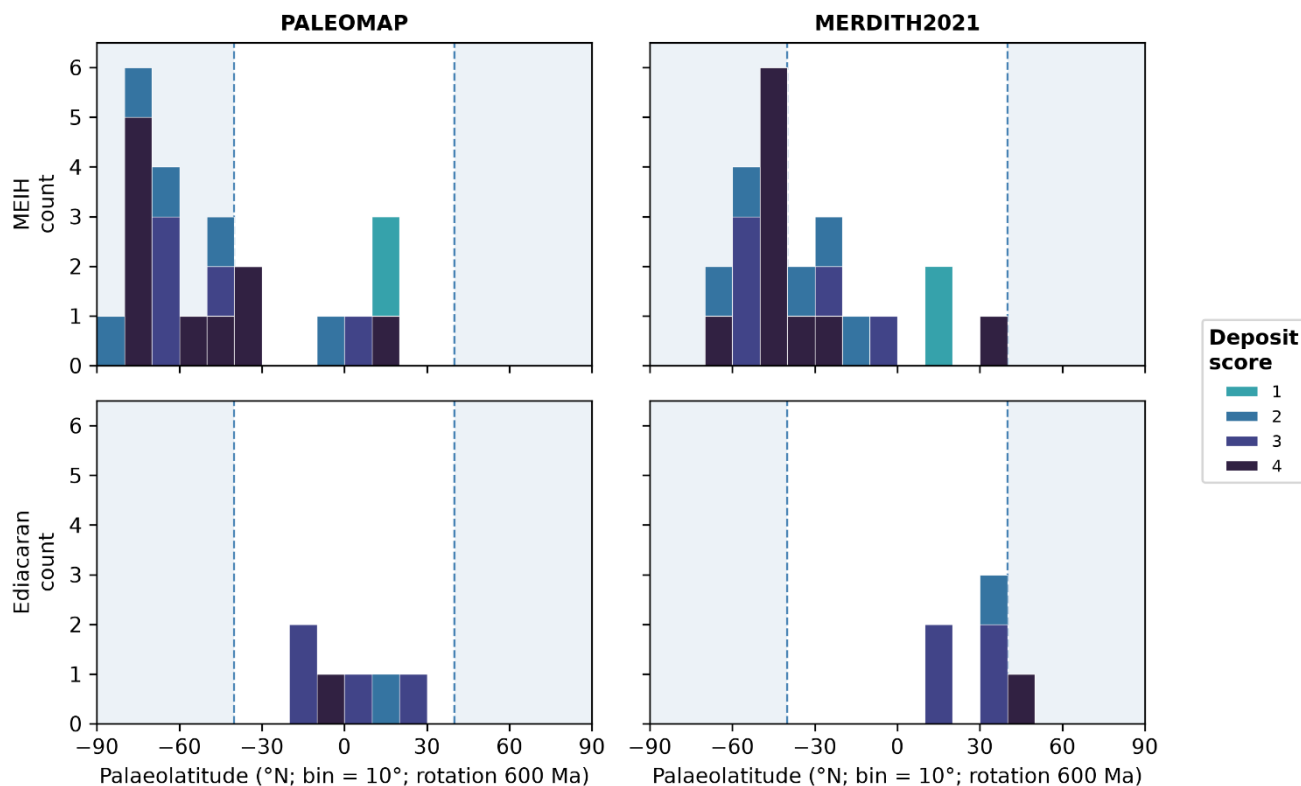
(C) MERDITH2021



(D) MERDITH2021



330 Fig. 2. Palaeogeographic and palaeolatitudinal distribution of candidate mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits rated at least three stars on two rotation models at 600 Ma. (A, B) PALEOMAP rotation model (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018). (C, D) MERDITH2021 rotation model (Merdith et al., 2021). All panels show likely MEIH deposits rotated to 600 Ma to match the rotation of the mid-Ediacaran PALEOMAP palaeogeographic reconstruction (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) used in the climate model simulations below. Dashed lines at  $\pm 40^\circ$  latitude show the typical Phanerozoic ice line (Table 1). See Data S1 and Data S6.



335 Fig. 3. Palaeolatitudinal extent of candidate mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits on the PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and  
 Wright, 2018) and MERDITH2021 (Merdith et al., 2021) rotation models by likely age interval and star rating. The dashed blue  
 lines and shaded blue regions show the typical  $\pm 40^\circ$  latitude Phanerozoic ice line (Table 1). MEIH: deposits constrained to the mid-  
 Ediacaran icehouse (~593 to 579 Ma); Ediacaran: deposits that are only constrained to an Ediacaran age (younger than Cryogenian,  
 older than Cambrian). All deposits were palaeo-rotated to 600 Ma to match the mid-Ediacaran PALEOMAP palaeogeography used  
 340 in the climate simulations. The patterns are similar for both models with rotation ages between 600 to 580 Ma. See Data S1 and Data  
 S6.



**Table 4. Summary statistics of the candidate mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits. See Data S1 for full dataset and the Supplementary Code and Data S6 for the deposit rotations. All data points rotated to 600 Ma; MEIH: mid-Ediacaran icehouse; min.: minimum; s.d.: standard deviation.**

Score	Number of deposits <sup>a</sup>				PALEOMAP absolute latitude				MERTITH2021 absolute latitude			
	all	MEIH	Ediacaran	Min.	median	mean	s.d.	Min.	median	mean	s.d.	
all	28	22	6	5.1	42.9	42.7	26.7	1.1	39.7	36.2	16.6	
4	11	10	1	8.7	57.3	51.1	24.6	27	43.3	41.9	8.5	
3	9	5	4	6	28.2	33.6	24.9	1.1	39.7	33.9	21	
2	6	5	1	5.1	55.8	49.4	32.3	12.8	31.7	36.7	18.6	
1	2	2	0	16.7	18	18	1.9	12	13.5	13.5	2	

<sup>a</sup>Number of deposits subdivided as follows: “all” = all of MEIH and Ediacaran; “MEIH” = deposits confidently assigned to the MEIH age range (~593 to 579 Ma); “Ediacaran” = deposits that can only be constrained to an Ediacaran age range (635 to 538.8 Ma).



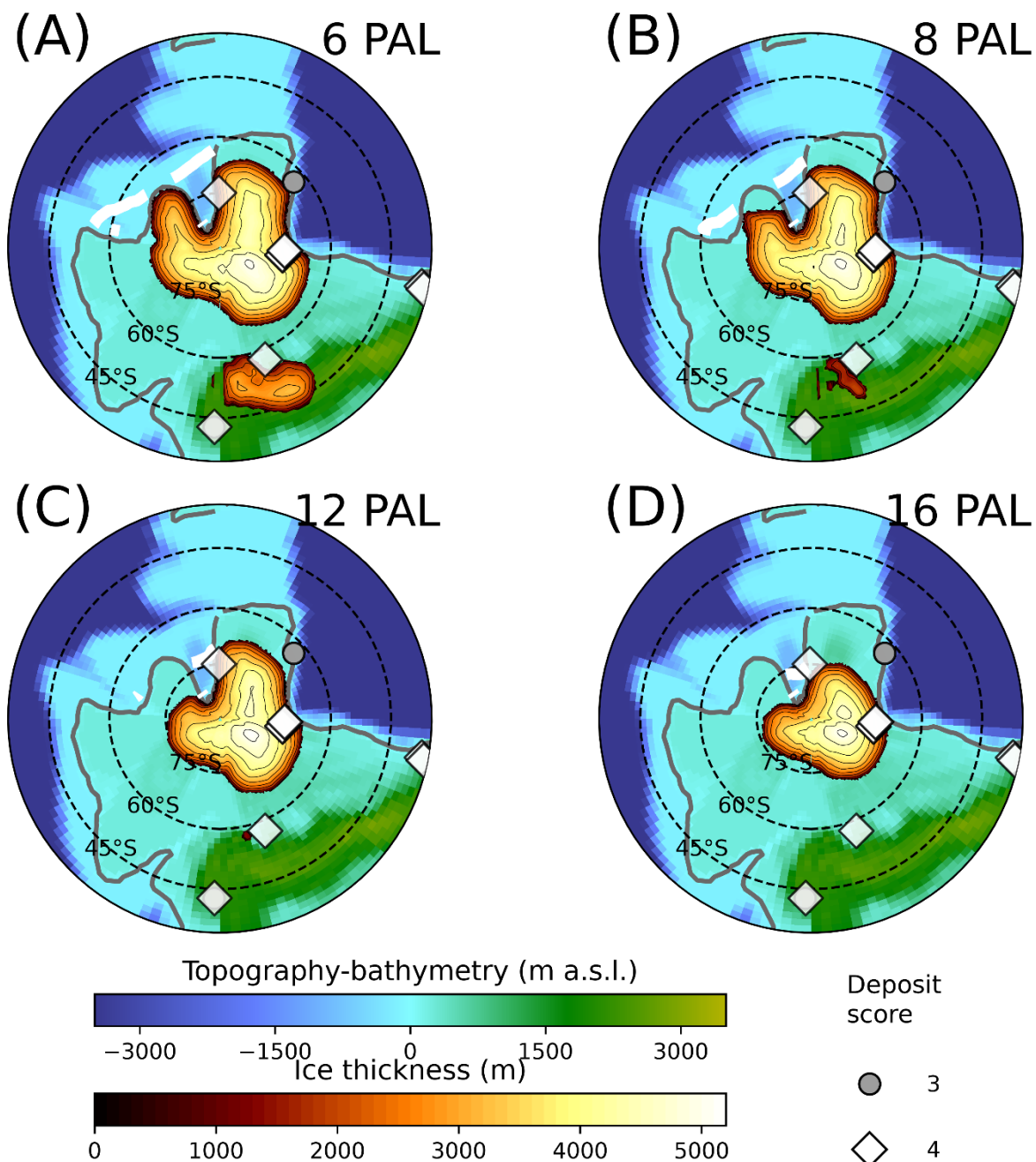
### 3.3 Palaeoclimate simulations

Our FOAM GCM simulations indicate that sea ice can form at high southern latitudes even under quite high greenhouse gas  
345 levels (up to at least 32 PAL  $p\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent in FOAM; figs. S3-4). In contrast, in the Northern Hemisphere, where high  
latitude continents are absent, sea ice forms only under lower  $p\text{CO}_2$  forcings ( $\leq 7$  PAL  $p\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent in FOAM; figs. S3-4).  
Our simulations indicate that a sudden global climate cooling accompanied by an expansion of sea ice into the middle latitudes  
occurs if atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  decreases from 6 PAL to 4 PAL (figs. S3-4). A similar climatic instability has previously been  
reported for Late Ordovician FOAM simulations and attributed to the effects of an oceanic (northern) hemisphere on the ocean  
350 heat transport (Pohl et al., 2014, 2016b), a mechanism that may also apply to the MEIH interval.

### 3.4 Ice sheet growth

To simulate the conditions for mid-Ediacaran Southern Hemisphere ice sheet growth, we employed the higher resolution  
atmosphere GCM LMDz6, forced with FOAM-derived sea-surface temperature fields (see Methods). The resulting  
atmospheric outputs were then used to force the three-dimensional GRenoble Ice-Shelf and Land-Ice (GRISLI) ice sheet model  
355 which ran for 300 kyrs. A similar coupling strategy, but with a different orbital configuration, has been employed to investigate  
glacial onset in the Cretaceous (Ladant and Donnadieu, 2016), ice sheet evolution across the Eocene-Oligocene transition  
(Ladant et al., 2014), and Late Ordovician glaciation (Pohl et al., 2016a).

Results from our GRISLI model simulations indicate that, with the mid-Ediacaran (600 Ma) PALEOMAP palaeogeography,  
a moderate-sized ice sheet would have been initiated with a  $p\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent greenhouse gas level of 16 PAL, and possibly  
360 higher, even under unfavourable orbital configurations (Fig. 4). At 16 PAL and 12 PAL, the simulated ice sheet consists  
primarily of a single dome restricted to latitudes greater than 65 °S (Fig. 4c,d). However, when  $p\text{CO}_2$  is reduced to 8 PAL and  
then 6 PAL, the main ice sheet extends slightly equatorward and a secondary nucleation centre develops near 40 °S, facilitated  
by topographic highs (Fig. 4a,b). There is generally good agreement between the centres of ice sheet initiation in our  
simulations and the palaeo-positions of three-star and four-star deposits in the Ediacaran rock record (Fig. 4). Note that we  
365 have not simulated the maximum extent of ice sheets or their minimum formation conditions, only the regions in which they  
start to form. Deposits located away from our simulated ice sheets are close to reconstructed topographic highs (Scotese and  
Wright, 2018) and may represent a more fully developed ice sheet or relate to mountain glacier ice (*sensu* Niu et al., 2024).



370 Fig. 4. Ice sheet model simulations for MEIH glacial onset for (A) 6, (B) 8, (C) 12, and (D) 16 times pre-industrial atmospheric level  
 (PAL)  $p\text{CO}_2$  (1 PAL = 280 ppmv). Each panel shows the GRISLI-simulated ice sheet thickness (heatmap colours), the extent of the  
 FOAM-simulated mean annual 50 % sea ice fraction (thick white lines), and MEIH deposits rated at least three stars (diamonds)  
 375 overlay on the topography and bathymetry (“m a.s.l.”: metres above sea level) used as boundary conditions for the simulations.  
 There is remarkably good correspondence between the palaeo-rotated positions of candidate glaciogenic deposits and the initial ice  
 sheet developing around the South Pole and southern highlands. Ice sheet thickness simulated at equilibrium after 300 kyr of ice



sheet model integration. The topography includes no highlands at the South Pole (see figs. S1-2). The map is a south polar projection with latitudes shown every 15 ° between 90 to 45 °S and map margin at 35 °S. See Data S5 and Data S6.

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Timing and geography of the mid-Ediacaran icehouse

380 **Taking together the geological evidence and climate simulations, our results support a 10 to 15 Myr icehouse interval that terminated at 579 Ma (Fig. 1; Wong Hearing et al., 2026) characterised by grounded ice at high to mid-latitudes (Fig. 2; Fig. 3; Fig. 4;**  
) This was followed by a gap in the record of glaciogenic deposits lasting at least 14 Myr, which likely reflects a greenhouse climate state including over the Shuram carbon isotope excursion interval (~574 to 567 Ma; e.g. Shields et al., 2019; Wong Hearing et al., 2026). The number and tempo of possible glacial-interglacial cycles (e.g. the parasequences reported by Gómez  
385 et al., 2026) in the MEIH interval remain unresolved, but further field work may help clarify this as astronomically-forced cyclicity has been interpreted in rocks deposited during the subsequent Shuram negative CIE (e.g. Minguez et al., 2015), suggesting that it is possible in rocks of this age.

Our analysis supports a high to mid-latitude distribution of ice sheets during the MEIH, even accounting for some uncertainty in Ediacaran palaeogeography (Fig. 2; Fig. 3). The MERDITH2021 rotation model implies grounded ice at slightly lower  
390 palaeolatitudes than the PALEOMAP rotation model, but both are consistent with the observed latitudinal distributions of Phanerozoic glaciogenic deposits (e.g. Evans, 2003; Macdonald et al., 2019; Merdith et al., 2025). However, under the debated (Domeier et al., 2023) hypothesis of one or more Ediacaran true polar wander events, those continental reconstructions (e.g. Wen et al., 2022) place Laurentia at very high palaeolatitudes around 580 Ma whilst placing Baltica and North Africa at very low palaeolatitudes. Laurentia lacks robust evidence for glaciation at this time, whereas glacial deposits are well developed in  
395 both Baltica and North Africa. We suggest, therefore, that both the PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) and Wen et al. (2022) configurations do not adequately resolve the position of Laurentia during this interval, having it at too high a latitude. Similarly, the equatorial positions of North African West Gondwana and Baltica in the Wen et al. (2022) configuration at 580 Ma are not supported by the geological data. Rather, the high to mid-palaeolatitude positions of West Gondwana and Baltica as reconstructed in both the PALEOMAP (Scotese, 2016; Scotese and Wright, 2018) and  
400 MERDITH2021 (Merdith et al., 2021) configurations are in better agreement with the geological data and our model simulations. The position of the North China and adjacent cratons, including Tarim, are also uncertain in the Ediacaran. Our data support a higher latitude position than is currently resolved in the PALEOMAP configuration (Fig. 2). We suggest that the distribution of robustly identified and temporally-constrained glaciogenic deposits can serve as a test dataset for hypotheses of Ediacaran palaeogeography and may help to resolve some of the enduring palaeogeographic enigmas of this interval.

### 405 4.2 Model support for a Laurentide-like MEIH ice sheet

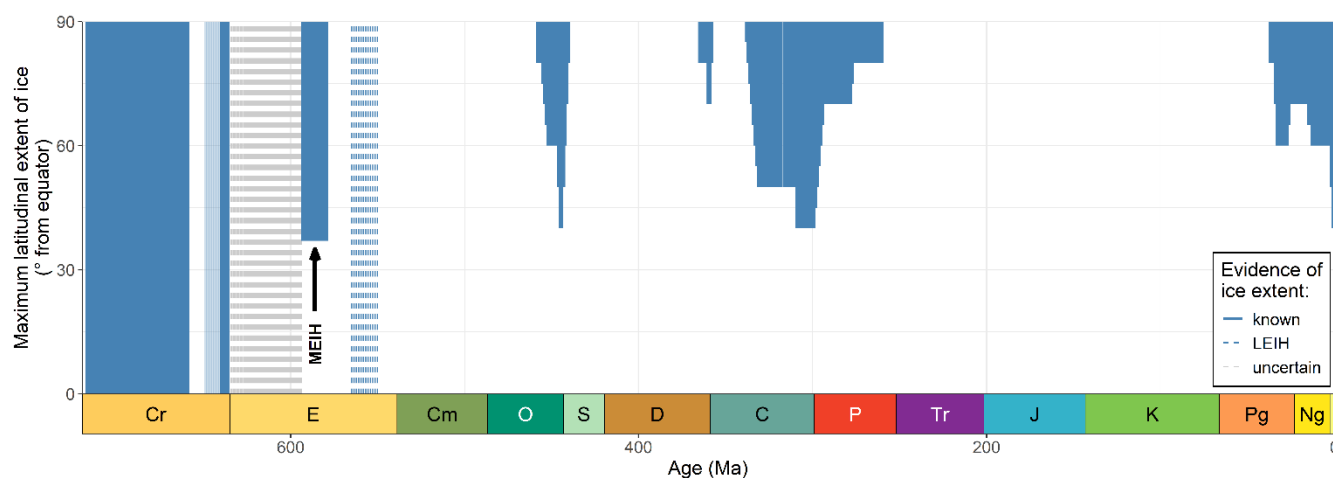
Our model simulations support a Phanerozoic-style icehouse as a plausible scenario for mid-Ediacaran climate state. The  $p\text{CO}_2$  threshold for the initiation of mid-Ediacaran land ice growth (>16 PAL) is higher than that estimated for the Late Ordovician



(12 PAL), likely due to a weaker solar luminosity. Our simulations do not account for the cooling effect of land ice on regional climate through albedo-temperature feedbacks and therefore substantially underestimate the extent that the ice sheet would reach under climate-ice sheet equilibrium. Pohl et al. (2016a), employing a similar modelling strategy with a comparable continental configuration for the Late Ordovician (~450 Ma), demonstrated that accounting for the feedbacks of land ice growth on global climate systematically led to a further expansion of simulated ice sheets to 40 °S, consistent with Phanerozoic and now Ediacaran geological evidence (Fig. 5). These large ice sheets developed at  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels above the  $p\text{CO}_2$  threshold for sudden sea ice advance and climate cooling, which is found between 6 PAL and 4 PAL in our mid-Ediacaran simulations. On crossing the climate instability threshold, the Late Ordovician ice sheet further extended to 30 °S (Pohl et al., 2016a). This previous modelling work for the Late Ordovician suggests that the ice sheets simulated for  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels as high as 16 PAL in the mid-Ediacaran (Fig. 4) would similarly reach ~40 °S when the land ice-climate feedbacks are accounted for, and that a  $p\text{CO}_2$  drop below 6 PAL may trigger an additional ice sheet advance to ~30 °S. The presence of large glacial centres at the middle latitudes in simulations at 8 PAL and 6 PAL (Fig. 4a,b), even without accounting for ice sheet-climate feedbacks, lends strong support to the capacity of our simulated ice sheets to reach the middle latitudes, likely supported by the concentration of continents at high southern latitudes. This implies that a broad range of  $p\text{CO}_2$  values, at least as high as 16 PAL (corresponding to a global mean surface air temperature of 21.2 °C before accounting for ice sheet feedbacks), would be compatible with a mid-Ediacaran ice sheet expanding to between ~40 to 30 °S, comparable with Phanerozoic icehouse intervals. As briefly discussed above, a recent study examined the use of snow cover as a proxy for land ice extent in the late Ediacaran and concluded that a narrow range of low  $p\text{CO}_2$  values, between 35 to 280 ppmv (0.125 to 1 PAL), corresponding to very cold global mean surface temperatures between -4.2 to +1.6 °C, were required to sustain Ediacaran ice sheets (Liu et al., 2025). Direct comparison with the results of Liu et al. (2025) is complicated by major differences in modelling strategies, notwithstanding the questions of palaeogeography discussed above. However, several factors may have rendered glacial conditions more difficult to achieve in their set-up, including a coarser horizontal resolution of the atmospheric model ( $3.75^\circ \times 3.75^\circ$ , compared to  $2.5^\circ \times 1.3^\circ$  in our study) and the absence of highlands serving as land ice nucleation centres (e.g. Ladant and Donnadieu, 2016; Pohl et al., 2016a). The geometry of our simulated ice sheets, comprising a main dome and decreasing ice thickness towards the margins, resembles the geometry of the Antarctic ice sheet (e.g. Quiquet et al., 2018), and the reconstructed geometries of the Laurentide ice sheet during the last glaciation (e.g. Quiquet et al., 2021) and other Phanerozoic ice sheets (e.g. Pohl et al., 2016a). The reversed gradient in land ice thickness simulated in Liu et al. (2025) may partly arise from the imposed monotonically decreasing topography from the continental interior to the coast, and from the shorter integration time of the ice sheet model (100 kyr compared with 300 kyr in our study). In particular, we note that the early stages of ice sheet development in our simulations resemble those of Liu et al. (2025) (i.e. with maximum land ice thickness in coastal areas where precipitation is highest; contrast Fig. 4 with Fig. S5).



445 Future studies employing coupled climate-ice sheet models fully accounting for the feedbacks of land ice on climate will be essential to refining our understanding of mid-Ediacaran glacial onset and ultimate ice sheet geometry, as well as their sensitivity to model parameters and boundary conditions including hypothesised palaeogeographies. Coupled climate-ice sheet models in deep time require very long model integration times (>300 kyrs) and asynchronous coupling methods are difficult to employ at scale, meaning that few studies have attempted to apply such work in deep time contexts (Herrington and Poulsen, 2011; Pohl et al., 2016a). Recent developments in Earth system models of intermediate complexity offer promising avenues for advancing this field (Leloup et al., 2025; Willeit et al., 2022), although these models have the caveat of reduced robustness of the atmospheric component.



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455

**Fig. 5. Latitudinal extent of land ice from the Cryogenian to the present day derived from glaciogenic sedimentary deposits. Blue bars indicate the known latitudinal extent of ice at different times; the light blue bar indicates uncertainty in the timing of Marinoan glaciation onset (Hoffman et al., 2017); the dashed blue bar indicates the duration of the late Ediacaran icehouse (LEIH) which had an uncertain but not global palaeolatitudinal extent (Wong Hearing et al., 2026); the dashed grey bar indicates uncertainty about what if any land ice (e.g. Lan et al., 2024) was present in the early Ediacaran, for which there is little data; arrow and “MEIH” point to the mid-Ediacaran icehouse. See Error! Reference source not found..**

### 4.3 Potential controls on mid-Ediacaran climate state

460 Phanerozoic icehouse climate states have likely been triggered and sustained by a complex interplay of multiple Earth system mechanisms whose relative significance varies over time (e.g. Merdith et al., 2025). Macdonald et al. (2019) argued that Phanerozoic icehouse intervals are closely correlated with enhanced tectonic activity within  $\pm 20^\circ$  latitude of the equator, and in particular that longer arc-continent sutures in the tropics lead to greater exposure of mafic igneous rocks hence to higher weathering rates in the tropics. This mechanism thereby enhances  $\text{CO}_2$  drawdown via silicate weathering, driving global climate toward colder conditions (Macdonald et al., 2019). This hypothesis has not been formally evaluated for the Ediacaran, 465 but some plate reconstructions suggest that the mid- to late Ediacaran assembly of Gondwana and accretion of various terranes



around East Gondwana (Antarctica and Australia) (e.g. Cawood et al., 2021) may conceivably have contributed to increased weatherability in the tropics. However, it is unlikely that a single driver was responsible for the MEIH, as the prolonged icehouse climates of the Phanerozoic could only be initiated and sustained through the interaction of several solid-Earth cooling mechanisms (Merdith et al., 2025).

470 Solid-Earth processes may also have played a role in terminating the MEIH. It has been suggested that volcanic degassing from two large igneous provinces (LIPs), the Central Iapetus Magmatic Province (CIMP) and the Volyn LIP, raised atmospheric greenhouse gas levels, thereby ending icehouse conditions in the mid-Ediacaran (Środoń et al., 2023; Youbi et al., 2020) and perhaps contributed to the Shuram carbon isotope excursion, which marks a major perturbation to the global carbon cycle (Youbi et al., 2020). It has further been suggested that oxidation of a reservoir of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) 475 may have driven elevated atmospheric  $p\text{CO}_2$  and sustained high temperatures throughout the Shuram excursion interval (Shields et al., 2019). As with the onset of the MEIH, there were likely a suite of driving mechanisms to its termination, with their relative weights yet to be determined.

## 5 Conclusions

Here, we have outlined the essential dimensions of Earth's climate state in the middle Ediacaran. Following non-TPW 480 hypotheses for Ediacaran palaeogeography implies that the spatial distribution of geological evidence for the MEIH was similar to that of Phanerozoic icehouse intervals, with glacial deposits concentrated in high to mid-latitudes. In contrast, plate rotation models designed to accommodate TPW events produce palaeogeographic reconstructions that are climatically at odds with the spatio-temporal distribution of robustly identified mid-Ediacaran glaciogenic deposits. Here we wish to underscore that climatically sensitive lithologies can be invaluable resources for evaluating hypotheses of palaeogeography and further 485 emphasise the need to be sure about the depositional interpretations of all lithology occurrences used for ground-truthing palaeogeographic hypotheses.

Our results indicate a relatively abrupt shift from icehouse to greenhouse conditions at ~579 Ma recorded on several palaeocontinents, before the earliest records of complex macroscopic marine animal life (e.g. Boag et al., 2024; Matthews et al., 2021; Pu et al., 2016). The apparently abrupt termination of the MEIH may support the use of glaciostratigraphy in 490 subdividing the Ediacaran System (Xiao and Narbonne, 2020). Our analysis identifies the need to further resolve the precise correlation of specific glacial deposits, and especially the timing and extent of the subsequent late Ediacaran icehouse interval (Wong Hearing et al., 2026). The onset and termination conditions of the MEIH, including palaeogeography, atmospheric composition, and internal dynamics of this icehouse interval, should be considered priority targets for future research.



#### 495 **Code availability**

The code used to generate the analyses and figures for this manuscript are available at <https://github.com/twwh01/MEIH>. The model code for GRISLI is available at <https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/grisli>.

#### **Data availability**

All data underlying our manuscript are available either in the main text, supplement, or archived on Zenodo at  
500 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17158910>.

#### **Supplement link**

*the link to the supplement will be included by Copernicus, if applicable*

#### **Author contribution**

Conceptualization: TWWH, MW, AP, THPH. Methodology: TWWH, AP, MW, FF, BHT. Investigation: TWWH, AP, FF,  
505 TMV, BHT. Visualization: TWWH, AP. Writing—original draft: TWWH, MW. Writing—review & editing: AP, THPH, AGL, BHT, TMV, FF, TWWH, MW.

#### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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## Review statement

*the review statement will be included by Copernicus*

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