

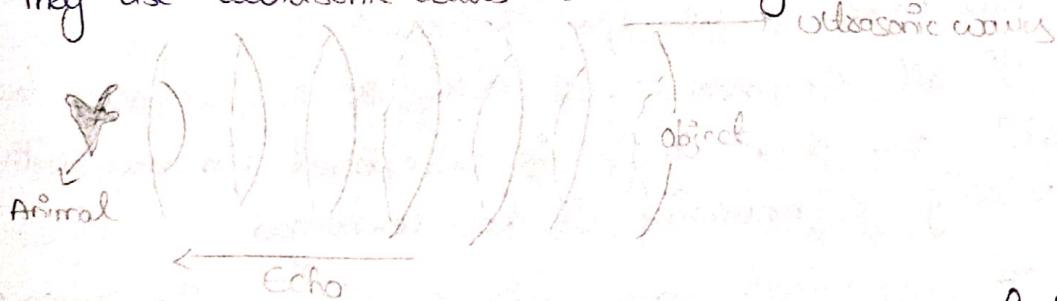
Ultrasonic waves: Ultrasonic wave is defined as "inaudible sound with high frequency for human", frequency exceeds  $20\text{kHz}$ .

Sound at frequencies greater than  $20\text{kHz}$ .

- In air at atmospheric pressure, ultrasonic waves have wavelengths of  $1.9\text{cm}$  or less.
- In field of industrial material testing ultrasonics is used at frequencies  $0.25$  to  $10\text{MHz}$  & for medical field it is  $1$  -  $20\text{MHz}$ .



- Animals can hear high frequency sounds. Bats & dolphins can generate ultrasonic waves & bats produce  $20$  to  $60\text{kHz}$ . They use ultrasonic waves to find way...



- ⇒ In fluids ultrasonic waves are propagated as longitudinal waves whereas in solids they travel as both longitudinal as well as transverse waves.
- The wavelengths of ultrasonic waves are very small & this smallness in wavelength make them useful in many applications.
- They travel in straight lines & are used in medical diagnostics, marine applications & non-destructive testing.

Acoustics: Acoustics is study of mechanical waves in gases, liquids and sounds including topics such as vibration, sound, ultrasound & infrasound.

Phase velocity: The phase velocity of a wave is rate at which the wave propagates in some medium.

→ The velocity of individual wave is phase velocity. It is also velocities with which component waves of wavepacket move inside the wave packet.

→ Phase velocity represents velocity of a point of constant phase on wavefront.

Let  $x$  be position of a point on wavefront of wave, then

Phase velocity  $v_p = \frac{dx}{dt}$ , we know,  $\omega t + kx = \text{constant}$  or

$$\Rightarrow v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\omega}{k}$$

→ we can also get it by  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ ,  $\omega = 2\pi\nu$ ,  $v = \lambda\nu$ ,  $v$  is linear frequency of wave.

Group velocity:

Group velocity is defined as physical velocity with which a wave packet or wavegroup travels.

→ If all component waves making up a wave packet travel with same phase velocity, the wave packet also move with same velocity & maintains its form unchanged.

→ If phase velocity varies with wavelength, the component waves do not proceed together. In this case wave packet have different velocity from  $v_p$  of component waves of wavepacket.

⇒ Group velocity is defined as rate of variation of angular frequency with wave number.

$$v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} \quad \text{Here, } \omega = \text{angular frequency of wave}$$
$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \text{magnitude of propagation vector}$$

Note:

"The phenomenon of variation of  $v_p$  with  $\lambda$  of component waves of wavepacket is called Dispersion."

→ If constituent waves of wavepacket travel with same

velocity of wave packets then,  $v_p = v_g$ . This happens in case of light waves moving in vacuum.

→ If wave packet moves with  $v_g \neq v_p$  within it constituent waves may move with  $v_p$  then,  $v_p$  can't be defined for a wave packet.

Eg: Electromagnetic signals transmits with  $v_g \neq v_p$ .

### Generation of ultrasonic waves:

We discuss magnetostriction method & piezoelectric effect for generation of ultrasonic waves.

#### Magnetostriction effect:

→ Magnetostriction is a property of ferromagnetic materials that causes them to change their shape when subjected to a magnetic field.

Magnetostriction method is used to produce waves in frequency range of 20kHz to 100kHz. & discovered by 'Jaule'.

⇒ when a rod of ferromagnetic materials such as iron or nickel is kept in magnetic field parallel to its length, the rod suffers a change in its length. The SL is in order of 1ppm. The SL is independent of direction of  $B_0$  & depends only on magnitude of field & nature of material.

This phenomenon is known as magnetostriction.

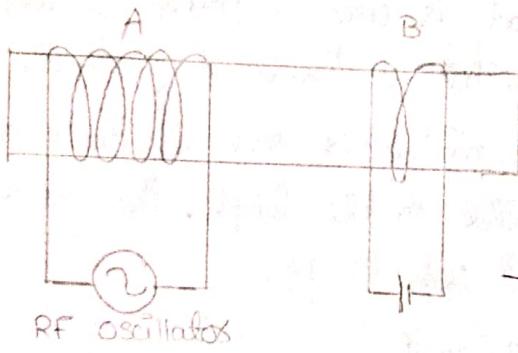
Note: Nickel exhibits large magnetostriction effect compared to other ferromagnetic materials.

\* → A simple way of producing longitudinal vibrations is to apply an AC magnetic field parallel to axis of rod of a ferromagnetic material. An AC magnetic field is produced by coiling coil of wire to rod & pass alternating current through it.

→ If Alternating  $B_0$  oscillates at frequency  $f$ , rod changes in length once in each half cycle.

- It makes vibrations in rod having 'f' twice the 'f' of  $B_0$ .
- If rod is not magnetized initially, the resulting changes in its length are independent of direction of field. The change may be either elongation or contraction depends on material.
- Normally, amplitude of vibration is small but when 'f' of alternating field is equal to natural frequency of rod, resonance occurs & 'A' of vibrations considerably larger.
- If 'f' of alternating field lies in ultrasonic range, an ultrasound of frequency  $f$  will be generated in medium that is in contact with ends of rod.

As rod vibrates longitudinally...  $f = \frac{m}{2L} \sqrt{\frac{Y}{\rho}}$  is frequency of oscillations, where  $L$  is length of rod,  $Y$  = Young's modulus,  $\rho$  = density of rod &  $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$



If it is desired that 'f' of vibration of bar be same as that of A.C current, a steady "polarizing  $B_0$ " must be applied to bar.

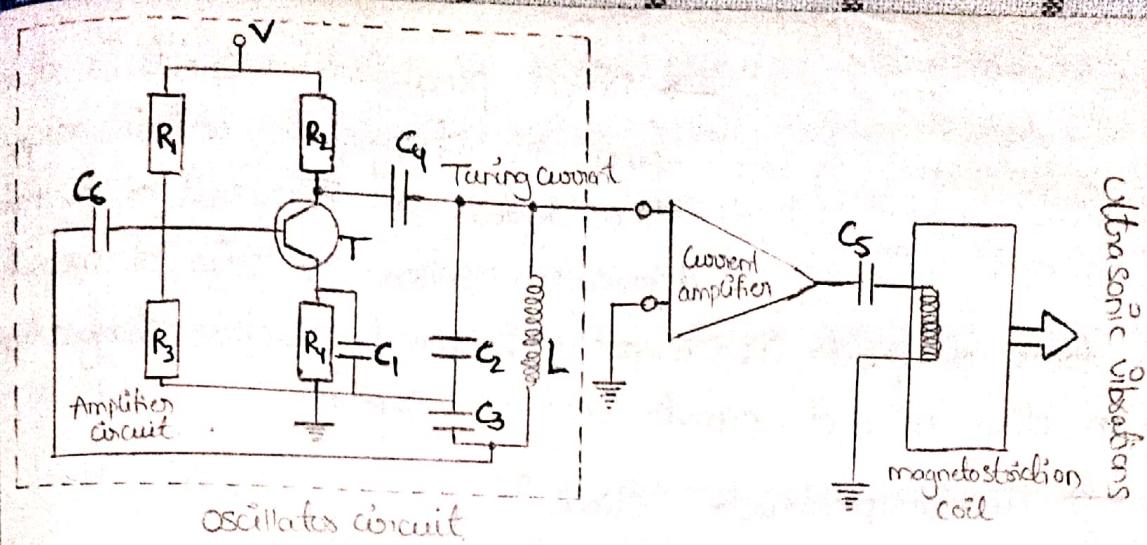
The polarizing  $B_0$  can be produced by passing DC current through a

2nd coil as shown in fig.

- If magnitude of polarizing  $B_0 >$  ac field, the 'f' of vibration of bar will be equal to that of ac  $B_0$ . [ $B_0$  = magnetic field]

### Magnetostriiction Generator:

The circuit diagram of a magnetostriiction ultrasonic generator using transistors is shown in fig. It's a "Colpitts Oscillator". The transistor T is biased with the help of resistances  $R_1, R_2, R_3$  &  $R_4$ . The inductance L & capacitors  $C_2$  &  $C_3$  constitute the tank circuit. When circuit is switched on, oscillations buildup in tank & are fed back to transistor base through feedback capacitor  $C_6$ . The appropriate 'f' are



amplified & the oscillations corresponding to them are sustained.

The oscillations appearing at output terminals of oscillator circuit are fed to a current amplifier, which raises level of oscillations. The output of I amplifier is fed to magnetostriiction coil through coupling capacitors  $C_5$ . Under action of high 'f' electrical signal passing through coil, the magnetization of nickel bar within coil varies & it produce ultrasonic waves.

## Advantages

1. Magnetostrictive materials are inexpensive.
  2. Large output powers can be produced.

## Disadvantages :

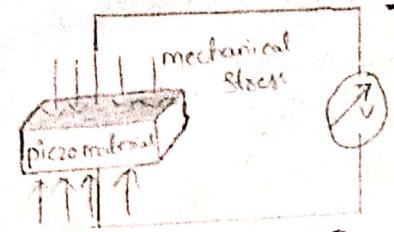
1. Frequencies higher than 300khz can't be generated.
  2. Single frequency oscillations can't be generated.

## Piezoelectric Effect :

"piezoelectric effect is ability of certain materials to generate an electric charge in response to applied mechanical stress."

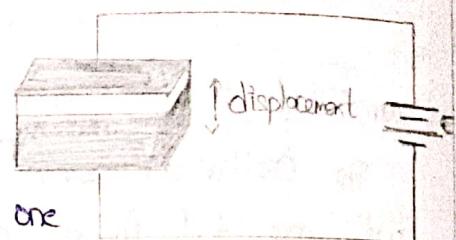
- piezoelectric & paul-jean curie discovered this in 1880.
  - Ammonium phosphate, Quartz, PZT (lead zirconate titanate) etc.,  
are examples of piezoelectric materials.

Two types of piezoelectric effect, Direct and inverse are possible. The inverse piezoelectric effect is used in producing ultrasonic waves.



→ Direct piezoelectric effect is development of charges in certain piezoelectric crystals as a result of mechanical deformation. When one pair of opposite faces of quartz is compressed, opposite electric charges appear on other pair of opposite faces of crystal.

→ Inverse piezoelectric effect is mechanical deformation of piezoelectric materials caused by an electric field.

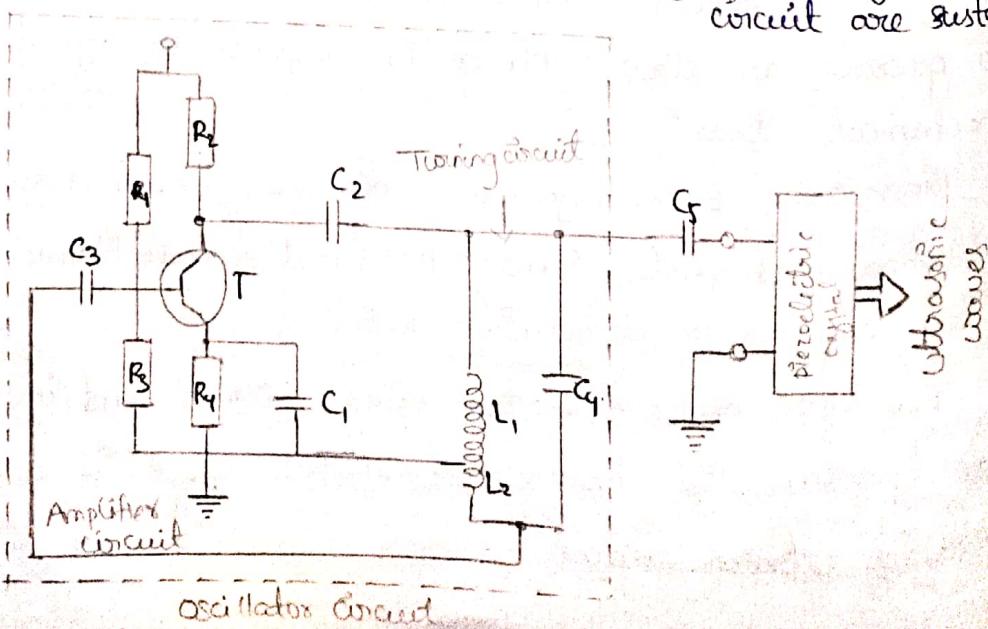


If electric field is applied across one pair of faces of crystal, it gets deformed along direction of other opposite pair of faces. If an alternating voltage is applied b/w two opposite faces of crystal it vibrates with 'f' of field.

### Piezoelectric Generators :

The circuit diagram of piezoelectric ultrasonic generator using transistors is shown in fig. It is "Hartley oscillator".

The Transistor is biased using network of resistances  $R_1, R_2, R_3$  &  $R_4$ . The coils  $L_1$  &  $L_2$  & capacitor  $C_4$  constitute tuning circuit. The tuning circuit is coupled to transistor T through coupling capacitor  $C_2$ , capacitor  $C_3$  provides +ve feedback to amplifier T. The oscillations generated by tank circuit are sustained



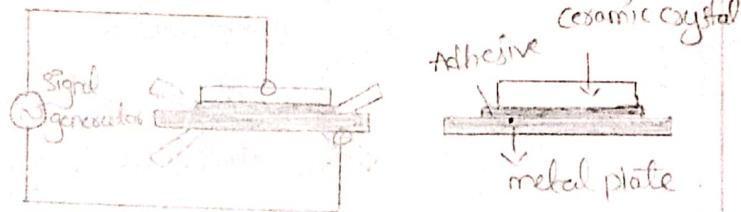
Electrical frequency signal obtained at output is applied to electrodes of piezoelectric crystal through the coupling capacitors  $C_5$ . Due to high 'f' electrical signal applied to it, it produces ultrasonic waves. The frequency of these waves can be varied by varying values of components of tuning circuit.

**Piezoelectric diaphragm:** It consists of piezoelectric plate with electrodes on both sides. Applying DC voltage to electrodes causes mechanical distortion by expanding in radial direction causing metal plate to bend due to piezoelectric effect.

Reversing polarities of

DC voltage causes the ceramic plate to shrink,

bending metal plate in



opposite direction, when AC voltage is applied across electrodes the diaphragm bending in two directions. The repeated bending motion produces ultrasonic waves in air.

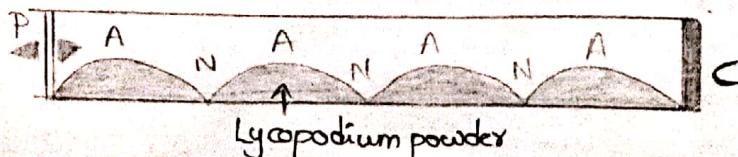
Advantages:

1. High frequency waves of 'f' upto 500 mhz can be generated.
2. Single frequency output can be obtained
3. A range of frequencies can be covered using different transducers.

### Detection of ultrasonic waves:

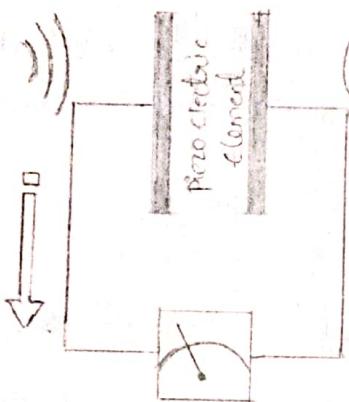
1. Kundt's tube method: In 1866, Adolph Kundt developed a method to detect ultrasonic waves of relatively longer  $\lambda$ 's. Kundt's tube consists of horizontal glass tube about 1m long & 5cm in diameter supported horizontally. The tube has a vibrating piston at one end & is closed at other.

A small amount of lycopodium powder is sprinkled along inner surface of tube. When longitudinal waves are excited at



piston 'P' passes through tube. The Lycopodium powder will be in tube in form of heaps at antinodes & is blown off at nodes. The appearance of heaps indicates presence of waves & means distance b/w two successive heaps is equal to half the magnitude of wavelength ( $\lambda/2$ ) of ultrasonic waves.

## 2. Piezoelectric Transducer:



A Transducer is a device that converts small amounts of energy from one kind into another. Crystals which acquire a charge when compressed are said to be piezoelectric. The piezoelectric transducer converts mechanical energy (ultrasonic waves) into electrical energy & vice versa.

In case of detection of waves, ultrasonic waves are applied to one pair of faces of a quartz crystal. As a result, varying electric charges are produced on other pair of faces of crystal. These charges are very small & amplified and detected.

## 3. Thermal detection:

A fine platinum wire probe is used in this method of detection of ultrasonic waves. Due to alternate compressions in the medium resulting from ultrasonic waves, there occurs a change of temp. at nodes. As platinum probe moves in medium, resistance changes at nodes & is detected by using a sensitive bridge.

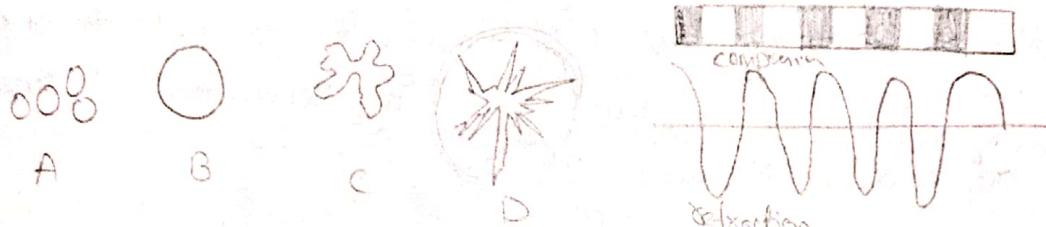
## 4. Sensitive flame method:

When a narrow sensitive flame is moved along medium, the flame remains steady at nodes, & flickers at antinodes, because there is a change of pressure. The avg dist. b/w 2 adjacent antinodes is half the wavelength. Given 'f' of ultrasonic wave, the velocity of wave through medium can also be determined.

## Cavitations :-

Cavitation is a phenomenon in which static pressure of liquid reduces to below liquid's vapour pressure, leading to formation of small vapor-filled cavities in liquid.

- The pressure & vacuum waves in liquid medium produces the ultrasonic cavitation.
- In vacuum phase A. No. of bubbles forms in -ve pressure & in phase B they all collapses by huge -ve pressure. In phase C temp. of gas increases and as a result bubble collapse inwards and energy is released.



- Cavitations means formation of Bubbles - empty space. These Bubbles collapse inwards, implode as fast as they created. It happens millions of times per second.

## Determination of velocity in a liquid :-

Determination of velocity of ultrasonic waves in a medium basically consists of determining wavelength of wave in medium. There are two methods: 1. Interferometer method.  
2. Acoustic diffraction method.

### 1. Interferometer method :-

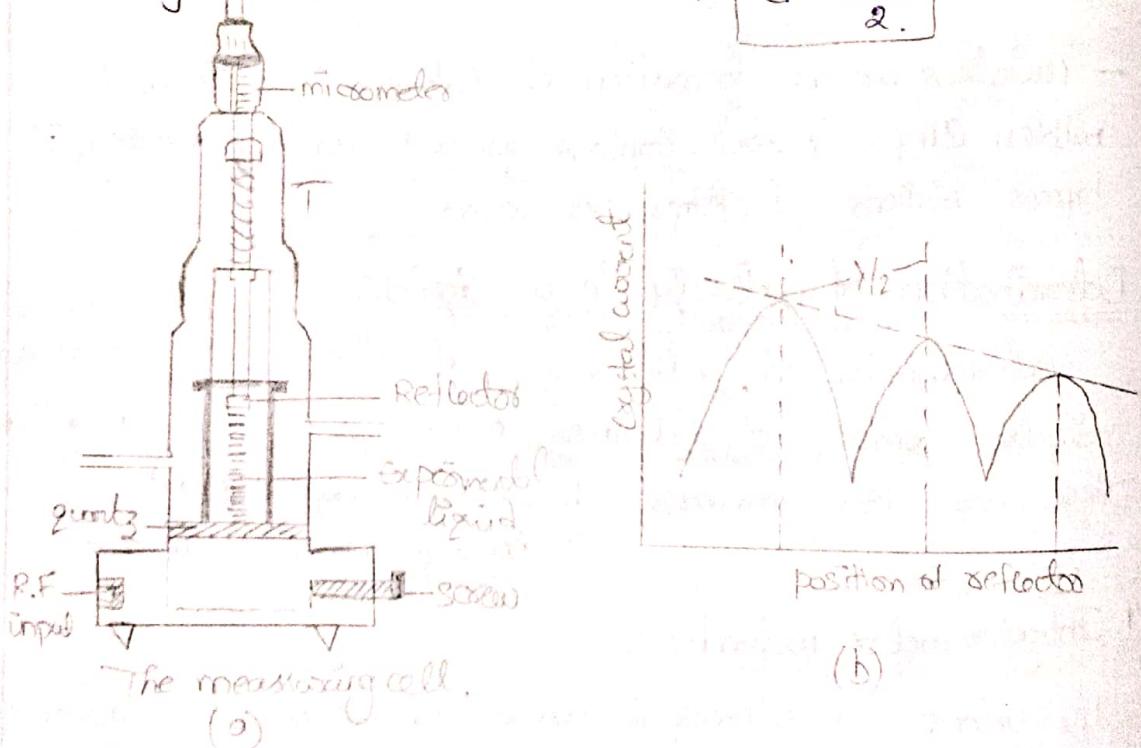
The velocity of ultrasonic waves is determined using an ultrasonic interferometer.

Experimental setup: The interferometer consists of an ultrasonic generator having a liquid cell connected to its tank circuit. The cell,  $\frac{1}{1}$ , is a vertical cylindrical tube filled with liquid medium under test. A quartz crystal is mounted at bottom of cell. Reflector is a metallic plate, mounted at top end of cell & it can be moved parallel to itself.

with help of a micrometer screw. The surface of crystal & reflectors are made exactly parallel to each other.

Working: When quartz crystal is excited, the ultrasonic waves of known 'f' are produced & propagate through liquid. These waves are reflected at reflectors & travel back to quartz crystal. Standing waves are produced when the separation among these plates is a whole multiple of sound wavelength in medium & acoustic resonance happens. The resonant waves causes a max. in anode current of piezoelectric generator. If dist. 'd' is now increased or decreased & the variation is exactly one-half wavelength or multiple of it, anode 'I' again becomes max. If  $d'$  is separation b/w successive adj. maxima of anode 'I', then,

$$d = \frac{\lambda u}{2}$$



Ultrasonic interferometer (a) liquid cell & (b) current variation.

Determination of velocity: The velocity ( $v$ ) of a wave is related to its wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) by relation, where 'f' is frequency of wave.

$$v = \lambda f$$

Then, knowing value of frequency of ultrasonic waves used, the velocity of wave in liquid  $v_u$  is computed by -

$$v_u = f \lambda_u = 2df$$

Determination of adiabatic compressibility of liquid : It indicates relative volume change of fluid in response to pressure change. Compressibility  $\beta$  is reciprocal of Bulk modulus.

$$\text{Adiabatic Compressibility } \beta = \frac{1}{\rho v^2}$$

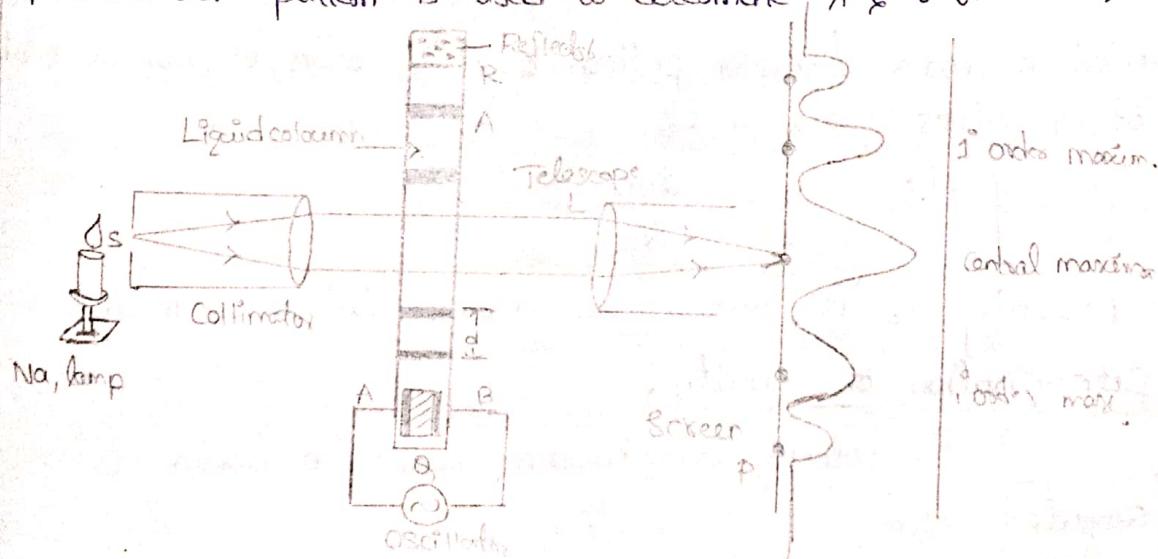
$\rho$  = density of material of medium,  $v$  = velocity.

## 2. Acoustic Diffraction method :

When ultrasonic waves travel in liquid medium, the density of liquid undergoes changes due to alternating compressions & rarefactions, which produces periodic variation of refractive index of liquid. Consequently, a liquid column subjected to ultrasonic waves act as grating called acoustic grating.

→ If monochromatic light is passed normally, the liquid causes diffraction of light.

→ Diffraction pattern is used to determine  $\lambda$  &  $v$  of waves.



Experimental setup : A glass tube is filled with liquid. The piezoelectric transducer  $Q$  is positioned at bottom of glass tube and a reflector,  $R$ , is arranged at top. The surfaces of crystal,  $Q$  & reflector,  $R$  are held perfectly parallel to each other.  $S$  is a slit through which monochromatic light passes & gets collimated & rendered parallel. The image of slit is focused on screen  $p$  by the lens ' $L$ '.

Working: when quartz crystal  $Q$  is at rest, light forms single image on slit on screen, when it excites, it goes vibration & produce ultrasonic waves. They propagate through liquid column & reflects at reflector at top. The two waves combine to form stationary waves in liquid column.

The density & hence refractive index of liquid is max. at nodal points & min. at antinodal points.  $\therefore$  Nodal points acts as opaque regions & antinodes as transparent region for light. The liquid thus resembles a ruled grating & causes diffraction of light. Image formed on screen consists pattern having central maximum flanked by 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> maxima & minima & so on...

### Determination of $\lambda$ :

Grating Eq.  $(a+b) \sin\theta = m\lambda$  is applicable to acoustic grating also. The grating constant  $(a+b)$  in this case equals  $\lambda_u/2$  is...

$$\frac{\lambda_u}{2} \sin\theta = m\lambda \quad \lambda_u = \lambda \text{ of ultrasonic waves.}$$

$$\lambda = \lambda \text{ of monochromatic light}$$

used to produce diffraction pattern &  $m$  is orders of maxima & takes integer values 1, 2, 3, ... etc.

$$\therefore \boxed{\lambda_u = \frac{2m\lambda}{\sin\theta}}$$

Determining  $\lambda_u$  is known as acoustic diffraction method.

### Determination of velocity:

1<sup>st</sup> the velocity of ultrasonic wave in liquid  $v_u$  is computed from

$$v_u = f \lambda_u$$

$$\boxed{v_u = f \frac{2m\lambda}{\sin\theta}}$$

$f$  is frequency of waves

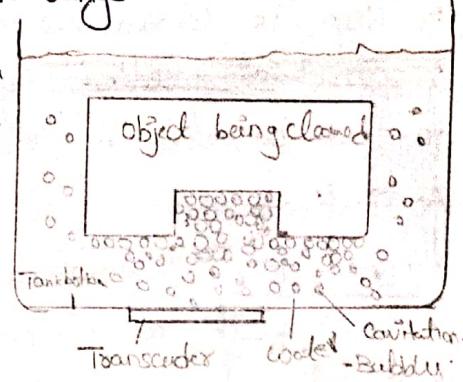
Q If  $\lambda = 6000\text{\AA}$ , 1<sup>st</sup> order angle of diffraction is  $0.046^\circ$  &  $f = 2\text{MHz}$ . find velocity in liquid.

$$\text{A} \quad v_u = \frac{2m\lambda f}{\sin\theta} = \frac{2 \times 1 \times 6000 \times 10^{-10} \times 2 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}}{\sin 0.046^\circ} = 2989 \text{ m/s}$$

## Industrial applications :-

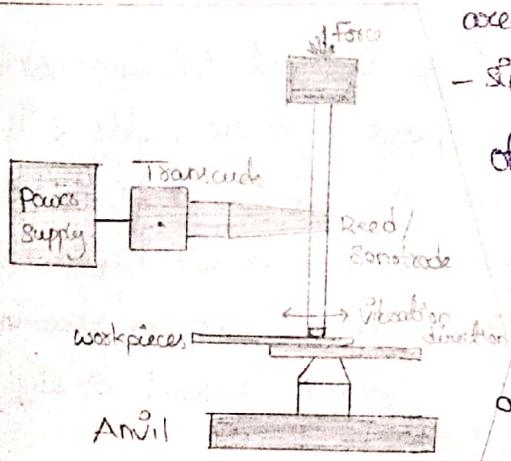
1. Ultrasonic Cleaning :- It uses concept of cavitation. used to clean hard materials such as metals, glass, ceramics etc which reflect sound. operates normally in range of 20-50 kHz.

An ultrasonic cleaning tank is a stainless steel metal tank that has piezo ceramic transducers attached on base or side. water with detergent & parts to be cleaned are suspended in liquid. A high 'f' (20 to 50 kHz) voltage is used to excite transducers, which makes tank bottom move rapidly & induces compression & rarefaction waves at ultrasonic 'f'. Cavitation happens & creates tiny pressure wave & cleans dirt in the particles.



## 2. Ultrasonic Metal welding :-

All metals & plastics can be welded using US waves of suitable energy. The US energy converts to heat at contact area as a result of friction area b/w surfaces. As temperature of surface layers exceeds the recrystallisation point, layers melt and bond together to form a strong joint. In this process it doesn't cause stress at spot of



welding & structure of materials remain unchanged.

US welding makes use of vibration energy at interface of joint to create bonding. The US energy is delivered to interface by a horn that is in contact with top part. The joint forms by diffusion & there is no melting point at joint. The equipment ranges from low power microbonders (40 & 60 kHz).

to machines of output capacity ( $10 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^3$ ) for welding of larger parts.

### Drawbacks:

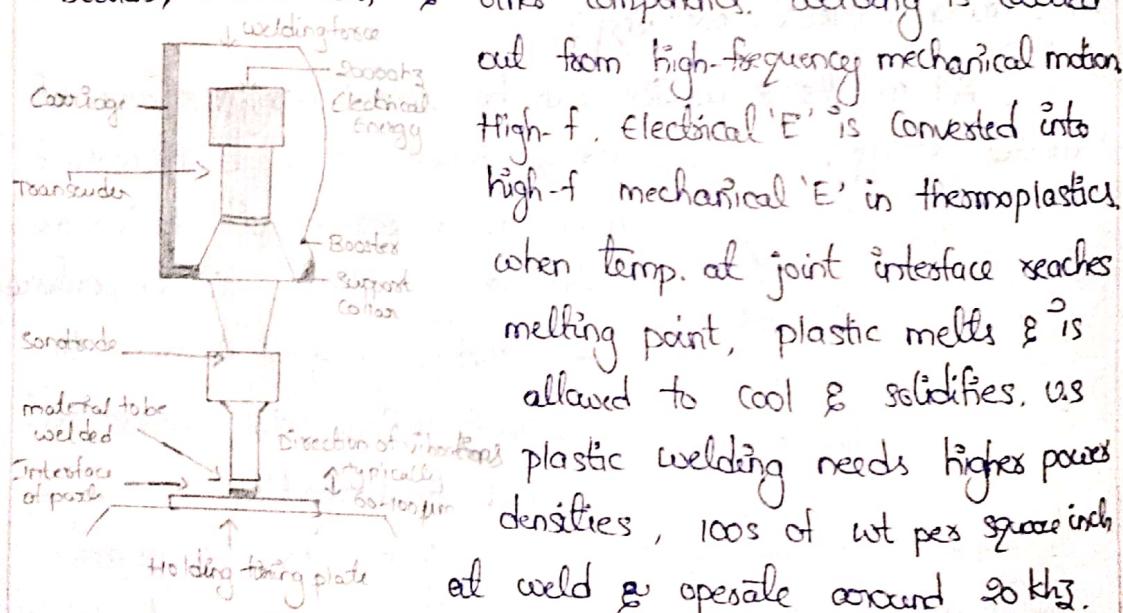
1. Mechanical contact is required on either side of joint.
2. Horn is consumable, so inspection & replacement is required.
3. Speed of welding cycle is low.
4. Joint geometry is limited to lap welding only.

### Applications:

1. useful for high resistance intermetallic compounds in dissimilar metal welds as process is relatively cold.
2. suitable for producing spot welds & line welds.
3. useful in electric & electronic industries in assembly of electric motors, transformers, switches and relays.

## 3. Ultrasonic plastic welding:

useful in automotive industry for assembly of taillights, dashboards, heater ducts, & other components. welding is carried



out from high-frequency mechanical motion. High-f. electrical 'E' is converted into high-f. mechanical 'E' in thermoplastics. When temp. at joint interface reaches melting point, plastic melts & is allowed to cool & solidifies. As plastic welding needs higher power densities, 100s of wt per square inch at weld & operate around  $20 \text{ kHz}$ .

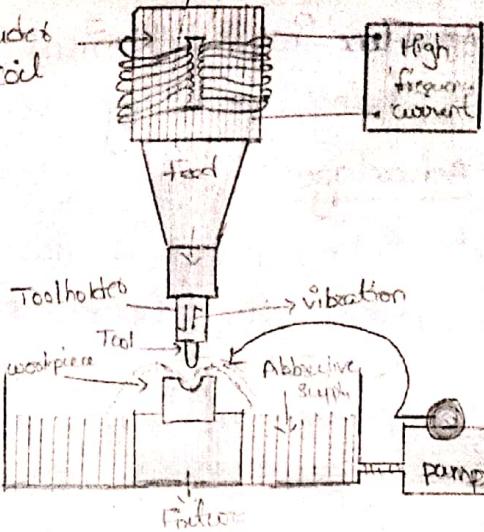
### Advantages:

1. It is fast, clean, efficient & repeatable process that consumes very little energy.
2. Solvents, adhesives & mechanical fastness are not required.
3. The finished assemblies are strong and clean.
4. process doesn't require skilled operator.

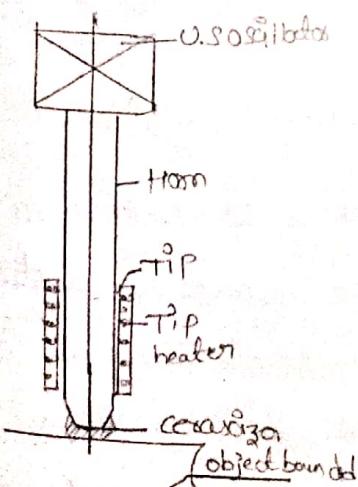
#### 4. Ultrasonic Drilling :

Ultrasonic machining is a vibratory process useful for mechanical treatment of hard & brittle solids such as ceramics, glasses, stones & hard alloys. The tool motion is produced by an acoustic concentrator to which tool holder is threaded. The acoustic concentrator consists of needle type magnetostriction vibrators made of thin isolated ferromagnetic plates of high magnetostriction such as 'Ni'. A coil is wound on needle, through which an A.C. of frequency 'f' passes. The core of vibrators vibrates at frequency '2f'. By choosing the 'f' to be equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$  natural vibrational 'f' of vibrator, the system is held at resonance & vibrations of needles will be of large amplitudes.

→ Abrasive particles bombard work surface at high velocity & shear off small pieces of material. The action rapidly chips away work piece in a pattern controlled by tool shape & contour.



#### 5. Ultrasonic soldering:



U.S. soldering is a flux free soldering method where surface oxide layers are cleaned by using vibrations & cavitations. During process, the solder is first heated by a separate source till it melts & then vibrational energy is applied to it. The U.S. vibrations induce cavitation at tip of soldering tool.

which cleans metal surface & liquid solder bonds them.

- This method is not suitable for soldering aluminum.

$\Rightarrow$  Flux is a chemical cleaning agent used before & after during soldering.

### Advantages:

1. Solder joint is free of voids because vibrational energy pushes the liquid solder into crevices & micro-pores in the substrate.
2. U.S soldering allows for fusing dissimilar materials which is not possible with usual methods.
3. As no flux is required, it saves time & costs of cleaning flux residues. These corrosion is less and durability of soldered joints is more.

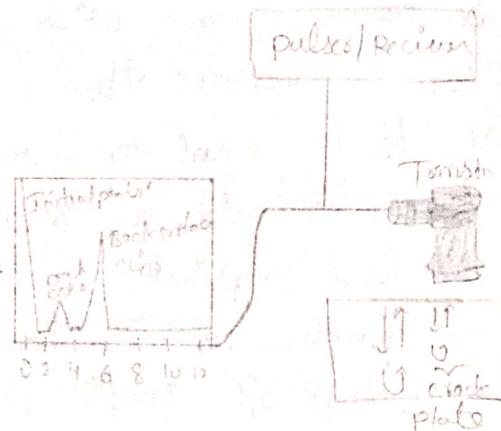
### 6. Ultrasonic Testing:

This method is used for detecting the internal & surface defects in sound conducting materials. The wave velocity is related to Young's modulus of material & its characteristic of that material. For contact testing, a probe with the oscillating crystal is used. To enable transfer of energy across the thin air gap b/w crystal & test piece, a layer of liquid usually oil, water or grease, is applied to surface of the test piece.

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{Y}{\rho}} \quad V = \text{velocity}, \quad Y = \text{Young's modulus}$$

The crystal oscillates in short pulses of ultrasound (1MHz to 6MHz) have less attenuation in homogeneous elastic material, such as metals. piezo electric crystals translate electrical pulses into mechanical oscillations & vice versa.

Thus, it acts as generators of sound waves as well as detectors of reflected pulses. As crystal oscillates in short pulses b/w each of which is inactive, in this state



crystal detects reflected pulses. The machine consists transducer, pulse, receiver/amplifier, & display.

### The sequence of operation of system:

1. The pulses provides short, high-voltage pulse to transducer and at same time it supplies voltage to time-base trigger module. It gives spot on CRT screen.
2. The voltage pulse given to transducer is converted into mechanical vibrations & pass through testpiece. All this time spot is moving horizontally across CRT.
3. The energy in testpiece now reflects off the back towards transducer, where it is converted into voltage & amplified.
4. By using delay (or zero) control, the spot on CRT is set to start at instant that energy goes into test piece.
5. The above process repeats until energy in test piece attenuates. The display will show multiple repeat signals.
6. The clock now sends a pulse and time and next pulse is produced. It is again repeated n numbers of times per second. The n no. of pulses per second is referred to as pulse repetition frequency (PRF) or pulse repetition rate (PRR).

### 7 Emulsification :

Immiscible liquids like water and oil mix thoroughly and form stable emulsions when their mixture is subjected to strong U.S waves. The us emulsification is used in industry to mix molten metal & form alloys of uniform composition.

## Non Destructive Testing:

NDT is a testing and analysis technique used by industry to evaluate the properties of a material, component, structure or system for characteristic differences or welding defects & discontinuities without causing damage to original part.

→ Also called as ND examination (NDE), N-D inspection (NDI) and ND evaluation (NDE).

### Types of Defects:

The defects found in components are classified into external and internal defects.

External Defects	Internal defects
Blow holes in castings	overbussed parts
Forging defects	Fatigue blow holes
metallic inclusions on surfaces	porosity in casting
surface finish	micro-segregation
micro-cracks	Axial segregation

### methods of NDT:

The common methods of NDT are 1. Visual inspection  
2. Liquid penetrant Testing 3. Magnetic particle testing 4. Eddy current testing 5. U.S testing 6. Radiography.

#### 1. Visual Inspection:

Visual NDT is mainly used for detection of surface defects. In this, the component is first adequately cleaned and illuminated with light and examined with unaided eye or with help of optical devices. Visual inspection can reveal info. on

1. General condition of component.

2. presence or absence of corrosive products on surface.

3. presence or absence of cracks & orientation & position of cracks
4. surface porosity etc.

Magnifying devices or lighting aids are used if necessary. microscopes, Borescopes, endoscope & flexiscope are some optical aids used in Visual NDT. These are used to figure out minute defects.

## 2. Liquid penetrant Testing:

Also known as dye penetrant testing is used for detecting minute discontinuities such as cracks & surface openings. cracks of 150 nanometres can also be spotted. This is useful to any non-porous clean material, metallic or non-metallic. particularly this method used for non-magnetic materials & it can also applicable for magnetic materials. simple to perform & cheaper.

Principle: when liquid penetrant is applied over clean surface the penetrant seeps into defect by combined action of surface Tension and Capillary action gives recognizable size of defect & location, size and nature of discontinuity.

### Basic process steps:

1. Surface preparation: It is initial cleaning and drying of the surface area of component. surface should be free from oil, grease, water or etc that avoid penetrant from entering flaws.
2. Penetrant application: Now penetrant is applied by spraying, brushing etc & should be spread uniform over surface.
3. Penetrant dwell: penetrant left for some time to dwell into crack. generally it takes 5 to 60 minutes.
4. Removal of excess penetrant: Excess penetrant should be removed from surface. The cleaning of surface is first treated with water & then rinsing with water.
- 5.

5. Developers application: Now, the surface is covered with thin layers of developer which draws out trapped penetrant from surface imperfections & makes them visible & left for lamin. Developers available in many ways & applied by dusting, dipping or spraying.

6. Inspection & fine cleaning: After inspection, surface is cleaned.

### Materials used:

1. Penetrants: These are oil-like liquids which have coloured dyes & classified as fluorescent, visible dye etc. Dye gives colour contrast under white light or uv light illumination so that defect becomes clearly visible. These are classified as a. water-washable b. solvent removable c. post emulsifiable.

2. Developers: This enhance the conspicuity of indication. Two types used are a) dry developers (amorphous silica powder) b) wet developers (contain powdered material in liquid). The developer must be highly absorptive to draw penetrant from defect & provide contrast background for location of defect.

### Advantages:

1. NO elaborate setup required & simply to apply & low cost.
2. portable and fast., Results are easy to interpret.
3. can be used to inspect any non-porous material.
4. Defects of any size & orientation can be detected.

### Limitations:

1. Can be used only to detect surface-breaking defects.
2. Surface must be cleaned.
3. Can't be applied to porous materials.

### 3. Magnetic particle Testing :

It is used for detecting occurrences of cracks, inclusions etc at surface and subsurface in ferromagnetic materials. Not applicable for Nonmagnetic materials.

When a test sample is magnetized, lines of force flow inside material, wherever there is flaw, magnetic lines are interrupted and lines leak out of material. The exit and entry points of leakage lines form opposite magnetic poles. If small magnetic particles sprinkled on material they attracted by magnetic poles & give image of size & shape of defect.

### 4. Eddy Current Testing :

It is used to inspect electrically conducting materials for defects, irregularities in structure and variations in compositions. In testing, a varying magnetic field is produced if a source of A.C is connected to coil. When field is placed near a conducting test specimen, eddy currents will be induced in test specimen. The eddy current, in turn will produce a magnetic field of their own. The detector measures now  $B_o$  & converts signal into a voltage that can be displayed on a C.R.O.

### 5. U.S Inspection method :

This method is versatile and widely used NDT method. Suggested by Sokolov in 1935 & applied by Firestone in 1940.

Principle: This is based on solid material's good conduction of sound waves. The waves are reflected at interfaces & by internal faults. The frequencies are generally in range of 0.5 mHz and 25 mHz are used.

The U.S waves are generated by piezoelectric devices. A pulse transmitter can generate high voltage electric pulses when these bursts of alternating voltage are applied to transducer, & it emits high frequency U.S energy.

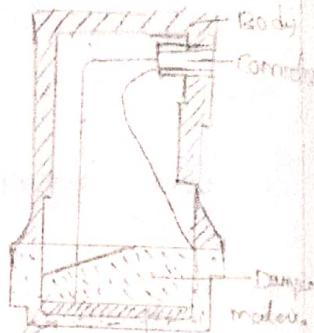
The U.S beam is passed through test piece. When there is a crack in wave path, a part of energy will be reflected back from the fault surface & converted into electrical signal by transducer. Signal is displayed on screen of CRT

### Transducer probes:

The 3 common piezoelectric materials used in probes are quartz, lithium sulphate & ceramics such as Barium Titanate and Lead Zirconate Titanate. The general used probes are:

#### a. Normal beam probe:

Electrodes are fitted on both faces of piezoelectric crystal & wire from these electrodes lead to connector socket of probe. Damping material is fitted at back of crystal. A wear plate is used to protect crystal. The entire assembly mounted in casing to protect transducer from mech. damage.

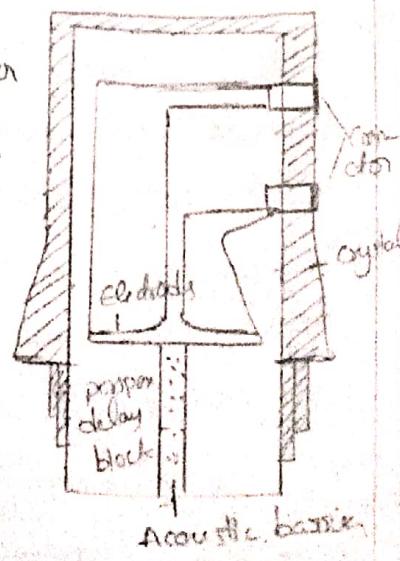


#### b. Angle beam probe:

In this transducer is mounted on a perspex wedge. The U.S beam reaches bottom flat surface of probe at an angle & reflects into material to be tested. The part of beam reflected from wedge is damped with damping material.

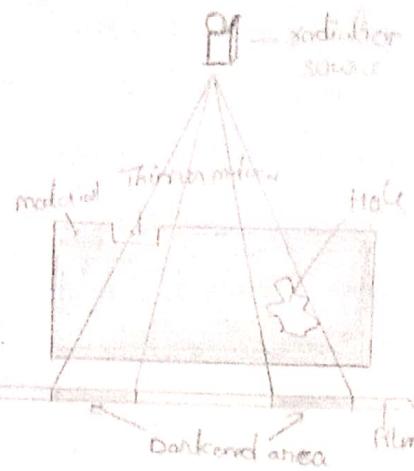
#### c. Transmitter-receiver probe:

This consists of separate transmitter and receiver incorporated in a single housing. The transmitter & receiver transducers are of same frequency. They are arranged inclined slightly towards each other. Delay blocks of perspex are added to both transducers & an acoustic barrier is kept b/w them to prevent any cross-talk.



## 6. X-Ray Radiography:

It is used for detecting presence and location of internal cavities. X-Ray examination of material carried out by radiography & fluoroscopy.

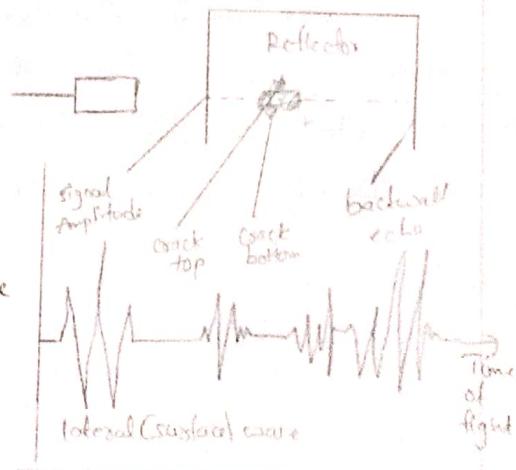


If a beam of X-rays is directed normal to surface of an object & if object is uniform thickness it will give equal intensity of transmitted beam, or if it has groove or cavity or discontinuity a variation in X-ray transmission will result at these points. As X-rays are invisible these are recorded on a photosensitive film. The image of cavity inside object will appear darker than surrounding area bcs of greater X-ray transmission at that point.

Generally A-scan, B-scan & C-scan formats are used for U.S. data presentation.

### i. A-scan presentation:

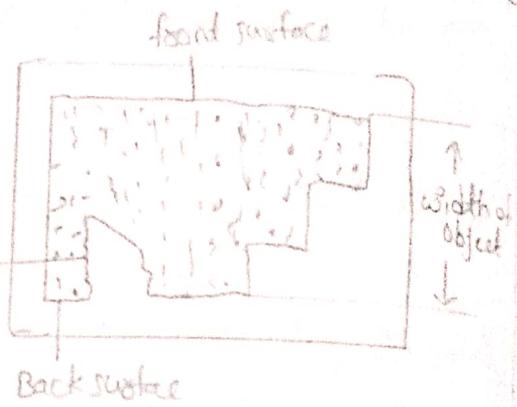
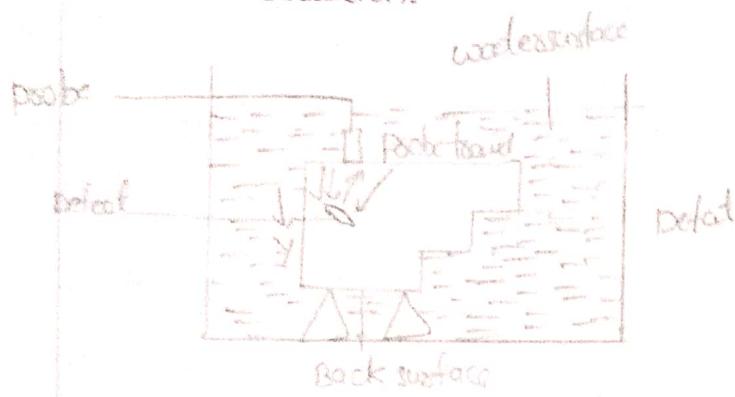
It is most used mode of display in U.S. testing. The X-axis represents time taken by pulse to the reflecting surface & return back to transducer. Y-axis represents amplitude of echo. The defect location is estimated by position of echo given it on X-axis, size of defect from Y-axis. The info. available is 1-D.



### ii. B-scan presentation:

This gives a cross-sectional view of test object and shows position, orientation & depth of defects in specimen. In this mode of display, Y-axis represent elapsed time while X-axis gives location of transducer along a line on surface of specimen in relation to starting position. Thus,

the probe movement is displayed in x-direction while dist. of defect is displayed in y-direction. Echo amplitude is indicated by relative brightness of echo indications. If a storage oscilloscope is used, whole picture will be displayed which reveals depth of defect beneath surface & its size in the lateral direction.



### (iii) C-scan presentation:

The depth of defects is not relevant in some testing problems, but info. about their distribution parallel to test surface is required. In C-scan mode, transducer is moved over surface of test piece & the echo intensity object as viewed from is recorded as a variation in line shading (fig.). The image shows plan of object as viewed from the top & is true to scale reproduction of defect in object. C-scan presentations is produced with a computer controlled immersion scanning systems.

