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Hierarchically-structured large superelastic deformation in ferroelastic-ferroelectrics

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Abstract: Large superelastic deformation in ferroelastic-ferroelectrics (FMs) is a complex phenomenon involving multiple mechanisms operating simultaneously. Understanding how these mechanisms contribute corporately is critical to apply this useful property to the intrinsically brittle FMs, which can therefore display both excellent functional and mechanical performance. Here, we have directly observed and quantitatively analyzed *in situ* in a transmission electron microscope the three main mechanisms of twinning domain, phase transformation and mobile point defect contributing to extremely large superelastic deformation in single-crystal BaTiO₃

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(5.0% strain) and $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg}_{1/3}\text{Nb}_{2/3})\text{O}_3\text{-PbTiO}_3$ (10.1% strain). Our results reveal the hierarchical origin of large recoverable strain in “brittle” FMs.

Keywords: Superelastic deformation, Ferroelastic-ferroelectrics, Hierarchical structure, *In situ* transmission electron microscope, 4D-STEM

1. Introduction

Ferroelastic-ferroelectrics have attractive next-generation applications such as flexible/wearable electronic devices, piezoelectric generators and mechanically-written high-density memory [1-4] which requires both functional and mechanical performance. But FMs are intrinsically brittle – typically demonstrating no more than 0.5% strain to failure [5,6]. One promising way to achieve large recoverable strain in FMs is superelastic deformation through domain evolutions and phase transformations [1]. For example, the ferroelastic twinning domain in BaTiO_3 contributes a strain (also called rubber-like strain) up to 1% (i.e. $c/a-1$, c and a are lattice parameters) [7]. Phase transformations can introduce even higher strain, e.g. 5% for BiFeO_3 through the morphotropic phase boundary transformation [8]. The superelastic deformations with simultaneously twinning domain and phase transformation enable huge recoverable strains, e.g. the 13% one in shape memory alloy Fe-Ni-Co-Al-Ta-B [9]. More, there are also reports on the surprisingly flexible nanometer FMs, in which twinning domain and phase transformation contribute accompanying with size effect [2,8,10]. Notably, in FMs the stress-induced domain evolutions and phase transformations are closely correlated, often resulting in complex hierarchical structures. As known, the multiple-phase-coexisting structures through morphotropic/thermotropic phase boundary transformation display mixed types of domain arrangements (corresponding to the different

phases) [8,11,12]. And the very small bundle domains (high hierarchy twinning domains) grow inside a simple twinning domain as the multiple-axial stress loading dramatically increased [13-15]. Owing to the complex hierarchical microstructures, it is still challenging to understand the large superelastic deformation mechanisms in FMs. The domain mobility, the distributions of local strains and mobile point defects, and the growth of the bundle domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures are all in long-time controversial [7,11-13,16-21]. Without direct *in situ* observations of the full superelastic deformation process with multi-scale measurements, most previous researches only showed average characteristics, with many critical local features completely obscured in observations of ensembles.

In this study, we chose free-standing single-crystal BaTiO_3 sub-micrometer pillar as a model system to investigate the large superelastic deformations in FMs. And single-crystal $\text{Pb}(\text{Mg}_{1/3}\text{Nb}_{2/3})\text{O}_3\text{-PbTiO}_3$ (PMN-PT) was chosen for further verification. The *in situ* transmission electron microscope (TEM) setup (see Figure1(a)) and sample preparation avoid any clamping effects and leave the sample essentially defect free except for the intrinsic mobile point defects. We focus on the stress-induced domain evolutions and phase transformations, instead of those triggered by radiation, thermal or charging effects [22]. Here the sample sizes are far above the threshold for mechanical ductility (e.g. a few nanometers for BaTiO_3 [1,7]). To directly study the deformation mechanisms *in situ*, we took advantage of high precision nanomechanical loading devices and recent advances in electron optics and direct-electron-detectors to perform four dimensional scanning transmission electron microscope (4D-STEM, with 0.1% precision, applicable from unit-cell to micrometer scale) study [23] and rapid atomic imaging [24] while the samples were under load.

2. Experimental

2.1 Sample preparation

The bulk BaTiO₃ and PMN-PT single crystals were purchased from Daheng Company and Siccac Companies at Shanghai, China, respectively. We fabricated the free-standing single-crystal sub-micrometer pillars by Focused Ion Beam (FIB), with the pillar axis along the main bulk crystal orientation [001] (see Figure1(a)-(b). In fact, there are always multiple-domain structures in bulk single crystals). To avoid strong ion-beam damage during the early FIB preparation period with strong beam currents, the samples were coated with protective Pt layers first. After FIB preparation with Ga ion beam, we further cleaned the samples' surfaces by using a Nanomill with Ar ion beam.

2.2 Characterization methods

TEM investigations were carried out by using a probe and imaging Cs-corrected (S)TEM from FEI providing sub-atomic resolution (TEAM I at NCEM) equipped with a direct-electron-detector (K2-IS, Gatan) with a size of 1920x1792 pixels and a high speed of up to 1600 frames/second. *In situ* mechanical testing was carried out using a picoindenter holder (PI-95, Hysitron). In addition, two more TEM (a Titan, FEI and a JEM-3010, JEOL) were used. All TEM observations were carried out at 300kV. The dark-field TEM observations were performed with the diffraction $g=404$. To limit the influence of the electron beam, we performed TEM observations using a low current density ($\leq 10^{-2}$ A/cm²), and STEM including 4D-STEM measurements were performed within a few seconds under a beam current ≤ 35 pA. High-pressure Raman scattering measurements on single crystals were performed on a Renishaw inVia Raman Spectrometer system with a diamond anvil cell [25].

2.3 Simulations

Phase-field simulations and HRSTEM image simulations see supplementary materials.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Domain evolution and mobile point defect pinning

Figure 1(c)-(d) and Movie S1 (in supplementary materials) show highly mobile domains in an as-prepared single-crystal BaTiO₃ pillar under bending. By dark-field TEM observations and 4D-STEM strain mapping, we found that for the slight bending case (Figure1(c)) there were mostly simple twinning domain patterns (composed of 90° domains and 180° domains), indicating that the pillar endures mainly uniaxial stress [26,27]. Here the simple twinning domain size is 30-100nm. For the heavy bending case (Figure1(d)), there were much smaller bundle domains (hierarchical domains [13] with domain size down to a few nanometers) growing inside the simple twinning domains, to release the dramatically increased multi-axial (axial and radial) stresses [15]. Notably, the inhomogeneous local domains in hierarchical structures are actually well integrated, adapting to the gradually changing local strains from the pillar's more compressive side (with higher c domain fraction and smaller domain size) to the other less compressive or tensile side. And owing to these local microstructures, the local strain distributions in the single-crystal pillar are inhomogeneous. It in turn promotes the inhomogeneous local domain growth and phase transformation.

Interestingly, by very slow bending (strain rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$, i.e. reaching a 1% strain within 100s. see the left inset in Movie S2) we have achieved extremely large superelastic deformation (strain 5.0%, which is close to the ideal strain of BaTiO₃ [5,28]) in the as-prepared single-crystal BaTiO₃ pillars (with thicknesses from 100nm to 400nm), without

introducing any dislocation/cracking. Here, the local strain ϵ for the bending pillar is calculated through the equation [29]

$$\epsilon = R/\rho \quad (1)$$

where R is pillar radius and ρ is local bending curvature radius. However, as the loading strain rate is increased to $\sim 10^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ (i.e. reaching a 1% strain within 10s. It's still far from causing any high-strain-rate effect), the exact large strain ($\sim 5.0\%$) cannot be achieved “safely” (i.e. without triggering dislocation/cracking, see the right inset in Movie S2). It implies that there is a time-dependent mechanism (it works at the time scale of 100s), which plays a critical role in the large superelastic deformation. As shown in Figure 2(a) and Movie S3, by *in situ* TEM investigations on the full deformation processes we have discovered an time-dependent mobile-point-defect-pinning effect (it works for 100s or longer) in the single-crystal BaTiO₃ pillar: For the case with strain rate $\sim 10^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ (with ignorable pinning effect, see the first cycle in Movie S3), the stress-induced domains in the pillar fully retract upon unloading; However for the case with strain rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$ (with obvious pinning effect, see the second cycle in Movie S3), the stress-induced domains have been well maintained after unloading. For the later loading cycle, there is enough time for mobile point defects (mainly O_v for BaTiO₃ [7,30]) to redistribute at the “new” domain walls, acting as pinning centers (see Figure 2(b)) [7]. Low-angle-annular-dark-field (LAADF) and high-angle-annular-dark-field (HAADF) HRSTEM observations on the pinned domain walls (see Figure 2(c), Figure S1 and Figure S2) further show that besides the accumulated mobile point defects there are no other pinning centers such as dislocations or planer defects, which actually cannot be induced by the low stress (75MPa). Here, the bent/strained ferroelastic domain walls (i.e. the “highways” for O_v redistribution [31]) greatly enhance the pinning effect (see Figure 2(b)). They have overcome the slow

O_v diffusion ($\tau_D=1.14\times10^9$ s) and drifting ($\tau_\mu=1.61\times10^5$ s) in BaTiO₃ [30], which are responsible for the slow traditional aging processes by thermal or electrical loading (hours or even days are needed) [1,7]. Of course, size effect also contributes to an easier domain pinning, owing to the much lower domain wall energy for the smaller domain size ($\gamma\propto\lambda^2$, γ is domain wall energy and λ is domain size [18]). In addition, the electron beam radiation effect here (with a low beam current density $\leq 10^{-2}$ A/cm²) can only causes slight sample charging and heating [22], therefore displaying weak influences on domain pinning. Importantly, the enhanced mobile-point-defect-pinning effect changes both domain structuring and phase transformation (it will be discussed next) [11,12]. It strongly limits the domain side growth and merging, changing the typical domain growth way of nucleation, forward growth, side growth and merging step by step [32] into another way mainly through domain nucleation and forward growth (see Figure S3). As a result, it maintains the high-density domain walls and phase boundaries, in fact enabling the hierarchically structuring in FMs.

3.2. Phase transformation and multiple-phase coexistence

As expected, we found that stress-induced phase transformation was triggered in the single-crystal BaTiO₃ pillar as the load was further increased. Figure 3 shows that some ultrathin multi-layered structures (highlighted by yellow arrows) nucleate and then grow at some 90° domain walls, as the local compression stress reaching 520MPa (the local stress is measured by 4D-STEM, see Figure S4. Here the BaTiO₃ pillar here is unavoidably sheared under the large compression). Notably, the 90° domain walls hardly display any side growth or merge since they are pinned by mobile point defects [13,30]. Considering the morphology of the ultrathin multi-layered structures which is obviously not belong to any type of the nine bundle domain arrangements (for tetragonal phase

BaTiO₃) [13], as well as the unique growth way (without growing into domains [14,32]), we conclude that the ultrathin multi-layered structures are neither simple twinning domain nor bundle domain structures. In good agreement, the selected area electron diffractions (SAED, in two lower insets of Figure 3) show that a monoclinic phase has been induced [12,33], displaying the splitting diffraction spots besides the 90° domains' (for tetragonal phase BaTiO₃).

To confirm the phase transformation at atomic scale, we ion-polished a BaTiO₃ pillar into a thin platelet (~18nm thick at its edges, suitable for high-resolution observations) and compressed it (pillar shearing was induced) until the ultrathin multi-layered structures emerged (Figure 4(a)-(d)). Sub-atomic resolution HRTEM observation (Figure 4(e)) shows the lattices difference of the two phases (tetragonal (T) and monoclinic (M) ones), which agrees well with the SAED (Figure 3) and phase field simulation (Figure 4 (d)) results. Here the M phase should be a bridging phase at the tetragonal-orthorhombic thermotropic phase boundary [12]. And thanks to the negative Cs HRTEM observations which can distinguish 0.1° level local crystal orientation tilting in BaTiO₃ owing to the sensitive relative image shifting between the oxygen and Ba/Ti [34], Figure 4(f) reveals the high-density domain walls and phase boundaries in multiple-phase coexisting structures (averagely a few unit cells width). It greatly contributes to large deformation through the three-dimensional local shearing [35].

To further verify this 'unusual' stress-induced phase transformation (compared to the 'usual' tetragonal-to-cubic one [36]), which has been reported to be related to the multiple-pathway phase transformation or called phase re-entrance [21,37,38], we performed high-pressure Raman scattering study [25] on a BaTiO₃ single crystal at room temperature. As shown in Figure 5(a), under cyclic compressions at 520MPa with strain

rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$ (to introduce the enhanced mobile-point-defect-pinning effect and local shearing deformation), the Raman peaks' variations of $A_1(\text{TO}_1)$ ($\sim 240\text{--}270\text{cm}^{-1}$, its intensity increases and width is broadened) and $E(\text{TO}_4)$ ($\sim 485\text{cm}^{-1}$, it emerges then gradually increases) indicate that a tetragonal-orthorhombic thermotropic phase boundary transformation has been triggered [37-39]. Notably, here the Raman spectra show neither typical rhombohedral phase Raman peaks such as the $E(\text{TO}_1)$ or $\text{TO}_2\text{--LO}_2$ one (see the rhombohedral-phase-dominated Raman spectrum measured at 200K, in Figure 5(b)) [37-41], nor the typical cubic phase Raman peaks which show obvious weakening at $A_1(\text{TO}_1)$, TO_3 and LO_4 (see the cubic-phase-dominated Raman spectrum measured at 450K, in Figure 5(b)) [37,39]. Therefore we conclude that there is little rhombohedral or cubic phase being introduced after the cyclic compressions. It is in good agreement with all above TEM studies. In addition, we have checked the cracked BaTiO_3 single crystals in diamond anvil cell after the cyclic compressions, by using TEM. They are still of size above 100nm, implying that the size effect which can also phase transformation (as size down to a few nanometers) is ignorable here.

Importantly, the hierarchically-structured multiple-phase coexisting structures, i.e. the ultrathin multi-layered structures, are actually also hetero-structures by the alternative different phases (see Figure 4(d)). The pinned domain walls at where the stress-induced new phase nucleates subsequently become phase boundaries, which are well stabilized by both the mobile-point-defect-pinning effect and the multiple domain structures [12]. The intrinsically metastable multiple-phase-coexisting structures are thus stable. More, the concentration of the accumulated O_v at the domain walls or phase boundaries are only of $\sim 0.1\%$, even after the redistribution reaching the balance (see Figure 2(b)). It is far from the threshold ($\sim 7\%$) to cause any dislocation or planer defect nucleation (i.e. cracking) [42]. Therefore, the ultrathin multiple-phase coexisting structures can in fact greatly promote

the ferroelastic strengthening effect [5,6], effectively prohibiting dislocation/cracking nucleation and growth. Encouragingly, for single-crystal BaTiO₃ under slow loading, the ultrathin hetero-structures are always formed at the regions with large local stresses.

3.3. A hierarchically-structured model for the large superelastic deformation

Based on above results, the extremely large superelastic deformation in single-crystal FMs (e.g. 5.0% strain for BaTiO₃) under the slow mechanical loading can be explained as follows: Firstly, nonlinear strains are directly provided by the domain evolution (1% strain for BaTiO₃ [7]) and phase transformation (1.3% strain for BaTiO₃ [12,43]), respectively. Secondly, under the slow loading (e.g. strain rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$), the mobile-point-defect-pinning effect is greatly enhanced since O_v can be sufficiently redistributed to the stress-induced domain walls and act as pinning centers. As a result, the enhanced pinning effect strongly limits domains' side growth and merging, leading to the hierarchically-structured domain (with much smaller bundle domains growing inside simple twinning domains, instead of the large-size single domain through merging [32]) and multiple-phase-coexisting structures (nucleate at the pinned domain walls). Thirdly, the ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting hetero-structures dramatically promote the ferroelastic strengthening effect [5,6] in the single-crystal BaTiO₃. On one hand, dislocation nucleation inside an individual ultrathin domain or multiple-phase-coexisting hetero-structure is strongly depressed. For example, Matthews-Blakeslee formula predicts that a 5.2% large elastic strain is still 'safe' (i.e. without dislocation nucleation for both the main dislocation directions of $\langle 100 \rangle$ and $\langle 110 \rangle$) [28] for a 2.4nm-thin layer (we chose the value since it is the thinnest one we have observed in this study) in the single-crystal BaTiO₃ domain or multiple-phase-coexisting hetero-structures. On the other hand, although the domain walls or phase boundaries with high-concentration O_v also cause

cracking, for well crystallized single-crystal BaTiO_3 it can be ignored since the accumulated O_v are only of $\sim 0.1\%$ concentration (see Figure 2(b)) which is far from the threshold ($\sim 7\%$) to trigger any dislocation or planer defect [42]. We suggest that it is a fatigue problem only after long-time using. In sum, the extremely large superelastic deformation (i.e. the extremely large recoverable strain) of the hierarchically-structured single-crystal BaTiO_3 is provided by both the nonlinear part (through domain evolution and phase transformation) and the greatly enhanced elastic part (through ferroelastic strengthening effect). In addition, the size effect should be another important origin contributing to the large strain, if the FMs' size is below $\sim 10\text{nm}$ level [3].

As shown in Figure 6, we present a hierarchically-structured model composing of simple twinning domains, much smaller bundle domains, and ultrathin multiple-phase-coexisting structures, to illustrate the large superelastic deformation in ‘brittle’ FMs. Conceptually, no matter what size the single-crystal FMs are, the large superelastic deformation is achievable as long as the ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures have been formed. Encouragingly, the extremely thin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures are always available through the “proper” high stress loading, since stress field is unscreenable in FMs [1]. As a verification, a $0.6\mu\text{m}$ -thick single-crystal BaTiO_3 pillar (see Figure 7, the centre part of the pillar is too thick for electron beam transparent) has been “mechanically engineered” (via slow cyclic compressions) for ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures. And we have achieved the extremely large superelastic deformation (5.0% strain) with the pillar by bending. More, we know that relaxor FMs have ultralow domain wall energy (it favors ultrathin domains) and morphotropic phase boundary transformation with large lattice difference (it favors large nonlinear strain) [1,18]. They should be good candidates for the large hierarchically-

structured superelastic deformation. As expected, huge superelastic deformation with 10.1% strain has been achieved in a 0.5 μm -thick single-crystal PMN-PT pillar (see Figure S5). Of course, the hierarchically-structured large deformation is also of great value for lead-free piezoelectric applications [1,2,8]. As Movie S4 shown, the stress-induced domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures in a BaTiO₃ single-crystal pillar show good response to the external electrical field. It is in fact a reversible electro-strain effect mediated by the pinning point defects [7], displaying tunable strain output which is dominated by the hierarchical microstructures [44]. Now, the systematic study on the “hierarchically-structured piezoelectricity” is being carried out.

4. Conclusions

In this paper, we studied the extremely large superelastic deformation in single-crystal FMs, by using sub-atomic resolution *in situ* TEM, Raman scattering equipped with a diamond anvil cell, and phase field simulation. The main conclusions are as follows:

i) The extremely large superelastic deformations (with 5.0% strain for BaTiO₃ and 10.1% for PMN-PT, respectively) can be achieved in “brittle” single-crystal FMs through slow mechanical loading (strain rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$).

ii) During the large superelastic deformations, hierarchically-structured simple twinning domains, much smaller bundle domains and ultrathin multiple-phase-coexisting structures have been introduced into single-crystal FMs. The ultrathin hierarchical structures dramatically enhance the ferroelastic strengthening effect. As a result, both the nonlinear part and the greatly enhanced elastic part contribute to the extremely large strain.

iii) An enhanced mobile-point-defect-pinning effect under the slow loading is critical for the formation of the hierarchical structures. It strongly limits domain side

growth and merging, subsequently drives the domain miniature and the ultrathin multiple-phase-coexisting structures.

iv) No matter what size the single-crystal FMs are, the hierarchically-structured large superelastic deformation is achievable as long as the ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures have been formed.

v) A tunable electro-strain effect is dominated by the stress-induced hierarchical domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures in FMs.

Author contributions

Y.D. and A.M. conceived the study. Y.D. and C.G. performed in situ NBSD and data reconstructions. Y.D., C.G., J.C., C. S. and P.E. carried out the TEM and STEM observations. Y.D., Z.C. and H.D. performed high pressure Raman scattering measurements. Y.D. and R.Z. derived STEM image and phase-field simulations under instructions of C.O. and A.C., respectively. Y.D. and K.B. set the in situ TEM system and prepared the samples. Y.D., C.G., Y.D., D.W., and A.M. interpreted and discussed the experiment results. Y.D., with the help of A.M. prepared the first draft of the manuscript, which was reviewed and edited by all authors.

Additional materials

Supplementary materials including simulations, supplementary Figures and Movies are available in the online version of the paper.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Figure 1 (a) Schematic of the *in situ* TEM setup. It allows sample rotation for observation along different directions. The pillar's top and bottom electrodes are electrically shorted during mechanical loading, to avoid strong depolarization and charging influences. (b) Lattice models for tetragonal phase BaTiO₃: three-dimensional view (upper) and side-view (lower). P_s denotes spontaneous polarization. (c) The local domain and strain distributions in the BaTiO₃ pillar under slight bending. Each zoomed-in dark-field observation is for the region framed by the same color. Each 4D-STEM strain mapping (axial strain ϵ_{xx} mapping, with the corresponding domain patterns besides) is for its nearby white-framed region. To ensure a uniform orientation for dark-field TEM and 4D-STEM, we investigated the bending pillar section by section (nearly straight for each section). The 4D-STEM mapping step is 2nm. The 180° domain walls are those between a and $-a$, or c and $-c$ domains. (d) The local domain and strain distributions in the BaTiO₃ pillar under further heavy bending. The scale bar in (d) is 500nm.

Figure 2 A time-dependent mobile-point-defect-pinning effect. (a) Dark-field TEM observations of the domain pinning process under a slow compression loading (corresponding to the second cycle in Movie S3). The diamond tip is highlighted by white dotted lines. The right simplified models illustrate the corresponding domain structures in the pillar. (b) The phase-field simulation of the accumulated O_v at the strained (bent) 90° domain walls. (c) The LAADF HRSTEM observation on the pinned domain walls (the red-framed one in (a)). The scale bar in (a) is 100nm and in (c) is 2nm, respectively.

Figure 3 The stress-induced ultrathin multi-layered structures (highlighted by yellow arrows) which nucleate at pinned 90° domain walls as compression loading up (pillar shearing is induced). And there are also 90° and 180° domain evolutions, leading to corresponding dark-field TEM contrast changing. The two lower insets show the SAED patterns at a domain wall before and after the multi-layered structures' emerging (the yellow-framed zoom-in views show the splitting diffraction spots), respectively. To clearly show the diffraction spots, we show only 1/4 of the full diffraction patterns. The scale bar is 50nm.

Figure 4 The atomic resolution observations of the ultrathin multiple-phase-coexisting structures. (a) The thin BaTiO₃ platelet under compression (shearing is induced). (b) The zoom-in view on the platelet edge (corresponding to the blue frame in (a)), showing the pure domain walls (DW) and the ultrathin multi-layered multiple-phase-coexisting structures. (c) The further zoom-in view on the multiple-phase-coexisting structures (corresponding to the red frame in (b)). (d) The phase-field simulation of the multiple-phase-coexisting structures (with T and M phases). (e) and (f) are the negative Cs (-15μm) HRTEM observations on the multiple-phase-coexisting structures, corresponding to the green and brown frames in (c) and (d), respectively. The phase boundaries between M and T phases are highlighted by yellow dotted lines. The scale bar is 500nm for (a) and 5Å for (e) and (f), respectively.

Figure 5 (a) Raman spectra of a BaTiO₃ single crystal in a diamond anvil cell before and after slow cyclic compressions at 520MPa. (b) The comparison Raman spectra of a BaTiO₃ single crystal measured at 200K (rhombohedral-phase-dominated) and 450K (cubic-phase-dominated), respectively.

Figure 6 A hierarchically-structured model for the large superelastic deformation in FMs. Here ‘MPC’ represents multiple-phase-coexisting structure and ‘MPD’ represents mobile point defect.

Figure 7 (a) A 0.6 μm -thick single-crystal BaTiO_3 pillar with ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures through “mechanically engineering”, i.e. 50 cycles’ slow compressions (strain rate $\sim 10^{-4}\text{s}^{-1}$, at 520MPa). (b) The phase field simulation for the ultrathin domain and multiple-phase-coexisting structures. The scale bar in (a) is 1 μm .