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Redox processes in subduction zones: Progress and prospect

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Abstract Oxygen fugacity $(fO₂)$ is an intensive variable that describes the redox state of a system. By controlling the valence state of multivalent elements, *fO*₂ affects the stability of iron-bearing minerals, dominants the species of volatile elements (e.g., carbon and sulfur), and controls the partitioning behaviors of multivalent elements (e.g., iron, vanadium, cerium, europium). Thus, fO_2 plays a key role in understanding the generation and differentiation of arc magmas, the formation of magmatichydrothermal deposits, and the nature of magmatic volatiles. Subduction zones are an important site for arc magmatism and fluid action, and the study of redox processes is indispensable in subduction zone geochemistry. In this paper, we first introduce the concept, expression, and estimation methods of *f*O₂. Then we retrospect the history and progress about the oxidation state of the metasomatized mantle wedge, summarize the redox property of slab-derived fluids, and review the latest progress on redox evolution of arc magmas during magma generation and differentiation. The main conclusions include: (1) despite its wide variation range, fO_2 of the mantle wedge is generally higher than that of the oceanic mantle; (2) the redox property of the subducting slab-derived fluids is still controversial and the mechanism for the oxidization of the mantle wedge remains unclear; (3) how the $fO₂$ varies during the generation and differentiation of the arc magmas is debated. We propose that the crux in deciphering the oxidization mechanism of the mantle wedge is to determine the mobility of iron, carbon and sulfur in subducting slab-derived fluids (especially solute-rich fluid or supercritical fluid); the key in understanding the redox evolution during arc magma generation and differentiation is to determine the partition coefficients of Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} between ferromagnesian minerals and silicate melts.

Keywords Subduction zones, Oxygen fugacity, Mantle wedge, Slab dehydration, Arc magma differentiation

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1. Introduction

Subduction zones are an important site for mass transport and interaction between the Earth's crust and mantle (Zheng and Chen, 2016). During plate subduction, slabderived fluids migrate upwards and react with the mantle wedge, resulting in a series of compositional changes and subsequent partial melting in the mantle wedge (Zheng and Zhao, 2017; Zheng et al., 2020). Partial melting of the mantle wedge leads to massive arc magmatism which causes growth of the continental crust and the formation of ore deposits (Chiaradia, 2013; Sun et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2019). Subduction zones are characterized by many important geologic processes. Firstly, dehydration of the subducting slab and partial melting of the metasomatized mantle wedge activate the fluid-mobile incompatible elements (Li et al., 2013; Zheng, 2019), and subsequent magmatic differentiation and fluid exsolution could further transport, enrich and facilitate precipitation of the oreforming elements. Secondly, the compositions of andesites from continental arcs are similar to that of the bulk continental crust, thus the generation and evolution of arc

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magmas have been considered an important process of continental crust formation (Kushiro, 1990; Xiong, 2006; Chin et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). Thirdly, volatiles released by volcanic eruptions plays an important role in the long-term evolution of the Earth's atmosphere. Arc magmas are rich in volatiles (Wallace, 2005; Plank et al., 2013), and the release of volatiles (e.g., carbon, hydrogen, sulfur, nitrogen) during volcanic eruption not only can change the short-term local climate, such as volcanic winter (McKenzie et al., 2016), but also may affect the longterm evolution of the atmospheric composition (Masotta et al., 2016; Binder et al., 2018; Nicklas et al., 2019). The geochemical behaviors of multivalent elements such as iron, carbon, and sulfur are critically important during slab dehydration, mantle wedge melting, and arc magma differentiation and eruption. Because the behaviors of those elements are largely affected by the redox state of the system, $fO₂$ becomes an important parameter in understanding various geologic processes in subduction zones.

As an intensive variable that describes the redox state of a system, *f*O₂ controls valence states of multivalent elements and thus affects geochemical behaviors of elements and physicochemical properties of the system. Firstly, $fO₂$ can affect the behaviors of multivalent elements. For basaltic melts, the solubility of sulfur under oxidizing conditions (S^{o+}) is ten times higher than that under reducing conditions (S^{2-}) (Jugo, 2005, 2009); In the mantle, C-H–O fluid presents mainly in the forms of $CH₄$ and $H₂O$ under reducing conditions (<IW, iron-wüstite buffer), but occurs in the forms of CO_2 and H_2O under oxidizing conditions (Wood et al., 1990); With the increase of $fO₂$, partition coefficients of vanadium between minerals and melts can change continuously from compatible to incompatible (Canil and Fedortchouk, 2000; Mallmann and O'Neill, 2009). Secondly, $fO₂$ could change the phase equilibrium in a rock system. With the increase of fO_2 , the iron oxides in a mafic magma system could change from spinel to magnetite (Biggar, 1974). Thirdly, $fO₂$ could change the solubility of water in mantle minerals. Experimental results showed that the solubility of water in olivine is enhanced at oxidizing conditions due to the increase of H₂O activity in the C−H−O fluid (Yang, 2016). Finally, $fO₂$ can affect the rheological property of rocks. By affecting the diffusion environment of cations in minerals, fO_2 could increase the strain rate of rocks (Bai and Kohlstedt, 1992; Kohlstedt and Zimmerman, 1996; Kolzenburg et al., 2018). Given its key influences on the behaviors of elements and the properties of geologic systems, redox processes of the Earth have attracted much attention and become an important issue in recent years (Frost and McCammon, 2008). Despite great progress in the study of redox processes, controversies remain in many important aspects. In this paper, we first introduce some basic concepts $(e.g., $fO₂$)$ and then summarize several important issues related to the redox processes in subduction zones (Figure 1). These issues include: (1) the oxidation state of the mantle wedge from a historic view and its latest progress; (2) the redox property of the slab-derived fluids; (3) the redox evolution during the generation and differentiation of arc magmas. In the end, we propose several important questions that deserve further study.

2. Oxygen fugacity and O₂ equivalent

In physical chemistry, fugacity represents the effective partial pressure of a gas component and is an intensive variable describing the state of the gas component in a system. At a given temperature and pressure, changes in the fugacity have leverage on the direction and extent of the chemical reaction. In geological systems where oxygen is usually combined with cations to form minerals or silicate melts, the $fO₂$ represents the chemical potential of oxygen. Variations in $fO₂$ can affect the direction and extent of a redox reaction (Frost, 1991). For example, in the following reaction,

$$
2Fe+O_2 = 2FeO (IW, iron-wüstite),
$$
 (1)

when equilibrium is approached, the equilibrium constant of the reaction (k_1) can be expressed as:

$$
k_1 = \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta_r G_m^{\Theta}(T)}{RT}\right) = \frac{(a\text{FeO})^2}{(a\text{Fe})^2 \times f\text{O}_2},\tag{2}
$$

where $\Delta_{r} G_{m}^{\Theta}(T)$ is the standard Gibbs free energy change of the reaction, R is the gas constant, T is the temperature, and *a*FeO and *a*Fe are the activity of FeO and Fe. At a given temperature, the equilibrium constant (k_1) is fixed. When the $fO₂$ of the system increases, the reaction will proceed to the right side, causing an increase in *a*FeO. At equilibrium condition, the ratio of fO_2 to $(aFeO)^2/(aFe)^2$ equals $1/k_1$. Therefore, by affecting the direction of the redox reactions, $fO₂$ could change the valence state of multivalent elements.

The essence of redox reactions is the transfer of electrons (Tumiati et al., 2015). As an intensive variable, $fO₂$ characterizes the capacity of the system to gain or lose electrons, but it's unable to quantify the number of electrons transferred in a redox reaction. To quantify the number of transferred electrons, Evans (2006) proposed the redox budget (RB) as an extensive variable of measuring the number of transferred electrons. Redox budget refers to the number of electrons (per unit sample) gained or lost relative to a reference state. For instance, when Fe^{2+} , O^{2-} and S^{6+} are selected as the reference states, the redox budget of 1 mol hematite ($Fe₂O₃$) and 1 mol pyrrhotite (FeS) is $+2$ mol $[2\times(3-2)]$ and -8 mol $[1 \times (-2-6)]$, respectively. The plus and minus signs denote that the sample needs to gain or lose electrons to reach the reference states. On the basis of the redox budget, Merkulova

Figure 1 Schematic cartoon of the subduction zones, in which 1, 2, and 3 respectively represent metasomatism and partial melting of the mantle wedge, dehydration of the subducting slab, and differentiation of the arc magmas. In this paper, we focus on $fO₂$ and redox reactions related to these processes.

et al. (2017) proposed O_2 equivalent as a measurement of the transferred electrons. O_2 equivalent represents the number of transferred electrons in the form of oxygen molecules, that is, the number of O_2 equivalent equals to a quarter of the molar number of redox budget ($nO₂=RB/4$). Thus, $O₂$ equivalent of the aforementioned hematite and pyrrhotite is +0.5 mol/mol and -2 mol/mol, respectively. For convenience, O_2 equivalent is widely used as a discriminant criterion of redox reactions and measurement of transferred electrons in the reactions.

To promote the study of redox processes, some misconceptions must be clarified. These misconceptions mainly include:

Misconception 1: $fO₂$ signifies the presence of free oxygen molecules in a geologic system. Oxygen atoms have a strong electronegativity and usually combine with cations to form crystal cell in minerals and Si−O or Al−O tetrahedron in silicate melts (Ni, 2013), or water $(H₂O)$ and oxyacid radicals $(CO_3^{2-}$, SO_4^{2-}) in the fluid. Therefore, no free oxygen molecules are available in the geologic system. $fO₂$ essentially represents the chemical potential of oxygen, rather than the number of oxygen molecules.

Misconception 2: A high $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio represents a high *f*O2. For silicate melts, at a certain temperature and pressure condition, an increase in $\mathrm{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\mathrm{Fe}$ ratio reflects the increase in $fO₂$ of the melts. However, for solid rocks, the increase in $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio does not necessarily represent an increase in *f*O₂ (Frost, 1991). For example, under a given temperature and pressure condition, when magnetite and hematite coexist, the $fO₂$ of the system is buffered at a constant level. An increase in the proportion of hematite will increase the $Fe³$ $^{\dagger}/\sum$ Fe ratio of the system, but will never change the fO_2 of the system. Similarly, a lower $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio does not necessarily mean a lower $fO₂$.

Misconception 3: The change in O_2 equivalent indicates the change in fO_2 , and no change in O_2 equivalent means no change in fO_2 . O_2 equivalent is an extensive variable, and fO_2 is an intensive variable. Changes in an extensive variable (e.g., O_2 equivalent) do not necessarily affect the intensive variable $(e.g., fQ₂)$. Similarly, in the system where magnetite and hematite coexist, changes in the ratio of magnetite and hematite will change the O_2 equivalent, but will never change the $fO₂$ of the system. Dehydration of serpentinite is another example. During serpentinite dehydration, the O_2 equivalent of the system decreases because $Fe³⁺$ in the serpentinite is reduced to Fe^{2+} , but the *f*O₂ of the system increases because the remaining $Fe³⁺$ barely enters the newly-formed minerals such as olivine and orthopyroxene (Debret et al., 2015). In addition, when the phase assemblage of a system changes due to the change in temperature or pressure, or the addition of metasomatic agents, $fO₂$ of the system may also change even if the O_2 equivalent remains constant (Tumiati et al., 2015).

In short, $fO₂$ is an intensive variable, whereas the $O₂$ equivalent and the amount of multivalent elements are all extensive variables. There is no direct relationship between the change of an extensive variable and that of an intensive variable. Changes in the extensive variables are not necessary to cause changes in the extensive variables and vice versa.

3. The expression of oxygen fugacity

In eq. (2), when FeO and Fe are pure, their activity (*a*FeO and *a*Fe) becomes unit, and eq. (2) can be written as:

$$
\log f \, \mathcal{O}_2 = \frac{\Delta_r G_m^{\Theta}(T)}{2.303RT}.\tag{3}
$$

The standard Gibbs free energy change for this reaction can be calculated from thermodynamic data. As shown in eq. (3), the fO_2 of a particular redox reaction is closely related to the temperature and pressure of the system. At a given temperature and pressure condition, the $fO₂$ defined by the redox reaction is fixed. Such a redox reaction is called an oxygen buffer. Considering the effects of temperature and pressure, the $fO₂$ of the buffer can be expressed as:

$$
\log f O_2 = A / T + B + C(P - 1),\tag{4}
$$

where A , B , and C are constants; T is temperature in K; P is pressure in bar (1 bar= 10^5 Pa). Figure 2a exhibits the temperature-*f*O₂ relationship for several widely used oxygen buffers. As shown in Figure 2a, on one hand, $fO₂$ of a certain oxygen buffer increases with temperature, indicating that it is meaningless to discuss the $fO₂$ alone regardless of the temperature. On the other hand, different oxygen buffers have an approximate curvature in the temperature- $fO₂$ diagram. To eliminate the effect of temperature and facilitate direct $fO₂$ comparison of the samples, the relative $fO₂$ is widely used. The relative fO_2 means to normalize the fO_2 of the sample to a certain reference and can be obtained by dividing the $fO₂$ of the sample with the fO_2 of a buffer at the sample temperature and pressure conditions $f\, {\rm O}_2^{\rm sam}$ / $f\, {\rm O}_2^{\rm ref}$ or $\log f \, O_2^{\text{sam}} - \log f \, O_2^{\text{ref}}$). For example, ΔFMQ represents the difference between the $log₁O₂$ of the sample and that of the FMQ buffer (fayalite-magnetite-quartz) at the temperature and pressure conditions of the sample. Figure 2b shows that the relative fO_2 is barely affected by temperature and demonstrates that the use of the relative $fO₂$ can effectively eliminate the influence of temperature differences on the $fO₂$ comparison of samples. Unless noted, $fO₂$ referred to in this study is the relative fO_2 (such as ΔFMQ).

4. Oxygen fugacity estimation of the samples

Accurate $fO₂$ estimation of the samples lay the basis in the study of redox processes. Based on the relationship between the geochemical behaviors of multivalent elements and fO_2 , many methods have been established to estimate $fO₂$ of the samples. $fO₂$ of the samples can be estimated from the behaviors of iron, vanadium, cerium and europium, and sulfur.

4.1 Iron

Iron is the most abundant multivalent element on Earth, and its behaviors have been widely used to estimate $fO₂$ of the samples. Based on the geochemical behaviors of iron, we can estimate the fO_2 of the samples from two aspects: the minerals and melts.

4.1.1 fO2 estimation from Fe3+ and Fe2+ equilibrium of the mineral assemblages

At a certain temperature and pressure condition, chemical compositions of the minerals are closely related to $fO₂$ of the system. The olivine-orthopyroxene-spinel (ol-opx-sp) mineral assemblage is widely used to determine $fO₂$ of mantle xenoliths. At equilibrium, the ol-opx-sp assemblage conforms to the following reaction:

$$
6Fe2SiO4(Fayalite)+O2=3Fe2Si2O6(Ferrosilite)+2Fe3O4(Magnetic)(FFM).
$$
 (5)

The relationship among fayalite activity in olivine, ferrosilite activity in orthopyroxene, and magnetite activity in spinel correlates with fO_2 of the system. Thus, the fO_2 of the samples can be estimated by analyzing chemical compositions of the minerals and determining the equilibrium temperatures and pressures of the samples. Based on reaction (5), two types of equations have been established: the thermodynamic equation and the semi-empirical equation. On the basis of thermodynamic data and activity model of minerals, Mattioli and Wood (1986, 1988) and Wood (1990) established the following thermodynamic equation:

$$
log O_{2}(\Delta FMQ) = \frac{874.3}{T} - 0.095 - \frac{0.0533P + 0.11}{T}
$$

-12log(1-Mg^{#ol}) - $\frac{2620}{T}$ (Mg^{#ol})²
+3log(X^{M1}_{Fe} × X^{M2}_{Fe})^{Opx}+2loga^{Sp}_{Fe₃O₄}, (6)

where T is the temperature in K; P is the pressure in bar; ${Mg}^{\text{\#OI}}$ represents the ${Mg}^{\text{\#}}$ of olivine, $X_{\text{Fe}}^{\text{M1}}$ and $X_{\text{Fe}}^{\text{M2}}$ are the molar ratios of Fe at the M1 and M2 site of the orthopyroxene (Wood and Virgo, 1989); $a_{Fe₃O}^{Sp}$ P_{3Q_4} is the activity of magnetite in spinel. However, it has limited the use of this equation due to the lack of an accurate model in calculating magnetite activity in the spinel (Davis et al., 2017; Nell and Wood, 1991; O'Neill and Wall, 1987).

Ballhaus et al. (1991) synthesized a series of ol-opx-sp assemblage under a range of $fO₂$ conditions and found that the Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio in spinel increases linearly with the experimental $fO₂$. According to the relationship between $fO₂$, temperature, pressure, and mineral compositions, they fitted the following semi-empirical equation:

$$
log' O_{2}(\Delta FMQ) = 0.27 + \frac{2505}{T} - \frac{400P}{T}
$$

-
$$
-6log(X_{Fe}^{01}) - \frac{3200(1-X_{Fe}^{01})^{2}}{T}
$$

+
$$
2log(X_{Fe^{2+}}^{Sp}) + 4log(X_{Fe^{3+}}^{Sp}) - \frac{2630(X_{Al}^{Sp})^{2}}{T}, (7)
$$

where *T* is temperature in K; *P* is pressure in GPa; $X_{\text{Fe}}^{\text{Ol}}$ is the mole fraction of Fe in olivine; $X_{Fe^{2+}}^{Sp}$, $X_{Fe^{3+}}^{Sp}$ and X_{Al}^{Sp} are respectively the molar fraction of Fe^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , and Al in spinel,

Figure 2 Relationships between temperature and absolute oxygen fugacity (a) and relative oxygen fugacity (b) at 1 atm. *f*O₂ values of the HM (hematitemagnetite) and FMQ buffer are calculated from Frost (1991); NiNiO (Ni-NiO) and IW buffer are from O'Neill and Pownceby (1993a); ReReO₂ (Re-ReO₂) is from Pownceby and O'Neill (1994); CoCoO (Co-CoO) is from Chou (1987).

and can be calculated from the electron microprobe analyses assuming perfect stoichiometry. Ballhaus (1993) shows that the semi-empirical equation is consistent with the thermodynamic equation.

In addition to the ol-opx-sp assemblage, the olivine-orthopyroxene-garnet (Stagno et al., 2013) and orthopyroxenemagnesite-olivine-carbon (Luth and Canil, 1993) assemblages are applicable to estimate $fO₂$ of the samples derived from the deep mantle where spinel is unstable. For intermediate-acid rocks, the coexisting Fe−Ti oxides are also capable of estimating $fO₂$ of samples (Ghiorso and Evans, 2008). For metamorphic rocks, $fO₂$ of the samples can be determined either from the garnet-epidote assemblage (Donohue and Essene, 2000), or the phase diagram regarding $fO₂$ and mineral assemblages (Li et al., 2016).

4.1.2 fO2 estimation from Fe3+/Fe2+ or Fe3+/ΣFe ratio of the melts

The ratio of Fe^{3+}/S Fe in silicate melts is a function of temperature, pressure, melt composition, and $fO₂$ (Sack et al., 1980; Kilinc et al., 1983; Kress and Carmichael, 1991). Kress and Carmichael (1991) established the following equation:

$$
\ln\left(\frac{\text{XFe}_2\text{O}_3}{\text{XFeO}}\right) = a\ln f\text{O}_2 + \frac{b}{T} + c
$$

+
$$
\sum_{i} d_i X_i + e \left[1 - \frac{T_o}{T} - \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_o}\right)\right]
$$

+
$$
f\frac{P}{T} + g\frac{(T - T_o)P}{T} + h\frac{P^2}{T},
$$
(8)

where *T* is the temperature in K; T_o is the reference temperature (1673 K); *P* is the pressure in GPa; *a*–*h* are constants: *a*=0.196; *b*=1.1492×10⁴(K); *c*=−6.675; *d*(Al₂O₃)= -2.243 ; *d*(FeO_T)=−1.828; *d*(CaO)=3.201; *d*(Na₂O)=5.854; *d* (K2O)=6.215; *e*=−3.36; *f*=−701(K/GPa); *g*=−0.154(1/GPa), $h=38.5(K/GPa²)$. Therefore, $fO₂$ of the magmas can be determined by direct measuring or indirect estimating of $Fe³⁺$ /∑Fe ratio in the quenched glasses. The Fe³⁺/∑Fe ratio of the quenched glasses can be directly measured by wet chemistry method (Bézos and Humler, 2005), Mössbauer spectroscopy (Zhang H L et al., 2018), μ-XANES spectroscopy (Berry et al., 2003; Cottrell et al., 2009, 2018) or flank method by EPMA (Zhang C et al., 2018). We can also estimate $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\sum \text{Fe}$ ratio of the quenched glasses indirectly from Zn/Fe ratio in the melt (Lee et al., 2010), MnO/FeO ratio (Evans, 2012) or the Mg-Fe exchange partition coefficients (Kd_{Fe-Mg}) in olivine (Putirka, 2016).

4.2 Vanadium

In geologic systems, vanadium (V) could present in the forms of V^{2+} , V^{3+} , V^{4+} , V^{5+} , and different valence states of vanadium have different compatibility in minerals. By affecting the valence states of vanadium in the system, $fO₂$ influences the partitioning coefficient of vanadium (D_v) between minerals and melts (Irving, 1978). The relationships between D_v values and fD_z conditions (Figure 3) have been established by high temperature-pressure experiments (Canil, 1997, 1999; Canil and Fedortchouk, 2000; Karner, 2006; Mallmann and O'Neill, 2009; Laubier et al., 2014; Arató and Audétat, 2017; Shishkina et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). These relationships are widely used to estimate $fO₂$ of the samples (Shervais, 1982; Canil, 1997, 2002; Lee et al., 2003, 2005; Berry and O'Neill, 2004; Sutton et al., 2005; Papike et al., 2016; Nicklas et al., 2018). As shown in Figure 3, D_V values generally decrease with increasing fO_2 ; at a given fO_2 condition, D_V values could vary several times but the reason remains unclear. Recently, Wang et al. (2019) determined D_V

Figure 3 Relationships between D_v and fO_2 for olivine (a), orthopyroxene (b), clinopyroxene (c), and spinel (d). It shows that D_v decreases with fO_2 . However, at a given fO_2 , the D_V values vary by several times, indicating that other factors such as temperature, mineral or melt composition also affect the D_V values. Data sources: Canil and Fedortchouk (2000) and Mallmann and O'Neill (2009).

values at temperatures, pressures and $H₂O$ contents representative that of the mantle wedge and a range of $fO₂$ conditions. They found that in addition to $fO₂$, temperature, and mineral compositions also have important effects on D_V values. For example, at a given $fO₂$ condition, D_V values (in ol, opx, cpx, and sp) decrease with temperature, increase with alumina contents in orthopyroxene and clinopyroxene and chromium content in spinel. Therefore, the effects of temperature and mineral compositions must be considered when using the partitioning behaviors of vanadium to estimate $fO₂$ of the samples.

4.3 Cerium and europium

Cerium (Ce^{3+} , Ce^{4+}) and europium (Eu^{2+} , Eu^{3+}) are multivalent among the rare earth elements (REEs). The valence states of cerium and europium in the melt are mainly controlled by fO_2 of the system (Burnham et al., 2015). If cerium and europium present as Ce^{3+} and Eu^{3+} in the melt, no enrichment or depletion of Ce or Eu occurs relative to adjacent elements in the normalized REEs diagrams. However, $Ce⁴⁺$ or Eu^{2+} present when the melt is oxidized or reduced, resulting in the depletion of Ce^{3+} and Eu^{3+} . The depletion of

 Ce^{3+} and Eu³⁺ is related to *f*O₂ of the system and can be recorded by the coexisting minerals. Therefore, $fO₂$ of the samples can be estimated from the depletion or enrichment of Ce and Eu in the minerals (Drake and Weill, 1975; Trail et al., 2012; Zou et al., 2019). Because $Ce⁴⁺$ is more compatible in zircon than Ce^{3+} , zircons crystallized from oxidizing magmas tend to have a stronger Ce anomaly (Shen et al., 2015; Zhang C et al., 2017). Eu^{2+} is highly compatible in plagioclase, therefore plagioclases crystallized from reducing magmas should have a stronger Eu anomaly (Drake, 1975; Dygert et al., 2020). Eu anomaly in garnet has also been used to track the redox evolution during magma differentiation (Tang et al., 2018). Although Ce and Eu in the minerals can be used to estimate the $fO₂$ of the samples, this method is limited by several factors such as the accuracy for REEs analysis, the effect of mineral fractionation, and the uncertainty in the composition of the coexisting melts (Zou et al., 2019).

4.4 Sulfur

Sulfur presents mainly as S^{2-} at reducing condition, and as S^{6+} at oxidizing condition (Métrich et al., 2009). In silicate

melts, the solubility of S^{6+} is ten times higher than that of S^{2-} (Jugo, 2009), thus sulfur content and $S^{6+}/\sum S$ ratio in silicate melts increase with $fO₂$ (e.g., Jugo, 2009; Nash et al., 2019). The relationship between fO_2 and sulfur content and $S^{6+}/\sum S$ ratio have been used to estimate $fO₂$ of the quenched glasses (Oppenheimer et al., 2011; Feng and Li, 2019). However, sulfur loss during magma eruption may change sulfur content or $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ ratio of the samples and thus hamper the application of this method. To circumvent the changes in sulfur content and $S^{6+}/\sum S$ ratio during magma eruption, sulfur content and $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ ratio in minerals (e.g., apatite) have been used to track *f*O₂ of the samples. Konecke et al. (2017) determined sulfur species in apatite using the μ-XANES and found that $S^{6+}/\sum S$ ratio in apatite increases with *f*O2. Recently, Konecke et al. (2019) measured the partition coefficient of sulfur between apatite and basaltic melt under a range of $fO₂$ conditions and found that sulfur partition coefficient and $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ ratio in apatite increase with fO_2 . Therefore, they proposed that sulfur content and $S^{6+}/\Sigma S$ ratio in apatite can be used to determine $fO₂$ of the samples. Additionally, the species and proportions of sulfur in magmatic volatiles are also useful in determining $fO₂$ of the volcanic gas (Burgisser et al., 2012). *f*O₂ of the volcanic gas provides important clues for the redox processes during magma degassing.

5. The oxidation state of the mantle wedge

The oxidation state of the mantle wedge has profound effects on the generation and evolution of arc magmas, and the mineralization in subduction zones. However, it remains a perennial debate as to whether the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. Currently, $fO₂$ of the upper mantle is mainly estimated from three approaches: the olivine-orthopyroxene-spinel assemblage, the $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio of quenched melts and the partitioning behaviors of multivalent elements. Wood and Virgo (1989) determined $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio in spinel by Mössbauer spectroscopy and estimated $fO₂$ of the mantle xenoliths using the thermodynamic equation of ol-opx-sp assemblage. Their results reveal that the mantle wedge is generally more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. By combining the Mössbauer spectroscopy analyzed $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio in the spinel with an updated spinel model, Wood et al. (1990) recalculated $fO₂$ of mantle xenoliths and confirmed that fO_2 of the mantle wedge (>FMQ) is higher than that of the oceanic mantle (FMQ−0.9, on average). Later, Ballhaus (1993) calculated $fO₂$ of spinelbearing peridotite using the semi-empirical equation. The results show that fO_2 of the mantle wedge is between FMQ $+1$ –FMQ $+3$, which is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. Brandon and Draper (1996) estimated $fO₂$ of the mantle wedge beneath Cascade arc using the ol-opx-sp assemblage and found that fO_2 of the mantle wedge is around FMQ+1, higher than that of the oceanic mantle. Parkinson and Arculus (1999) studied the $fO₂$ of mantle xenoliths from subduction zones and found that the $fO₂$ of the mantle wedge ranges from FMQ+0.3 to FMQ+2. They thus proposed that subducting slab-derived melts or solute-rich fluids are responsible for the oxidization of the mantle wedge. Recently, Evans (2012) calculated $fO₂$ of the primitive magmas from olivine-spinel assemblage. The results confirmed that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle and proposed that oxidation of the mantle wedge is mainly caused by the input of slab-derived fluids. In conclusion, studies based on the ol-opx-sp assemblage all indicate that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle.

 $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the quenched melts is largely controlled by the fO_2 of the system. Previous studies analyzed $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio of the quenched glasses by wet chemistry method and found that arc magmas are higher in $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio than mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORBs), suggesting that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle (Christie et al., 1986; Carmichael, 1991; Bézos and Humler, 2005). Recently, the development of in-situ synchrotron Xray near-edge structure (μ-XANES) technique has enabled the analysis of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\sum \text{Fe}$ ratio with a high spatial resolution (Berry et al., 2003; Cottrell et al., 2009; Zhang H L et al., 2018). By measuring melt inclusions trapped in the early crystallized minerals, the influences of mineral crystallization, magma degassing, and later alteration on the melt $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio can be minimized. Using the μ -XANES technique, Kelley and Cottrell (2009) measured $Fe^{3+/}$ Fe ratio of the primitive basaltic melts (whole rock or melt inclusion) from different tectonic settings. The results reveal that the primitive MORBs have the lowest $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio (0.13–0.17), while, the primitive arc basalts have the highest Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio (0.18–0.32). Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio of the back-arc basin basalts is between that of the MORBs and arc basalts. Importantly, they found that $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio of the primitive magmas correlates positively with their water content and Ba/La ratio, suggesting that slab-derived fluids are responsible for the oxidization of the mantle wedge. Brounce et al. (2014) measured Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio of the olivine-hosted melt inclusions from the Mariana arc and also observed that $fO₂$ of the primitive melts increases from the back-arc side to the island arc side. Their results reveal that $fO₂$ of the primitive arc basalts is \sim 1 log unit higher than that of MORBs. They also pointed out that oxidization of the mantle wedge should be caused by the dehydration of the subducting slab and the mantle wedge can be oxidized in 2–4 Ma since the initiation of subduction (Brounce et al., 2015). Briefly speaking, like the ol-opx-sp assemblage, $Fe^{3+/}∑Fe$ ratio of the quenched glass also propose that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. In addition, the oxidized mantle wedge is also in concert with the high sulfur

content, and high δ^{34} S value of the arc magmas (de Hoog et al., 2003; Wallace, 2005).

However, Lee et al. (2003) pointed out that the ol-opx-sp assemblage may have experienced low-temperature reequilibrium or cryptic metasomatism, and $Fe^{3+/}$ ₂Fe ratio of the quenched glasses may change during magma differentiation, eruption or degassing. Therefore, they proposed that $fO₂$ estimated from neither the ol-opx-sp assemblage nor the $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the quenched glasses is representative of that of the mantle sources. The geochemical behavior of vanadium is $fO₂$ sensitive, thus vanadium could be used to track redox state of the mantle sources. Lee et al. (2003) found that mantle xenoliths from subduction zones and abyssal peridotite overlap with each other on V-MgO and V –Al₂O₃ diagrams and thus proposed that the mantle wedge and oceanic mantle is similar in *f*O₂ (i.e. FMQ−3 to FMQ). However, Canil and Fedortchouk (2000) found that mantle xenoliths from subduction zones are always higher in vanadium content than that of abyssal peridotite at a given Al_2O_3 content (depletion degree of the mantle), suggesting that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. Lee et al. (2005) proposed that V/Sc ratios of the primitive magmas are capable of tracking $fO₂$ of the mantle sources and took the similar V/Sc ratio between primitive MORBs and arc basalts as the evidence of similar $fO₂$ in their mantle sources (FMQ−1.25 to FMQ+0.5). Later, Mallmann and O'Neill (2009) measured the partition coefficients of vanadium and other elements at 1300°C, 1 atm and a range of $fO₂$ conditions. They then estimated from the perspectives of V/Sc and V/Ga ratios that the mantle wedge is as reduced as the oceanic mantle (FMQ−1 to FMQ). Recently, Laubier et al. (2014) measured D_V values at 1150–1190°C, 1 atm and a range of $fO₂$ conditions. Combining the measured D_V values with V/Yb ratios of primitive MORBs and arc basalts, they proposed that fO_2 of the mantle wedge is generally higher than that of the oceanic mantle.

Lee et al. (2010) pointed out that $\text{Zn}/\sum F$ e ratio of the primitive basalts could reflect $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio of the melts and thus track fO_2 of the mantle sources. They proposed that the similar Zn/∑Fe ratio in primitive MORBs and arc basalts should represent similar $fO₂$ in their mantle sources. However, the resolution of $\text{Zn}/\sum \text{Fe}$ method in estimating fO_2 of the samples has not been well addressed. In addition, copper content in primitive magmas has also been used to reflect $fO₂$ of the mantle because it is mainly affected by the stability of sulfide which is in turn dominated by $fO₂$ the mantle. However, recent studies revealed that in addition to fO_2 , temperature and pressure could also affect the stability of sulfide and thus the behavior of copper during mantle melting (Matjuschkin et al., 2016; Nash et al., 2019). Therefore, it may be improper to constrain $fO₂$ of the mantle sources from copper content of the primitive MORBs and arc basalts regardless of the difference in their generation temperature and pressure conditions (Lee et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2019). In brief, except for the study of Laubier et al. (2014), studies based on the partitioning behaviors of vanadium and other elements (Fe, Cu and S) argue that the mantle wedge is as reduced as the oceanic mantle, and the higher $Fe³⁺/\Sigma Fe$ ratio of arc magmas might be caused during magma transportation (Tollan and Hermann, 2019), differentiation (Tang et al., 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Lee and Tang, 2020) or degassing (Mathez, 1984).

In summary, the oxidation state of the mantle wedge splits into two standpoints. Studies based on the V/Sc ratio, Zn/ ∑Fe ratio, and the behavior of copper suggest that the mantle wedge is as reduced as the oceanic mantle. But studies on $Fe^{3+}-Fe^{2+}$ equilibrium in ol-opx-sp assemblage and silicate melts indicate that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. The debate has remained for decades with no consensus reached (Bai et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). To solve this conundrum, Wang et al. (2019) measured partition coefficients of vanadium and other first-row transition elements between mantle minerals and basaltic melts at 0.5–3.0 GPa, 1150–1350°C. In conjunction with previous studies, they found that in addition to fO_2 , temperature also affects the D_V values between mantle minerals and basaltic melts. Specifically, at a given $fO₂$ condition, the D_V values decrease with increasing temperature, whereas temperature has little effect on the partitioning of scandium and titanium. Considering that primitive arc basalts are formed at temperatures about 100°C lower than that of the oceanic mantle, Wang et al. (2019) performed partial melting modeling using suitable partition coefficients. The modeling results demonstrate that the similar V/Sc or V/Ti ratios between primitive arc basalts and MORBs not necessarily mean similar fO_2 in their mantle sources and fO_2 of the mantle wedge is \sim 1 log unit higher than that of the oceanic mantle (Figure 4). Recently, Bucholz and Kelemen (2019) also observed that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle despite the similar V/Sc ratio between primitive arc magmas and MORBs.

Generally speaking, the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle (Figure 4) and the input of slabderived materials is conceivably responsible for the oxidization of the mantle wedge (Wood et al., 1990; Parkinson and Arculus, 1999; Kelley and Cottrell, 2009; Evans, 2012; Brounce et al., 2014; Bénard et al., 2018; Gerrits et al., 2019). The upper mantle is poor in Fe^{3+} (Fe₂O₃=0.3 wt%, McCammon, 2005) and thus is low in O_2 equivalent. Therefore, fO_2 of the upper mantle is hardly buffered by itself, especially in subduction zones where the mantle wedge is continuously metasomatized by slab-derived fluids or melts (Wood et al., 1990; Ballhaus, 1993). The addition of an oxidizing or reducing fluid or melt will accordingly cause the oxidization or reduction of the mantle wedge. The extent of oxidization or reduction mainly depends on the redox

Figure 4 Compiled fO_2 values of the oceanic mantle and mantle wedge. The blue and red bars in (a) represent the fO_2 range and median of the oceanic mantle and mantle wedge respectively. Studies on mantle xenolith mantle; Wang et al. (2019) estimated *f*O₂ of the mantle from V-Ti systematics and demonstrated that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. Their results are contrary to previous V/Sc study but consistent with studies based on Fe³⁺ $-Fe^{2+}$ equilibrium in ol-opx-sp assemblage and Fe³⁺/∑Fe ratio in quenched glasses. Abbreviations: W 19, Wang et al. (2019); B 93, Ballhaus (1993); B 14, Brounce et al. (2014); C 91, Carmichael (1991); Lee 05, Lee et al. (2005); P 99, Parkinson and Arculus (1999); B 05, Bézos and Humler (2005); (b) Pressure−*f*O2 diagram (modified from Tao et al., 2019). The pressures of the oceanic mantle and mantle wedge are 0.5–1.5 and 1.5–2.5 GPa, respectively. It shows that fO_2 of the oceanic mantle falls onto the fO_2 trend defined by the cratonic garnet peridotite, but fO_2 of the mantle wedge is higher than that of the oceanic mantle and is above the craton fO_2 trend. fO_2 of the oceanic mantle and mantle wedge are from Wang et al. (2019). The EMOD/G reaction is from Luth and Canil (1993).

property of the fluids or melts, the amount of the fluids or melts, and the duration since subduction initiation. The variations in these factors could account for the wide variation range in $fO₂$ of the mantle wedge. Although massive evidence indicates an oxidized mantle wedge, mantle wedge in several areas was found to be reduced. Song et al. (2009) reported olivine-hosted methane inclusions in the harzburgite from the Qilian suture zone. Petrologic and geochemical studies proved that the harzburgite are residues after melt extraction and the estimated $fO₂$ is between FMQ and FMQ −1.47, suggesting that the harzburgite was reduced by the addition of reducing fluids. Ishimaru et al. (2009) observed native metals (nickel, iron, and titanium) and iron-silicon alloys trapped in mantle xenoliths from the Avacha volcano, Kamchatka, and proposed that the mantle wedge may be reduced by reducing fluids (H_2) and CH_4) released during serpentinization at the bottom of the mantle wedge.

6. Oxygen fugacity and O_2 equivalent of the **slab-derived fluids**

Fluids or melts released by the dehydration or partial melting of the subducting slab will interact with the mantle wedge (Figure 1). Controlled by the stability field of minerals and the partitioning behaviors of elements, the fluids or melts released under different temperature and pressure conditions have characteristic trace elements and isotope signals (Zheng, 2019). Compared to MORBs, primitive arc basalts are enriched in large ion lithophile elements (LILEs) (Elliott et al., 1997) and volatiles (Straub and Layne, 2003; Wallace and Edmonds, 2011). The enrichment of LILEs and volatiles in arc magmas suggests that agents released by the subducting slabs may be responsible for the oxidization of the mantle wedge (Merkulova et al., 2017; Stolper and Bucholz, 2019). Therefore, detailed studies on the redox property of the slab-derived fluids are critical in understanding the oxidization mechanism of the mantle wedge.

The subducting slab comprises of serpentinized lithospheric mantle, altered oceanic crust, and sediment. During plate subduction, fluids or melts derived from the subducting slab could change the redox state of the mantle wedge by transporting multivalent elements (e.g., carbon, sulfur, hydrogen or iron) into it (Brounce et al., 2015; Rielli et al., 2017; Bénard et al., 2018). With the subduction of the slab, serpentinite releases fluids via two stages of phase transition: lizardite/bastite/chrysotile→antigorite and antigorite→ chlorite/olivine/orthopyroxene. However, redox property of the serpentinite-dehydrating fluids is still under debate. Some scientists proposed that the dehydration of serpentinite should release a reducing fluid. Peretti et al. (1992) observed awaruite and native copper as the residual minerals, and hydrogen molecules in the fluid inclusions of a dehydrated serpentinite in Malenco, Italy. Therefore, they proposed that fluids released by the dehydration of serpentinite are extremely reducing (FMQ−4). Galvez et al. (2013a, 2013b)

reported in Corsica (France) that carbonate rocks in contact with serpentinite were reduced to graphite. The reduction of carbonate suggests the reducing property of the serpentinitedehydrating fluids. Recently, Chen et al. (2019) analyzed Fe isotope of a whiteschist from the Dora-Maira Massif in the West of Alps. The results showed that by interacting with serpentinite-released fluids, iron content and $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the granite (the protolith of the whiteschist) decreased, but δ^{56} Fe increased. The decrease of Fe³⁺/ \sum Fe ratio suggests that the serpentinite-dehydrating fluids have metasomatized and reduced the granite. In addition to the observations from natural samples, Piccoli et al. (2019) calculated $fO₂$ of the serpentinite-released fluids from the aspect of phase equilibrium and found that *f*O₂ of serpentinite-released fluids never exceeds FMQ. Therefore, they proposed that fluids released by the dehydration of serpentinite are incapable of oxidizing the mantle wedge (Piccoli et al., 2019). On the contrary, other scientists proposed that the dehydration of serpentinite should release an oxidizing fluid. It has been demonstrated in many studies that $Fe³⁺$ content of the serpentinite decreases during dehydration (Debret et al., 2014a, 2015; Bretscher et al., 2018). The decrease in $Fe³⁺$ content indicates a decrease in $O₂$ equivalent of the serpentinite, suggesting that other multivalent elements (e.g., sulfur, Debret et al., 2014b) must be oxidized and released into the dehydrated fluids. Recent studies on sulfur isotope (Alt et al., 2012; Alt et al., 2013), zinc isotope (Pons et al., 2016), and iron isotope (Debret et al., 2016) indicated that in the serpentinite-dehydrating fluids, sulfur presents in the form of $SO_x²$, and iron exists in the forms of Fe^{2+} -SO_x and Fe^{2+} -Cl₂, suggesting that serpentinite-dehydrating fluids are highly oxidized. Meanwhile, Debret and Sverjensky (2017) calculated the redox property of serpentinite-dehydrating fluids using the DEW (Deep Earth Water) model. The results showed that dehydrated fluids released by serpentinite are highly oxidized. Recently, Iacovino et al. (2020) simulated the dehydration of serpentinite and recorded the $fO₂$ of the dehydrated fluids. The results showed that oxidizing fluids can be released by the dehydration of serpentinite (FMQ+2, Iacovino et al., 2020). In summary, it is still unclear as to the redox property of the serpentinite-dehydrating fluids. Detailed studies on the effects of the serpentinite compositions and the dehydrating temperatures and pressures could provide important constraints on the redox property of the dehydrated fluids.

The redox property of fluids dehydrated from sediments and altered oceanic crusts is also highly variable. Brounce et al. (2019) analyzed and found that sediments and altered oceanic crusts of the subducting slab have a high $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio (0.5) , suggesting that they may release oxidizing agents and oxidize the mantle wedge. However, the amount of oxidizing agents transported into the mantle wedge remains uncertain. Li et al. (2016) conducted a detailed study on an outcrop of micaschists-blueschists-eclogites in Tianshan, China. By modeling the phase diagram in the Fe−Cu −O−S system, they estimated *f*O₂ of the rock samples and found that fluids in equilibrium with eclogite are reduced and unable to oxidize the mantle wedge. Recently, Tao et al. (2018) observed the graphite-magnetite assemblage and methane-bearing fluid inclusions in the carbonated eclogite from the southwestern Tianshan, China and estimated $fO₂$ of the carbonated eclogite from the garnet-omphacite assemblage. The estimated *f*O₂ is between FMQ−1.9 and FMQ −2.5, suggesting that dehydration of the subducting slab may release a reducing fluid. Their long-term study on the Tianshan subduction zone reveals that with the increase in $fO₂$ of the mantle wedge, $fO₂$ of the subducting slabs decreases continuously. To explain the opposite variation trend of $fO₂$ between the subducting slab and the mantle wedge, Tao et al. (2019) proposed the "polarized redox model", that is, fluid released by the subducting slab oxidized the mantle wedge, leading to concomitant reduction of the subducting slab. This polarized redox model could account for the opposite redox zonation between garnet from the mantle wedge and that from the subducting slab (see below).

As for the continental collisional zones, redox property of the dehydrated fluids is sparse. Malaspina et al. (2017) proposed that garnet-hosted polyphase inclusions in Maowu garnet-pyroxenite, Dabie Mountains, represent H₂O-rich melt or supercritical fluid released by the subducting continental crust. Importantly, these polyphase inclusions are rich in $Fe³⁺$ content and thus capable of oxidizing the mantle wedge. Malaspina et al. (2009) analyzed $Fe³⁺$ content of garnet in a metasomatic garnet peridotite from Dabie Mountains. The results revealed that $Fe³⁺$ content in garnet increased continuously from the core to the rim, indicating that the mantle wedge is gradually oxidized during metasomatism. Intriguily, Gerrits et al. (2019) measured the *f*O₂ and Fe isotopes of the garnet from the exhumed subducting slab. Their results demonstrated that the garnet is continuously reduced from the core to the rim, suggesting that the subducting slab is gradually reduced. The contrast $fO₂$ zonation between these two types of garnets supports the polarized redox model.

As mentioned above, redox property of the fluids released by different parts of the subducting slab (i.e. serpentinite, altered oceanic crust, and sediments) remains controversial. In reality, redox property of the dehydrated fluids from the whole subducting plates is also debated. Bénard et al. (2018) investigated valence states of sulfur and iron of the mantle peridotite, melt patches dispersed in peridotite, and spinel hosted melt inclusions. They observed anhydrite inclusions in the peridotite from subduction zones, high $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio in the spinel, and high $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ and $S^{6+}/\sum S$ ratios in melt patches and spinel hosted melt inclusions. In combination with the evidence from trace elements and sulfur isotope,

Bénard et al. (2018) proposed that the mantle wedge is oxidized by the S^{6+} -rich fluids released by the subducting slab. However, Li et al. (2020) suggested that sulfur may not be able to oxidize the mantle wedge. Li et al. (2020) conducted detailed petrographic and geochemical studies on the exhumed Paleozoic high-pressure metamorphic rocks (serpentinite, altered oceanic crust, and sediments) and veins in these rocks. Based on the mineral compositions of the metamorphic rocks and theoretical modeling, they proposed that sulfur in the subducting slab is mainly released in the form of S^{2-} at 70–100 km and thus could not oxidize the mantle wedge.

In summary, there are important controversies in the redox property of fluids released by the subducting slab. The key to clarifying redox property of the fluids is to investigate the behaviors of multivalent elements (e.g., iron, carbon, and sulfur) during the dehydration of the subducting slab, and their mobility in the dehydrated fluids.

7. Redox evolution during magma generation, ascending and differentiation

7.1 $fO₂$ variation during the generation of primitive **basaltic magma**

As discussed in Section 5, mantle xenoliths and primitive basalts have revealed that the mantle wedge is more oxidized than the oceanic mantle. This understanding proposes an underlying assumption that during partial melting of the mantle, both the melts (primitive basalts) and the residues (mantle xenoliths) record $fO₂$ of the mantle source. For the generation of MORBs, this assumption seems credible as demonstrated by the weak correlation between magmatic $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio and melting degree (Canil et al., 2006; Sorbadere et al., 2018). However, whether this assumption remains tenable during partial melting of the mantle wedge needs further tests. In the stability field of graphite, the $fO₂$ of the C−CO buffer is lower at shallower depth due to its strong pressure dependency (Frost and Wood, 1995). Based on the relationship between $fO₂$ and pressure, Ballhaus (1993) proposed that if $fO₂$ of the upper mantle is buffered by carbon, the oxidized nature of the mantle wedge can be explained by its higher melting pressure than the oceanic mantle. However, Parkinson and Arculus (1999) pointed out that carbon is unstable at the $fO₂$ condition of the mantle wedge. They proposed that fO_2 of the mantle wedge should increase during partial melting as demonstrated by the positive correlation between $fO₂$ and Cr^* of spinels. Gaetani (2016) performed partial melting modeling and found that fO_2 of magma is affected not only by the Fe³⁺/∑Fe ratio of the source rock, but also by the mantle potential temperature. Magmas generated at lower temperatures tend to be more oxidized. The modeling results suggest that $fO₂$ of the primitive arc basalts should be 0.9 log units higher than that of the primitive MORBs considering that melting temperature of the mantle wedge is 100°C lower than the oceanic mantle (Gaetani, 2016). Therefore, the effects of thermal structure and melting processes within the mantle must be considered in understanding the oxidized character of the mantle wedge.

7.2 fO_2 variation during magma ascending

Because the compressibility of FeO in the melt is a little bit greater than that of Fe₂O₃, Fe₂O₃ is more stable as the pressure decreases (Kress and Carmichael, 1991; O'Neill, 2006; Zhang H L et al., 2017). Therefore, during the adiabatic ascending of magma, the $fO₂$ will decrease slightly $(-0.17/\text{GPa})$ at a constant Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio. Because the change in fO_2 is minor during magma ascending, fO_2 of the quenched melts is representative of redox state the deepseated magmas (Carmichael, 1991; Kress and Carmichael, 1991).

7.3 $fO₂$ variation during magma differentiation

 $fO₂$ of the magmas is mainly reflected and governed by their Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe ratio. Therefore, how the fO_2 varies during fractional crystallization depends on $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio of the fractionated minerals (Carmichael, 1991). Specifically speaking, when $Fe^{3+}/\Sigma Fe$ ratio of the minerals (e.g. olivine) is lower than the coexisting melt, the crystallization of minerals will lead to a higher $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio and oxidization of the melt. On the other hand, when $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the minerals is higher than the coexisting melt (e.g., magnetite and phlogopite, etc.), mineral crystallization tends to decrease Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe ratio and cause reduction of the melt.

For MORBs, the fractional crystallization of minerals has a limited influence on Fe^{3+}/Σ Fe ratio of the magmas. For example, with the MgO content decreasing from 10 wt% to 7 wt%, the Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio of MORBs only increases by 0.015 (from 0.145 to 0.160) (Shorttle et al., 2015). Even when the MgO content decreases from 10 wt% to 5 wt%, the Fe³⁺/ Σ Fe ratio just increases by 0.03 (from 0.15 to 0.18) (Cottrell and Kelley, 2011) (Figure 5b). But how the $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio and $fO₂$ varies during the differentiation of arc magmas remains controversial. de Hoog et al. (2003) found from Pinatubo volcano (Philippine) that fO_2 of the primitive basaltic magmas (NNO+1.47) resembles that of the differentiated andesitic magmas (NNO+1.3). In addition, the andesitic magmas also have a similar fO_2 (NNO+1.6) to the differentiated dacitic magmas. These observations suggest that fractional crystallization of minerals has a limited effect on $fO₂$ of the arc magmas. Kelley and Cottrell (2012) analyzed $Fe^{3+/}$ Fe ratio of olivine-hosted melt inclusions in Agrihan volcano, Mariana, and found that along with mineral crystallization, $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the magmas decreased gradually. After

Figure 5 The variation of Fe³⁺/∑Fe ratio with SiO₂ (a) and MgO (b) during magma differentiation. The results show that Fe³⁺/∑Fe ratio in both MORBs and arc magmas remains almost constant during differentiation. B14, Brounce et al. (2014); C12, Crabtree and Lange (2012); W16, Waters and Lange (2016); B05, Bézos and Humler (2005); Z18, Zhang H L et al. (2018).

excluding the effect of magnetite crystallization, they proposed that the decrease in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\sum \text{Fe}$ ratio was caused by the degassing of sulfur. Therefore, it is believed that neither the fractional crystallization nor degassing could cause oxidization of the magmas. Lately, Grocke et al. (2016) analyzed $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ ratio of the rocks from the Andes continental arc and observed no relationship between the $Fe^{3+}/\sum Fe$ ratio and $SiO₂$ content of the samples. Based on this observation, they inferred that both fractional crystallization and the crustal contamination could barely change $fO₂$ of the magmas and the fO_2 of arc magmas is inherited from the mantle wedge. Crabtree and Lange (2012) observed that $Fe²⁺$ content of both andesite and dacite doesn't change before and after H_2O degassing and thus proposed that the degassing of H_2O does not affect fO_2 of the magmas. Additionally, the similar Fe^{2+} content and $Fe³⁺/\Sigma Fe$ ratio between andesite and dacite confirm that $fO₂$ of magma remains almost constant during magma differentiation, as also observed by Waters and Lange (2016). Recently, Moussallam et al. (2014) observed the reduction of magmas caused by sulfur degassing in Erebus magmatic lake, Antarctica. In short, the fractional crystallization of minerals and degassing of H_2O have no apparent influences on $fO₂$ of the magmas, while, the degassing of sulfur could cause a reduction of the magmas. However, recent studies argue that garnet could play a critical role during the fractional crystallization of magmas beneath the thick crust. Because garnet is a major reservoir of $Fe²⁺$, the crystallization of garnet could lead to an increase in $Fe³⁺/\sum Fe$ and oxidization of the magmas (Tang et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2019a; Tang et al., 2019b; Lee and Tang, 2020). In summary, there are major controversies about how the $fO₂$ varies during the generation and differentiation of arc magmas. Determining the partitioning behaviors of Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} during magma generation and differentiation is fundamental

in clarifying these controversies (Rudra and Hirschmann, 2019).

8. Conclusions and prospects

Here we introduced the concept, expression and estimation methods of fO_2 . Then we reviewed the oxidation state of the mantle wedge, the redox property of slab-derived fluids and the effects of mantle melting, magma ascending and degassing on the fO_2 of arc magmas. The main conclusions include (1) the mantle wedge is generally more oxidized than the oceanic mantle; (2) the redox property of the slab-derived fluids and the mechanism for the oxidization of the mantle wedge remain controversial; (3) the effect of fractional crystallization on the $fO₂$ of arc magmas are debated. Although great progress has been made in the redox processes in subduction zones, there are still a series of important issues that deserve further study. These issues include:

(1) Redox property of the serpentinite-dehydrating fluids. The serpentinite could contain up to \sim 12 wt% H₂O, comprising an important reservoir of water in the subducting slab. However, the redox property of the serpentinite-released fluids is still debated (Peretti et al., 1992; Debret et al., 2014a; Chen et al., 2019; Debret and Sverjensky, 2017). On the seafloor, the serpentinization of peridotite (hydration) could release hydrogen and form magnetite (Huang et al., 2017). However, during the dehydration of serpentinite, magnetite is consumed, and olivine and orthopyroxene are formed (Merkulova et al., 2017). These phenomena suggest that fluids released during the serpentinization of peridotite should be reduced, and that released by the dehydration of serpentinite should be oxidized. Recently, Evans et al. (2017) pointed out that the water-rock ratio could affect the mineral

assemblages of the rocks during serpentinization. Serpentinite formed at a low water-rock ratio (high-temperature serpentinization by Alt et al., 2013) usually contains trevorite and native copper and that formed at a high water-rock ratio (low-temperature serpentinization by Alt et al., 2013) contains magnetite and sulfur-rich phases. They proposed that dehydrated fluid released by the former serpentinite should be reduced, while dehydrated fluid released by the later should be oxidized. Therefore, before discussing the redox property of the serpentinite-dehydrating fluid, we must understand whether the fluids are released during the serpentinization of rocks or dehydration of the serpentinite. Additionally, the redox property of the serpentinite-released fluids also depend on the compositions of the serpentinite. In subduction zones, slab-derived fluids may cause serpentinization of the adjacent mantle wedge and thus release extremely reducing fluids (Ishimaru et al., 2009).

(2) The redox property of the dehydrated fluids released by the oceanic or continental crust. The subducting oceanic or continental crust are important reservoirs of H_2O in the subducting slab, but the redox property of the dehydrated fluids from the subducting crust is still debated. One view holds that fluids released during the subduction and exhumation of the oceanic crust are respectively reduced and oxidized (Li et al., 2016, 2020; Liu et al., 2016). However, the other view proposes that the dehydrated fluids released by the subducting slabs are inevitably oxidized (Malaspina et al., 2009; Gerrits et al., 2019). Therefore, to fully understand the redox property of the crust-derived fluids, we should investigate how the dehydration processes affect the redox property of the fluids. Furthermore, studies on redox property of the fluids released by the subducting continental crust are limited (Malaspina et al., 2017) and worth further attention.

(3) The mobility of iron, carbon and sulfur in fluid, melt and supercritical fluid in subduction zones. Multivalent elements such as iron, carbon and sulfur are the main carriers of electrons in subduction zones and measuring the mobility of iron (Fe²⁺, Fe³⁺), carbon (C⁴⁺, C⁴⁻, etc.) and sulfur (S⁶⁺, $S^{2−}$, etc.) in fluid, melt and supercritical fluid could provide important clues to the electron transfer in the subduction zones and the oxidization mechanism of the mantle wedge. The solubility of sulfur (S^{6+}, S^{2-}) in silicate melts is well established, but sulfur solubility in fluid and supercritical fluid are still rare. Furthermore, the solubility of iron and carbon in fluid, melt, and supercritical fluid is scarce and worthy of attention in the future.

(4) The relationship between the chemical evolution and redox evolution of arc magmas. Because iron is the most abundant multivalent element on Earth and $fO₂$ of the magmas is controlled by the Fe³⁺/ \sum Fe ratio, the key to study the relationship between the chemical evolution and redox evolution of arc magma is to investigate the behaviors of $Fe³⁺$

and $Fe²⁺$ during magma differentiation. Recently, benefited from the development of the μ-XANES technique, determining the partition coefficients of Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} between minerals and melts has become the frontier in the study of *f*O₂ (Rudra and Hirschmann, 2019).

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