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1 **Crystallographic and morphological characteristics of acicular**
2 **ferrite and their formation mechanisms in HSLA steels**

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19
20 **Abstract:**

21 The crystallographic and morphological characteristics of acicular ferrite (AF) and their
22 formation mechanisms were investigated in this research. A high-strength low-alloy
23 steel was processed to promote AF formation, and a numerical fitting method was
24 employed to reconstruct the deformed austenite orientations. Comprehensive
25 crystallographic analysis revealed that the crystallographic characteristics of AF are
26 manifested in the selection of variants from multiple close-packed plane (CP) and Bain
27 groups and the near random variant pairing. This is distinct from those observed in other

28 bainitic microstructures in the literature exhibiting variants selected from either the
29 same CP or the same Bain group and the preferential variant pairing. These unique
30 crystallographic features arise from multi-variant intragranular nucleation, arrest of
31 lengthening laths and self-accommodation of the transformation shape strain, driven by
32 austenite deformation and proper cooling. Correlative morphology characterization and
33 three-dimensional atom probe results indicate that the boundaries between AF laths
34 become metallographically distinguishable through crystal faceting,
35 martensite/austenite constituent delineating, and surface protrusions induced by carbon
36 segregation at grain boundaries. The morphological features of AF—chaotic grain
37 arrangements and irregular grain shapes—are direct consequences of AF’s distinct
38 crystallographic characteristics and the above boundary revelation mechanisms. These
39 findings advance the understanding and characterization of AF and provide insight into
40 weakening variant selection and forming random variant pairing by austenite
41 deformation and appropriate cooling.

42 **Keywords:** Acicular Ferrite; Orientation Relationship; Variant Selection; Variant
43 Pairing; Morphological Characteristics.

44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Acicular ferrite (AF) is a microstructure emerged alongside the thermomechanical
47 controlled processing and accelerated cooling techniques for high-strength low-alloy
48 (HSLA) steels [1]. It was firstly defined by Smith et al. [2] in 1972 as “a highly
49 substructured, non-equiaxed ferrite that forms upon continuous cooling by a mixed
50 diffusion and shear mode of transformation that begins at a temperature slightly higher
51 than the upper bainite transformation range”. AF is known to possess an excellent
52 combination of strength and toughness, making it a key target microstructure in the
53 design of HSLA steels [3].

54 Despite the similar transformation mechanisms and strengths between AF and
55 bainitic ferrite (BF), AF is usually separated from BF when describing microstructures
56 [4–6]. This is mainly because AF grains are chaotically arranged and irregularly shaped
57 [7], in contrast to the highly organised BF microstructures which contain packets of
58 parallel laths [1]. Furthermore, the toughness of AF is considerably higher than that of
59 BF, because of the higher density of high angle grain boundaries (HAGBs) in AF [8].

60 Extensive studies have been carried out on AF in HSLA steels, yet there are still
61 some unclear aspects of AF, especially its crystallographic characteristics and the
62 mechanism responsible for its unique crystallographic and morphological features.
63 Crystallographic characteristics have profound influences on the morphology, grain
64 boundary and mechanical properties of bainitic and martensitic microstructures [9–11].
65 For displacive transformations in steels, orientations of the transformation products and
66 their parent grains are related by an orientation relationship (OR) [12]. Owing to this
67 OR and the crystallography symmetry of austenite, up to 24 product orientations (i.e.
68 variants) can be theoretically formed within a single austenite grain [13, 14]. Ideally,
69 these variants should appear randomly. However, studies have shown that certain
70 variants are preferentially selected [15–17], which is called variant selection. Moreover,
71 those variants selected are not formed side by side randomly. Instead, certain pairs of

72 variants are favoured [18, 19], which is called variant pairing.

73 Given that AF transformation mechanism is bainitic, crystallographic information
74 including the OR, variant selection, variant pairing and the mechanism behind are
75 essential for a complete characterisation and thorough understanding of AF in HSLA
76 steels. Simultaneously, it has long been recognized that AF exhibits morphological
77 characteristics distinctly different from those of BF, including irregular grain shape,
78 chaotic and intersecting grain arrangement. However, the underlying mechanisms
79 responsible for these morphological features have not been adequately explained.

80 Analysis for AF crystallographic characteristics still remains challenging. First,
81 the volume fraction of retained austenite in HSLA steels after continuous cooling is
82 very low, making it difficult to reliably determine its orientation using EBSD. Second,
83 austenite deformation is a prerequisite for AF transformation because AF typically
84 nucleates on deformation-induced substructures in austenite [20, 21]. The orientations
85 of deformed austenite are even more difficult to resolve from EBSD data. Finally, since
86 AF transformation typically occurs at relatively slow cooling rates or high temperatures
87 [22, 23], reconstructive transformation products, e.g. polygonal ferrite (PF) and quasi-
88 polygonal ferrite (QF), usually exist in the final microstructures and interfere with the
89 crystallographic analysis of AF.

90 In this study, a commercial HSLA steel was subjected to plane strain compression
91 followed by continuous cooling to obtain a microstructure containing AF. By
92 encouraging coarse-grained austenite, the interference from reconstructive
93 transformation products (PF and QF) was minimized. The numerical fitting method
94 proposed by Miyamoto et al. [24] was adopted to reconstruct the local orientations of
95 deformed parent austenite from the measured orientations of the transformation
96 products. Crystallographic characteristics of AF—including the OR, variant selection
97 and variant pairing—were systematically investigated, and the mechanisms responsible
98 for the weakened variant selection and the nearly random variant pairing observed in

99 AF were clarified. Finally, how the morphology of AF becomes observable and the
100 origins of the distinctive AF morphology were elucidated, through correlative
101 morphology characterization and three-dimensional atom probe analysis.

102 **2 Materials and methods**

103 Plane strain compression tests were conducted on a commercially produced HSLA
104 X80 pipeline steel having the chemical composition of Fe-0.045C-1.43Mn-0.14Si-
105 0.09Nb-0.21Cr-0.12Ni-0.21Cu-0.01Ti (wt.%). To fully dissolve the niobium carbide
106 precipitates and develop a large austenite grain size, specimens underwent
107 austenitization at 1250 °C for 2 h in an argon atmosphere, followed by water quenching
108 directly from 1250 °C to room temperature.

109 During testing, the heat-treated samples were reheated to 1200 °C at a rate of
110 10 °C/s, held for 2 min to achieve thermal equilibration, and then cooled at a rate of
111 5 °C/s to 950 °C for a strain of 0.5 at a constant true strain rate of 10 s⁻¹. After
112 deformation, the samples were cooled from 950 °C to 500 °C at a rate of 10 °C/s,
113 followed by slow cooling from 500 °C to 350 °C at a rate of 1 °C/s and finally water
114 quenching from 350 °C to room temperature. Two additional samples were processed
115 in the same manner, except that they were water quenched before and after the austenite
116 deformation to examine the austenite microstructure. The schematic illustration of solid
117 solution heat treatment and thermomechanical testing profile is shown in Fig. S1. The
118 details of the plane strain compression tests are provided in the Supplementary
119 materials [25, 26].

120 Samples for metallographic observations were sectioned on the rolling direction
121 (RD) –normal direction (ND) plane and prepared. 2% nital was used to show the
122 transformed microstructure, while a saturated aqueous picric acid solution was used to
123 reveal the prior-austenite grain boundaries (PAGBs). Optical microscopy (OM) and
124 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observations were carried out on Nikon Eclipse
125 LV150 and FEI InspectF, respectively. EBSD mapping was carried out via a FEI Sirion

126 Field Emission Gun SEM equipped with a HKL Nordlys detector. An orientation map
127 (400 $\mu\text{m}\times 350 \mu\text{m}$) with a step size of 0.2 μm and an accelerating voltage of 20 kV was
128 obtained on the RD-ND plane of the continuously cooled specimen.

129 Oxford Jupiter XR atomic force microscope (AFM) operating in contact mode was
130 used to characterise the surface morphology and measure the height differences
131 between grains. AFM images were obtained in a scan area of 50 $\mu\text{m} \times 50 \mu\text{m}$, with a
132 resolution of 2048 \times 2048 pixels and a scan rate of 0.4 Hz. The acquired images were
133 subsequently processed using Asylum Research software.

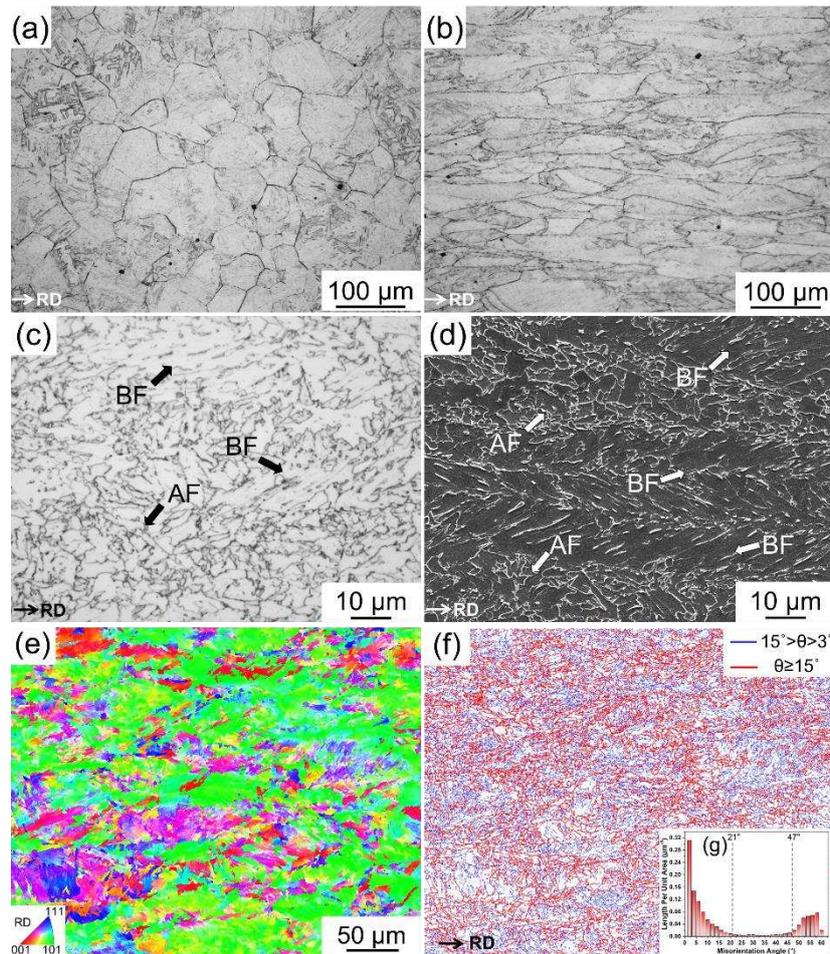
134 Thin foil samples were prepared using a Helios 5 UC focused ion beam (FIB) for
135 observation via transmission Kikuchi diffraction (TKD). Off-axis TKD was performed
136 at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV with a step size of 0.02 μm . Microstructural
137 characterisation of the thin foils was conducted using a JEOL-2010 transmission
138 electron microscope (TEM) operated at 200 kV. Needle-shaped specimens containing
139 targeted boundaries for atom probe tomography (APT) analysis were cut from bulk
140 material and prepared through the site-specific in-situ lift-out method using FIB. The
141 diameters of the needle tips were controlled to be less than 50 nm. APT was conducted
142 using Cameca LEAP 6000XR in laser pulsing mode at a specimen temperature below
143 50K. APT data reconstruction and quantitative analysis were performed using AP Suite
144 software.

145 **3 Results**

146 **3.1 PAGBs and transformed microstructure**

147 Fig. 1(a)–(b) shows the optical micrographs of PAGBs before and after austenite
148 deformation. Prior to the strain of 0.5 in Fig. 1(a), the austenite grains were fully
149 recrystallized with a mean linear intercept length of $62.8\pm 2.6 \mu\text{m}$. After a strain of 0.5
150 in Fig. 1(b), the austenite microstructure remained in an unrecrystallized state. Fig.
151 1(c)–(d) presents the OM and SEM micrographs of the transformed microstructure
152 (cooled at 10 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{s}$ between 950 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 500 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, similarly hereinafter). In Fig. 1(c)–(d),

153 AF can be readily distinguished from BF. Coarse packets of parallel laths were
 154 identified as BF, while regions consisting of fine grains with irregular shapes, chaotic
 155 and intersecting arrangement were regarded as AF. The inverse pole figure (IPF)
 156 coloured orientation map and the boundary map of the transformed microstructure are
 157 shown in Fig. 1(e)–(f), respectively. The volume fraction of PF/QF was evaluated using
 158 a phase quantification method based on EBSD data [27]. The volume fractions of PF/QF,
 159 AF, and BF were quantified as $5.4\% \pm 0.7\%$, $31.1\% \pm 5.0\%$ and $63.5\% \pm 6.0\%$,
 160 respectively, confirming the dominance of AF and BF. The distribution of boundary
 161 misorientation angles in Fig. 1(g) shows low densities between 21° and 47° , providing
 162 further evidence that displacive transformation products prevail.



163
 164 **Fig. 1.** Optical micrographs depicting prior austenite grain boundaries of specimens water
 165 quenched from 950 °C (a) before and (b) after the strain of 0.5. The transformed microstructure
 166 (c) optical micrograph, (d) SEM secondary electron micrograph, (e) inverse pole figure
 167 coloured orientation map of the transformed microstructure, (f) boundary map where blue lines

168 represent boundaries with misorientation angles between 3° and 15° and red lines represent
169 boundaries with misorientation angles greater than 15°, and (g) boundary density histograms in
170 terms of length per unit area with misorientation angles from 2° to 63°.

171 **3.2 Reconstruction of deformed austenite orientations**

172 Parent austenite orientation is a prerequisite for analysing the crystallographic
173 characteristics of AF. Reconstruction of parent austenite orientations critically depends
174 on the selection of orientation relationship (OR). In this study, the method proposed in
175 Ref. [28] based on boundary misorientations was used to determine the OR between
176 AF and austenite.

177 The average OR determined from five AF regions is given in Table 1 together with
178 some ORs obtained in Ref. [18] from bainite transformed isothermally at different
179 temperatures and martensite. ORs are presented as rotations between FCC and BCC in
180 the form of Bunge Euler angles. The angular deviations between close-packed planes
181 ($\Delta\theta_{CP}$) and close-packed directions ($\Delta\theta_{CD}$) are also listed in Table 1. It is clear that the
182 average OR calculated from AF regions is very close to the OR of bainite transformed
183 at 580 °C. Although chemical composition and deformation can influence the OR,
184 existing studies indicate that they do not alter the intrinsic dependence of the OR on
185 transformation temperature [18, 28, 29]. The transformation temperature remains the
186 dominant factor governing the evolution of the OR, particularly $\Delta\theta_{CP}$. Accordingly, the
187 AF in the present study is inferred to have transformed at a relatively high
188 transformation temperature, comparable to approximately 580 °C.

189

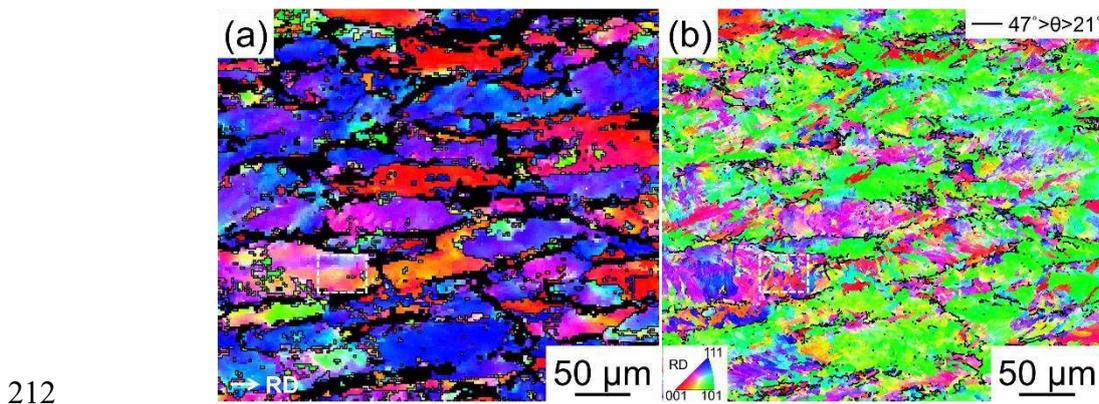
190 **Table 1.** OR and misorientation between CP and CD of BCC and FCC. $\Delta\theta_{CP}$ and $\Delta\theta_{CD}$ are the
 191 angular deviations between close-packed planes and close-packed directions, respectively.

Microstructure	OR Euler Angles (ϕ_1, Φ, ϕ_2)	$\Delta\theta_{CP}$	$\Delta\theta_{CD}$
Martensite (Ms=440 °C) [18]	(119.9°, 8.8°, 196.0°)	1.5±0.2	2.9±0.1
Bainite (450 °C) [18]	(119.0°, 8.9°, 197.3°)	1.4±0.2	2.6±0.1
Bainite (500 °C) [18]	(117.1°, 8.4°, 199.0°)	1.9±0.4	2.7±0.2
Bainite (580 °C) [18]	(111.9°, 7.7°, 204.3°)	2.9±0.1	2.7±0.1
AF in present study	(114.7°, 7.6°, 201.1°)	2.9±0.3	3.2±0.2

192 Owing to this OR and the symmetry of austenite, there are 24 variants for each
 193 austenite grain. These variants can be grouped into four close-packed plane (CP) groups,
 194 each consisting of six variants sharing the same parallel relationship of CPs between
 195 AF and austenite. These variants can also be discriminated into three Bain groups
 196 according to three distinctive variants of the Bain correspondence. The sequence of the
 197 24 variants and their corresponding CP and Bain groups shown in Ref. [30] were
 198 adopted in this research and are shown in Table.S2.

199 Adopting the determined OR and the austenite orientation reconstruction method
 200 proposed in Ref. [24], the orientation map of the deformed austenite was reconstructed
 201 and is shown in Fig. 2(a). In this map, black regions represent the locations in which
 202 the minimal difference between the experimental data and the variants of the best fitted
 203 austenite orientation is higher than 5°, indicating reconstruction failure in these regions.
 204 Typically, near the prior-austenite grain boundaries (PAGBs), reconstruction is more
 205 likely to fail due to the presence of variants from different austenite grains. Therefore,
 206 the black regions in Fig. 2(a) are primarily related to the presence of PAGBs. Since the
 207 misorientation angles between variants from the same austenite grain are either less
 208 than 21° or larger than 47°, boundaries with misorientation angles between 21° - 47° in
 209 the transformed microstructure orientation map (Fig. 2(b)) are used to partly depict
 210 PAGBs. A good overall agreement is observed between the black regions in Fig. 2(a)

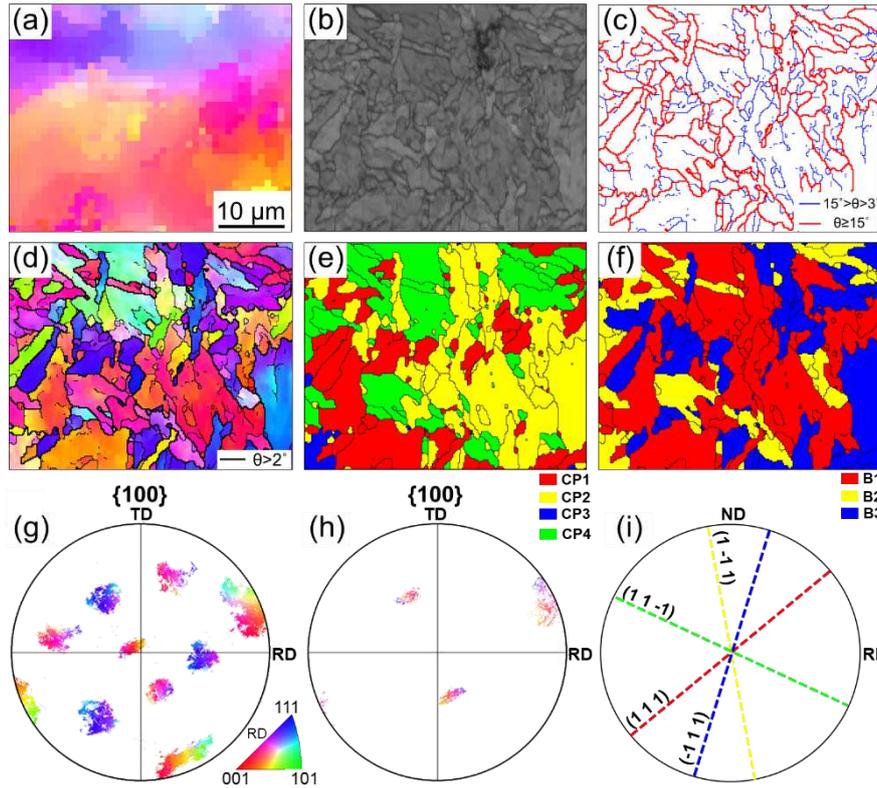
211 and the partially revealed PAGBs in Fig. 2(b).



213 **Fig. 2.** IPF coloured orientation maps of (a) reconstructed austenite where black lines represent
214 high angle grain boundaries and black regions represent reconstruction failure locations; (b) the
215 transformed microstructure where black lines represent boundaries with misorientation angle
216 between 21°-47°.

217 3.3 Crystallographic analysis of AF

218 Detailed crystallographic analysis of AF was conducted in a region transformed
219 from a single deformed austenite grain, as indicated by the area bounded by a dashed
220 rectangle in Fig. 2. Orientations of the deformed austenite in the region are shown in
221 Fig. 3(a). As observed in Fig. 2(a), some inaccurately reconstructed austenite grains
222 appear in the selected region. These were replaced with orientations from neighbouring
223 austenite grains exhibiting the smallest misorientation angles between their variants and
224 the measured BCC orientations. Band contrast map, boundary map and IPF coloured
225 orientation map of the selected region are shown in Fig. 3(b)–(d), respectively. These
226 maps clearly indicate that the transformed microstructure in the selected region consists
227 of fine grains with a chaotic arrangement, irregular grain shapes, and a high density of
228 HAGBs, manifesting a typical AF microstructure.



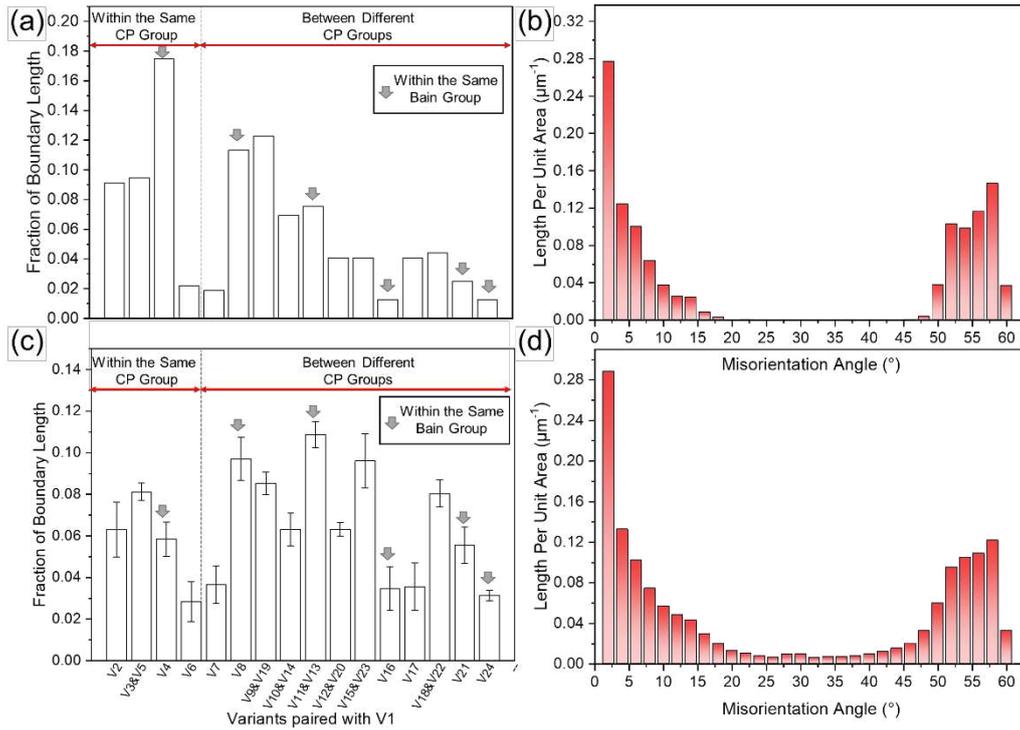
229

230 **Fig. 3.** (a) IPF coloured orientation map of reconstructed austenite in the selected AF region
 231 (similarly hereafter), (b) band contrast map, (c) boundary map, (d) IPF coloured orientation
 232 map of AF microstructure, (e) CP map, (f) Bain map, (g) $\{100\}$ pole figure of AF orientations,
 233 (h) $\{100\}$ pole figure of reconstructed austenite orientations and (i) traces of $\{111\}_\gamma$ planes of
 234 the average austenite orientation on the RD-ND plane.

235 The orientation map can also be modified to display different colours for variants
 236 from distinct CP groups or Bain groups, generating the CP map and the Bain map,
 237 respectively. This facilitates direct interpretation of variant selection and variant pairing
 238 [18]. Fig. 3(e) and f exhibit the CP map and the Bain map of the selected AF region,
 239 respectively. The $\{100\}$ pole figures of the measured AF orientations and the
 240 reconstructed austenite orientations are shown in Fig. 3(g) and Fig. 3(h), respectively.
 241 The good correspondence between the two demonstrates the correct reconstruction. Fig.
 242 3(i) shows the traces of $\{111\}_\gamma$ planes of the average austenite orientation on the RD-
 243 ND plane. The elongated boundary directions of AF laths belonging to the same CP
 244 group (Fig. 3(e)) are nearly parallel to the trace directions of the corresponding $\{111\}_\gamma$

245 planes (Fig. 3(i)). This geometric alignment arises because the elongated boundaries of
246 AF and BF laths on an observation plane coincide with the intersection lines between
247 their habit planes and the observation plane. The six variants belonging to the same CP
248 group share similar habit planes [31], which are all close to the corresponding $\{111\}_\gamma$
249 planes [1].

250 In AF/BF dominant microstructures, the impact toughness is closely correlated
251 with the density of HAGB, which is governed by variant pairing behavior, i.e. how
252 variants are arranged relative to each other. Given the 24 possible variants for a single
253 austenite grain, there are 23 possible variant pairs (Table.S2). If all variant pairs are
254 formed equally, the length fraction of each variant pair should be $1/23$ (~ 0.043). To
255 quantify the length fractions of variant pairs, the method given in Ref. [18] which takes
256 into account both the misorientation angles and the axis to identify variant pairs was
257 adopted in this research. A small tolerance angle of 1° was used to avoid the overlap of
258 different variant pairs. Fig. 4(a) shows the length fractions of all variant pairs in the
259 selected AF region. Variant pairs belonging to the same Bain group are indicated by
260 short arrows. Notably, the V1/V4 and V1/V8 pairs within the same Bain group, as well
261 as the V1/V2 pair belonging to the same CP but different Bain groups, are preferentially
262 formed. Fig. 4(b) shows the boundary density distribution as a function of
263 misorientation angle for the selected AF region.



264

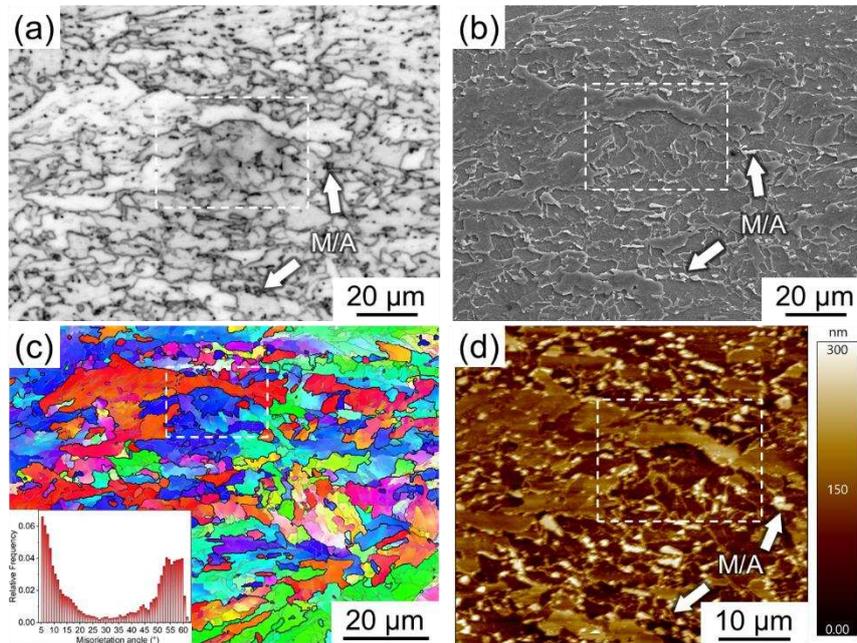
265 **Fig. 4.** (a) Length fractions of variant pairs and (b) histograms showing boundary densities in
 266 terms of absolute number per unit area with misorientation angles from 2° to 63° for the selected
 267 AF region in a single deformed austenite grain; (c) Length fractions of variant pairs and (d)
 268 histograms showing boundary densities in terms of absolute number per unit area with
 269 misorientation angles from 2° to 63° for the AF identified in the whole EBSD map.

270 To analyse AF variant pairing on a macroscopic scale, the entire EBSD map was
 271 divided into four parts. The length fractions of variant pairs were quantified for the AF
 272 microstructure identified in each part. Fractions of each variant pair in the four parts
 273 were averaged to give the final results shown in Fig. 4(c). All variant pairs show up and
 274 the overall variant pairing is close to a random distribution. Fig. 4(d) shows the
 275 boundary density distribution as a function of misorientation angle for the identified AF
 276 in the whole EBSD map. The densities of HAGBs in the AF microstructure are larger
 277 than those of the whole transformed microstructure in Fig. 1(g).

278 3.4 Morphological analysis of AF

279 The same AF microstructure etched with nital was correlatively characterized with
 280 OM, SEM, EBSD and AFM, as shown in Fig. 5. After nital etching, the irregular grain

281 shapes, chaotic and intersecting grain arrangement of AF can be revealed in Fig. 5(a)–
282 (b). The mechanisms responsible for the unique morphological features of AF are
283 presented in the Discussion section.



284
285 **Fig. 5.** (a) OM micrograph and (b) SEM secondary electron micrograph and (c) IPF coloured
286 orientation map where black lines represent HAGBs (d) atomic force microscopy micrograph
287 depicting the AF microstructure.

288 4 Discussion

289 4.1 Crystallographic characteristics of AF

290 The crystallographic characteristics of AF can only be appreciated when
291 comparing with other bainitic microstructures reported in the literature [18, 32]. For
292 bainitic microstructures transformed from recrystallized austenite at two different
293 temperatures (450 °C and 580 °C), their crystallographic characteristics were presented
294 in Ref. [18] for a Fe-0.15C-1.5Mn-0.2Si (wt.%) steel and are reproduced in Fig. S4.

295 At the lower transformation temperature of 450 °C, bainitic laths from the same
296 CP group tend to form side by side (Fig. S4(a)). Conventionally, adjacent laths from the
297 same CP group make up features called packets [30, 33], due to their near parallel lath
298 boundaries. Therefore, the bainitic microstructure formed under this condition has a

299 packet structure. Furthermore, within each packet, laths are generally from various Bain
300 groups in Fig. S4(b), leading to a high density of HAGBs shown as black lines. The
301 above characteristics are also reflected in the results of variant pair fractions shown in
302 Fig. S4(c). Variant pairs belonging to the same CP group are favoured with a total
303 fraction of ~ 0.76 . Among them, the V1/V2 variant pair stands out with a particularly
304 high fraction around 0.46.

305 At the higher transformation temperature of 580 °C, adjacent laths belong to
306 different CP groups in Fig. S4(d), and they are mostly from the same Bain group in Fig.
307 S4(e). This trend is confirmed by the variant pair fractions presented in Fig. S4(f).
308 Variant pairs such as V1/V8 (0.49), V1/V4 (0.17), V1/V11&V1/V13 (0.12) and V1/V21
309 (0.06) belonging to the same Bain group are strongly favoured, with their respective
310 fractions indicated in parentheses. Together, the 7 variant pairs from the same Bain
311 group account for 87% of the total boundary length, while all remaining 16 pairs share
312 only 13%, dramatically lower than the random variant pairing condition. Due to the low
313 misorientation angles between variants from the same Bain group (Table.S2), the high
314 length fractions of those variant pairs result in a relatively low density of HAGBs in the
315 microstructure (Fig. S4(e)).

316 For bainitic microstructures transformed from deformed austenite at temperatures
317 below 430 °C, its crystallographic characteristics were investigated in Ref. [32], and
318 the key findings are reproduced in Fig. S5. As shown in Fig. S5(a)–(c), within each
319 deformed austenite grain, the majority of BF laths belong to a single CP group,
320 suggesting that austenite deformation results in severe variant selection under this
321 condition. Similar results were reported in Ref. [34, 35] as well. Furthermore, as shown
322 in Fig. S5(d), each BF packet contains laths from multiple Bain groups, resulting in a
323 high density of HAGBs shown as black lines in Fig. S5(a).

324 Although the AF in this research is transformed from deformed austenite and its
325 transformation temperature is relatively high (close to 580 °C proven by its OR), its

326 crystallographic characteristics are not similar to either the BF transformed from
327 deformed austenite case (Fig. S5) or the high transformation temperature BF case in
328 Fig. S4(d)–(f).

329 Variant selection of AF is greatly weakened. As shown in the CP map (Fig. 3(e))
330 and the Bain map (Fig. 3(f)) of the selected AF region, variants from multiple CP groups
331 and various Bain groups are present simultaneously within a single deformed prior
332 austenite grain. This behaviour stands in stark contrast to the BF transformed from
333 deformed austenite case, where variant selection is typically confined to nearly a single
334 CP group within each prior austenite grain (Fig. S5(c)). It also differs from BF formed
335 at the high transformation temperature, where the selected variants predominantly
336 belong to the same Bain group (Fig. S4(d)).

337 Variant pairing of AF is nearly random. While certain variant pairs—such as
338 V1/V8, V1/V2, V1/V4 and V1/V21—exhibit relatively high fractions in AF, the overall
339 variant pairing behaviour remains close to a random distribution, in sharp contrast to
340 that observed in the aforementioned bainitic structures. Specifically, the total fraction
341 of 16 variant pairs from different Bain groups reaches 0.63 in AF (Fig. 4(c)), while this
342 total fraction is only ~ 0.13 in the high transformation temperature BF case (Fig. S4(f)).
343 Furthermore, for the bainite transformed from deformed austenite (Fig. S5), where each
344 pancaked austenite grain is dominated by variants from nearly a single CP group in Fig.
345 S5(c), variant pairs from the same CP group should be strongly preferred. But in AF,
346 the total length fraction of 18 variant pairs from different CP group reaches 0.77, which
347 is almost identical to the expected random variant pairing level of ~ 0.78 .

348 In summary, although AF forms through a bainitic transformation mechanism, its
349 crystallographic characteristics differ markedly from those of conventional bainitic
350 microstructures reported in the literature. This distinction is manifested in the selection
351 of variants from multiple CP and Bain groups and the near random variant pairing
352 observed in the AF microstructure.

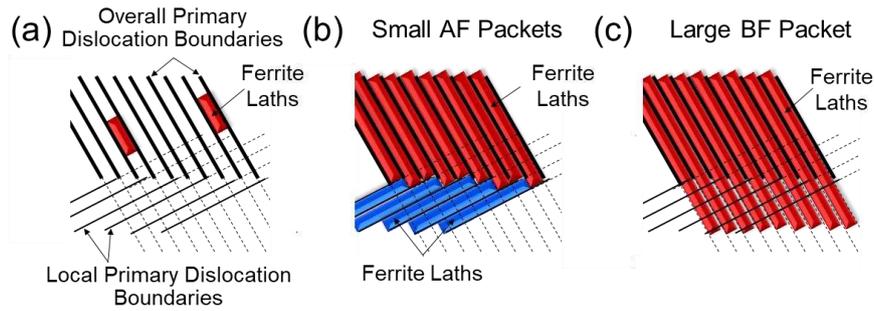
353 **4.2 Underlying mechanism for AF distinct crystallographic** 354 **characteristics**

355 The unique crystallographic characteristics of AF can be attributed to the
356 occurrence of multi-variant intragranular nucleation, the arrest of lengthening laths and
357 the self-accommodation of the transformation shape strain during AF transformation.
358 These mechanisms are discussed in the following two sections.

359 **4.2.1 Multi-variant intragranular nucleation and arrest of** 360 **lengthening laths**

361 The selection of variants from different CP groups in AF can be related to the
362 multi-variant intragranular nucleation on dislocation boundaries and the arrest of
363 lengthening laths at high transformation temperatures in the deformed austenite.

364 During austenite deformation, duplex or more complicated slip systems are
365 activated within each grain, giving rise to intersecting dislocation boundaries on
366 different planes [36, 37]. Based on the relationship between lattice rotations and shear
367 amplitudes of different slip systems [38], it can be inferred that the operation of slip
368 systems with different shear amplitudes leads to the formation of dislocation boundaries
369 with different misorientation angles. Dislocation boundaries with different planes and
370 misorientation angles in the deformed austenite are schematically illustrated in Fig. 6(a),
371 thicker lines representing boundaries with higher misorientation angles. For
372 convenience, dislocation boundaries with the highest misorientation angles in the whole
373 austenite grain are called overall primary dislocation boundaries (OPDBs), while those
374 with the highest misorientation angles in a small local area are called local primary
375 dislocation boundaries (LPDBs).



376

377 **Fig. 6.** Schematic illustrations in a heavily deformed austenite region of (a) inhomogeneous
 378 austenite deformation substructures, (b) small and intersecting AF packets formed at relatively
 379 high temperatures and (c) large BF packets formed at relatively low temperatures.

380 Dislocation boundaries have an impact on the variant selection of displacive
 381 transformation products. For martensite nucleation at these boundaries, it has been
 382 demonstrated that the activation energy can be reduced to as little as 0.3% – 24% of
 383 that required for normal nucleation [24]. Furthermore, nucleation preferentially occurs
 384 for variants whose habit planes are nearly parallel to the dislocation boundaries. Variant
 385 selection induced by dislocation boundaries has been confirmed by experimental
 386 observations both in martensite and bainite [16, 35, 39].

387 The selection of variants from multiple CP groups in the AF region (Fig. 3(e)) can
 388 be understood by considering both the dislocation-boundary-assisted nucleation
 389 mechanism introduced above and the conditions for AF formation proposed in Ref. [23].
 390 As the nucleation activation energy is inversely related to the dislocation boundary
 391 energy [24], the potency of a dislocation boundary as nucleation sites depends on its
 392 boundary energy, and thus its misorientation angle. The higher the misorientation angle,
 393 the more potent the boundary is. Therefore, during transformation, laths from the CP
 394 group with habit planes parallel to OPDBs will first nucleate on these boundaries, as
 395 schematically illustrated in Fig. 6(a).

396 However, dislocation boundaries not only act as nucleation sites but also as
 397 obstacles impeding the lengthening of bainitic laths, through a mechanism known as
 398 mechanical stabilization [40, 41]. At relatively high transformation temperatures, the

399 transformation driving force is inadequate for these initially nucleated laths to
400 overcome LPDBs intersecting with OPDBs, resulting in the arrest of lengthening laths
401 at LPDBs. This arrest creates an opportunity for laths from other CP groups to nucleate
402 on less potent LPDBs, with their habit planes parallel to LPDBs as illustrated in Fig.
403 6(b). Due to the heterogeneity of deformed austenite substructures [36], this
404 phenomenon can occur at different locations within a deformed austenite grain.
405 Therefore, the multi-variant intragranular nucleation on dislocation boundaries and the
406 arrest of lath lengthening at high transformation temperatures result in the selection of
407 variants from different CP groups and thus the variant pairs belonging to different CP
408 groups.

409 In contrast, at lower transformation temperatures, the increased transformation
410 driving force reduces the ability of LPDBs to arrest lath lengthening. Under these
411 conditions, laths from the CP group with habit planes parallel to OPDBs can grow
412 across the entire austenite grain. In this case, variants from a single CP group are
413 selected as shown schematically in Fig. 6(c), leading to severe variant selection and the
414 same CP group variant pairing. Such behaviour is exemplified in Fig. S5(c) where the
415 transformation temperature is below 430 °C [32].

416 **4.2.2 Self-accommodation of transformation shape strain**

417 In the selected AF region, it is evident that some adjacent variants belonging to the
418 same CP group are from different Bain groups (Fig. 3(f)). This phenomenon is also
419 reflected in AF variant pairing, V1/(V2-V6) variant pairs appearing both in the selected
420 AF region in Fig. 4(a) and in the entire AF microstructure in Fig. 4(c).

421 The presence of variant pairs from the same CP group but different Bain groups in
422 AF can be attributed to the self-accommodation of the transformation shape strain.
423 During bainitic transformation, the shape strain is a combination of a large shear strain
424 (≈ 0.26) on the habit plane and a smaller dilatational strain (≈ 0.03) normal to the habit
425 plane [1]. This shape strain can be accommodated through various mechanisms, such

426 as plastic deformation of austenite and bainite, elastic deformation of both phases, and
 427 self-accommodation [42]. As discussed in Ref. [30], the formation of variant pairs from
 428 the same CP group but different Bain groups effectively accommodates the
 429 transformation shape strain. Such self-accommodation occurs when elastic strain
 430 accommodation is limited and plastic deformation of austenite becomes difficult [43].
 431 For instance, previous research [18] demonstrated that lowering the transformation
 432 temperature to 450 °C increases the strength of austenite, thereby promoting self-
 433 accommodation. Using an empirical equation for austenite strength [44], the strength
 434 of austenite at 450 °C was estimated as 63.0 MPa for the steel investigated in Ref. [18].
 435 Under this austenite strength condition, variant pairs belonging to the same CP group
 436 but from different Bain groups are favoured in Fig. S4(c).

437 In this research, the transformation temperature of AF is relatively high (around
 438 580 °C), and the austenite strength at 580 °C is estimated as 40.2 MPa for the tested
 439 steel, significantly lower than that in the above self-accommodation case (63.0 MPa).
 440 However, austenite was deformed before transformation in this research, and work-
 441 hardening contributes to the strengthening of austenite. Based on the model proposed
 442 in Ref. [41], the strength increase due to work-hardening can be expressed as:

$$443 \quad M \frac{Gb}{8\pi(1-\nu)} \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon(\delta+D\varepsilon)}{\delta bD}} \quad (1)$$

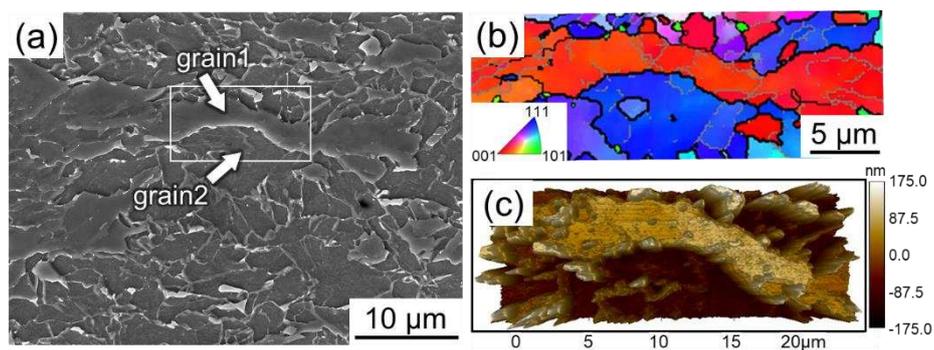
444 where M is the Taylor factor for FCC metal, G the shear modulus, ν the Poisson's ratio,
 445 b the Burgers vector, ε the strain volume, D the austenite grain size before deformation
 446 and δ a coefficient equal to $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$ [41]. Based on the tested steel chemical compositions,
 447 G , ν and b at 580 °C were calculated as 5.54×10^{10} Pa, 0.327 and 2.56×10^{-10} m [45],
 448 respectively. After a strain of 0.5, the strength increased by work-hardening was
 449 calculated as 81.5 MPa with M of 3.06 [46], D of 62.8 μm . Considering this work-
 450 hardening, the strength of the deformed austenite at 580 °C for the tested steel is
 451 estimated as 121.7 MPa, substantially higher than that in the above self-accommodation

452 case. Therefore, self-accommodation of transformation strain is expected to occur even
453 at 580 °C or higher in the deformed austenite of the tested steel, promoting the
454 formation of variants and variant pairs from the same CP group but belonging to
455 different Bain groups in AF.

456 **4.3 Origin of AF unique morphology**

457 Metallographic identification of AF morphology relies on developing a sharply
458 delineated and contrasty enough surface, typically achieved by nital etching. In the first
459 place, it is necessary to understand how the morphology of AF becomes observable.
460 Combining the results in Fig. 5, it was found that AF morphology can be observed under
461 three distinct situations.

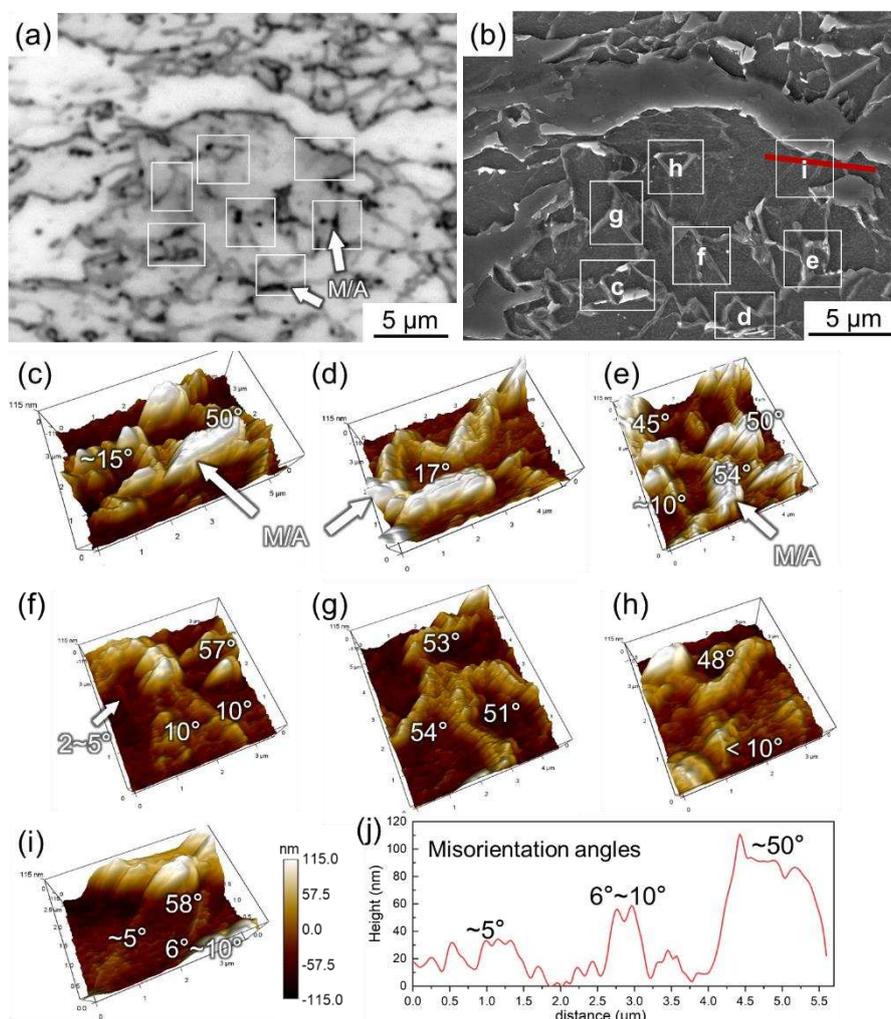
462 The first situation involves metallographic contrast generated by crystal faceting,
463 which creates topographical steps at grain boundaries. As shown in Fig. 7, the surface
464 height varies from grain1 to grain2, reflecting differences in chemical reactivity
465 between grains during nital etching. Bonyar et al. [47, 48] proved that the slowest
466 etching rate occurs on a {100} crystal surfaces, while the etching rate of a {111} surface
467 is approximately twice as fast as that of the {100} surface. This is consistent with our
468 observations in Fig. 7(b)–(c), where grain 1 with its {100} plane parallel to the
469 observation plane, appears higher than grain 2 with its {111} plane parallel to the plane.



470
471 **Fig. 7.** (a) SEM secondary electron micrograph and (b) IPF coloured orientation maps where
472 black lines represent HAGBs (c) AFM micrograph depicting the AF microstructure in the same
473 region.

474 The second situation involves metallographic contrast arises from the presence of

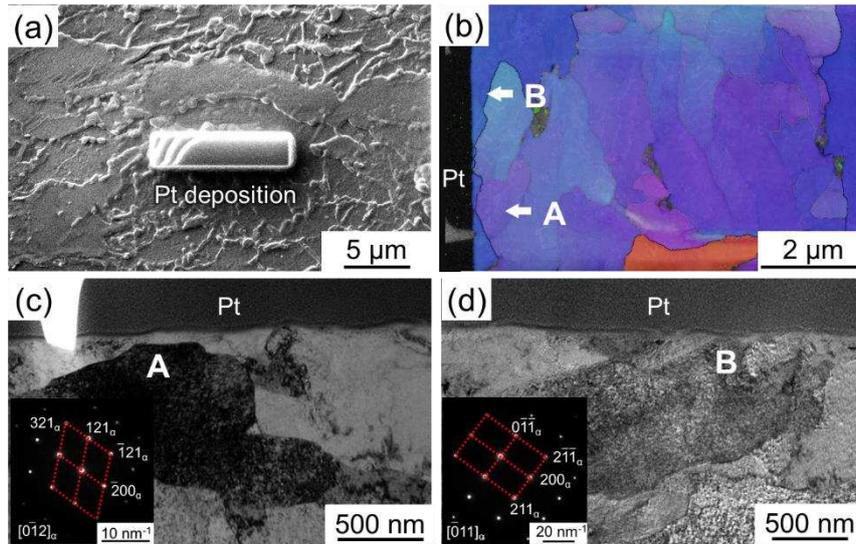
475 M/A constituents. As revealed in Fig. 5, the highest areas in the AFM image correspond
 476 to M/A constituents, which appear as the bright regions in the SEM image but the dark
 477 ones in the OM image. Boundaries between laths can be revealed when M/A
 478 constituents are present, as confirmed by the correlative OM, SEM, and AFM
 479 characterization results shown in Fig. 8 for a region selected from Fig. 5 shown by
 480 dashed rectangles. In Fig. 8(c)–(e), some lath boundaries are revealed due to the
 481 elevated M/A constituents. Angeli et al. [49] proposed that phases with higher carbon
 482 contents exhibit higher resistance to nital etching and thus elevated surface. The higher
 483 surface height of M/A after etching is attributed to their high carbon contents [50].



484
 485 **Fig. 8.** (a) OM micrograph and (b) SEM secondary electron micrograph of an AF
 486 microstructure; (c-i) enlarged AFM images of local grain boundaries; (j) the height difference
 487 from the AFM line scan results crossing different grain boundaries of (i).

488 The third situation involves the surface protrusions associated with HAGBs
489 ($\theta \geq 15^\circ$), which appear dark in OM and bright in SEM. As shown in Fig. 8(f)–(i), the
490 areas surrounding HAGBs exhibit greater surface height compared to those near
491 LAGBs ($\theta < 15^\circ$). This height difference is further confirmed by an AFM line scan across
492 different grain boundaries indicated in Fig. 8(b) by a red line, and the results are shown
493 in Fig. 8(j). This height difference leads to contrasty features around HAGBs while
494 relatively vague features around LAGBs. The vague features around LAGBs can be
495 observed under high-magnification SEM but is barely observable under OM.

496 Contrary to the conventional understanding presented in materials science
497 textbooks that grain boundaries tend to form grooves after nital etching [51], AFM
498 results reveal that boundaries often exhibit protrusions. To investigate whether these
499 protrusions are related to the existence of thin M/A constituents between grain
500 boundaries, the area in Fig. 8(h) was selected and further characterized. With FIB, the
501 area in Fig. 8(h) was identified in Fig. 9(a). A TEM sample at this location was prepared
502 using FIB and observed under TKD and TEM. The results of TKD in Fig. 9(b) and
503 TEM in Fig. 9(c)–(d) both indicate that the grain boundary protruding morphology is
504 not related to M/A constituents.



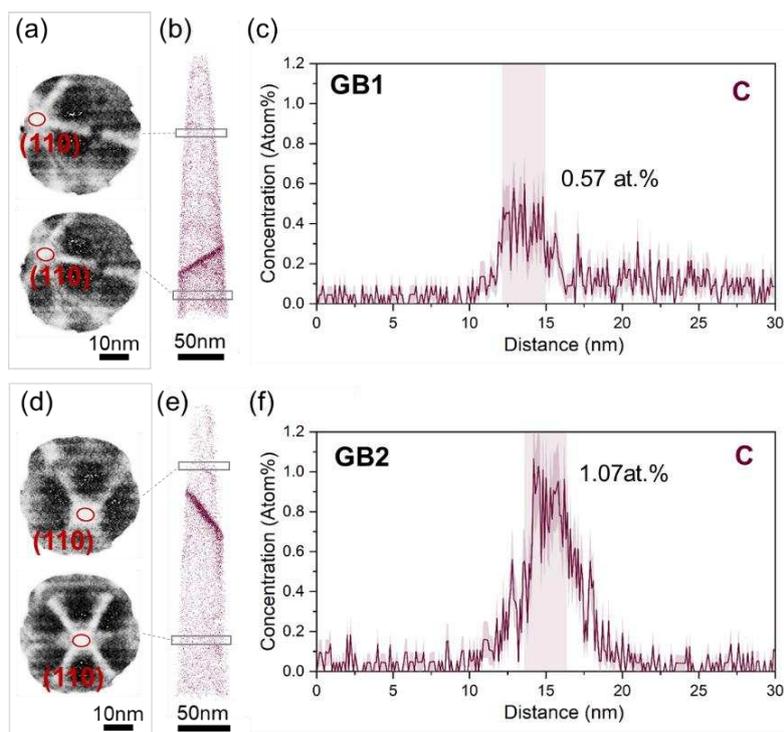
505

506 **Fig. 9.** (a)SEM image of Pt deposition layer (b) Transmission Kikuchi diffraction of the
 507 specimen (c,d) high magnified TEM image and electron-beam diffraction (SAED) patterns of
 508 corresponding selected area A and B.

509

To investigate the formation mechanism of surface protrusions associated with
 510 grain boundaries, APT analyses were conducted on two grain boundaries—GB1 and
 511 GB2—focusing on the chemical composition near the boundaries. Field desorption
 512 images of the grains above and below GB1 were processed using the AP Suite software
 513 and are shown in Fig. 10(a). Crystallographic poles and zone lines were clearly
 514 identified in Fig. 10(a). Orientation imaging microscopy analysis revealed that the
 515 misorientation angle between the adjacent grains was only 5.3°. Similarly, based on the
 516 poles observed in the desorption map in Fig. 10(d), the misorientation angle of GB2
 517 was determined to be 12.6°. According to the APT reconstruction results shown in Fig.
 518 10(b), carbon segregation was observed at GB1. Compared to the matrix carbon
 519 concentration of 0.2 at.%, the carbon concentration at this boundary increases to 0.57
 520 at.%. In Fig. 10(e)–(f), more pronounced carbon segregation was observed at the GB2,
 521 where the carbon concentration reached 1.07 at.%. Similarly, Felfer et al. [52] had
 522 confirmed that carbon segregates at the boundaries between BF laths using APT, and
 523 carbon segregation content at boundaries is correlated with the boundary misorientation
 524 angle. Herbig et al. [53] also reported that carbon segregation at random ferrite grain

525 boundaries increased with increasing misorientation up to 14° and became constant
526 with further increase of the misorientation. Carbon plays a critical role in the electric
527 potential difference, with carbon-rich areas exhibiting higher electric potentials and
528 greater resistance to nital etching [54]. Therefore, the protruding morphology of grain
529 boundaries in this research is linked to carbon segregation.



530

531 **Fig. 10.** Field desorption image of grains above and below GB1 (a) and GB2 (d), reconstructed
532 three-dimensional atom maps, revealing C segregation to GB1 (b) and GB2 (e); composition
533 profiles of carbon near GB1 (c) and GB2 (f) measured using cylinders of the same volume with
534 the z-axis parallel to each grain boundary plane normal.

535 The unique morphological features of AF can be attributed to AF's distinct
536 crystallographic characteristics and the above boundary revelation mechanisms. Firstly,
537 a significant proportion of lath boundaries in AF can be revealed after nital etching.
538 This is because the selection of variants from multiple Bain groups and the near-random
539 variant pairing of AF result in a significant proportion of AF lath boundaries being
540 HAGBs, as proved in Fig. 4(d). These boundaries can be revealed through surface
541 protrusion or crystal faceting after nital etching. Furthermore, since AF forms at

542 relatively high transformation temperatures, carbon partitioning between laths and
543 retained austenite is pronounced, promoting the formation of M/A constituents. These
544 M/A constituents located between laths further contribute to the delineation of lath
545 boundaries. Secondly, the selection of variants from multiple CP groups in AF leads to
546 lath boundaries oriented in various directions within the observation plane. When
547 revealed through etching, these multidirectional boundaries create the chaotic and
548 intersecting appearance of the AF microstructure. Finally, as a result of the variant
549 selection from multiple CP groups and the near-random variant pairing in AF, a “grain”
550 bounded by etching-revealed boundaries may consist of either a single lath or several
551 laths belonging to the same or different CP groups. This gives rise to the irregular grain
552 shapes observed for AF. This point can be roughly understood from Fig. 3(c), where
553 regions bounded only by HAGBs already show irregular shapes.

554 Based on the above analysis, achieving an AF microstructure with higher strength
555 and toughness requires further refinement of AF grains. This can be realized by
556 increasing the number of AF nucleation sites and controlling the phase transformation
557 to occur within a relatively high-temperature range. Specifically, increasing the degree
558 of austenite deformation, reducing the prior austenite grain size, increasing the strain
559 rate, and initiating cooling immediately after deformation can all enhance the
560 dislocation substructure density in austenite, thereby promoting AF nucleation. In
561 addition, by designing an appropriate cooling schedule, it is possible to suppress the
562 formation of polygonal ferrite, which reduces strength, while ensuring that the
563 transformation mainly occurs within a temperature range where the dislocation
564 substructure effectively impedes lath growth. This helps to prevent excessive lath
565 lengthening and suppresses the transition from AF to BF. As a result, both the volume
566 fraction of AF and the refinement of AF grains can be improved.

567 The findings of this research clarify the crystallographic characteristics of acicular
568 ferrite, and elucidate the mechanisms responsible for its crystallographic and

569 morphological features. These insights advance the understanding and characterization
570 of AF and provide a basis for weakening variant selection and forming random variant
571 pairing by austenite deformation and appropriate cooling.

572

573 **5 Conclusions**

574 In this research, a HSLA steel was subjected to plane strain compression and
575 continuous cooling to investigate the crystallographic and morphological
576 characteristics of acicular ferrite (AF). The following conclusions were drawn:

577 (1) The orientations relationship between AF and austenite is close to that of bainite
578 transformed at 580 °C in the literature, indicating that the transformation
579 temperature of AF is relatively high.

580 (2) Crystallographic characteristics of AF are manifested in the selection of variants
581 from multiple close-packed plane (CP) and Bain groups and the near random variant
582 pairing. This is distinct from those observed in other bainitic microstructures in the
583 literature exhibiting variants selected from either the same CP or the same Bain
584 group and preferential variant pairing.

585 (3) AF unique crystallographic characteristics can be attributed to the occurrence of
586 multi-variant intragranular nucleation, arrest of lengthening laths and self-
587 accommodation of the transformation shape strain during AF transformation, all
588 driven by austenite deformation and proper cooling.

589 (4) Boundaries between AF laths can be observed after nital etching under three distinct
590 situations, including crystal faceting, martensite/austenite (M/A) constituent
591 delineating and surface protrusions induced by carbon segregation at grain
592 boundaries. Boundaries with larger misorientation angles are associated with higher
593 carbon segregation levels, resulting in more pronounced surface protrusions and
594 improved visibility of the boundary.

595 (5) Distinct AF morphology including chaotic and intersecting arrangement and
596 irregular grain shapes is attributed to AF's distinct crystallographic characteristics
597 and the above boundary revelation mechanisms.

598

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605

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