

1 Uncovering the white etching area and crack formation mechanism in bearing
2 steel

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15

16 ABSTRACT

17 The microstructure of a damaged bearing from the field was characterized in this work with
18 the intention to better understand microstructural features behind formation of White
19 Etching Cracks (WEC) in bearings. Microstructural characterization of the altered white
20 etching area (WEA) involved conventional electron backscattered diffraction (EBSD), followed
21 by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and transmission Kikuchi diffraction (TKD). In
22 addition, automated crystallographic orientation mapping in TEM was performed on lamellae
23 from selected regions of the WEA extracted via focus ion beam milling. The results revealed
24 that the orientation of detectable grains within WEA is similar to that of the vicinal bulk
25 material. WEA consists of small spherical grains (average 30 nm) and the orientation of the
26 grains varied significantly in the deformed zone, suggesting that recrystallization had
27 occurred. The interface between bulk material and the deformed zone is very sharp.
28 Furthermore, needle-like grains, most likely originating from the zone undergoing only
29 modest levels of severe plastic deformation, occurred in WEA. The occurrence of different
30 grain sizes in WEA and incomplete plastic deformation strongly support the hypothesis of
31 WEC formation via severe plastic deformation followed by recrystallization.

32 *Keywords:* Rolling Contact Fatigue, White Etching Cracks, White Etching Area, Bearing steel, EBSD, FIB, TEM,

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36 **1. Introduction**

37 The European Commission's strategy for 2050 explicitly calls for a substantive increase in
38 installed renewable energy capacity and a reduction in the emissions of greenhouse gases [1].
39 Various studies have acknowledged wind energy as a critical enabler for achieving 100%
40 renewable energy penetration [2, 3]. Offshore wind energy is considered an important source
41 of renewable energy and has experienced rapid growth in recent years, especially in north-
42 western European countries [4]. One of the limitations in achieving these goals is the
43 operation and maintenance cost, particularly in the case of offshore wind farms [5]. In the
44 windmills, the high and sometimes unpredictable failure rate of the gearboxes, which are
45 structural components, increases the costs and downtime [6]. The predicted lifetime of wind
46 turbine gearboxes is 20 years. However, the actual lifespan is often shorter than this desired
47 lifespan. The damage in the bearings in the gearboxes is frequently associated with the
48 formation of white etching cracks (WECs). WECs are subsurface cracks often formed around
49 non-metallic inclusions located in the region of the highest Hertzian stresses. The term WECs
50 refers to the white appearance of the cracks after metallographic sample preparation and
51 etching; the cracks are resistant to most common metallographic etchants containing 2 to 4vol
52 % nitric or/picric acid in ethanol (i.e., Nital and Picral). Furthermore, WECs are mainly initiated
53 around non-metallic inclusions that act as high-stress concentrators [7]. The initial stage of
54 damage leads to the formation of "butterfly wing" (BW), where the damage propagates most
55 commonly from non-metallic inclusions at an angle of 30° with respect to the rolling direction.
56 During the rolling contact cycles, the BWs/WECs develop crack networks, and upon reaching
57 the surface, lead to spalling of the raceway surface. Consequently, the microstructural
58 features around WECs are altered and consist of nanocrystalline ferrite. This region is referred
59 to as the white etching area (WEA). Despite extensive research on WEA formation, a generally
60 accepted damage mechanism has yet to be identified. Many mechanisms have been proposed
61 in the literature, but debates regarding the chronology of WEC and WEA appearance persist.
62 In the literature, many engineering factors have been identified as potential initiators for WEC
63 formation. Misalignment of the bearing, loads, lubrication, slip, and electrical currents are
64 considered the main surface initiators of WECs [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. In addition, the subsurface

65 mechanism is attributed mainly to inclusions, residual stresses, microstructural defects, and
66 secondary phases [13]. A thorough literature review of the different mechanisms responsible
67 for WEC is provided by Warhadpande et al. [14] and Sadeghi et al. [15].
68 Through-hardened bearings are most often fabricated from a steel alloy referred to as 52100
69 steel, which consists mainly of ~1%C and ~1.5%Cr (mass%). After the final thermal treatment,
70 which includes oil quenching and low-temperature tempering (~160°C), the steel
71 microstructure consists of ~4% spherical secondary cementite type (θ) carbides formed
72 during spheroidization annealing. These carbides are embedded in a matrix of tempered
73 martensite, retained austenite, and one or more of the η , ε carbides [16]. After low-
74 temperature tempering, the martensite strength is determined by the carbon in solid solution,
75 high dislocation density, small grain size, and fine transition carbides, predominantly ε -carbide
76 [17]. However, the microstructure of the WEA formed around the crack differs significantly
77 from the one described above. Several works [18, 19, 20, 21] have reported that the WEA
78 consists of nanocrystalline body-centered cubic (BCC) ferrite (grain size: 10 nm–300 nm), and
79 chromium-rich cementite type carbides are absent from the WEA [18, 19, 22, 23]. Moreover,
80 according to previous studies [24, 25], the WEA is 30–50% harder than the undamaged zone,
81 and is separated from this zone by a sharp interface. Using wave dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
82 (WDS), Curd et al. [26] determined the carbon content in the vicinity of the WEA and further
83 away in the undamaged zone. The carbon content of the zone near WEA was the same as that
84 of the bulk material. This result countered the hypothesis that the formation process of WEA
85 consumed carbides in the vicinity of WEA, thereby preventing further development of WEA.
86 Other authors observed inhomogeneous regions with coarse and needle-like grains within
87 regions with fine grains or in the matrix/WEA boundary region [27]. When the material was
88 prepared via focused ion beam (FIB) milling, these grains also appeared needle-shaped,
89 suggesting that such grains are characterized by a three-dimensional (3D) plate-like
90 morphology. Moreover, the long needle-shaped grains had low Kernel Average Misorientation
91 (KAM) values in groups with similar orientations and preferred growing directions. These
92 grains often appeared with a sharp boundary in zones with the finest grain sizes, suggesting
93 that they formed due to secondary transformation induced by thermal annealing. Li et al. [18]
94 further investigated the WEA using atom probe tomography (APT). The findings revealed that
95 the grains in the WEA were equiaxed and the grain boundaries were decorated with carbon

96 and were uniformly distributed throughout the entire volume. These results support the
97 hypothesis that supersaturated carbon-enriched nano-sized ferrite is formed in the WEA.
98 Many different mechanisms have been proposed as possible reasons for WEA formation.
99 Some of the proposed mechanisms are: (i) severe plastic deformation (SPD) [18, 28], (ii)
100 carbide dissolution [18], (iii) low-temperature recrystallization [22], and (iv) dislocation-
101 assisted carbon migration [29]. Although WEA formation has been extensively investigated, a
102 universal explanation of the WEA phenomenon is lacking. The chronological appearance of
103 alterations, i.e., WEC/WEA, remains unclear. Some authors claim that the formation of WEC
104 precedes the formation of WEA [28], while others suggest that first, WEA forms and cracks
105 propagate due to the harder microstructure (compared with the microstructure preceding
106 WEA formation) [26, 30]. To clarify (at least partially) the abovementioned issues, the altered
107 area of a field bearing is systematically characterized in the present study.

108

109 **2. Material and methods**

110 A through-hardened bearing steel with chemical composition corresponding to AISI 52100
111 steel grade (see Table 1) was investigated in this work. The microstructure consists of
112 tempered martensite and spherical carbides of type M_3C , where M is Fe and/or Cr. The bearing
113 was collected from the field after unknown hours of operation when axial cracking occurred.
114 The bearing was cut to reveal the axial plane (see Figure 1) and prepared for metallographic
115 observations. The specimens were gently sectioned using a silicon carbide cutting disc on a
116 Struers Discotom-5 cutting machine. To prepare the surface for analysis, the standard
117 metallographic approach employing a series of progressively finer grinding papers, from P180
118 to P2000, was used. Grinding was followed by a series of polishing steps, using 3 μm and 1 μm
119 diamond polishing solution. Samples were then etched using Nital 2% (2vol% HNO_3 solution
120 in $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$) to reveal the microstructure for observation via light optical microscopy and
121 scanning electron microscopy (SEM). To prepare the sample surface for electron backscatter
122 diffraction (EBSD) measurements, the samples were polished for an additional 10 min with
123 colloidal silica (OPS) with an abrasive particle size of 35 nm.

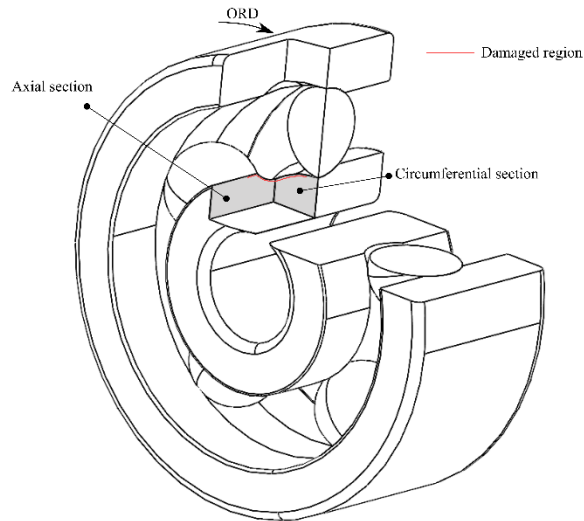


Figure 1. Schematic showing the axial and circumferential sections of a bearing

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126 SEM images were acquired on a FEI Quanta 450-FEG-SEM (FEI Company, Hillsboro, OR, USA)
 127 operating at 15kV. A final beam aperture of 50 μm and a spot size of 5, which corresponds to
 128 a probe current of 2.3 nA in secondary electron (SE) and backscatter electron (BSE) imaging
 129 mode, were employed. The angular accuracy of the system is $\sim 0.5^\circ$. The same microscope was
 130 used for EBSD. Data acquisition was performed under the following conditions: accelerating
 131 voltage of 15 kV, beam current of ~ 2.3 nA, corresponding to a FEI spot size of 5, and working
 132 distance of 12 mm. The resulting patterns were acquired on a hexagonal scan grid using a
 133 Hikari detector operated with EDAX TSL-OIM Data Collection version 6 software (AMETEK
 134 materials analysis division, Mahwah, NJ, USA). The EBSD scans were performed at a step size
 135 of 30 nm. The corresponding orientation data were post-processed with EDAX-TSL-OIM data
 136 analysis software version 7.3 using the following grain definition: misorientation with
 137 neighboring grains: higher than 5° , the minimum number of points per grain: seven, and
 138 confidence index (CI): higher than 0.2. The grain size in this work was taken as the calculated
 139 average grain diameter, i.e., the diameter corresponds to a grain of the same area, consisting
 140 of the points that fulfill the above conditions. The raw EBSD data were post-processed and
 141 dubiously indexed points were reassigned by applying the grain CI standardization and
 142 neighbor CI correlation procedure in a single step. Applying this procedure changed no more
 143 than 5% of the original data. To derive the grain size within the WEA, only grain boundaries
 144 with misorientation angles larger than 5° and grains larger than 3 pixels were considered.

145 The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) samples are prepared via Thermo Fisher’s Helios
 146 G4 UXe by Focus Ion Beam (FIB) milling. To preserve the surface characteristics during FIB
 147 milling, a rectangular protection layer (platinum) is first deposited on the top of the region of
 148 interest. Milling is then performed on the surroundings of the region protected by the
 149 platinum layer. This leads to the formation of a lamella (TEM sample), which is then lifted out
 150 from the specimen and welded to a copper holder. Subsequently, a lamella-thinning process
 151 is performed by means of repeated FIB milling with decreasing current and/or voltage. The
 152 final lamella thickness should be approximately 10–100 nm for TEM analysis.

153 Automated Crystal Orientation Mapping (ACOM TEM) measurements (step size: 8 nm) are
 154 performed on a Philips CM20 microscope operated at 200kV using the ASTAR® system [31].

155 *Table 1. Chemical composition of through-hardened bearing steel investigated in this work*

<i>Element</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>Mn</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>Si</i>	<i>Cr</i>	<i>Cu</i>	<i>Mo</i>	<i>Ni</i>
<i>Wt.%</i>	0.96	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.25	1.6	0.2	0.15	0.18

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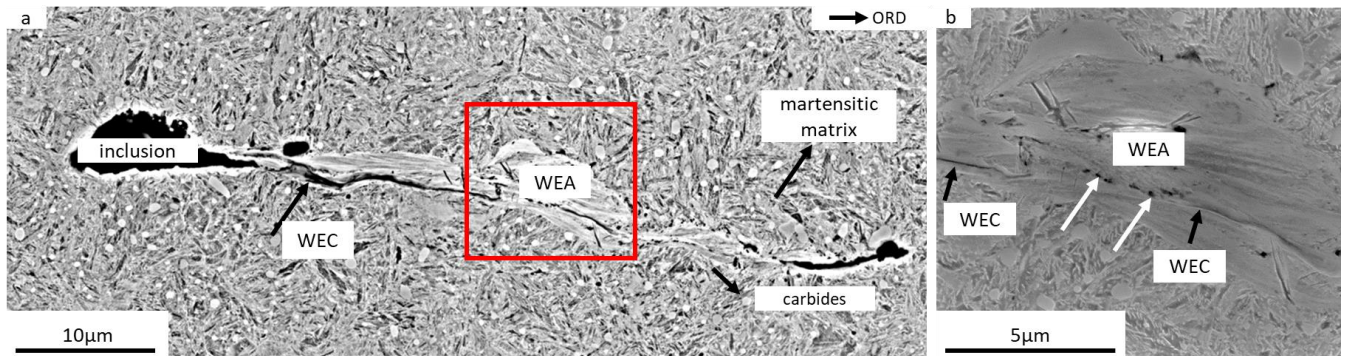
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158 **3. Results**

159 *3.1 Microstructural characterization of the damage formation in the field bearing*

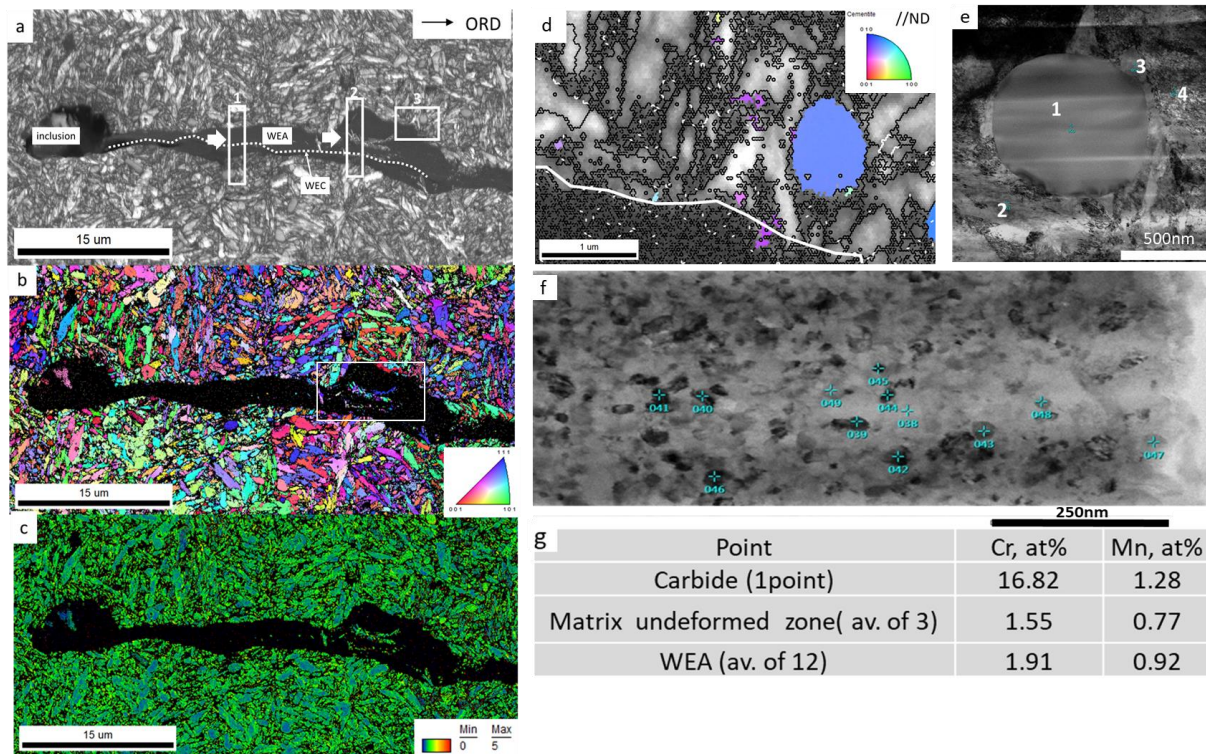
160 The field bearing analyzed in this work failed prematurely via axial cracking. Therefore, the
 161 study focused on determining whether the observed damage is associated with the WEC
 162 phenomenon. Local damage in the shape of BWs around non-metallic inclusions and WECs
 163 occurs within the subsurface of the bearing. BWs without branching or networks are located
 164 close (within ~100 μm) to the raceway surface. However, the crack networks (WECs) are only
 165 present at 300 μm from the surface, which coincides with the zone of maximum Hertzian
 166 stresses. The BWs may be located very close (~30 μm) to, but never reach, the raceway
 167 surface. Most of the observed WECs/WEAs are already connected to crack networks,
 168 suggesting that they are in the late stage of damage evolution. However, with the observation
 169 of two-dimensional (2D) cross-sections, 3D objects appear as 2D objects (lines) or points.
 170 Hence, in this work, we focus on the WECs, which are both short and separate (rather than
 171 connected in networks), in order to capture the intermediate stage of WEC development.
 172 Figure 2 shows a SEM image of a crack surrounded by WEA. The crack starts from a non-
 173 metallic inclusion and has an irregular shape with a bump-like region of WEA developed above

174 the crack. In the same zone, the WEC is located close to the bottom of the altered region, as
175 indicated by the red square in Figure 2a. The secondary electron image presented in Figure 2b
176 shows a magnified view of an irregular bump-like region of WEA. Chromium carbides are
177 absent from this zone, but are vicinal to the deformed zone.



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179 *Figure 2. (a) BSE image of a region with WEC originating from non-metallic inclusions. Over-rolling direction (ORD) is indicated*
180 *by the black arrow. The region enclosed in the red square is shown in Figure 2 (b). (b) Magnified view of WEA shown in (a) and*
181 *vicinal bulk material. WECs are located in the lower part of WEA, and the growth of these carbides seems slightly interrupted.*
182 *A few voids are formed between the two parts of non-connected WECs, as indicated by white arrows. Chromium carbides are*
183 *vicinal to, but absent from, the WEA.*

184
185 The same zone is characterized by EBSD, which revealed the presence of grains with
186 martensite-like morphology inside WEA (Figure 3a); the analysis was performed on the regions
187 enclosed in the white rectangles shown in Figure 3a. The WEA and WEC are distinguished by
188 including points with CI below 0.2 in the image quality (IQ) map. If the CI<0.2 points are
189 excluded from the EBSD map, this zone would have appeared dark in the image and, therefore,
190 WEA and WEC would be indistinguishable. However, the CI of each point in the inverse pole
191 figure (IPF) map is larger than 0.2. To gain additional information on the morphology and
192 damage formation, KAM values are calculated using the average misorientation of a given
193 pixel with its third neighbor (upper limit: 5°). The misorientation determined for resolvable
194 grains within the WEA is similar to that of the grains in the bulk material. This suggests that no
195 recrystallization has occurred (the expectation is that, after recrystallization, the
196 misorientation between grains within WEA would be lower than the misorientation between
197 the grains in the bulk) [27]. Two specific areas are selected for further analysis. The first area
198 corresponds to the martensitic matrix and shows the smooth appearance of WEA (indicated
199 by rectangle 1 shown in image Figure 3a). The second area corresponds to the matrix and
200 contains a part of the WEA with relatively large grains (indicated by rectangle 2 in Figure 3a).

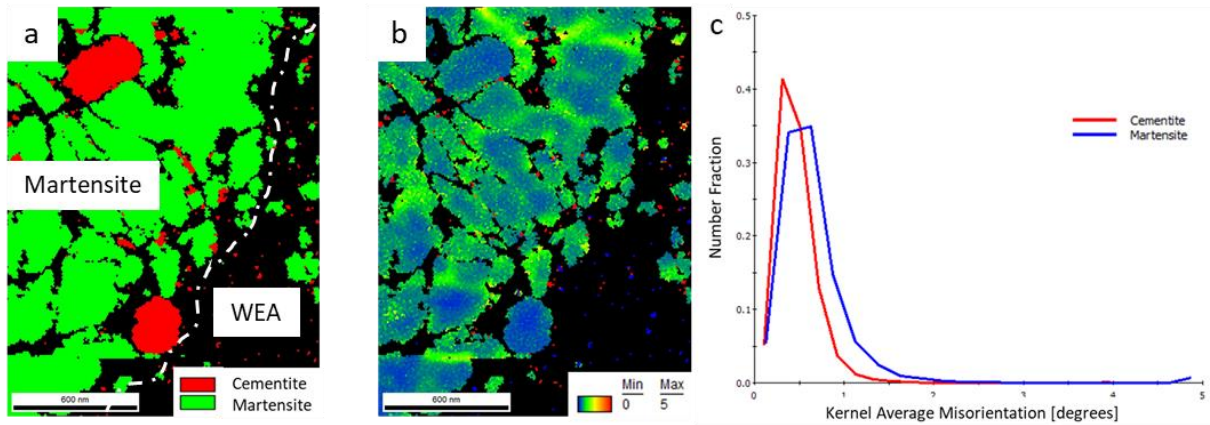


201
 202 *Figure 3. EBSD scan of region enclosed in the red square shown in Figure 2, (a) IQ map showing bulk material and WEC within*
 203 *WEA. The white dotted line represents WECs, and the smooth dark area is WEA. The regions enclosed in rectangles labeled 1*
 204 *and 2 are positions where FIB lamellae are taken, rectangle 3 shows the place of the magnified view in (d); (b) ND -Inverse Pole*
 205 *Figure map, white frame shows detectable grains inside WEA; these grains have similar orientations (c) Kernel Average*
 206 *Misorientation map values are calculated using the average misorientation of a given pixel with its third-nearest neighbor*
 207 *(upper limit: 5°). The misorientation determined for the indexed grains is similar to that of the bulk material; (d) A magnified*
 208 *view of the white rectangle 3 in fig. 3a shows a combined IQ and ND-IPF (for carbide map of the close vicinity of the WEA.*
 209 *Black lines are high angle grain boundaries with misorientation >15°, white lines are low angle grain boundaries with a*
 210 *misorientation between 5 and 15°; (e) a bright field TEM image of a single carbide in a matrix of tempered martensite in a not*
 211 *damaged zone close to WEA, with numbers identifying the points for EDS analysis; (f) a bright field TEM image from the WEA*
 212 *with points where the EDS analyses were carried out and (g) averaged results from the EDS analyses.*
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215 The intermediate stage of damage development should not necessarily contain large
 216 undissolved carbides, as the “smooth” appearance of the white etching area is observed in
 217 the studied zone of the layer. Such carbides were identified only in the close vicinity of the
 218 WEA (Fig. 3a, d). If these undissolved carbides are not enough large, they cannot be measured
 219 correctly with EBSD. Moreover, the rubbing of the crack surfaces induced severe plastic
 220 deformation, but the local stress levels differ across the zone of interest, therefore some of
 221 the bcc- grains are still detectable by means of EBSD. Unfortunately, this is not the case for
 222 the carbides inside WEA. They are too small (~10-15nm) and cannot be identified via EBSD
 223 neither via TKD or ACOM-TEM. Fig. 3 d shows a magnified view from the zone containing the
 224 WEA and the undeformed zone. In this figure only the carbides that are larger than 8 pixels
 225 and that have a CI>0.2. The fine carbides are identified in the closest vicinity of the WEA but

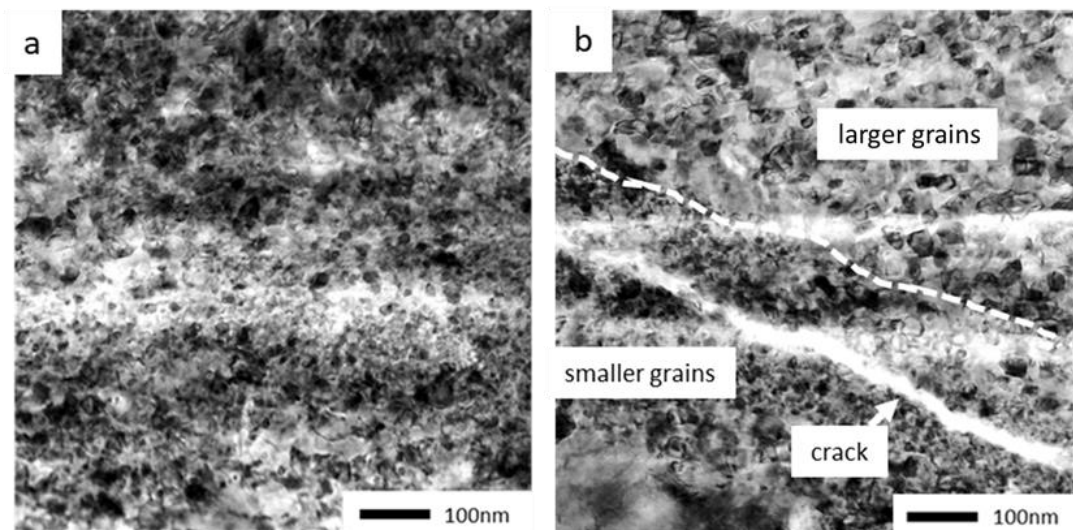
226 not detected inside it. The data of TEM /EDS study on FIB lamellae #2 are shown in Fig. 3 e and
227 f. This figure shows the results of analyses of two representative zones of the lamella and only
228 the variations in the Cr, and Mn content were traced, because the C cannot be quantified
229 correctly via EDS and because the Cr and Mn are the slowest diffusing elements in this steel.
230 Hence, it is logical to assume that if these elements are dissolved the C also should be dissolved
231 and hence the carbide will be dissolved. The zone #1 in Fig. 3e contains EDS data from a single
232 carbide from the matrix (single measurement) and from the martensitic matrix (3
233 measurement, #2, 3 and 4) that are outside the WEA. The second image in Fig. 3f shows a part
234 of the WEA in which clearly the equiaxed small grains can be identified and the points of the
235 EDS measurements are marked with green crosses (12 in total). There are two important
236 conclusions of this observation: (i) TEM analysis did not detect individual carbides that can be
237 identified by diffraction; (ii) the data from the EDS analyses show that the Cr content of the
238 carbide is ~17at% and in the undeformed matrix it is 1.5at%, whereas the Cr content of the
239 WEA is 1.9at%. Hence, it is logical to deduce that the M_3C carbides ($(Fe, Cr, Mn)_3C$) in the WEA
240 are “dissolved” in the matrix of the nano-crystalline BCC phase which leads to increased Cr
241 content. We realize that this study can be more complete if we would have been able to
242 measure the C distribution and segregation of C in the intermediate zone of the WEA via atom
243 probe tomography as it has been already reported in [18] but unfortunately, we do not have
244 access to such technique.

245 Figure 4a shows the results of transmission Kikuchi diffraction performed on lamella 1. The
246 left side is the martensitic matrix and the black zone corresponds to WEA (white dash-dot line
247 delineates the transition zone). This zone is non-indexable because the WEA grain size is below
248 the spatial resolution of the EBSD system. The green and red pixels comprising the map
249 correspond to the martensitic matrix, indexed as BCC phase, and carbides indexed as Fe_3C
250 phase, respectively. The KAM value of the matrix is slightly higher than that of the carbides.
251 Figure 4c shows that the average KAM value is 0.5° for cementite and 1° for martensite. This
252 indicates that micro-plastic deformations may have occurred preferentially in the martensitic
253 matrix rather than in the carbides. Similar results are obtained for lamella 2.



254
 255 *Figure 4. Transmission Kikuchi diffraction characterization of lamella 1 (corresponding to the region enclosed in the white*
 256 *rectangle shown in Figure 3(a)). (a) The left side of the image corresponds to bulk material and the dark region is the WEA.*
 257 *The transition between these regions is indicated by the white dash-dot line. The grain size is below the detection limit of EBSD*
 258 *and hence the grain structure is unresolved. (b) Kernel average misorientation map of the third-nearest neighbors (upper limit:*
 259 *5°). The misorientation in the cementite is lower than that in the martensite, suggesting that deformation occurs in the*
 260 *martensite. (c) KAM chart of martensite and cementite.*
 261

262 As the deformed zone is below the resolution of the TKD system, further TEM analysis is
 263 performed to characterize the zone of interest for both lamellas 1 and 2. A bright-field TEM
 264 image obtained of lamella 1 (see Figure 5a) reveals uniform grains within the WEA. In contrast,
 265 a visible difference in grain sizes is noted for one of the regions in lamella 2, as indicated in
 266 Figure 5b, where the white dashed line demarcates zones with different grain sizes.



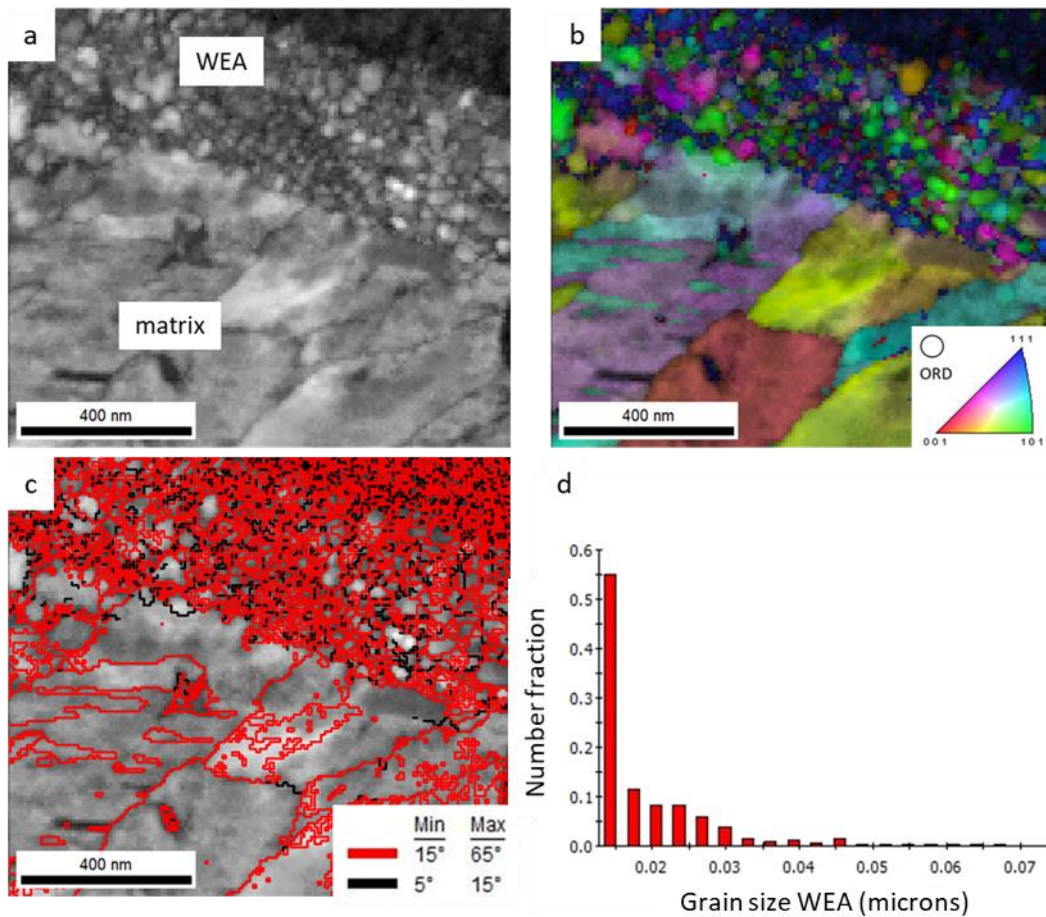
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 268 *Figure 5. Bright-field TEM micrograph of WEA lamellas 1 and 2, enclosed in the white rectangles shown in Figure 3a. (a) lamella*
 269 *1: grain size within the WEA is nearly uniform, (b) lamella 2: difference observed in grain size within the WEA. White dashed*
 270 *line demarcates the regions of different grain sizes. The grains lying in the left bottom side of WEA and vicinal to the crack are*
 271 *smaller than those lying in the top right side.*
 272

273 3.2 Nanostructural characterization of altered zone

274 Further characterization of lamella 2 involved ACOM-TEM aimed at evaluating the size and
 275 crystallographic orientation of grains inside the WEA (this characterization is impossible with

276 the conventional TKD method). The region of interest is the interface between the martensite
277 matrix and WEA. The IQ map presented in Figure 6a shows that different grayscale gradients
278 occur within martensitic plates. This may have resulted from small internal deviations in each
279 plate, as confirmed by the IPF map (Figure 6b), where variations in the crystallographic
280 orientation are observed. Grains of different sizes occur inside WEA. The IPF map (cf. Figure
281 6b) reveals a very sharp boundary with no transition zone between the small grains inside
282 WEA and the martensitic matrix. Detectable grains inside WEA have different crystallographic
283 orientations. Close examination of the martensitic grains neighboring the fine-grained and
284 possibly deformed zone suggests that these grains started to fragment, thereby forming
285 subgrains inside the martensitic crystals. In Figure 6c, High Angle Grain Boundaries (HAGBs)
286 and Low Angle Grain Boundaries (LAGBs), shown in red and black, respectively, are drawn on
287 the IQ map. The deformed zone is generated mainly from the HAGB, consistent with the
288 results reported elsewhere [32]. Texture analysis may elucidate the deformation mechanism,
289 but lies beyond the scope of the present study. The distribution of the grain size in WEA is
290 shown in Figure 6d. The grain size, represented by the average calculated grain diameter,
291 ranges from a few nm to 50 nm (mode of the distribution: <30 nm).

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Figure 6. ACOM TEM of lamella 2, region of interest is the boundary between WEA and the martensitic matrix (a) IQ map with the lower part and the upper part of the image corresponding to the martensitic matrix and WEA, respectively. The grains within WEA are detectable. (b) Inverse Pole Figure Map superimposed on the IQ map. A sharp border between the WEA and the martensitic matrix is observed. The grain orientations vary significantly within the WEA, suggesting that recrystallization has occurred. (c) High Angle Grain Boundaries and Low Angle Grain Boundaries are shown in red and black, respectively. (d) Distribution of grain size within the WEA.

301 **3.3 Verification: The crystallographic orientation of the fragmented grains is similar to that of**
302 **the vicinal bulk material**

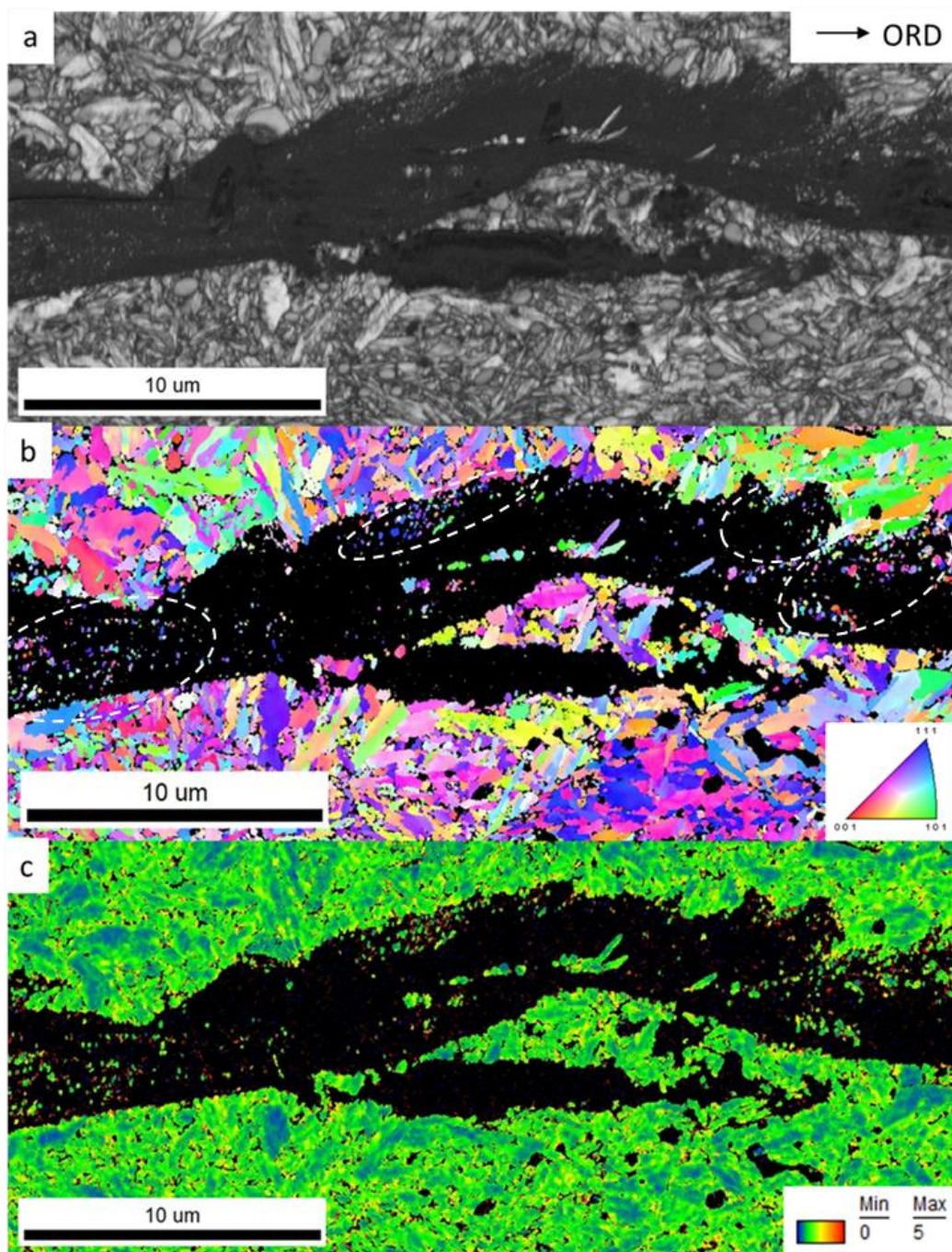
303 Additional evidence of severe plastic deformation is presented in Figure 7. An EBSD scan
304 performed on the zone of interest captures small spherical and elongated grains within WEA.
305 The IPF map (Figure 7b) reveals that these spherical grains have a similar orientation. This may
306 be attributed to the: (i) occurrence of severe plastic deformation where more time (than the
307 processing time) is required for fragmentation of specific grain orientations and hence
308 deformation is incomplete and (ii) material transfer from one side of the crack to the other
309 during crack rubbing, as postulated in [13, 28]. The IPF map (Figure 7b) shows that the
310 crystallographic orientation of these grains is similar to that of the vicinal non-deformed
311 martensitic matrix. Kernel Average Misorientation analysis revealed that the misorientation
312 within small spherical grains is the same as that of the bulk material, suggesting that the

313 fragmented grains are unrecrystallized. Figure 8 (a) shows the enlarged area from Figure 7b,
314 (b) the Color code key for the IPF map. (c) are ND-IPF texture representations of the marked
315 zones from 1 to 4 in Fig. 8(a). Zones 1 to 3 represents BCC grains inside the WEA. The
316 orientation of these grains is similar to the crystallographic orientation of martensite. This is
317 shown in ND-IPF charts which are selected as follows. Charts 1 to 3 is a deformed zone,
318 whereas chart 4 is a general texture from non-deformed martensite. Comparatively, all the
319 elements from the non-deformed zone can be recognized in zones 1 to 3. However, comparing
320 intensities is not correct, only texture components, because the number of points within zones
321 is different.

322 **4. Discussion**

323 The obtained results suggest that the captured damage corresponds to the intermediate stage
324 of development where severe plastic deformation occurred partially, but without
325 recrystallization. As shown in [13, 28], the crack is initiated from a defect in the material and
326 this initiation is followed by severe plastic deformation. The mechanical rubbing of the crack
327 surfaces is insufficient for inducing recrystallization of the entire WEA volume, and hence large
328 grains remain unchanged within WEA.

329 With the provided evidence, the following chronology of events is proposed for the creation
330 of a WEA and WECs in bearing steel. One of the difficulties associated with the characterization
331 of the WEC phenomenon is that most bearings are studied post-mortem. Capturing the
332 intermediate stages of the damage development process is therefore quite difficult.
333 Characterization of the field bearing revealed that WEA is unequally distributed on the sides
334 of the crack and its location differs between the lower and upper parts. The lower and upper
335 parts are designated with respect to the over-rolling load. The WEC appears interrupted
336 (Figure 2), owing possibly to the two-dimensional nature of observation. Moreover, the
337 development of WEA is especially interesting, with an irregular shape occurring in specific
338 regions, and a few micrometers from these regions WEA points downward and changes plane.
339 Furthermore, IPF maps (Figure 3) show that WEA does not follow prior austenite grain
340 boundaries. This suggests that cracking may have resulted from factors other than PAGBs
341 serving as nucleation and propagation sites for cracks.



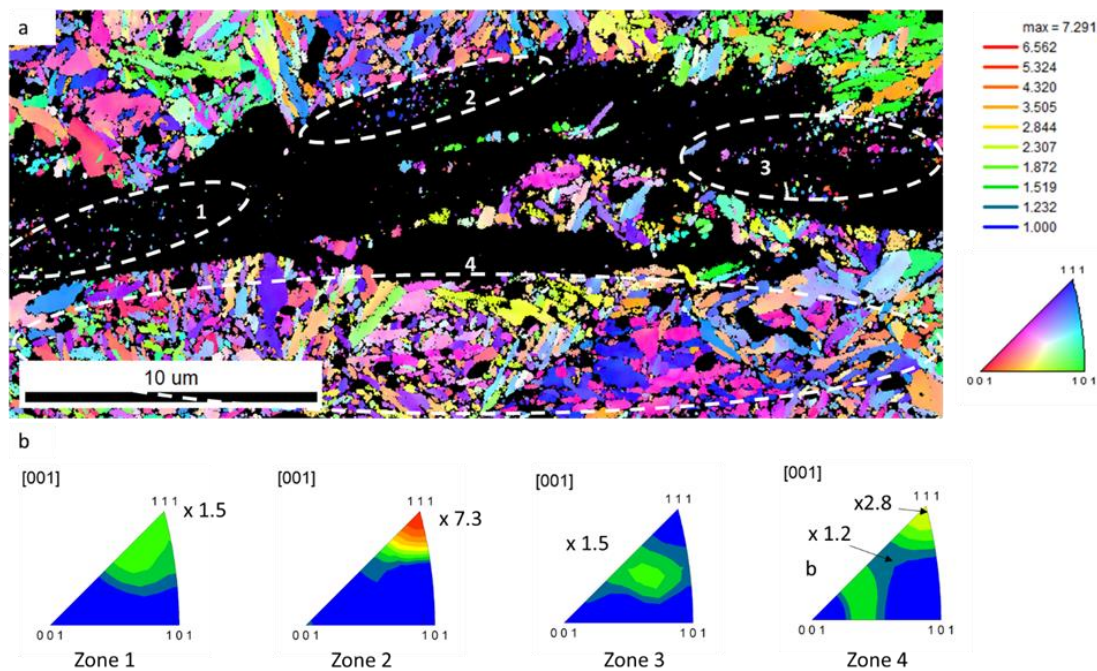
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343 *Figure 7. (a) IQ map of region containing WEC and WEA, (b) IPF map showing small spherical grains inside WEA (white dashed*
 344 *ovals) with similar orientation to that of the bulk material, and (c) KAM map values are calculated using the average*
 345 *misorientation of a given pixel with its third neighbor (upper limit: 5°). The misorientation of detectable grains inside WEA is*
 346 *similar to that of the bulk material.*

347

348 Grabulov [13] reported that cracks move a few nm upon each cycle, leaving behind WEA.
 349 However, the weakest link in the material and the crack propagation path remain unidentified.
 350 Future work on this topic would be necessary for drawing additional conclusions on crack
 351 propagation.

352



353

354 *Figure 8. (a) A color coded ND-IPF map of the BCC phase in WEA and its close vicinity. (b) Color code key for the IPF map. (c)*
 355 *are ND-IPF texture representations of the marked zones from 1 to 4 in Fig. 8(a). All textures are calculated with respect to the*
 356 *maximum of 7x mrd (multiples of random density) using a Gaussian half width of 5° and series rank of L=16.*

357

358 The EBSD scan on a region of interest reveals needle-like martensitic grains embedded within
 359 WEA (Figure 3). Although this phenomenon is observed by other authors [ref, 22, 30] a direct
 360 comparison with the previously reported data is difficult due to significant differences in the
 361 experimental conditions-real loading conditions vs: laboratory test or hydrogen charged
 362 bearings vs atmospheric condition etc. Further analysis of TEM lamellae from the same region
 363 revealed that lamella 1 has a uniform grain size within WEA, while lamella 2 has a bimodal
 364 grain size distribution. TKD measurements performed on lamella 1 shows that deformation
 365 occurs in the martensitic matrix rather than in carbides. ACOM-TEM of lamella 2 revealed a
 366 very sharp interface between two zones. The crystallographic orientation of the grains inside
 367 WEA varies significantly, consistent with the occurrence of recrystallization. The grain size of
 368 WEA ranges from 10 nm to 50 nm. An EBSD scan of the same zone reveals (Figure 7) clusters
 369 of small spherical grains inside WEA. The orientation of each cluster (enclosed in white dotted
 370 oval) is similar to the orientation of the vicinal undeformed martensitic matrix. This may have
 371 resulted from an incomplete severe plastic deformation process or material transfer, fatigue
 372 cracks generated by non-metallic inclusions, SPD resulting from crack face rubbing, and
 373 dynamic recrystallization controlling the grain size of WEA. Therefore, in this specific case, the
 374 intermediate stage of damage is captured in the case of severe plastic deformation, but

375 recrystallization is prevented, owing to insufficient time/rolling contact cycles for the process
376 to occur.

377 Microstructural observations via EBSD, TEM, and ACOM-TEM suggest that the nanocrystalline
378 structure is generated by severe plastic deformation. Hence, through TEM micrographs of
379 both samples, a correlation between the bimodal grain size within WEA and other factors is
380 derived. These findings are consistent with APT [33] measurements of the different sections
381 comprising WEA and large-grained WEAs have low carbon contents. Moreover, a correlation
382 between the grain size and source of carbon (decomposition of carbides) was found, i.e., the
383 highest carbon content of the smallest grains (size: <10 nm) was 9.5 at% in ferrite. In contrast,
384 no grain-size correlation was observed for the chromium content. The findings suggest that
385 carbon leads to grain size stabilization in WEA through extensive grain boundary
386 segregation[33] .

387 As previously mentioned, in both cases, carbides in the vicinity of WEA undergo no plastic
388 deformation, and no traces of dissolution are found. This indicates that severe plastic
389 deformation has occurred.

390

391

392 **5. Conclusions**

393 In this study, a field bearing is characterized by employing SEM, EBSD, TKD, TEM, and ACOM
394 TEM. The objective is to understand the damage mechanism of the bearing. Hence, short
395 WECs (~20 μm) with incomplete damage development are investigated. In this investigation,
396 the intermediate stage of damage development is captured and WEC/WEA phenomena are
397 elucidated. The main findings of the study are summarized as follows:

- 398 • WEA consists of small grains with sizes lower than 30 nm. The crystallographic
399 orientation of the grains in the deformed zone suggests that recrystallization has
400 occurred.
- 401 • TEM measurements revealed that WEA consists of zones with different grain
402 sizes.
- 403 • EBSD and TKD measurements revealed that micro-plastic deformation occurs in
404 the martensitic matrix rather than in the carbides.

- 405 • Carbides in the vicinity of the WEA remain undissolved and undeformed,
406 suggesting that SPD has occurred.
- 407 • The crystallographic orientation of detectable grains in the deformed zone is
408 similar to that of the vicinal bulk material.
- 409 • A very sharp interface between the martensitic matrix and the WEA, with no
410 apparent transition zone, is detected by all observation techniques.

411

412 The findings strongly suggest that the process of WEA formation in the bearing steel is
413 controlled by severe plastic deformation and recrystallization of martensite into
414 nanocrystalline ferrite.

415

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421 **6. References**

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