ARTICLES

Proterozoic low orbital obliquity and axial-dipolar geomagnetic field from evaporite palaeolatitudes

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Palaeomagnetism of climatically sensitive sedimentary rock types, such as glacial deposits and evaporites, can test the uniformitarianism of ancient geomagnetic fields and palaeoclimate zones. Proterozoic glacial deposits laid down in near-equatorial palaeomagnetic latitudes can be explained by 'snowball Earth' episodes, high orbital obliquity or markedly non-uniformitarian geomagnetic fields. Here I present a global palaeomagnetic compilation of the Earth's entire basin-scale evaporite record. Magnetic inclinations are consistent with low orbital obliquity and a geocentric-axial-dipole magnetic field for most of the past two billion years, and the snowball Earth hypothesis accordingly remains the most viable model for low-latitude Proterozoic ice ages. Efforts to reconstruct Proterozoic supercontinents are strengthened by this demonstration of a consistently axial and dipolar geomagnetic reference frame, which itself implies stability of geodynamo processes on billion-year timescales.

The principle of uniformitarianism, in which modern geological processes guide our conception of the ancient world, has faced a challenge in the field of Precambrian palaeoclimate. In contrast with Ordovician and younger ice ages, which are characterized by expectedly high palaeolatitudes, Proterozoic glaciogenic deposits have until now yielded purely low to moderate palaeomagnetic latitudes, including several near-equatorial results of high reliability^{1,2}. A simple interpretation of these results invokes the encroachment of ice sheets across all latitudes, a model known as snowball Earth^{3–5}. The concept of a 'hard' snowball with global ice cover enduring for millions of years has been controversial, with some scientists advocating partly unfrozen tropical oceans^{6,7}.

An alternative to global refrigeration invokes a high Precambrian planetary obliquity of more than 54°, which would reverse zonal mean-annual temperature gradients, preferentially spawning ice ages in the tropics rather than near the poles^{8,9}. A single direct measure of Precambrian obliquity by using stromatolite heliotropism¹⁰ suggests a 'normal' low value at about 630 Myr, but this isolated example should be confirmed by similar studies elsewhere. Geophysical considerations on the feasibility of the high-obliquity hypothesis are generally negative^{11–13}, yet the spatial distribution of Precambrian glacial deposits, which lack any well-documented high-latitude examples, currently permit both the snowball and high-obliquity models^{1,2}.

A non-uniformitarian Precambrian geomagnetic field may also be invoked to explain the low palaeomagnetic inclinations. Database-wide palaeomagnetic compilations indicate a shallow bias relative to random sampling of a geocentric-axial-dipole (GAD) field across the spherical surface, which may be explained by the preferential motion of continents into low latitudes, or subsidiary higher-order components to the ancient geomagnetic field¹⁴. Some support for the latter possibility was raised by means of numerical geodynamo modelling with spatially non-uniform core–mantle boundary conditions^{15,16}.

The distribution of ancient evaporite deposits can help distinguish between these non-uniformitarian alternatives. Modern tropospheric Hadley–Ferrel circulation descends on the subtropics of both hemispheres, where evaporation exceeds precipitation in today's desert belts. Fifty years ago, the emerging science of palaeomagnetism admirably succeeded in reconstructing consistent palaeoclimatic zones in the context of post-Pangaean continental drift^{17–19}. Subsequent studies considered evaporitic rocks as old as the Cambrian period and found deposits concentrated in palaeolatitude bands consistent with modern evaporite belts of 15–35° latitude^{20–23}. Here I revisit the evaporite palaeolatitude test according to the current palaeomagnetic data set and extend it back through Proterozoic time, to the oldest recognized examples of large evaporite basins on Earth.

Evaporite palaeolatitudes

The world's largest Cenozoic-Mesozoic evaporite basins, with preserved salt volumes greater than 10⁴ km³, are listed in Table 1; references are given in Supplementary Data. Continental reconstructions from this interval benefit from combined analysis of palaeomagnetic data from exposed rocks and seafloor anomalies (see, for example, ref. 24). The basins are distributed primarily through the 15–35° arid latitude belt as determined previously, with a 23 \pm 4 $^{\circ}$ (95% confidence) volume-weighted mean latitude (Fig. 1) that is independent of icehouse-greenhouse global climate state and the reversal frequency of geomagnetic polarity. Consistency of this result with modern climate zones bolsters the use of ancient evaporites as palaeolatitude proxies and supports a predominantly, if not entirely, GAD geomagnetic field model for the past 230 Myr (refs 14, 25). Detailed palaeomagnetic work on Late Triassic sedimentary rocks, spanning a range of palaeoclimatic zones in the north Atlantic region, also supports a GAD geomagnetic field model²⁶.

Palaeozoic evaporites are widespread and voluminous, as reviewed comprehensively by Zharkov²⁷. Although no seafloor-spreading data exist before the Jurassic period, Palaeozoic continental apparent polar wander (APW) paths are generally coherent enough to allow palaeolatitudes at specific ages to be calculated from running means or spline fits (see, for example, ref. 25). Palaeolatitude estimates vary

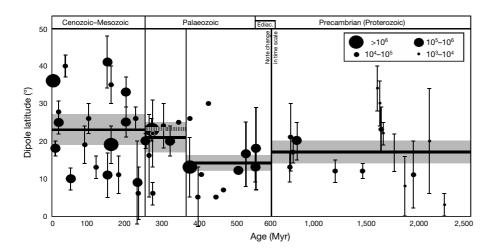
Table 1 | Palaeomagnetic constraints on evaporite basin depositional latitudes

	Age (Myr)	Volume (km³)	Palaeopole (°N, °E)	Dipole λ' (°)
enozoic-Mesozoic (0-250 Myr)				
1. Messinian (36, 018)	5	1,000,000	Present position	36 N
2. Red Sea (21, 038)	10	900,000	BC02 mean (85, 174)	$18 \pm 2 \text{ N}$
3. SW Iran (31, 047)	20	300,000	BC02 mean (84, 229)	$25 \pm 3 \text{ N}$
4. S Mozambique (-23, 035)	20	27,000	BC02 mean (84, 176)	$28 \pm 3 \text{ S}$
5. E China (34,115)	40	20,000	BC02 mean (81, 162)	$40 \pm 3 \text{ N}$
6. Rus, Arabia (25, 050)	50	200,000	BC02 mean (75, 237)	$10 \pm 3 \text{ N}$
7. N Sahara (32, 008)	90	32,000	BC02 mean (67, 249)	$19 \pm 5 \text{ N}$
8. Indochina (16, 104)	100	50,000	Y+01 mean (57, 170)	$26 \pm 4 \text{ N}$
9. S Atlantic (-3, 010)	120	35,000	BC02 mean (54, 261)	$13 \pm 3 S$
10. Hith, Arabia (24, 050)	150	360,000	BC02 mean (47, 268)	$11 \pm 6 S$
11. Central Asia (43, 070)	150	250,000	BC02 mean (75, 160)	$41 \pm 7 \text{ N}$
12. Andes (35, 290)	160	40,000	BC02 mean (89, 264)	$35 \pm 5 S$
13. Gulf of Mexico (27, 265)	160	2,400,000	BC02 mean (74, 150)	$19 \pm 5 \text{ N}$
14. Alan, Arabia (33, 044)	180	20,000	BC02 mean (61, 270)	$11 \pm 5 \text{ N}$
15. Tanzania (-10, 040)	200	150,000	BC02 mean (62, 252)	$33 \pm 4 S$
16. N Sahara (35, 355)	200	710,000	BC02 mean (62, 252)	$25 \pm 4 \text{ N}$
17. Keuper (52, 005)	225	50,000	T+01 mean (56, 132)	$26 \pm 3 \text{ N}$
18. Jilh, Arabia (29, 049)	230	120,000	TV02 mean (49, 254)	$9 \pm 11 S$
19. S China (29, 106)	230	80,000	Z+96 mean (46, 218)	$6 \pm 7 \text{ N}$
Cenozoic-Mesozoic volume-weighted mean	n (95% confidence)		2 / /064 (.6/ 216/	23 ± 4
ermian-Carboniferous (250-360 Myr)				
1. Zechstein (54, 011)	250	200,000	T+01 mean (52, 155)	$20 \pm 2 \text{ N}$
			TC04,15% G3 (55, 158)	23
2. Khuff, Arabia (27, 050)	260	75,000	TV02 mean (43, 257)	$16 \pm 11 S$
2. Kildii, / Kabia (27, 030)			TC04, interpolated (36, 243)	26
3. E European (52, 052)	270	1,100,000	T+01 mean (45, 165)	23 ± 3 N
3. L European (32, 032)		, ,	TC04,12.5% G3 (45, 167)	22
4. Peru-Bolivia (-13, 291)	270	62,000	TV02 mean (68, 174)	22 ± 9 S
5. Midcontinental USA (41, 257) 6. Amazon (-3, 310) 7. Sverdrup (79, 264)		,,,,,,	TC04,12.5% G3 (62, 161)	30
	270	81,000	T+01 mean (44, 126)	6 ± 3 N
	2, 3	02/000	TC04, 12.5% G3 (44, 128)	7
	300	25,000	TV02 mean (60, 174)	24 ± 6 S
	500	25,550	TC04, 10% G3 (55, 158)	33
	315	120,000	V93 mean (28, 129)	20 ± 4 N
	313	120,000	TC04, 10% G3 (36, 127)	28
8. Canadian Maritime (46, 298)	340	46,000	TC04, 10 % G5 (36, 127)	25 S
o. Canadian Maritime (40, 270)	5.15	.0,000	TV02, 20% G3 (7, 136)	34
Permian-Carboniferous volume-weighted n Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%)	nean (95% confidence)		1 402, 2070 G3 (7, 130)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%)	nean (95% confidence)		1 VU2, 20 % G3 (7, 130)	21 ± 4
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr)		1100.000		21 ± 4 23 ± 4
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040)	370	1,100,000	V93 mean (27, 149)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115)	370 370	18,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250)	370 370 390	18,000 86,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Revonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033)	370 370 390 400	18,000 86,000 81,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Revonian–late Ediacaran (360–600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279)	370 370 390 400 420	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124)	370 370 390 400 420 440	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) evonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S
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Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence)	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S
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Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence)	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 50,000 30,000 90,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence)	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 —— 21 ± 9
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 525 525 770 785 7770 ~800 ~800 ~800 ~830?	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence)	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 250,000 30,000 90,000 15,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 525 525 770 785 7770 ~800 ~800 ~800 ~830?	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 15,000 25,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N —— (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 —— 20 ± 5
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830 ~1,200	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 140,000 15,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None Rowne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N — (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 — 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 — 20 ± 5
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352)	370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830 ~1,200 ~1,200?	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 140,000 15,000 8,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 3
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mean recambrian (pre-Ediacaran volume-weighted mean recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (-25, 118)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 520 525 5770 ~785 ~7770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~1,200 ~1,200? 1,460	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 140,000 15,000 8,000 10,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 12 ± 2
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (−21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (−31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (−30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (−22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (−12, 027) 5. Centralian (−25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (−25, 118) 10a. Balbirini (−17, 136)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~1,200 ~1,200? 1,460 ~1,500 1,610	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 140,000 15,000 8,000 10,000 ≤2,800 2,500	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None Direct (-66, 178)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 12 ± 2 34 ± 6
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (-25, 118) 10a. Balbirini (-17, 136) 10b. Lynott (-17, 136)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~830? ~1,200 ~1,200? 1,460 ~1,500 1,610 1,635	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 50,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 140,000 15,000 8,000 10,000 ≤2,800 2,500 3,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None Roone Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None Direct (-66, 178) Direct (-75, 163)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 12 ± 2 34 ± 6 30 ± 6
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (-25, 118) 10a. Balbirini (-17, 136) 10b. Lynott (-17, 136) 10c. Myrtle (-19, 138)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 525 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~1,200? 1,460 ~1,500 1,610 1,635 1,645	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 140,000 15,000 8,000 10,000 €2,800 2,500 3,000 10,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None Direct (-66, 178) Direct (-75, 163) Emmerugga (-79, 203)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 12 ± 2 34 ± 6 30 ± 6 23 ± 6
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) Devonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (-21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (-31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (-30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (-22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (-12, 027) 5. Centralian (-25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (-25, 118) 10a. Balbirini (-17, 136) 10b. Lynott (-17, 136) 10d. Mallapunyah (-19, 138)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~830 ~1,200? 1,460 ~1,500 1,610 1,635 1,645 1,660	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 8,000 140,000 ≤2,800 2,500 3,000 13,000 13,000 13,000 5,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None Direct (-66, 178) Direct (-75, 163) Emmerugga (-79, 203) Direct (-35, 214)	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 20 ± 5 12 ± 2 34 ± 6 30 ± 6 23 ± 6 22 ± 3
Recalculated for G3 contributions (95%) levonian-late Ediacaran (360-600 Myr) 1. E European (57, 040) 2. Taimyr (74, 115) 3. W Canada (55, 250) 4. Morsovo (53, 033) 5. Michigan (41, 279) 6. Canning (−21, 124) 7. Canadian Arctic (76, 265) 8. Mackenzie (65, 234) 9. Morocco-lberia (34, 357) 10. Siberia (60, 105) 11. Persian Gulf (22, 058) 12. Salt Range (33, 073) Devonian-Ediacaran volume-weighted mea recambrian (pre-Ediacaran; >600 Myr) 1a. Skillogalee (−31, 138) 1b. Curdimurka (−30, 138) 2a. Kilian-Redstone River (68, 238) 2b. Minto Inlet (68, 238) 3. Duruchaus (−22, 018) 4. Copperbelt (−12, 027) 5. Centralian (−25, 129) 6. Borden (73, 278) 7. Char/Douik (23, 352) 8. Belt (48, 245) 9. Discovery (−25, 118) 10a. Balbirini (−17, 136) 10b. Lynott (−17, 136) 10d. Mallapunyah (−19, 138) 10d. Myrtle (−19, 138) 10d. Myrtle (−19, 138) 10d. Corella (−21, 140)	370 370 370 390 400 420 440 460 500 520 520 545 ~550 n (95% confidence) ~770 ~785 ~770 ~800 ~800 ~830? ~830? ~1,200 ~1,200? 1,460 ~1,500 1,610 1,635 1,645 1,660 1,740	18,000 86,000 81,000 29,000 26,000 19,000 110,000 50,000 800,000 240,000 25,000 30,000 90,000 15,000 25,000 140,000 15,000 8,000 10,000 ≤2,800 2,500 3,000 13,000 5,000 2,000	V93 mean (27, 149) TC04 mean (10, 117) V93 mean (23, 110) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (2, 145) CT02 mean (14, 125) CT02 mean (19, 201) CT02 mean (13, 149) CT02 mean (4, 165) Debated Tommotian-Toyonian Sinyai (-33, 326)* Khewra (-28, 032) Mundine Well (46, 135)* None Direct (22, 151) L. Dal Basinal (-16, 141) None None Browne (-44, 312) Strathcona S. (8, 204) None Belt B1-4 (-25, 214)* None Direct (-66, 178) Direct (-75, 163) Emmerugga (-79, 203) Direct (-35, 214) Peters Creek (-26, 221)*	21 ± 4 23 ± 4 13 ± 8 N 26 N 5 ± 8 S 11 S 30 S 5 N 7 N 12 N (8-25) S 13 ± 4 N 18 ± 11 S 14 ± 2 13 ± 4 - 21 ± 9 17 ± 3 - 20 ± 5 12 ± 3 - 12 ± 2 - 34 ± 6 30 ± 6 22 ± 3 17 ± 5
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Evaporite localities represent the centres of the basins. Dipole λ' is the palaeolatitude of the basin centre assuming a GAD magnetic field; 95% uncertainties are from (A₉₅) or (dp) confidence limits on the palaeomagnetic poles. Poles are rotated into the coordinate reference frame of the evaporite basin, with Euler parameters from the cited sources, plus the Sinyai pole to Arabia from ref. 29. In some instances, vertical-axis rotations of the palaeomagnetic sample localities are known or suspected, but they are not corrected here. Abbreviations: G3, same-sign geocentric axial octupole component; BC02, ref. 24; CT02, ref. 47 (no uncertainties on means provided); T+01, ref. 48; TC04, ref. 39 (no uncertainties provided); TV02, ref. 25; V93, ref. 28; Y+01, ref. 49; Z+96, ref. 50. For further information and references on evaporite deposits and palaeomagnetic poles, see Supplementary Information.

* Individual palaeomagnetic studies derived wholly or partly from volcanic rocks.

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Figure 1 | Evaporite palaeomagnetic latitudes through time, assuming a GAD field as a null hypothesis. Individual basins are schematically scaled to evaporite volume (circle sizes are scaled in km³ as in the inset) and shown with 95% uncertainty limits in palaeolatitude as listed in Table 1. Volume-weighted means (solid bars) and 95% error envelopes (shaded) are divided into the four age intervals as discussed in text. A corrected mean for best-fit octupole components can be calculated for the late Palaeozoic (dashed bar; uncertainty excluded for clarity).

little with averaging method or data selection, except for the age intervals of the Silurian-Devonian and the Early Cambrian^{28,29}, at times of widespread evaporite deposition (Table 1). For basins of these ages, special care was taken to consult primary constituent palaeomagnetic studies in order to determine which latitude estimates are most reliable. In the present compilation, the Palaeozoic (and late Ediacaran) basins are separated into two groups: Permian— Carboniferous, for which quantitative estimates of octupolar field components are available through palaeogeographic consistency tests across large continents^{25,30}, and Devonian–Ediacaran, for which no such estimates currently exist. Eight Permian–Carboniferous deposits with volumes greater than 10⁴ km³ have a weighted-mean dipole palaeolatitude of $21 \pm 4^{\circ}$, nearly identical to the Cenozoic– Mesozoic mean and nearly unaffected when previously estimated octupolar components are included in the pole calculations (Table 1). Among 11 out of 12 large Devonian-Ediacaran evaporites with palaeomagnetic constraints, however, the weighted-mean dipole palaeolatitude of $14 \pm 2^{\circ}$ is substantially lower (Fig. 1) and is again independent of global climate state and geomagnetic reversal frequency. As discussed below, this result is anomalous and may indicate exceptional periods of non-uniformitarian geomagnetism and/or palaeoclimate.

An extensive literature survey of described Precambrian evaporite deposits highlights 21 examples of great thickness and basin-wide scale (Table 1), the largest of which have also appeared in previous compilations 31,32 . Continuous APW paths are rarely determined for segments of Precambrian time, so the estimation of palaeolatitudes requires specific results from the evaporite units themselves, conformably bounded strata, or coeval rocks on the same palaeocontinent. Evaporites with volumes greater than $10^3\,\mathrm{km}^3$ are restricted to the Proterozoic era, as old as about 2,250 Myr. The volume-weighted mean inclination from the 15 palaeomagnetically constrained basins among this group (31.6 \pm 2.1° (s.e.m.)) corresponds to a GAD palaeolatitude of 17 \pm 3° (95% confidence). This result is slightly lower than the Cenozoic–Mesozoic baseline value, with possible causes discussed below.

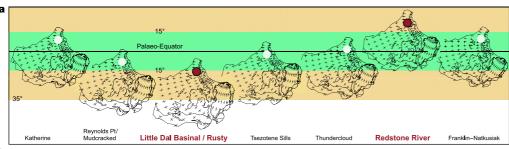
Testing high obliquity

Three published general-circulation climate models have reported evaporation–precipitation trends as a function of latitude on a high-obliquity planet with otherwise Earth-like parameters $^{33-35}$. These simulations indicate a near-isothermal to weakly reversed mean-annual zonal climate pattern, depending on whether the oceans are allowed to store and release heat through the annual cycle. Whenever there is any annually averaged evaporative peak present, the models locate this maximum at a single arid belt centred on the Equator. In conjunction with an assumed GAD field, these simulations would predict a unimodal peak of evaporite palaeomagnetic latitudes at 0° , with a large standard deviation.

Precambrian evaporite latitudes on Earth show a significantly nonzero mean with low variance (Table 1), consistent with a 'normal' climate gradient on a low-obliquity world. A zero mean could be obtained if half of the palaeolatitudes were considered to represent the opposite hemisphere (geomagnetic polarity being generally unknown in the Precambrian), but even then the total distribution would be significantly bimodal, in contrast with the high-obliquity model predictions. For some basins the palaeomagnetic record is complete enough to show continental motion through alternate times of evaporite and carbonate deposition, in patterns consistent with latitude crossings between subtropical arid and equatorial humid zones (Fig. 2). The Precambrian volume-weighted mean evaporite basin latitude ($17 \pm 3^{\circ}$) is indistinguishable from that of the entire Phanerozoic eon $(20 \pm 3^{\circ})$. Given that Phanerozoic obliquity is universally considered to have modern-like values9, the palaeomagnetic record of evaporites thus argues for uniformitarian orbital dynamics of the Earth-Moon system at least as old as the Palaeoproterozoic era.

Testing non-dipole field components

The second application of evaporite palaeolatitudes considers the long-term structure of the geomagnetic field. Although one can conceive of an infinitely complex hypothetical Precambrian geomagnetic field topology, only axial components can be distinguished through broad palaeoclimatic comparisons spanning billions of years. Because palaeomagnetic polarity is generally unknown among sparse Precambrian results, tests for subsidiary geomagnetic field components are practically limited to antisymmetric harmonics such as the geocentric axial octupole. Figure 3 shows the effect on surface inclinations of 0-40% subsidiary zonal octupole of the same sign relative to an otherwise pure GAD field³⁶, for the 15° and 35° latitudinal bounds of the modern arid zones and for the mean depositional latitudes of Cenozoic-Mesozoic evaporite basins. Only the Devonian-Ediacaran subset shows a significantly shallower mean inclination at the 99% confidence level (Student's t-test), which could be interpreted as a persistent octupolar component of 19% relative to the dipole. This value is broadly similar in magnitude to that of the aggregate database-wide inclination tests of Kent and Smethurst¹⁴, who found a best-fit same-sign octupole component of about 25% for pre-Mesozoic data. Using the Cenozoic-Mesozoic evaporite inclination baseline, an octupolar contribution of this magnitude shifts the expected inclination range to $21.9 \pm 2.5^{\circ}$ (s.e.m.). Although pre-Ediacaran data are slightly shallower than the Cenozoic-Mesozoic GAD baseline, they are significantly different at the 99% confidence level (Student's t-test) from that 25% octupoleadjusted baseline value. This suggests that substantial non-GAD components were not present in the long-term Precambrian geomagnetic field, and it supports the alternative explanation for databasewide inclination shallowing proposed by Kent and Smethurst¹⁴,



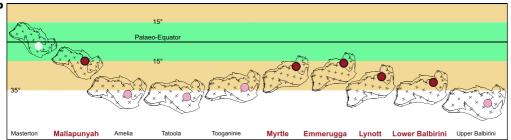


Figure 2 | Two sporadically evaporitic pre-Ediacaran basins that are palaeomagnetically well constrained throughout their depositional histories. The horizontal axis denotes stratigraphic development, with younger to the right. Latitude zones are colour-coded for the presentday humid tropics and arid subtropics, on a Mercator projection. Darker, lighter, and white circles indicate stratigraphic intervals of major, minor, and absent-to-negligible evaporites, respectively. a, Neoproterozoic Amundsen basin, Laurentia⁴⁵. b, Palaeoproterozoic McArthur basin, northern Australia⁴⁶.

namely that continental positions tend on average towards low latitudes by means of true polar wander through supercontinental cycles³⁷. Such a tendency would similarly impart a low-latitude bias to the preserved subset of rift-related evaporites, but the largest basins considered here are found in variable tectonic settings that should be independent of supercontinental episodicity.

A significant octupole component (about 10–15% relative to GAD) was determined by consistency tests on palaeomagnetic data from the late Palaeozoic continents Laurussia³⁰ and Gondwanaland²⁵, and this also resolved some long-standing overlap problems with reconstructions of Pangaea between those two plates (a pure GAD model requires a large Permian megashear between the two continents³⁸). The present compilation of evaporite inclinations does not provide further insight into this debate, because error-min-

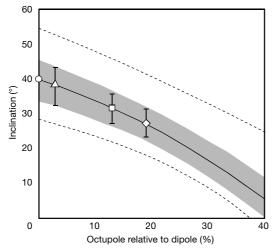


Figure 3 | Plot of magnetic inclination against same-sign geomagnetic octupole component relative to a purely GAD field. The values for the inclination biases were calculated from the equation in ref. 36. Dashed curves indicate the declining inclination values, according to increasing octupole contributions, that would correspond to 15° and 35° latitude limits of present arid subtropical zones. The solid curve corresponds to the same biasing effect on inclinations computed from the mean latitude of Cenozoic–Mesozoic evaporite basins and a pure GAD field (circle), with its 95% error envelope (shaded). Permian–Carboniferous (triangle), Devonian–Ediacaran (diamond), and pre-Ediacaran (square) mean inclinations and their 95% uncertainty limits, when aligned with the Cenozoic–Mesozoic baseline curve, provide quantifiable estimates of ancient geomagnetic octupole field components.

imizing octupole field corrections for Permian to Late Carboniferous APW paths³⁹ have no significant effects on the volume-weighted mean for evaporites of that interval (Table 1). Octupole-corrected early Palaeozoic APW paths are not yet available for all continents, but such calculations will help to determine whether the early part of the Palaeozoic era was a time of departure from an otherwise uniformitarian GAD field, perhaps as a result of particular convective patterns at the core—mantle boundary¹⁵.

Other factors may have contributed to the substantially shallowed mean inclination for Devonian-Ediacaran evaporites, and the slightly shallowed mean for pre-Ediacaran evaporites: first, narrowing of the Hadley zones due to a faster rotation rate⁴⁰; second, a shallow bias of palaeomagnetic inclinations due to sedimentary magnetization processes⁴¹; and third, particular continental distributions conducive to aridity in deep tropical regions^{23,42}. The first process may have contributed to the shallowing of Precambrian inclinations but not substantially to the more marked early Palaeozoic anomaly. Regarding the second process, the pre-Ediacaran mean remains low even when only igneous-based palaeomagnetic results are considered (Table 1). The significantly shallowed early Palaeozoic mean evaporite palaeolatitude could be a result of the third process, because several of the larger basins reconstruct near the vertex of a proto-Tethys-like sea³⁹, which may have been influenced by monsoon-like circulation in the same manner that produces anomalously dry conditions in present-day eastern Africa²³. The slightly shallowed pre-Ediacaran mean inclination could also reflect one or more instances of similar palaeoclimatic peculiarities.

Implications

First-order consistency of Precambrian evaporite basin palaeomagnetic latitudes with modern arid zones and Cenozoic-Mesozoic evaporite palaeolatitudes confirms the GAD hypothesis for the Earth's magnetic field since about 2,000 Myr ago, about four times longer than known from previous palaeoclimatic-palaeomagnetic global comparisons^{2,21,22}. Because no voluminous evaporites are preserved from the times of Proterozoic ice ages, the present study allows the possibility of relatively short-term geomagnetic departures from the GAD model, as a potential contributor to the low glacial palaeolatitudes. However, those departures would need to be extreme to produce the near-equatorial results, and, on the contrary, stratabound antiparallel palaeomagnetic polarity reversals from within some of the Proterozoic glaciogenic successions⁴³ seem to reflect 'typical' geomagnetic behaviour of more recent times. Short-term departures from low Earth obliquity are not possible because of the stabilizing influence of the Moon¹¹.

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Earth's evaporite record extends in abundance only through the Proterozoic Eon^{31,32}; studies such as this are therefore unlikely to characterize the growth of Earth's geomagnetic field, which seems to have occurred before 2,450 Myr ago⁴⁴. Conversely, reliable palaeomagnetic data from Archaean sedimentary rocks are currently so sparse as to preclude comprehensive treatment of any palaeoclimatic indicator from that interval, evaporitic or otherwise. Nonetheless, the present compilation addresses several important issues of deep time: first, that the high-obliquity hypothesis has failed an important observational test that is independent of Earth's Precambrian glacial record; second, that near-equatorial palaeomagnetic latitudes of Precambrian glacial deposits are not likely to be substantially biased by non-dipolar field components, unless such components were of exceptional magnitude and short duration coincident with ice ages; and third, that—according to the available tests—Earth's time-averaged magnetic field may be approximated by a geocentric axial dipole for most of the past 2 Gyr. Success of the uniformitarian principle in explaining evaporite distributions implies that its failure, with regard to low-latitude Precambrian glaciation, is most probably caused by anomalies in palaeoclimatic rather than geophysical processes.

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Supplementary Information is linked to the online version of the paper at www.nature.com/nature.

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nine of the ten species studied³, there are data on worker reproduction in queenless colonies where there can be no policing in favour of the queen's eggs. Two things change as a result. First, freed from policing, a higher fraction of workers opt to lay eggs. But, remarkably, many individuals still help instead of reproducing, and the fraction that help is now positively correlated with relatedness. Relatedness does matter, and this must be the reason that coercion can induce workers to help.

Wenseleers and Ratnieks⁵ earlier found a similar result when nutritional coercion is absent. In honeybees and their relatives the stingless bees, most species use nutritional coercion to limit queen production to a few at a time. Few are needed, because new queens can reproduce only by usurping the mother queen, or by acquiring a colony on the rare occasions the colony splits into two. The exception is the stingless bee genus Melipona. Here, all brood cells are pre-provisioned equally, and then sealed. A developing larva can therefore choose for herself whether to develop as a queen, with a larger abdomen, or as a worker, with larger fore parts (Fig. 1). Many females choose to develop as queens, showing their preference in the absence of constraint. This can result in hundreds of surplus young queens in a colony, so a new level of control has evolved. The workers slaughter the excess queens, so that the nest evokes the climactic scene of Hamlet, with royal corpses littering the stage. This is a great waste, but shows that it is nutritional coercion that normally keeps queen numbers in check. Yet this case, too, reveals that coercion is not everything and relatedness is important. More than 75% of females still choose the altruistic worker role, and the proportion is higher in species with higher relatedness⁵.

Finally, it should be remembered that Hamilton's kinship theory is not just about altruism per se, but about how all traits of altruistic workers evolve. When honeybee ancestors first evolved sociality, the workers could not waggle dance to convey information to each other, or suicidally detach their stings to better repel enemies, or police each other. These features, and all specialized features of workers, had to evolve by kin selection, through their indirect effects on relatives who could pass on genes for these traits. For example, the surprising positive correlation between relatedness and worker laying³, which has been confirmed in a much larger comparative study⁴, is expected under policing. Low relatedness among workers favours workers policing each other. Thus, although policing keeps suppressed workers from fully expressing their kin-related interests, policing is itself kin selected.

Many social conflicts create winners and losers. But only kinship allows evolution to make

creative use of the social losers, turning them into reproductive police, exquisite communicators and heroic defenders. When Hamlet suffered the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune, he debated putting an end to himself. Social insect workers do sometimes choose suicide but, because of kinship, this hamiltonian choice is profoundly different from the hamletian dilemma. The stinging honeybee worker commits suicide when her sting is torn out, but this saves her kin. She is not making an escape from outrageous fortune, but making the best of it — not fearful of what dreams may come, but hopeful for what genes may come. However socially constrained her life may have been, her last action makes her own clear statement: long live the kin!

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GEODHASICS

Same old magnetism

Edward Irving

Latitudes at which ancient salt deposits occur show that Earth's magnetic field has always aligned along its rotation axis. One possible implication is that ancient global glaciations were not caused by a realignment of this axis.

In a paper of admirable scope and thoroughness that appears on page 51 of this issue¹, David Evans analyses the magnetization locked into rocks associated with salts from all over the globe that have been deposited over the past 2,500 million years. Taking as a working model the 'geocentric axial dipole' — the idea that, averaged over thousands of years, the magnetic field at Earth's surface resembles the field of a magnet, or dipole, at Earth's centre^{2,3} — these magnetizations and this model provide clues to the past evolution and interplay of Earth's magnetism, climate and geography.

In the geocentric axial dipole model, the north and south poles of Earth's internal magnet are aligned along Earth's axis of rotation. This simple axial form is thought to be caused by rotational forces that guide the motions of Earth's conducting liquid core, and so constrain the average surface field. Under favourable circumstances, rocks become magnetized along the direction of the ambient geomagnetic

field as they are formed. Thus, by sampling sequences of rocks with formation dates spanning several thousands of years, one can determine the past average direction of the field, the 'palaeolatitude' of the sampling locality and the position of the palaeomagnetic pole at the time. For the past 5 million years, these poles coincide with the present rotational pole; the giant dipole model has therefore been valid for at least this long.

For rocks of much earlier ages, the palaeomagnetic poles determined from rocks from different sampling sites are widely dispersed. This is the result of continental drift and seafloor spreading in the intervening period. If we restore the continents to their original positions using the geometrical methods of plate tectonics, palaeomagnetic pole positions agree very well⁴. Such corrections go back some 200 million years, and again imply that the geomagnetic field has been a geocentric dipole for that period.

But this evidence does not tell us that the field was also axial. To determine this, one first assumes that the geocentric axial dipole model holds, and determines the latitudes at which temperature-sensitive deposits were laid down from their magnetization directions, or, in the case of salts, those of similarly aged rocks. If these palaeolatitudes are compatible with the modern latitudes of similar deposits, the geocentric axial dipole model is likely to be valid.

The deposits that are the object of Evans's studies¹ are known as evaporites. They comprise beds of, among other things, gypsum, anhydrite, halite and potassium salts, and are of huge economic importance. They were formed by intense evaporation of enclosed saline lakes or sea water. The conditions for their formation must therefore have been hot and dry, as expected typically in latitudes lower than 30°. Very near the Equator, however, it is too wet for them to form.

Evans shows that, consistently over the past 2,500 million years, evaporites have been deposited predominantly between latitudes 10° and 35° (Fig. 1, overleaf). This is a beautifully documented testament to uniformitarianism — the doctrine that today's geological processes have always occurred in a broadly similar manner.

Interest in the interplay between the geomagnetic field and ancient climate zones has been spurred by evidence in a wide range of latitudes, including at sea level near the Equator,



50 YEARS AGO

Not being English or French, but of speech a mid-west American from Manitoba and Dakota, it did not mean anything to me when in 1906 I heard the Eskimos of the Mackenzie Delta and north-eastern Alaska speaking of spruce gum as 'kutsuk'... Years later, perhaps in 1912, I learned that the word for the gum of a Brazilian plant, and of other South American plants, is 'caoutchouc'... Turning now to Greenland, in Sam. Kleinschmidt: "Den Grönlandske Ordbog", I find "kutsuk... Gummi, Campher og lignende producter"... When I first began to talk about this, I was told it was coincidence. But the intellectual climate is changing, among other things in linguistics, and now... [some] think 'connexion' a likelier word than 'coincidence'. Vilhjalmur Stefansson From Nature 3 November 1956.

100 YEARS AGO

Great Bowlers and Fielders. Their Methods at a Glance by G. W. Beldam and C. B. Fry - Following up their interesting volume on "Great Batsmen," the accomplished authors of "Great Bowlers and Fielders" have practically completed all that action photography can teach us regarding the methods of the great cricketers. The present



handsome volume with its 464 action photographs registers for all time the successive positions of the body in the act of bowling of some of the most celebrated bowlers of our day, and also certain very characteristic attitudes of a number of our best fielders... [This] one represents W. Rhodes at the beginning of his final swing, and is chosen partly because of the perfection with which the grip of the ball is indicated.

From Nature 1 November 1906.



Figure 1 | Ancient evaporite. This white-coloured sulphate evaporite cliff (about 10 metres high) is interbedded with grey carbonate and mudstone layers within the 800-million-year-old Minto Inlet Formation on Victoria Island in northern Canada. Palaeomagnetic results from ageequivalent rocks in northwestern Canada indicate a latitude of 17° at the time of deposition that is consistent with modern arid climate zones.

that intermittent periods of glaciation covered the whole Earth between 750 million and 550 million years ago. Theories abound as to why this should have occurred, and one proposal⁵ is that Earth's obliquity might have changed drastically at the time. Obliquity is the tilt of Earth's equatorial plane to its ecliptic — the plane of its orbit around the Sun — and is currently 23.5°. If this tilt exceeds around 58°, high latitudes would get more solar heat than low latitudes, and this could account for low-latitude glaciations. The new data prove problematic for such models. Before and after the global glaciations, Evans consistently finds a strong low-latitude, off-Equator peak in evaporite deposition, indicating that obliquity then was not very different from now.

Evans's calculated palaeolatitudes do vary slightly through time, which he divides into four intervals running backwards. These are: interval 1, 250 million years ago (Myr) to the present; interval 2 (370–250 Myr); interval 3 (600–370 Myr); and interval 4 (2,500–600 Myr). The evaporite latitudes do tend to be lower in intervals 4, 3 and 2 than in interval 1, but the changes are irregular. There are two chief explanations for this variation. The first is that before interval 1 the geomagnetic field had long-term axial non-dipole components that endured unchanged for millions of years. These could have perturbed the geomagnetic field sufficiently to cause palaeomagnetic estimates of latitudes based on the geocentric axial dipole model to be systematically too low by as much as 10°. Alternatively, the field could have remained a simple axial dipole throughout, with the aberrations reflecting, for instance, continental drift or polar wandering.

Evans provides strong evidence for the validity of the geocentric axial dipole model throughout interval 1. Before that, he notes arguments⁶ favouring long-term axial non-dipole fields in interval 2, finds no grounds for them in interval 4, and seems undecided about interval 3.

I will focus on interval 2. Here, Evans accepts the previously advanced view⁶ that Alfred Wegener's grouping of continents into a supercontinent⁷, known as Pangaea A, persisted, not greatly changed, back through the entire interval. There are significant problems with such a long-lived Pangaea. Although there are firm correlations8 throughout interval 2 of very thick stratigraphic sequences within Gondwana and within Laurussia (respectively the clustered southern and northern continents that came together to form Pangaea A), there are no comparable correlations between Gondwana and Laurussia. Thus, placing these two supercontinents together in Pangaea A during interval 2 is problematic. Palaeomagnetic data⁵ for late interval 2 based on the assumption of an axial geocentric dipole field place portions of northern Gondwana at the same latitude as southern Laurussia, implying an impossible overlap of the two continents, one on top of the other, of around 1,000 km. But invoking the long-term axial non-dipole components would not remove this overlap⁹, because in such low latitudes their effect would be small and equal in both places. It is worth noting, too, that Evans's analysis does not explicitly require long-term axial non-dipole components in interval 2.

Evans makes no steady overall commitment to either of the contending explanations for the variations in the evaporite palaeolatitudes. I hope I will be forgiven for doing so. It seems reasonable to me to take the estimates of evaporite latitudes at face value and accept that, during the past 2,500 million years — apart from a relatively brief global glaciation at the end of interval 4 — hot and dry climates were typical of tropical, but not equatorial, latitudes, and that long-term non-dipole components have always been small or negligible. In other words, one should accept the geocentric axial dipole model as demonstrably successful for interval 1 and use it to settle questions of palaeogeography in earlier intervals. For example, displacing Gondwana to the east during interval 2 by around 3,500 km, a palaeogeography known as Pangaea B, reconciles the palaeomagnetic data with a feasible configuration of the early continents9.

Such palaeogeographic solutions are more generally testable than solutions involving longterm non-dipole fields: whereas the geomagnetic dynamo in early ages is an awfully remote item, ancient strata can be directly studied and the phenomena they reflect described. Most

JO YEARS AG

researchers accept interval 2 palaeogeography as settled. I disagree: on the principle of working from the known to the unknown, it could be just the issue that needs further critical consideration before we can confidently approach the question of earlier climate zones. Data of the extensive nature supplied by Evans¹ are what is needed to inform such debates.

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by increased expression of MDMX or MDM2. These proteins interact with p53, blocking its gene-regulatory activity and promoting its degradation² (Fig. 1). Analysis of human retino-blastoma reveals that the number of MDMX and MDM2 genes is amplified in 65% and 10% of the tumours, respectively, and that this correlates negatively with p53 levels. Moreover, the levels of MDMX RNA and protein were increased in several recently removed human tumours, and the authors confirm that MDMX antagonizes p53-mediated activation of certain target genes, cell-cycle arrest and programmed cell death in retinoblastoma cell lines.

To investigate the functional significance of the MDMX protein in the development of retinoblastoma, the authors turned to mouse models and cultured human fetal retina tissue (retinal explants). In the mouse, the development of retinoblastoma requires the elimination of Rb and one additional Rb family member, either p130 or p107 (ref. 5). However, as occurs in humans, the tumours in these models can develop with intact p53. Laurie et al. show that MDMX expression inhibits cell death, promotes proliferation and exacerbates retinoblastoma progression in mice lacking Rb and p107. MDMX expression also blocks cell death and promotes proliferation in human fetal retinal explants where Rb expression was reduced experimentally. This effect was not observed with an MDMX mutant that does not bind to p53. Furthermore, in both the mouse and the human retinal models, MDMX

CANCER BIOLOGY

Second step to retinal tumours

Valerie A. Wallace

The mutations that cause retinoblastoma are well known, but how they enable the cancer to evade controls on cell division was unclear. Secondary mutations affecting a growth-regulatory pathway have now been identified.

Most cancers arise through a two-step process in which an initiating mutation requires further tumour-promoting mutations to instigate the full-blown disease. Retinoblastoma is a childhood cancer of the retina that is one of the few tumour types for which the initiating genetic lesion is known — both copies of the retinoblastoma (Rb) tumour-suppressor gene are inactivated. However, few of the additional tumour-promoting lesions have been identified. On page 61 of this issue, Laurie et al.1 report that amplification of the numbers of MDMX and MDM2 genes occurs frequently in human retinoblastoma. They show that increased expression of MDMX can promote tumour development in genetic models of retinoblastoma in mice. They also show that a drug called nutlin-3, which blocks some actions of MDM proteins, can stop tumour progression in the eye, opening up a promising avenue for the potential treatment of these tumours.

MDMX and MDM2 are structurally related proteins that act as antagonists of a cellsignalling pathway named after its most famous member — the tumour suppressor p53 (ref. 2). The p53 protein is a gene regulatory factor that normally inhibits cell proliferation and induces cell death in response to cellular stress. The Rb tumour-suppressor pathway also inhibits cell proliferation, in part by blocking the expression of genes required for the cell to divide. Normally, loss of Rb leads to induction of p14^{ARF}, a key activator of p53 (ref. 3; Fig. 1). But in many cancers, p53 activity is blocked by mutations in the p53 gene or alterations to other genes in the pathway, allowing cells to escape death and leading to uncontrolled division. In human retinoblastoma, however, the p53 pathway is intact⁴, and acute Rb loss in the human retina induces p14^{ARF} expression, which should unleash the lethal potential of p53 in response to this mutation¹. So how do retinoblastoma cells subvert the intact p53 pathway to prevent it from killing them?

Laurie *et al.* provide evidence that the p53 pathway is circumvented in retinoblastoma cells

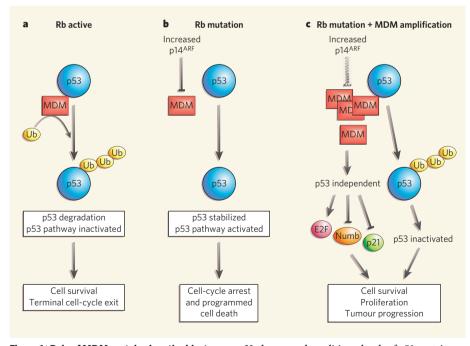


Figure 1 | Role of MDM proteins in retinoblastoma. a, Under normal conditions, levels of p53 protein are kept low, partly through negative regulation by MDM proteins. MDM2 is an enzyme that tags p53 with a ubiquitin molecule (Ub), thereby promoting p53 degradation. MDMX also interacts physically with p53 and inhibits its gene-regulatory activity. b, Mutation of the retinoblastoma gene (Rb) results in increased production of the p14 $^{\rm ARF}$ protein, which in turn leads to inactivation of MDM2, thus promoting p53 pathway activation. This leads to cell-cycle arrest or cell death, or facilitates DNA repair. c, Increased expression of MDM proteins in the absence of Rb blocks activation of p53, leading to survival of the abnormal cells and tumour progression. Independently of p53, interactions of MDM with other proteins that regulate cell division, survival and differentiation could also promote tumour progression $^{\rm 13}$.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

The most substantial Phanerozoic evaporite basins, by total volume of halite plus sulphate salts, are selected mainly from the compendia in refs.¹⁻⁶. Because Phanerozoic evaporites are extensively described, more detailed reference lists are not provided here. In each instance, a palaeomagnetic latitude is calculated for a reference locality from the center of the existing or inferred area of the original depositional basin, and an age near the middle of the span of evaporite deposition. Except for some terranes within the Tethyan foldbelt of Asia (e.g., Khorat basin, Indochina), Late Triassic and younger basins can be reconstructed to palaeolatitudes by combining continental and oceanic palaeomagnetic data via the global plate circuit⁷. An independent compilation of data⁸ produces practically identical results. Mid-Triassic to Late Cambrian palaeolatitudes are calculated from running means along apparent polar wander (APW) paths from global palaeomagnetic syntheses, most notably refs. ⁹⁻¹¹. Two of these studies^{9, 10} do not include error estimates in their tabulated mean pole positions, but they are likely to be in the range of ca.10° (ref. ¹²).

Estimated Cambrian and late Ediacaran evaporite palaeolatitudes require explanation because during this interval of time, continental motions and most APW paths appear to show rapid motion¹³⁻¹⁶, and accurate age constraints plus tectonic affinities are of exceptional importance in calculating basin palaeolatitudes. Pre-Ediacaran evaporites are also discussed individually, as numbered in Table 1. In many instances, thicknesses and basin areas must be estimated from illustrations in the cited references. Most Precambrian evaporites are not composed of original salts, but are indicated by secondary

pseudomorph replacements after the original chlorides or sulphates^{5, 17}. I have considered bedded magnesite in my compilation¹⁸, but not more tentative suggestions of evaporites based on substantially different inferrred ocean chemistry (e.g. Hamersley-type iron formations¹⁹). Depositional palaeolatitudes noted below are valid for a geocentric-axial-dipolar (GAD) field on a sphere of constant radius.

- (9) Morocco-Iberia. Alvaro et al.²⁰ summarize evaporitic pseudomorphs averaging an estimated 200 m in thickness across an area of ca.1250 x 200 km within the Cadomian belt and the Moroccan Cambrian platform. Ages range from the oldest strata, Adoudounian, containing an ash bed dated by U-Pb on zircon at 525.38±0.46 Ma ²¹, to the overlying Lie de Vin succession, dated at 522±2 Ma²², to European strata correlative with the Moroccan Issafen unit, dated at 517±1.5 Ma²². The most abundant halite pseudomorphs are found in Iberian strata of approximately 520 Ma age, according to the regional correlations²⁰. At about that time, the Cadomian belt was adjacent to the West African sector of Gondwanaland, drifting rapidly together toward the south pole, according to both palaeoclimate indicators²⁰ and a smoothed Gondwanaland APW path²³. The precise timing of the palaeomagnetic rotations, however, are uncertain^{16, 24, 25}, thus Table 1 lists these Early Cambrian evaporites' palaeolatitudes as "debated."
- (10) Siberia. Zharkov⁶ assigned area and volume estimates of the extensive Cambrian halite and gypsum beds of the southwestern Siberian craton. Petrychenko et al.²⁶ indicate salt depositional ages spanning the Tommotian to Toyonian intervals of the Early Cambrian (ca.520 Ma; ref. ²²). Similar to the case of Gondwanaland, Early Cambrian

palaeomagnetic poles for Siberia are also debated. A more conservative interpretation of data^{27, 28} indicates minor APW for that interval, but "anomalous" older results²⁹ have been reproduced by some studies (e.g., ref. ³⁰). The range of Tommotian-Toyonian evaporite palaeolatitudes indicated by these studies is 08-25°; its midpoint of 17° is used in the mean calculations.

(11-12) Persian Gulf-Salt Range. A widespread evaporitic basin, developed during latest Precambrian time on the proto-Tethyan margin of Gondwanaland, is now exposed in fragments between Arabia and western India³¹. The Arabian strata, with numerous minor evaporite levels culminating upward toward the halite-bearing Ara Formation at the top of the Hugf Supergroup³² are precisely dated at 545-542 Ma^{33, 34}. In northern Pakistan, the gypsum-bearing Salt Range Formation occupies a similar stratigraphic position beneath a sparsely fossiliferous Cambrian succession³⁵. The Hanseran evaporites of western India may correlate with those deposits³⁶, but precise age constraints are lacking. Palaeomagnetic data bearing on depositional palaeolatitudes must be applied indirectly from other regions of Gondwanaland (in the case of the precisely dated Ara Formation) or from stratigraphically adjacent strata (in the case of the Salt Range Formation). After restoration of Neogene separation between Arabia and Africa (all Gondwanaland reconstruction parameters from ref. ²⁵), a palaeomagnetic pole from the 547±4 Ma Sinyai metadolerite³⁷ implies a palaeolatitude of 15° for the Ara Formation in Oman. Another estimate of ca.15° Ara palaeolatitude is provided by the coeval upper Arumbera Sandstone in Australia³⁸, assuming that Gondwanaland had formed by earliest Cambrian time³⁹. For the Salt Range and Hanseran evaporites, with less precisely constrained ages,

depositional palaeolatitudes of ca.17° are provided by the conformably overlying Khewra Formation in the Salt Range⁴⁰. Although all these palaeolatitudes are similar, the pole positions are quite distinct and suggest either diachroneity among evaporite deposits or final tectonic assembly of Gondwanaland after their deposition.

(1) Skillogalee-Curdimurka, South Australia. Within the Adelaide foldbelt, two prominent levels of evaporites are described. The older, Curdimurka Subgroup of the Callanna Group, contains abundant pseudomorphs after anhydrite, halite, and shortite, attaining an aggregate thickness of about 1 km over an area of about 50,000 km² (refs. 41, ⁴²). The evaporitic sequence lies above the Rook Tuff dated at 802±10 Ma⁴³ and is considered to be older than the 777±7 Ma Boucaut Volcanics (C.M.Fanning, unpublished, quoted in ref. 44). No reliable palaeomagnetic data exist from this age interval in Australia. The younger level of evaporites is found as bedded magnesite in the upper Skillogalee Formation, within the Burra Group, averaging about 500 m thickness across the same rift structures that localized deposition in the underlying Curdimurka Subgroup 18,41,44. The dated Boucaut Volcanics are considered to correlate with the lowermost Burra Group, providing a maximum age constraint on the Skillogalee magnesites. For a minimum age constraint, the overlying Sturtian glacial deposits are correlated globally to the broad interval of 740–720 Ma⁴⁵ or perhaps as young as ca.710 Ma⁴⁶. Within this interval, the 755±3 Ma Mundine Well Dykes of Western Australia provide a reliable palaeomagnetic pole⁴⁷ that implies a palaeolatitude of 13° for the Burra

Group, assuming a GAD field and tectonically coherent Australia in the mid-Neoproterozoic⁴⁸.

(2) Kilian-Minto Inlet, Amundsen Basin, Canada. Two thick evaporite levels have been correlated among Precambrian inliers of the Amundsen basin in northern Canada⁴⁹. In the Mackenzie Mountains, the lower level is located immediately and conformably above strata that are intruded by 780-Ma sills of the Gunbarrel large igneous province⁵⁰, whereas the upper level lies disconformably above basalts that are traditionally correlated with those sills⁵¹. The lower level comprises the Minto Inlet Formation on Victoria Island, plus the correlative Gypsum Formation in the Mackenzie Mountains, and attains a typical thickness of 300 m across an interpolated depositional basin area of ca.300,000 km² (refs. ^{49, 52, 53}). The upper level is represented by basal portions of the Kilian Formation on Victoria Island and the Redstone River Formation in the Mackenzie Mountains, totalling about 100 m thickness across the same area^{49,54}. Various palaeomagnetic studies of these successions have shown migration of the Laurentian continent back and forth through the tropics during the broad time spanning the two evaporite-rich intervals^{55, 56}. In elegant confirmation of uniformitarian palaeoclimate zonation, the evaporites were deposited during the two migrations of the Amundsen basin through subtropical palaeolatitudes (using poles from the Little Dal "basinal" member for the Minto Inlet/Gypsum evaporite, and directly from the Redstone River Formation for the upper evaporite); whereas carbonate deposition predominated during times of nearequatorial palaeolatitude.

- (3) Duruchaus, Namibia. A ca.500 m thick and moderately extensive (about 30,000 km²) evaporite succession, the Duruchaus Formation, is preserved at the northwestern margin of the Kalahari craton in the southern external zone of the Damara orogen⁵⁷. Age constraints on the Duruchaus evaporites are poor, relying on overlying, Sturtian-equivalent glacial deposits for an approximate 740–720 Ma minimum age^{45, 58}, and no well defined maximum age other than presumption of deposition generally during the rift stage of the Damara orogenic cycle (ca.800 Ma⁵⁹). Because of these poor age constraints, and more importantly, a dearth of palaeomagnetic data for this general time interval from the Kalahari craton, there is no estimable depositional palaeolatitude for the Duruchaus evaporites.
- (4) Copperbelt, central Africa. The central-African Copperbelt contains basin-scale evaporites that are largely inferred from enormous solution-induced "gigabreccias" ⁶⁰. The Roan Supergroup, which contains the evidence for evaporites, is bracketed in age by the nonconformably underlying 883±10 Ma Nchanga Granite ⁶¹ and the overlying 765±5 Ma basal volcanics of the Kundelungu Group ⁶². Inferred total thickness of the Roan evaporites is approximately 500 m, spread across a basin area of ca.50,000 km² (ref. ⁶⁰). New correlations of Roan strata with a metasedimentary succession in the Zambezi belt ⁶³, the latter being intruded by the ca.820-Ma Lusaka Granite (S. Johnson and B. de Waele, pers. comm.), suggest a tentative pre-820 Ma age for the Roan evaporites. If so, then no palaeomagnetic data from the Congo-São Francisco craton are available to estimate evaporitic palaeolatitudes of the copperbelt.

- (5) Centralian superbasin, Australia. The most extensive pre-Ediacaran evaporite deposit, covering an aggregate area of ca.140,000 km² across most of central Australia, with a typical thickness of ca.800 m of bedded gypsum, anhydrite, and halite, is represented by the Gillen Member of the Bitter Springs Formation (Amadeus region), plus correlatives such as the Browne Formation (Officer region) and upper Sunbeam Group (Savory region)⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷. None of the regions are constrained tightly in age, but they are well correlated to each other. In addition, integrated stratigraphic and micropalaeontological comparisons with the Adelaide foldbelt⁶⁶ suggest that the evaporites correlate to strata underlying the 802-Ma Rook Tuff⁴³. Direct palaeomagnetic study of the Browne Formation on azimuthally unoriented drillcore suggested a depositional palaeolatitude of 11° or 13°, depending on whether the data were treated with single or dual magnetic polarity⁶⁸. Subsequent palaeomagnetic work on oriented borehole material indicates a higher palaeolatitude of 20° (ref. ⁶⁹), both for the borehole locality and for a reference locality toward the center of the Centralian superbasin (Table 1).
- (6) Borden basin, Canada. Gypsum pseudomorphs are distributed throughout ca.100 m of thickness within the lower Society Cliffs Formation on northern Baffin Island, and correlative strata in northwestern Greenland^{70,71}. Higher in the sedimentary succession, the Elwin Subgroup contains rare halite pseudomorphs⁷⁰. The basin spans ca.140,000 km², and the total volume of evaporites is estimated at ca.15,000 km³. Palaeomagnetic data from several levels of the Borden basin strata⁷² indicate modest plate motion of the Laurentian craton following deposition of the basal Nauyat volcanics (considered to

correlate with the Mackenzie large igneous province at 1270 Ma⁷³). The palaeomagnetic pole for the Strathcona Sound Formation, lying between the evaporitic Society Cliffs and Elwin Formations, indicates a depositional palaeolatitude of 12° (ref. ⁷²). This pole position lies between those from the 1235 Ma Sudbury dykes and the 1163 Ma lower Gardar volcanics⁷⁴, suggesting an age of ca.1200 Ma for the Borden evaporites that is in agreement with Pb/Pb ages on interstratified carbonates⁷¹.

- (7) Char/Douik Group, West Africa. In the Taoudeni cratonic cover succession of Mauritania, the basal Char Group contains minor halite pseudomorphs^{75,76}, as does the correlative Douik Group in Algeria⁷⁶. The thickness of evaporitic horizons is not great (ca.50 m), but the basinal area is large (ca.800 x 200 km). Although the age of the Char Group is commonly quoted as ~1000 Ma, this is based on imprecise Rb-Sr determinations⁷⁷ that are considered here as unreliable. More recent studies suggest an older, Mesoproterozoic age (e.g., ref. ⁷⁸). The Char Group has yielded various palaeomagnetic remanence directions, with a high-unblocking-temperature component interpreted as primary⁷⁹. Evans⁴⁵, however, noted the antipolarity of this component relative to a Permian-Carboniferous overprint commonly observed across West Africa⁸⁰. If reliable, this component would imply a palaeolatitude of 12° for the Char Group, but in the present analysis it is omitted.
- (8) Belt basin, North America. Two broad levels of pseudomorphs after evaporites, or their metamorphic products, are documented⁸¹. The lower level is found within the

Waterton, Altyn, and Prichard Formations and their correlative units near the base of the Belt Supergroup, and is evidenced by numerous features such as pseudomorphs after gypsum and anhydrite, length-slow chalcedony, and chicken-wire textures, distributed sporadically through several hectometers of strata^{82, 83}. The upper evaporitic level, within the Wallace Formation in the carbonate-rich middle part of the Belt Supergroup, is better documented. Hietanen⁸⁴ extensively described stratiform scapolite distributed in many thin layers throughout ca.400-500 m of strata within central Idaho. From the lower-grade eastern exposures of the basin, Grotzinger⁸⁵ described halite pseudomorphs within the 1-10 m-thick sedimentary cycles in the middle of the formation. Together, these studies suggest about 100 m total stratigraphic thickness, across an exposed area of about 300 km x 200 km. Restoration of Laramide shortening in the region would suggest an original outcrop area of ca.100,000 km². The lower evaporitic horizons are intruded by mafic sills dated at 1468-1469 Ma^{86, 87}, whereas the upper horizons conformably underlie a felsic ash bed dated at 1454±9 Ma⁸⁸. Palaeomagnetic data are consistent throughout the lower Belt succession⁸⁹, and a grand mean including data from sedimentary and igneous rocks, yields a palaeolatitude of 12±2° for initial Belt deposition.

(9) Discovery Formation, Bangemall basin, Western Australia. Although several stratigraphic levels within the Bangemall basin are noted as evaporitic, the thickest and most widespread is within the Discovery Formation, a silicified deep-water shale containing rhombic pseudomorphs interpreted as replacing original sulphates⁹⁰. The unit averages 70 m in thickness over a preserved area of about 40,000 km². The corresponding volume estimate is viewed as a maximum for evaporitic contribution, and

even then this unit barely passes the cutoff for consideration in this paper. As summarised by Martin and Thorne⁹¹, the age constraints on the Edmund Group, which is the lower portion of the Bangemall Supergroup and which contains most of the evaporitic horizons, lie between about 1620 and 1465 Ma. No reliable palaeomagnetic data exist from the west Australian craton to constrain Edmund Group depositional palaeolatitudes in this imprecise age interval⁴⁸.

(10) McArthur-Mt Isa basins, northern Australia. An evaporitic contribution to the sediments deposited between ca.1750 and 1600 Ma, exposed across northern Australia, has been discussed and debated for nearly 30 years^{5, 92-94}. The main evidence for evaporitic contributions to the sediments are pseudomorphs after gypsum and halite, and cauliflower chert. Five distinct ages of relatively voluminous evaporitic conditions can be distinguished. The oldest level, comprising scapolite, albite, and tourmaline associations in the Corella Formation of the eastern Isan foldbelt (pages 209-212 of ref. ⁵), is estimated to total ca.500 m thickness across a narrow outcrop belt of 200 x 20 km. Depositional ages of 1750-1725 Ma are determined from U-Pb dating of interbedded volcanic ashes, as summarised by Betts et al. ⁵. The interval 1790-1725 Ma shows only minor palaeomagnetic apparent polar wander for the north Australian craton ⁴⁸, therefore high-quality palaeomagnetic data from the 1725-Ma Peters Creek Volcanics ⁹⁵ are chosen to provide a representative palaeolatitude of 17° for the Corella meta-evaporites.

The second voluminous evaporitic horizon in the McArthur-Mt Isa basin is associated with the Mallapunyah, Paradise Creek, and Esperanza Formations^{92, 93, 96}. With an

estimated age of ca.1660 Ma⁹⁷, the Mallapunyah Formation is directly studied palaeomagnetically, providing a pre-fold remanence with stratabound polarity reversals⁹⁸. This indicates a depositional palaeolatitude of 22° for a reference locality in the center of the McArthur-Mt Isa basin (Table 1). Meta-evaporites of the Staveley Formation in the eastern Isan foldbelt (p.212-213 of ref. ⁵) correlate broadly to this stratigraphic level⁹⁹.

The third, most voluminous, evaporite succession in the basin corresponds with the Myrtle and Emmerugga Formations in the Batten trough toward the west^{92,100}, Karns Dolomite on the Wearyan shelf¹⁰¹, Walford Dolomite on the southern flank of the Murphy inlier¹⁰², Shady Bore Quartzite on the Lawn Hill platform¹⁰³, and Kennedy Siltstone in the Mt Isa region toward the east¹⁰⁴. These levels may not correlate precisely, but numerous U-Pb ages show them to be contemporaneous within five million years at ca.1645 Ma⁹⁷. At the temporal resolution of this study, they can be grouped into a single evaporitic interval, of ca.200 m thickness averaged across the entire McArthur-Mt Isa region, with a central depositional palaeolatitude of 23° determined through direct palaeomagnetic studies of the Myrtle and Emmerugga Formations^{95,98}. Although those two studies yielded nearly identical results, the Emmerugga pole is used here because a positive fold test makes it demonstrably more reliable.

The fourth evaporitic level in the McArthur-Mt Isa basin is localised within the Batten trough, comprising the Hot Spring and Donnegan Members in the middle and upper parts of the Lynott Formation⁹² dated at 1636±4 Ma⁹⁷. This unit is the thickest evaporite in the McArthur basin, with cauliflower cherts, crystal gypsum pseudomorphs, and halite casts

distributed widely through a stratigraphic interval of ca.300 m. The Lynott Formation has yielded a palaeomagnetic pole, which although lacking field stability tests, lies reasonably between more reliable results of slightly older and younger ages⁹⁵. It is tentatively used here to provide a depositional palaeolatitude of 30° for the Lynott Formation, with little influence on the pre-Ediacaran mean due to its small volume.

The final McArthur basin evaporite is evidenced by halite casts, sulphate pseudomorphs and nodules, cauliflower chert, and rare possible shortite, within a 250-m interval of the lower Balbirini Formation¹⁰⁵, dated at 1609-1613 Ma⁹⁷. As with the older Lynott evaporite level, the lower Balbirini evaporitic unit is restricted to the ca.100 x 100 km Batten trough. Palaeomagnetic results from the Balbirini Formation show a pre-folding remanence⁹⁸ that is distinguishable between lower and upper units across a cryptic paraconformity⁹⁵. These results indicate a 34° depositional palaeolatitude for the lower Balbirini evaporites.

(11) Stark Formation, Slave craton, Canada. The most voluminous Palaeoproterozoic evaporite basin is located across a large region of the Slave craton in northwestern Canada. Although identify evaporitic influence upon a wide stratigraphic range within the Great Slave Lake Supergroup¹⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁸, the largest evaporite is associated with the Stark Formation, in the form of megabreccia and abundant pseudomorphs after halite and gypsum¹⁷. The Stark Formation is intruded by the 1865±15 Ma Compton Laccoliths¹⁰⁹, and regional tectonic correlations with the Wopmay orogen farther north suggest an age younger than ca.1880 Ma, and a total evaporitic basin area of ca.300,000 km² (refs. ^{17,110}).

Reconstructed thickness of the Stark evaporites is on the order of 100 m (ref. ¹⁷). Direct palaeomagnetic constraints place the Stark Formation at 8° palaeolatitude ¹¹¹. This result, rotated locally about a vertical axis ¹¹² with no effects on palaeolatitude, is bolstered by stratabound polarity reversals as well as the same direction demonstrated to be prefolding in the immediately overlying Tochatwi Formation ¹¹³.

- (12) Rocknest shelf, Slave craton, Canada. Grotzinger¹¹⁴ describes halite casts and rare gypsum/anhydrite pseuodomorphs distributed throughout roughly half of the thickness of a tufa shoal facies in the Rocknest passive margin of the western Slave craton. This facies spans an area of about 250 x 50 km, and further evaporitic sedimentation is contained within an interior lagoon about 200 km wide. From these data, I estimate a total evaporitic volume on the order of 10³ km³. The Rocknest carbonates are dated between 1963±6 Ma and 1882±4 Ma, according to volcanic ash horizons below and above the platform¹¹⁵. Using palaeomagnetic data from the "Western River" (now renamed Rifle) Formation¹¹⁶, a palaeolatitude of 11° is suggested for the Rocknest platform with its minor evaporitic component.
- (13) Juderina Formation, Yilgarn craton, Western Australia. Abundant pseudomorphs after gypsum and anhydrite are described from the ca.100 m-thick Bubble Well Member of the Juderina Formation, across a ca.100 x 100 km area along the northern margin of the Yilgarn craton¹¹⁷. Carbon-isotopic data from this unit are highly enriched in ¹³C; this observation plus loose numerical age constraints suggest an age of about 2100 Ma for the

Bubble Well evaporites (see below). No palaeomagnetic data are available from rocks of this age on the Yilgarn craton, thus depositional palaeolatitudes are unconstrained.

- (14) Tulomozero Formation, Karelian craton, Russia. Melezhik et al. ^{118, 119} describe numerous relict evaporitic textures throughout ca.500 m of the Tulomozero Formation dolomite within the Lake Onega region of the southern Karelian craton. These carbonates contain the worldwide positive "Lomagundi" carbon-isotope excursion ¹²⁰ that, if representing a singular event, is dated between 2220 and 2060 Ma¹²¹. The same isotopic excursion is recorded in carbonates of the northern Baltic shield, which are conformably overlain by lavas of the Kuetsyarvi Volcanic Formation. Palaeomagnetism of this latter volcanic unit ¹²² indicates a palaeolatitude of 20±13° for the Lake Onega region, assuming the Karelian craton was intact by ca.2100 Ma.
- (15) Chocolay-Gordon Lake succession, Superior craton, Canada-USA. Larue¹²³ described pseudomorphs after gypsum and anhydrite from a ca.100 m-thick portion of the Chocolay Group of the Lake Superior region, distributed over a ca.400 x 100 km region in northern Michigan and Minnesota. This succession has been correlated with the upper part (Cobalt Group) of the Huronian Supergroup of southern Ontario (reviewed in ref. ¹²⁴), where a 40 m-thick basal portion of the Gordon Lake Formation contains anhydrite nodules and breccia bodies, associated with redbeds, that are attributed to a sabkha depositional environment ^{125, 126}. The Gordon Lake strata are intruded by the ca.2220-Ma Nipissing diabase ^{127, 128} and are probably substantially younger than the 2450-Ma Copper Cliff Rhyolite¹²⁹ at the base of the 10-km thick Huronian succession. Farther to the

northeast along the southern Superior craton margin, tourmalinites within the Mistassini Formation¹³⁰ could correlate with the other evaporitic units. The best estimate of a depositional palaeolatitude for these strata derives from the Lorrain Formation, conformably underlying the Gordon Lake unit. A palaeomagnetic depositional latitude of 3° is indicated¹³¹, although Hilburn et al.¹³² question the reliability of that result and suggest that Cobalt Group palaeolatitudes remain unconstrained.

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