

Non-Destructive Testing (NDT)

Contrôles Non-Destructifs (CND)

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2025 – 2026



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Enjoy! (or not...)

① General information

② Background on NDT
Introduction to NDT

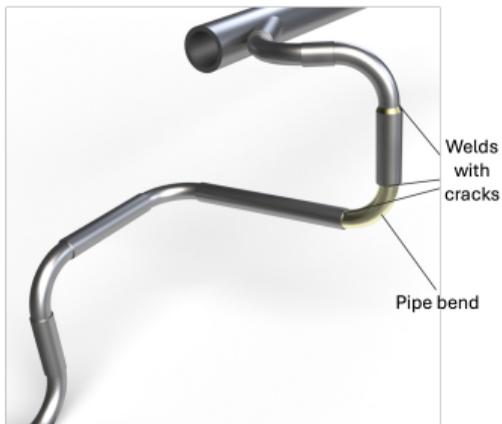
What are NDT?

Defects and some orders of magnitude

③ Some examples of common NDT

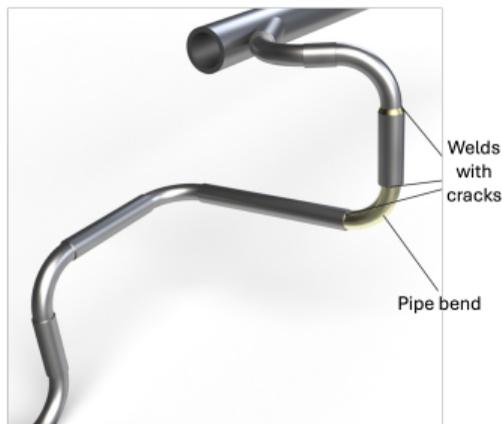
④ Some examples of less-common NDT

Why were 32 out of 56 nuclear reactors shut down in France during the winter of 2022/2023? [1]



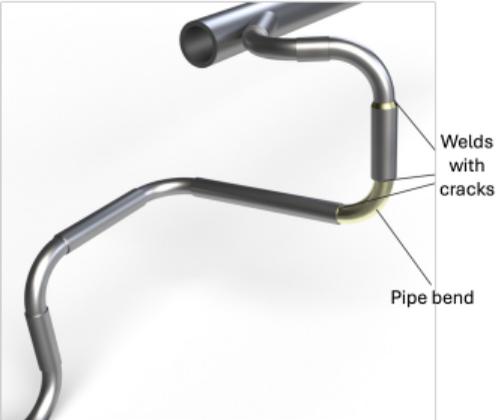
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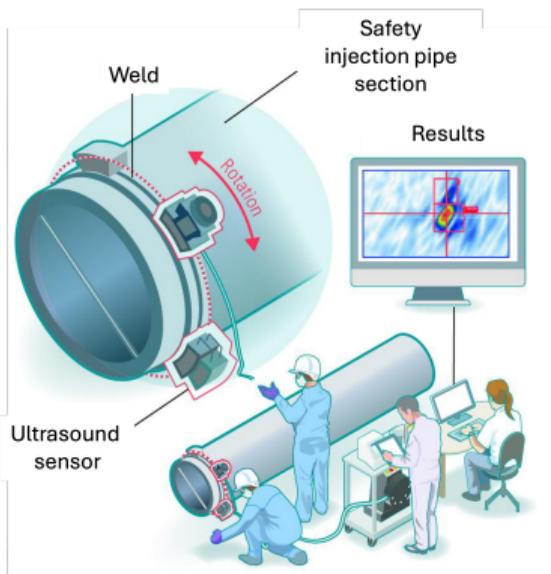
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- **August 2021:** Unexpected defects found at Civaux reactor 1 during its 10-year inspection.
- To characterize them, EDF *cut out* the affected piping and analyzed it in its laboratory at Chinon.

- ⇒ **November 2021:** A deep crack of 5.6 mm, extending over the entire circumference of the piping, is due to stress corrosion cracking (SCC).
- ⇒ **January 2022:** EDF identified similar defects in other reactors, prompting the shutdown of several units.

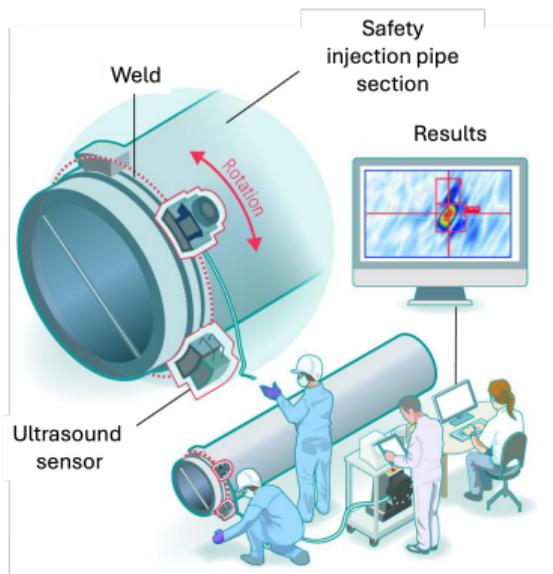
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April 2022: EDF has modified its control method by incorporating ultrasonic NDT for inspections.

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⇒ **We narrowly avoided a power blackout!**

X-rays: A prime example of NDT for medical applications [2]

- **November 8, 1895:** Wilhelm Röntgen made a screen fluoresce near a tube inside a black box.

X-rays: A prime example of NDT for medical applications [2]

- **November 8, 1895:** Wilhelm Röntgen made a screen fluoresce near a tube inside a black box.
- Then, he played with various objects revealing their transparency.
- *Including his wife's hand...*



- ⇒ **Since Röntgen did not understand their nature, he called these rays, X-rays!**
- ⇒ **Medical radiography was born.**

X-rays: A prime example of NDT for medical applications [3]

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- ⇒ **The radiography devices are few and too far from the front.**
- ⇒ **Marie Curie and her coworkers developed mobile radiography devices.**

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Introduction to NDT

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Defects and some orders of magnitude

③ Some examples of common NDT

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General principle of NDT

Excitation

Electromagnetic wave, mechanical vibration, magnetic field, thermal...

Perturbation

Anomalies, defects, or variations in structures or properties within the specimen perturb the excitation.

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Anomalies, defects, or variations in structures or properties within the specimen perturb the excitation.

Revelation

Eyes, sensor, signal, image...

⇒ **Interpreting the results of NDT means understanding the Physics behind it *a bit*...**

Few words on certifications

- Historically, the need for certifications originated from the nuclear industry in the USA.
- In the USA: ASNT (Association for non-destructive testing).
- In France: COFREND (Confédération française pour les essais non destructifs) from 1967.

The COFREND certification

- 3 levels of expertise

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The COFREND certification

- 3 levels of expertise
- 1 certification for each NDT technique and each industrial sector

Defects and some orders of magnitude I

Millimeter scale $1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$

- **Cracks** are fine, elongated discontinuities in the material that can grow and cause failure. They can be caused by fatigue, corrosion, or manufacturing defects.
- **Porosity** is small holes or voids in the material. They can be caused by gases dissolved in the material or by manufacturing defects.
- **Shrinkage** is localized areas of contraction in the material that can occur during cooling after manufacturing.

Defects and some orders of magnitude II

Micrometer scale $1 \mu\text{m} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}$

- **Microcracks** are extremely fine cracks, typically less than $1 \mu\text{m}$ in width, that can grow and cause brittle failure. They can be caused by mechanical stress, manufacturing defects, or degradation processes such as high-temperature corrosion.
- **Precipitates** are tiny particles of a different phase dispersed in a matrix. Precipitates can form during manufacturing or during the service life of the material.

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- **Voids** are small empty spaces in the material, typically less than $1 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.

Defects and some orders of magnitude III

Nanometer scale $1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$

- **Dislocations** defects in the crystal structure of a material. Dislocations can be created by mechanical stress or by degradation processes such as fatigue.
- **Atomic vacancies** are missing positions of atoms in the crystal structure of a material. Atomic vacancies can be created by mechanical stress or by degradation processes such as radiation.

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- **Grain boundaries** are the boundaries between the crystalline grains of a material. They can be sites of weakness and may be more susceptible to cracking than the bulk material. Grain boundaries can also be affected by impurities or defects.

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- ...

Families of defects

Open defects

- **Surface defects** are located on the surface of the material. They can be caused by factors such as manufacturing, wear, or corrosion. Common types of surface defects include cracks, scratches, pores, and burrs.

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Volume defects

These defects are located inside the material.

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- ② Background on NDT
- ③ Some examples of common NDT**
 - Visual testing (VT)
 - Dye penetrant inspection (DPI)
 - Magnetic particle inspection (MPI)
 - Ultrasonic testing (UST)
- ④ Some examples of less-common NDT

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Principle of visual testing (VT)

Definition

VT involves a close surface inspection for integrity-threatening defects, following set standards [4].

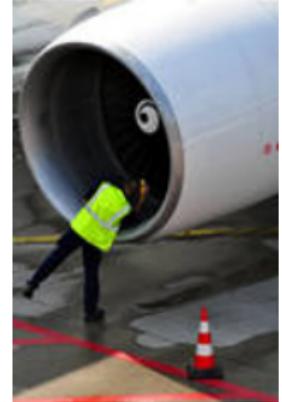
Principle of visual testing (VT)

Definition

VT involves a close surface inspection for integrity-threatening defects, following set standards [4].

Basic principle

VT relies on the human eye, with or without magnification and lighting, to spot surface defects by analyzing variations in texture, color, and gloss.



Pros/Cons

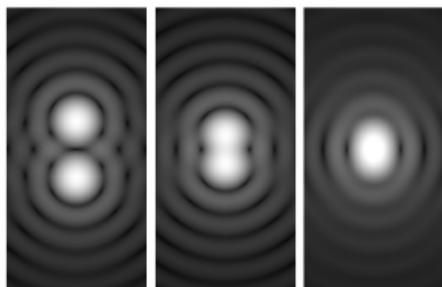
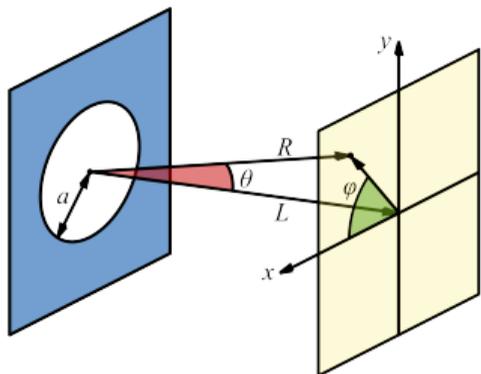
- **Pros:** simplicity, speed, low cost, applicable to a wide range of situations...
- **Cons:** surface only, subjectivity, good visual acuity and proper training...

A few words on the physics behind it

Resolution: Airy disk and Rayleigh criterion

It refers to the ability to distinguish between very close details.

$$I(\theta) = I_0 \left(\frac{J_1(ka \sin \theta)}{ka \sin \theta} \right)^2 ; k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$



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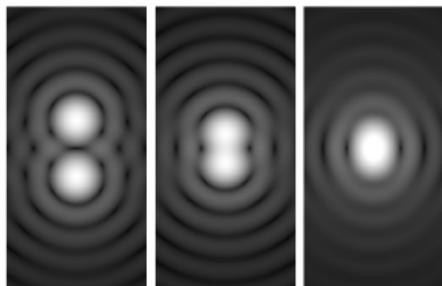
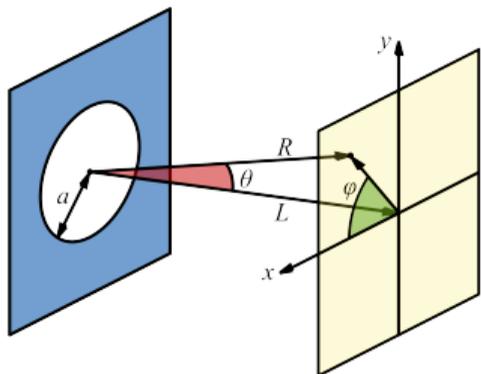
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The first dark ring is at:

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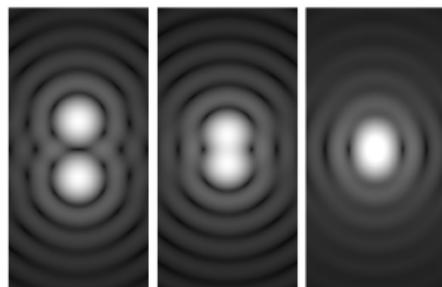
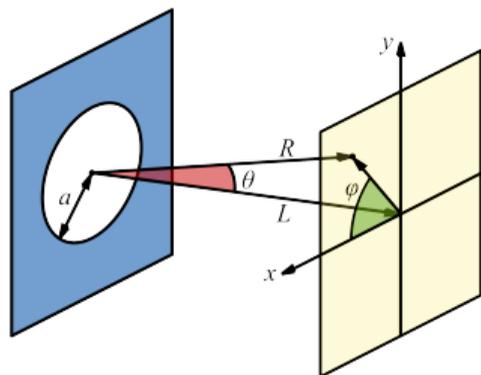
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The first dark ring is at:

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The 1st minimum coincides with the maximum of the other.

$$\Rightarrow \Delta r = L \tan \left(0.61 \frac{\lambda}{a} \right) \approx 0.61 \frac{\lambda}{a} L$$



Principle of dye penetrant inspection (DPI) [5]

Definition

DPI involves applying a liquid to highlight open discontinuities on the specimen.

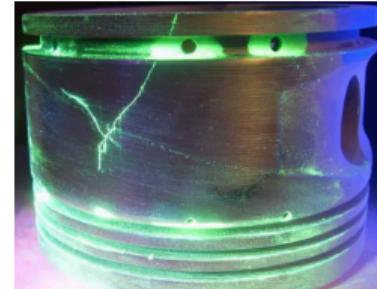
Principle of dye penetrant inspection (DPI) [5]

Definition

DPI involves applying a liquid to highlight open discontinuities on the specimen.

Basic principle

DPI is based on capillary forces and wettability, where a low surface tension fluid penetrates surface-breaking discontinuities. Then, the excess penetrant is removed and a developer is applied.



Pros/Cons

- **Pros:** simplicity, speed, low cost, applicable to a wide range of situations...
- **Cons:** surface only, surface precleaning, Chemical handling...

A few words on the physics behind it I

Surface tension

It is defined as the force existing at the surface of a liquid due to the attraction between molecules, which resists the rupture of the surface.

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Wettability

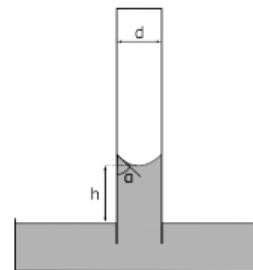
It is a measure of how easily a liquid spreads across or adheres to a surface and is influenced by the surface's chemical and physical properties.



$$h = \frac{4\gamma \cos \alpha}{d\rho g}$$

Capillary

It is the ability of a liquid to flow in narrow spaces without the assistance of, and often in opposition to, external forces like gravity.



Principle of magnetic particle inspection (MPI) II [6]

Various details

- Magnetization is "longitudinal" when applied parallel to the piece's greatest length or axis, and "transverse" when applied perpendicular.
- Longitudinal magnetization detects transverse defects; transverse magnetization detects longitudinal defects.

Longitudinal magnetization



Transversal magnetization



Principle of magnetic particle inspection (MPI) II [6]

Various details

- Magnetization is "longitudinal" when applied parallel to the piece's greatest length or axis, and "transverse" when applied perpendicular.
 - Longitudinal magnetization detects transverse defects; transverse magnetization detects longitudinal defects.
 - AC fields detect surface defects; DC fields detect subsurface defects.
- ⇒ Skin effect: electromagnetic phenomenon causing high-frequency currents to flow only on the surface of conductors: (f : frequency; σ : electrical conductivity; μ : magnetic permeability)

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi f \mu \sigma}}$$

Longitudinal magnetization



Transversal magnetization



A few words on the physics behind it I

Magnetic field (H)

H is the applied magnetic field, generated by external sources. Unit: $A\ m^{-1}$

Magnetization field (M)

M represents the material's internal response to H . Unit: $A\ m^{-1}$

$$M = \chi_m H \quad \text{where } \chi_m \text{ is the magnetic susceptibility.}$$

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Total induced magnetic field (B)

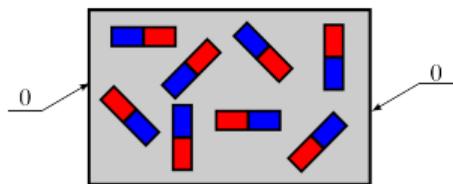
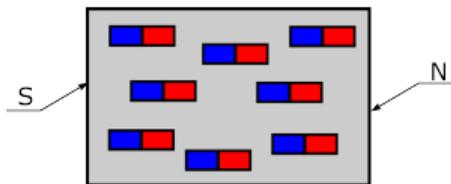
B is the total induced magnetic field. Unit: T.

$$\mathbf{B} = \mu_0 (\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{M}) \quad \text{where } \mu_0 \text{ is the vacuum permeability.}$$

A few words on the physics behind it II

$$H = 0$$

Unmagnetized ferromagnetic materials ($\chi_m \gg 1$) have tiny magnetic regions (Weiss domains) acting like random miniature magnets. This cancels out their overall magnetic field ($\mathbf{B} = 0$).



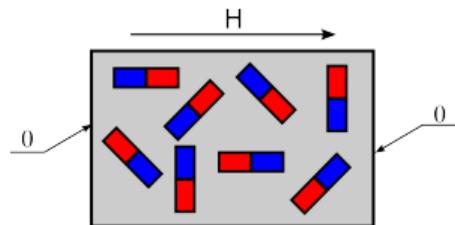
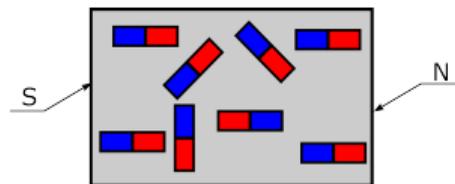
$$H \neq 0$$

When it is placed in a magnetic field ($H \neq 0$), all the magnetic moments gradually align parallel to the applied magnetic field. Once all the magnetic moments are aligned, a magnetic induction called "saturation magnetic induction" (B_s) is reached.

A few words on the physics behind it III

$H = 0$

Reducing the magnetic field (H) to zero doesn't fully reset the material. A remaining magnetic field exists, called "remanent magnetic induction" (B_r).



$-H$

It is then possible to apply a magnetic field of opposite direction $-H$. The value of the magnetic field that again allows to obtain a zero magnetic induction ($B = 0$) within the material is called "coercive field" (H_C).

A few words on the physics behind it V

Leakage magnetic field near a defect [6]

Very complicated. There is a lot of literature...

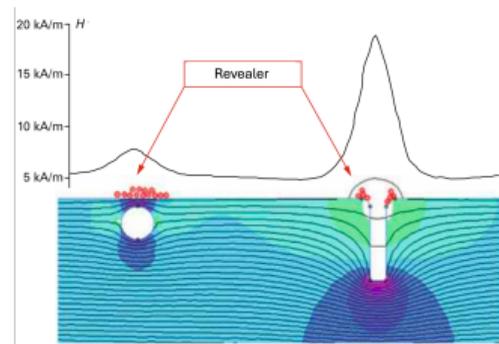
Field line

They are the set of curves that are tangent to the field at every point.

$$\mathbf{B} \times d\mathbf{l} = 0$$

Magnetic attraction force on a ferromagnetic particle of a volume V [7]

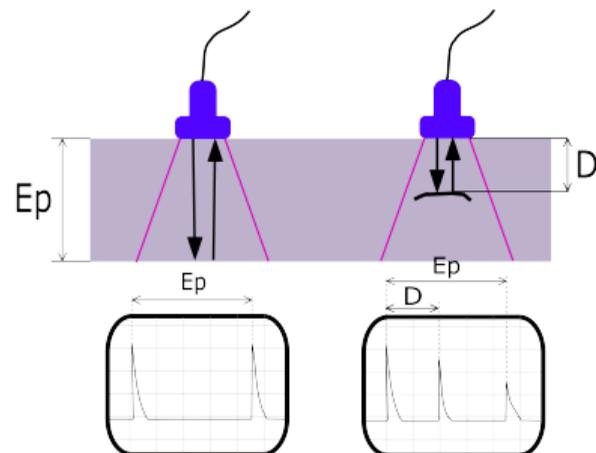
$$\mathbf{F} = \chi_m V \mathbf{B} \nabla(\mathbf{B})$$



Principle of ultrasonic testing (UST)

Basic principle

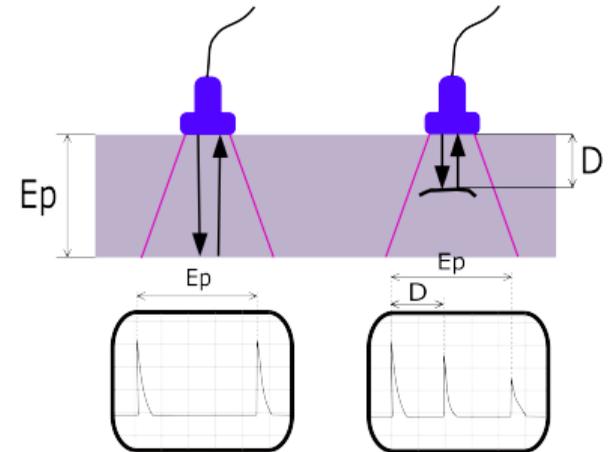
UST uses high-frequency sound waves transmitted through a coupling medium to inspect materials internally without damage. By measuring reflected echoes, it detects defects and thickness variations, revealing structural details and defects.



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Pros/Cons

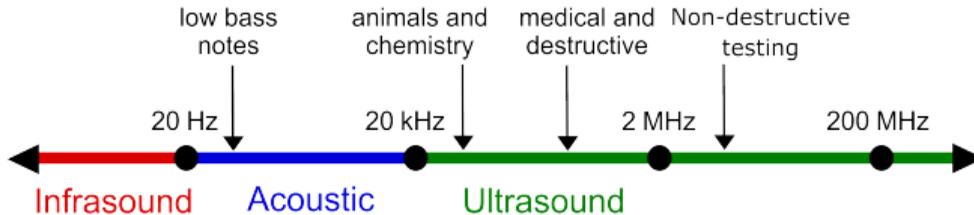
- **Pros:** High sensitivity, depth penetration, versatility, real-time, portability...
- **Cons:** Surface preparation, operator skill, equipment cost, geometric limitations...

A few words on the physics behind it I

Ultrasound (US)

US is defined as sound at frequencies (f) greater than 20 kHz. In air at atmospheric pressure, ultrasonic waves have wavelengths (λ) of 1.9 cm or less.

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f} \quad \text{where } c \text{ is the celerity}$$



A few words on the physics behind it II

What is a wave?

A wave arises when the local time disturbance of a physical quantity ψ induces a spatial variation in another quantity ϕ :

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = a \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = b \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

A few words on the physics behind it II

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Wave propagation: D'Alembert's equation

The combination of these two equations leads to the propagation equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = ab \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} \iff \ddot{\psi} = c^2 \Delta \psi$$

A few words on the physics behind it III

Elastic waves within a material [8]

An ideal elastic wave is a mechanical disturbance that propagates through a material, causing atoms to oscillate around their equilibrium positions without other changes.

A few words on the physics behind it III

Elastic waves within a material [8]

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Propagation of elastic waves within anisotropic materials:

$$\frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{\rho} C_{iklm} \frac{\partial^2 u_m}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} \quad \text{where } \rho \text{ is the density and } C_{iklm} \text{ the elastic coefficient tensor}$$

Propagation of elastic waves within isotropic materials (E, ν):

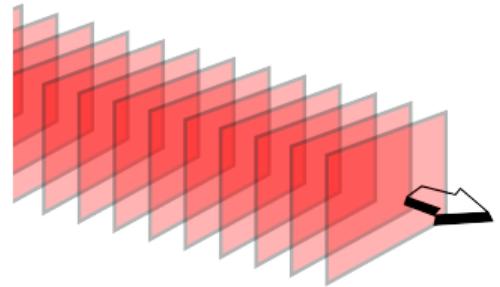
$$\frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial t^2} = \overbrace{\frac{E(1-\nu)}{\rho(1+\nu)(1-2\nu)}}{=c_L^2} \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_i^2} + \overbrace{\frac{E}{2\rho(1+\nu)}}{=c_T^2} \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_i \partial x_i}$$

A few words on the physics behind it IV

Plane wave

Far from the source, the US wave behaves as a plane wave, which has infinite, parallel wavefronts and propagates in a single direction with constant amplitude and phase.

$$u(\mathbf{r}, t) = A \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r} - 2\pi f t + \varphi \right)$$

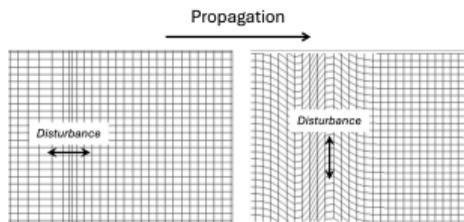
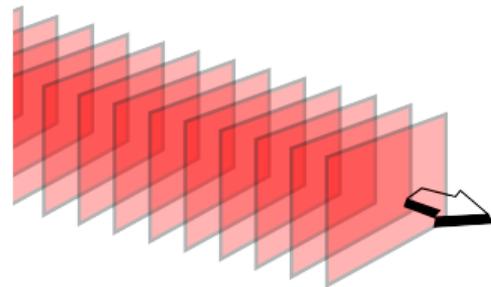


A few words on the physics behind it IV

Plane wave

Far from the source, the US wave behaves as a plane wave, which has infinite, parallel wavefronts and propagates in a single direction with constant amplitude and phase.

$$u(\mathbf{r}, t) = A \cos \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{r} - 2\pi ft + \varphi \right)$$



Longitudinal and transversal waves

A longitudinal wave (c_L) has disturbances in the direction of propagation. When the disturbance is orthogonal to the propagation, the wave is transverse (c_T).

Visualization of ultrasonic information

A-Scan

It shows the amplitude of reflected ultrasound waves over time, providing a one-dimensional view of internal material defects based on echo time delay and amplitude.

Visualization of ultrasonic information

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Visualization of ultrasonic information

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B-Scan

It creates a 2D cross-sectional view by moving a transducer across the material, showing internal structures and defects based on depth and position.

C-Scan

It provides a 2D top-down view of internal structures by scanning with a transducer in a grid, recording reflected signals to map defects or features.

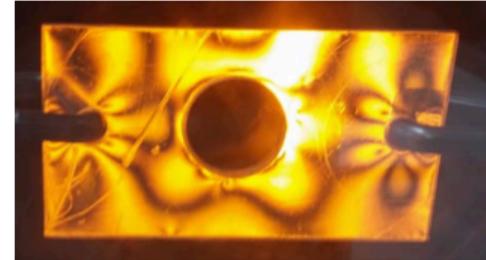
- ① General information
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Principle of the photoelasticity

Basic principle

It reveals stress patterns in transparent materials. Under polarized light, stressed materials show fringes, indicating internal stress distribution for visualization and analysis.



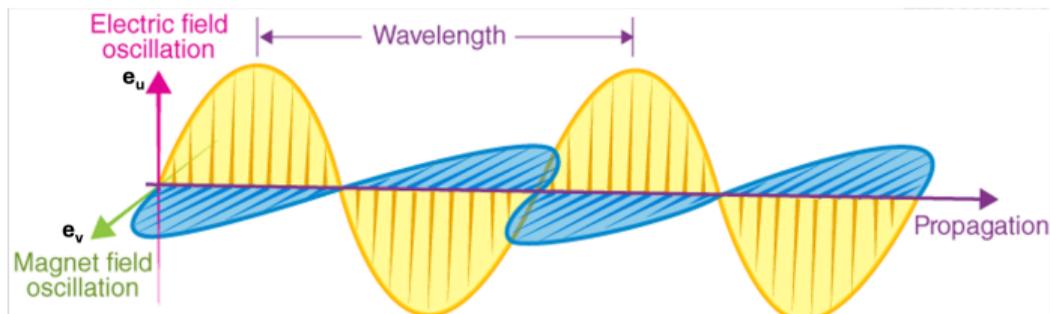
Pros/Cons

- **Pros:** direct visualization of stress distribution, detailed analysis...
- **Cons:** applicable only to transparent materials, setup complexity, primarily qualitative; precise quantitative analysis can be challenging....

A few words on the physics behind it I

Light

Light is electromagnetic radiation (\mathbf{E} , \mathbf{B}) that can be perceived by the human eye.



$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_u$$

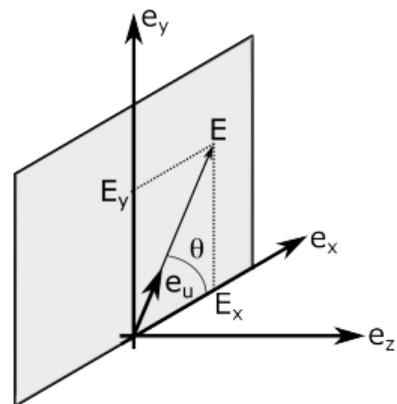
$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}, t) = B_0 \cos(\omega t - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{e}_v$$

where $\mathbf{k} = \frac{\omega}{c} \perp \mathbf{e}_{u,v}$ is the wave vector; $\omega = 2\pi f$ is the pulsation.

A few words on the physics behind it II

Polarization

It is the orientation of the oscillations of light waves in a specific direction ($\mathbf{e}_{u,v}$). Ordinary light vibrates in all directions, like chaotic waves. Plane-polarized light, on the other hand, is like "combed" light: its waves only vibrate in one plane. There are several types of polarization, including plane, circular, and elliptical.



$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{pmatrix} E_x \\ E_y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \phi_x) \cos \theta \\ E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t + \phi_y) \sin \theta \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t') \cos \theta \\ E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t' + \phi) \sin \theta \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

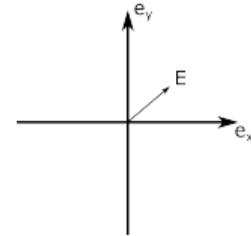
$$\text{where } \phi = \phi_y - \phi_x$$

A few words on the physics behind it III

Linearly polarization

$$\Rightarrow \phi = 0$$

$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_x + E_y \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_y$$

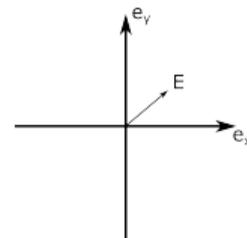


A few words on the physics behind it III

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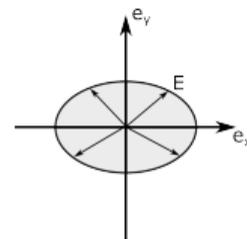
$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_x + E_y \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_y$$



Elliptical polarization

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi p, p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } E_x \neq E_y$$

$$\mathbf{E} = E_x \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_x \pm E_y \sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_y$$

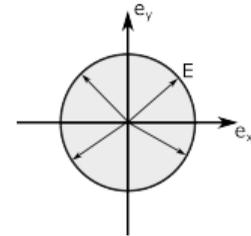


A few words on the physics behind it IV

Circular polarization

$$\Rightarrow \phi = \frac{\pi}{2} + 2\pi p, p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } E_x = E_y = E_0$$

$$\mathbf{E} = E_0 \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_x \pm E_0 \sin(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t) \mathbf{e}_y$$

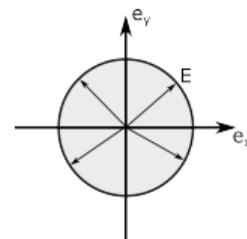


A few words on the physics behind it IV

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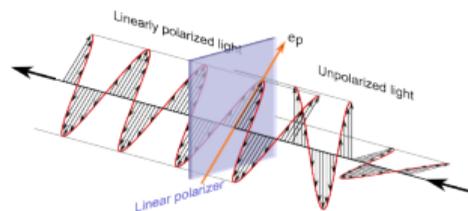
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Polarizer

It is an optical filter that passes light of a specific polarization while blocking others, typically made from aligned polymer chains ($\parallel \mathbf{e}_p$). Orthogonally polarized waves do not interfere.



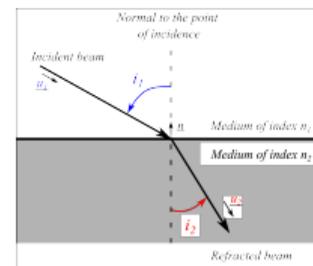
$$\mathbf{E}' = \mathbf{E} \cos(\widehat{\mathbf{e}_y, \mathbf{e}_p}) \mathbf{e}_p \Rightarrow I \propto \mathbf{E}'^2$$

A few words on the physics behind it V

Light refraction

When light enters a new material, it bends due to a change in refractive index, as described by the law of Snell and Descartes:

$$n_1 \sin i_1 = n_2 \sin i_2$$

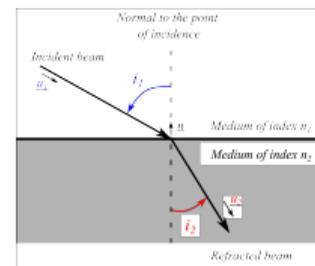


A few words on the physics behind it V

Light refraction

When light enters a new material, it bends due to a change in refractive index, as described by the law of Snell and Descartes:

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Natural birefringence



In anisotropic media, for a given propagation direction, there are two polarization directions that remain unchanged during propagation. These two directions are perpendicular to each other and have different refractive indices ($n_2 \neq n'_2$).

A few words on the physics behind it V

Accidental birefringence

Some transparent materials become anisotropic under stress, with the refractive index depending on the principal stress directions. The maximal and minimal refractive indices align with the principal stresses and are proportional to their intensity. By definition:

$$n_2 = \frac{c}{v_2} \neq \frac{c}{v'_2} = n'_2$$

⇒ One wave will be delayed with respect to the other.

A few words on the physics behind it V

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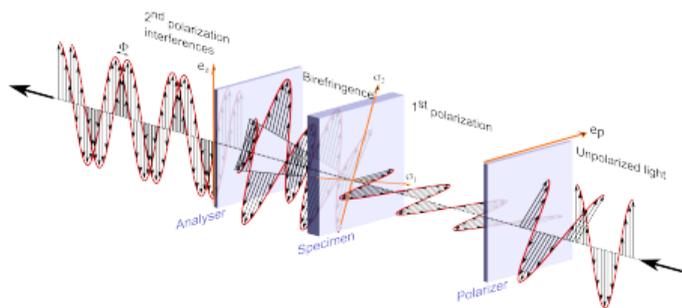
⇒ One wave will be delayed with respect to the other.

⇒ There is a phase difference between the two waves, defined as:

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi Cd}{\lambda} (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)$$

where d the thickness and C the photoelasticity constant.

Visualization of the photoelasticity information [9]

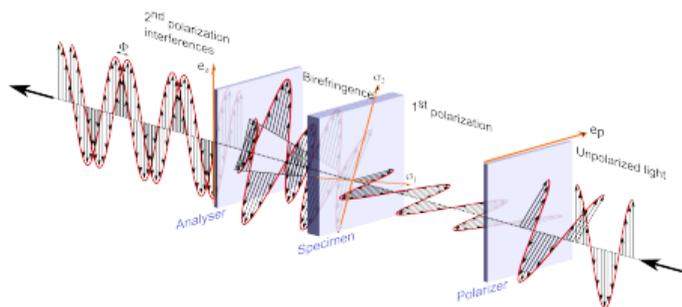


The specimen is placed between two polarizers oriented such that

$$\widehat{\mathbf{e}_p, \mathbf{e}_a} = 90^\circ. \text{ Therefore } I = I_0 \cos^2(\widehat{\mathbf{e}_p, \mathbf{e}_a}) = 0 \text{ (Malus's law).}$$

Visualization of the photoelasticity information [9]

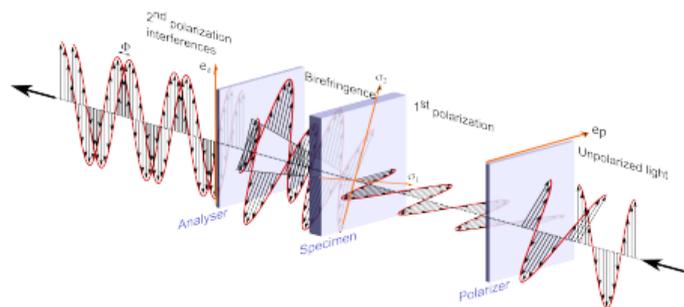
- Unpolarized light passes through the first polarizer, becoming polarized along \mathbf{e}_p .



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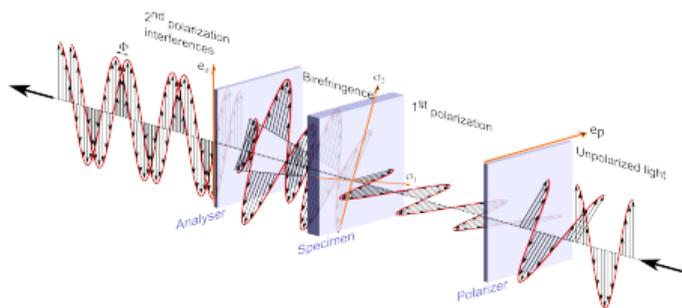


- Unpolarized light passes through the first polarizer, becoming polarized along \mathbf{e}_p .
- This \mathbf{e}_p -polarized light passes through the stressed specimen, creating two waves parallel to the principal stress directions, with one wave delayed by ϕ .

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Visualization of the photoelasticity information [9]



- Unpolarized light passes through the first polarizer, becoming polarized along \mathbf{e}_p .
- This \mathbf{e}_p -polarized light passes through the stressed specimen, creating two waves parallel to the principal stress directions, with one wave delayed by ϕ .
- After passing through the second polarizer (the analyzer), only the components along \mathbf{e}_a remain, causing the two waves to interfere. This interference results in a light intensity pattern dependent on ϕ .

The specimen is placed between two polarizers oriented such that $\widehat{\mathbf{e}_p, \mathbf{e}_a} = 90^\circ$. Therefore $I = I_0 \cos^2(\widehat{\mathbf{e}_p, \mathbf{e}_a}) = 0$ (Malus's law).

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Principle of the radiography

Basic principle

It uses X-rays or γ rays to inspect an object's internal structure non-destructively. The radiation creates an image on a detector based on how it is absorbed by different materials, revealing internal defects like cracks or voids for expert analysis.



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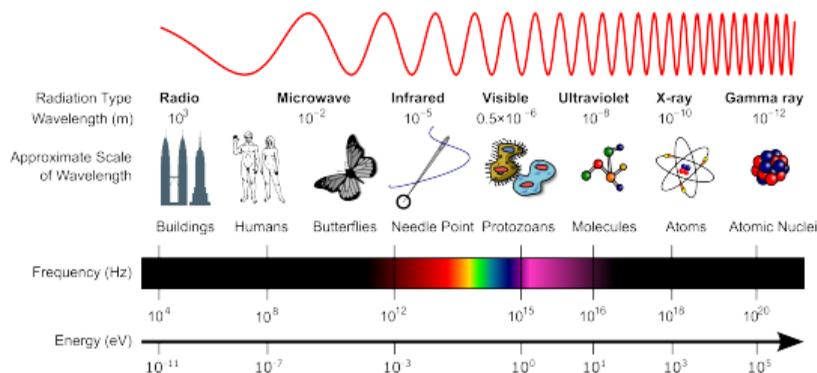
Pros/Cons

- **Pros:** internal inspection, permanent record, versatile, detailed analysis...
- **Cons:** radiation risks, specialized equipment, skilled interpretation...

A few words on the physics behind it I

Ionizing radiation

It consists of subatomic particles or electromagnetic waves with enough energy ($E_{rad} \approx 10 \text{ keV}$) to remove electrons from atoms or molecules, thereby ionizing them ($E_{ion} \approx 10 \text{ eV}$)



$$E = h\nu = \hbar\omega$$

where h : Planck's constant; ν : frequency; ω : pulsation

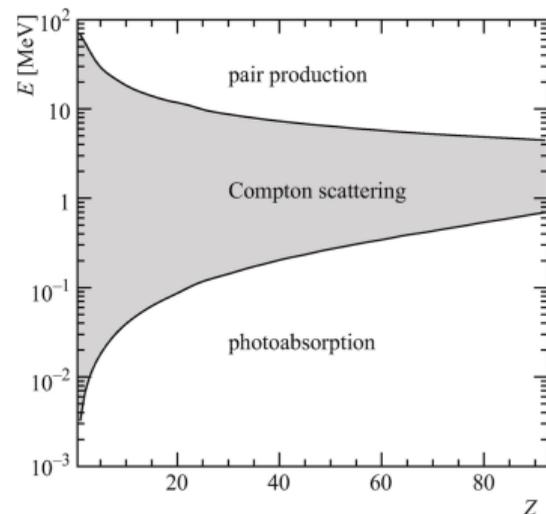
$$1 \text{ eV} \approx 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

A few words on the physics behind it II

Photon-matter interaction [10]

The main processes of photon-matter interactions are:

- Photoelectric effect
- Compton scattering
- Pair production

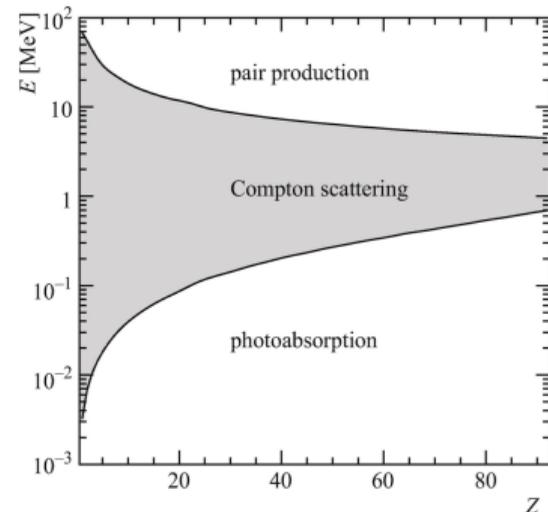


A few words on the physics behind it II

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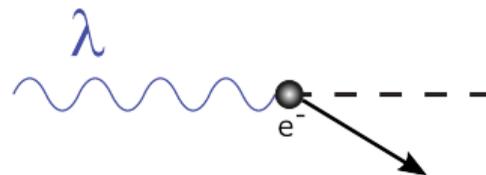
Cross section

It is a measure of the probability that a specific process will occur during a collision between two particles. (Unit: $1 \text{ b} = 1 \times 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2$)

A few words on the physics behind it III

Photoelectric effect

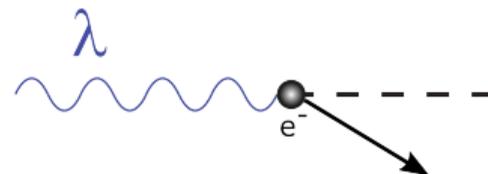
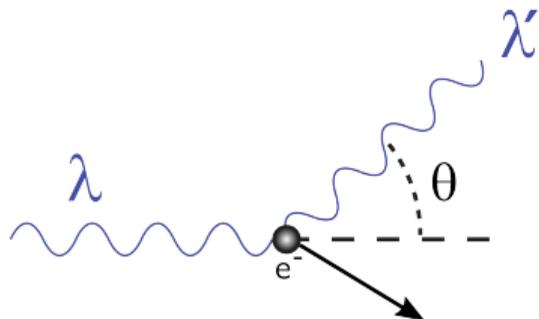
A photon transfers all its energy to an electron, ejecting it if the energy exceeds the electron's binding energy.



A few words on the physics behind it III

Photoelectric effect

A photon transfers all its energy to an electron, ejecting it if the energy exceeds the electron's binding energy.



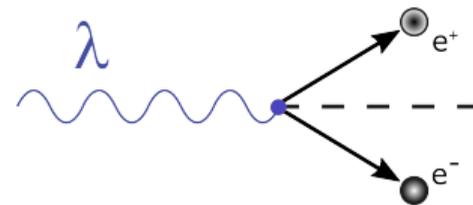
Compton scattering

An incident photon collides with a free or loosely bound electron, losing energy and changing direction. The electron gains this energy and is ejected with a new direction and velocity.

A few words on the physics behind it IV

Pair production

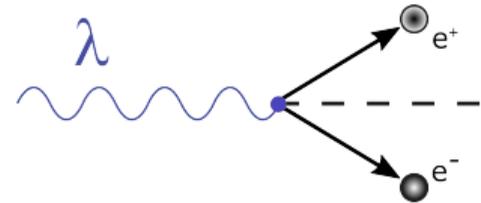
A high-energy photon interacts with an atom's nucleus and converts into an electron-positron pair.



A few words on the physics behind it IV

Pair production

A high-energy photon interacts with an atom's nucleus and converts into an electron-positron pair.



Other processes

- **Rayleigh Scattering:** It occurs when photons interact with particles smaller than their wavelength, scattering without a change in wavelength.
- **Fluorescence**
- **Raman effect**
- **Auger effect**
- ...

A few words on the physics behind it V

Attenuation laws

When a photon beam hits a material at normal incidence, some will interact, defining an interaction probability μ per unit length:

$$\mu = \mu_{Photoelectric} + \mu_{Compton} + \mu_{Pair}$$

A few words on the physics behind it V

Attenuation laws

When a photon beam hits a material at normal incidence, some will interact, defining an interaction probability μ per unit length:

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And the average distance traveled by a photon before interacting, known as the mean free path:

$$\bar{\ell} = \frac{1}{\mu}$$

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Attenuation laws

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And the average distance traveled by a photon before interacting, known as the mean free path:

$$\bar{\ell} = \frac{1}{\mu}$$

The number N of photons transmitted through the specimen with density ρ and thickness t is given by the Beer-Lambert law (N_0 being the initial number of photons):

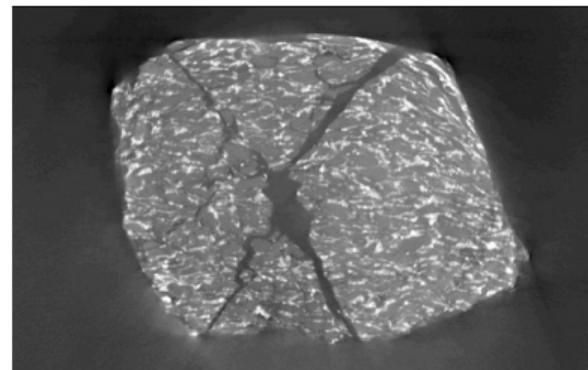
$$N = N_0 \exp(-\mu t) = N_0 \exp(\mu_{\rho} \times \rho t)$$

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Principle of the tomography

Basic principle

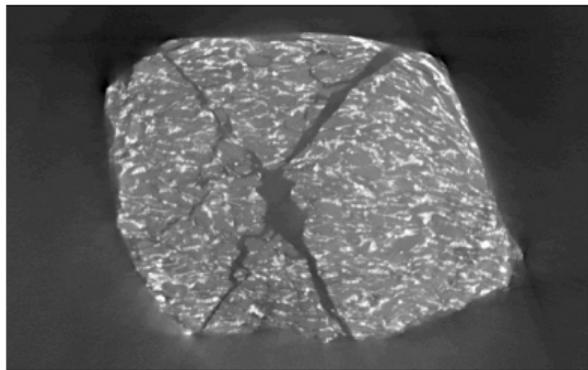
It creates detailed 3D images of the internal structure of objects. It works by taking multiple X-ray images of an object from different angles. These images are then processed using computer algorithms to reconstruct a cross-sectional, 3D image of the object's interior.



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Basic principle

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Pros/Cons

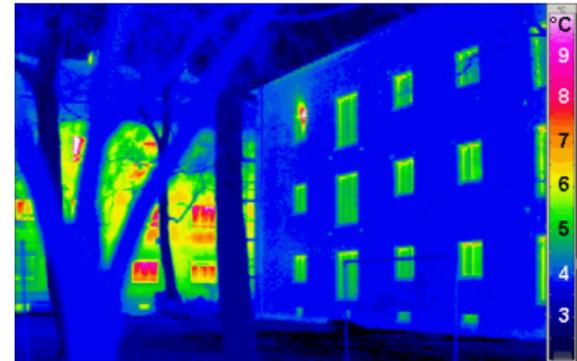
- **Pros:** high resolutions, versatile, 3D visualization...
- **Cons:** radiation risks, cost, artifact and noise, complex interpretation...

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Principle of the thermography

Basic principle

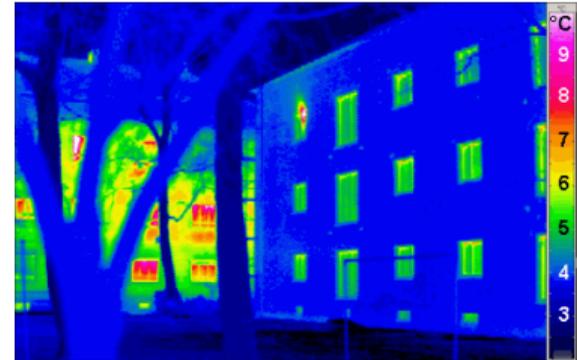
It uses infrared cameras to detect heat emitted by objects, capturing infrared radiation and converting it into an image where different colors represent different temperatures, revealing heat patterns and anomalies.



Principle of the thermography

Basic principle

It uses infrared cameras to detect heat emitted by objects, capturing infrared radiation and converting it into an image where different colors represent different temperatures, revealing heat patterns and anomalies.



Pros/Cons

- **Pros:** real-time analysis, broad applications...
- **Cons:** limited depth penetration, cost, environmental sensitivity, requires expertise...

A few words on the physics behind it I [11]

Black-body radiation

All ordinary matter emits electromagnetic radiation when its temperature is above absolute zero. This radiation can be approximated as blackbody radiation, which is emitted by a body in thermodynamic equilibrium, with a spectrum and intensity that depend solely on the body's temperature.



A few words on the physics behind it II [11]

Planck's law

The spectral radiance L is given as:

$$L(\nu, T) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}\right) - 1}$$

A few words on the physics behind it II [11]

Planck's law

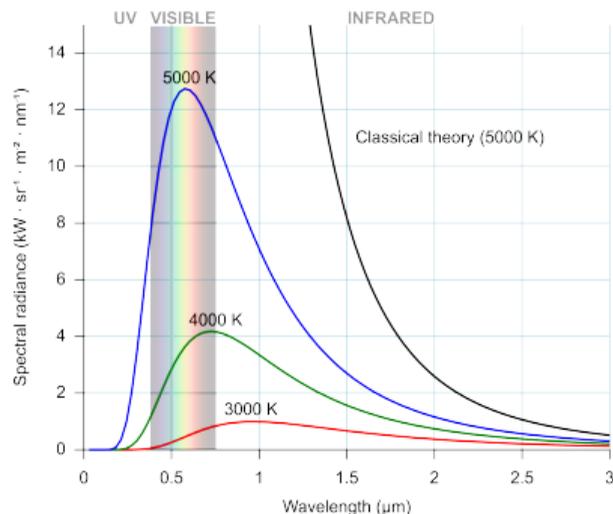
The spectral radiance L is given as:

$$L(\nu, T) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}\right) - 1}$$

Wien's displacement law

The wavelength λ_m that maximizes the radiance is given as:

$$\lambda_m = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m K}}{T}$$

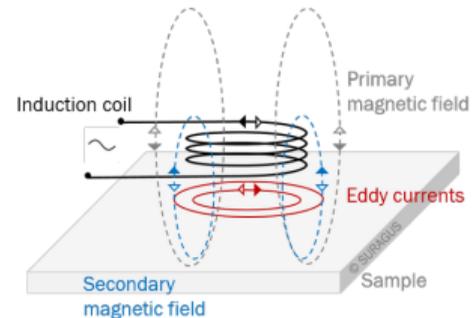


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Principle of the eddy-current testing

Basic principle

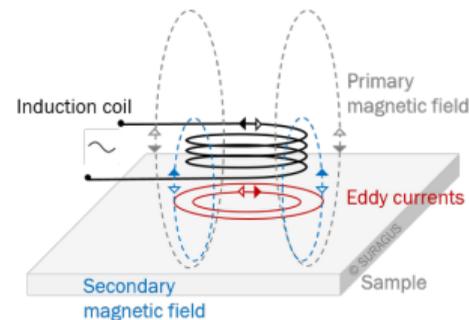
It works by generating an alternating current in a coil, which creates a changing magnetic field. This magnetic field induces circulating currents, known as eddy currents (or Foucault currents), in the material being tested. Flaws like cracks or corrosion disrupt these eddy currents, altering the magnetic field and coil impedance



Principle of the eddy-current testing

Basic principle

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Pros/Cons

- **Pros:** high sensitivity, no need for contact, versatile, instant results...
- **Cons:** limited to conductive materials, surface sensitive, skill required ...

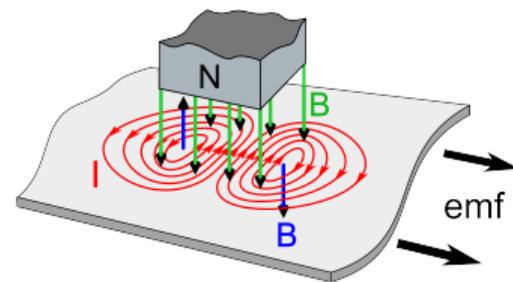
A few words on the physics behind it I [12]

Faraday's law of induction

A time-varying magnetic field \mathbf{B} induces an electromotive force (emf) in a conductive medium:

$$emf = -\frac{d\Phi_B(t)}{dt} \quad \text{where} \quad \Phi_B(t) = \iint_S \mathbf{B}(t) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

This occurs because the electric charges are subjected to the Lorentz force when they move through $\mathbf{B}(t)$.



A few words on the physics behind it I [12]

Faraday's law of induction

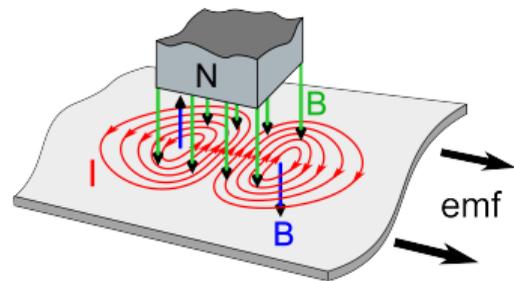
A time-varying magnetic field \mathbf{B} induces an electromotive force (emf) in a conductive medium:

$$emf = -\frac{d\Phi_B(t)}{dt} \quad \text{where} \quad \Phi_B(t) = \iint_S \mathbf{B}(t) \cdot \mathbf{n} dS$$

This occurs because the electric charges are subjected to the Lorentz force when they move through $\mathbf{B}(t)$.

Lenz's law

It states that induced currents always create a magnetic field that opposes the change in the original magnetic field. If the magnetic field increases, the induced field opposes it. If the magnetic field decreases, the induced field supports it.



A few words on the physics behind it II [12]

Impedance

The impedance (\underline{Z}) is the opposition to alternating current in a circuit, resulting from the combined effects of resistance (R) and reactance (X):

$$\underline{V} = \underline{Z}I \quad \underline{Z} = R + jX; \quad \underline{Z} \in \mathbb{C}$$

A few words on the physics behind it II [12]

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Reactance

The reactance of the coil alone is: $X_C = L\omega = L2\pi f$ where L is the inductance of the coil in H. The reactance of the coil close to the conductor is:

$$X = X_C + X_{eddy} = l\omega + X_{eddy}.$$

Defects alter the observed reactance by affecting the distribution of the magnetic flux and eddy currents within the material.

That's all Folks!



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