

Mantle flow pattern associated with the Patagonian slab window determined from azimuthal anisotropy

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Key Points:

- Shear wave splitting indicates strong anisotropy with an E-W fast direction just south of the Chile Triple Junction and the edge of the subducting Nazca slab.
- The splitting and shear wave velocity structure suggest eastward shallow mantle flow in a 200-300 km wide channel around the edge of the Nazca slab.
- In most of southernmost Patagonia, splitting shows NE-SW fast directions consistent with large-scale asthenospheric flow.

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22 **Abstract**

23 Geological processes in Southern Patagonia are affected by the Patagonian slab window, formed
24 by the subduction of the Chile Ridge and subsequent northward migration of the Chile Triple
25 Junction. Using shear wave splitting analysis, we observe strong splitting of up to 2.5 s with an
26 E-W fast direction just south of the triple junction and the edge of the subducting Nazca slab. This
27 region of strong anisotropy is coincident with low uppermost mantle shear velocities and an
28 absence of mantle lithosphere, indicating that the mantle flow occurs in a warm, low-viscosity,
29 200-300 km wide shallow mantle channel just to the south of the Nazca slab. The region of flow
30 corresponds to a volcanic gap caused by depleted mantle compositions and absence of slab-derived
31 water. In most of Patagonia to the south of this channel, splitting fast directions trend NE-SW
32 consistent with large-scale asthenospheric flow.

33 **Plain Language Summary**

34

35 The subduction of the Chile Spreading Ridge beneath South America causes a gap in the
36 subducting slabs beneath Patagonia, affecting locally the properties of the mantle. The deployment
37 of new seismic instruments and available data allows us to study how the mantle seismic velocity
38 varies with direction in the region. From the directional dependence of seismic velocity, we can
39 infer the direction of mantle flow. A change from N-S to E-W mantle flow is observed in the
40 Patagonian slab window. The flow occurs in a warm, low viscosity shallow mantle channel
41 corresponding to a gap in activity along the volcanic arc.

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46 **1 Introduction**

47 Slab windows, gaps between subducting slabs formed by the subduction of spreading ridges, offer
48 an important opportunity to study the relationship between tectonic processes and mantle
49 dynamics. They produce local thermal anomalies and have strong physical and chemical effects
50 on the surrounding mantle. The slab window perturbs mantle flow associated with subduction of
51 oceanic lithosphere, producing toroidal flow around the edges of subducted slabs [Peyton et al.
52 2001; Civello and Margheriti, 2004; Eakins et al. 2010; Russo et al., 2010a,b]. Such toroidal flow
53 contributes to the thermal homogenization around the slab [Kincaid and Griffiths, 2004], and
54 influences the temporal and spatial distribution of volcanism [Faccenna et al., 2010; Jadamec and
55 Billen, 2010] and mantle mixing [Guillaume et al., 2010]. Slab windows provide an opportunity
56 to study the strength and geographical pattern of toroidal flow at slab edges, as previously observed
57 in the Mediterranean Sea [Civello and Margheriti, 2004] and the Western US [Zandt and
58 Humphrey, 2008]. Recently, Mark et al. (2022) proposed a thermal and mechanical erosion
59 process to explain slow mantle velocity anomalies and thinning of the lithospheric mantle between
60 the Nazca slab edge and the northern part of the Patagonia slab window between 46° and 49°S.
61 This observation raises questions related to the 3-D shape and strength of toroidal flow around the
62 slab edge which could contribute to thermo-mechanical erosion of the lithosphere, and the
63 potential influence of mantle flow patterns on surface volcanism.

64
65 The Patagonia slab window is the best current example of a migrating slab window, formed as the
66 Chile Triple Junction (CTJ) between the Nazca, South American, and Antarctic Plates moved from
67 south to north beginning 16 m.y. ago [Breitsprecher and Thorkelson, 2009]. The CTJ has migrated
68 ~1000 km northward, as ridge segments subparallel to the trench collided with the subduction
69 margin [Breitsprecher and Thorkelson, 2009]. This evolution led to the formation of a gap in the
70 subducting plate interface, allowing hot, buoyant, asthenospheric mantle to impinge on the South
71 American plate from below, and producing mantle temperature and lithospheric thickness
72 anomalies [Ávila and Dávila, 2018]. Arc volcanism and plate boundary seismicity occur along the
73 cordillera, but south of the triple junction, the seismicity and the volcanism are sparser. Subduction
74 of the Chile ridge segments 12 m.y. ago is thought to have caused a pronounced gap in the active
75 Patagonian volcanic arc [Gutiérrez et al., 2005]. South of 53° latitude, the plate boundary between
76 the South American plate and the Scotia plate is defined by the Magallanes-Fagnano Fault System,

77 a 600 km long continental transform fault with a slip rate of 0.7cm/yr [Roy et al., 2020]. The strike
78 of the fault system changes from NW-SE to EW around the longitude 68.5°.

79

80 Early seismic studies have addressed the question of whether mantle flow between the Pacific and
81 Atlantic oceans was occurring beneath southern South America, through the Patagonian slab
82 window [Murdie and Russo, 1999; Helffrich et al, 2002; Russo et al. 2010a, b]. From body wave
83 tomography and shear wave splitting analysis, Russo et al. (2010a,b) show the presence of a slow
84 seismic velocity anomaly and large shear wave splitting times near the CTJ. They also show
85 variation in the fast direction of azimuthal anisotropy from ~N-S north of the triple junction to
86 ENE in the slab window. Beneath southernmost Patagonia (south of 51°S), Helffrich et al. (2002)
87 show fast directions parallel to the absolute plate motion of the South American plate, interpreted
88 as the migration of material from the Pacific ocean to the Atlantic ocean.

89

90 From the analysis of short period group velocities derived from ambient noise cross-correlation,
91 Gallego et al. (2011) show the crust is affected by the slab window between 47°S and 48°S with
92 relatively low shear wave velocity in comparison with the average velocity and significant
93 anisotropy (1-2%). P-receiver function analyses [Rodriguez and Russo, 2020] show a crustal
94 thickness of 28-35 km proximal to the CTJ and thickening crust from 34 km just north of the triple
95 junction to ~55 km at 44°S, with crustal thinning between 46.5°S and 47°S. In their joint inversion
96 of converted body wave phases and Rayleigh wave dispersion derived from ambient noise and
97 teleseismic earthquakes, Mark et al. (2022) show crustal thickening from south to north over the
98 slab window but also a thinning of the lithospheric mantle near the CTJ.

99

100 Here we present the results of a shear wave splitting analysis using SKS, SKKS and PKS phases
101 to characterize the mantle flow pattern beneath Southern Patagonia. We process broadband
102 seismograms from the recent GUANACO temporary deployment [Mark et al., 2022] as well as
103 previous deployments to measure shear-wave splitting parameters using the minimization of
104 transverse component energy method [Silver and Chan, 1991]. This new set of shear wave splitting
105 measurements provides an extended view of the large-scale azimuthal anisotropy in southern
106 South America and better constrains the mantle flow field associated with the Patagonia slab

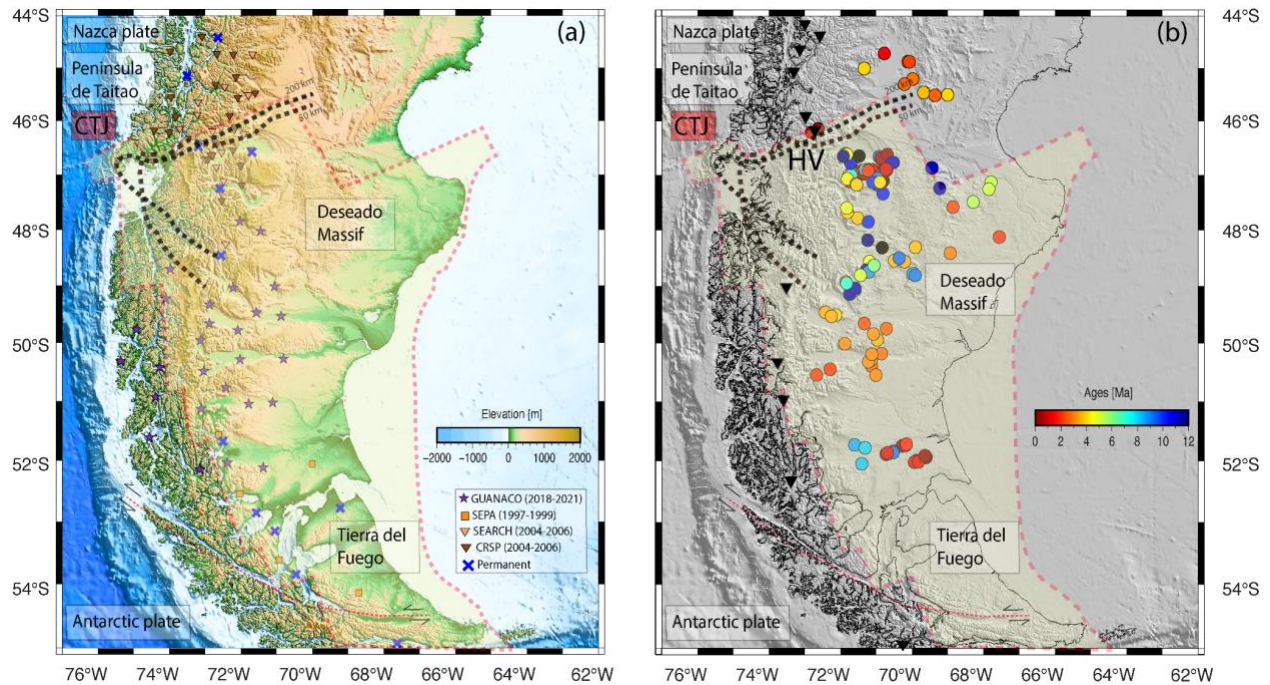
107 window. We then discuss the source of anisotropy in the context of the slab window, regional
108 structure, subduction dynamics, and mantle flow patterns in Southern Patagonia.

109 **2 Datasets and analysis**

110 2.1 Broadband seismic data

111 Much of the dataset comes from a recent deployment of the GUANACO (Glacial Uplift After
112 Neoglaciacion in the Andean Cordillera) temporary broadband network in Southern Patagonia.
113 This network fills a data gap between the previous deployments in the CTJ region in the north
114 [Russo et al. 2010a] and in southernmost Patagonia [Helffrich et al., 2002]. The GUANACO
115 network was deployed from November 2018 to February 2021 and consisted of twenty-seven
116 seismographs with station spacing of approximately 50 to 100 km [Mark et al., 2022]. The stations
117 were equipped with Nanometrics Trillium-240 seismometers or Trillium Horizon sensors, and
118 Quanterra Q330 dataloggers (see supplementary material). Additionally, we use all openly
119 available broadband seismic data recorded in Southern Patagonia. These data come from Chilean
120 broadband seismic networks (Chilean National Seismic Network, Red Sismológica Nacional); the
121 2004-2006 CRSP (Chile Ridge Subduction Project) [Russo et al., 2010a] and SEARCH (Seismic
122 Experiment in the Aisen Region of Chile) datasets near the Chile Triple Junction; and the 1997-
123 1999 SEPA (Seismic Experiment in Patagonia and Antarctica) deployment in Southernmost
124 Patagonia [Helffrich et al., 2002]. All the stations used in the analysis are shown in Figure 1.

125



126
 127 **Figure 1.** (a) Topographic map of Southern Patagonia showing seismic stations used for this study.
 128 Yellow region shows the present-day extent of the slab window [Breitsprecher and Thorkelson,
 129 2009]. The dashed lines represent the iso-depths (50 km in black and 200 km in red) defined by
 130 seismic velocity perturbation associated with the slab window [Russo et al., 2010a]. (b) Main
 131 tectonic features of the study region. Active arc volcanoes are shown by triangles. Ages of back-
 132 arc volcanism [compilation Guillaume et al., 2010] and mantle xenoliths [Melchiorre et al. 2020]
 133 are indicated by colored circles. *CTJ*: Chile Triple Junction, *HV*: Hudson volcano.

134 2.2 Shear wave splitting analysis

135 We perform shear wave splitting (SWS) measurements on all high quality SKS, SKKS, and PKS
 136 phases recorded at stations in the study area. We selected earthquakes of $M_w \geq 5.7$ at epicentral
 137 distances of 87° to 140° from the study region for analysis. In the pre-processing, we apply
 138 different band-pass filters (6-50 s, 8-50 s, 10-50 s) to find the optimum frequency range and we
 139 use a signal-to-noise cutoff ratio of 2.0 for a given core-phase to reject bad or ambiguous signals.
 140 The final event sets used in this analysis come primarily from southeast Asia and the Alaska
 141 Aleutian subduction zones, with a few events from the Aegean-Anatolian regions.

142

143 We first estimate the single-phase splitting parameter for each event at each station by using the
 144 energy minimization method [Silver and Chan, 1991] using the SplitRacer code [Reiss and

145 [Rumpker, 2017](#)]. This approach determines the best splitting parameters (fast direction and delay
146 time) that minimize the energy on the transverse component. For each event and each station, we
147 assign a data quality (good-average-poor-null) based on different factors. A good signal to noise
148 ratio for the phase we picked (SKS, SKKS or PKS) and a narrow uncertainty associated with the
149 splitting parameters estimations from the grid search are deemed to be good splitting
150 measurements. Splitting measurements with good signal to noise ratio but relatively large
151 uncertainty deemed “average;” measurements showing no apparent splitting are referred to as
152 “null”. Null measurements most commonly arise when the fast or slow direction and the
153 backazimuth of the event are very similar, so the shear wave is not split, and we cannot reduce the
154 energy on the transverse component. We also deem measurements showing large uncertainties and
155 small differences in the particle motion ellipticity pre and post rotation to be null. The choice of
156 whether to assign a measurement to the “null” or “poor” categories depends on the signal-to-noise
157 ratio and the ability to reduce the energy on the transverse component ([see supplementary](#)
158 [material](#)).

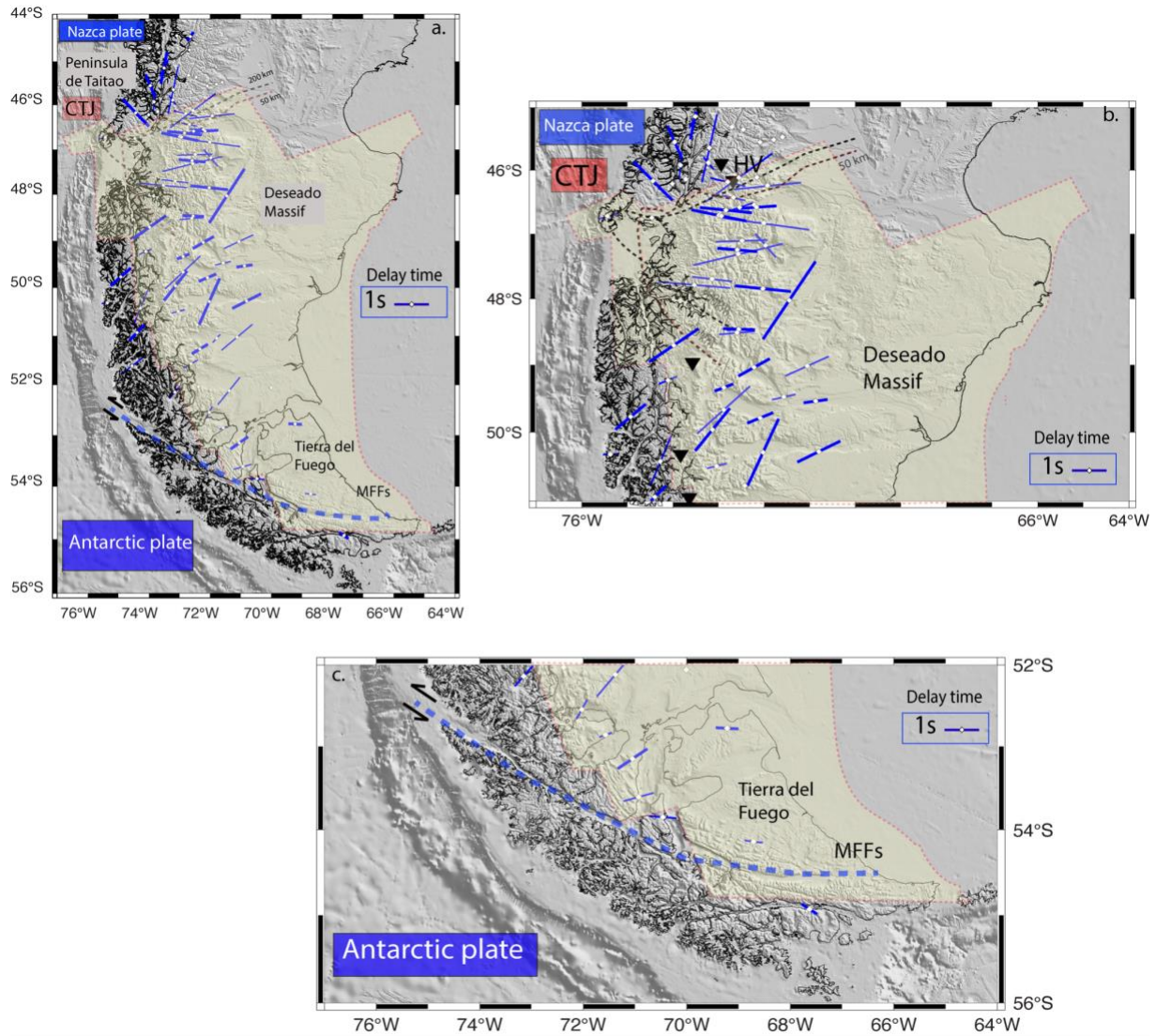
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160 To compute the average splitting parameters for a given station, we use the joint-splitting analysis
161 method implemented in SplitRacer [[Reiss and Rumpker, 2017](#)]. This approach can reduce the
162 influence of noise and provide a more robust measurement of the splitting beneath the station. In
163 this approach, we apply the energy surface stacking method [[Wolfe and Silver, 1998](#)] to each phase
164 (SKS-SKKS-PKS) and use only null and good split measurements from events recorded at a given
165 station. As for the single-phase analysis, we use a grid search to find the best splitting operator that
166 minimizes the energy of the stacked transverse components. We then classify the quality of the
167 resulting joint splitting results, relying on the number of phases analyzed and the uncertainties of
168 the derived splitting parameters to quantify the average splitting parameter measurements as good,
169 average, or poor. Joint analyses with very few phases and/or large splitting parameter uncertainties
170 are defined as “poor.” Null measurements are also identified when the energy on the transverse
171 component cannot be reduced. Poor and null measurements are not shown on maps or used in the
172 interpretation.

173 In addition, we also estimate the splitting intensity, defined as the amplitude ratio between the
174 transverse component energy and the time derivative of the radial component energy [[Chevrot,](#)

175 [2000; Monteiller and Chevrot, 2010](#)]. The results of the splitting intensity - where available -
176 supplement the quality control of our splitting results.

177 **3 Results**

178 Results of individual and joint analysis of shear wave splitting parameters can be found in the
179 Supplementary Materials. From more than 480 individual splits measurements, the final joint shear
180 wave splitting parameters for individual stations comprise 33 good splits, 32 average splits and 16
181 null observations ([Figure 2](#)). Comparison of our measurements with previous analyses of open
182 datasets for stations well north of the CTJ [[Lynner and Beck, 2020](#)] and south of our region under
183 investigation in Tierra del Fuego [[Helffrich et al., 2002](#)] shows that we obtain similar results. Near
184 the CTJ, our reprocessing of the CSRP network shows some differences with previous studies
185 [[Russo et al. 2010a](#)]. These differences can be attributed mainly to different choices in the selection
186 and processing of core phases. The shear wave splitting results ([Figure 2a](#)) show four different
187 domains, from north to south: (1) a region with variable but approximately N-S fast directions
188 and small average splitting times north of the triple junction; (2) a region with E-W fast directions
189 and larger splitting times near the CTJ between 46.5°S and 49°S; (3) much of southernmost
190 Patagonia, showing NE-SW fast directions and generally modest (< 1s) splitting times; and (4) a
191 limited region with small delay times in Tierra del Fuego with E-W fast directions.



192
 193 **Figure 2.** (a) Joint splitting results for the phases SKS-SKKS-PKS stacked at each station,
 194 assuming a single anisotropic layer. Thicker bars corresponding to good quality split
 195 measurements and thinner bars to average quality split measurements. (b) Zoom between 45°S and
 196 51°S on the arc volcanism gap region and the edge of the Nazca slab (CTJ: Chilean Triple Junction;
 197 HV: Hudson Volcano). Active arc volcanoes are shown by triangles. (c) Zoom between 52°S and
 198 56°S on the southernmost part of the continent (MFFs: Magallanes Fagnano Faults)

199 **4 Discussion**

200 4.1 Mechanism of anisotropy

201 Anisotropy inferred from SKS splitting is generally interpreted as the consequence of the lattice-
 202 preferred orientation (LPO) of olivine in the upper mantle, as the crust is typically too thin to

203 accumulate significant splitting [e.g., [Savage, 1999](#)]. However, both experimental geophysics and
204 examination of mantle xenoliths show that olivine can form several different types of fabrics,
205 making LPO interpretation more complex [[Karato et al., 2008, and references therein](#)]. Typically,
206 in shear wave splitting studies, olivine A-type fabric, for which deformation aligns the
207 crystallographic fast axis of olivine aggregates with the direction of maximum extension, is
208 invoked, and observed fast splitting directions are assumed to parallel to horizontal mantle flow.

209
210 Differences in water content, pressure-temperature condition and stress regime will affect the
211 olivine fabric types present within the mantle, producing fabrics different from the A-type
212 described above. For example, D-type fabrics, appropriate for dry, high stress conditions, can
213 occasionally be observed within the lithosphere. C and E -type fabrics are sometimes found in
214 the asthenosphere, where significant water content and low stress conditions are expected [[Karato](#)
215 [et al., 2008](#)]. However, these other fabrics result in shear wave splitting that is indistinguishable
216 from A-type fabrics under horizontal flow conditions, and they are seldom invoked to explain
217 teleseismic shear wave splitting measurements. One exception is B-type fabric, which is expected
218 in regions with high water content and high stress [[Karato et al., 2008](#)], and has been used to
219 explain trench-parallel shear wave splitting measurements in the supra-subduction mantle wedge
220 regions of subduction zones [e.g., [Long and Silver, 2008](#)]. Conditions in the slab window are
221 unlikely to be conducive to development of B-type olivine fabrics, however, as the absence of a
222 dehydrating slab, relatively high temperatures due to asthenospheric inflow, and a relatively low
223 stress regime except immediately adjacent to the lateral edge of the Nazca slab, are consistent with
224 A-type or other fabrics with a fast direction in the flow direction [[Jung et al., 2006](#)]. Similar
225 arguments apply to the asthenosphere throughout the region, which is likely to be too hot to allow
226 B-type fabric to develop. The only exception is in the forearc, where lower temperatures and the
227 presence of water may lead to B-type fabric [[Karato et al., 2008](#)]. Thus, we assume A-type, or
228 fabrics that have a similar splitting relationship, in this discussion, with the possible exception of
229 the forearc.

230 4.2 Toroidal flow in the uppermost mantle around the Nazca slab

231 Just to the south of the edge of the subducting Nazca slab, between 46°S and 49°S, we observe
232 strong (delay times > 2 s) shear wave splitting with an E-W fast-axes orientation ([Figures 2a-b](#)).
233 This direction contrasts with N-S fast axes orientations north of the CTJ, and with NE-SW fast

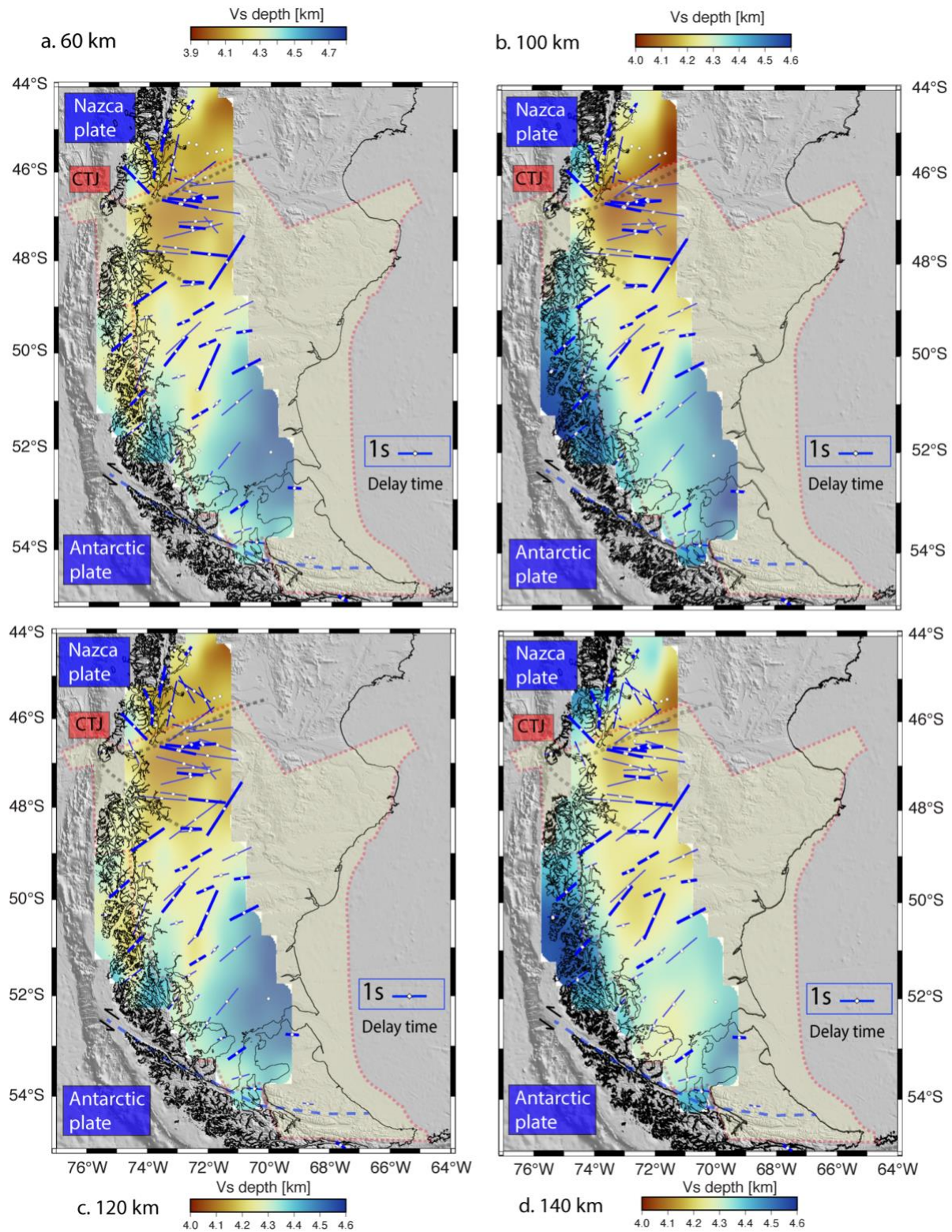
234 directions over most of the regions to the south which, as discussed below, likely reflects the
235 average mantle flow direction in the region. We mapped larger splitting magnitudes (up to 2.5 s)
236 in the area between 46°S and 49°S than elsewhere in the study region. The larger delay associated
237 with the E-W fast direction compared to NE-SW fast directions elsewhere in Patagonia suggests
238 vigorous mantle flow around the edge of the Nazca slab.

239

240 The anisotropy observations constrain the direction of maximum shear strain but leave an 180°
241 ambiguity in the direction of mantle flow. [Russo and Silver \(1994\)](#) suggested that mantle flow
242 from the Pacific to the Atlantic upper mantle occurred beneath the Nazca slab and then through
243 slab gaps in the Caribbean and Scotia regions based on observations of trench parallel patterns in
244 azimuthal anisotropy. [Russo et al. \[2010a, b\]](#) observed trench-parallel splitting fast directions north
245 of the slab window, modulating into more E-W splitting directions in the slab window itself. They
246 interpreted these results as due to flow beneath the Nazca slab turning through nearly 90° around
247 the southern edge of the Nazca slab. This is consistent with recent modeling results suggesting
248 mantle flow from the Pacific region to the Atlantic beneath Patagonia in the slab window region
249 [[Lin, 2014](#); [Hu et al., 2017](#)].

250

251 The region of inferred EW mantle flow around the Nazca slab coincides with a strong low velocity
252 anomaly ($V_{sv} < 4.1$ km/s) in the uppermost mantle of the regional V_{sv} model [[Mark et al., 2022](#)].
253 The spatial distribution of E-W fast directions and low velocity uppermost mantle suggests the
254 presence of a 200-300 km wide channel of vigorous flow at depths between 50 and 120 km ([Figure](#)
255 [3](#)). High velocity mantle lithosphere is completely absent, and low velocity mantle extends upward
256 nearly to the crust. Since the mantle lithosphere is present both north and south of this region, this
257 indicates that the mantle lithosphere has been thermally and mechanically eroded in the youngest
258 part of the slab window. Energetic flow of warmer mantle immediately beneath the colder mantle
259 lithosphere thermally perturbed and weakened the lithosphere, with some small pieces likely
260 detaching and being carried eastward by the flow.



261

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264

Figure 3. Comparison of the shear wave splitting results with the isotropic shear wave velocity model [Mark et al., 2022] at (a) 60 km, (b) 100 km, (c) 120 km and (d) 140 km depth. Thicker bars are good splitting measurements and thinner bars are average.

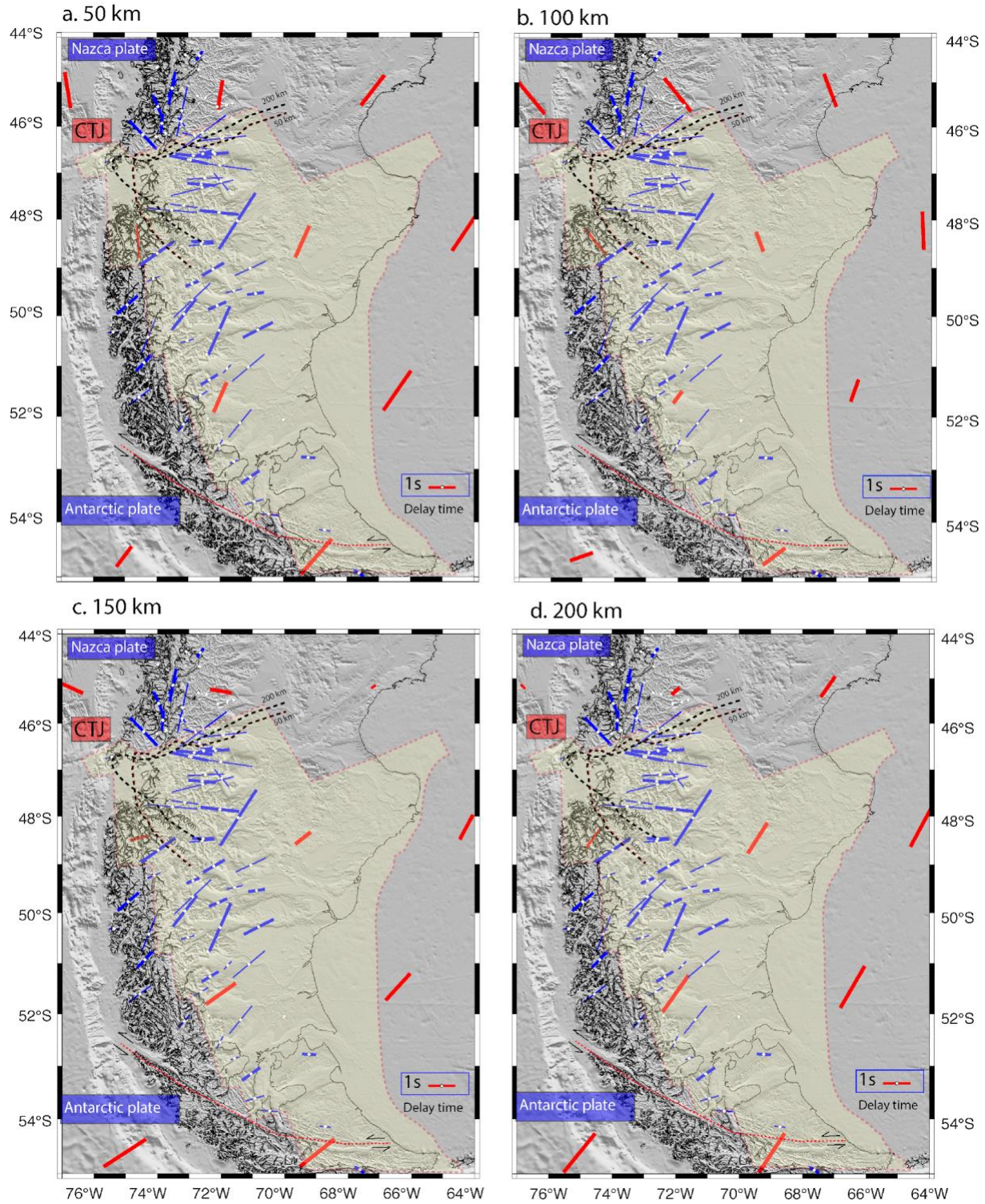
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266 A ~300 km gap in the arc volcanism occurs in the same northern slab window region (**Figure 1b**)
267 [Gutierrez et al. 2005]. Plate reconstructions [Breitsprecher and Thorkelson, 2009], tomographic
268 imaging [Russo et al., 2010a], and intermediate-depth seismicity show that the northern edge of
269 the volcanic gap corresponds to the southern edge of Nazca slab. The location of the slab gap
270 corresponds closely with the extent of the slowest upper mantle velocities [Mark et al., 2022] and
271 the large E-W oriented fast anisotropy directions (**Figure 2a**). Modeling studies show that slab
272 edges are generally characterized by toroidal flow, and that complex and vigorous mantle flow can
273 control the temperature distribution around the slab as well as the location of surface volcanism
274 [Kincaid and Griffiths, 2004; Faccenna et al., 2010; Jadamec and Billen, 2010]. In the slab gap
275 region, we are faced with an apparent discrepancy between vigorous mantle flow accompanied by
276 very low upper mantle velocities, presumably reflecting elevated temperatures, and an absence of
277 volcanism.

278

279 The most plausible explanation for the presence of the volcanic gap despite elevated mantle
280 temperatures and vigorous mantle flow is the absence of slab-derived water necessary to generate
281 melt at sub-arc conditions, as well as depleted upper mantle compositions. Most arc magmas are
282 produced by flux melting, as fluids released from the slab infiltrate the mantle wedge and lower
283 the solidus [Sobolev and Chaussidon, 1996; Grove et al., 2012]. In the absence of water from the
284 slab, the upper mantle is likely similar to the mid-ocean ridge basalt (MORB) source region
285 beneath the adjacent Chile Spreading Ridge, characterized by depleted compositions and low water
286 contents. It is also likely that the vigorous west-to-east mantle flow in this region brings upper
287 mantle material from beneath the Chile Spreading Ridge that has already undergone partial melting
288 and extraction of water and incompatible elements, resulting in even stronger depletion in the slab
289 gap. This results in a dry, depleted upper mantle incapable of melting even under the conditions
290 of vigorous flow and elevated temperatures. There is petrological evidence for strong depletion in
291 the slab gap area, as Hudson Volcano (**Figure 1b**), the volcano bordering the gap on the northern
292 side, is interpreted as erupting a depleted MORB-type component derived from the Chile
293 Spreading Center [Gutierrez et al, 2005].

294 4.3 Asthenospheric flow in Southernmost Patagonia
295 Shear wave splitting directions are largely NE-SW throughout the region south of 49°S. This
296 direction of observed splitting is aligned with the azimuthal anisotropy directions of the global
297 model SL2016svA at depths of 150-200 km over a large region of Southern South America and
298 the South Atlantic [Schaeffer et al., 2016] (Figure 4), and we interpret this anisotropy as resulting
299 from large-scale flow in the asthenosphere. This direction is also similar to the present-day flow
300 velocities predicted for this region by a geodynamical model using a tomography-based buoyancy
301 structure [Hu et al. 2017]. Asthenospheric anisotropy – rather than lithospheric anisotropy –
302 probably dominates the shear wave splitting measurements from Southernmost Patagonia due to
303 the large inherent strength of asthenospheric anisotropy at those depths [Debaille and Ricard,
304 2013]. The greater path length of the teleseismic shear waves in the asthenosphere relative to the
305 mantle lithosphere, which is less than 100 km thick in this region [Mark et al, 2022], also implies
306 an asthenospheric source for the observed splitting. Comparison with not-net rotation model
307 [Argus et al., 2011] and hot spot reference model [Gripp and Gordon, 2002] suggest a decoupling
308 between absolute plate motion and the azimuthal anisotropy pattern in this region (see
309 supplementary material). Thus, the anisotropy reflects active asthenospheric flow rather than
310 passive shear deformation at the base of the lithospheric plates.



311

312 **Figure 4.** Comparison of shear wave splitting parameters (blue lines) with global azimuthal shear
 313 velocity model SL2016svA [Schaeffer et al., 2016] at 50 km, 100 km, 150 km and 200 km (red
 314 lines). Dashed red contour represents the slab window [Breistprecher and Thorkelson, 2009].

315 South of $\sim 53.5^\circ$ latitude, an E-W fast direction and smaller delay times (**Figure 2c**) suggest the
316 presence of a different anisotropic domain relative to the NE-SW pattern observed from 49° - 53° S.
317 Fast direction measurements for stations near the Magallanes-Fagnano fault (MFFs) zone are
318 parallel to the fault zone, the South America-Scotia plate boundary, with about 1 cm/yr of nearly
319 E-W strike slip motion [Mendoza et al., 2022]. This observation suggests a potential relationship
320 between the azimuthal anisotropy and this fault motion. Similar parallelism between azimuthal
321 anisotropy has been observed at several other major strike-slip boundaries, such as the Alpine Fault
322 in New Zealand [Zietlow et al., 2014]. Modeling of deformation along strike-slip shear zones
323 suggests that lithospheric deformation and thus anisotropy will be more narrowly confined in the
324 lithosphere but will broaden in the asthenosphere [Zietlow et al., 2014]. A denser distribution of
325 stations would be required to constrain the depth and lateral distribution of the deformation in the
326 fault zone.

327 **5 Summary**

328 The analysis of new data from seismic broadband instruments deployed in southern Patagonia
329 between 2018 and 2021, along with open data from permanent stations and previous deployments,
330 provides new constraints on the mantle flow pattern in this region. We develop a new shear wave
331 splitting map for the region using energy minimization and joint analysis techniques. This map
332 shows large splitting delay times and E-W fast directions just south of the southern edge of the
333 Nazca plate between 46° S and 49° S, coinciding with a region of very low uppermost mantle shear
334 velocities. We interpret this as indicating a vigorous toroidal flow pattern in the uppermost mantle
335 around the edge of the Nazca slab. Low seismic velocities co-located with the E-W fast directions
336 imply high mantle temperatures, suggesting the flow has thermally and mechanically eroded the
337 mantle lithosphere. The region of vigorous flow corresponds to a volcanic gap caused by the
338 depletion of mantle composition and an absence of water. A clear NE-SW fast direction from the
339 shear wave splitting analysis in much of southernmost Patagonia reflects the regional
340 asthenospheric flow. Near the Magallanes-Fagnano Fault accommodating South America-Scotia
341 plate motion, splitting directions are E-W and parallel to the fault, consistent with deformation
342 fabric produced by shear zones in the mantle beneath the fault.

343

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353

354 **Open Research**

355 Data used in this study is from the GUANACO, SEPA, SEARCH and CRSP temporary seismic
356 networks (network codes: 1P, 10/2018-03/2021; XB, 02/1997-10/1998; XJ,12/2004-12/2006; YJ,
357 12/2004-12/2006), permanent stations from the Chile Network (network codes: C, C1). Data can
358 be obtained from the IRIS DMC (<https://ds.iris.edu/ds/nodes/dmc>). Figures were produced using
359 GMT software [Wessel et al. 2019]. Seismic stations information, and shear wave splitting results
360 presented in this contribution can be found in the Zenodo repository 10.5281/zenodo.5655438.

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