Cu-assisted austenite reversion and enhanced TRIP effect in maraging stainless steels

M.C. Niu[a,b,c], K. Yang[b], J.H. Luan[d], W. Wang[b,*], Z.B. Jiao[c,e,*]

[a] *School of Materials Science and Engineering, University of Science and Technology of China, Shenyang 110016, China*

[b] *Shi-changxu Innovation Center for Advance Materials, Institute of Metal Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shenyang 110016, China*

[c] *Department of Mechanical Engineering, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China*

[d] *Department of Materials Science and Engineering, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China*

[e] *The Hong Kong Polytechnic University Shenzhen Research Institute, Shenzhen, Guangdong, China*

* *Corresponding authors: wangw@imr.ac.cn (W. Wang); zb.jiao@polyu.edu.hk (Z.B. Jiao).*

Abstract

Control of the formation and stability of reverted austenite is critical in achieving a favorable combination of strength, ductility, and toughness in high-strength steels. In this work, the effects of Cu precipitation on the austenite reversion and mechanical properties of maraging stainless steels were investigated by atom probe tomography, transmission electron microscopy, and mechanical tests. Our results indicate that Cu accelerates the austenite reversion kinetics in two manners: first, Cu, as an austenite stabilizer, increases the equilibrium austenite fraction and hence enhances the chemical driving force for the austenite formation, and second, Cu-rich nanoprecipitates promote the austenite reversion by serving as heterogeneous nucleation sites

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24　and providing Ni-enriched chemical conditions through interfacial segregation. In addition, the

25　Cu precipitation hardening compensates the strength drop induced by the formation of soft

26　reverted austenite. During tensile deformation, the metastable reverted austenite transforms to

27　martensite, which substantially improves the ductility and toughness through a transformation-

28　induced plasticity (TRIP) effect. The Cu-added maraging stainless steel exhibits a superior

29　combination of a yield strength of ~1.3 GPa, an elongation of ~15%, and an impact toughness

30　of ~58 J.

31　**Keywords:** maraging stainless steel, TRIP effect, austenite reversion, Cu-rich nanoprecipitate

32　**1.　Introduction**

33　　　Low carbon martensitic steels with high strength, ductility, and toughness are highly

34　desirable for a variety of structural applications, such as aerospace and automotive industries

35　[1,2]. However, increasing strength often leads to a decrease in ductility and toughness, which

36　is known as the strength-ductility/toughness trade-off dilemma in structural materials [3-5].

37　Tremendous efforts have been put forth to break the strength-ductility/toughness trade-off of

38　high-strength martensitic steels by introducing a certain amount of sub-micro/nanometer-sized

39　retained or reverted austenite [6-9]. Reverted austenite often forms at the martensite lath

40　boundaries, which is metastable and transforms to martensite during deformation, resulting in

41　the transformation-induced plasticity (TRIP) effect. For example, Wang et al. [10] designed a

42　TRIP-maraging steel containing 15 vol.% reverted austenite by controlling Mn contents, which

43　exhibits a 1.1 GPa yield strength and 21% uniform elongation. Markfeld et al. [11] reported an

44　18% Ni (300) maraging steel containing 20 vol.% reverted austenite, which results in a marked

45 increase in tensile ductility. Sun et al. [12] reported that an intercritical tempering in the

46 (austenite + martensite) dual-phase region promotes the austenite reversion of a Fe-5.42Mn-

47 0.05C steel, leading to increased impact toughness through a TRIP assisted effect. Generally,

48 martensite lath boundaries are preferred nucleation sites for the formation of reverted austenite,

49 and the austenite stabilizers, such as Ni, Mn, Cu, and C, partition to the austenite region through

50 controlled heat-treatments. The volume fraction of reverted austenite is highly dependent on

51 the alloying additions and heat-treatment parameters. For achieving a substantial TRIP effect,

52 5-20 vol.% of reverted austenite is generally needed [10-13]. In addition, the appropriate size

53 and composition of reverted austenite are also critical for tailoring the austenite stability. For

54 example, Wang et al. [10] reported that reverted austenite with sizes in the range of 0.1-0.3 μm^2

55 is beneficial to the deformation-induced phase transformation. Yen et al. [14] reported that high

56 contents of austenite stabilizing elements in the austenite could improve the stability of the

57 austenite due to the increasing of chemical driving force for transformation. For this purpose,

58 precipitation-hardened steels are often subjected to over-aging treatments at relatively high

59 temperatures and/or for long times to facilitate elemental diffusion and partitioning [15,16].

60 However, the over-aging treatments inevitably cause the precipitate coarsening, leading to a

61 severe attenuation of the precipitation hardening effect. In addition, a high level of Mn and C

62 additions compromises the weldability of steels [17]. Therefore, achieving an accelerated

63 austenite reversion without causing a significant reduction of precipitation hardening is highly

64 desirable but still challenging.

65   Here, we report an innovative strategy to accelerate the austenite reversion by Cu-rich

66 nanoprecipitates in maraging stainless steels. The precipitation behavior of Cu-rich

67 nanoprecipitates and their effects on the austenite reversion were systematically studied

68 through high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM), atom probe tomography

69 (APT), and electron back-scattered diffraction (EBSD). Particularly, the mechanisms for the

70 Cu-assisted austenite revision and enhanced ductility and toughness were critically discussed.

71 The findings provide a new approach to improve the strength-ductility-toughness synergy of

72 high-strength martensitic steels.

73 **2. Experimental**

74 Fe-12.5Cr-7.5Ni-7.5Co-3.0Mo steels with and without 1 wt.% Cu were melted in a

75 vacuum induction furnace and cast into ingots of 25 kg. Chemical compositions of the two steels

76 are presented in Table 1. For simplicity, these two steels are hereafter referred to as the Cu-

77 containing and Cu-free steels. The as-cast ingots were homogenized for 20 h at 1250 ℃, hot-

78 forged into square bars with a cross section of 40×40 mm and a length of 1300 mm,

79 solutionized at 1050 ℃ for 1 h, immersed in liquid nitrogen for 1 h, and then aged at 500 ℃ for

80 various periods of time. Cylindrical tensile samples with a diameter of 5 mm and a gauge length

81 of 25 mm were prepared by electrodischarge machining. Room-temperature tensile tests were

82 conducted on a MTS 810 testing machine at a strain rate of 2×10^{-3} s^{-1}. Charpy V-notch

83 specimens were prepared to conduct the Charpy impact tests at room temperature.

84 The volume fraction of austenite was measured by X-ray diffractions (XRD) according to

85 ASTM Standard E975-03 [18]. XRD samples with a dimension of $10 \times 10 \times 5$ mm were wire-

86 electrode cut and carefully polished, and they were tested in the solid form. Data collection was

87 performed with a Bruker AXS D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer at a scanning rate of 1.0 °/min

88   using Cu K_α radiation in the 2θ range of 40-100°.

89   The precipitates were characterized by HR-TEM, and the distribution of austenite before

90   and after tensile tests was measured by EBSD and TEM. APT needles were prepared by lift-out

91   and tip milling in an FEI Scios focused ion beam/scanning electron microscope (FIB/SEM).

92   APT experiments were performed in a CAMECA LEAP 5000 XR, and the Imago Visualization

93   and Analysis Software (IVAS) 3.8 was used for three-dimensional reconstructions, composition

94   analysis, and the creation of isoconcentration surfaces. Equilibrium phase fractions were

95   calculated using the software Thermo-Calc 3.0.1 and TCFE7 database.

96   **3. Results and discussion**

97   The room-temperature engineering stress–strain curves of the two steels in the as-

98   quenched and 60-h aged (peak aged) conditions are displayed in Fig. 1a. The Cu-containing

99   and Cu-free steels exhibit similar tensile properties in the as-quenched state, with yield

100   strengths of 713 ± 10 and 725 ± 11 MPa, respectively, and ultimate tensile strengths of 834 ±

101   14 and 883 ± 11 MPa, respectively. After aging for 60 h, the yield strengths of the Cu-

102   containing and Cu-free steels increase to 1274 ± 18 and 1330 ± 15 MPa, respectively; both

103   show a ~600 MPa increment in the yield strength. However, the aging treatment results in

104   significantly different work-hardening behaviors and ductilities in the two steels. The work-

105   hardening rate curves and true stress-strain curves of the two steels are illustrated in Fig. 1b,

106   and their total and uniform elongations are summarized in Fig. 1c. In the Cu-free steel, after a

107   precipitous initial drop associated with the elastic to plastic transition, the work-hardening rate

108   decreases gradually possibly due to its ineffectiveness in dislocation generation and

109   accumulation during deformation. By contrast, in the Cu-containing steel, the work-hardening

110   rate curve reveals a multi-stage work-hardening response; after the initial drop, the work-

111   hardening rate increases substantially and maintains an obvious strain hardening plateau

112   between the 3.5% and 7.5% true strains, followed by a gradual decrease. The Cu-free steel

113   exhibit a slight work hardening with a uniform elongation of 5% and a total elongation of 11%,

114   whereas, the Cu-containing steel shows a strong work hardening with a 9% uniform elongation

115   and a 15% total elongation, demonstrating a substantial improvement in the ductility. The

116   room-temperature Charpy impact energies of the two steels in the 60-h aged condition are also

117   given in Fig. 1c. For the Cu-free steel, the impact resistance is low with an impact energy of 9

118    $\pm$ 1 J, which is typical for high-strength martensitic stainless steels [19]. In contrast, the

119   impact energy of the Cu-containing steel is increased drastically to 58 ± 3 J, which is more than

120   6X higher than that of the Cu-free steel. The above results indicate that Cu plays an important

121   role in improving the ductility and toughness of maraging stainless steels.

122   A representative TEM micrograph of the Cu-containing steel after aging for 60 h is shown

123   in Fig. 2a. Two categories of nanoprecipitates were observed; one category (red arrows) with

124   an average diameter of ~20 nm and located mainly on the dislocations, and the other category

125   (orange arrows) with an average diameter of ~5 nm. High-resolution images of representative

126   precipitates of the two categories and the corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT)

127   patterns are presented in Fig. 2b-e. Figure 2b and c shows that the small precipitates are Cu

128   particles with 9R twinned crystal structural, which is intermediate between the BCC and FCC

129   structures and can be considered as a close-packed structure with stacking faults every third

130   close-packed plane [20]. The orientation relationship between the 9R Cu particles and α-Fe

131 matrix is $(11\bar{4})_{9R} // (011)_{\alpha}$ and $[\bar{1}10]_{9R} // [1\bar{1}1]_{\alpha}$. Figure 2d and e shows that the crystal

132 structure of the coarse precipitate is A_2B-type Laves phase. The chemical composition and

133 solute partitioning of the two types of precipitates were further analyzed by APT, as shown in

134 Fig. 2f-h. The iso-concentration surfaces of 10 at.% Cu (orange surface) and 10 at.% Mo (red

135 surface) were used to visualize Cu-rich and Laves precipitates, respectively. Figure 2g and h

136 shows the proximity histograms of Cu-rich and Mo-enriched precipitates, respectively. The Cu-

137 rich precipitates consist of almost pure Cu in the precipitate core, whereas a clear segregation

138 of Ni was observed at the Cu-precipitate/matrix heterophase interface; the Ni concentration

139 reaches a maximum (18 at.%) at a distance of 1.0 nm from the interface. The composition of

140 Mo-enriched precipitates is 38.2Fe-16.5Cr-8.4Ni-4.8Co-32.1Mo (at.%). The APT composition,

141 together with the TEM results, indicates that Mo-enriched precipitates are $(Fe,Cr,Co,Ni)_2Mo$-

142 type Laves phases.

143   The XRD patterns of the Cu-free and Cu-containing steels in the as-quenched and

144 different aged conditions are displayed in Fig. 3a and b, respectively. In the as-quenched

145 condition, both steels exhibit diffraction peaks corresponding to BCC-Fe only, with no signs

146 of FCC-Fe, indicating that the as-quenched steels has an almost fully martensitic microstructure.

147 Upon aging at 500 ℃, the two steels exhibit different XRD characteristics. In the Cu-free steel,

148 no austenite peaks can be observed in the 0.5-h aged condition, and the austenite peaks appear

149 but with a low intensity in the 24-h and 60-h aged condition. Quantitative analyses (Fig. 3c)

150 indicate that the volume fractions of the austenite phase in the 0.5-h, 24-h, and 60-h aged

151 conditions are 0, 5.0 ± 0.8%, and 6.5 ± 0.6%, respectively, implying that the martensite-to-

152 austenite reversion kinetics is slow in the Cu-free steel. By contrast, obvious peaks of reverted

7

153 austenite were detected in the Cu-containing steel in all the aged conditions; the volume

154 fractions of the austenite phase in the 0.5-h, 24-h, and 60-h aged conditions are $8.5 \pm 0.8\%$,

155 $10.8 \pm 0.7\%$, and $12.4 \pm 1.2\%$, respectively. EBSD phase map of the Cu-containing steel in the

156 60-h aged condition is displayed in Fig. 3d. According to the phase map, the volume fraction

157 of reverted austenite (blue area) was estimated to be 11.8%, which is in good agreement with

158 the XRD data. The high volume fraction of reverted austenite in the Cu-containing steel

159 suggests that the Cu addition accelerates the austenite reversion kinetics.

160   The detailed microstructure of reverted austenite in the Cu-containing steel after aging for

161 60 h was further analyzed by TEM and APT, and the results are shown in Fig. 4. From Fig. 4a,

162 film-like austenite was observed mostly at lath boundaries, whereas some granular austenite

163 appears in the martensitic matrix. The orientation relationship between the reverted austenite

164 and martensite matrix obeys the Nishiyama–Wasserman relationship, i.e., $[01\bar{1}]_\gamma$ // $[001]_\alpha$ and

165 $(111)_\gamma$ // $(110)_\alpha$ (Fig. 4b) [21,22]. Figure 4c and d is the bright-field TEM image and the

166 corresponding TEM/EDS elemental mapping of Ni, Cu, and Mo, respectively. The reverted

167 austenite is enriched in Ni, and its substructure consists of stacking faults and a low density of

168 dislocations, suggesting that the formation of reverted austenite occurs by a process of

169 nucleation and growth. More intriguingly, a considerable amount of reverted austenite is co-

170 precipitated with Cu-rich precipitates, with the former adjacent to or enveloping the latter.

171   To understand the formation mechanism of reverted austenite, it is essential to characterize

172 the solute partitioning and phase composition at the nanoscale. Figure 4e shows the APT

173 microstructure of the austenite and Cu-rich precipitates in the Cu-containing steel after aging

174 for 60 h. The iso-concentration surfaces of 20 at.% Ni (green surface) and 10 at.% Cu (orange

175   surface) were used to visualize reverted austenite and Cu-rich precipitates, respectively. Three

176   Cu-rich precipitates were detected in the volume of analysis; two are adjacent to the austenite

177   phase and one is encompassed within the austenite phase. The co-precipitation structure of

178   reverted austenite and Cu-rich precipitates is consistent with the TEM results (cf. Fig. 4c and

179   d). The proximity histogram of reverted austenite (Fig. 4f) reveals that the Ni concentration is

180   approximately 30 at.%, which is 6X higher than that in the martensitic matrix (5 at.%),

181   indicating that the growth of reverted austenite is accompanied by Ni diffusion. In addition, Cu

182   is also enriched in the reverted austenite (0.8 at.%), as compared with that in the matrix (0.4

183   at.%). These observations indicate that the diffusion of both Ni and Cu are involved in the

184   austenite reversion of the Cu-containing steel.

185   The XRD spectra and EBSD phase maps of the tensile-deformed Cu-containing steel are

186   presented in Fig. 5a and b, respectively. After tensile deformation, the Cu-containing steel has

187   a fully martensitic microstructure with no detectable reverted austenite. The deformation

188   microstructures were further characterized by TEM, as shown in Fig. 5c. Almost all reverted

189   austenite transforms into martensite after the tensile deformation, and numerous dislocations

190   are accumulated in and around the deformation-induced martensite. The deformation-induced

191   austenite to martensite transformation can enhance the work-hardening rate via two

192   mechanisms [23]: (i) composite strengthening due to the formation of hard martensite phase

193   and (ii) formation of dislocations in and around newly formed martensite regions as a result of

194   the volume expansion during the austenite to martensite transformation. Therefore, it is

195   reasonable to speculate that the enhanced work-hardening rate of the Cu-containing steel is due

196   to the deformation-induced austenite to martensite transformation. The enhancement of the

197 work hardening makes the conditions for plastic instability to be met at higher strains, so that

198 the onset of necking is postponed to large deformations. As a result, an increase in the uniform

199 elongation and ultimate tensile stress was observed in the Cu-containing steel.

200   As aforementioned, the formation of reverted austenite is a diffusion-controlled process,

201 which is related to the nucleation and growth of reverted austenite [24]. The effect of Cu on the

202 austenite reversion can be analyzed from the nucleation point of view. First, because Cu is an

203 austenite stabilizing element, the addition of Cu to maraging stainless steels increases the total

204 concentration of austenite forming elements, resulting in an increase in the chemical driving

205 force for the formation of reverted austenite. To quantitatively understand how the Cu addition

206 affects the thermodynamic equilibrium, the equilibrium volume fractions of austenite phase in

207 the Cu-free and Cu-containing steels were calculated by using Thermo-Calc, and the

208 calculation results are shown in supplementary Fig. S1. At 500 °C, the volume fraction of

209 austenite in the Cu-free and Cu-containing steels are 10.6% and 12.0%, respectively. Therefore,

210 the Cu addition substantially increases the equilibrium volume fraction of austenite and

211 enhances the chemical driving force for the austenite reversion. Second, the Cu-rich

212 nanoprecipitates promote the nucleation of reverted austenite through interfacial segregation.

213 Cu has a very low solubility (~0.2 at.%) in BCC-Fe at 500 °C and quickly precipitates as

214 coherent bcc clusters in the martensitic matrix during aging [25]. The heat of mixing between

215 Fe–Cu is positive and large (+13 kJ mol^{-1}), whereas that for both Fe–Ni and Cu–Ni pairs are

216 very small (–4 and +2 kJ mol^{-1}, respectively); this means that the segregation of Ni at the

217 interface between Cu-rich precipitates and matrix can act a buffer layer to reduce the interfacial

218 energy of Cu precipitates [26]. Therefore, it is energetically favorable for Ni to segregate at the

interfaces between Cu-rich precipitates and matrix. Ni is known as one of the major austenite

forming elements in the steels, the Ni-enriched regions at the Cu-precipitate/matrix interface

provide the chemical conditions for the phase transformation from martensite to austenite.

Furthermore, the interfaces between Cu-rich precipitates and matrix can act as preferential

nucleation sites for heterogeneous nucleation of reverted austenite. As a result, the increased

chemical driving force and population of nucleation sites (heterophase interfaces), together

with the Ni enrichment at the interfaces, substantially increase the nucleation rate of reverted

austenite. Consequently, the volume fraction of reverted austenite in the Cu-containing steel

(~12.4 vol.%) is much higher than that in the Cu-free steel without Cu additions (~6.5 vol.%).

Furthermore, the TRIP behavior in the plastic zone around a front fracture absorbs fracture

energy, effectively contributing to the improvement of toughness [27]. Consequently, a

substantial improvement in ductility and toughness was observed in the Cu-containing steel

with the TRIP effect (cf. Fig. 1). Therefore, our work provides a new strategy to accelerate the

austenite reversion and enhance the TRIP effect of maraging steels through Cu

nanoprecipitation. The Cu content used here is 1 wt.%, which is lower than that in commercial

Cu-containing steels, such as 17-4 PH and 15-5 PH stainless steels [28,29]; thus, this Cu

content should be readily achievable in industrial scale steels.

4. Conclusions

The effects of Cu precipitation on the austenite reversion and mechanical properties of

maraging stainless steels were systematically investigated. Our results indicate that Cu, as an

austenite stabilizer, increases the equilibrium austenite fraction and enhances the chemical

240 driving force for the austenite formation. In addition, Cu-rich precipitates significantly promote

241 the nucleation of reverted austenite by not only increasing the chemical driving force for

242 nucleation, but also providing high number densities of heterogeneous nucleation sites for the

243 austenite reversion. During tensile deformation, the metastable reverted austenite transforms to

244 martensite, which substantially improves the ductility and toughness through the TRIP effect.

245 The Cu-containing steel containing 12.4 vol.% reverted austenite has a yield strength of 1330

246 MPa, an elongation of 15%, and an impact toughness of 58 J, exhibiting a good combination of

247 strength, ductility, and toughness. The strategy of Cu-assisted austenite reversion should be

248 applicable to many other steels and provides a new approach to improve the strength-ductility-

249 toughness synergy of advanced high-strength steels.

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338 [29] L. Couturier, F. De Geuser, M. Descoins, A. Deschamps, Evolution of the Microstructure

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Figure captions

Fig. 1 Mechanical properties of the Cu-free and Cu-containing steels: (a) engineering tensile

stress-strain curves of the steels in the as-quenched and 60-h aged conditions, (b) work

hardening rate curves and true stress-strain curves of the steels in the 60-h aged condition, and

(c) elongations and Charpy impact energies in the 60-h aged condition.

Fig. 2 Microstructure of Mo-enriched and Cu-rich precipitates: (a) bright-field TEM image of

the Cu-containing steel in the 60-h aged condition, HR-TEM images of (b) 9R Cu and (d) Laves

phase, (c) and (e) are the corresponding FFT patterns of (b) and (d), respectively, (f) APT

microstructure of Cu-rich and Mo-enriched precipitates, and (g) and (h) are the proximity

histograms of Cu-rich and Mo-enriched precipitates, respectively.

Fig. 3 Microstructure of reverted austenite before deformation: XRD patterns of the (a) Cu-free

and (b) Cu-containing steels in the as-quenched and aged conditions, (c) volume fractions of

reverted austenite as a function of aging time, (d) EBSD phase maps for the Cu-containing steel

in the 60-h aged condition.

Fig. 4 Microstructure of reverted austenite before deformation: (a) the TEM micrographs of the

Cu-containing steel in the 60-h condition, (b) the SAED patterns corresponding to reverted

austenite and matrix in (a), (c) and (d) are the bright-field TEM image and corresponding

TEM/EDS elemental mapping of Ni, Cu and Mo, respectively, and (e) and (f) APT

microstructure and compositions of Cu-rich precipitates and reverted austenite.

Fig. 5 Microstructure of reverted austenite after deformation: (a) XRD pattern, (b) EBSD phase

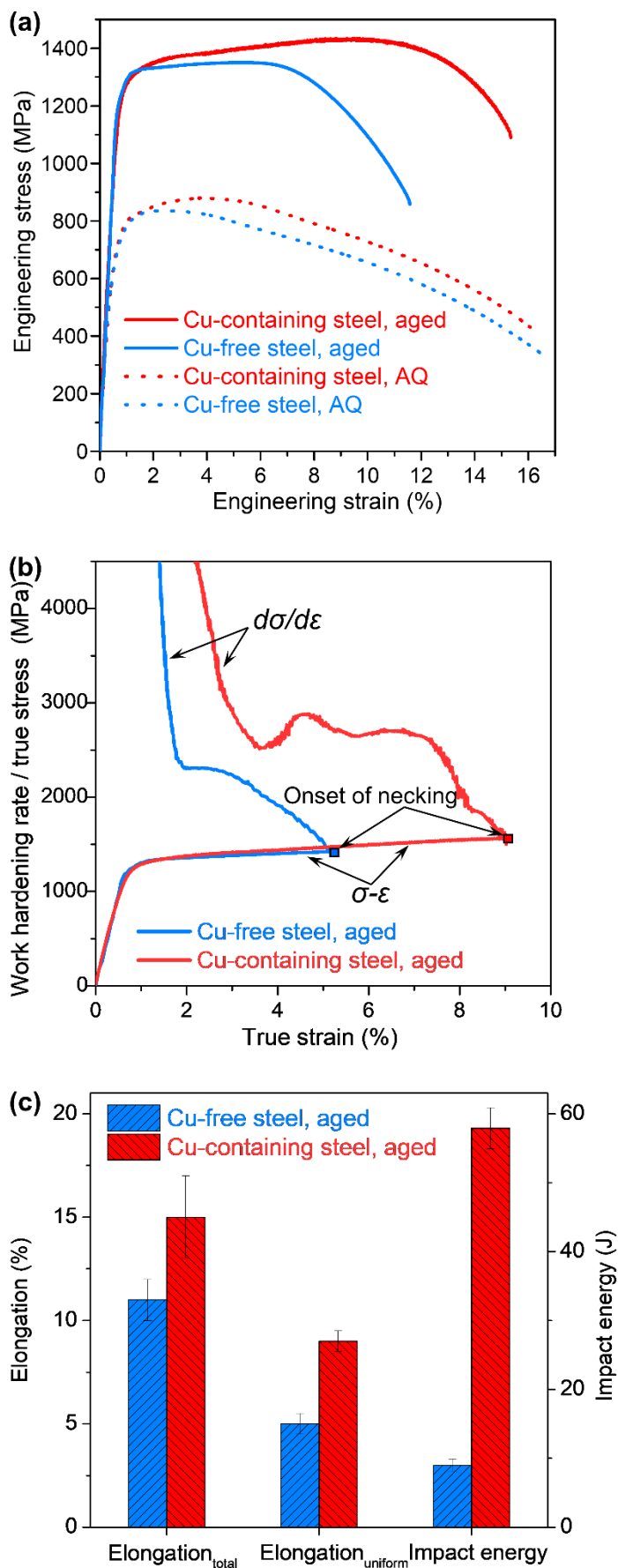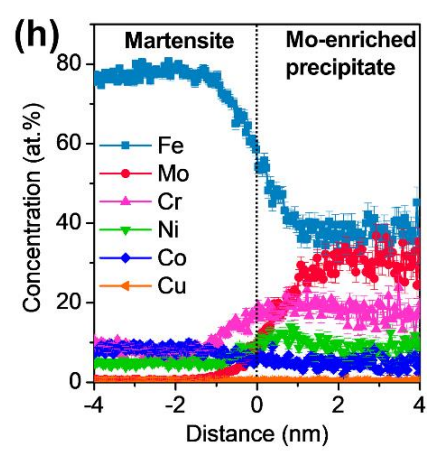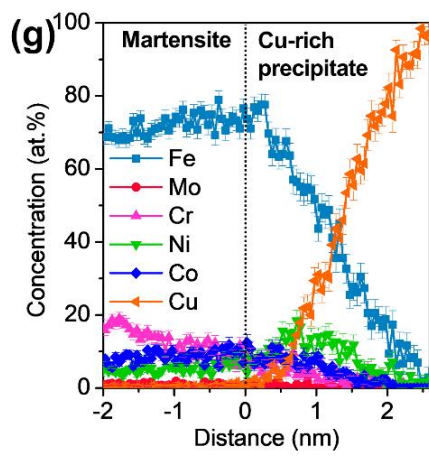maps, and (c) bright-field TEM image of the Cu-containing steel after tensile deformation.
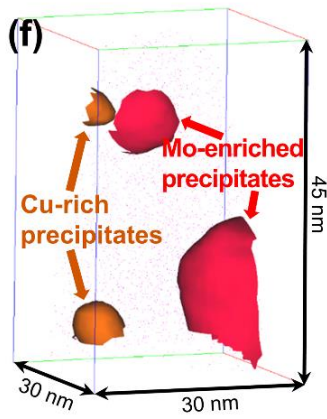
Figure 1

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

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Figure 5

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