

DOT/FAA/AR-xx/xx

FAA Technical Center
Atlantic City, NJ 08405

A Quantitative Assessment of Advanced NDI Techniques for Detecting Flaws in Composite Laminate Aircraft Structures

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July 2014

Final Report

DRAFT



U.S. Department of Transportation
Federal Aviation Administration

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1. Report No. DOT/FAA/AR -xx/xx	2. Government Accession No.	3. Recipient's Catalog No.	
4. Title and Subtitle TITLE OF REPORT A Quantitative Assessment of Advanced NDI Techniques for Detecting Flaws in Composite Laminate Aircraft Structures		5. Report Date June 2014	
		6. Performing Organization Code	
7. Author(s) Dennis P. Roach, Sandia National Labs Thomas M. Rice, Sandia National Labs		8. Performing Organization Report No.	
9. Performing Organization Name and Address Sandia National Laboratories FAA Airworthiness Assurance Center Box 5800 MS-0615 Albuquerque, NM 87185		10. Work Unit No. (TRAIS)	
		11. Contract or Grant No. DTFA03-95-X-900002	
12. Sponsoring Agency Name and Address Federal Aviation Administration William J. Hughes Technical Center Atlantic City International Airport, NJ 08405		13. Type of Report and Period Covered Final Report	
		14. Sponsoring Agency Code ANE-10	
15. Supplementary Notes The Federal Aviation Administration Airport and Aircraft Safety R&D Group COTR were Dave Galella and David Westlund.			
16. Abstract The aircraft industry continues to increase its use of composite materials, most noteworthy in the arena of principle structural elements. This expanded use, coupled with difficulties associated with damage tolerance analysis of composites, has placed greater emphasis on the application of accurate nondestructive inspection (NDI) methods. Traditionally, a few ultrasonic-based inspection methods have been used to inspect solid laminate structures. Recent developments in more advanced NDI techniques have produced a number of new inspection options. Many of these methods can be categorized as wide area techniques that produce two-dimensional flaw maps of the structure. An experiment has been developed to assess the ability of both conventional and advanced NDI techniques to detect voids, disbonds, delaminations, and impact damage in adhesively bonded composite aircraft structures. A series of solid laminate, carbon composite specimens with statistically relevant flaw profiles are being inspected using conventional, hand-held pulse echo UT and resonance, as well as, new NDI methods that have recently been introduced to improve sensitivity and repeatability of inspections. The primary factors affecting flaw detection in laminates are included in this study: material type, flaw profiles, presence of complex geometries like taper and substructure elements, presence of fasteners, secondarily bonded joints, and environmental conditions. One phase of this effort utilized airline personnel to study Probability of Detection (POD) in the field and to formulate improvements to existing inspection techniques. In addition, advanced NDI methods for laminate inspections – such as thermography, shearography, laser ultrasonics, microwave, and phased/linear array UT – were applied to quantify the improvements achievable through the use of more sophisticated NDI. This report presents the composite laminate experiment design and the POD results for advanced NDI with comparisons to results achieved by airline inspectors using conventional UT methods. A companion report provides the full set of results from the conventional NDI testing.			
17. Key Words Nondestructive inspection, honeycomb composites, solid laminate composites, probability of detection, disbonds, delaminations, impact, aircraft		18. Distribution Statement This document is available to the public through the National Technical Information Service, Springfield, VA 22161	
19. Security Classif. (of this report) Unclassified	20. Security Classif. (of this page) Unclassified	21. No. of Pages 217	22. Price

Acknowledgements

This program is sponsored by the FAA William J. Hughes Technical Center under the direction of the technical monitors, Dave Galella and David Westlund. The approach used in this effort was formulated in concert with the Commercial Aircraft Composite Repair Committee (CACRC) Inspection Task Group which consisted of the team members listed below. The contributions of this team are gratefully acknowledged.

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Dennis Roach, Sandia Labs AANC

The authors would like to recognize the data acquisition support provided by others at the Sandia Labs AANC including Stephen Neidigk and Randy Duvall. We would like to thank those who provided FAA oversight and extensive guidance on this effort: Dave Galella and David Westlund, FAA Project Managers and Rusty Jones, FAA Senior Technical Specialist in Nondestructive Inspection and Composites. Thanks also to Eric Chesmar and his United Airlines colleagues for their assistance in test specimen production.

Finally, the authors would like to thank the following companies for participating in this experiment: Olympus NDT, Toshiba, All Nippon Airways, RCON NDT in conjunction with Sonatest, NDT Solutions Inc., General Electric Inspection Technologies, iPhoton, Imperium, DolphiTech, Laser Technology Inc., Dantec Dynamics, Thermal Wave Imaging, Mistras, MovieTherm, and Evisive.

Sandia National Laboratories is a multi-program laboratory managed and operated by Sandia Corporation, a wholly owned subsidiary of Lockheed Martin Corporation, for the U.S. Department of Energy's National Nuclear Security Administration under contract DE-AC04-94AL85000.

A Quantitative Assessment of Advanced NDI Techniques for Detecting Flaws in Composite Laminate Aircraft Structures

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A Quantitative Assessment of Conventional NDI Techniques for Detecting Flaws in Composite Laminate Aircraft Structures

1.0 Introduction and Background

1.1 Overview of Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

In 1991, the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) established an Airworthiness Assurance NDI Validation Center (AANC) at Sandia National Laboratories. Its primary mission is to support technology development, validation, and transfer to industry in order to enhance airworthiness and improve the aircraft maintenance practices of the commercial aviation industry. The rapidly increasing use of composites on commercial airplanes coupled with the potential for economic savings associated with their use in aircraft structures means that the demand for composite materials technology will continue to increase. Inspecting these composite structures is a critical element in assuring their continued airworthiness. The FAA-AANC at Sandia National Labs, in conjunction with the Commercial Aircraft Composite Repair Committee Inspection Task Group (CACRC-ITG), completed a study to assess conventional and advanced inspection methods as applied to flaw detection in solid composite laminates.

The aircraft industry continues to increase its use of composite materials, most noteworthy in the arena of principle structural elements. The extreme damage tolerance and high strength-to-weight ratio of composites have motivated designers to expand the role of fiberglass and carbon graphite in aircraft structures. This has placed greater emphasis on the development of improved nondestructive inspection (NDI) methods that are more reliable and sensitive than conventional NDI and the optimization of current inspection practices. The FAA-AANC has been pursuing this goal via a host of studies addressing the inspection of composite structures. Through the AANC's participation in the CACRC-ITG, this team has been investigating the performance of conventional inspection methods and determining the need for improved inspections of composite structures.

The ANNC conducted the Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment (SLE) to assess flaw detection in composite laminate aircraft structures. The SLE involves the use of a set of composite laminate test specimens (see Figure 1-1) containing engineered flaws that traveled to airlines and third party maintenance depots to acquire flaw detection data from aviation industry inspectors. The experiment required approximately 2-3 days of each inspector's time. In general, inspectors were asked to locate and size hidden flaws in the test specimens. After a sufficient number of inspectors completed the experiment, industry-wide performance curves were established to determine how well current inspection techniques are able to reliably find flaws in composite laminate structure. In total, over 70 inspectors from 14 airlines and 2 Maintenance and Repair Organizations (MRO) participated in this experiment. The test program was intended to evaluate the technical capability of the inspection procedures and the equipment (i.e. NDI method). Evaluation of inspector specific or environment specific factors associated with performing this inspection were not the primary objective of this experiment; however, key insights regarding measures to improve inspection performance were obtained. The inspections emphasized flaw detection methods applicable to solid laminate structures ranging from 12 plies to 64 plies thick. The results are published in this report as industry-wide performance measures and all links to specific aircraft maintenance depots have been permanently removed.

The Inspection Task Group (ITG), operating within the Commercial Aircraft Composite Repair Committee (CACRC), completed an effort to develop solid laminate and honeycomb NDI reference standards [1.1] to aid the uniform and optimum application of aircraft NDI techniques. As a follow-on activity, the ITG completed a multi-year study to assess flaw detection capabilities in composite honeycomb structure. A natural extension of these efforts is to assess flaw detection capabilities in composite laminate structure. This document summarizes the experiment purpose, the test variables included in the study, experiment planning issues, the set of test specimen designs, and a comprehensive set of results from the advanced NDI methods evaluated in this experiment.

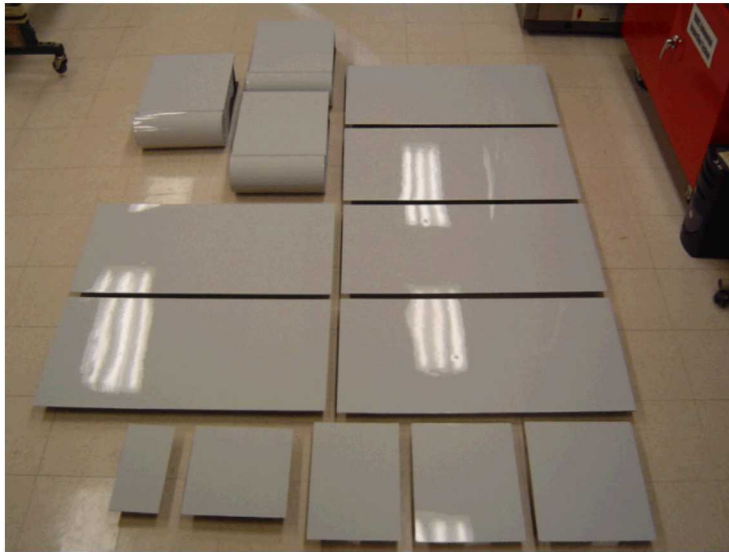


Figure 1-1: Subset of the Fifteen Painted Solid Laminate Test Specimens and Five Feedback Specimens

This experiment utilizes a series of solid laminate composite specimens with statistically relevant flaw profiles to evaluate flaw detection using pulse echo UT and other advanced NDI methods. These tests are being conducted using NDT equipment that the inspectors are experienced in using for this type of inspection. The effort focuses on understanding the factors influencing the performance of NDI methods (device and inspector) when applied to the inspection of solid laminate composites. Some portions of the testing takes the form of blind Probability of Detection (POD) studies while other portions of the testing is determining signal-to-noise ratios from which flaw detection can be inferred.

The primary factors affecting NDI included in this study are: composite materials, flaw profiles, thickness of structure, geometry of structure, presence of substructure elements, presence of bond lines, presence of fasteners, sealed joints, skin over honeycomb substructure and environmental conditions. This phase of the study studied advanced NDI methods in order to quantify performance and assess possible POD improvements over conventional pulse-echo UT inspections that were evaluated in the first phase of this SLE.

Overall, the main reasons for this experiment are to: 1) optimize composite laminate inspection procedures, 2) determine in-service flaw detection capabilities of conventional NDI methods and measure potential for improvements through the application of advanced NDI methods and

equipment, and 3) compare results from hand-held devices with results from scanning systems (focus on A-scan vs. C-scan and human factors issues in large area coverage).

The assessment of advanced NDI methods was achieved from the extension of this study beyond conventional pulse-echo ultrasonics (PE-UT) to include new NDI equipment and methods that are in development or are being proposed for application to aircraft inspections. Results from this testing will quantify the degree of improvements possible through the integration of more advanced NDI techniques and improved procedures. This report includes the results from the application of conventional PE-UT inspection methods.

1.2 Increasing Use of Composites in Aircraft Structures

Composite materials are increasingly becoming the material of choice for aircraft designers because of their global benefits. Engineers estimate that building comparable fuselages with aluminum would take thousands of components and fasteners, and require extensive tooling and dozens of technicians. An aircraft would weigh about 20 percent more and consume more fuel. Through the use of composite technology construction, engineers can cut the number of parts in an assembly in half. This results in significant cost savings. Other benefits of composite technology include lower acquisition costs, lower operating costs, as well as improved maintainability, reliability and durability.

New transport and commuter category aircraft, such as the Boeing 787 and the Airbus A380, are being produced with a majority of their structure composed of composite materials. Typical damage encountered in composite structures includes: 1) disbonds and delaminations stemming from normal flight loads, 2) fluid ingress, 3) impact damage, 4) lightning strikes, 5) deterioration from contact with fluids such as paint strippers or hydraulic fluids, and 6) extreme heat and ultraviolet exposure. Each of these elements can produce hidden damage that may be difficult to visually detect yet significantly detrimental to the strength of the structure.

Reference [1.1 – 1.3] describe a successful effort to develop an industry-wide set of composite reference standards. The standards are being used in NDI equipment calibration for damage assessment and post-repair inspection of commercial aircraft composites. Final review of these honeycomb and solid laminate standards was completed and several aircraft manufacturers have already adopted these standards into their maintenance manuals. The activity described here compliments the composite reference standard development effort. The purpose of this experiment was to assess the ability of conventional and emerging NDI techniques to inspect for flaws in representative composite structures. The experiment established the sensitivities and limitations of applicable NDI methods. Other observations accumulated during the test program will allow for inspection improvements via optimized procedures and practices.

Figures 1-2 to 1-5 depict the increasing use of composite materials in aircraft manufacture and highlight some of the principal structural elements that are now being fabricated from composite laminate materials. The photos in Figures 1-6 and 1-7 show several finished composite aircraft components. They underscore the degree of complexity associated with these structures and the size of components that are being fabricated from composites.

A319/A320/A321



51

A320/A319 composite structures

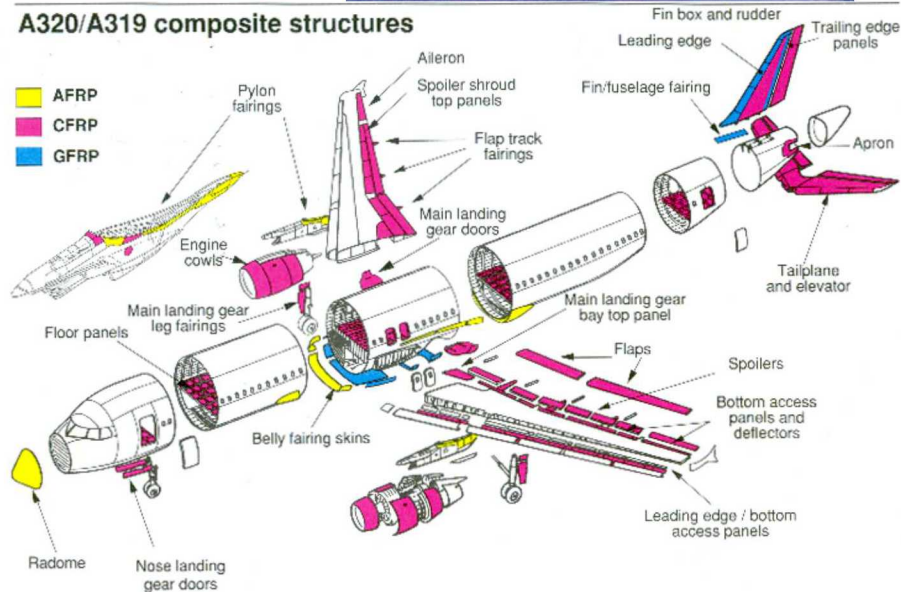


Figure 1-2: Use of Composite Structures on Airbus 320 Series Aircraft

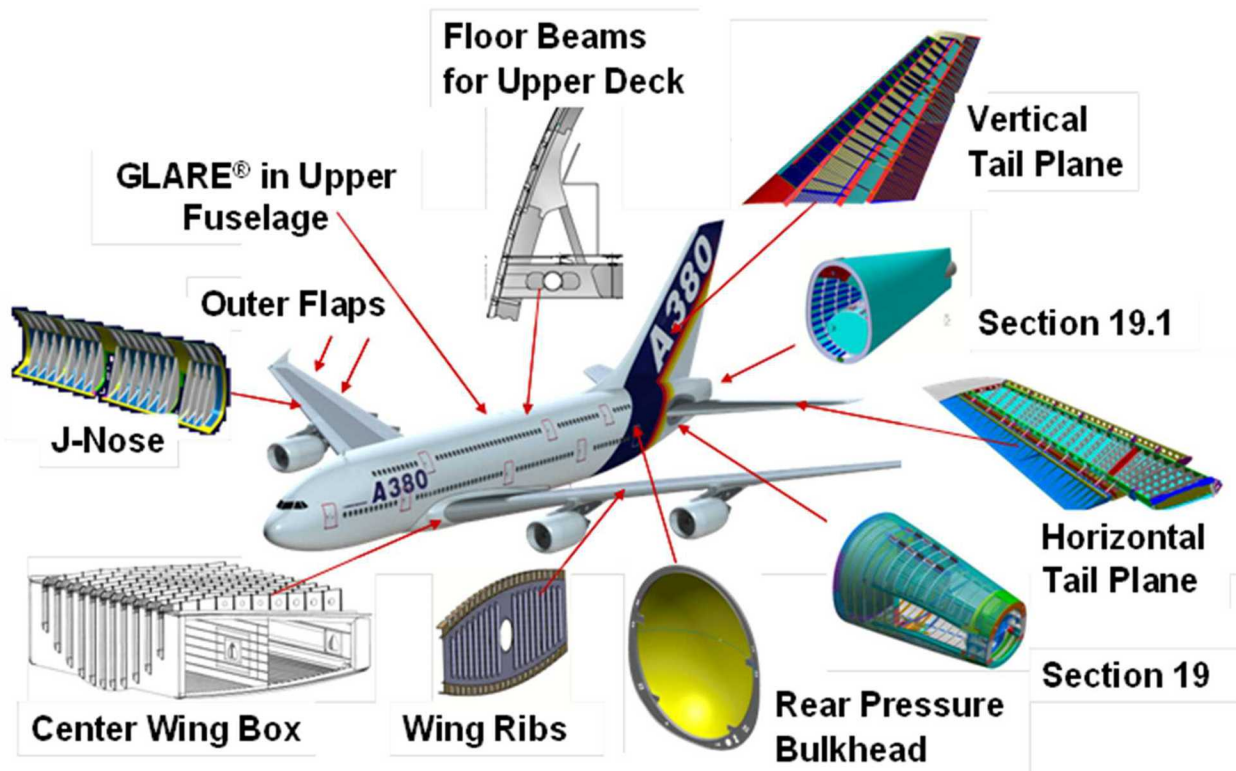


Figure 1-3: Major Composite Structures on A380 Aircraft

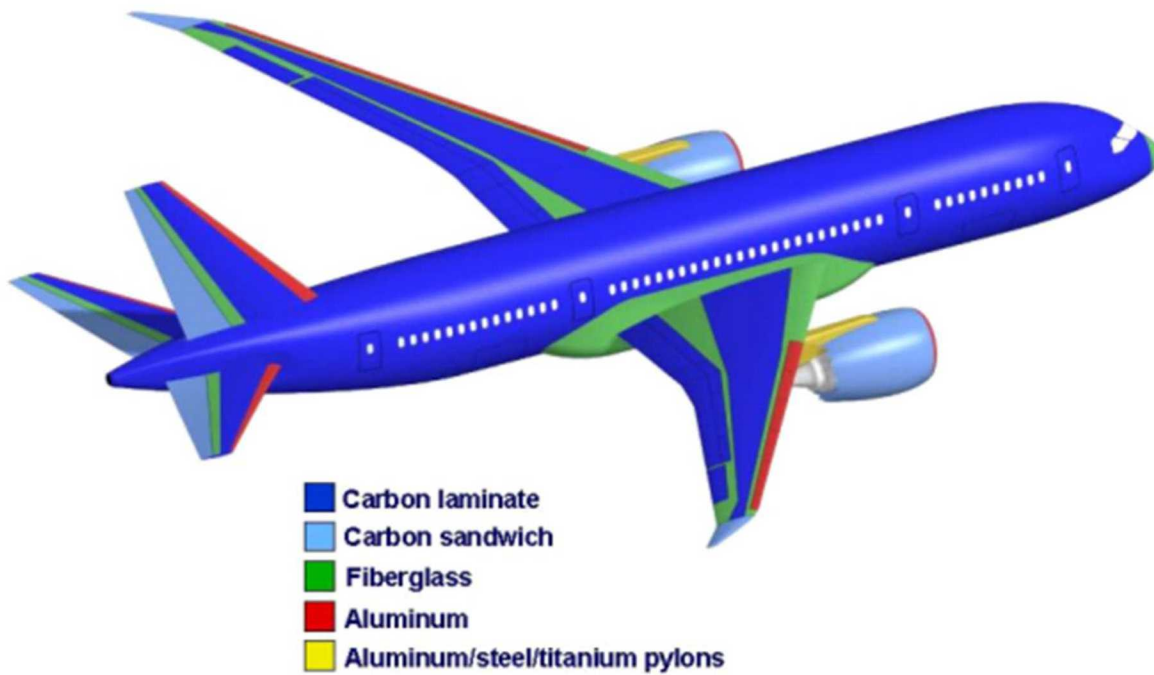


Figure 1-4: Summary of Composite Structures on Boeing 787 Aircraft

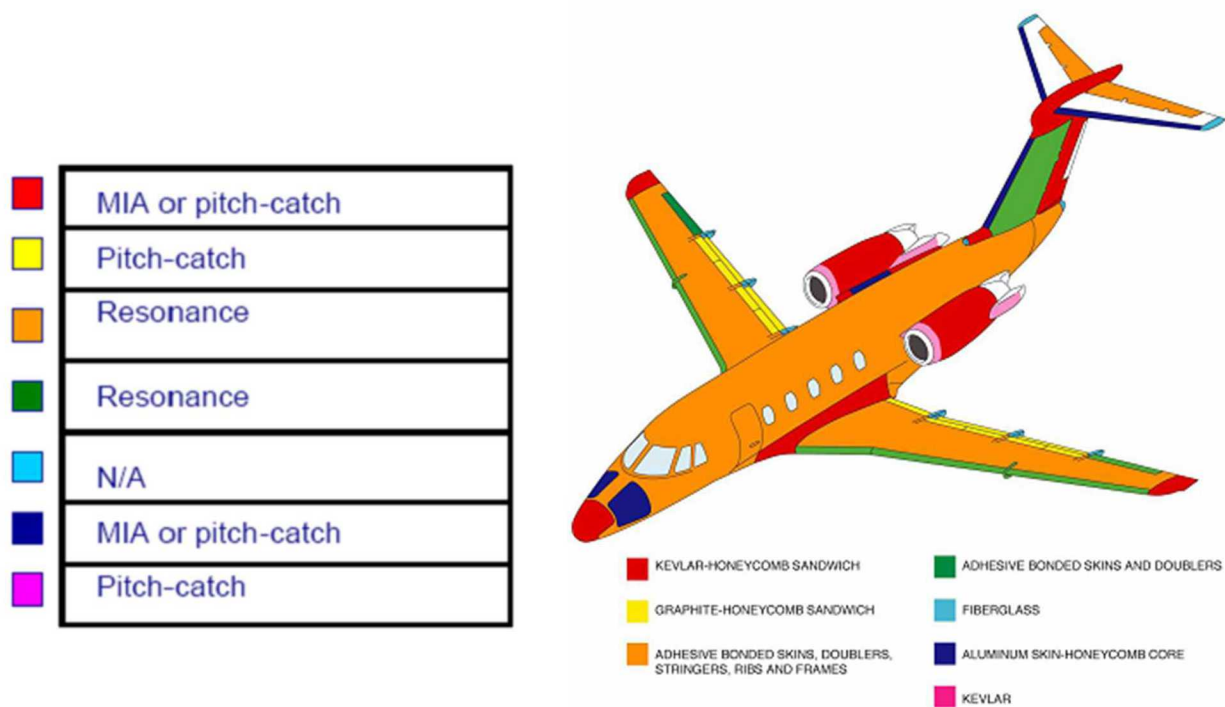


Figure 1-5: Summary of Composite Structures on Cessna Citation III Aircraft and Conventional NDI Methods Used to Inspect Them



Figure 1-6: Production of an All-Composite Fuselage Section

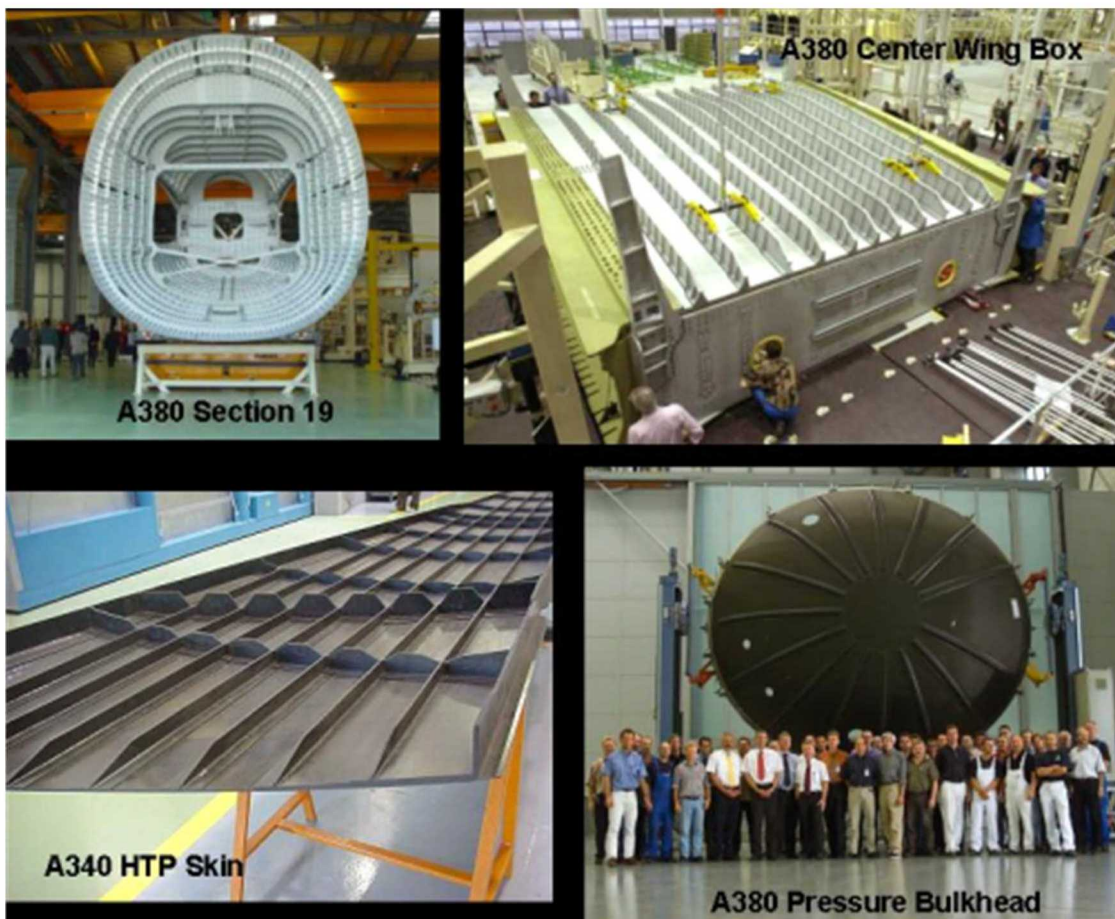


Figure 1-7: Summary of Advanced Composite Applications on A380 Primary Structures

1.3 Background on In-Service Inspection Needs for Composite Structures

Composites have many advantages for their use as aircraft structural materials including their high specific strength and stiffness, resistance to damage by fatigue loading and resistance to corrosion. In addition, new analyses, operational experience and aircraft safe-life extension programs may produce additional NDI requirements. The expanded use of composite structures, coupled with difficulties associated with damage tolerance analysis of composites, create a greater need for NDI methods that can effectively identify degradation and damage in composite structures. This must be balanced with the need for simple, low-cost NDI methods for detecting damage in composite structures and repair configurations. Recent developments in advanced NDI techniques have produced a number of new inspection options. Many of these methods can be categorized as wide area techniques that produce two-dimensional flaw maps of the structure. New inspection techniques available today or in the immediate future, hold promise for reducing the direct maintenance costs while improving the capacity for detecting damage. Improved NDI techniques could also help detect damage in its early stages, thus improving safety and reducing the costs associated with the restoration of a larger affected area.

The reliability, safety and availability of aircraft can be improved, if deemed necessary, through the application of more sophisticated NDI methods and/or with enhanced procedures and improved training of maintenance personnel. This study compared the results from a wide array of NDI methods and identified limitations and optimum applications for specific inspection methods. Reference [1.4] previously addressed the application of conventional pulse echo UT NDI methods to establish an aviation industry performance baseline for flaw detection capability.

1.4 Damage Tolerance Approach to Establish Inspection Intervals

Today's Transport Category aircraft were designed using the *Damage Tolerance* approach, such that they can meet continuing structural airworthiness requirements for an indefinite period. This approach is predicated on the use of an effective inspection and corrective maintenance program that effectively ensures structural integrity over the life of the aircraft. Damage Tolerance is the attribute of the structure that permits it to retain its required residual strength without detrimental structural deformation for a period of use after the structure has sustained a given level of fatigue, corrosion, and accidental or discrete source damage. The maintenance program may be adjusted to reflect real time operational experience and analytical findings through the use of modern analysis tools, testing, and trends assessment of historical operation. Effective maintenance programs can ensure that airplane structures continue to meet the required ultimate strength, fatigue, and damage tolerance requirements.

Inspection requirements (sensitivity and inspection intervals) are driven by Damage Tolerance Analyses (DTA). However, the multiple plies of composite material, composite lamina (anisotropic) response characteristics, and adhesive layers makes the analysis quite complex and hinders the calculation of an exact DTA. It is difficult to determine the effects of flaw size and the point at which a flaw size/location becomes critical. This is especially true of disbond, delamination, and porosity flaws. Thus, an increased emphasis is placed on quantifying the probability that a flaw of a particular size and location will be detected by a piece of NDI equipment. *In any surveillance of aircraft structure there are three main aspects to the inspection requirements: 1) the damage tolerance analysis (DTA) which determines the flaw onset and growth data (especially critical flaw size information), 2) the sensitivity, accuracy, and repeatability of NDI*

techniques which, in concert with the DTA, establishes the minimum inspection intervals, and 3) the impediments that the NDI techniques must contend with while achieving the required level of sensitivity. In addition to this report, detailed discussions on damage tolerance assessments for composite materials are presented in references [1.5 – 1.9].

Damage tolerance is the ability of an aircraft structure to sustain damage, without catastrophic failure, until such time that the component can be repaired or replaced. The U.S. Federal Aviation Requirements (FAR 25) specify that the residual strength shall not fall below limit load, P_L , which is the load anticipated to occur once in the life of an aircraft. This establishes the minimum permissible residual strength $\sigma_p = \sigma_L$. To varying degrees, the strength of composite structures are affected by crack, disbond, and delamination flaws. The residual strength as a function of flaw size can be calculated. Figure 1-8 shows a sample residual strength diagram. The residual strength curve is used to relate this minimum permissible residual strength, σ_p , to a maximum permissible flaw size a_p .

A damage control plan is needed to safely address any possible flaws which may develop in a structure. Nondestructive inspection is the tool used to implement the damage control plan. Once the maximum permissible flaw size is determined, the additional information needed to properly apply NDI is the flaw growth versus time or number of cycles. Figure 1-9 contains a flaw growth curve. The first item of note is the total time, or cycles, required to reach a_p . A second parameter of note is a_d which is the minimum detectable flaw size. A flaw smaller than a_d would likely be undetected and thus, inspections performed in the time frame prior to n_d would be of little value. The time, or number of cycles, associated with the bounding parameters a_d and a_p is set forth by the flaw growth curve and establishes $H(\text{inspection})$. Safety is maintained by providing at least two inspections during $H(\text{inspection})$ to ensure flaw detection between a_d and a_p .

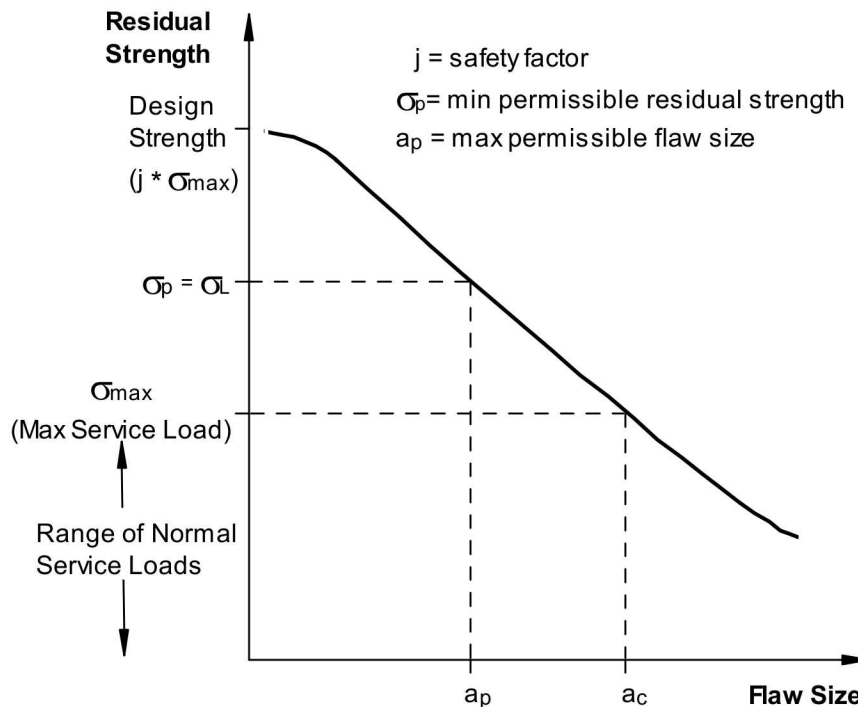


Figure 1-8: Residual Strength Curve

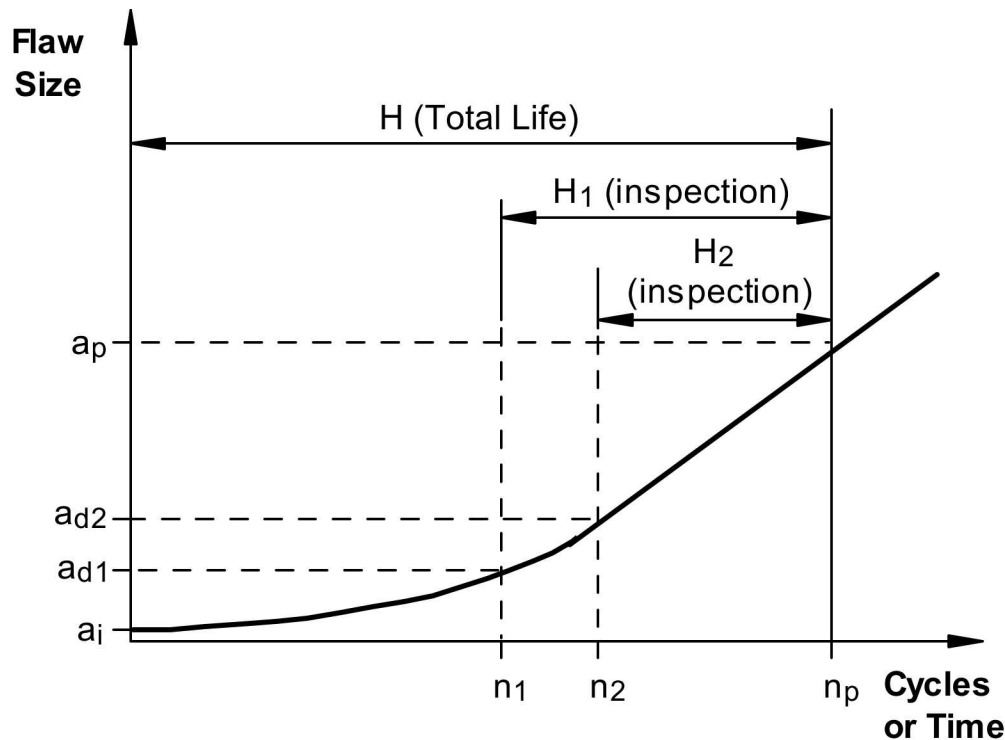


Figure 1-9: Crack Growth Curve Showing Time Available for Damage Control

Inspection Intervals - An important NDI feature highlighted by Fig. 1-9 is the large effect that NDI sensitivity has on the required inspection interval. Two sample flaw detection levels a_d (1) and a_d (2) are shown along with their corresponding intervals n_d (1) and n_d (2). Because of the gradual slope of the flaw growth curve in this region, it can be seen that the inspection interval H_1 (inspection) can be much larger than H_2 (inspection) if NDI can produce just a slightly better flaw detection capability. Since the detectable flaw size provides the basis for the inspection interval, it is essential that quantitative measures of flaw detection are performed for each NDI technique applied to the structure of interest. This quantitative measure is represented by a POD curve such as the one shown in Figure 1-10. Regardless of the flaw size, the POD never quite reaches 1 (100% possibility of detection). Inspection sensitivity requirements normally ask for a 90-95% POD at a_p . For any given inspection task, the POD is affected by many factors such as: 1) the skill and experience of the inspector, 2) accessibility to the structure, 3) exposure of the inspection surface, and 4) confounding attributes such as underlying structure or the presence of fasteners. Thus, the effects of circumstances on POD must be accounted for in any NDI application and associated damage control plan. Figure 1-11 shows how increasingly difficult circumstances can degrade the POD of an NDI technique.

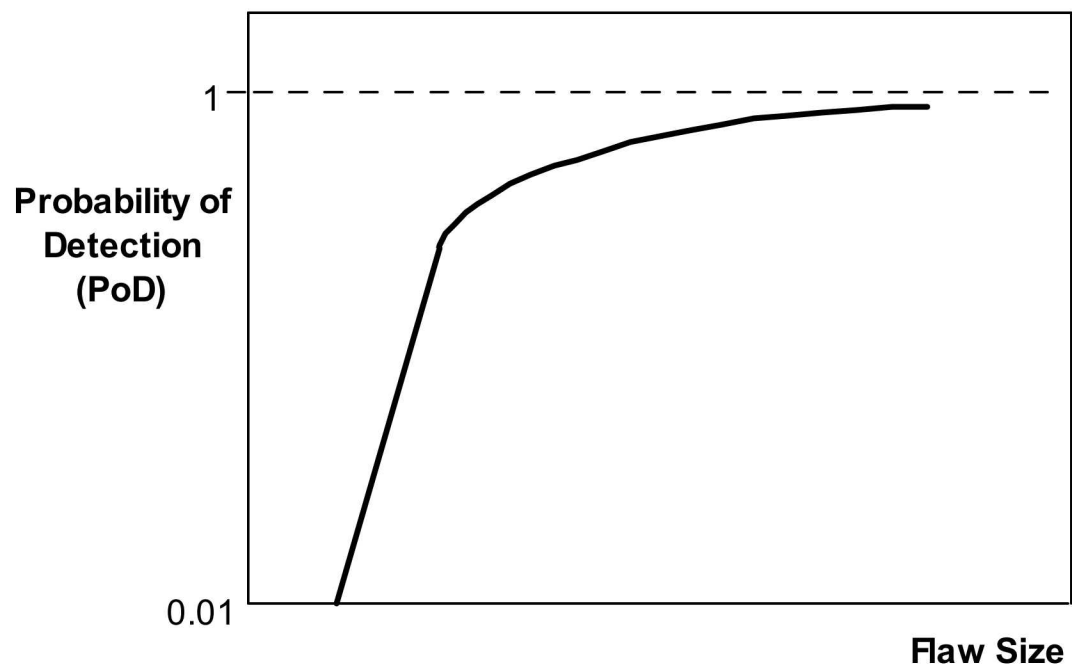


Figure 1-10: Probability of Flaw Detection vs. Flaw Size

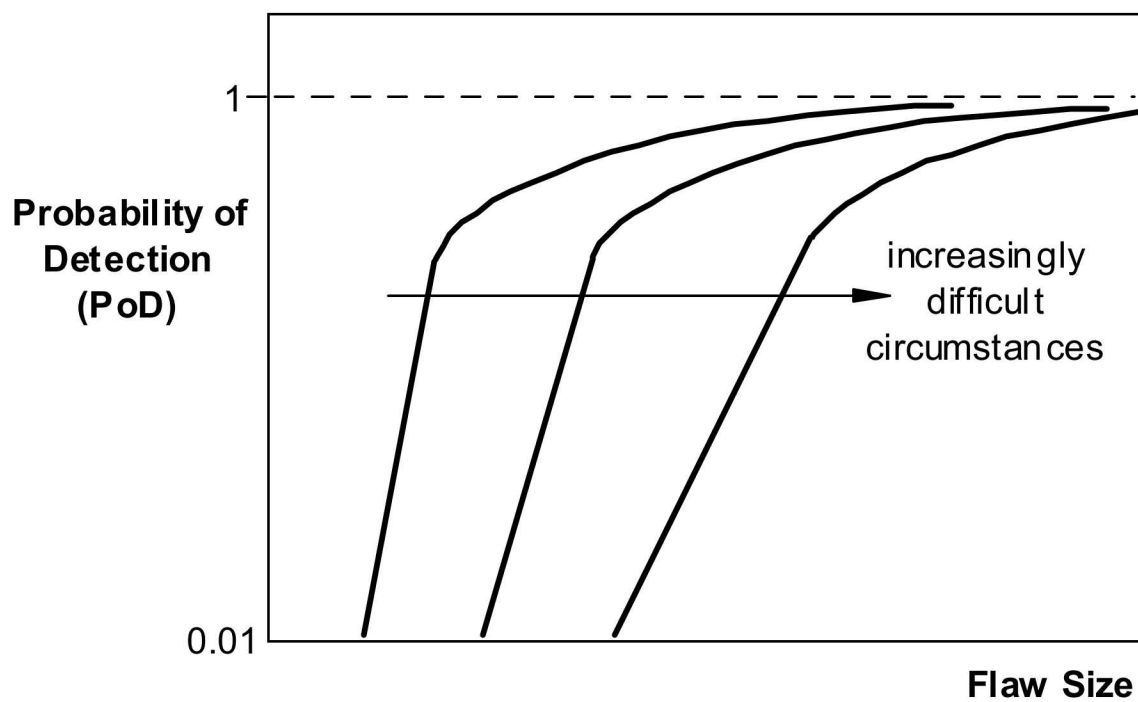


Figure 1-11: Effect of Circumstances on Probability of Detection

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2.0 Purpose of Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

Composites have many advantages for use as aircraft structural materials including their high specific strength and stiffness, resistance to damage by fatigue loading, light weight, and resistance to corrosion. The primary motivation for this program is to address the extensive and increasing use of composites on commercial aircraft and the associated increase in the array of NDI used to inspect them. Figure 2-1 shows how the use of composite materials has risen dramatically over the last decade. The end result of this experiment is an assessment of the NDI flaw detection capability in composite laminate structures, along with insights that can be used to improve the performance of composite inspection methods.

Goal: utilize airline inspectors to establish industry-wide NDI performance curves that quantify:

- 1) how well current inspection techniques are able to reliably find flaws in composite laminate structure
- 2) the degree of improvements possible through the integration of more advanced NDI techniques and procedures.

The related goals include: improve composite laminate inspection procedures and performance, develop structured comparisons between results from hand-held inspection equipment and automated scanning systems. The latter item focuses on A-scan vs. C-scan data presentation and the human factors issues associated with inspections that cover large areas. **Overall, the results from this study will provide input and recommendations to the FAA regarding guidance (e.g. Advisory Circular) that can enhance the composite inspection process. Thus, this study is driven by a desire to improve aircraft safety. Airlines and OEMs can use these results to guide NDI deployment and training, to define what flaws/damage can be reliably found by inspectors and to reduce the human factors issues in order to produce improved NDI performance in the field.**

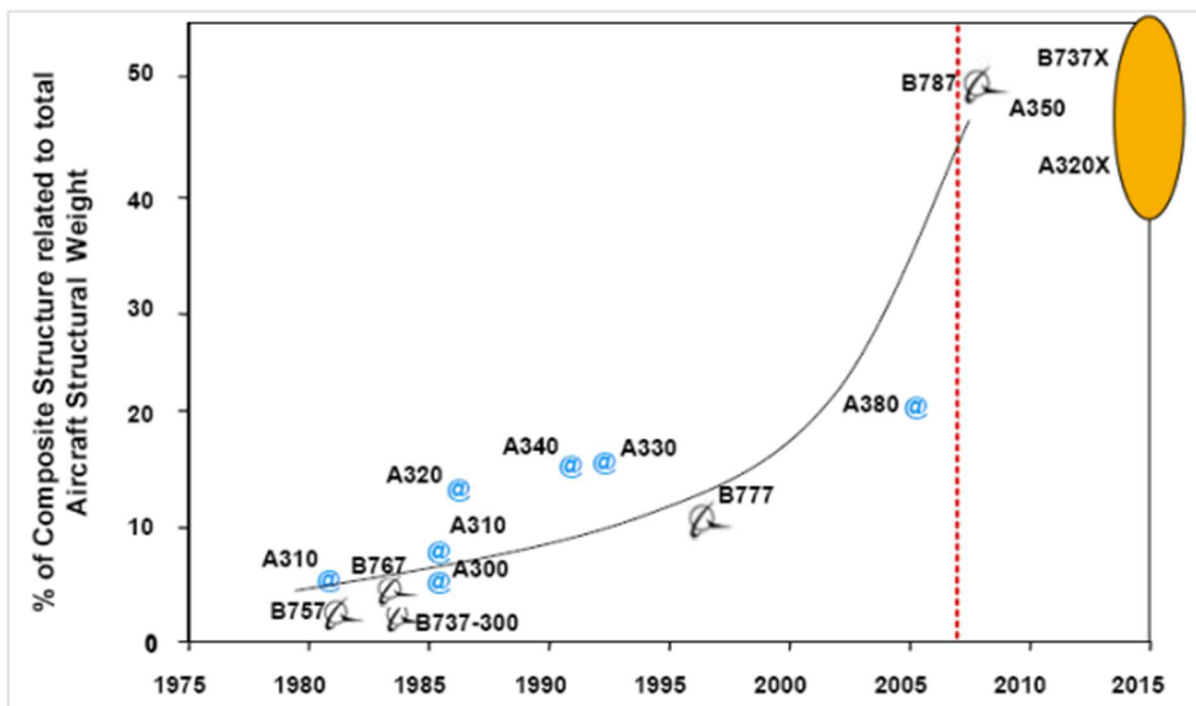


Figure 2-1: Expansion in Use of Composite Materials in Aircraft Construction

The primary sources of damage to composite structures are:

- Normal and abnormal flight loads
- Fluid contamination and ingress
- Surface coating removal; erosion
- Impact (in-flight and on the ground)
 - hail, birds, tools, runway debris, tire separation, ground handling equipment
- Lightning strikes
- Heat and ultraviolet light exposure
- Corrosion effects from adjacent metals in conductive joints (carbon materials)
- Maintenance errors

Sample damage found in composite structures is shown in Figures 2-2 to 2-7. Information from one airline report indicates an average of eight composite damage events per aircraft with 87% of those stemming from impact. Figure 2-8 shows data relating the probability of an aircraft being impacted by runway debris alone. The data indicates probability of impact that reaches the 25-30% range. The costs associated with the repair of such impact damage averages \$200,000 per aircraft. Another report indicates that fuselage damage is incurred every 1,000 flights in wide body aircraft and every 4,600 flights in narrow body aircraft.

The inspection challenges associated with the composite damage described above include:

- Subsurface delaminations and disbonds
- Hidden, subsurface damage
- Small amounts of moisture
- Cluster of damage where each individual damage point is quite small
- Heat damage that affects resin matrix
- Weak bonds (manufacturing or environmentally-induced).

Impact damage can be especially hard to detect since this damage mode often produces subsurface damage while leaving no external surface demarcations or visual clues. Figures 2-9 to 2-11 describe the physics behind this impact damage scenario and include photos of this type of “blind” damage in both solid laminate and honeycomb structures. For example, hailstorm damage can produce subsurface interply delaminations while low-velocity, high mass impacts (e.g. ground handling equipment) can produce substructure damage (e.g. stringer-to-skin disbonds, frame fracture), both of which can be challenging to detect.



Figure 2-2: Sample Sources of Damage to Composite Structures



Ground Service
Vehicles



Figure 2-3: Sample Damage From Ground Service Vehicle Impact



Towing and
Docking Damage

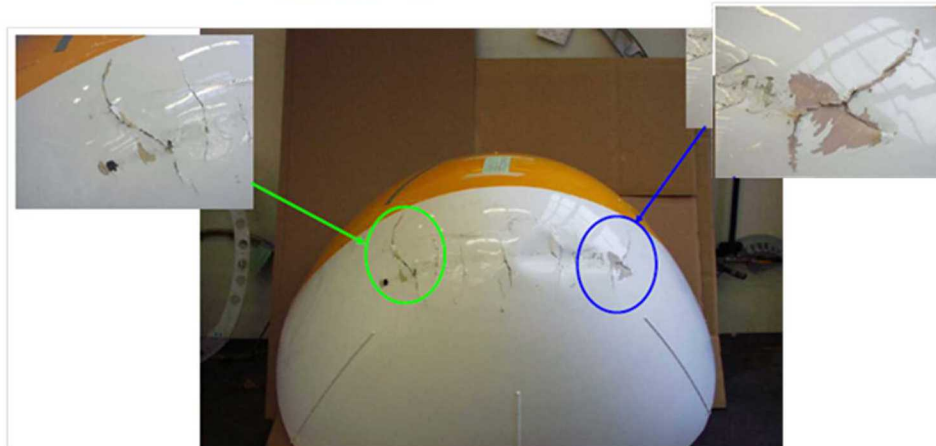
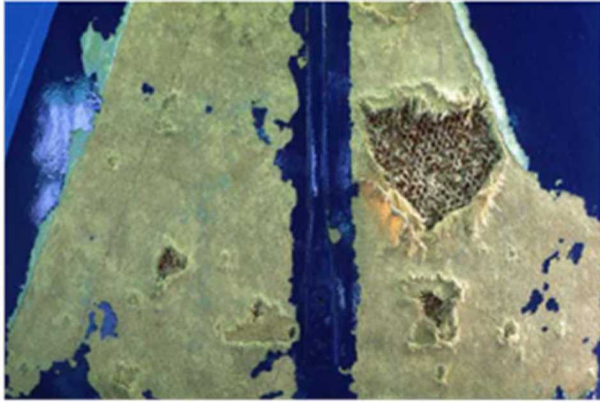


Figure 2-4: Sample Damage from Ground Operations



Hailstorm Damage



Bird Strike



Figure 2-5: Sample Damage from Impacts During Flight

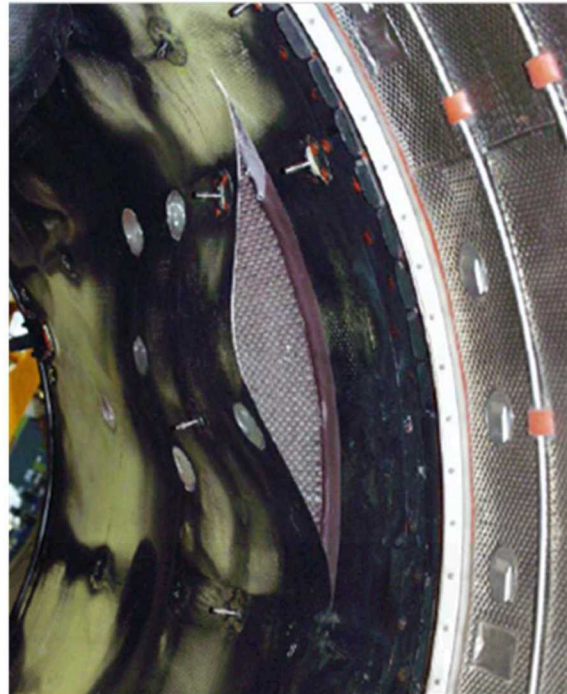


Lightning Strike on Thrust Reverser

Figure 2-6: Sample Damage from Lightning Strike



Water Ingress in Elevator



Disbonding at Skin-to-Honeycomb Interface

Figure 2-7: Sources of In-Service Damage to Composite Structures

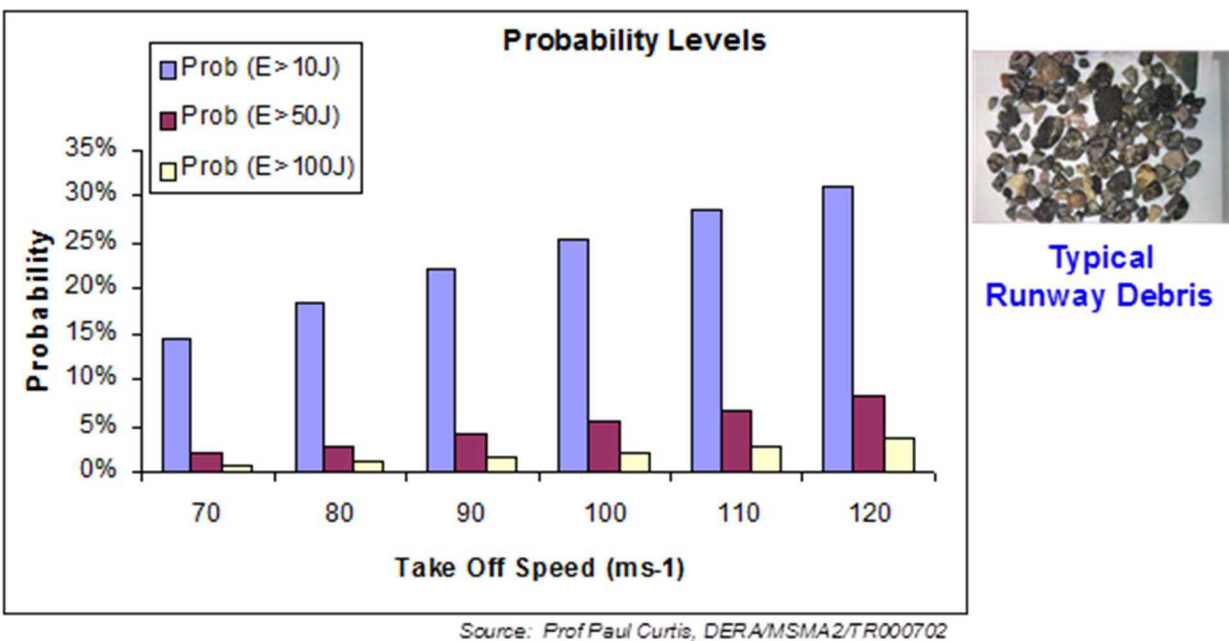
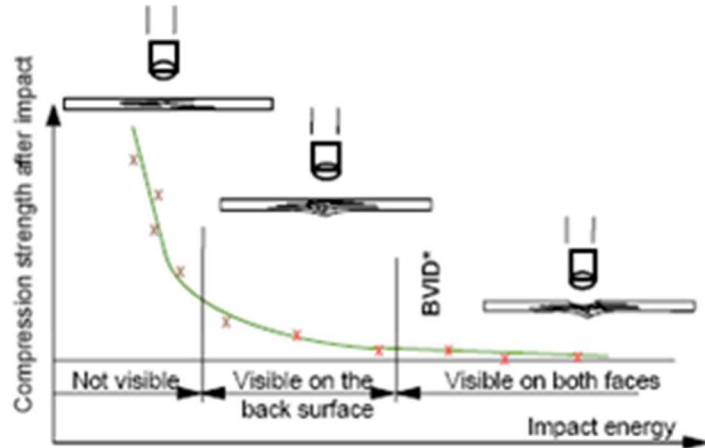


Figure 2-8: Probability of Impact Energy as a Function of Take-Off Speed (based on runway debris collected from 4 UK military air bases)

Backside Fiber Failure from Ice Impact



* BVID = Barely Visible Impact Damage

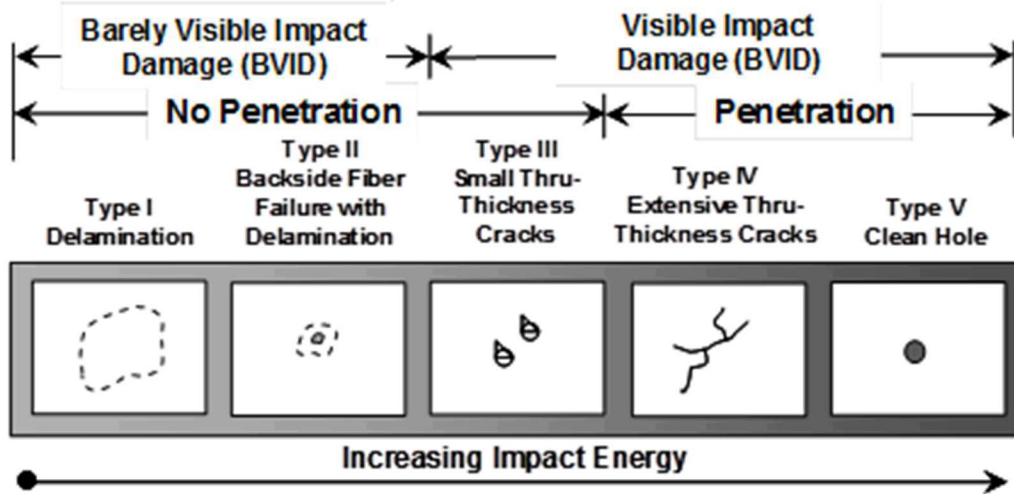
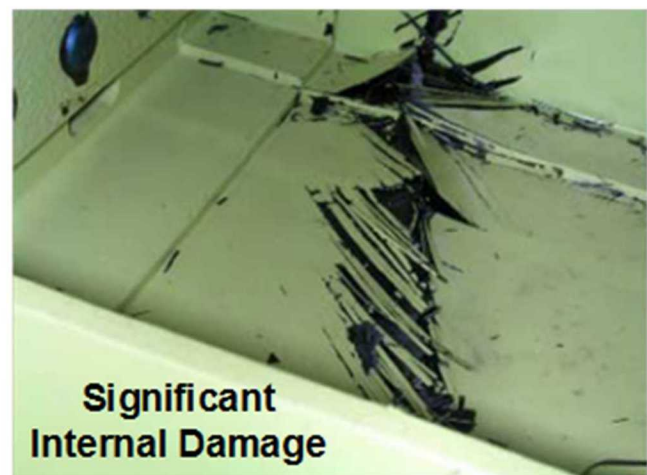
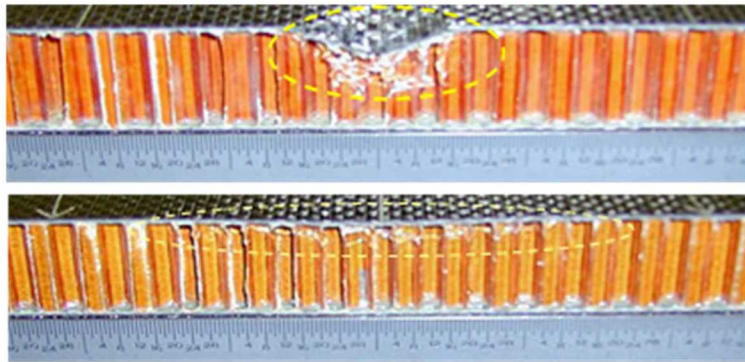


Figure 2-9: Effects of Impact on Composite Structures



Source: Carlos Bloom (Lufthansa) & S. Waite (EASA)

Figure 2-10: Example of External Impact Creating Minor Surface Demarcation But Significant Internal Damage



**Visible Impact Damage –
external skin fracture**

**Backside Damage – internal
skin fracture & core crush**

Figure 2-11: Comparison Between Visible and Backside Damage (crushed core and backside fiber fracture) in Honeycomb Structures

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3.0 Description of Conventional and Advanced Inspection Methods Applied to Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

3.1 Pulse Echo Ultrasonics with C-Scan Imaging

In general, ultrasonic inspection utilizes high-frequency sound waves as a means of detecting anomalies in parts. Ultrasonic test equipment usually operates in the range of 200KHz to 25 MHz. The speed with which the sound waves travel through a material is dependent on the composition and density of the material. The speed of sound in carbon graphite composite material is approximately 0.117 in/ μ s. Thus, the time it takes for an ultrasonic pulse to travel from the front surface to the back surface and back to the front surface of a 0.1" thick composite laminate (0.2" total travel) is approximately 1.7 μ s. In Pulse-Echo Ultrasonic (PE UT) inspections, short bursts of high frequency sound waves are introduced into materials for the detection of surface and subsurface flaws in the material. The sound waves travel through the material with some attendant loss of energy (attenuation) and are reflected at interfaces. The reflected beam is displayed and then analyzed to define the presence and location of flaws. Sound is transmitted into the test item by means of a transducer. The reflected waves are then received by a transducer, often the same transducer for pulse-echo ultrasonics, and converted back into electrical signals for display.

A-Scan Mode - Ultrasonic testing involves one or more of the following measurements: time of wave transit (or delay), path length, frequency, phase angle, amplitude, impedance, and angle of wave deflection (reflection and refraction). In conventional Pulse-Echo Ultrasonics (PE UT), pulses of high frequency sound waves are introduced into a structure being inspected. A-Scan signals represent the response of the stress waves, in amplitude and time, as they travel through the material. As the waves interact with defects or flaw interfaces within the solid and portions of the pulse's energy are reflected back to the transducer, the flaws are detected, amplified and displayed on a CRT screen. The interaction of the ultrasonic waves with defects and the resulting time vs. amplitude signal produced on the CRT depends on the wave mode, its frequency and the material properties of the structure. Flaw size can be estimated by comparing the amplitude of a discontinuity signal with that of a signal from a discontinuity of known size and shape. Flaw location (depth) is determined from the position of the flaw echo along a calibrated time base. In the pitch-catch UT method, one transducer introduces a pressure wave into the specimen and a second transducer detects the transmitted wave. A complex wave front is generated internally in the material as a result of velocity characteristics, acoustical impedance, and thickness. The time and amount of energy is affected by the changes in material properties, such as thickness, disbonds, and discontinuities. The mechanical vibration (ultrasound) is introduced into the specimen through a couplant and travels by wave motion through the specimen at the velocity of sound. If the pulses encounter a reflecting surface, some or all of the energy is reflected and monitored by the transducer. The reflected beam, or echo, can be created by any normal or abnormal (flaw) interface. Complete reflection, partial reflection, scattering, or other detectable effects on the ultrasonic waves can be used as the basis of flaw detection.

In most pulse-echo systems, a single transducer acts alternately as the sending and receiving transducer. If the pulses encounter a reflecting surface, some or all of the energy is reflected and monitored by the transducer. The reflected beam, or echo, can be created by any normal (e.g. in multi-layered structures) or abnormal (flaw) interface. Figure 3-1 is a schematic of the pulse-echo technique. It shows the interaction of UT waves with various interfaces within a structure and the corresponding A-scan waveforms that are displayed on an ultrasonic inspection instrument.

Complete reflection, partial reflection, scattering, or other detectable effect on the ultrasonic waves can be used as the basis of flaw detection. In addition to wave reflection, other variations in the wave that can be monitored include: time of transit through the test piece, attenuation, and features of the spectral response [3.1, 3.2]. Sometimes it is advantageous to use separate sending and receiving transducers for pulse-echo inspection. The term pitch-catch is often used in connection with separate sending and receiving transducers. The degree of reflection depends largely on the physical state of the materials forming the interface. Cracks, delaminations, shrinkage cavities, pores, disbonds, and other discontinuities that produce reflective interfaces can be detected.

C-Scan Mode: Use of UT Scanning Technology - It is sometimes difficult to clearly identify flaws using ultrasonic A-scan signals alone. Small porosity pockets commonly found in composites, coupled with signal fluctuations caused by material nonuniformities can create signal interpretation difficulties. Significant improvements in disbond and delamination detection can be achieved by taking the A-scan signals and transforming them into a single C-scan image of the part being inspected. C-Scans are two-dimensional images (area maps) produced by digitizing the point-by-point signal variations of an interrogating sensor while it is scanned over a surface. A computer converts the point-by-point data into a color representation and displays it at the appropriate point in an image. Specific “gates” can be set within the data acquisition software to focus on response signals from particular regions within the structure. C-Scan area views provide the inspector with easier-to-use and more reliable data with which to recognize flaw patterns. This format provides a quantitative display of signal amplitudes or time-of-flight data obtained over an area. The X-Y position of flaws can be mapped and time-of-flight data can be converted and displayed by image processing-equipment to provide an indication of flaw depth. A variety of PC-based manual and automated scanning devices can provide position information with digitized ultrasonic signals [3.3].

The basic C-scan system is shown schematically in Figure 3-2. The scanning unit containing the transducer is moved over the surface of the test piece using a search pattern of closely spaced parallel lines. A mechanical linkage connects the scanning unit to X-axis and Y-axis position indicators which feed position data to the computer. The echo signal is recorded, versus its X-Y position on the test piece, and a color coded image is produced from the relative characteristics of the sum total of signals received.

A photograph of an automated (motorized) scanner, the Boeing MAUS system, inspecting an aircraft fuselage section is shown in Figure 3-3. The Mobile Automated Scanner (MAUS) is a portable, multi-modal, large area scanning system that integrates several inspection techniques into a single package. Although the unit is capable of multiple modalities of NDI, however, pulse-echo ultrasonic inspection is the unit’s primary method used for composite laminate parts. Unique features of the MAUS V system include equipment portability, ease of setup, inspection versatility, and rapid inspection rates. It incorporates an X-Y scanner to match the transducer position with its corresponding signal so that real-time C-scans can be constructed for the surface being inspected. The probe is held in place using a gimble arrangement on a spring-loaded mount that allows the probe to accurately follow and maintain proper orientation over curved surfaces. Several scanner designs are available with the MAUS system. The scanners are interchangeable allowing the selection of an appropriate configuration for different inspection tasks. A motorized scanner is used to move the ultrasonic probe forward or backward and a strip of data is collected by the sensor. The MAUS flexible track provides fully automated, hands free scanning capability. The entire ultrasonic C-scan device is attached to the structure using suction cups connected to a vacuum pump. The unit is tethered to a remotely located computer for control and data acquisition.

Figure 3-4 shows a comparison of A-scan signals from damaged and undamaged portions of a composite structure that were produced by the pulse-echo ultrasonic inspection method. Note the clear reflection peak produced by uninterrupted signal travel to the back wall in the “undamaged” A-scan signal. Compare this to the A-scan signal from the “damaged” region where the amplitude of the back wall signal is decreased and a new intermediate peak (reflection) is observed. Both of these A-scan changes indicate the presence of damage or other anomaly. Additional sample A-scan signals from PE-UT inspections can be found in Appendix A. Figure 3-5 shows a sample C-scan image (based on amplitude) from a MAUS pulse-echo UT inspection of a composite fuselage structure containing stringers and frame shear ties (see Figure 3-3). Dark spots and irregularly-shaped regions of nonuniform color indicate the presence of impact damage in this panel. The value of using two-dimensional color coding, stemming from the sum total of the A-scan signals, to identify and size composite flaws is evident in this C-scan image

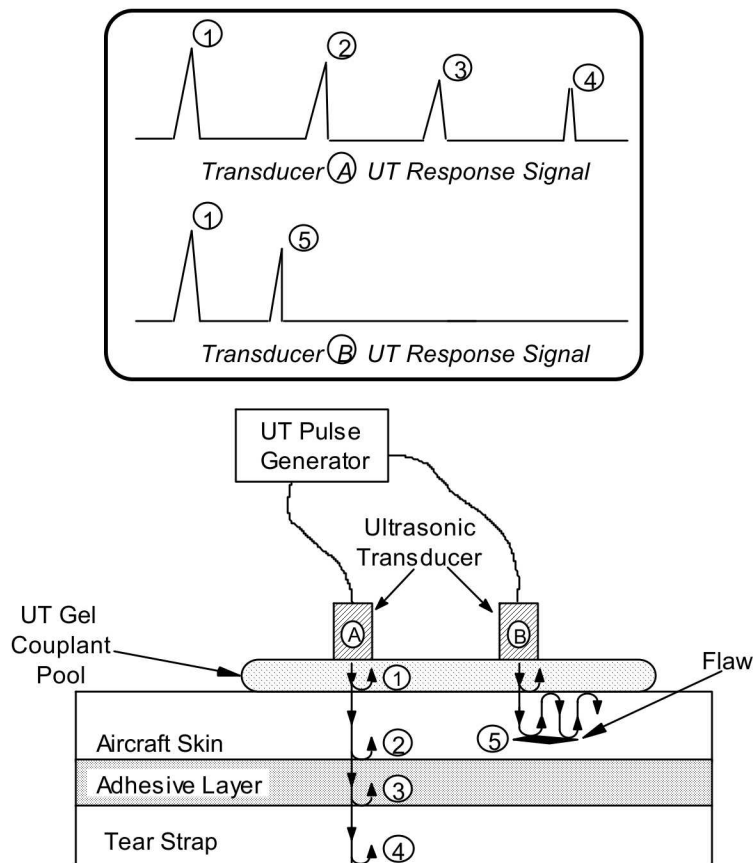


Figure 3-1: Schematic of Pulse-Echo Ultrasonic Inspection and A-Scan Signal Showing Reflection of UT Waves at Assorted Interfaces

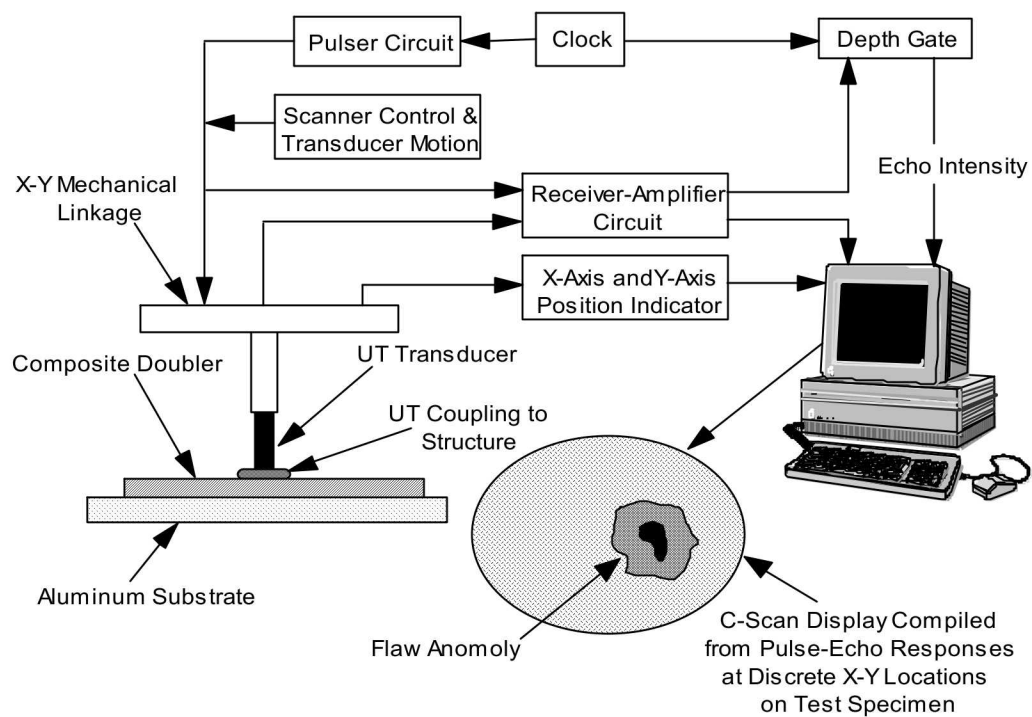


Figure 3-2: Schematic of C-Scan Setup for Pulse-Echo Ultrasonic Inspection

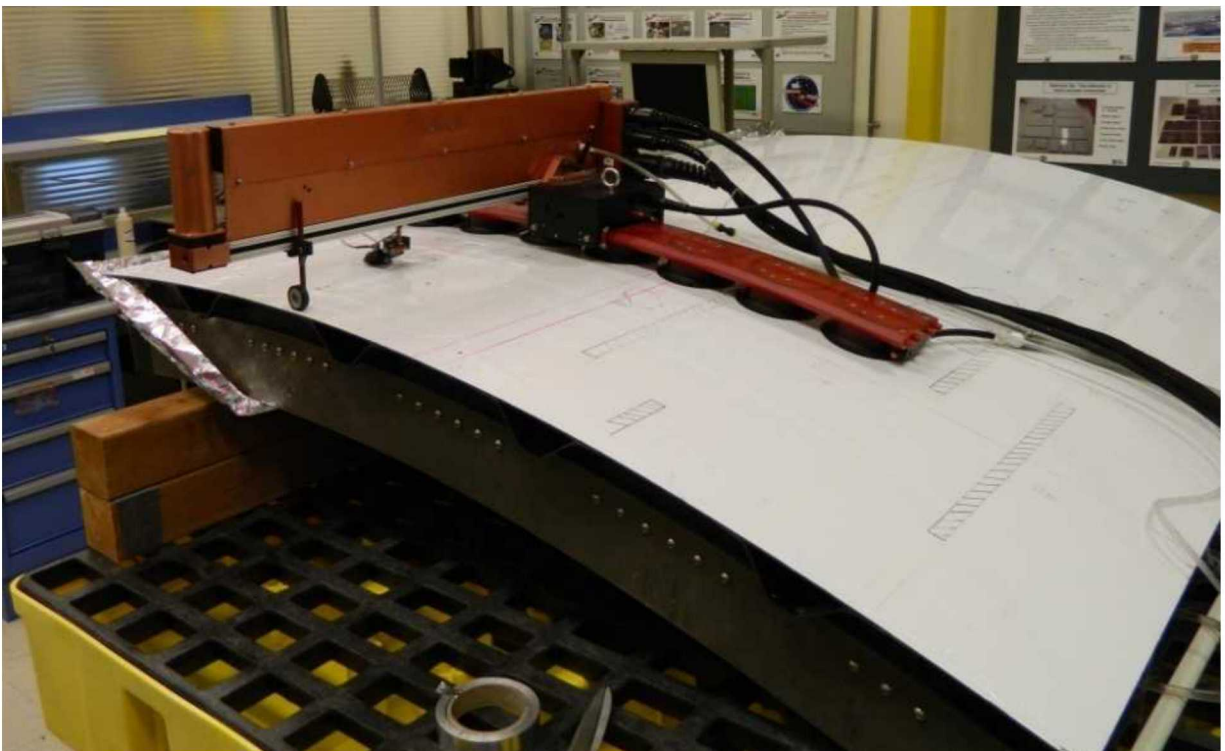
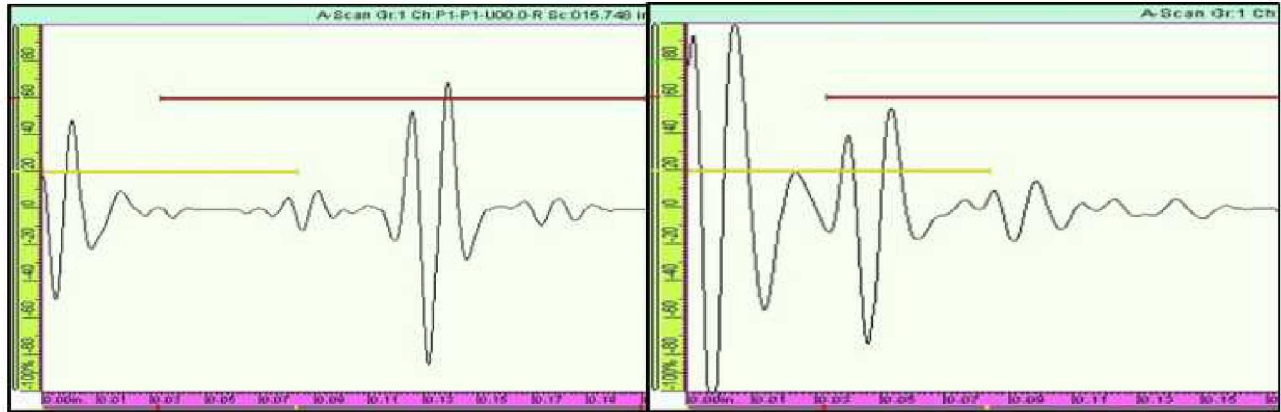


Figure 3-3: MAUS Automated Ultrasonic Scanning System



a)

b)

**Figure 3-4: Sample Ultrasonic Signals Generated from:
a) Structure Without Damage and b) Structure With Damage.**

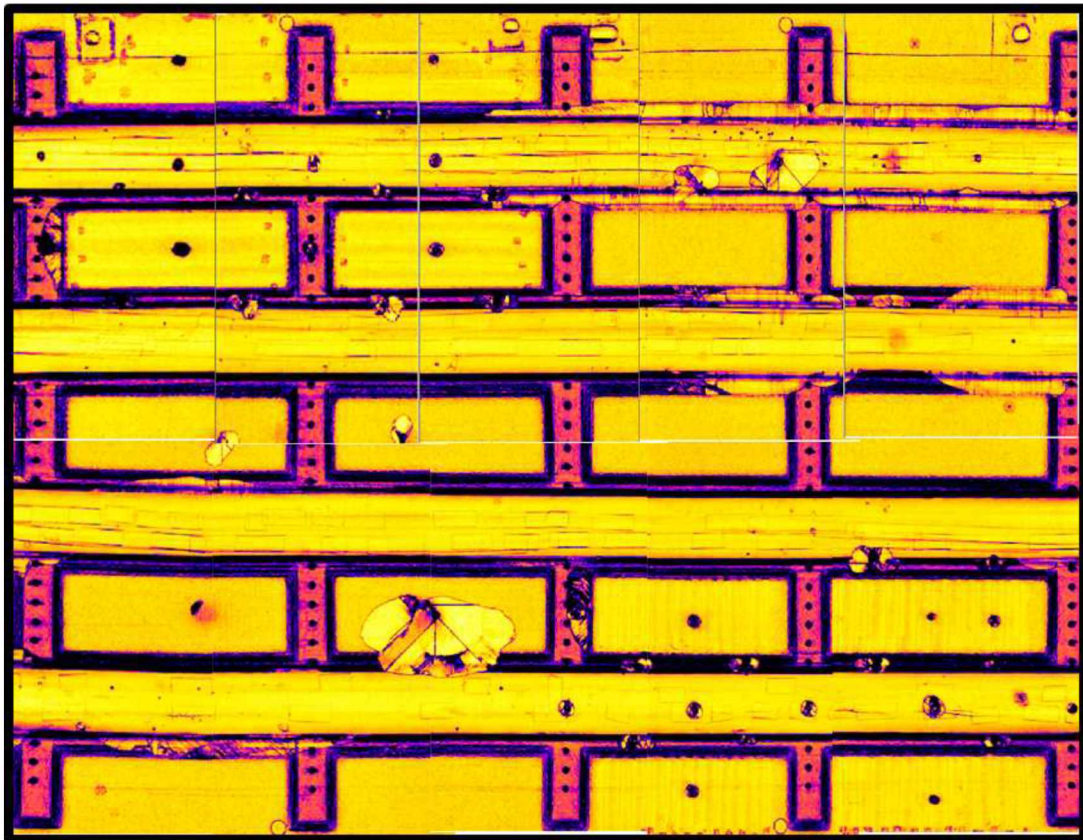


Figure 3-5: Sample C-Scan produced by an Automated Ultrasonic Scanning Device

3.2 Phased Array and Linear Array Ultrasonics

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Phased Array Ultrasonics (PA-UT) involves the use of multiple signals from a contained series of transducers (phased arrays) to produce diagnostic images in the form of ultrasonic C-scans. The operation is similar to hand-held UT, however, the simultaneous use of multiple sensors allows for rapid coverage and two-dimensional images from which to assess structural integrity. A linear array of ultrasonic sensors is placed within a single, scanning probe. The width of the linear probe array determines the swath of the inspection “scan” as the probe is moved along the surface. A compression wave beam is electronically scanned along the array at pulse repetition frequencies in excess of 10 KHz. The response of each individual sensor is monitored and assessed using the ultrasonic wave analysis approaches described above. High speed pulsing combined with rapid data capture permits the linear array to be quickly moved over the structure. The individual responses from each UT sensor are integrated to produce a real-time, C-scan image of the covered area. An example of a phased array UT inspection device deployed by Sonascan in a rolling wheel arrangement is shown in Figure 3-7. The physics of how the ultrasonic array works is depicted in Figure 3-8. By carefully controlling the generation of UT signals and data acquisition from select elements in the array, it is possible to produce customized focusing of the array to improve the sensitivity of the inspection. Electronic focusing permits optimizing the beam shape and size at the expected defect location, thus further optimizing probability of flaw detection. The ability to focus at multiple depths also improves flaw sizing of critical defects in volumetric inspections. Focusing can significantly improve signal-to-noise ratio in challenging applications, and electronic scanning across many groups of elements allows for C-scan images to be produced very rapidly.

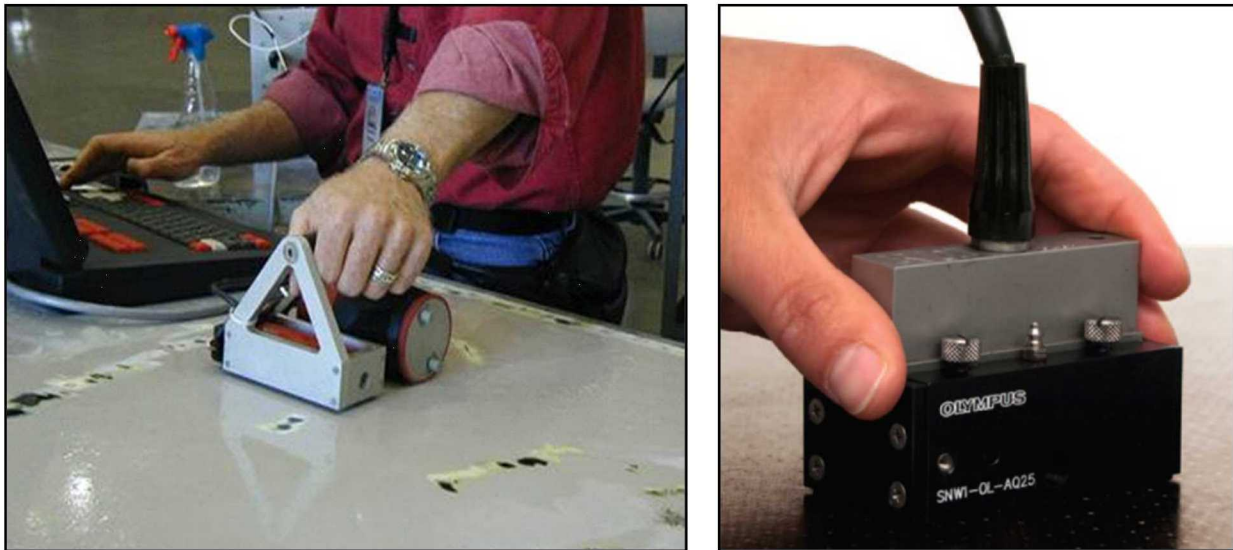


Figure 3-7: Phased Array UT Deployed in Rolling Wheel Mechanism (left) and Contained in a Single Probe Housing (right)

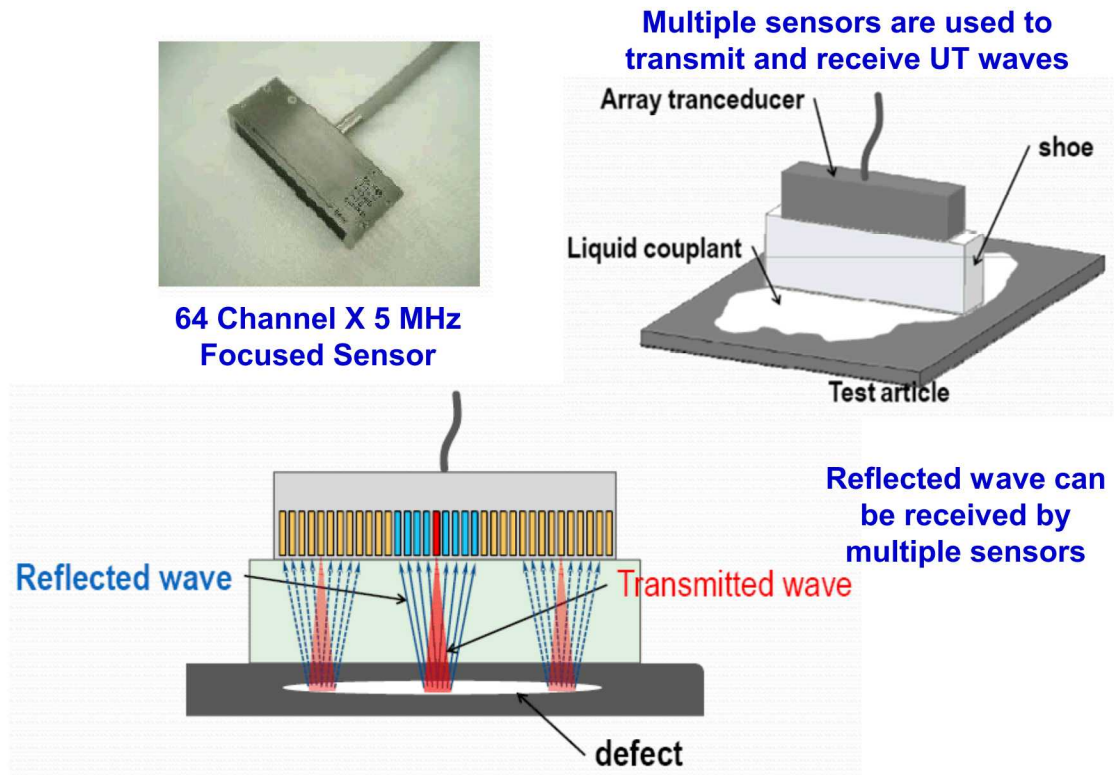


Figure 3-8: Schematic Showing the Operation of an Ultrasonic Array Which Allows for the Generation and Acquisition of Multiple UT Signals

Olympus OmniScan Phased Array UT System - The OmniScan device, shown in Figure 3-9, is manufactured by Olympus. The one-line scan capability of the OmniScan allows inspectors to collect data in one axis and visualize it using the top view. This feature is easy to set up and allows the data to be played back after the acquisition for offline analysis and reporting. Data can be encoder- or time-based and phased array images can be displayed in real time. Transducers are available with up to 128 elements. The OmniScan device can be operated in manual mode or can be connected to an X-Y scanner to automate the inspection of large areas. Figures 3-10 and 3-11 show sample results produced by the OmniScan from the inspection of carbon laminate test specimens that contain engineered flaws. Damage in the parts are shown in the photos and schematics while the accompanying C-scan images show the ability of the inspection method and equipment to detect the flaws.

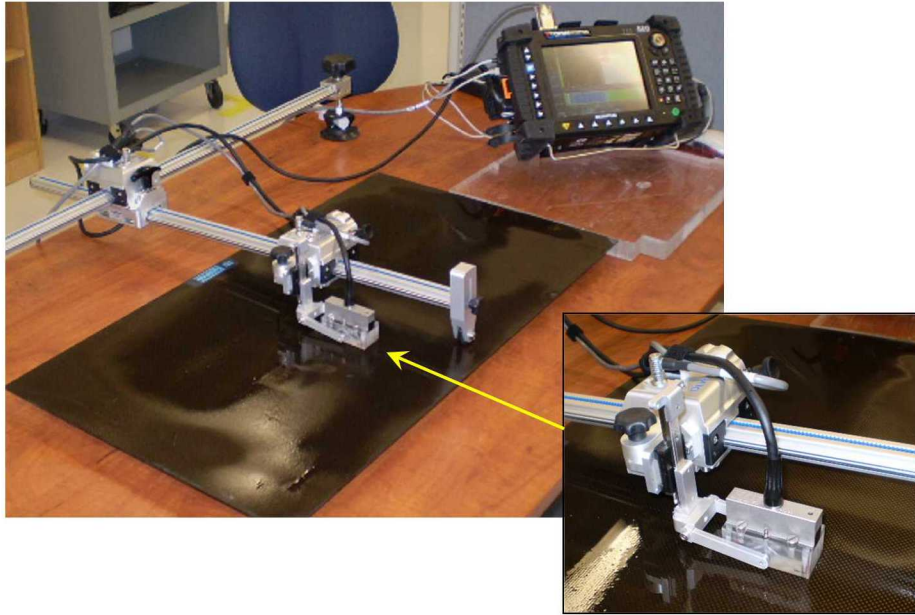


Figure 3-9: Olympus OmniScan Device with a 16:128 Phased Array Transducer

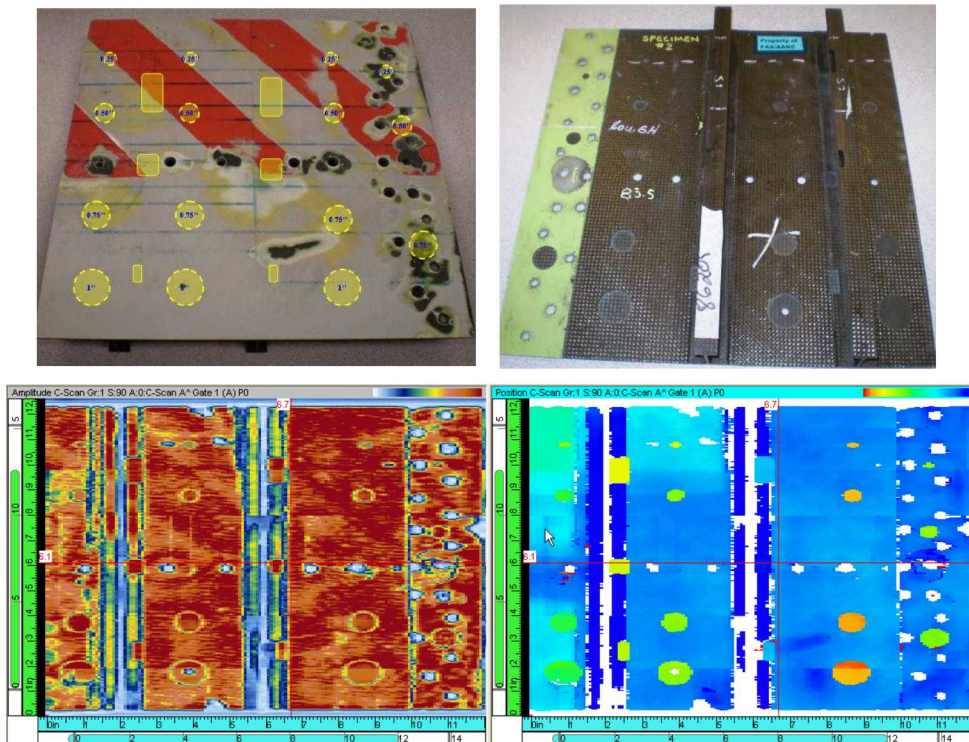


Figure 3-10: Amplitude (right) and Time of Flight (left) Data Produced by OmniScan Inspection of Composite Laminate Aircraft Panel with Flaw Profile as Shown

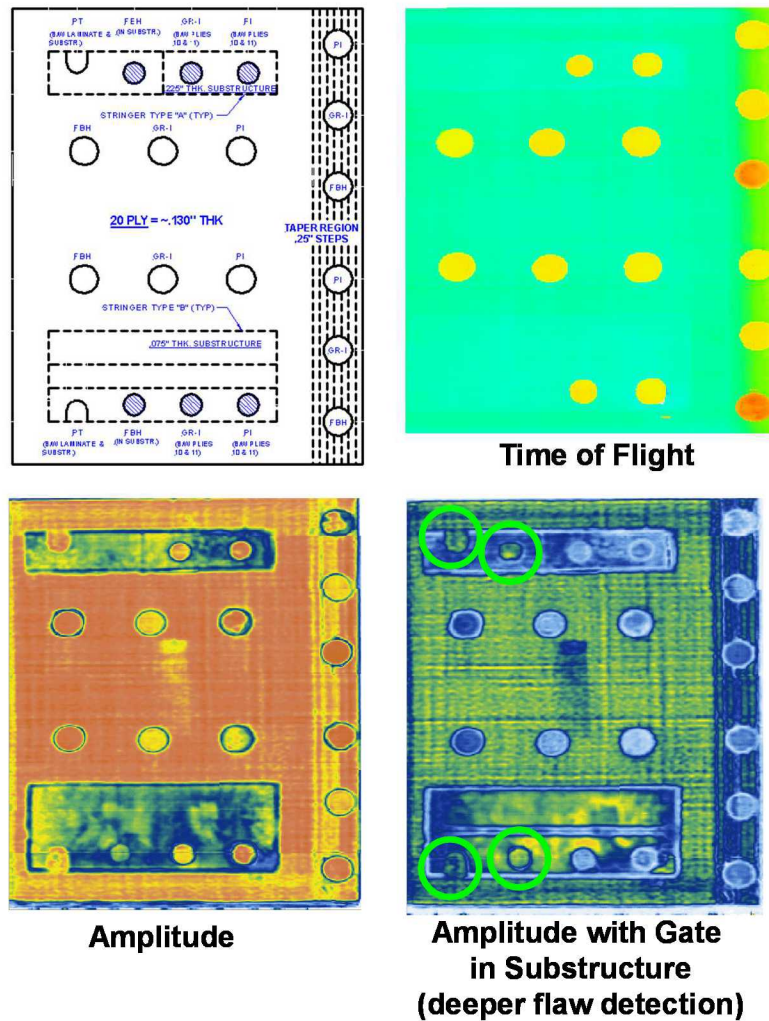


Figure 3-11: C-Scan Images Produced by OmniScan Phased Array UT Inspection of 20 Ply Composite Laminate Feedback Panel with the Flaw Profile as Shown

Toshiba MatrixEye Phased Array UT System - The MatrixEye is a portable 3D ultrasonic inspection system produced by Toshiba. Figure 3-12 shows the portable MatrixEye device and UT array transducer connected to an X-Y scanner. The device uses a Synthetic Aperture Focusing Technique (SAFT) to visualize defects, delaminations, and foreign matter three-dimensionally within materials. One of the key components of the system is an ultrasonic transducer, which contains a large number of small piezoelectric elements that have ultrasonic transmission and reception capability. MatrixEye synthesizes a three-dimensional image of defects by high-speed processing of ultrasonic echo data collected by electronic scanning. The three-dimensional image is produced from a large number of UT echo data signals that have propagated through many different paths within the part being inspected. The system is designed for portability and provides rapid set-up and inspection coverage via parallel processing of the UT signals. The MatrixEye system is already in use in the aviation field and shows promise for wide applications in many industrial fields. Figures 3-13 and 3-14 shows sample C-scans from MatrixEye inspections of composite laminate panels containing different types of structural disbands and interply delamination flaws.

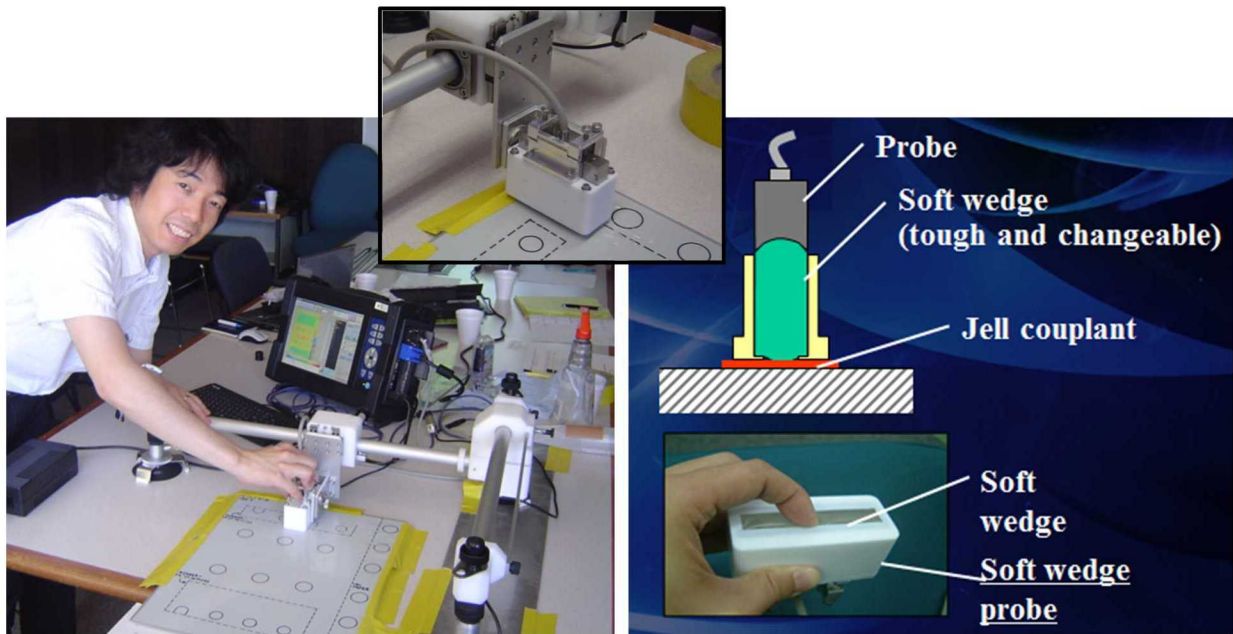


Figure 3-12: MatrixEye Equipment Deployed with X-Y Scanner and Phased Array probe Incorporated into a Soft Wedge Scanning Shoe

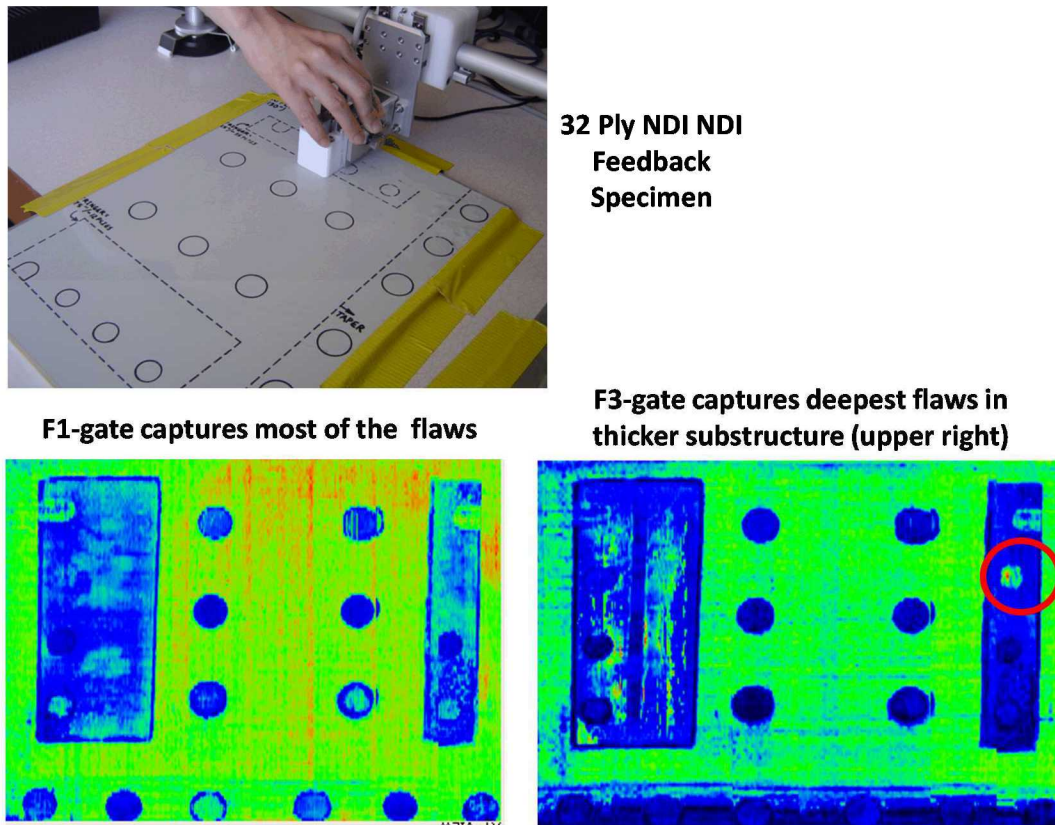


Figure 3-13: C-Scan Image of the 32 Ply NDI Feedback Panel Showing MatrixEye Use of Multiple Gates to Detect Flaws at Various Depths

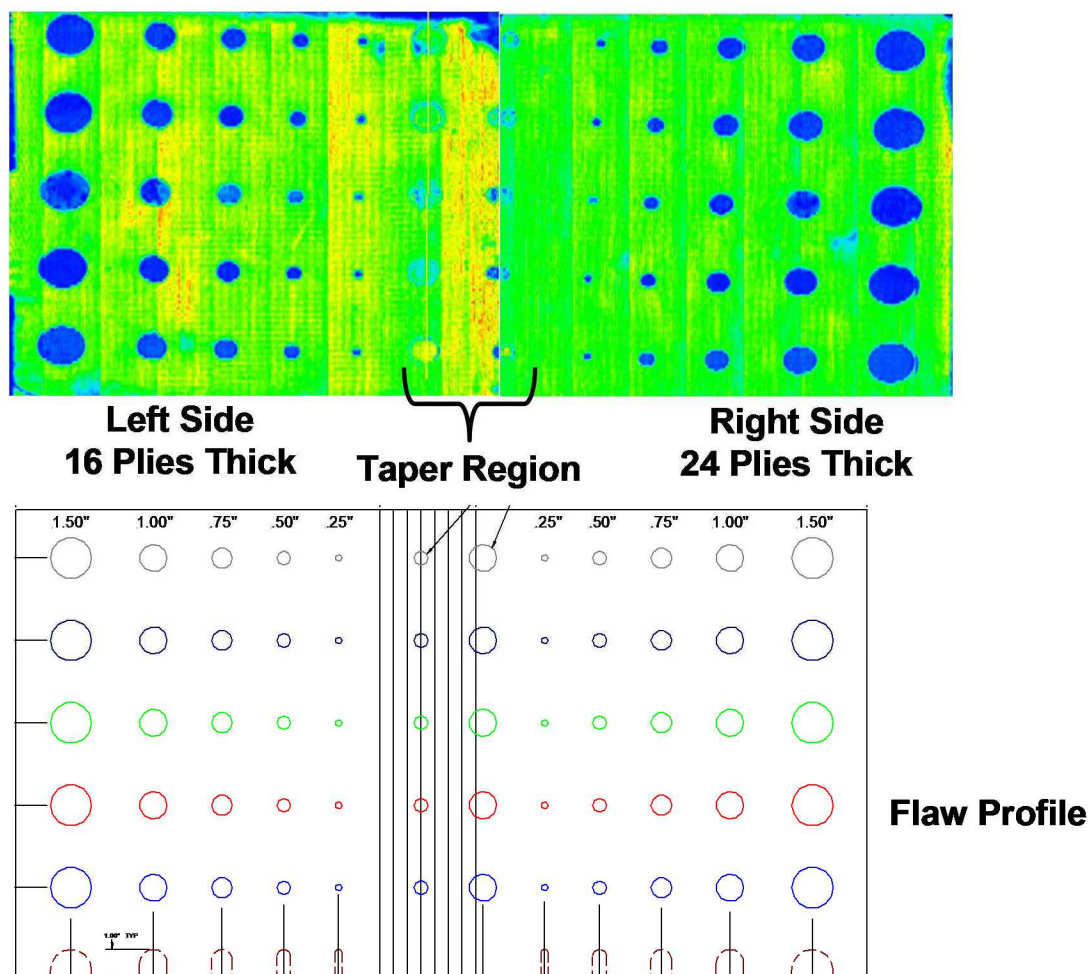


Figure 3-14: MatrixEye C-Scan Image of Carbon Solid Laminate Calibration Panel with Interply flaws

Boeing MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System and the Diagnostic Sonar FlawInspecta Phased Array UT System - The FlawInspecta system, shown in Figures 3-15 and 3-16, was designed to address the requirement for a rapid, low-cost, ultrasonic phased/linear array inspection system. The imager is a laptop-based device which allows for easy transfer of images to other applications, or via the Internet to remote locations. It works with a wide range of integrated arrays and is suited for applications ranging from rapid large area flaw detection to high-speed, low-cost corrosion mapping with 100% coverage. The data acquisition is fast enough to allow for interactive B-scan imaging or rapid C-scanning - typically 40,000mm²/s (64in²/s) for 1mm pixels - for manual coverage of large areas. The system is also able to perform Full Waveform Capture (FWC) where the full A-scan (RF or rectified) is acquired and stored for every point on the inspection surface. This volumetric representation offers the ultimate in data acquisition for archiving and offline review yet is achieved at similar data rates. The FlawInspecta system is capable of a pulse rate of 30kHz, corresponding to a scan rate of 10 in./second or 19.3 sq. ft./minute with a 128-element array. Smart Arrays can be used with a wide range of conventional equipment such as flaw detectors but their full capability is not realized unless used with a real-time imaging system such as the FlawInspecta. At the heart of the system is Diagnostic Sonar's FIRE-technology for real-time full-waveform acquisition and B-scan imaging. A position sensor attachment to the array extends

this capability to C-scans for mapping of inspection areas. The latest FlawInspecta uses proprietary *FIRE*-technology (Flaw Imaging and Reconstruction Engine) to provide fast, manual imaging and mapping with FWC; typically over 1m² per minute for 1mm pixels. This *FIRE*-technology has now been integrated into other proprietary ultrasound mapping systems and provides an easy upgrade path to high performance acquisition for users of these systems.

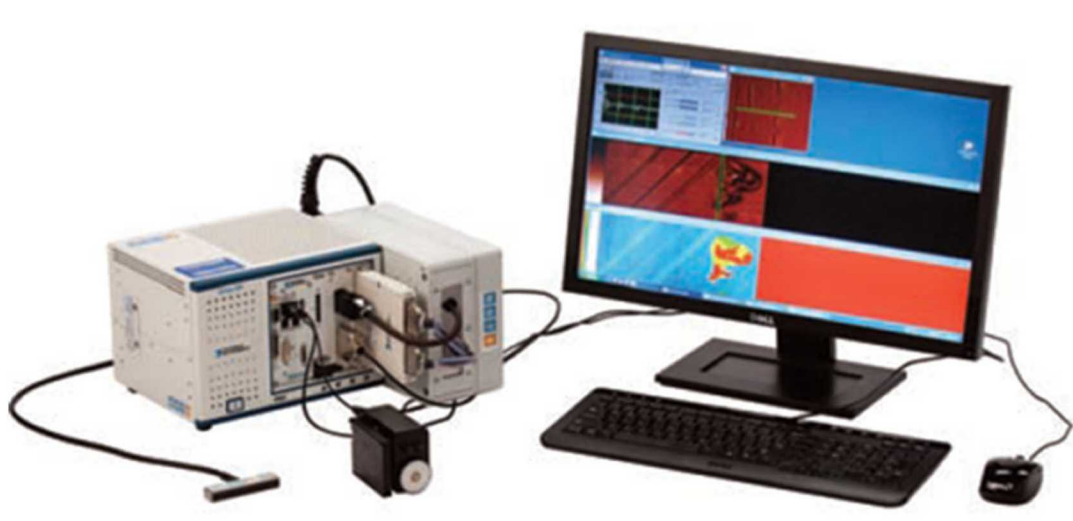
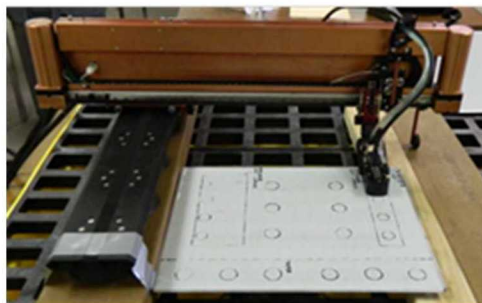


Figure 3-15: Diagnostic Sonar FlawInspecta Phased Array Ultrasonic Inspection System



**Figure 3-16: FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System Deployed on MAUS V Scanner Platform
– Linear Array UT Probe Includes a Delay Line Shoe**

In trial tests on composite honeycomb test specimens, such as the one shown in Figures 3-17 and 3-18, the FlawInspecta system was able to detect nearly all of the engineered defects. Some of the indications are best detected while observing the B-scan display. The majority of the defects in the composite solid laminate test specimen can be seen on the C-scan images shown in Figures 3-19. The FlawInspecta is a high speed ultrasonic array system with dynamic real-time B-scan as well as full waveform capture and C-scan capability.

The MAUS V C-scan system uses an OEM version of the FlawInspecta ultrasonic array system that is controlled by the MAUS software via a DLL. The combination of the MAUS V system with the FlawInspecta system allows for the rapid inspection of large areas of composite structures in a seamless easy to use package. One of the differences between the Diagnostic Sonar FlawInspecta and the add-on FlawInspecta to the MAUS V is the phased array capability. The MAUS V FlawInspecta does not have phased array capability and is deployed in a linear array. The addition of the NDT Solutions designed (VACRS) vacuum assisted couplant delivery and recovery system provides for excellent coupling of large arrays to the parts with the ability to recover and recycle the couplant to nearly eliminate the watery mess of flowing copious amounts of water required to couple large transducers to the inspection area.

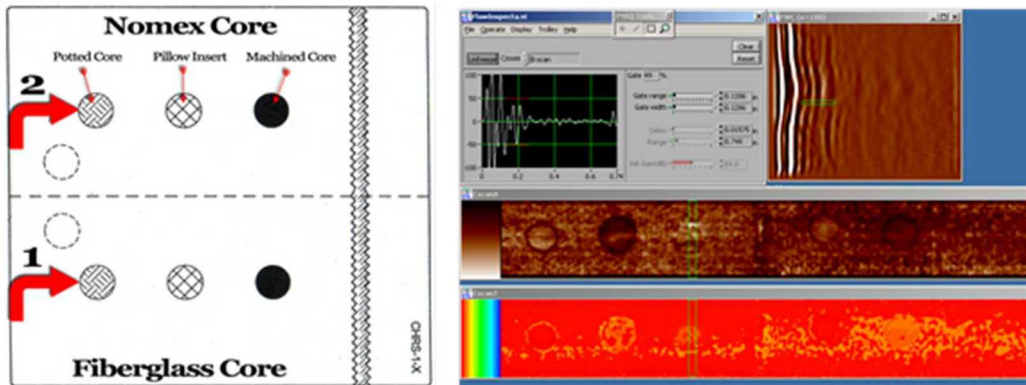


Figure 3-17: Composite Honeycomb Reference Standard and Sample FlawInspecta Results - 3-Ply Carbon Skin with 1" Thick Core

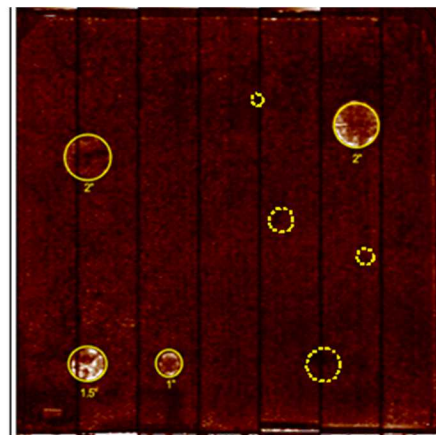


Figure 3-18: Sample Result from FlawInspecta Phased Array UT System on 6 Ply Carbon Specimen (dashed lines represent missed flaws)

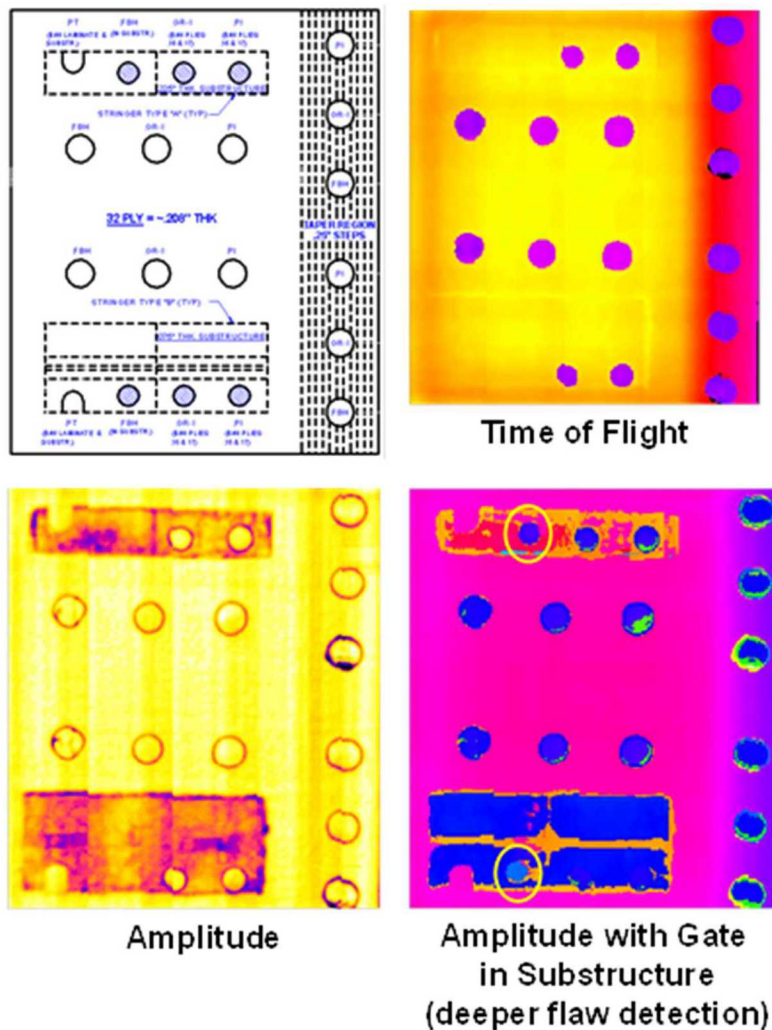


Figure 3-19: C-Scan Images Produced by FlawInspecta MAUS V Linear Array UT System on a 32 Ply Composite Laminate Feedback Panel with the Flaw Profile as Shown

General Electric RotoArray Phased Array UT System - The RotoArray, shown in Figures 3-20 and 3-21, is a manually-operated phased array ultrasonic scanning device. This rolling wheel array can be connected to any suitable phased array flaw detection instrument to allow for rapid scanning of a wide variety of materials and components. The RotoArray can be cabled to the GE Phasor XS or the Olympus OmniScan control and readout devices. Results presented in this report were obtained with the RotoArray connected to the Phasor XS device. The RotoArray can provide A, B and C-scan images that are achieved by rolling the hand-held array probe over the inspection surface. Due to its portability, the RotoArray is well-suited for field inspections. The RotoArray consists of a linear, 64 element ultrasonic array contained within a tube, which is filled with a fluid to create a flexible coupling chamber between the array and the test piece. This also produces a delay line distance between the PA-UT probe and the inspection surface which can be advantageous in obtaining clear signals for flaw interpretation. Signal coupling between the outer wheel and the inspection surface can be achieved using a spray of simple water or a water-UT couplant mixture. An encoder contained within the rolling wheel arrangement operates provides positional data and is

connected to a phased array flaw detector to displays and stores the results. This entire assembly fits within a scanning cart such that it can be rolled in a linear manner along the surface to be inspected to scan for flaws, delaminations, or other discontinuities. The RotoArray was designed with post-manufacturing inspections in mind, as well as for the inspection of damage of aircraft in service.

Figure 3-22 shows inspection results from a 32 ply (0.23" thick skin) solid laminate composite panel with a 58 ply (0.192" thick) upper stringer and 50 ply (0.125" thick) lower stringer. Several different C-scans, corresponding to different gates set for specific flaw depths, along with time-of-flight information can be used to image these flaws. Note also that several strips, generated by the linear motion of the RotoArray across the part, can be connected together to form a single image of the inspection over the entire part.



Figure 3-20: GE Phasor XS RotoArray Wheel Probe Containing a 5 MHz. 64 Element Linear Array



Figure 3-21: Deployment of RotoArray Wheel Probe on a Composite Laminate Test Specimen in the AANC Flaw Detection Experiment

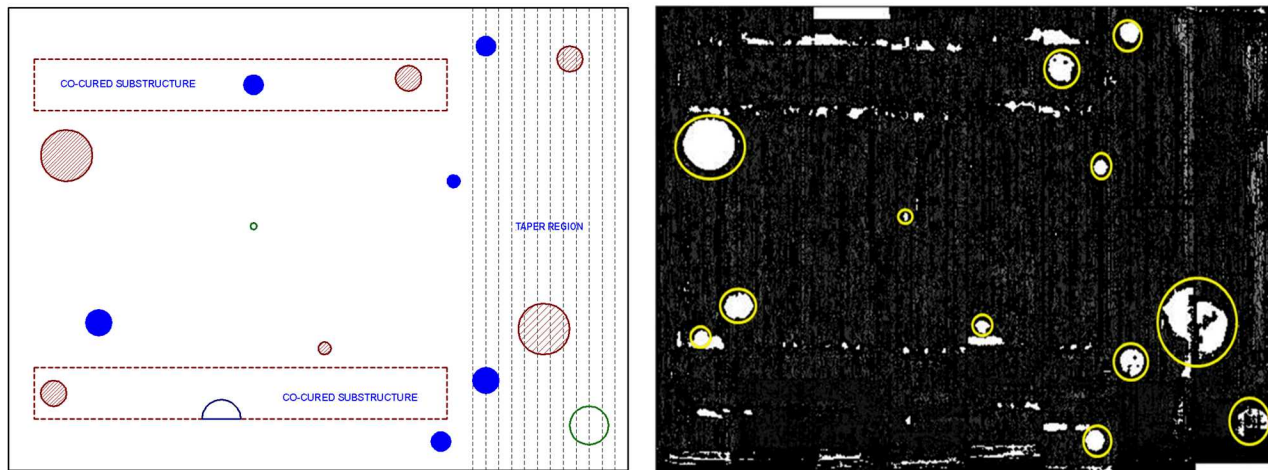


Figure 3-22: Results Produced by RotoArray Wheel Probe on a 32 Ply Panel with Substructure Elements

Sonatest RapidScan 2 Linear Array UT System - The RapidScan 2 with the rolling Array WheelProbe was developed by Sonatest and provides a capability for A, B and C-scan inspections. It uses a novel, rubber-coupled sensor array that provides rapid, wide area C-scan data in the field. Data acquisition, ultrasonic gating and evaluation tools are used to ensure proper analysis of the ultrasonic signals. The RapidScan 2 and wheel probe, shown in Figure 3-23, operates in a pulse-echo mode suitable for inspecting medium to large areas. A water film coupling, that can be sprayed onto the inspection surface, is used to transmit the UT pulse and return signals from the rolling wheel and back to the phased array transducer housed within the wheel. The resultant C-scans, such as those shown in the examples of Figures 3-24 through 3-27, show time of flight and amplitude data. Multiple scan strips can be assembled to produce images of entire structures such as the horizontal stabilizer image shown in Figure 3-26. Both A and B-scans can be simultaneously displayed. The system includes a 128-channel multiplexing pulser/receiver module; data capture electronics and a standard PC laptop, housed in a low-profile plastic enclosure for portability. The array wheel probes incorporate a 64 element phased array (50mm) and 128 element phased array (100mm) with 0.8mm resolution, and a high resolution position encoder. Current array probes are available in 1, 2, 5, and 10 MHz to provide a range of resolutions and depth of penetration in thick and highly-attenuative structures. Sonatest has cabled their 5 MHz wheel probe to operate with an Olympus OmniScan unit and this set-up was also used in this experiment.



Figure 3-23: RapidScan UT Array Device

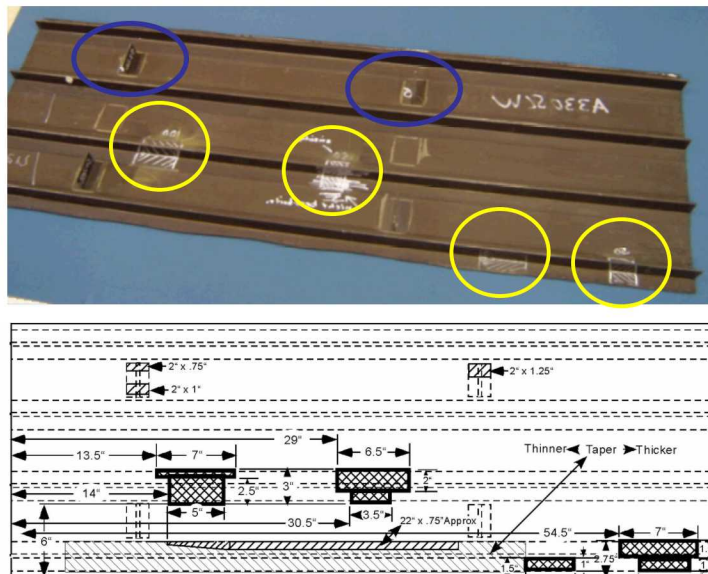


Figure 3-24: Carbon Composite Panel with Stringers, Ribs and Engineered Flaws
 Three stringer-to-skin disbonds (yellow)
 Two rib to-skin-partial disbonds (blue)

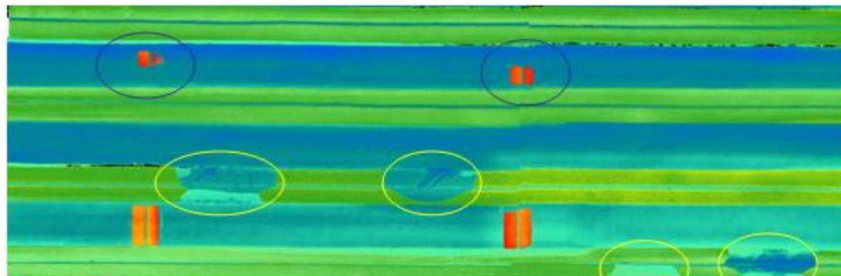


Figure 3-25: Inspection Scans of Composite Panel Produced by the RapidScan UT Array Device

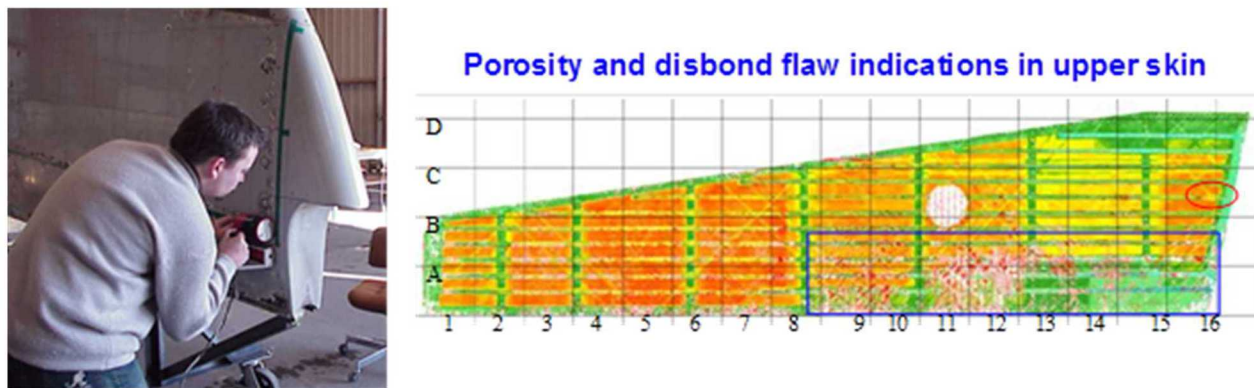


Figure 3-26: Scan of Composite Horizontal Stabilizer with Ultrasonic RapidScan Array Probe

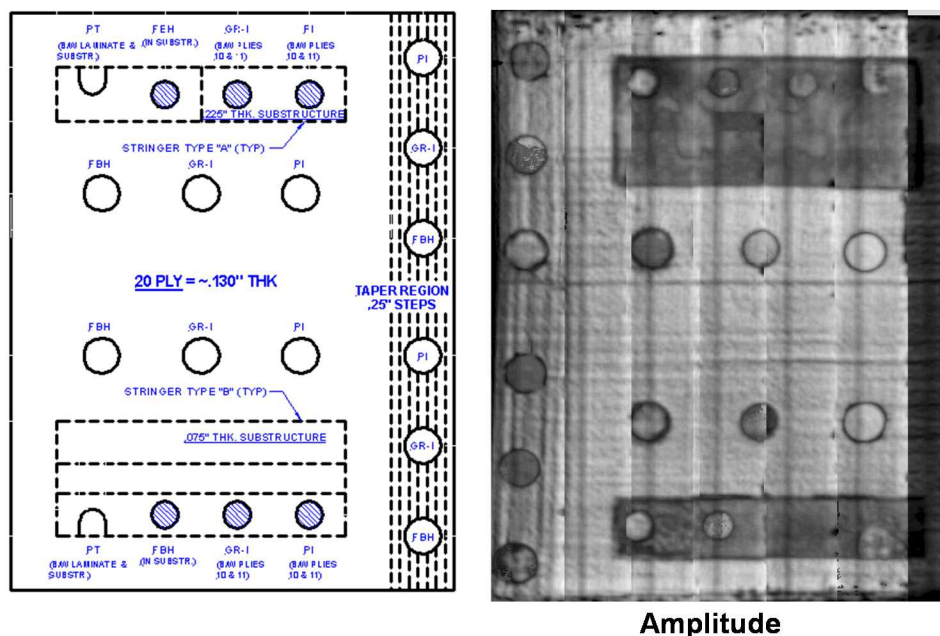


Figure 3-27: C-Scan Images Produced by RapidScan Rolling Wheel Array Probe on a 20 Ply Composite Laminate Feedback Panel with the Flaw Profile as Shown

3.3 Laser Ultrasonics

Laser-ultrasonics (LUS) is generally defined as a technology in which one laser generates ultrasonic waves and another laser coupled to a detection system detects the associated ultrasonic displacements [3.4-3.6]. There are four main issues that have limited the adoption of LUS for the inspection of composites: 1) the lack of reliability of various prototypes used to validate the technology for production, 2) the acquisition cost of the LUS equipment, 3) the small but significant differences between conventional and LUS signals and, 4) while gantry-based LUS systems for

production environments have demonstrated excellent results, a fieldable (portable) system is not available for use in hangar environments.

LUS Deployment - LUS is a non-contact technique that uses a scanning laser beam to quickly move across the part in a uniform coverage pattern (see Figure 3-28). Ultrasound is generated by pulsing the laser beam, causing the surface layer to rapidly expand and contract through thermal expansion. The absorbed laser energy is converted into heat in the top 10-100 μ m of the surface. The resultant temperature rise creates a local expansion of the material in the frequency of ultrasound (1-10 MHz). Thus, a longitudinal ultrasonic wave is introduced into the part. Echoes from this wave, when they again reach the surface, are sensed by a coaxial detection laser and converted to images proportional to the echo strength. Laser light scattered off the surface is analyzed by an interferometer to extract the ultrasonic signals that are “imprinted” on the laser as phase and frequency modulations caused by the moving surface. The ultrasonic signals that are extracted are basically the same as those obtained with conventional ultrasonic systems. The two laser beams can be indexed over the material with a scanner to produce standard C-scan images [3.3].

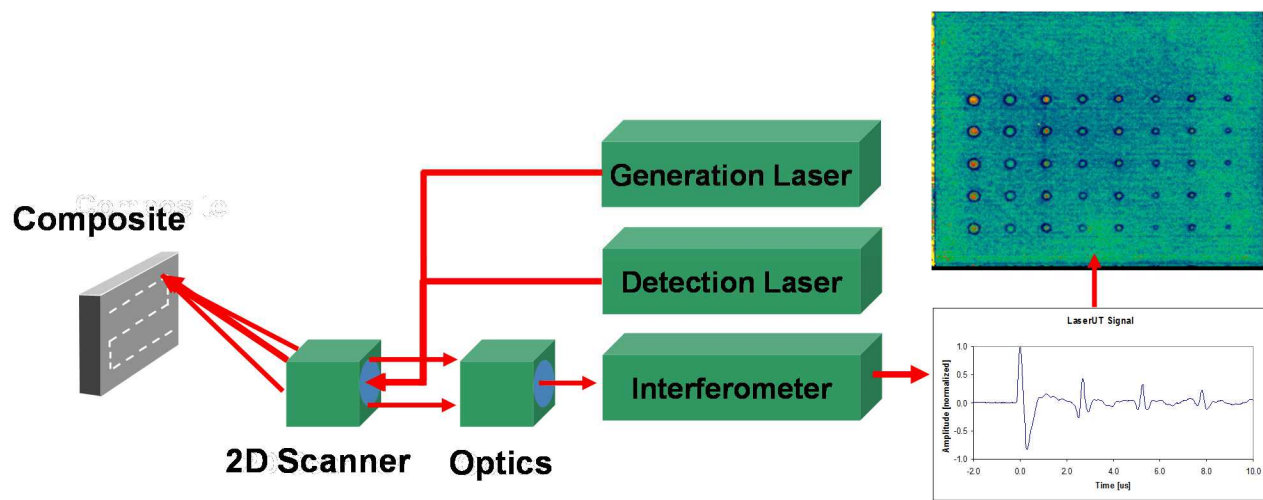


Figure 3-28: Schematic of Laser UT System Operation

This data transmission and acquisition does not require the laser beam to be deployed perpendicular to the structure as in other ultrasonic methods. Thus, it is possible to scan complex parts without detailed contour following. Ultrasound propagates perpendicular to the surface regardless of the laser incident angle (up to $\pm 45^\circ$). Currently, the laser UT systems are deployed using a gantry system which provides a high-speed two-dimensional optical scanner to index the beams over the part. This allows for rapid inspections and generation of the C-scan images. Hand scanning using ultrasonics can be slow and tedious leading to human factors concerns with respect to coverage and human vigilance. In addition, water-coupled UT can be difficult and time-consuming to implement on complex shaped parts. Figure 3-29 compares traditional ultrasonic inspections to a laser UT interrogation. The first LUS systems mounted on robots [3.3] used gantry-type robots. Optical alignment of the CO₂ laser beam in the optical scanner must be precisely maintained to obtain valid ultrasonic results. The CO₂ laser cannot be efficiently transmitted by optical fibers. Therefore, the most obvious solution is to move the CO₂ laser along with the optical scanner. This approach requires gantry robots because only this type of robot can move equipment as large and heavy as an industrial CO₂ laser. Gantry robots present several disadvantages, the most important being the

cost. The gantry robot is typically the single most expensive element of a LUS system that includes such a robot. Several different deployments of the laser ultrasonic inspection technique and a schematic showing the ability to inspect parts without maintaining a perpendicular inspection orientation are shown in Figure 3-30.

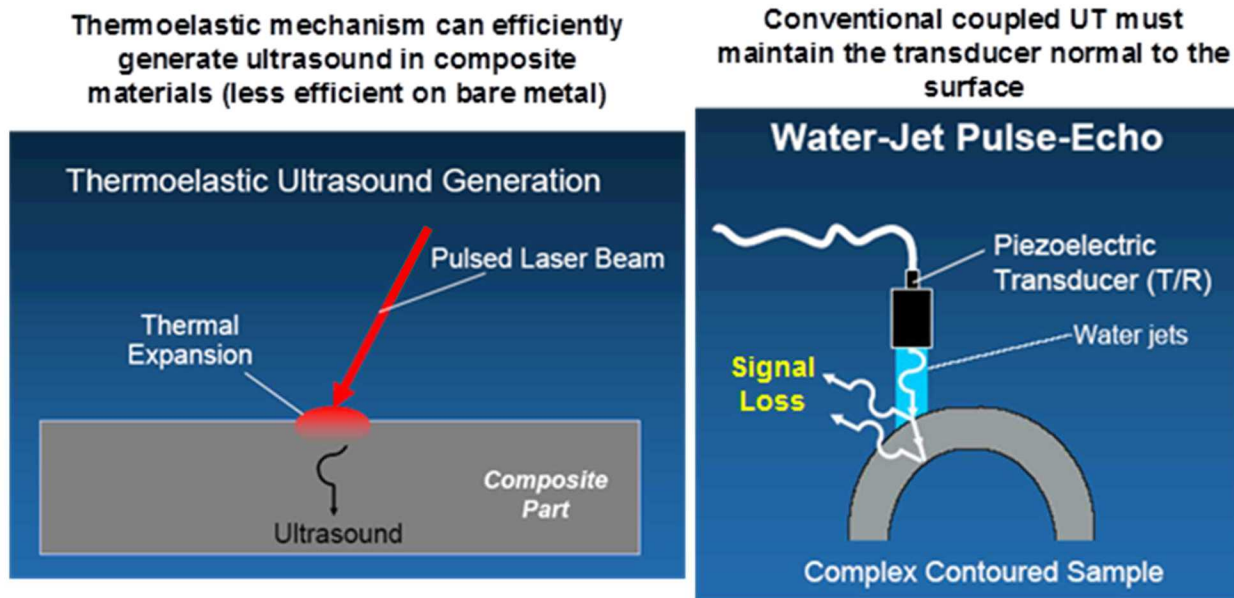
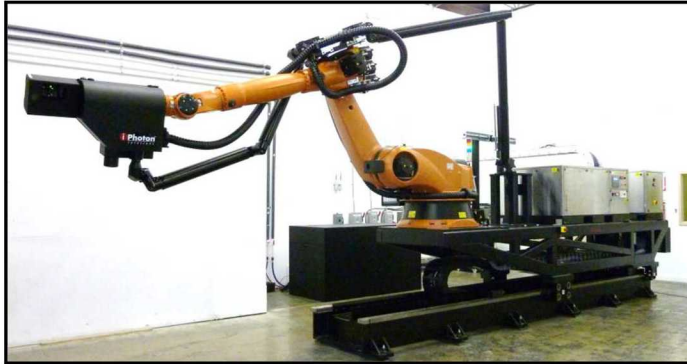
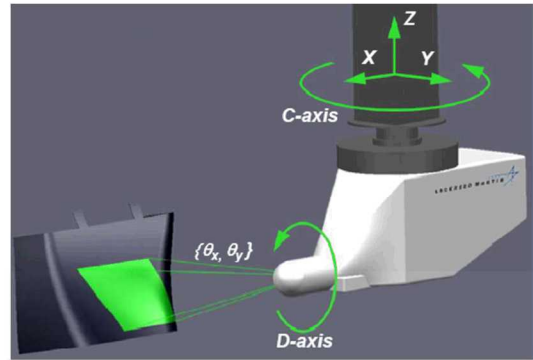


Figure 3-29: Comparison of Conventional and Laser UT Interrogation of Components

iPhoton iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System - The iPhoton LUS concept, called iPLUS, was used to conduct the LUS inspections listed in this report. An iPLUS III system is shown in Figures 3-30 and 3-31. It uses a beam delivery system mounted on an articulated robot. To increase the working envelope, the robot, beam delivery system, and CO₂ laser are mounted on a linear rail. The linear rail provides an almost unlimited working envelope to the iPLUS system in one direction. Articulated robots provide flexibility not possible with gantry-based approaches. Some applications require the inspection of composite substructures inside larger structures, such as stringers inside a fuselage. Therefore, the iPLUS configuration was developed as a response to these applications. In the iPLUS III systems, the beam delivery system is composed of two standard beam delivery systems joined together on axis 3 of the robot. This approach, combined with a cantilevered linear rail, provides over 6 m of penetration inside a structure (a fuselage for example). For the inspection of parts, the iPLUS scan head is positioned using the articulating robot. Once the scan head is in position, the scanning is carried out by moving the laser beams along the surface of the sample using only the two mirrors of the scanner. The scan area is defined by the angular movement θ_x and θ_y of the scanner two mirrors. This process is illustrated in Figures 3-30 and 3-31. When the scanning of one area is completed, the robot moves the scan head to the next pose to scan the next area.

Ultrasound propagates perpendicular to surface regardless of the laser incident angle (up to $\pm 45^\circ$)



Articulated robot system on a linear rail
Freq. Range = 0.5 MHz – 20 MHz



Figure 3-30: Schematic of Laser UT Method and Deployment in Gantry System and Rail System

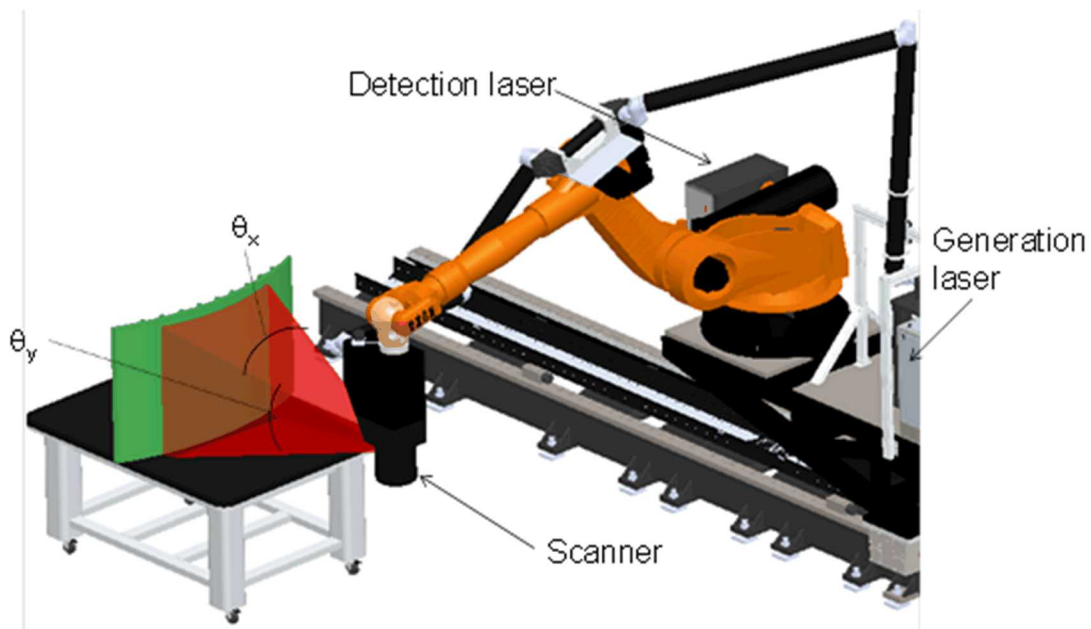


Figure 3-31: Inspection of a Part Using the iPLUS Scan Head and Articulating Robot

Figures 3-32 to 3-36 provide sample images produced by laser ultrasonic inspections on various composite parts, some of which contain substructure elements. Note that surface and subsurface structural details are imaged in the scan. The clarity of the flaws and sensitivity for flaw detection down to 0.25" diameter are depicted in the C-scan images. Figure 3-32 shows the iPLUS LUS results from a 16 ply, 12" X 12" composite laminate panel that was damaged by simulated hail impact. The top left and right are the amplitude and time-of-flight C-scan images, respectively. The bottom graphics show an A-scan and the B-scan corresponding to the line in the top C-scans.

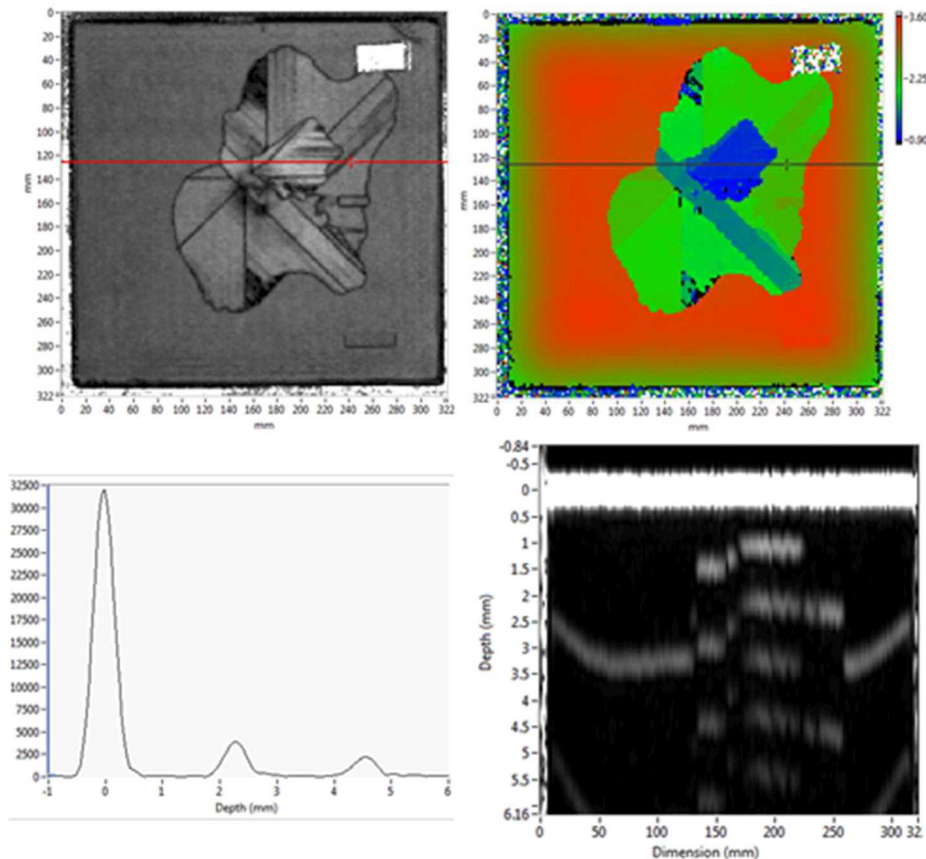


Figure 3-32: iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Scan of a 16 Ply Composite Laminate with Impact Damage

Figure 3-35 shows ultrasonic results obtained on a curved full-scale fuselage composite panel measuring 5' X 7' and containing stringers and skins (20 bays). The fuselage curvature is very gradual so the part is considered as flat from a LUS point of view. This panel was also impacted in the laboratory with ice/hail projectiles. A bull-nose shaped part approximately 2 feet high by 1.5 feet wide by 0.7 feet deep, with a curvature radius of approximately 0.35 feet was inspected using an iPLUS system. Figure 3-36 shows the pictures from the scan head camera and the corresponding ultrasonic amplitude C-scans. The engineered flaws are clearly imaged in the LUS scans. The two flat areas of the bull nose part required one robot pose each while the curved end of the part required three poses to limit the angles of incidence. Those five poses were recorded in a teach mode that was used for the automated ultrasonic inspection. In addition to those five poses, the part was manually moved to access the channel underneath that simulated the wing spar.

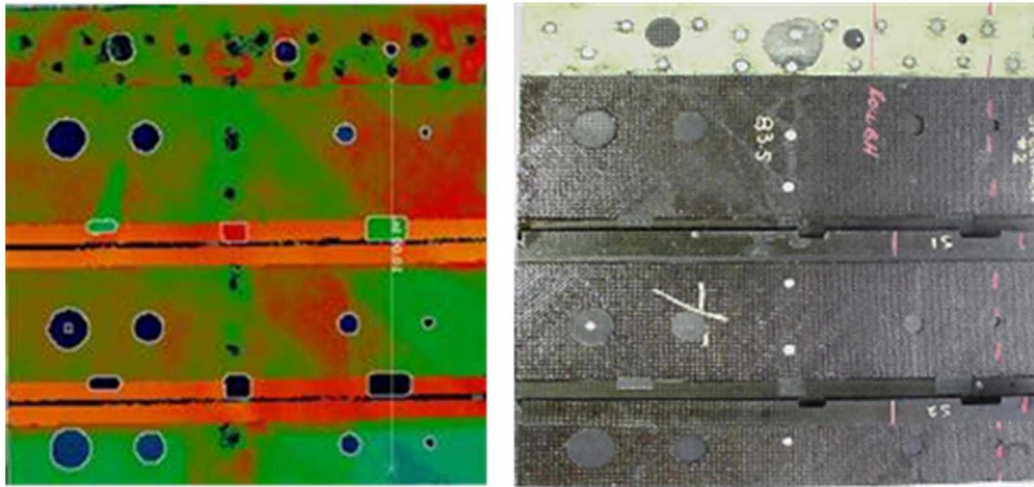


Figure 3-33: iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Inspection of 0.111” Thick Composite Laminate Test Specimen; Photo on Right Shows the Layout of the Engineered Flaws

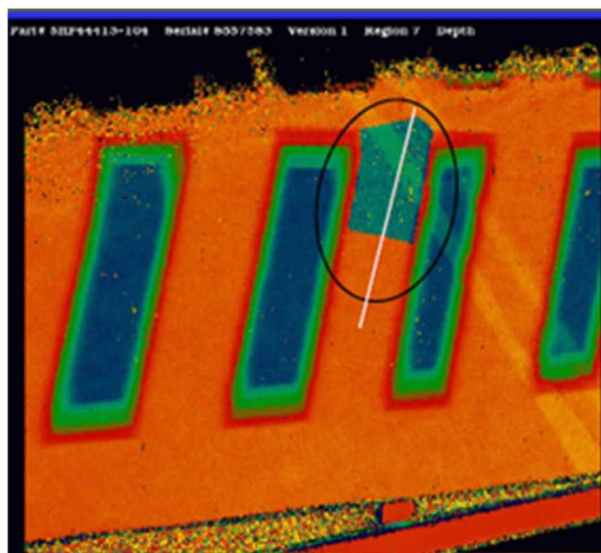


Figure 3-34: iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Image of a Composite Part Containing an Inclusion as Highlighted

The LUS technology offers flexibility and faster inspection cycle time. However, even though LUS signals are ultrasonic signals, there are some differences with ultrasonic signals obtained with conventional ultrasonic transducers. Those differences must be understood when trying to adapt processing and analysis techniques coming from decades of experience using piezoelectric transducers. Key advantages of laser ultrasonics are: 1) the ability to scan quickly in a non-contact mode, all the way to the edge of a part, and 2) the ability to launch a through-thickness longitudinal wave even when the laser beam impinges on the surface at an angle. This means that the laser beam can be directed at the surface of complex shapes and scan them efficiently without the need for

contour following, complicated scan shoes or angled water jet arrangements. A laser beam can also be directed through apertures to scan the interior of a structure. Disadvantages of laser ultrasonics include: 1) sensitivity to surface coatings (variations in coatings can affect the strength of the ultrasonic signal), 2) maximum sensitivity requires tuning for each structure type, 3) system expertise/training is needed to ensure alignment to produce uniform signal, 4) safety concerns necessitating personnel exclusion zones, and 5) the potential for the laser to damage the part surface if not used with caution.

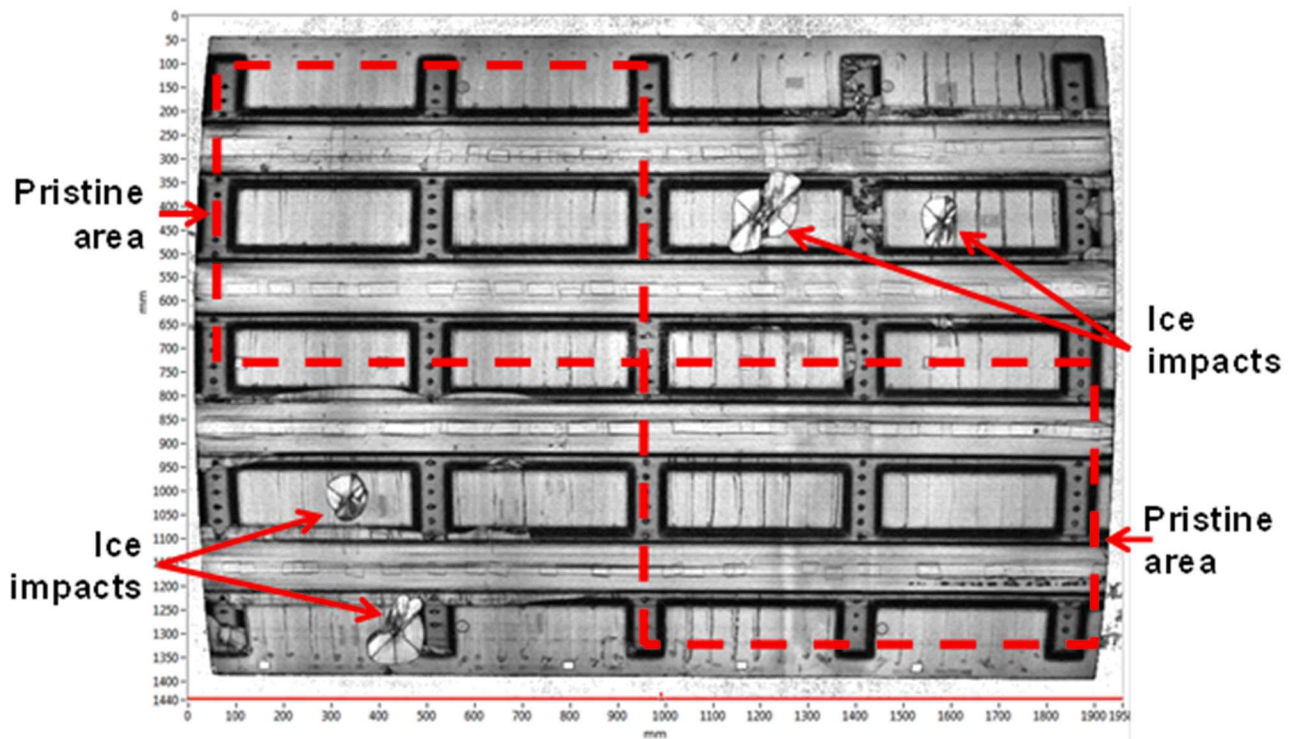


Figure 3-35: Sample Results from iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Inspection of a 3-Ply Fiberglass Honeycomb Panel

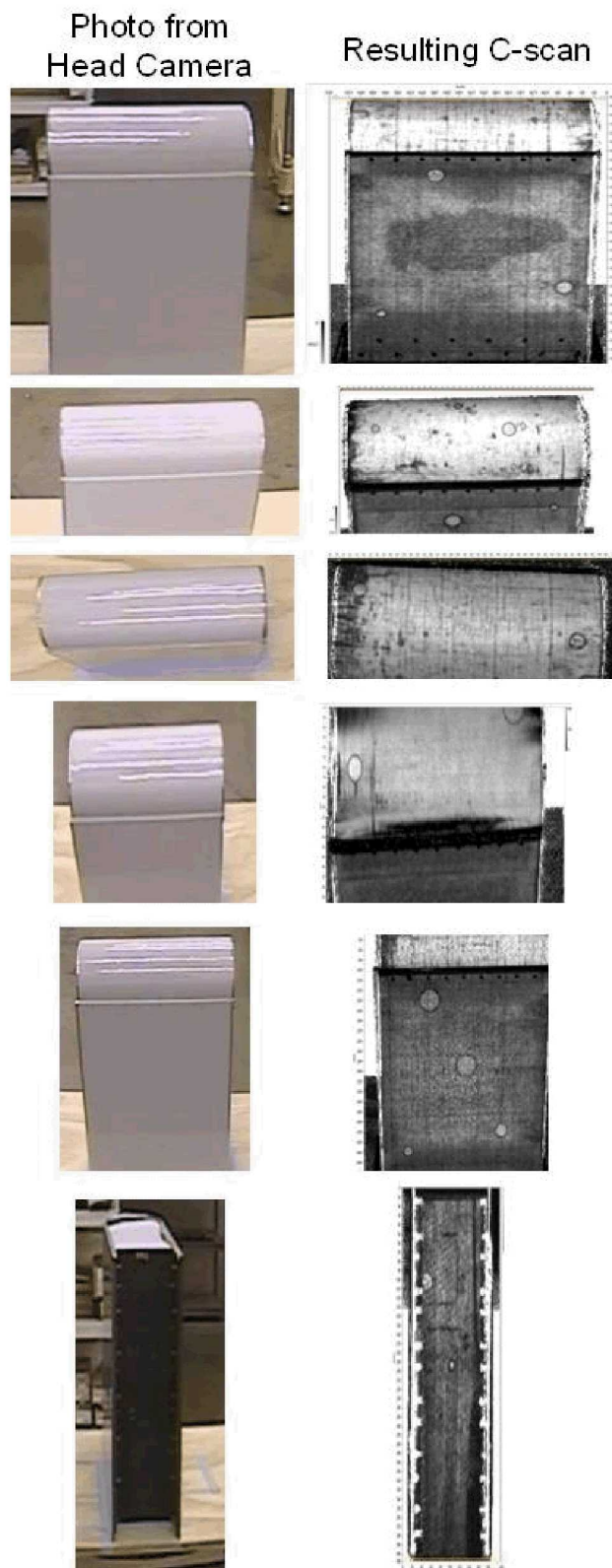


Figure 3-36: Robot Camera Photos Matched with associated LUS C-scans for the Inspection of a Bullnose-Shaped Composite Component

3.4 Acoustography - Video-Based Ultrasonics

Acoustography is a full-field ultrasonic imaging process where an exceptionally high resolution, two-dimensional Acousto-Optic (AO) sensor is employed to directly convert the ultrasound into a visual image in real time. Acoustography, or ultrasonic imaging, makes use of a detector array sensitive to ultrasonic energy, much like detector arrays sensitive to light used in digital cameras. The device produces a real-time image or “instant C-scan” of defects in the part. Acoustography is a potential field inspection technique that could be useful for rapid identification of damage from impact, lightning strikes, and other composite damage. Results from acoustography inspections are best viewed as motion pictures where, amid their surrounding structure, delaminations can be distinguished.

Acoustic images can be formed in through transmission mode as shown in Figures 3-37 and 3-38 or in reflection mode as shown in Figures 3-36 and 3-40. Acoustic images can be formed using an acoustic lens that is analogous to photography or video camera. In the through-transmission shadow mode of Acoustography, usually suited for nondestructive testing of components during manufacturing, ultrasound is passed through the test component where it is absorbed, reflected, and scattered by the structural material and any anomalies therein. The projection image of the material structure and anomalies is created by the ultrasound as it exits the test component. This projection image is directly converted into a corresponding visual image (shown in Figure 3-38) by the AO sensor in real time.

Potential advantages of Acoustography include: 1) full field – area inspection not point by point inspection, 2) near real-time – rapid screening of components, 3) high lateral resolution – ultrasound converted into visual image by minute molecules, 4) simple – visual image is intuitive, easy to interpret compared with electronic signals, 5) low cost – lower skill operator needed, which results in significant running cost savings, 6) hand portability- no need for bulky mechanical scanning equipment, and 7) simplicity – no need for elaborate set-up of cumbersome scanning apparatus.

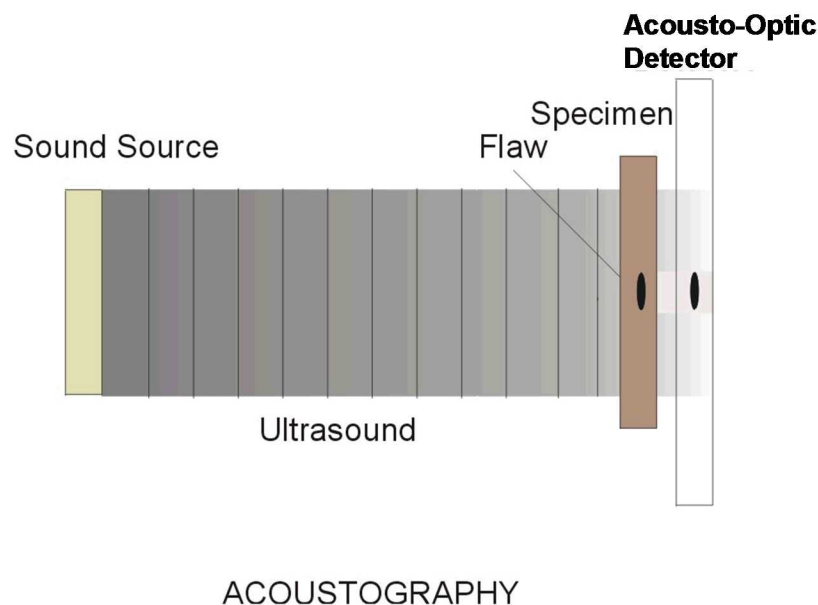


Figure 3-37: Acoustography Through Transmission Mode Allows Instant Full-Field Inspection of an Area

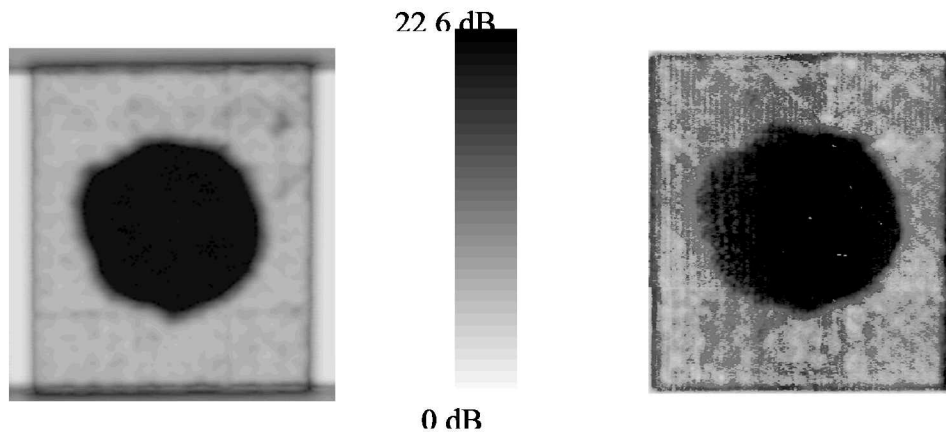


Figure 3-38: Through-Transmission Inspection of Impact Damage in a Graphite/Epoxy Composite Specimen, C-scan (left) and Acoustography (right)

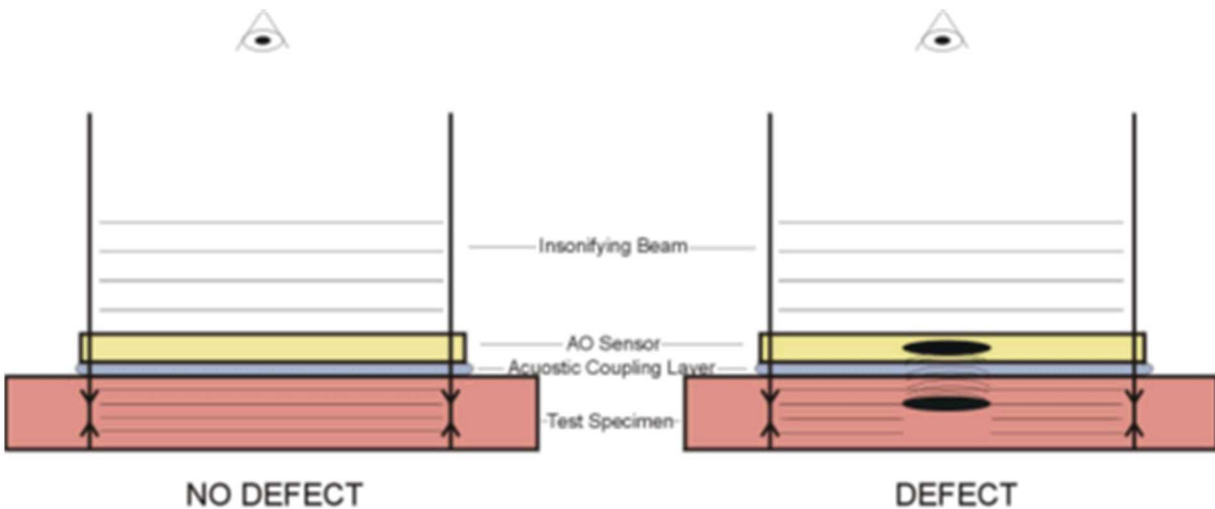


Figure 3-39: Reflection Mode Acoustography Allows Single-Sided Ultrasonic Inspection

Imperium AcoustoCam Digital Acoustic Video Device - A portable (fieldable) version of Acoustography is Imperium's AcoustoCam, which is slightly different in that normally the detector array is placed on the opposite surface of the part so that sound is captured in through-transmission mode as shown Figure 3-37. However, recent developments have produced single-sided equipment that can be used from the exterior of a structure in pulse-echo mode. To generate C-scan images, ultrasound is introduced into the target through a large, unfocused transducer. The pressure wave strikes the target and is scattered. This scattered energy is collected by an acoustic lens and focused onto the array, identical to the infrared. The array is in intimate contact with a water column that allows for the ultrasound to propagate. The use of a lens provides a simple, inexpensive alternative to complex beam forming often employed in ultrasound imaging. The user focuses by adjusting a

lens while looking at the image. Furthermore, it provides a means to trade off resolution and area coverage, or zoom in and out. The device produces a real-time image, an “instant C-scan” of defects in the part.

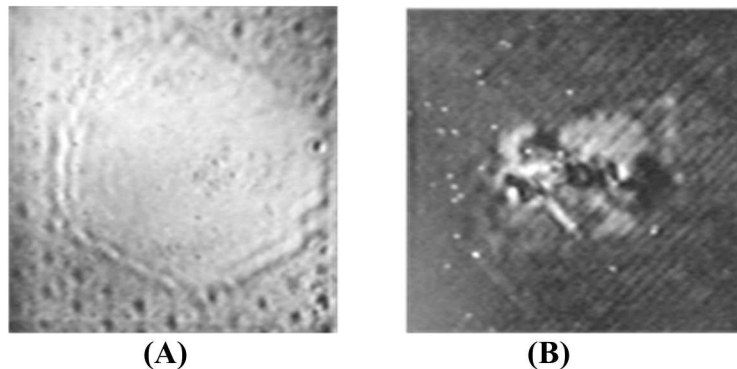


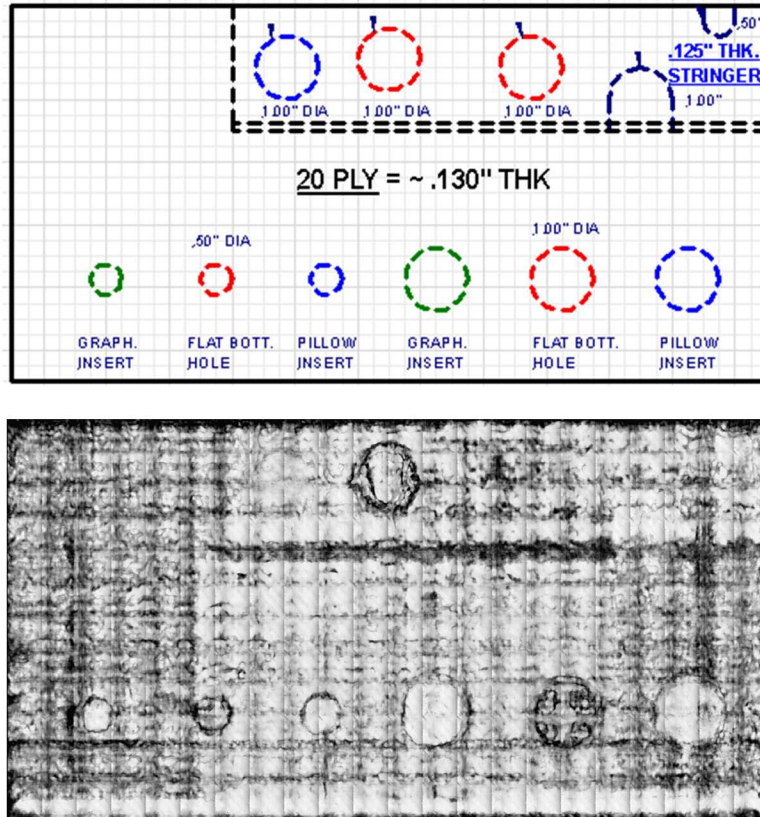
Figure 3-40: Preliminary results with Reflection Mode Acoustography
(A) Image of Disbond at Aluminum Skin/Honeycomb Interface
(B) Image of Impact Damage in Graphite/Epoxy Composite Laminate
AcoustoCam (Imperium)

Figure 3-41 shows the Imperium AcoustoCam equipment along with a digital image of a flaw within the structure (inset). The Imperium Camera is a liquid-filled, “point and shoot,” ultrasound imaging device that is placed directly (contacts) on the object under test. It contains a transducer and lens system that focuses the incoming ultrasound wave-front onto the face of an internal detector and operates in the 5—KHz to 7.5 MHz range. The focus grip mechanism is located on the Camera Head for image focusing. The grip has indented numbering to identify the position of the lens. The lens assembly contains a 3-set aspherical F1 set of lenses. A cable connection at the base of the camera connects communication and power from the control unit to the Camera Head. The i600 AcoustoCam Controller shown in Figure 3-41 is a portable device that controls the Camera Head and displays ultrasound imagery and values. The controller is an integrated, single-board computer with an LCD and touch screen interface. The testing output is shown on the LCD of the control unit using Imperium’s AcoustoVision GUI software. The Controller contains a Pulser-board sub-assembly that generates a square-wave pulse train that excites the transducer in the Camera Head. A knob on the upper-left front of the control unit adjusts the amplitude of this pulser signal. The Controller operates on 110/240 VAC, 50/60 Hz power or rechargeable, internal battery power. The Controller is non-serviceable by the user. There is no need to fill the gap between the membrane that contacts the inspection surface and the AAO sensor with signal-coupling material. The camera is assembled and filled once at the factory and if the front membrane rips, the user would need to fill only the ½” section right at the front with a small syringe. The fill process introduces the opportunity to inject air bubbles into the system which interfere with the UT signal. Thus, it is best to eliminate the need for the user to complete this task.



Figure 3-41: Imperium Acoustography Equipment and Flaw Image

The Imperium AcoustoCam has an automatic C-scan gate setting that is based on the A-scan which can establish the front wall location. This feature allows users to automatically set the C-scan gates to look just past the front surface. Even though the individual images from the camera cover small regions, the AcoustoCam system has the capability to produce two-dimensional, large-area images of the inspection region. Using Imperium's AcoustoVision software, the data acquisition system will automatically splice a series of individual inspection images into a larger, two-dimensional map of the component. Thickness readings from anyplace on the wide-area image can still be acquired. Figure 3-42 shows two-dimensional AcoustoCam image produced by utilizing the AcoustoVision software on a composite panel containing engineered flaws.



Acoustcam Amplitude Results

Figure 3-42: Two-Dimensional Stitched Image Produced from Individual AcoustaCam Results on a Composite Panel

DolphiTech DolphiCam Ultrasound Video Camera Device - DolphiCam is a mobile ultrasound camera system designed for NDT inspection of Carbon Fiber Reinforced Plastics (CFRP). The Ultrasound Video Camera (UVC), or DolphiCam, produced by DolphiTech, is shown in Figure 3-43. Unique dry and wet transducer technology coupled with data acquisition electronics are used to create 2D and 3D images of suspected damage areas to verify the status of the material for manufacturing QA or in-service inspection applications. DolphiCam connects to a standard Windows PC or Tablet through the USB port which makes the system very portable and adaptable. Camera settings can be stored and retrieved for quick camera configuration. The silicone based transducer mat enables dry coupling on painted or shiny surfaces but the system can also be used with water or contact gel. The DolphiCam software creates A-, B- and C-scan and 3D visualization images using amplitude or time of flight data. By adjusting pulse and gate settings, color thresholds and other camera settings, material defects can more easily be identified. The transducer area (image capture size) is 32 X 32 mm consisting of approximately 16,000 elements (124 X 124). The transducer frequency ranges between 2 – 6 MHz, focusing around 4 MHz. Thus, the system is ideal for carbon part thicknesses that are less than 8 mm. This system can be used in a manufacturing environment for quality inspections such as borehole flaking or other manufacturing anomalies. In the aircraft maintenance environment this system is ideal for inspections related to impact damage, delaminations and substructure disbonds.

Sample amplitude images from inspections on various composite laminate structures containing different ply thicknesses and damage types are shown in Figures 3-44 and 3-45. The display of A-, B- and C-scan information is highlighted in Figure 3-44 while Figure 3-45 shows clear DolphiCam images of delamination, disbond and impact damage in composite laminates. Figure 3-45 shows several other features of the DolphiCam image display options. The DolphiCam 3D visualizer creates images of the material defects in order to perform a defect analysis and to allow for an optimal repair strategy. The 3D image can be zoomed, panned and rotated. At this time, the DolphiCam is not considered to be a large area scanning system, but DolphiTech has “image stitching” listed as one of their future development goals. Manual stitching support makes it easy to cover larger areas. Figure 3-45 shows the assembly of multiple, individual images to assemble an overall image of a composite structure.



Figure 3-43: DolphiCam Handheld Portable Ultrasound Video Camera

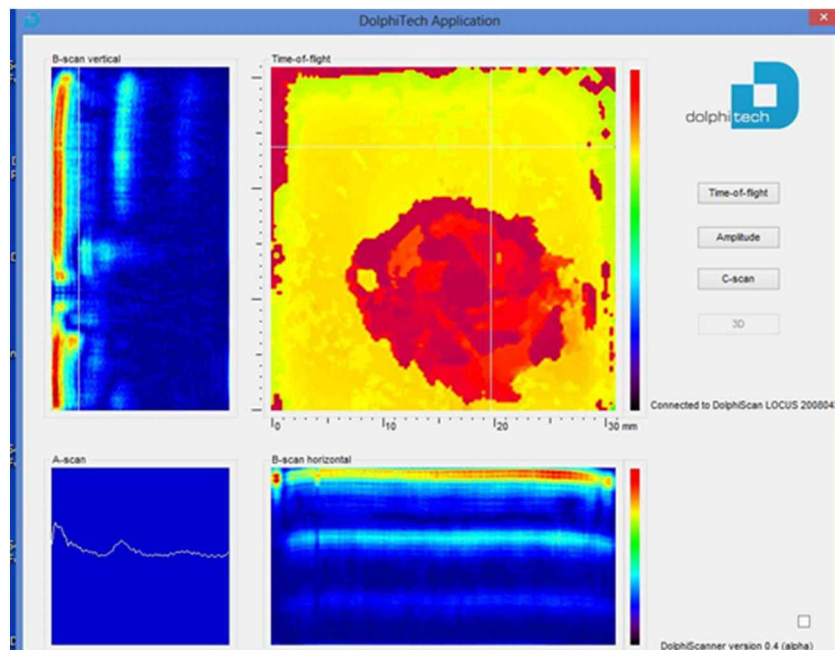
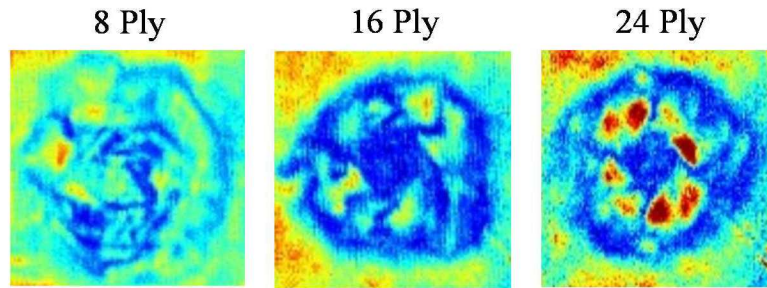
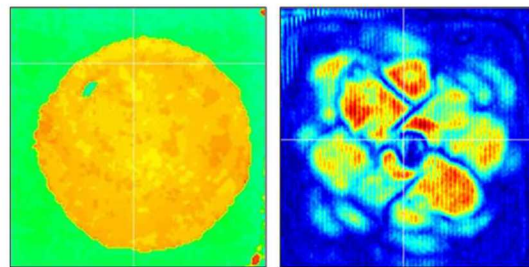


Figure 3-44: DolphiCam A-Scan, B-Scan, C-Scan (Time of Flight or Amplitude Image) and 3D Visualizer Display Showing Interactive Flaw Sizing and Depth Measurements

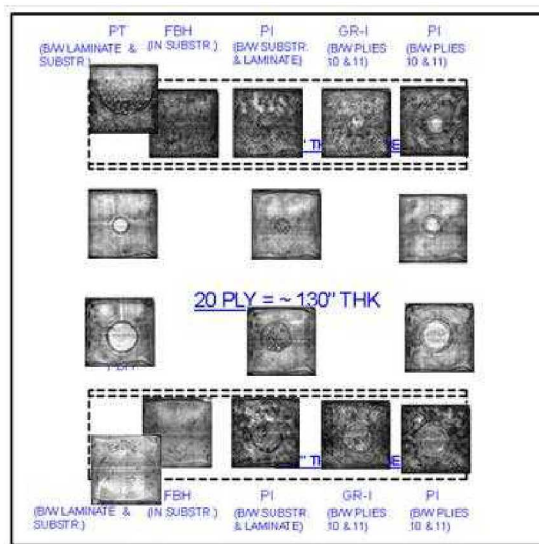


(A)

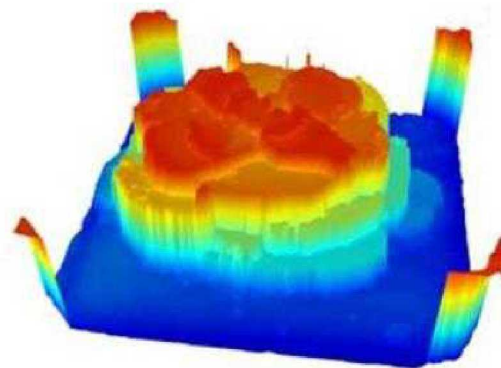


(B)

Figure 3-45: DolphiCam Inspection Results Showing: A) Amplitude Images of Impact Damage and B) Interply Delamination (left) and Impact Damage (right) in Composite Laminate Structures



Amplitude



3-Dimensional Flaw Mapping

Figure 3-46: DolphiCam 3-D Image and Sample Global Image Formed from Various Flaw Images Superimposed on the Flaw Layout Drawing of a Composite Panel

3.5 Microwave

Microwave inspection works by using a specialized transducer to bathe the material of interest in microwave energy of an essentially constant frequency. Several different system set-ups for Microwave inspection are shown in Figures 3-47 and 3-48. The energy is reflected from each interface between materials possessing differing dielectric constants within the specimen. The reflected energy is superimposed, creating a signal that is acquired as an analog voltage which is digitized. This signal is sampled at numerous discrete locations across the sample to create a two-dimensional image of the surface as shown in Figures 3-49 and 3-50.

The ability of microwaves to penetrate inside dielectric materials makes microwave inspections an NDT technique very suitable for interrogating structures made of composites. Additionally, the sensitivity of microwaves to the presence of dissimilar layers in such materials allows for accurate thickness measurement and variation detection. The quality of the experimental images captured with these systems has demonstrated the potential of the technique for material NDT purposes. Basically, these systems utilize an antenna (a horn antenna used in the first experiments or open-ended rectangular waveguide used in recent years) to illuminate the composite with electromagnetic waves (for this particular applications the EM wavelength go from 1 up to 100 mm) and monitor the reflected waves. The EM waves penetrate deep into the dielectric material where they interact with its interior and reflect back to the antenna. The properties of the reflected wave will convey the needed information about the composite at hand. The imaging mechanism is based on the idea that microwaves are very sensitive to discontinuities in the material space and the presence of water (the water reflects specularly with the wavelength of MW).

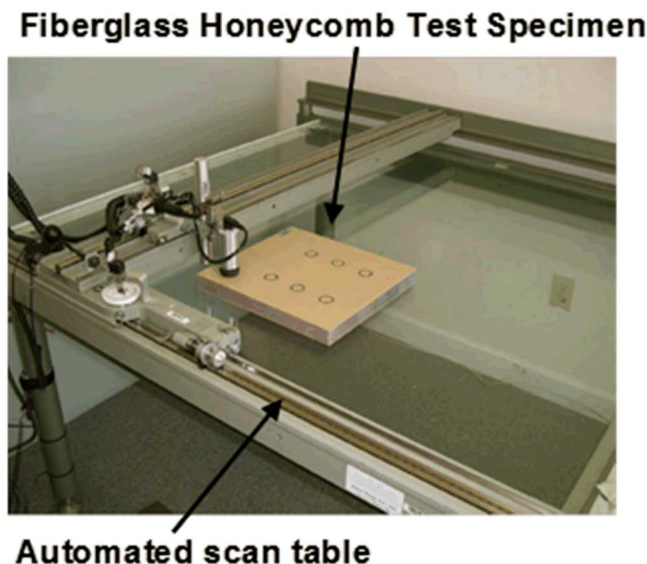


Figure 3-47: Configuration of Microwave Inspection System on a Laboratory Scan Table



Figure 3-48: Basic Equipment Set-up for Microwave Inspection

Microwave NDT techniques may be conducted on a contact or non-contact basis, in addition these techniques are conducted from only one side of the sample (reflection techniques). Furthermore, when compared with ultrasonic techniques, microwave NDT approaches require no coupling material (glass or water), and do not suffer from signal attenuation, indeed the microwaves have good propagation in the air. Microwave techniques are able to detect voids, delaminations, porosity variation in a variety of materials as well as impact damage and water infiltration, all problem that affected the composite materials, and also provide the possibility of process control during the manufacturing of composites so that the final product may not need any scrutiny and may only require occasional testing once under some loading. Finally, microwave NDT techniques do not require a high level of expertise from an operator, and can be conducted in real time with simple, portable hardware. The main limitation of the Microwave method is that it is limited to non-conductive materials. Thus, it has been successfully applied to fiberglass composite structures but cannot be used to inspect carbon graphite composites.

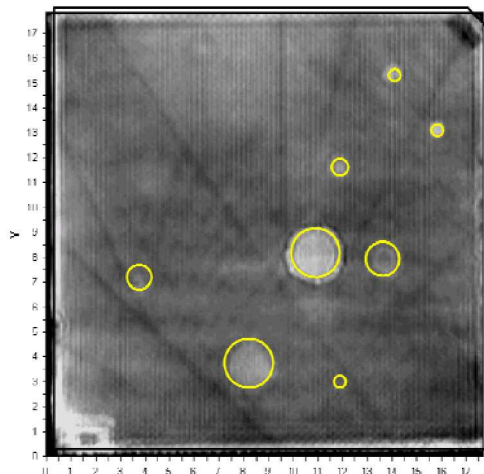


Figure 3-49: Sample Microwave Inspection Results for 3 Ply Fiberglass Honeycomb Panel with Engineered Flaws (Fiberglass Skin Bonded to Nomex Honeycomb)

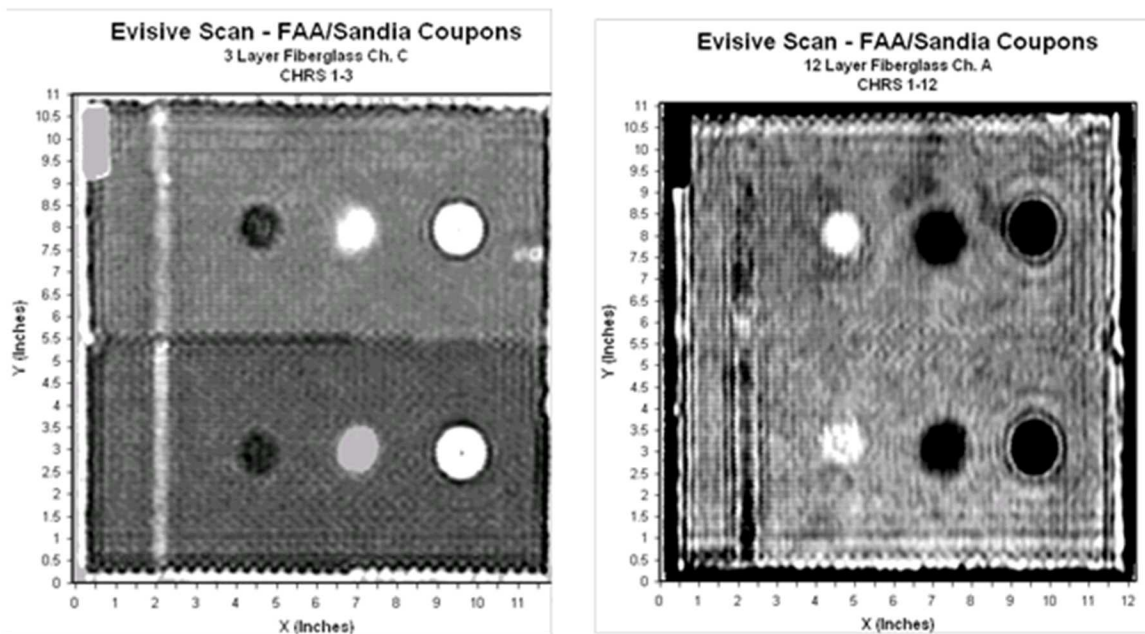


Figure 3-50: Sample Microwave Inspection Results for 3 Ply and 12 Ply Fiberglass Panels with Delamination, Disbonds, Potted Core and Core Splice

3.6 Shearography

Shearography is a wide area interferometric imaging technique that is capable of detecting micron-sized displacements in the surface of a structure. Shearography equipment, shown in Figure 3-51, monitors the surface of a structure for any changes in the surface strain field. Stressing the material in the appropriate way ensures that the subsurface anomalies are manifested on the surface of the structure. Shearography is implemented by comparing two interference patterns on a detector plane, typically “before” and “after” an object motion. If the motion, and subsequent out-of-plane deformations, cause changes in the optical path, then the speckle patterns differ. These images can be compared by subtraction or other algorithms to obtain an image of the object with fringe patterns superimposed. These fringe patterns can then be used to identify the presence, size, and depth of flaws in a structure.

A typical shearography system uses a CCD (Charge Coupled Devices) camera with a shearing lens, which is completely integrated into a compact measurement head, to view laser light reflected from the surface under inspection. The object under test is illuminated with laser light and images from the object at different states of loading are taken. The loading of the surface is created by different excitation methods such as vacuum, thermal, vibration or mechanical load which induces some deformation of the outer surface. Such deformations are locally altered by the presence of subsurface defects, e.g. disbonding or delaminations in composites. A comparison of the different images captured before and after loading allows a deformation gradient to be calculated. This deformation gradient can be a sensitive measure for identifying local defects. Overlapping sheared images are produced in the interferometric process. Two overlapped portions of the sheared images combine and interfere to produce a speckle pattern. When an applied stress deforms the specimen,

the speckle pattern is slightly modified. A comparison of the two speckle patterns (stressed and unstressed) produces a fringe pattern which depicts the relative displacement of the area being inspected. Figure 3-52 shows the basic principles of shearography.



Figure 3-51: LTI-5200 Portable Shearography System with Camera on Test Specimen

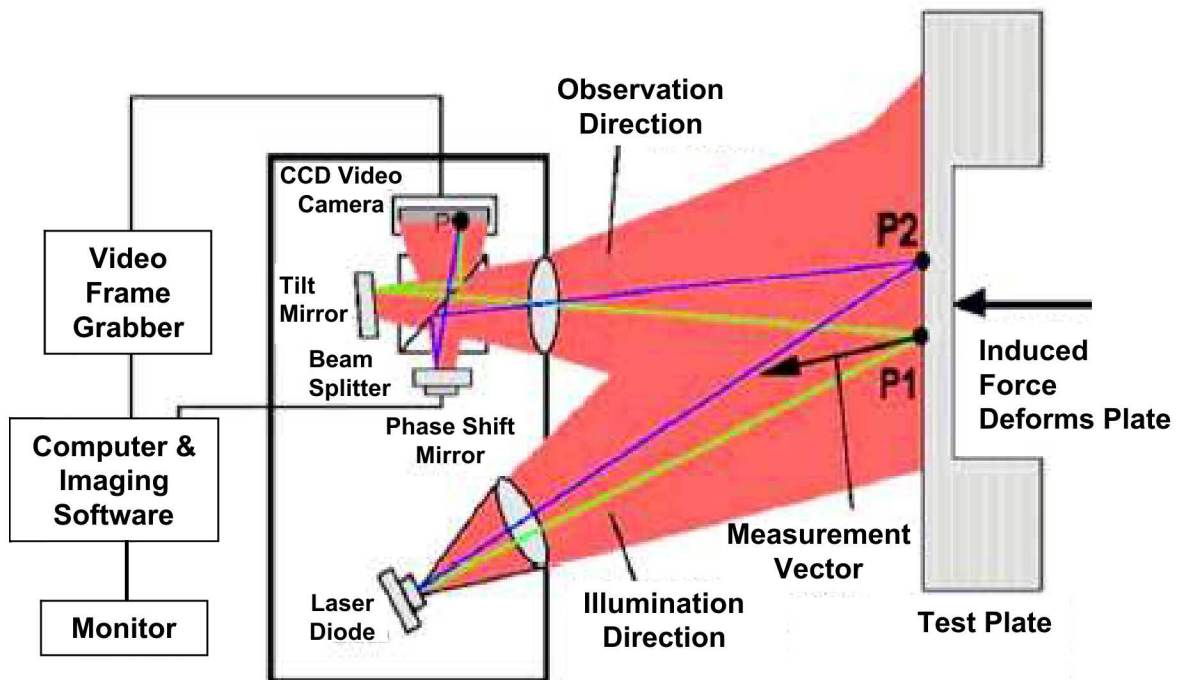


Figure 3-52: Basic Principles of Shearography

Shearography inspections can detect anomalies like disbonds, delaminations, voids, separation of structural components, wrinkles, kissing disbonds, impact damage, internal corrosion, crushed core, changes in sections and core splices [3.7]. With the use of the CCD-camera technique, no photo laboratory is required. This makes it possible to use shearography for real-time, nondestructive testing of structures. Laser Shearography views only the surface and does not penetrate into the material. As a result subsurface defects, must affect the surface strain field in order to be detectable.

Laser Technology Inc. LTI-5200 System - The LTI-5200 is designed for large area inspections of bonded metallic or composite structures. Inspection rates of 14 m² per hour and the capability to inspect face sheet, core bond lines (near and far side), core splice joints and bonded repairs make this system well-suited for composite applications. The LTI-5200 is a compact, portable vacuum shearography system designed for large area inspection of aerospace, marine and rail composite and cored sandwich structures and components. The LTI-5200 vacuum attaches in any orientation. Increasing vacuum level allows imaging and measurement of subsurface defects. Figure 3-53 shows the LTI5200 inspecting a composite honeycomb aircraft rudder assembly. Figure 3-54 shows a schematic of this set-up where detection of both near-side and far-side honeycomb disbonds are possible. Figures 3-55 through 3-57 show samples of shearography images that identify flaws in composite honeycomb panels while Figure 3-58 shows shearography images of a damaged, solid laminate composite structure.

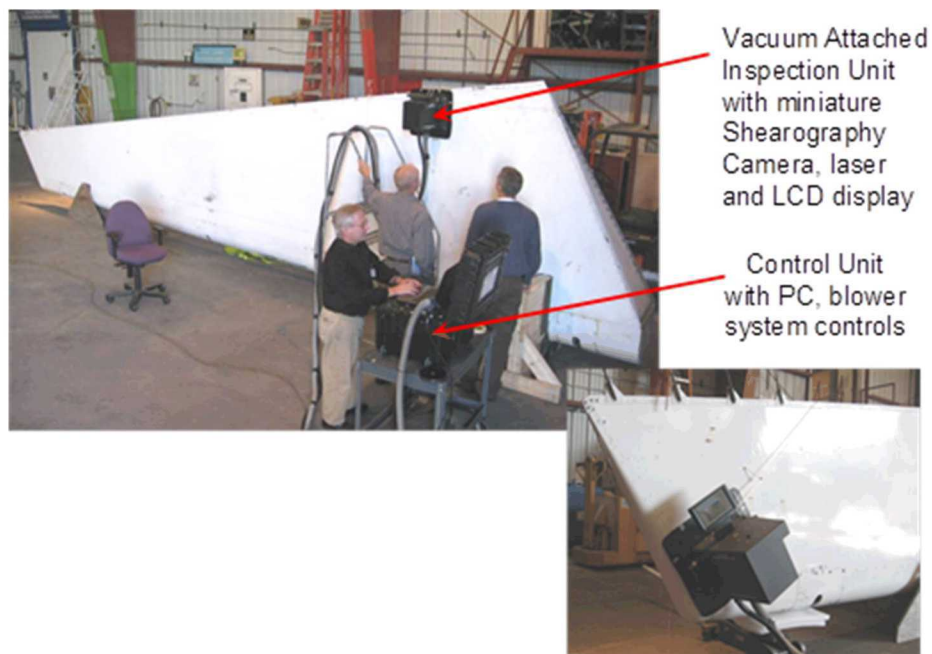


Figure 3-53: Composite Rudder Inspection Using LTI-5200 Portable Vacuum Shearography System

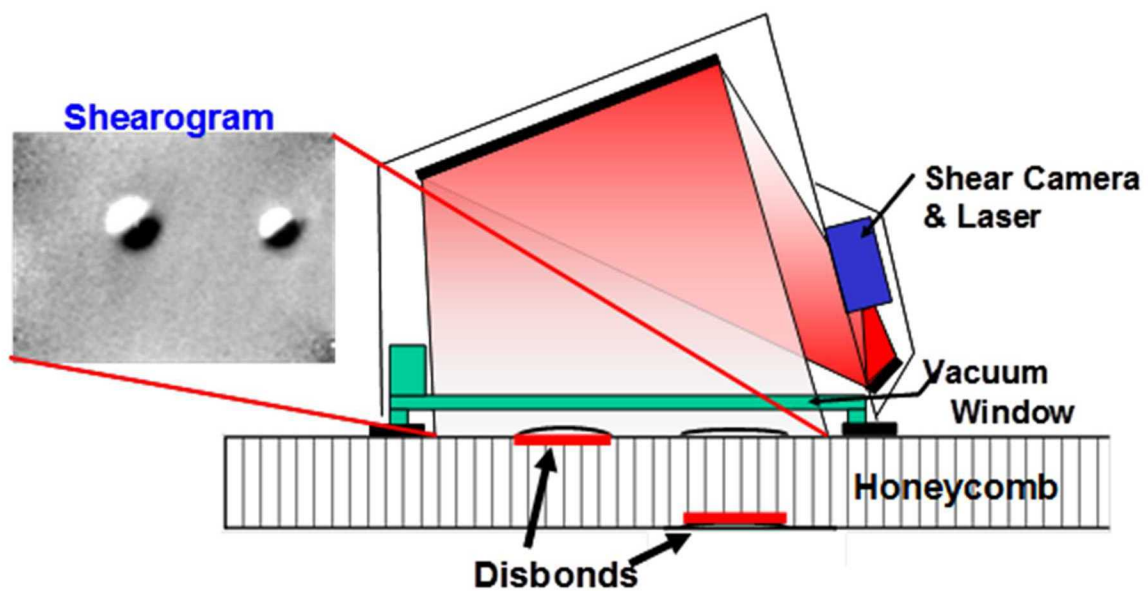


Figure 3-54: Schematic of Shearography Inspection for Near-Side and Far-Side Disbond Detection

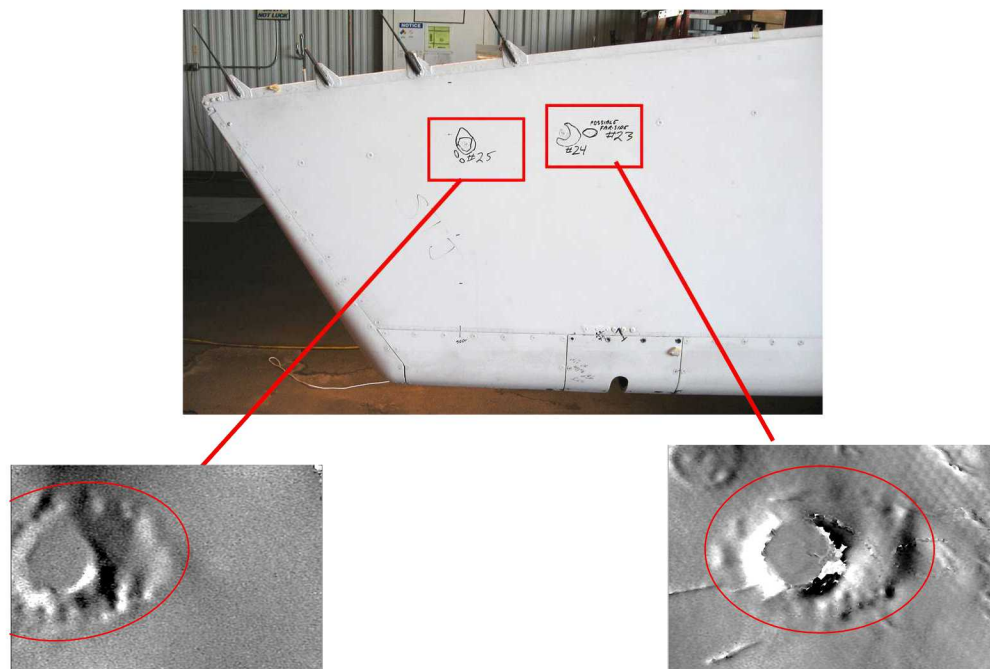


Figure 3-55: Near Side and Far Side Disbonds Detected by LTI-5200 Shearography System in A310 Composite Rudder

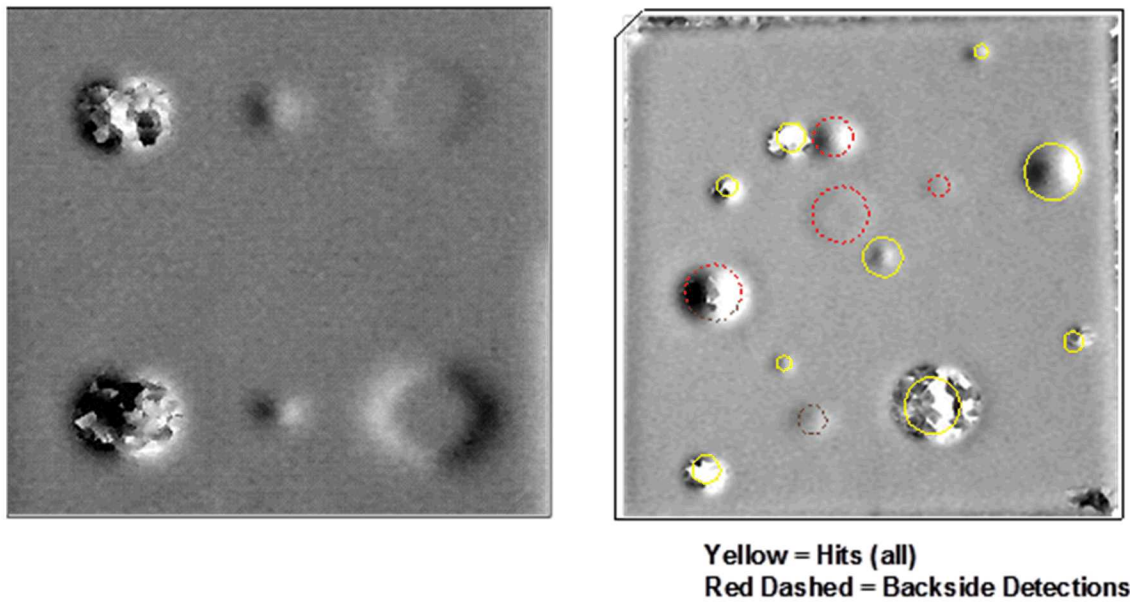


Figure 3-56: Close-Up View of LTI-5200 Shearography Image Showing Flaws in a Composite Honeycomb Structure and a Sample Shearography Result for 6 Ply Fiberglass Panel Showing Near-Side and Far-Side Flaw Imaging

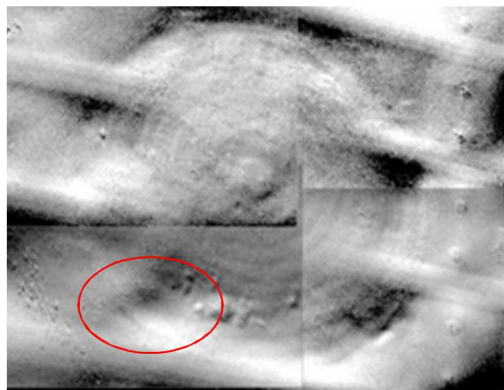


Figure 3-57: LTI-5200 Shearographic Inspection Image of a Scarfed Repair to a Honeycomb Structure with Anomaly Indications in the Repair Plies

Shearography

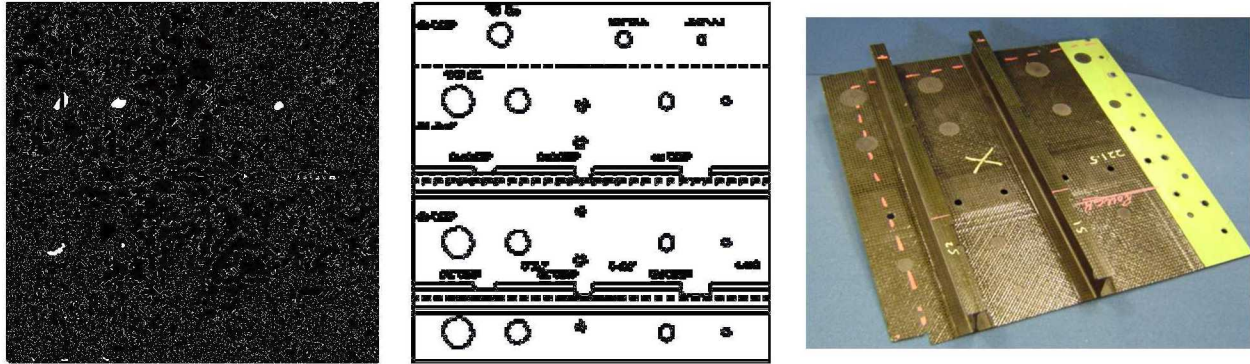


Figure 3-58: Shearography Image Produced from Inspection of Composite Laminate Panel (0.11” th. skin) with Flaw Profile as Shown in Drawing on the Right

Dantec Dynamics Q-810 Laser Shearography System - The Q-810 Laser Shearography System, shown in Figure 3-59, is oriented toward use on composite materials over large surface areas. It can detect defects such as delaminations, disbonds, kissing bonds, wrinkling, impact damage, and crushed core with no surface preparation. The turn-key optical systems are non-contact and full-field and will work on such materials as carbon-fiber, glass-fiber, laminates, honeycomb, foam, metal and Glare. The integrated systems are optimized for large surface area inspections, for example on aircraft fuselages, wings, control surfaces, ship hulls, wind turbine blades and rocket components.



Figure 3-59: Q-810 Laser Shearography System

The full-field inspection rate of the Q-810 Laser Shearography System is approximately 300 mm x 200 mm every 10 seconds. With adaptive seals, the Q-810 can be used on flat as well as highly

curved surfaces. The system operates independently of the local environmental conditions and can be used for production or in-field inspections. The interferometric technique measures microscopic surface deformations caused by internal flaws when a small loading is applied to the object. This can be done using thermal, pressure, vibration or mechanical excitation. The results are displayed live as the material responds to the excitation. Further image processing is also available for export and reporting. Figure 3-60 shows a sample shearography image produced by the Q-810 system inspecting a composite laminate that contains wrinkles.

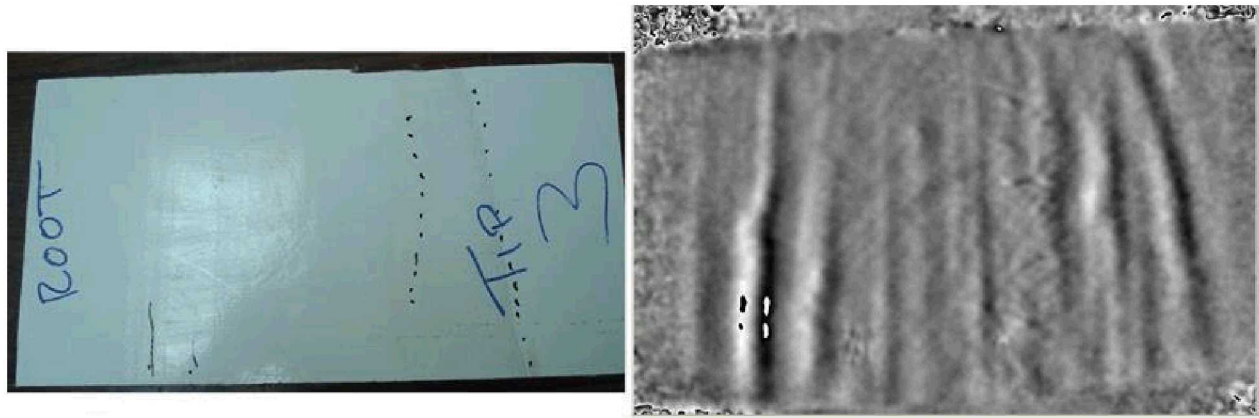


Figure 3-60: Test Specimen (left) and Q-810 Shearography Image of Wrinkles in a Composite Laminate

3.7 Pulsed Thermography

Thermography is a nondestructive inspection method that uses thermal gradients to analyze the physical characteristics of a structure such as internal defects. This is done by converting a thermal gradient into a visible image by using a thermally sensitive detector such as an infrared (IR) camera [3.8, 3.9]. Flash thermography relies on the heat absorption characteristics of the structure to indicate the presence of defects. In thermographic NDI, part of the infrared (IR) band of the electromagnetic spectrum is used to map the surface temperature of an inspected item. The temperature distribution on a structure can be measured optically by the radiation that it produces at infrared wavelengths. Many defects affect the thermal properties of materials. Examples are corrosion, disbonds, cracks, impact damage, panel thinning, and fluid ingress into composite or honeycomb materials. In general, a source of energy is used to create a temperature difference between the specimen and the surrounding environment. Variations in the structure or material properties result in variations in heat flow and surface temperature which are recorded by the IR camera. Figure 3-61 shows a schematic of a thermographic inspection system and highlights the physics of flaw detection.

Thermographic inspection is accomplished using high-power flash lamps or other heat source, an infrared (IR) video camera, and image processing hardware and software, all of which are controlled by a personal computer. By the judicious application of external heat sources, common aircraft defects can be detected by an appropriate infrared survey. The heat source, such as flash lamps, is used to raise the surface temperature of the structure. The subsequent heat transfer into the material is affected by any defects that may be present. The resulting temperature distribution is

then recorded by the IR camera and displayed on the computer monitor. As the heat diffuses through the structure the surface temperature is monitored for a period of time by an infrared camera. In practice, the computer actually obtains several images at progressively later times after each flash. Areas that appear hotter than normal may indicate the presence of a delamination or disbond beneath the surface that is preventing heat diffusion into deeper layers. By using a computer to analyze and manipulate the infrared data captured over time, subtle variations can be enhanced in the image. Typical computer enhancements include analysis of the first and second derivatives of the heat versus time signatures at each point in the time sequence to produce images showing rates of change. Through the use of temperature versus time images produced by the thermography system, it is possible to determine the depths of disbonds, delaminations and other flaws in a structure. Typical gantry-based and hand-held thermographic inspection systems are shown in Figure 3-62.

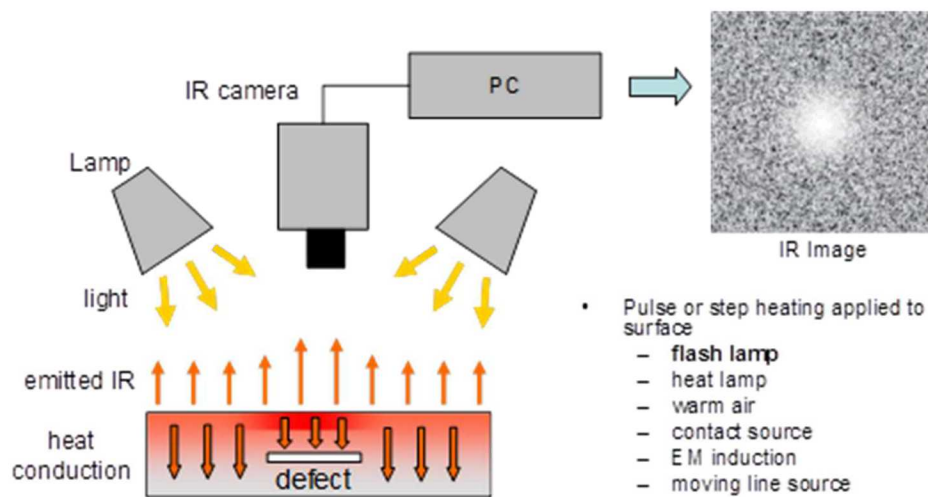


Figure 3-61: Principle of Active Pulsed Thermography

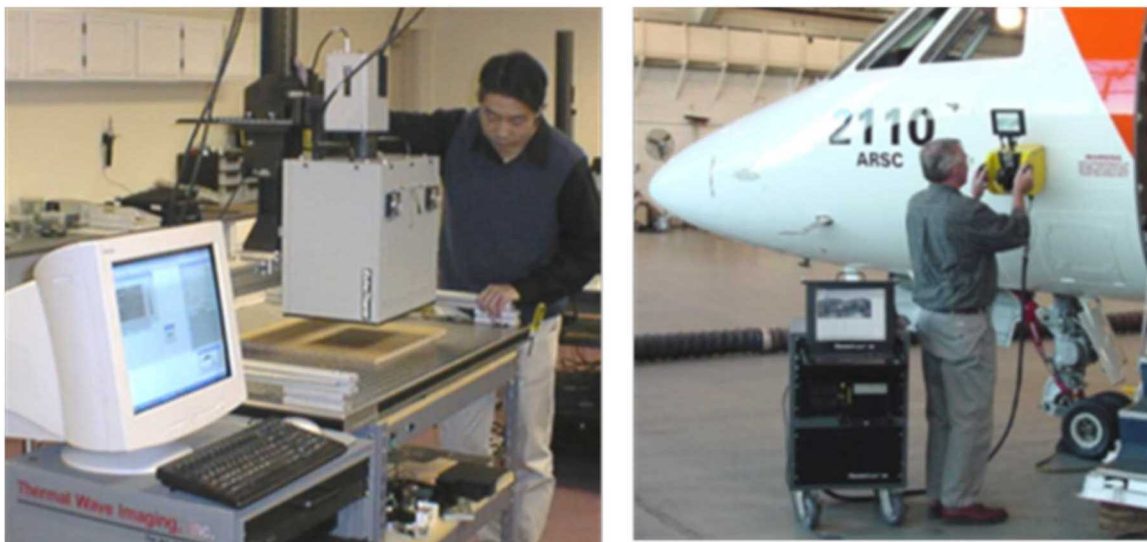


Figure 3-62: Laboratory Thermal Wave Imaging System Inspecting Composite Flaw Detection Panels and Portable Field System Inspecting an Aircraft Fuselage

Thermographic inspection procedures on aircraft parts can be used to detect certain local changes in materials that occur in homogenous parts. These may typically be considered (but not exclusively) as voids, inclusions, disbonds, fluid ingress or contamination, foreign objects and damaged or broken structural assemblies. Thermographic inspection can be carried out on almost every type of material used in the construction of aircraft. The means of excitation, the detection method and the inspection parameters can be varied depending on the material to be inspected and the flaws to be detected.

The advantages of the thermography inspection method include: 1) thermography can be performed without physical contact with the surface, 2) single images can include relatively large areas (1-2 ft²) allowing for rapid inspections of large surface areas, and 3) two-dimensional image of the inspected surface helps the operator visualize the location and extent of any defect. The primary disadvantages of thermography are: 1) it is often necessary to apply a high-emissivity coating during inspections to obtain an acceptable image; steps have been taken to minimize the labor time associated with this task, 2) damage to layers deep within a structure is more difficult to detect than damage in surface layers because the larger mass of material tends to dissipate the applied heat energy.

After presenting the thermography principles and equipment, it is worthwhile to discuss some specifics on the critical component: the infrared camera. An infrared camera is a non-contact device that detects infrared energy (heat) and converts it into an electronic signal, which is then processed to produce a thermal image on a video monitor and perform temperature calculations. Heat sensed by an infrared camera can be very precisely quantified, or measured to monitor thermal performance, as well as to identify and evaluate the relative severity of heat-related problems. Recent innovations, in particular detector technology, the incorporation of built-in visual imaging, automatic functionality, and infrared software development, deliver more cost-effective thermal analysis solutions. A brief comparison of some infrared cameras used for thermographic inspection systems is provided in Figure 3-63.

			
	<u>A40</u>	<u>Merlin Mid</u>	<u>Phoenix</u>
Detector Material:	Vanadium Oxide (VOx)	Indium Antimonide (InSb)	Indium Antimonide (InSb)
Detector Cooling:	Uncooled Microbolometer	Integral Stirling or LN2	Integral Stirling or LN2
Spectral Range:	7.5-13 micron	3-5 micron	3-5 micron
Thermal Sensitivity:	0.08° C	0.025 °C	0.025 °C
Focal Plane Array:	320 x 240	320 x 256	640 x 512
Frame Rate:	60 Hz	60 Hz	30 Hz
Weight:	3.1 lbs	9 lbs	Camera: 7 lbs & RTIE: 6 lbs
Size:	8.2" x 4.3" x 3.6"	9.8" x 5.5" x 5.0"	Camera: 7.5" x 4.4" x 5.2"

Figure 3-63: Comparison of Infrared Cameras for Thermography Inspection

Thermal Wave Imaging EcoTherm Thermography Inspection System - In the Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment, a turn-key thermography inspection system, the Thermal Wave Imager (TWI), was used to assess the merits of thermography to detect flaws in composite honeycomb construction. Figure 3-64 shows a photo of this inspection device and example applications on aircraft. The TWI ThermoScope and EchoTherm NDI systems are designed for in-service applications and are integrated hardware and software systems for analyzing and measure physical properties of materials using pulsed thermography. The system includes TWI's Thermographic Signal Reconstruction (TSR) processing technique which increases spatial and temporal resolution of a thermogram sequence.

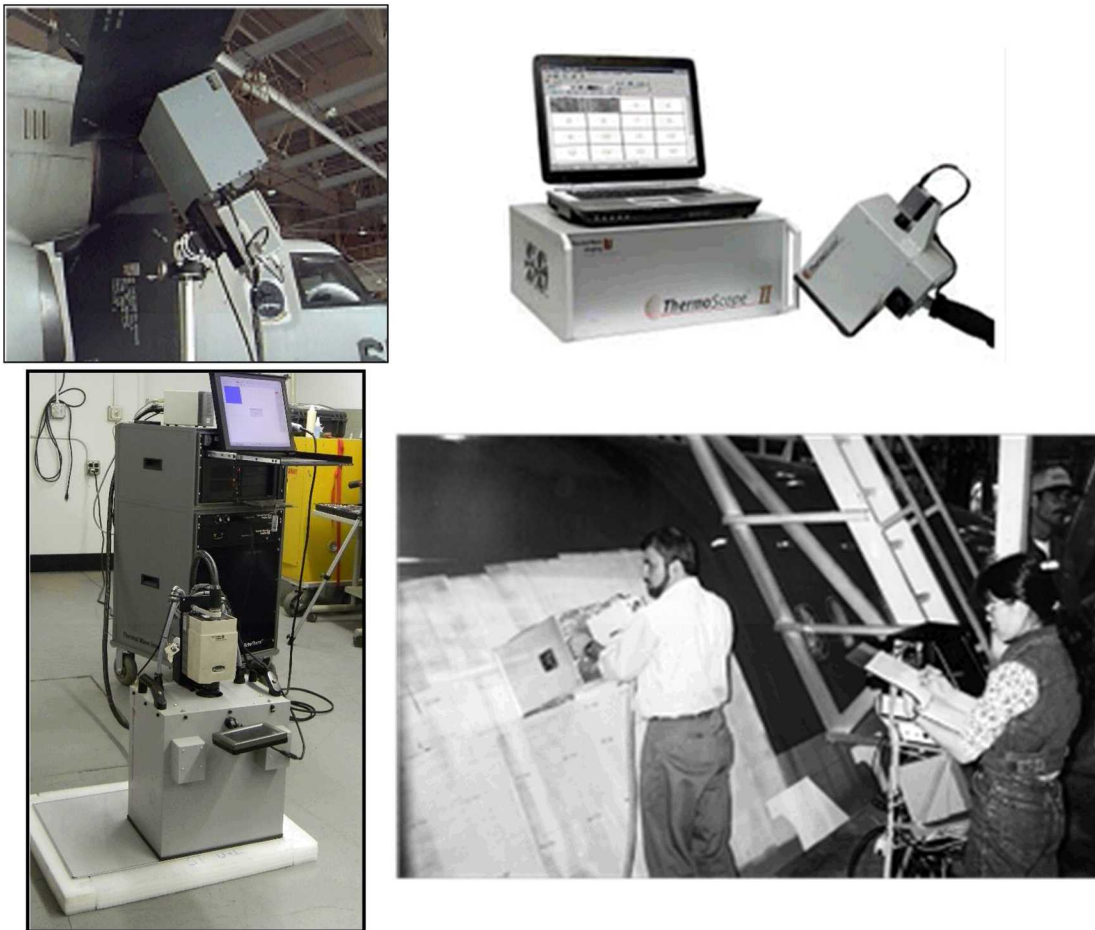


Figure 3-64: Thermal Wave Imaging System Equipment and Inspecting on Aircraft

Figures 3-65 and 3-66 show sample results from thermographic inspections on bonded tear straps and composite honeycomb structure, respectively. Figure 3-65 shows how a disbond between an aircraft skin and the substructure tear strap affects the thermographic image by changing the heat transfer in that local region. Similarly, the IR image in Figure 3-66 indicates the various flaws that were engineered into the honeycomb panel. Figures 3-67 and 3-68 contain additional IR images of various flaws in composite honeycomb and composite laminate structures. One of the limitations of thermography is the depth of penetration of the inspection. For composite laminates, the inspection

depth limit is approximately 0.2". Only flaws that manifest themselves as variations in the surface temperature of the structure can be readily imaged by the infrared camera. Novel heating methods are currently being used to infuse higher levels of heat energy into the structure and improve the detection of deeper flaws.

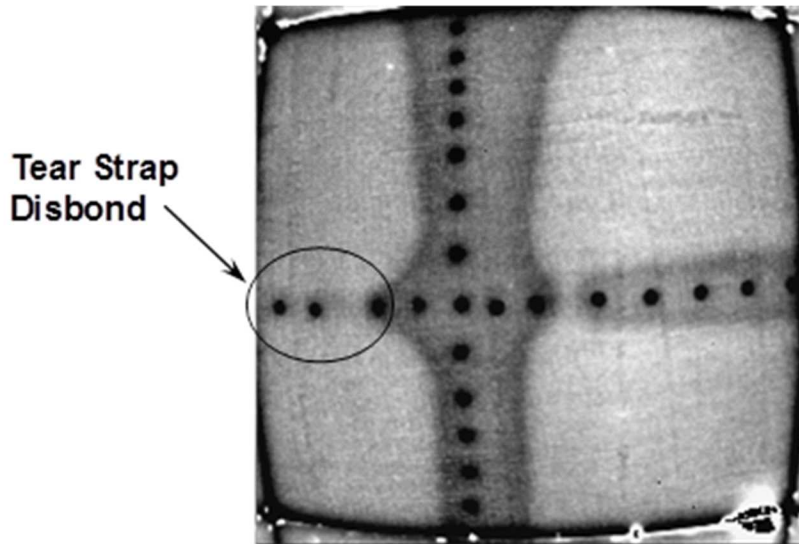


Figure 3-65: Sample Thermography Image Showing a Disbond in an Aluminum Fuselage-Tear Strap Structure

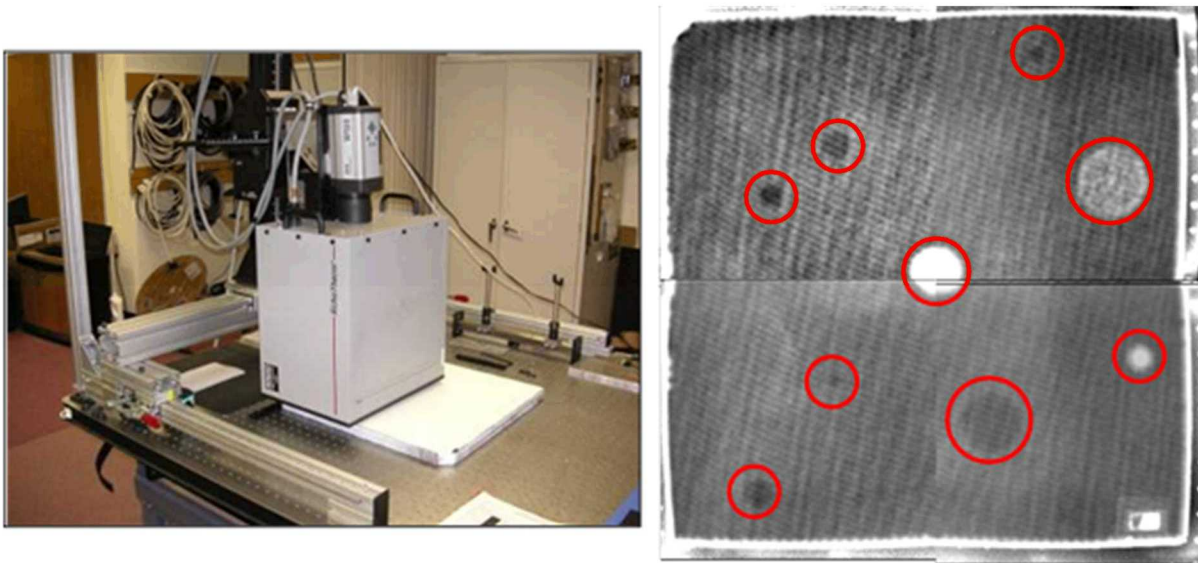


Figure 3-66: Flir A40 Uncooled Camera Inspecting the Honeycomb Test Panels and a Sample IR Image from a Fiberglass Panel

The Thermal Wave Imaging (TWI) system was applied to a bonded, composite doubler repair which was installed on a DC-9 fuselage section in the Sandia Labs' FAA Airworthiness Assurance hangar. Figure 3-69 shows a schematic of the 10 ply doubler highlighting the size, shape, and location of the embedded flaws. The resultant sequence of images produced by a TWI inspection is

also contained in Figure 3-69. The features seen at early times are defects closest to the outside surface of the patch (note appearance of flaws #1 and #2 in the first few frames). The disbonds, located at the base of the doubler, and the deeper delaminations appear in the later frames corresponding to their delayed effect on the thermal field. All six embedded flaws were identified in the TWI images and flaws smaller than 0.5" in diameter could be detected.

Pulsed Thermography

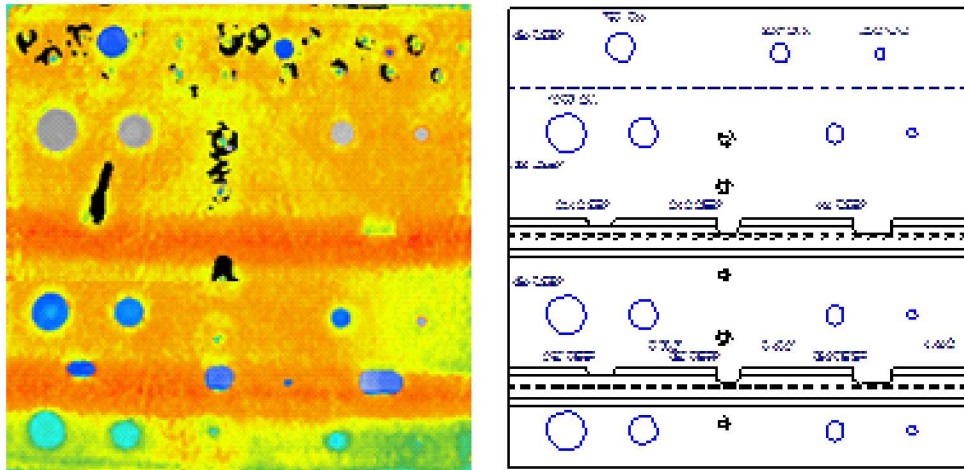
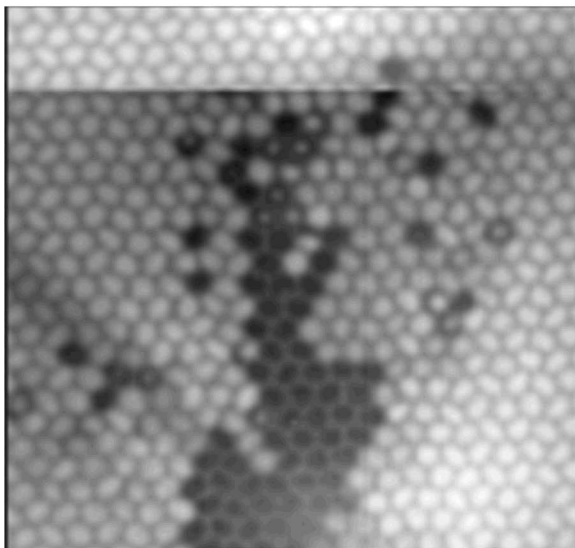
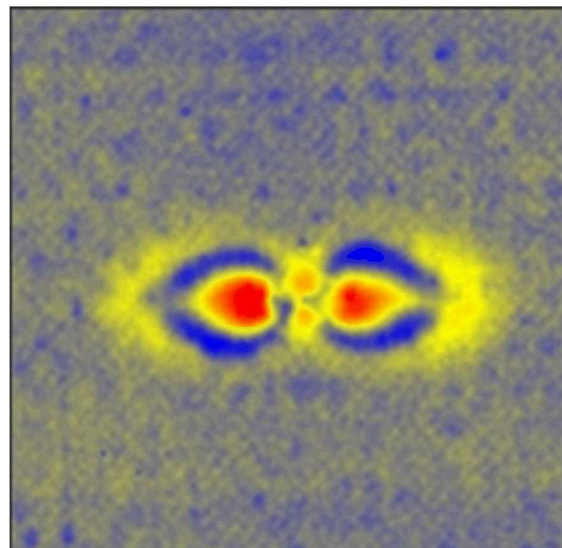


Figure 3-67: Thermography Image Produced from Inspection of Composite Laminate Panel with Flaw Profile as Shown in Drawing on the Right



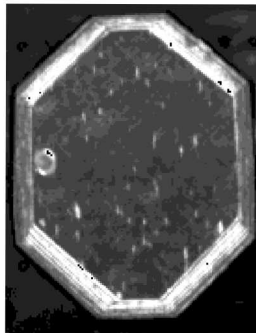
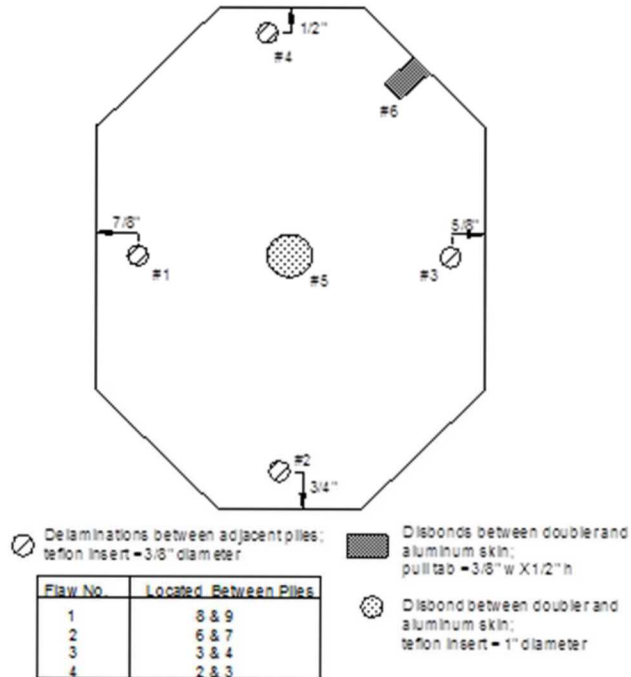
Water Ingress in a Composite Honeycomb Structure



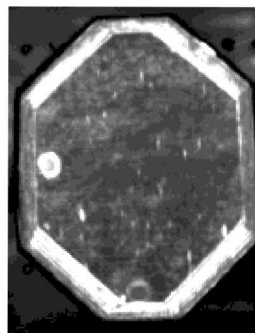
Impact Damage in a Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Figure 3-68: Sample Thermography Images Showing Damage in Composite Structures

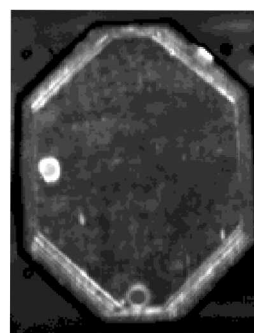
BoronEpoxy Doubler on the DC-8 Test Bed (AFT section)
 10 Ply Lay-Up with Engineered Flaws
 8" H X 6" W with Ply Orientations of [0,-45,-45,90,0]



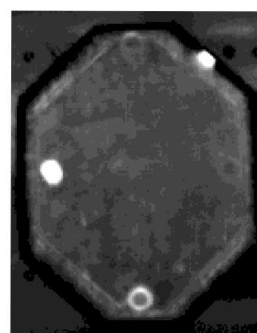
gate 1: 5 f



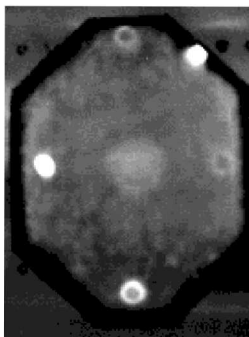
gate 2: 20 f



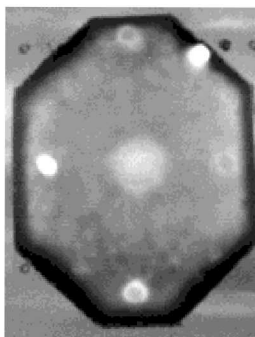
gate 3: 43 f



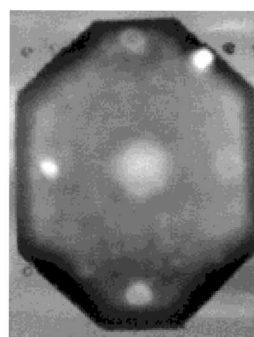
gate 5: 115 f



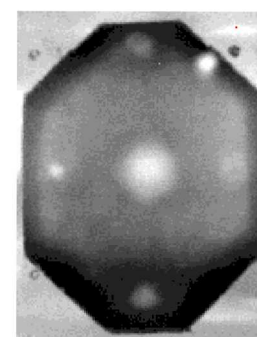
gate 7: 205 f



gate 9: 305 f



gate 11: 413 f



gate 14: 660 f

frame time ("f") = 1/60 of a second

**Figure 3-69: Sequence of Thermal Wave Images from
 DC-9 Composite Doubler Inspection**

3.8 Line Scanning Thermography

Line Scanning Thermography (LST), a non-contact inspection method based in dynamic thermography. The LST technique provides a quick and efficient methodology to scan wide areas rapidly; the technique has been used on the inspection of composite propellers, sandwich panels, motor case tubes and wind turbine blades, among others. Figure 3-70 below shows some examples of composite structures scanned using the LST technique.

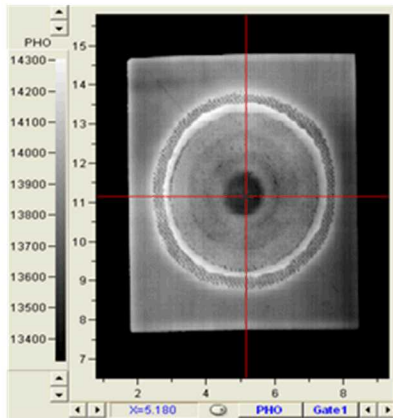
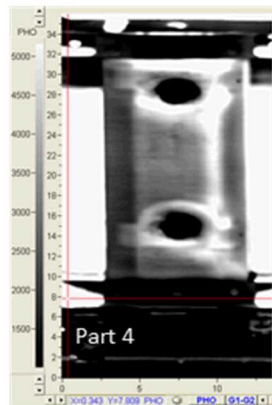
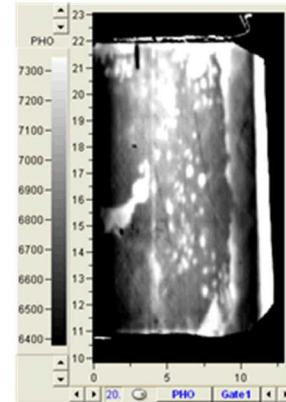


Image of a scarf composite repair in a sandwich composite panel.



Impact damage detection in a composite laminate structure .



Voids inside the adhesive strip presented as hot spots.

Figure 3-70: Examples of Thermal Images Generated After Scanning a Composite Structure Using the LST Technique

After heat deposition in a dynamic thermography technique, internal flaws in the material show up by variations in both the surface temperature distribution and the transient surface temperature decay rate. LST is a dynamic thermography technique patented by NASA [3.10-3.11]. This technique deposits heat along a thin line which is swept from edge to edge of the surface under inspection. An IR camera moves in tandem with the heat source at a set speed, and it is able to capture the thermal profile of the sample after the heat deposition takes place. A diagram of the basic setup is shown in Figure 3-71, where one can observe that the field of view of the camera is restricted to an area of the sample surrounding the heat application region. The image on the left shows a side view of the heat source, IR camera and the surface being studied. The image on the right shows the LST thermal image generated by stacking a selected pixel line captured in every frame. During the scan, the temperature of the region swept by the heat source increases, whereas the surface temperature of the region in front of the heat application remains constant. In LST the scanning speed and heat intensity should be optimized to match the heat diffusion in the inspected material. A thin material with good thermal conductivity will require fast scanning speed and significant heat deposition. Conversely, a thick material or a material with lower thermal conductivity will require a slower scan with a reduced heat deposition intensity.

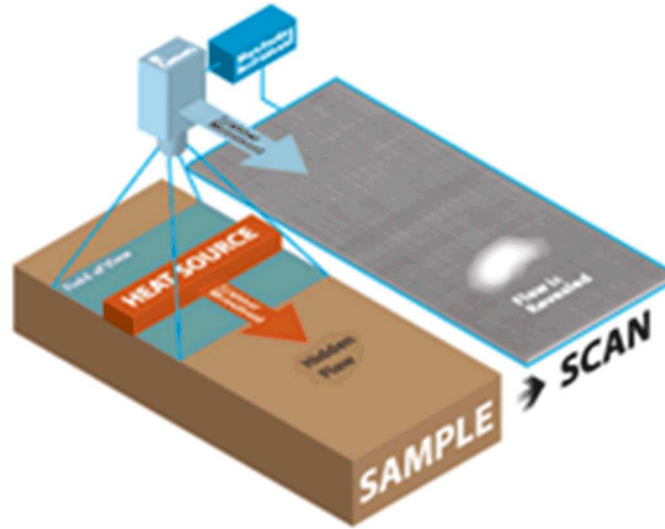


Figure 3-71: Set up of LST Where IR Camera and Heat Source Move in Tandem Through the Surface to be Inspected

The LST technique produces a series of images of the whole area scanned. Each image in the series shows the surface temperature distribution at a given time after heat deposition. The images are generated by defining an observation window or a given pixel line from all frames acquired from the camera during the scan. The final image or image of the whole area scanned is formed by stacking the selected pixel line from all the frames captured during the scan. When using images with a sensor resolution of 240x320 pixels, a maximum of 240 images of the whole area can be constructed. The time elapsed between consecutive pixel lines depends on the scanning speed and the camera frame rate. Figure 3-72 shows an example of the images that can be generated using the LST technique following heat deposition. The images show the same scale and were generated using different observation windows. Each image in the series shows the surface temperature distribution of the whole area scanned at a given time after heat deposition; the time is defined by the distance between the heat application, the observation gate, and the speed at which the scan is set. The LST thermal image is generated by stacking the selected observation line from all frames recorded during the scan. The panel on the right in Fig. 3-72 shows a collection of LST thermal images generated from different observation gates. The images show the same scale and represent how the surface temperature drops after heat deposition.

Observation of a defect using LST requires proper optimization of the scanning parameters (i.e. scan velocity, and heat deposition intensity), as these determine the section of the cooling curve that will be observed. The amount of heat deposited over the surface should be sufficient to produce a thermal gradient between the defect and the sound area. In particular, when scanning thin materials displaying good thermal conductivities, the scanning speed should be set higher than the speed used on materials that have lower thermal diffusivities. Scanning at high speeds provides observation of earlier times after heat deposition, and scanning at lower speeds provides images corresponding to latter observation times.

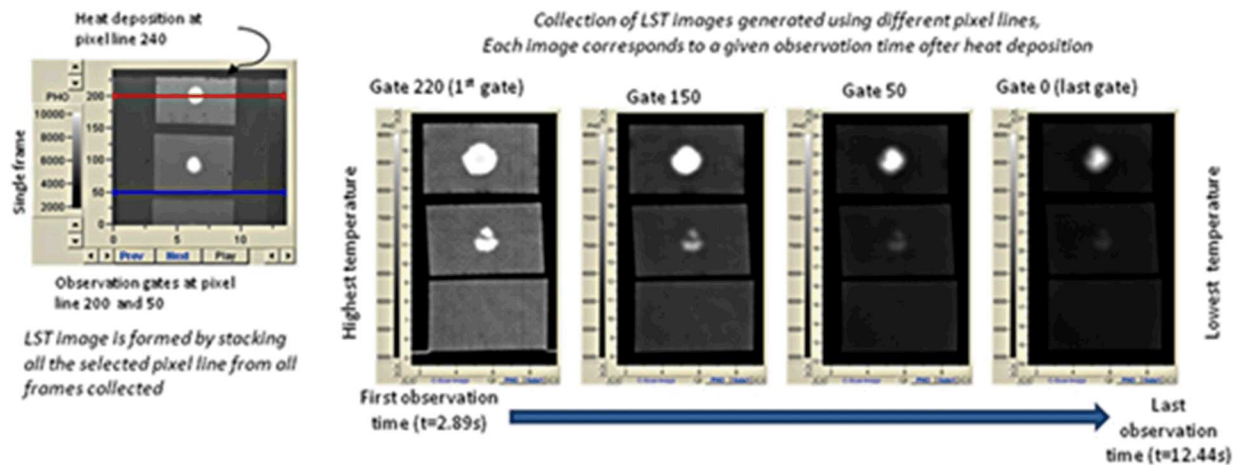


Figure 3-72: Panel Showing the Observation Gate Selection with Respect to the Heat Deposition Location

Mistras Line Scan Thermography Inspection System - Figures 3-73 and 3-74 show the Mistras Line Scan Thermography scanner used for scanning composites. The LST technique requires that the camera moves in sync with the lamp used for depositing the heat over the surface of interest. The movement is controlled using a motor. These components have been organized in different ways depending on the structure to be scanned and the size of the area of interest. Mistras has fabricated mainly 3 different systems for inspecting different structures. The first one is a gantry type system capable of performing vertical scans of up to 1.5 m long and 40.64 cm of width. The system employs a cooled infrared camera working in the mid wave infrared range (3-5 micrometers). The lamp employed in the system corresponds with a quartz lamp 40.6 cm long. The second LST system is a small area scanner that offers a 30.5 cm by 81.2 cm area scan and uses suction cups for attaching to the surface of interest. This scanner uses a microbolometer working in the 8 to 12 micrometers range. Finally, the third Mistras LST system is a motorized crawler designed to scan flat areas. This scanner offers a 4-6 cm wide field of view, and can cover scan lengths of up to 12 m in a single scan. This scanner can hold a cooled camera or a microbolometer. This crawler can be easily modified to scan composite structures of different thickness, like fiber glass wind turbine blades, for which it is necessary to wait significant time for observation after the heat deposition. This is achieved by adding a train which increases the separation between the observation area and the heat deposition location.

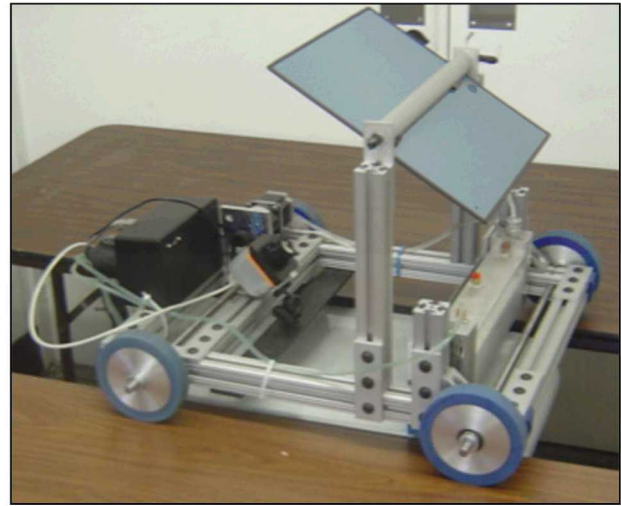


Figure 3-73: Mistras Line Scan Thermography System – Crawler Used on Composites



Figure 3-74: Mistras Line Scan Thermography System – Small Area Scanner

Figure 3-75 shows some sample inspection results from the Mistras LST system applied to a 32 ply (0.23" thick skin) solid laminate composite panel with a 58 ply (0.192" thick) upper stringer and 50 ply (0.125" thick) lower stringer. Most of the flaws are detected in the LST image with the deeper flaws providing the biggest challenge to LST detection.

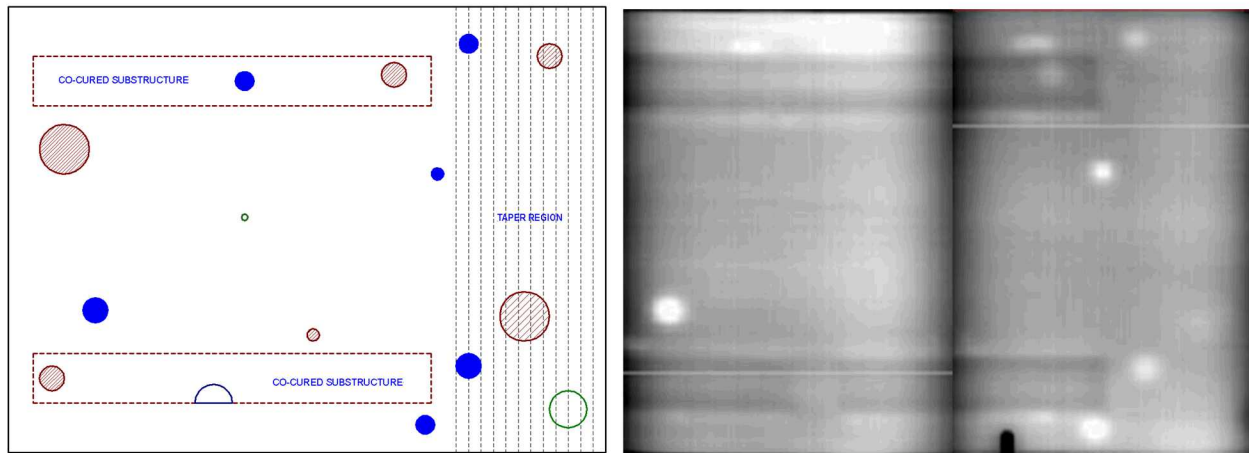


Figure 3-75: Results Produced by Mistras Line Scan Thermography System on a 32 Ply Panel with Substructure Elements

3.9 Lock-In Thermography

The principle of lock-in thermography is based on the application of a periodic input energy wave (i.e. thermal emitter, ultrasound, microwave, eddy current, flash lamp) to the surface of the object being inspected and an examination of the resulting local temperatures on the surface of the object [3.12]. When the wave generated by the input energy penetrates the object's surface, is it absorbed and the phase angle of the wave is shifted. When the input wave reaches internal areas of the object where a delamination or inclusion is present, the thermophysical properties are not homogeneous in relation to the surrounding material. Hence the input wave is partially reflected. The reflected portion of the wave interferes with the incoming input wave at the surface of the object and causes an interference pattern in the local surface temperature. In turn, this oscillates at the same frequency as the thermal wave. The internal structure of the object being examined can then be derived by evaluating the phase shift of the local surface temperatures in relation to the input energy wave. However, the ability to derive internal thermophysical inconsistencies within the object requires the input energy source be used at an optimal frequency. This depends on both the thermophysical characteristics of the object, as well as its thickness. A schematic of typical equipment set-up for lock-in thermography is shown in Figure 3-76. The dynamic stimulus can be applied from a wide variety of sources when using lock-in thermography. For composite inspection, this includes halogen lamps, ultrasound, and mechanical stimulation.

For lock-in thermography the recorded temperature information gathered by the infrared camera is transformed into the frequency domain. The measured temporal evolution in each pixel of the temperature is Fourier-transformed for all images of the recorded sequence. Phase and amplitude information are derived and presented as an image [3.12].

Advantages of the lock-in thermography method include:

- Summation results in noise-filtering which enhances the contrast in inspection results.
- Depth range for phase information is twice that of pulse thermography mode
- Lock-in allows detection of thermal waves with a sensitivity of 100 to 1,000 greater than the best thermal camera – down to μ -Kelvin range.

- The phase image is insensitive to external effects, such as sunlight, reflections depending on surface finish, dirt, and emissivity differences – problems common to conventional thermography.
- The phase information is insensitive to uneven distribution of the applied heat.
- Large areas can be examined within a few minutes from a distance via non-contact measurement.
- A less-costly, uncooled IR-camera is normally sufficient.
- Affordable heat sources are widely available (e.g. halogen lamps).
- Visualization of deep defects is possible.

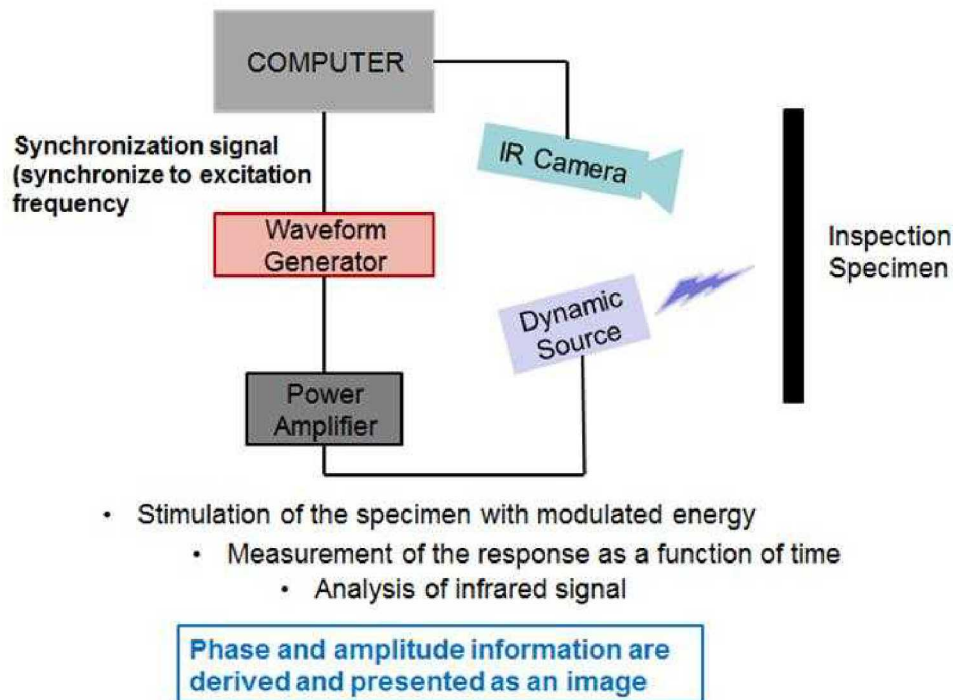


Figure 3-76: Equipment Set Up Used for Typical Lock-In Thermography Inspection

MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System - The most common excitation source for lock-in thermography is the halogen lamp. Figure 3-77 shows the MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography equipment featuring a FLIR Camera SR2 SC7650 with a Hedler 2500 W Lamp. Lock-in thermography can be used to detect damage such as delamination, inclusions and impact in composite structures. Figure 3-78 shows inspection results from a 32 ply (0.23" thick skin) solid laminate composite panel with a 58 ply (0.192" thick) upper stringer and 50 ply (0.125" thick) lower stringer. The engineered flaw profile is also shown on the left for comparison purposes. An important excitation source used in lock-in thermography is ultrasound. Typical settings for this method are 100 W at 20 KHz with a 200 ms burst frequency for synchronization. A disadvantage of the ultrasonic technique is that it can be destructive and care is required during excitation of the part. A powerful tool for laboratory and factory measurements is the use of mechanical excitation for heat generation through the thermo-elastic effect. Applications of this technique include

measurement of fatigue limits, imaging of stress patterns, crack propagation studies, and imaging of vibration patterns.

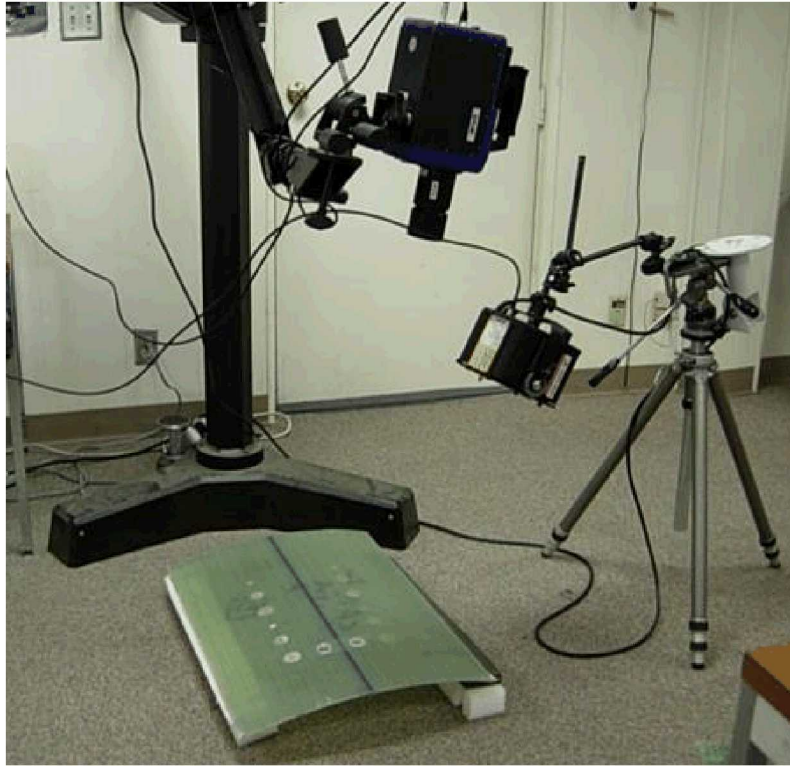


Figure 3-77: MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography with Halogen Heat Lamp Being Used as the Excitation Source

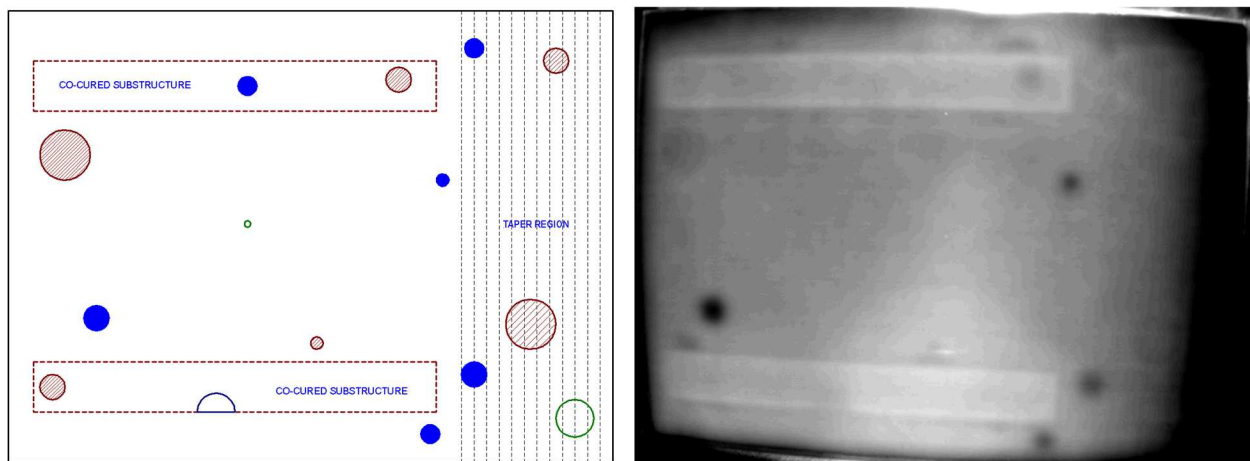


Figure 3-78: Results Produced by Lock-In Thermography on a 32 Ply Panel with Substructure Elements

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4.0 Composite Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment Design

The FAA requested that the AANC conducted this experiment in order to make an overall assessment of flaw detection in composite laminate aircraft structures. The Composite Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment (SLE) includes a set of 15 composite laminate test specimens (see Figure 4-1) that contain engineered flaws (disbonds, interply delaminations, and impact damage). Five NDI Feedback Specimens were also produced. These feedback specimens contain all of the same construction and flaw types as those found in the blind POD tests specimens. The flaw profiles in the NDI Feedback Specimens were provided to each inspector in order to allow the inspectors to become comfortable with the inspection demands before moving on to the blind POD specimens. Figure 1-1 shows the inspection surfaces on the set of painted specimens while Figure 4-1 shows the back side and unpainted surfaces of the same specimen set. The SLE traveled to airlines and third party maintenance depots, to acquire flaw detection data as provided by qualified aviation inspectors. The experiment required approximately 2-3 days of each inspector's time. In general, inspectors were asked to locate and size hidden flaws in the test specimens. The test program was intended to evaluate the technical capability of the inspector, the inspection procedures and the equipment (i.e. NDI Method). The inspections emphasized flaw detection methods applicable to solid laminate structures ranging from 12 plies to 64 plies thick.



Figure 4-1: Subset of the Fifteen Solid Laminate Test Specimens and Five NDI Feedback Specimens

The main drivers for this experiment were to: 1) Provide additional information on laminate inspections for the “Composite Repair NDT/NDI Handbook” (ARP 5089) and/or other AANC/FAA/CACRC composite inspection NDI training initiatives, 2) optimize composite laminate inspection procedures, 3) determine in-service flaw detection capabilities of conventional NDI methods, 4) measure the potential for flaw detection improvements through the application of advanced NDI methods and equipment, and 5) compare results from hand-held devices with results from scanning systems (focus on A-scan vs. C-scan and human factors issues in large area coverage). The latter two goals were achieved from the extension of this study to NDI equipment/method developers and the application of advanced NDI techniques to this experiment. Results from this testing will quantify the degree of improvements possible through the integration of more advanced NDI techniques and improved procedures. This report includes the results from the application of advanced inspection methods. A previous report presents the results from the conventional NDI testing [1.4].

This experiment utilized a series of solid laminate composite specimens with statistically relevant flaw profiles to evaluate flaw detection using pulse echo ultrasonics (PE-UT) and other NDI methods. These tests were conducted using NDI equipment that the inspectors are experienced in using for this type of inspection. The effort focuses on understanding the factors influencing the performance of NDI methods (device and inspector) when applied to the inspection of solid laminate composites. Some portions of the testing takes the form of blind Probability of Detection (POD) studies while other portions of the testing determined signal-to-noise ratios from which flaw detection can be inferred. The experiment results evaluated inspection performance attributes including accuracy and sensitivity (flaw hits, misses, false calls, flaw sizing) and usability features such as versatility, portability, complexity, and inspection time (human factors).

The primary factors affecting NDI included in this study are: composite materials, flaw profiles, geometry of structure, thickness of structure, presence of substructure elements, ply drop-off (taper), presence of bond lines, presence of fasteners, sealed joints, skin over honeycomb substructure, and inspection environment conditions. This phase of the study utilized airline personnel to study PE-UT inspections with a POD experiment in the field in order to formulate improvements in this critical inspection method.

4.1 Experiment Design Guidelines

Experiment Design Criteria:

- Conventional and advanced inspection techniques are being assessed.
- Carbon plies were used for all parts (carbon pre-preg, uniaxial tape). Some pre-cured carbon stringers were secondarily bonded and some stringers were co-cured.
- Use multiple stringers and create bays that have two-dimensional ply taper.
- Cure specimens as per normal manufacture temperature-time cure profile. Laminates are cured at 85 psi. Secondary bonds are produced at vacuum bag pressure only.
- Purpose of honeycomb portion of specimens is to ascertain difficulties in recognizing the back wall echo in the presence of resin pools around the honeycomb edges.
- Coatings – Inspection surface will be a painted, production tool surface as per normal part manufacture.
- General OEM laminate inspection procedures are provided as guidance for inspectors.
- Specimen drawings, similar to those found in OEM manuals, are provided to inspectors to aid in interpretation of PE-UT signals.

- Test specimen designs include the variables that were deemed to be the most important because they have the greatest effect on NDI [4.1].
- Include approximately 200 flaws with sufficient unflawed regions to allow for assessment of false calls.
- For the most part, maintain a minimum of 2" separation between flaws to eliminate signal cross-talk; include a few flaw pairs that are closely clustered to study ability to define boundaries of flaws.
- For the most part, maintain a minimum of 0.50" distance from flaws to edge of panels; include a few instances of flaws close to edge in order to study flaw detection near a natural edge.
- Final Specimen Matrix - The final test specimen matrix is shown in Table 4-1 and includes the different design variables integrated into each specimen. The specimen set consists of 3 Bullnose specimens (BN1, BN2, and BN3), 4 Complex Taper Specimens (CT1-A, CT1-B, CT2-A & CT2-B), and 8 Simple Taper Specimens (ST1U-A, ST1L-A, ST2U-A, ST2L-A, ST32-1, ST32-2, ST32-3, and ST32-4) for a total of 15 POD specimens.

Engineered Specimens (Design Variables)					
Test Specimen	Design Variable 1	Design Variable 2	Design Variable 3	Design Variable 4	Design Variable 5
Bullnose 1 (BN1)	12 plies over Honeycomb	24 plies over substructure	24 plies over radius	38 Ply Spar	N/A
Bullnose 2 (BN2)	12 plies over Honeycomb	24 plies over substructure	24 plies over radius	38 Ply Spar	N/A
Bullnose 3 (BN3)	12 plies over Honeycomb	24 plies over substructure	24 plies over radius	38 Ply Spar	N/A
Complex Taper 1 (CT1-A & CT1-B)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 to 20 ply taper (.25" step)	N/A
Complex Taper 2 (CT2-A & CT2-B)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 to 20 ply taper (.25" step)	N/A
Simple Taper 1 Upper (ST1U-A)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 plies w/substructure	20 plies w/substructure
Simple Taper 1 Lower (ST1L-A)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 plies w/substructure	20 plies w/substructure
Simple Taper 2 Upper (ST2U-A)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 plies w/substructure	20 plies w/substructure
Simple Taper 2 Lower (ST2L-A)	12 plies	20 plies	12 to 20 ply taper (.50" step)	12 plies w/substructure	20 plies w/substructure
Simple Taper New 32 (ST32-1 thru ST32-4)	32 plies	20 to 32 ply taper (.50" step)	32 plies w/substructure	N/A	N/A

Table 4-1: Test Specimen Matrix with Design Variables for Solid Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

The POD study breakdown shown in Figure 4-2 depicts the breakdown in results where the overall goal is to determine POD level for composite laminate structures in general. This is an all-inclusive POD result determined from all the inspection results from a specific inspection technique (e.g. Pulse-Echo UT). The next POD levels are results from the 12-20 ply laminates and the 20-32 ply laminates for a specific inspection method. This will also produce individual POD results for each inspector which then can be used in a comparison to look at the variance within a specific inspection method.

Note that the specimens have several discrete laminate thicknesses, substructures, and taper regions. Other isolated POD information to be derived from this study includes flaw detection performance in selected areas such as substructure-regions or tapered areas. These results can then be compared to inspection results from other categories (e.g. constant thickness regions) in order to pinpoint the greatest challenges associated with composite NDI.

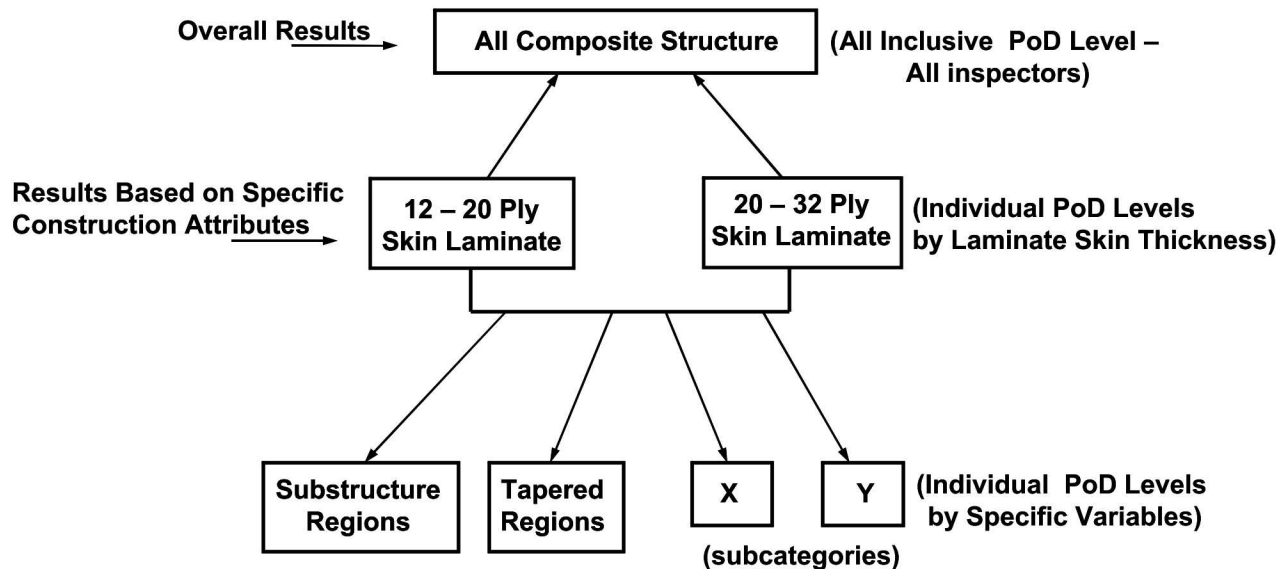


Figure 4-2: POD Study Breakdown to Produce Separate POD Values Related to Specific Inspection Variables

All of the important variables are represented but cannot be individually uncoupled. As a result, it was desirable to distribute the construction variables (thickness, taper, honeycomb, fastened regions, secondarily bonded regions, geometry) and flaws (size and depth) such that they represent the distribution and impediments found in aircraft structure. A summary of the main experiment design considerations follows:

- The overall SLE can be broken down into two separate experiments. There is a Thin Laminate Skin Experiment with skins ranging from 12-20 plies (0.078" to 0.130" thick) and total thickness extending to 62 plies (0.406") when substructure is considered. There is also Thick Laminate Skin Experiment with 32 ply skins (0.21" thick) and total thickness extending to 58 plies (0.377") when substructure is considered.
- Surface area and number of flaws (i.e. number of specimens) vs. time for inspector to complete the tests using hand-held probes - The goal was to produce experiments that can be completed in 2-3 days for the 12-20 ply Thin Laminate Skin Experiment (11 specimens) and in 1-2 days for the 20-32 ply Thick Laminate Skin Experiment (4 specimens).
- Disbonds were included between the laminate skin and substructure elements and delaminations were placed in both the laminate skin and the substructure (stringers). Some pre-manufactured stringers were used so flat bottom holes were the only means of

simulating delamination flaws in these stringers. In the cases where the substructure was co-cured with the skin, inserts were used for adding delamination flaws.

- Boeing provided laminate inspection procedures for the B777 and Airbus provided laminate inspection procedures for the A300. These procedures were placed in the experiment protocols for inspector use.

4.2 Specimen Design and Experiment Implementation Approach

In order to implement a realistic experiment, it was necessary to design representative specimens that include a full spectrum of variables found on composite aircraft structures. This included the different construction scenarios such as various ply thicknesses, different substructure thicknesses, bonding methods for substructure, (co-cured and secondarily bonded) and geometry issues (taper/ply drop-offs) that can make inspections difficult. Another important factor in the specimen design was to determine the most prevalent flaw types found on this type of structure and to develop ways to engineer representative flaws. This included determining the various flaw sizes required for the statistical analysis.

While the size of flaw, or damage, that must be detected is affected by many parameters (structure type, location on aircraft, stress and fatigue levels), the general goal for composite inspections is to detect flaws that are 1" diameter or larger. Many of the NDI Reference Standards in OEM NDT Manuals use 1" diameter flaws to guide equipment set-up. In addition, the CACRC ITG members generally concede that 1" flaw detection provides a good center point for this SLE. Thus, the flaw sizes in the SLE design were established with 1" diameter at the center. Larger and smaller flaws were included such that POD values smaller than 1" (as small as 0.25") and POD values larger than 1" (as large as 2") could be ascertained.

Specimen and flaw types utilized in the SLE experiment:

1. Interply delaminations - "tight" and "loose" delaminations where Grafoil inserts simulated tight interply contact (kissing delaminations) and pillow inserts simulated loose interply contact (thin slide of entrapped air).
2. Flat bottom hole – larger delaminations which simulate the presence of air gaps
3. Pillow insert disbonds at substructure interface simulating tight contact but no adhesive strength (kissing disbonds)
4. Pull tab disbonds simulating the presence of a variable air gap between the laminate and bonded substructure
5. Impact damage subsurface damage but no surface demarcations. This was simulated with tapered flat bottom holes with stair-step sides (see Figure 4-3 comparing normal impact damage morphology with the simulated version).
6. Flaw Sizing - Normal procedures and standards focus on flaw detection for 1" diameter flaws and larger. However, this study also assessed performance for flaws as small as 0.25" in diameter. Inspectors were told to use any "positive indications to find flaws as small as 0.25" in diameter." The flaw sizes used in this study were: 0.25", 0.5", 0.75", 1", 1.5" and 2" diameter.
7. Flaw Depth – Close to front and close to back surfaces are hardest to detect; also some along midline are included; locate in constant thickness and in transition, tapered regions.
8. Laminate Type - carbon graphite, uniaxial tape
9. Laminate Thickness – Panels have 12 (~.078"), 20 (~.130"), 24 (~.156"), and 32 (~.229") ply laminates skins which include both constant thickness and tapered regions. Ply steps in taper areas are 0.25" step per ply (12-20 ply specimens) and 0.5" step per ply (12-20 and 20-

- 32 ply specimens). The substructure elements included in the test specimens had thicknesses of 0.075", 0.125", 0.192", 0.225", and 0.250".
10. Test Specimen Size – some large enough to highlight need for scanners; some small and complex enough to make scanning difficult or unnecessary (see Appendix D “Summary of SLE Test Specimens”).
 11. Test Specimen Geometry – Include flat surfaces, angled surfaces, and curved surfaces; complex geometry on inside (substructure, taper, fasteners, etc.) and smooth surface on outside.

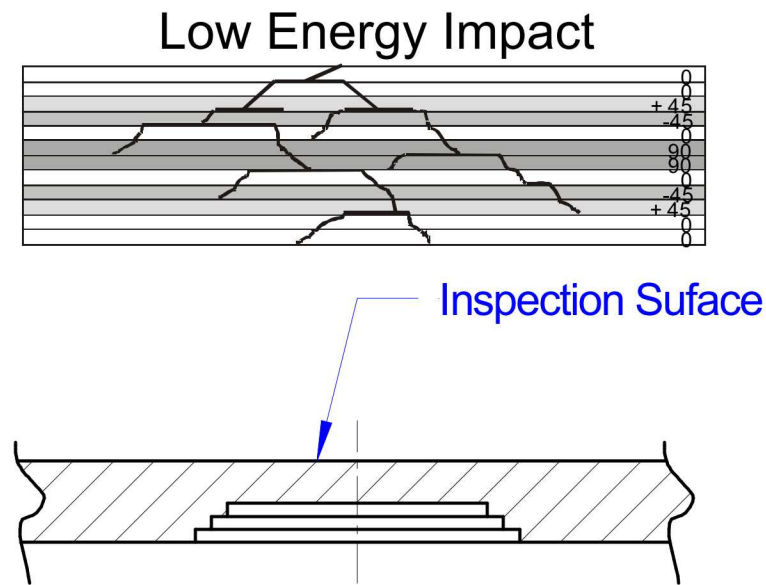


Figure 4-3: Simulated Impact Damage (Laminate Cross-Section)

Application of NDI:

1. NDI Feedback Specimens, with known flaw profiles, were inspected first in order to allow the inspectors to become comfortable with the inspection demands of the experiment.
2. PE-UT inspection technique was applied in a blind mode to the set of POD specimens to study hits, misses, false calls, and flaw sizing. Experimenter information packets and face-to-face briefings were provided to produce some procedural guidance and assure uniformity of results.
3. The experiment investigated the full range of human factors issues including inspection coverage methods and effects of the inspection environment.
4. Test Specimen characterization was conducted with knowledge of flaw locations to determine quantitative signal-to-noise (S/N) ratios. The ability to achieve successful flaw detection was then inferred by studying S/N levels at various threshold levels.
5. Two Inspection Categories - A valid cumulative POD curve for an inspection device requires results from a minimum of 10 inspectors using that device or inspection method. Two NDI categories were considered in the SLE: conventional (results provided in this report) and advanced NDI (results provided in separate, forthcoming report). It should be noted that in order to break down some of the important inspection variables (e.g. flaw detection in the presence of complex geometry) more than 10 inspectors were required for a single inspection device. This will be discussed further in another section.

6. Inspection Device – For the most part, the inspectors used their own NDI equipment. Experiment monitors allowed access to acceptable inspection devices to be used for this testing (i.e. equipment meets Boeing and Airbus specifications) and the inspectors made the final choice based on availability and familiarity with that equipment. Some testing with non-standard devices was be conducted (see discussions on Ramp Damage Check Experiment) in order to form a basis of comparison with results obtained using conventional pulse echo UT devices.
7. Training - Equipment and experiment familiarization was achieved through the use of NDI Feedback Specimens or solid laminate training specimens. The feedback specimens are representative of the test specimens that will subsequently be tested in blind mode. Figures 4-4 through 4-9 contain engineering drawings and sample photos of the set of five NDI Feedback Specimens. These specimens, along with the flaw location drawings, are sent out in advance of the experiment to allow the inspectors to learn about NDI equipment responses. Experiment monitors also provide one-on-one briefings (See Appendices A and B) to aid the proper deployment of the equipment just prior to beginning the blind flaw detection tests.
8. Experimenter Briefing - An "SLE Experimenter Information Packet" (Appendix A) and "SLE Experimenter Briefing Packet" (Appendix B) was provided to every participant. Face-to-face airline briefing sessions were completed at each site prior to beginning the NDI tests. In order to assure maximum uniformity in information provided to participants, all team members who were experiment monitors attended one of the airline briefing sessions provided by the AANC.

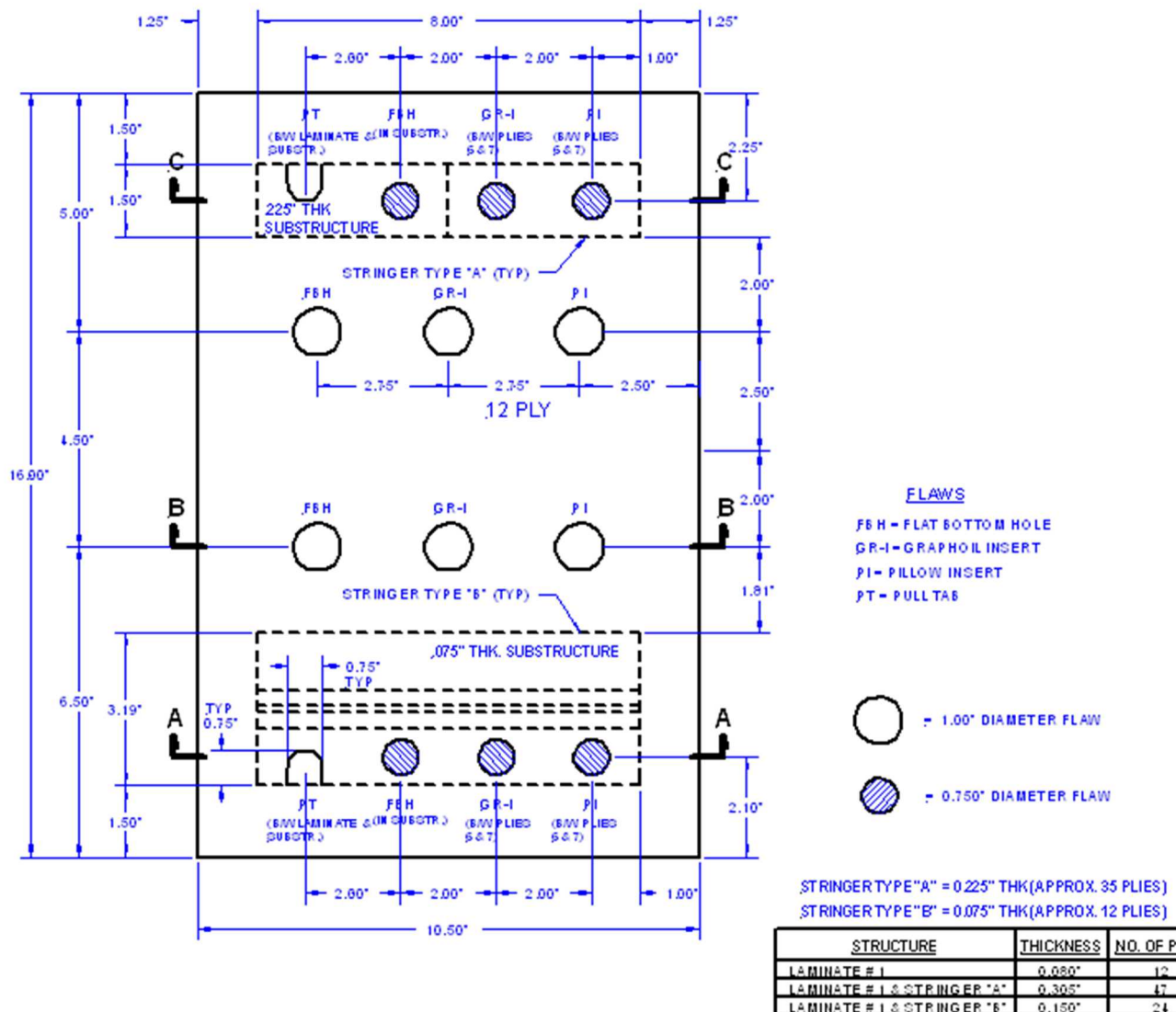


Figure 4-4: Final Design of 12 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen

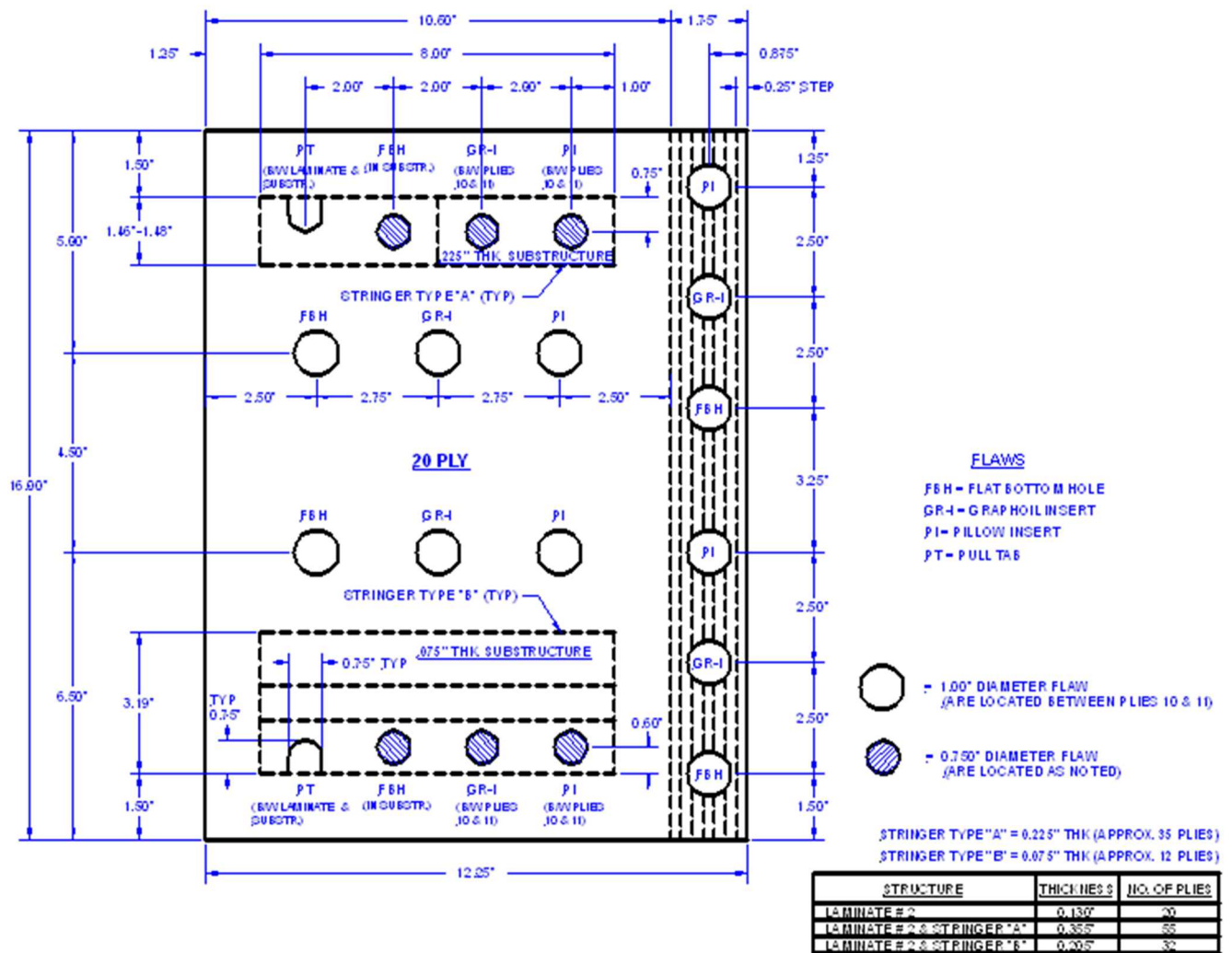


Figure 4-5: Final Design of 20 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen with Taper

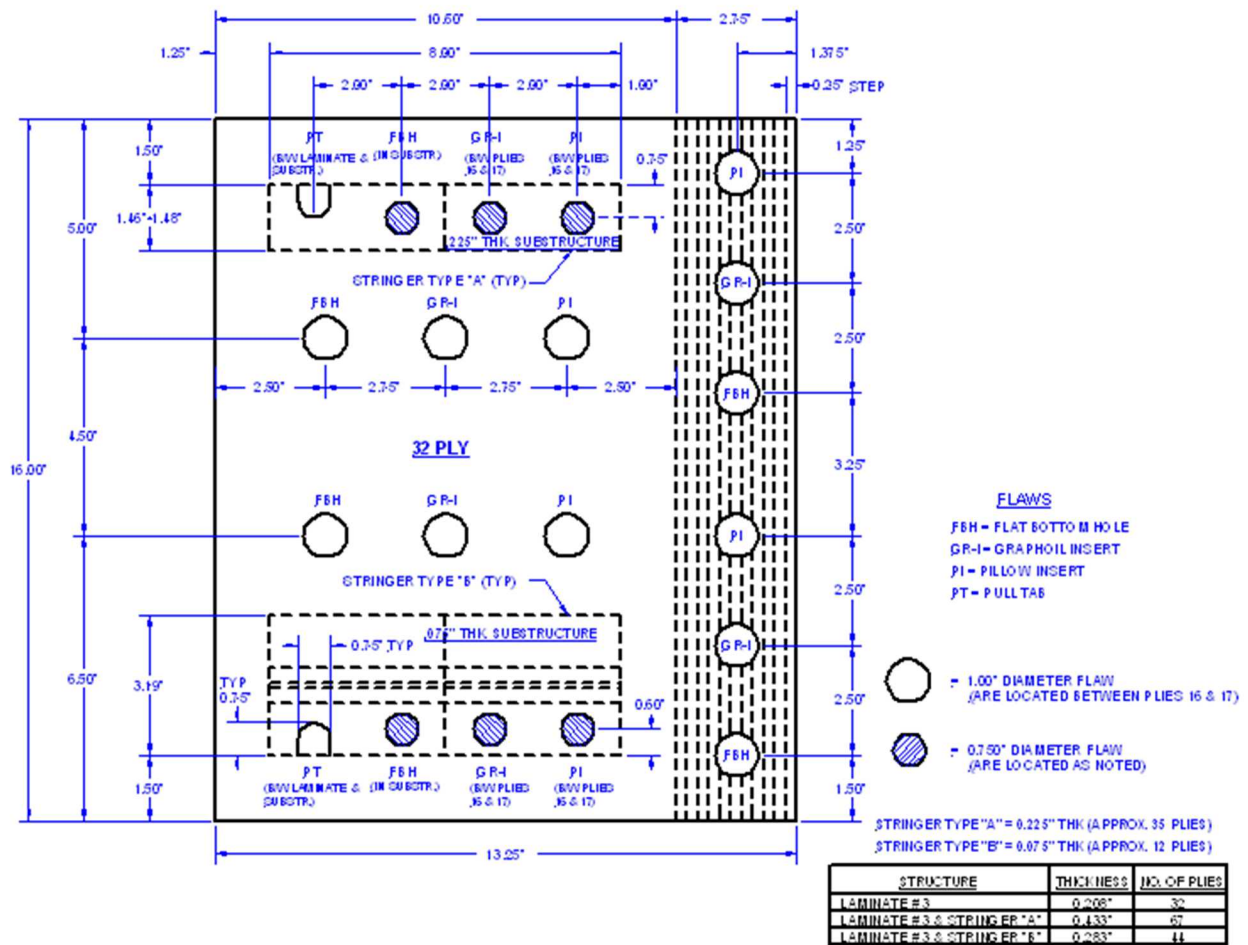


Figure 4-6: Final Design of 32 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen with Taper

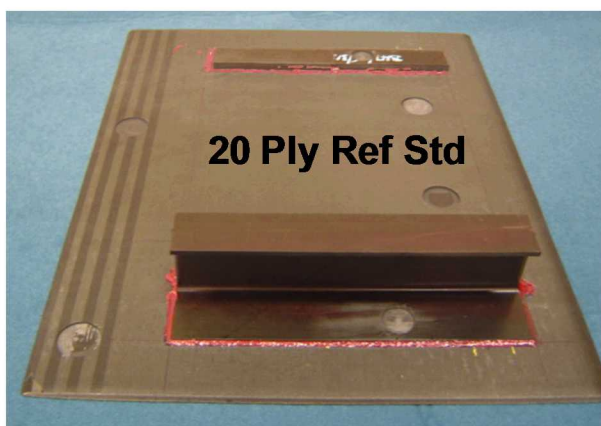


Figure 4-7: 20 and 32-Ply NDI Feedback Specimens (backside view) Used by Inspectors Prior to Starting the Blind POD Inspections

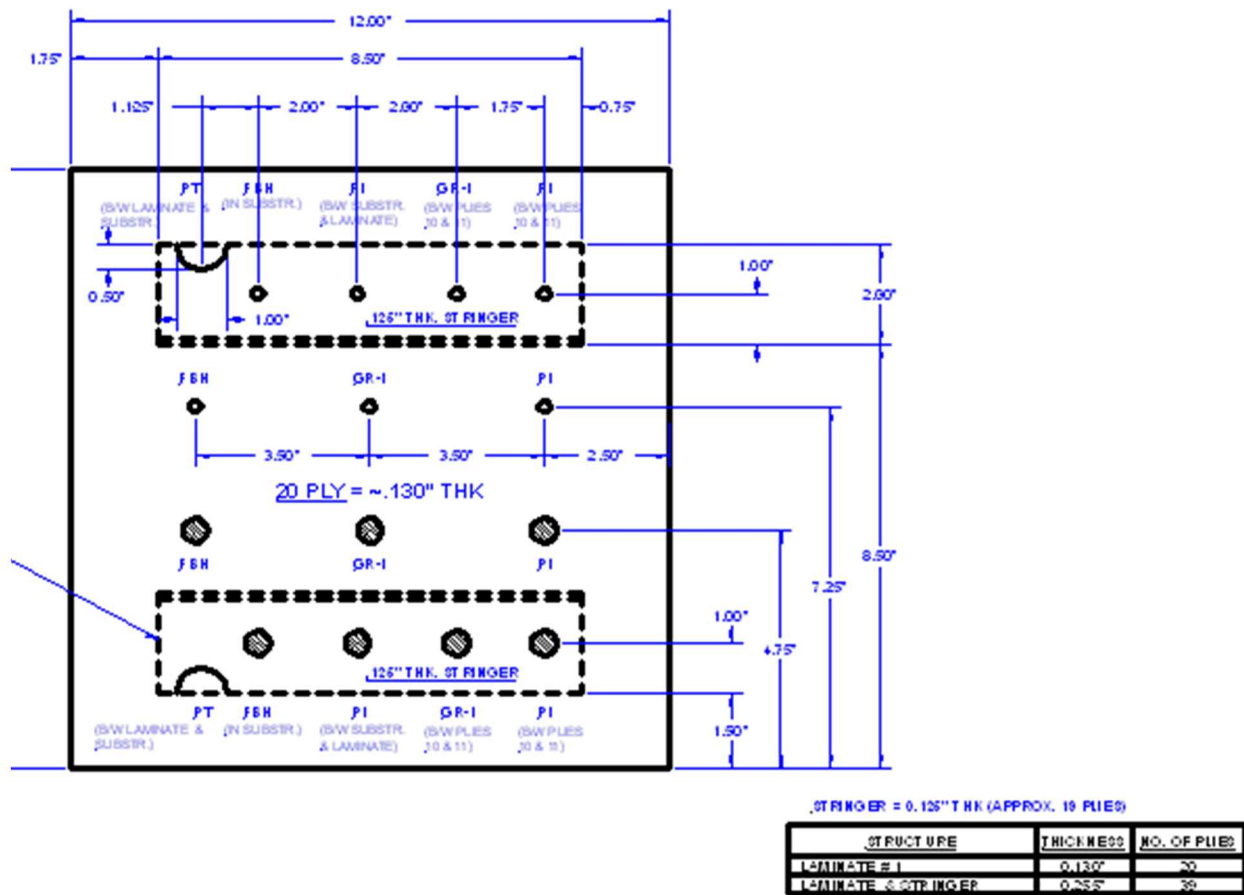


Figure 4-8: Final Design of second 20 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen without Taper and Different Substructure and Smaller Flaws



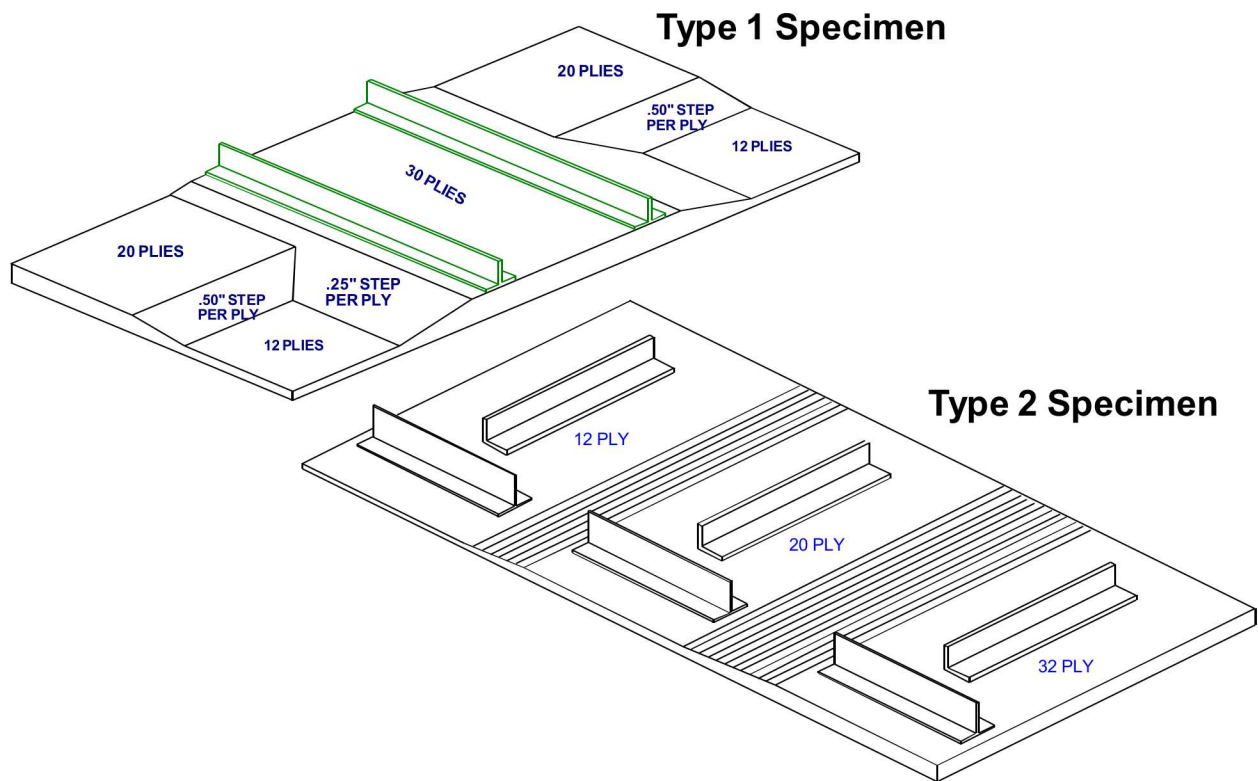


Figure 4-10: Solid Composite Laminate Specimens with Substructure and Single (Type 1) or Dual (Type 2) Ply Tapers on the Back Side

- Curved Specimens with Honeycomb – Figure 4-11 shows Bullnose Specimen design. It includes honeycomb regions in the top and bottom skins to study the inspection impediment of honeycomb under thick laminates. Flaws have been placed in the transition region where the laminate splits around the honeycomb. The rounded section in the front was produced separately and fastened into place as shown. The aft spar is a pre-fabricated C-section and is sealed and fastened. Flaws were placed in the fastened and sealed regions of the spar attachment joint. This specimen is approximately 5.5 ft.² and there are three specimens of this design for a total inspection area of 16.5 ft.².

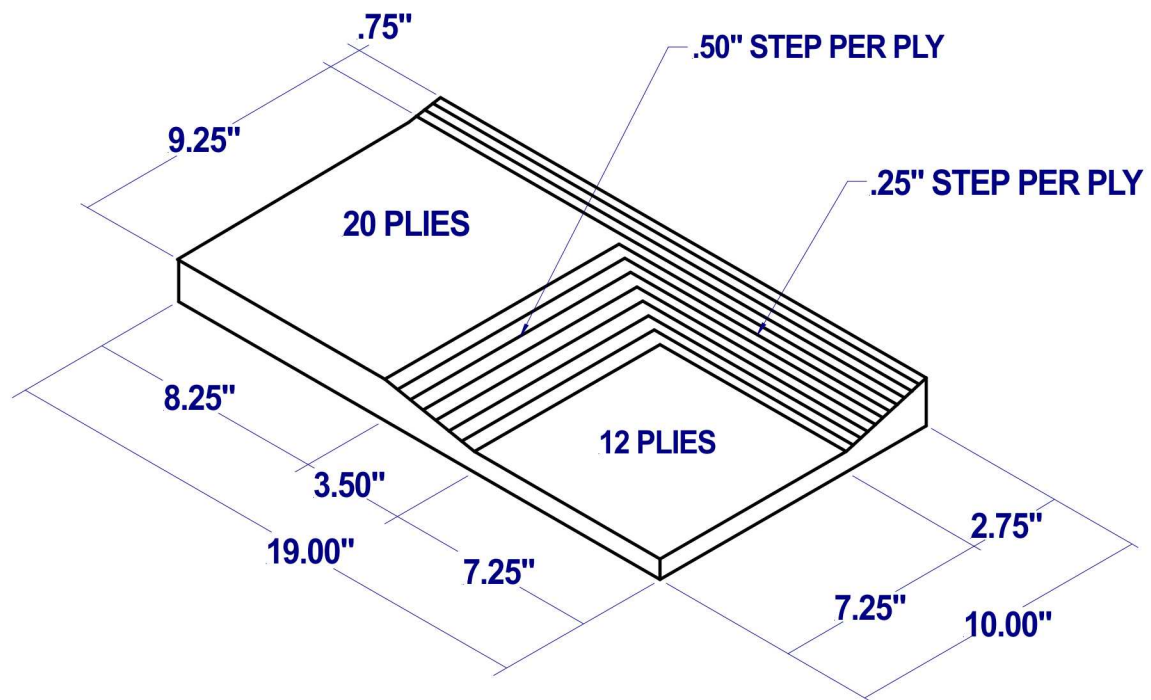


Figure 4-12: Complex Taper "A" Test Specimen Drawing

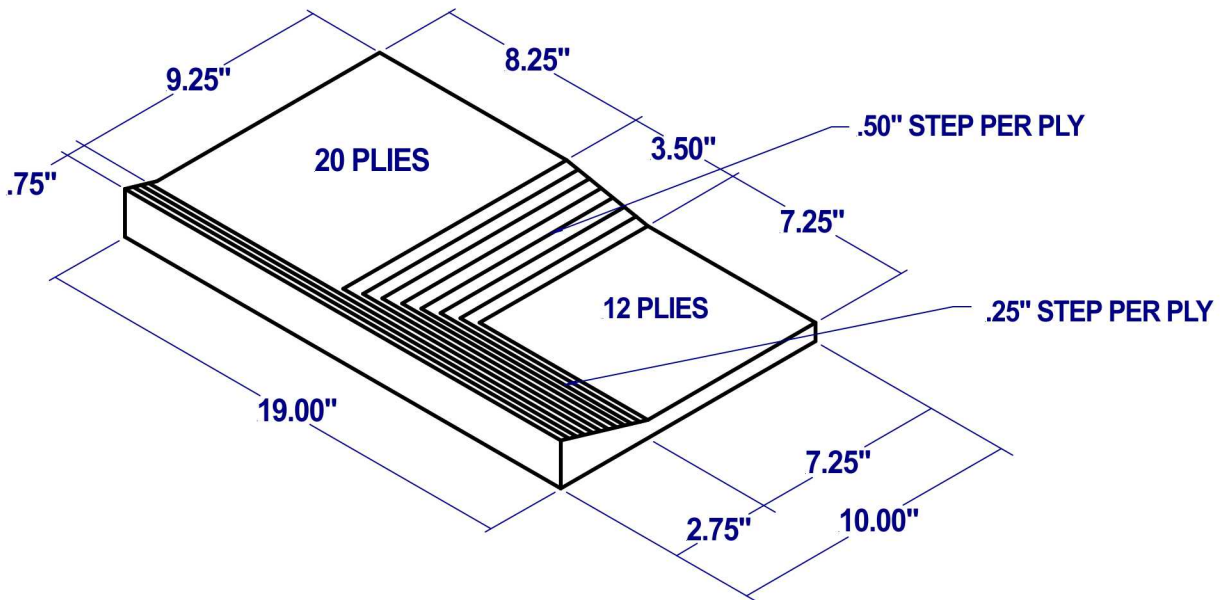


Figure 4-13: Complex Taper "B" Test Specimen Drawing

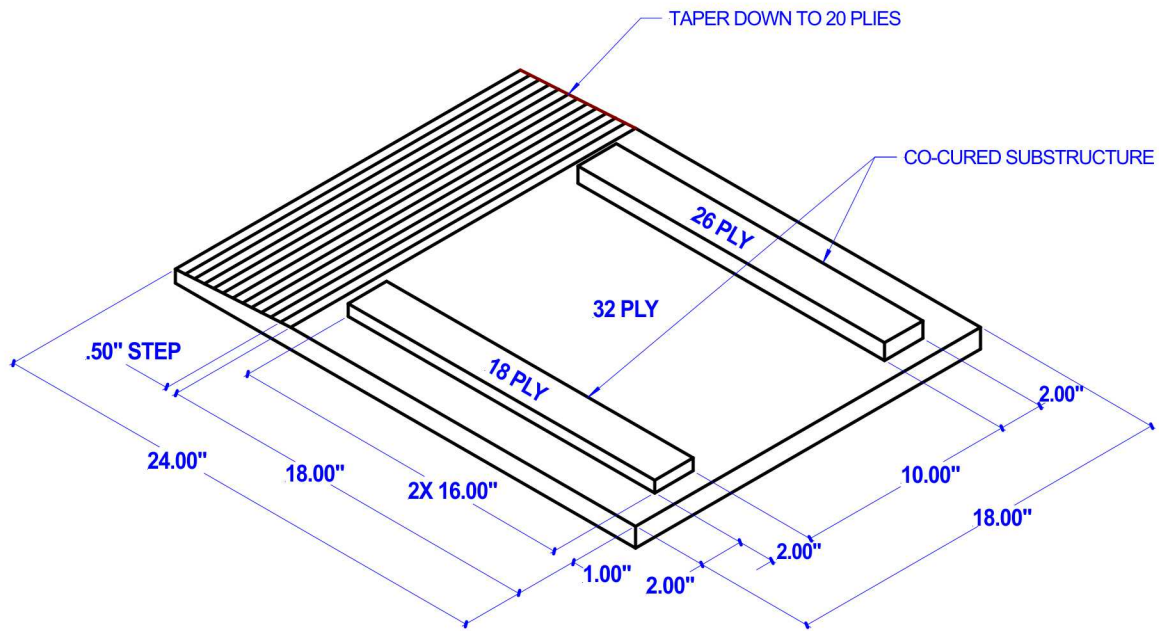


Figure 4-16: Simple Taper 32 Ply Test Specimen Drawing (20-32 Plies)

- Use of Specimen Drawings - Drawings were provided to all inspectors taking part in this experiment. In order to simulate the level of information that an inspector might obtain from the OEM manuals, some basic schematics with a few dimensions and ply listings were produced. The inspector could then determine if signal changes were due to the presence of a flaw or were caused by geometry changes in the specimen.
- Specimen Area by Geometry Type – The total inspection area for each panel type is listed in Tables 4-2 to 4-4. The inspection areas consisting of complex geometry (CG) and constant thickness (CT) are also calculated. Table 4-2 lists the total inspection area for the 12-20 ply specimen set, broken down by area of each panel type and by area of each geometry type. Table 4-3 shows the same information for the 20-32 ply specimen set. Table 4-4 shows the combined area calculations for the 12-20 ply and 20-32 ply specimen sets. Notice the inspections areas for both the complex geometry and the constant thickness regions are almost equal.

Thin (12-20 ply) - Total Area = 34.1 ft ²				
Panel Type	(ft ²)	# Panels	Total (ft ²)	Geometry
BN's	5.6	3	16.8	Combined
	4.663	3	13.989	CG
	0.937	3	2.811	CT
CT's	1.319	4	5.276	Combined
	0.424	4	1.696	CG
	0.895	4	3.58	CT
STU/STL's	3.002	4	12.008	Combined
	0.977	4	3.908	CG
	2.025	4	8.1	CT

Table 4-2: Thin 12-20 Ply Total Inspection Area Table

Thick (20-32 ply) - Total Area = 12 ft ²				
Panel Type	(ft ²)	# Panels	Total (ft ²)	Geometry
ST32's	3	4	12	Combined
	1.194	4	4.776	CG
	1.806	4	7.224	CT

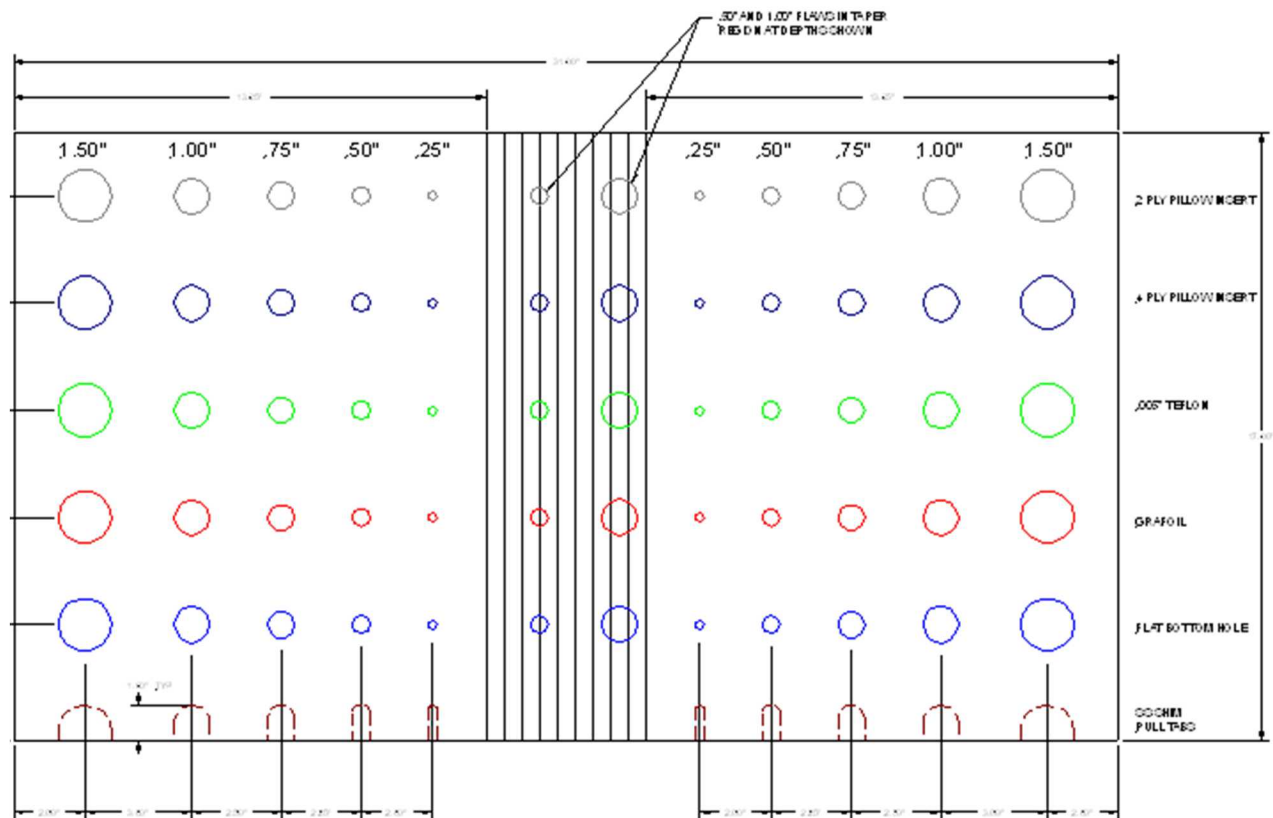
Table 4-3: Thick 20-32 Ply Total Inspection Area Table

Combined (12-20 ply) & (20-32 ply) Total Area = 46.1 ft ²		
	Total (ft ²)	% Area
CG	24.4	53%
CT	21.7	47%
Total	46.1	100%

Table 4-4: Combined 12-20 Ply & 20-32 Ply Total Inspection Area Table

4.3 Flaw Manufacture Options

A key aspect of the production of the test specimens was the determination of the methods to engineer realistic flaws. In order to evaluate several different methods for engineering flaws into a composite laminates, a number of thick, composite laminate trial specimens were produced with different laminate thicknesses, as well as ply taper regions. Figure 4-17 shows one example of the trial specimens. It contains a matrix of six possible ways to produce delaminations. Flaws of different sizes were placed at different depths. Subsequent inspections produced signal-to-noise data (pulse-echo UT and low frequency bond test) and attenuation data (TTU). The goal was to determine methods for producing both “loose” delaminations (high attenuation and S/N values) and “tight” delaminations (relatively low S/N values and attenuation levels in the range of the 12 dB accept-reject threshold). Test results showed that the 4 ply pillow inserts produced the more gross flaws while the Grafoil inserts better simulated the tighter flaws. As a result, the experiment includes both flaw scenarios. Figure 4-18 shows a C-scan image produced by PE-UT inspections along with the S/N values associated with each flaw type and size. The goal was to utilize only flaws that produced a S/N level of 3 or greater. The pull tab and flat-bottom hole flaw engineering methods were also adopted into this experiment.



NOTE: DOES NOT INCLUDE FLAWS NEAR SURFACE OR NEAR BACKWALL - ONLY AT MID-THICKNESS



Figure 4-17: Trial Signal-to-Noise Solid Laminate Specimen for Preliminary Testing of Methods for Producing Engineered Flaws

Figures 4-19 and 4-20 show some of the test specimens being fabricated. Figure 4-19 shows the Mylar templates that were used to ensure the proper placement of the flaws in each of the specimens while Figure 4-20 shows the vacuum bagging/Autoclave production process, some of the ply taper regions, secondary bonding of some substructure elements and some of the post-production flaws that were added to the back side of the test specimens.

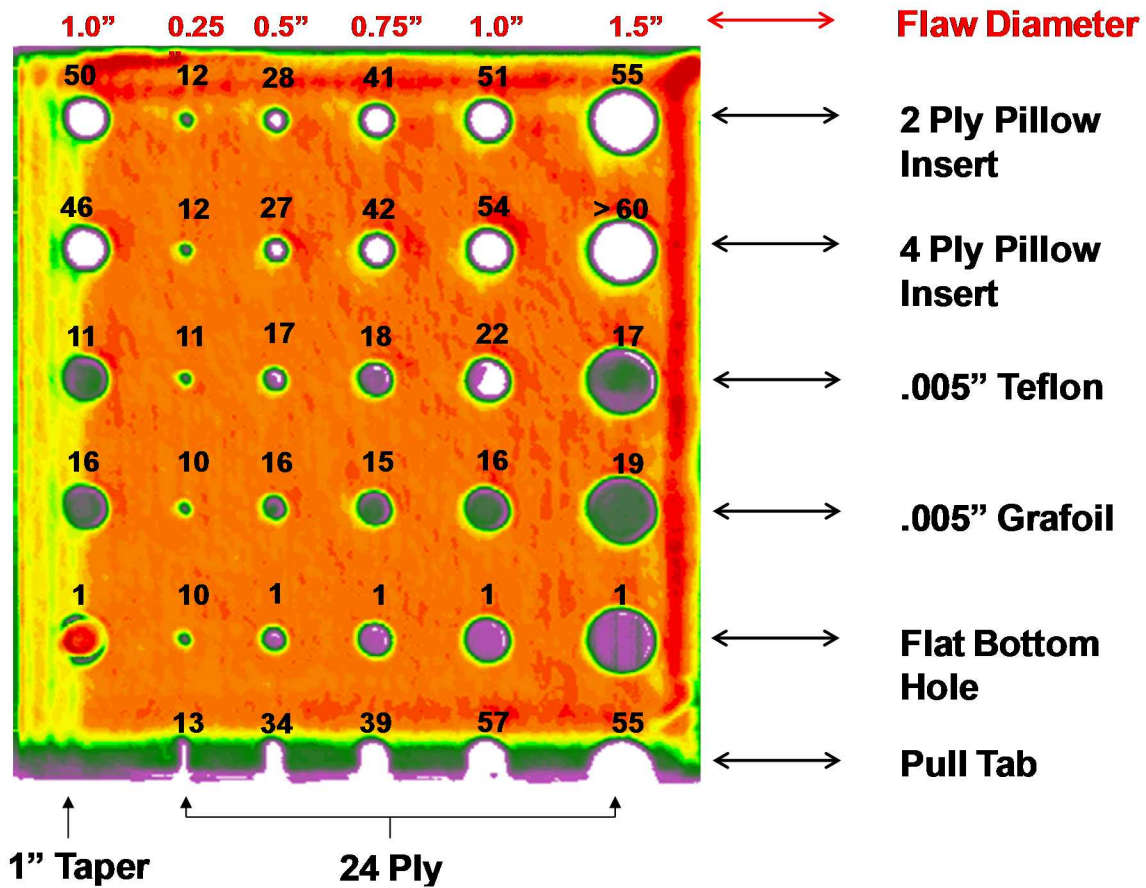


Figure 4-18: Ultrasonic Scan of Trial Solid Laminate Specimen Showing Attenuations Levels to Establish Viability of Flaw Engineering Methods



Figure 4-19: Solid Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment – Test Specimen Fabrication



Figure 4-20: Layup of Composite Laminates with Simple Taper and Complex Taper and Bonding of Substructure Elements

Flaw Characterization - In order to make a quantitative assessment of the viability of each engineered flaw in the SLE test specimens, the signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) of each defect vs. the surrounding good structure was determined. The S/N was calculated using the amplitudes of the A-scan signals in the test specimens. The noise level was determined by examining the output variation corresponding to inspections along adjacent sections of good structure. This was compared to the signal obtained during inspections of the flawed areas.

BS = base signal; peak signal at unflawed area
 NS = noise signal; (max-min)/2 over range of
 unflawed area in each quadrant
 FS = flaw signal; peak signal at each flaw site
 S/N = signal-to-noise ratio

$$S/N = \frac{FS - BS}{NS} \quad (1)$$

In general, an S/N ratio of at least 3 is desired to infer the presence of a flaw. Thus, all flaws in the SLE database were checked to ensure that their S/N was 3 or larger. Testing using this scheme did not require calibration on a “median” or “neutral” reference standard. The key measurement for each case was the difference between unflawed areas of the test panel and the defect area. The S/N

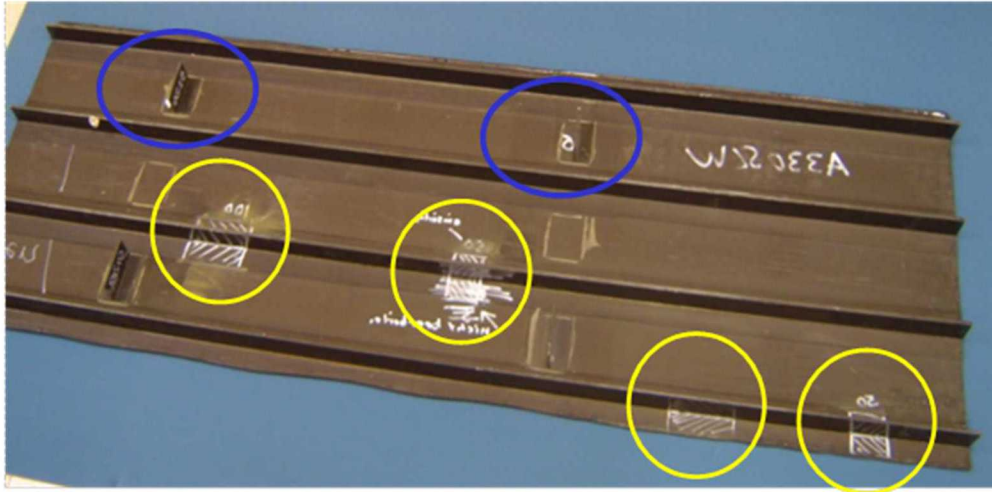
can be calculated based on the FS decrease in the back wall signal or the FS presence (amplitude) of a new intermediate signal between the front and back wall which also indicates an anomaly. Table 4-5 shows some sample results from the series of S/N calculations for a Bullnose (BN) and Complex Taper (CT) specimen. If the drop in the back wall signal was used as the FS basis for the calculations, it is seen that the S/N values ranged from 29 to 89. If the new intermediate peak is used as the FS basis for the calculations, it is seen that the S/N values ranged from 8 to 69. In both calculations, all flaws are deemed viable for this study as they provide sufficient signal variation to be readily detectable.

Pulse Echo UT Amplitude Measurements								
Flaw No.	Panel Location	Laminate Thickness	Flaw Identification (Type/Size, Loc.)	Viability of Flaws - Attenuation	Backwall Response (% FSH)	S/N Ratio (Backwall signal)	Flaw Response (% FSH)	S/N Ratio (Flaw signal)
1	BN1	12 - 24	4PL-PI, 0.50", b/t 4&5	17.6	21.1	87.1	80	44
3	BN1	12 - 24	GR-I, 1.0", b/t 4&5	23.3	11.0	93.4	120	69
5	BN1	12	4PL-PI, 1.0", b/t 4&5	18.7	18.7	88.6	120	69
6	BN1	12 - 24	GR-I, 0.75", b/t 4&5	22.7	12.1	31.4	120	22
8	BN1	12 - 24	4PL-PI, 1.5", b/t 8&9	21.4	14.1	31.0	125	8
10	BN1	12	GR-I, 1.0", b/t 6&7	19.5	17.6	30.3	120	22
68	CT1	12 - 32 T	4PL-PI, 0.25", b/t 16&17	23.4	6.3	32.3	31	10
69	CT1	20 - 32 T	GR-I, 2.0", b/t 16&17	21.6	7.8	31.7	101	36
70	CT1	12 - 32 T	GR-I, 0.75", b/t 22&23	26.0	4.7	32.9	117	42
71	CT1	12 - 32 T	4PL-PI, 1.5", b/t 16&17	23.0	6.6	32.2	117	42
72	CT1	20 - 32 T	GR-I, 0.75", b/t 16&17	20.7	8.6	31.4	109	39
75	CT1	12	4PL-PI, 0.25", b/t 6&7	20.6	11.7	29.1	78	17

Table 4-5: Sample Signal-to-Noise Calculations for Flaws in the Bullnose (BN) and Complex Taper Test Specimens

4.4 Experiment Timing

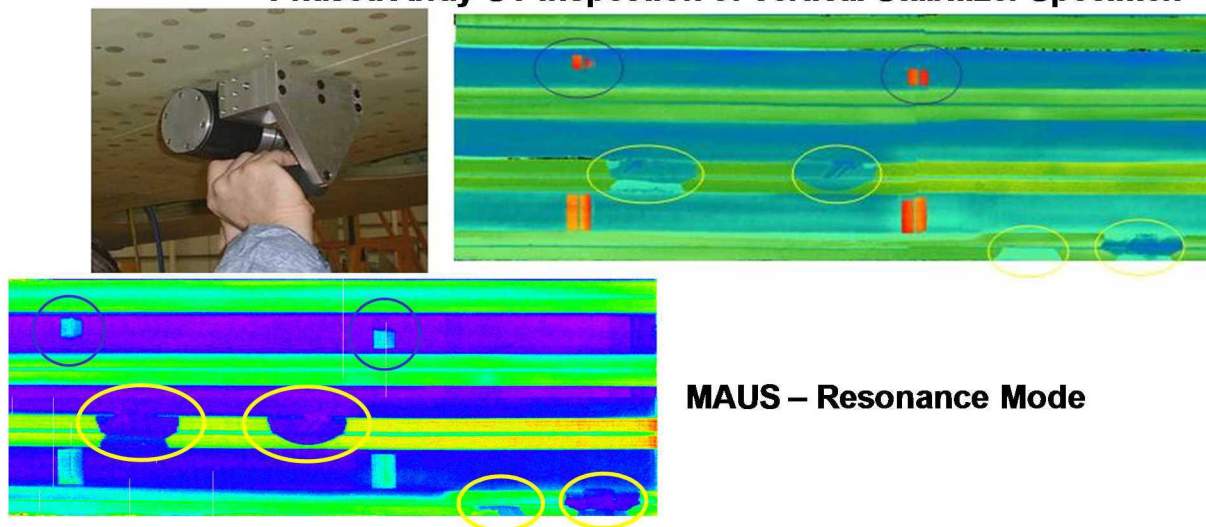
Based on the AANC's experience with the similar Composite Honeycomb Flaw Detection Experiment, it was assumed that we cannot expect more than 3 to 3 ½ days of an inspector's time to complete the set of inspections. The planned inspections for all 15 test specimens were deemed to be more time consuming than those deployed on the honeycomb suite of specimens so it was important to determine the amount of surface area that an airline inspector can be expected to realistically cover in a 3 day test. Trial experiments were conducted with the simulated vertical stabilizer specimen shown in Figure 4-21. This allowed for a quantitative assessment of the possible surface area that could be inspected in a three day span. In order to acquire some timing data, an A330 vertical stabilizer test specimen with engineered flaws was sent to United Airlines. Inspection results from two inspectors at United Airlines showed that almost all the flaws were detected and the two inspections took 2:35 (hr.:min.) and 3:30 for the 10 ft.² panel. This timing data indicated an expected coverage of 2.9 to 3.9 ft.² per hour using hand-held pulse-echo UT methods. Overall, these results indicated that a 3 to 3 ½ day experiment (18 to 22 hours of inspection time) could include approximately 60 ft.² of inspection area. This experiment contains a total of 46ft.² (34.1ft.² thin laminate and 12.0ft.² thick laminate) of inspection area. For comparison purposes, inspection results from several different NDI methods are shown in Figure 4-22. It can be seen that the phased array UT scanner, the MAUS resonance scans and the hand-held pulse-echo UT inspections all produced very similar flaw detection.



Simulated Vertical Stabilizer with Stringers, Rib Sections and Engineered Flaws
 Four stringer-to-skin disbonds (yellow)
 Two rib to-skin-partial disbonds (blue)

Figure 4-21: Vertical Stabilizer Large Composite Laminate Test Specimen Used to Obtain Preliminary Timing Information for Hand-Held Pulse-Echo Ultrasonic Inspections

Phased Array UT Inspection of Vertical Stabilizer Specimen



**United Airlines
 inspection with hand-
 held P-E UT**

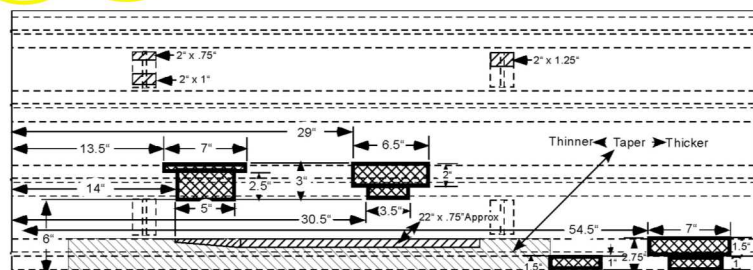


Figure 4-22: Inspection Results Showing Detection of All Stabilizer Flaws by Phased Array UT, Resonance Scans and Hand-Held Pulse-Echo UT

4.5 Ramp Damage Check Experiment (RDCE)

Several OEMs and airlines requested that the FAA-AANC adapt the SLE to conduct a blind evaluation of the viability of the “Bondtracer” and the “Ramp Damage Checker” devices. As a result, a customized POD experiment was produced from the SLE and is called the Ramp Damage Check Experiment (RDCE). The purpose of the RDCE is to assess new, ultrasonic-based “Go”/“No Go” equipment that OEM’s plan to allow airlines to deploy at airports and other non-scheduled maintenance depots using non-NDI personnel (e.g. A&Ps). These “Go”/“No Go” devices are described in Chapter 3. The equipment can be deployed whenever visual clues or other events occur which warrant closer scrutiny of a composite laminate structure. Ground personnel, with appropriate training on such equipment, will set up the equipment in accordance with OEM-supplied procedures and then make an assessment of the region in question. It is important to note that such “Go”/“No Go” UT equipment is intended to be used to assess local indications or regions only. They are not intended for wide-area inspections that cover areas of several square feet. Thus, equipment operators must be directed to very distinct locations. This was a key consideration in the design of the RDCE.

RDCE Experiment Design

- Selected locations and shapes were identified on the SLE specimens so that personnel participating in the RDCE know: 1) exactly which regions to check, and 2) which region to use for equipment calibration prior to inspection.
- Selected locations, while a subset of the SLE, include all types of flaws and all types of construction scenarios including substructure elements.
- Selected locations averaged 8.62 in² (0.06 ft.²) in area over 140 locations for a total inspection area of 8.38 ft². These locations were divided into 53% of the locations having flaws and 47% of the locations having no flaws. The inspection area to flaw ratio was greater than 20:1, meaning that for every 1 in² of flaw area there was more than 20 in² of unflawed area in the overall RDCE.
- Flaw sizes are the same as those deployed in the SLE— 0.25”, 0.5”, 0.75”, 1”, 1.5”, and 2”.
- 80 flaws were included in the RDCE design.
- RDCE was designed to allow for calculating PODs based on each individual participant’s results.
- GE Bondtracer and Olympus Ramp Damage Checker devices were deployed by an equal number of participants.
- Both NDI inspectors and non-NDI personnel (all A&P qualified) were tested in order to determine if any difference in performance was observed.

RDCE Experiment Implementation

- NDI Feedback Specimens, along with equipment set-up procedures and overview training (See Appendix E), were provided to all participants in the RDCE. Experiment participants were allowed to work with the NDI Feedback Specimens to increase their proficiency in either the Bondtracer” or the Ramp Damage Checker devices before proceeding on to the blind POD experiment.
- Each blank experiment panel (see Figure 4-23) from the SLE was prepared for the focused inspections that were specifically selected for the RDCE.
- An inspection region was consistently marked on each composite test specimen using a series of templates. Inspection locations and calibration locations were marked on each specimen by the experiment monitors using the RDCE design templates shown in Figure 4-24. The template was placed on each specimen and the inspection regions on each panel are

Panels marked with inspection locations (boxes) were provided to each RDCE participant. Specialized drawings, as shown in Figure 4-25, were provided to each participant for guidance. The drawings showed the inspection regions to be covered along with the panel design (e.g. laminate thicknesses, substructure regions and thicknesses, taper regions) so that the inspectors were aware of the composite ply arrangement in each region. Inspectors made their flaw indications directly on the test panel as shown in Figure 4-26. Grading templates were then placed on top of the inspector's flaw calls to determine flaw hits, misses, false calls and ability to correctly size each detected flaw.

-
- This image shows a blank, aged, cream-colored page, likely an endpaper or flyleaf of a book. The paper has a slightly textured appearance with some minor discoloration and a small dark stain near the center. The page is set against a dark background.

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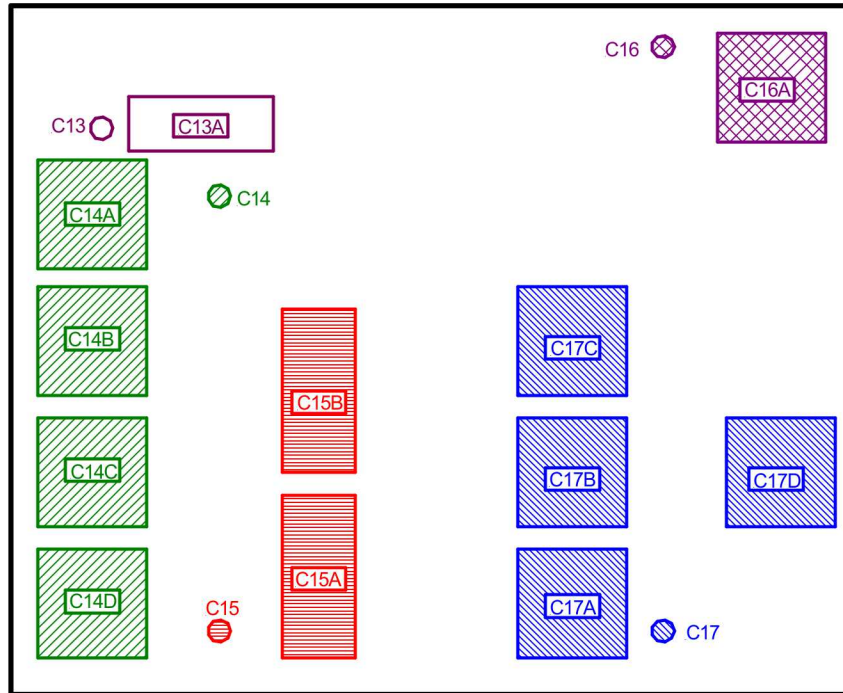


Figure 4-25: Drawings Provided to Inspectors for Guidance which Show the Inspection Regions to be Covered, the Appropriate Calibration Points (note color coding) and with the Panel Design Features

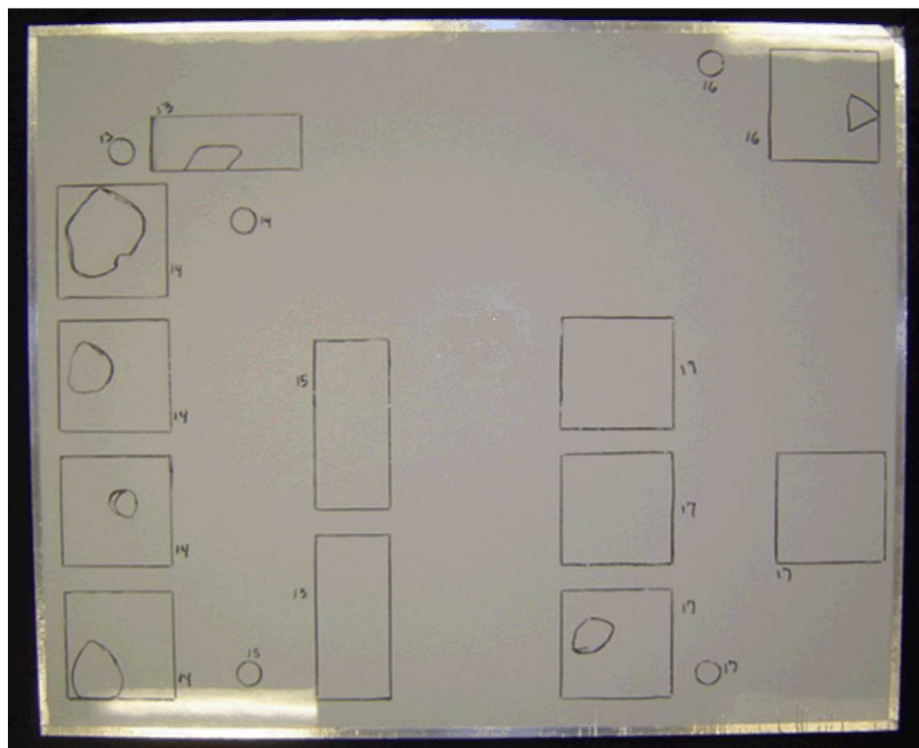


Figure 4-26: Test Panel Showing an Inspectors Flaw Markings Within the Directed Inspection Regions

References

- 4.1 Roach, D., Rackow, K., “Development and Utilization of Composite Honeycomb and Solid Reference Standards for Aircraft Applications,” Dept of Energy SAND Report SAND2003-2112, June 2004.

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5.0 Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment Implementation

A set of experiment protocols were written to guide every aspect of the SLE implementation. The experiment protocols ensured that the information provided to all experiment participants was consistent and comprehensive such that all participants received similar guidance and inspection aids. The experiment protocols also provided step-by-step guidance to the experiment monitors so that all data and observations associated with the SLE were acquired in a consistent manner. A thorough “Experiment Briefing Package” was sent out in advance of every airline visit. The Experiment Briefing Package is included in Appendix A and was provided to experiment participants at least one week in advance of the SLE blind testing. The set of NDI Feedback Specimens, with flaw locations clearly marked, were also sent out in advance so that experiment participants could conduct PE-UT inspections to familiarize themselves with the composite structure and flaw detection requirements.

The first day of each experiment started with the presentation of the Experimenter Briefing which is included in Appendix B. Figure 5-1 shows one of the briefings being provided to inspectors. This briefing explains the purpose of the experiment and the process the inspectors will use to indicate their flaw findings. The briefing was used at each facility to insure a consistent presentation on the experiment goals and a thorough explanation of how the experiment will proceed. It also allowed the inspectors to ask questions. At this time, the inspectors were introduced to the inspection transducers, UT devices and aids (e.g. delay lines) that they could optionally use. Inspectors could also decide to deploy their own PE-UT equipment and transducers. Composite laminate inspection procedures were provided to the AANC by Boeing and Airbus for use in the SLE. These sample composite laminate NDI procedures were presented to the inspectors for their use. During the course of the NDI tests, the experiment monitors logged various observations along with the exact flaw calls provided by the inspectors. Appendix C contains the “Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheets” that were used to guide the data logging.

Once the briefing was completed, each blind inspection process was preceded by inspections on appropriate NDI Feedback Specimens supplied by the experiment monitors. The inspector was provided with information on the manufactured flaws present in the NDI Feedback Specimens and was allowed to use the specimens for check-out and set-up of their inspection equipment. The NDI Feedback Specimens have similar construction as the blind test specimens and include similar flaws. Thus, they were also used to allow inspectors to become familiar with an inspection device and to learn about a specific equipment's response to various composite structures and flaws within those structures. Figures 4-4 through 4-9 show the flaw profiles of all the NDI Feedback Specimens.

Additional ultrasonic transducers are also provided by the experiment monitors so the inspectors could experiment with different frequencies, probe diameters, and types (contact or delay). Once the inspectors were comfortable with their set-up on the NDI Feedback Specimens, experiment monitors distributed the blind specimens to them for inspection. Inspectors were asked only to locate and properly size the flaws they find by marking directly on the specimens using standard grease pencils. This data was then recorded and graded to determine their Probability of Detection level, number of false calls, and inspectors’ accuracy in sizing the flaws. Other secondary data was collected such as timing (inspection time on each panel), inspector experience, NDI training level, inspection frequency, probe type, and equipment used for inspection. The typical set-up for the experiment deployment is shown in Figures 5-2 to 5-4 where each inspector has a workstation to set-up their equipment and test specimens.

The participants included over 70 inspectors from 18 aircraft maintenance facilities including 14 different airlines and two Maintenance and Repair Organizations (MRO). All the maintenance facility inspectors used hand-held Pulse-Echo UT inspection devices. The maintenance facilities included: All Nippon Airways, American Airlines, Cathay Pacific Airlines, China Airlines, Continental Airlines (pre-merger with United), Delta Air Lines (2 facilities), Federal Express (2 facilities), Goodrich Aerospace, Japan Airlines, Northwest Airlines (pre-merger with Delta), Singapore Airlines, Taikoo Aircraft, Thai Airways, United Airlines, and US Airways. The participating companies are shown in Figure 5-5. In addition, the SLE was completed using a wide array of advanced NDI methods (see Figure 5-6). The advanced NDI methods evaluated with the SLE include: phased array ultrasonics (Olympus OmniScan, Toshiba MatrixEye, GE Phasor with RotoArray wheel probe), linear array ultrasonics (Boeing MAUS FlawInspecta, Sonatest rolling wheel probe with OmniScan and RapidScan 2), laser ultrasonics (iPhoton), digital acoustic video (Imperium AcoustoCam), shearography (Dantec Dynamics, Laser Technology Inc.), flash thermography (Thermal Wave Imaging), line thermography (Mistras), transient thermography (MovieTherm), lock-in thermography (MovieTherm), ultrasonic video (DolphiTech DolphiCam) and microwave (Evisive). A previously-released DOT report describes the POD results from the conventional PE-UT method while this report focuses on the advanced NDI methods that can potentially be applied to inspect composite laminate structures. Comparisons between results from advanced NDI and the conventional PE-UT method are also presented in this report.



Figure 5-1: Experiment Instructions Being Provided to Supplement the Written Experimenter Briefing and Information Packet



Figure 5-2: Typical Experiment Set-Up with Separate Inspector Workstations



Figure 5-3: Inspector Completing Inspection using Specimen Drawing for Reference of Structural Details



Figure 5-4: Inspector Completing Inspection and Marking Flaw Detection on the Test Specimen



Figure 5-5: Airline Participants in Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment



Figure 5-6: Advanced NDI Methods that Participated in the Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

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6.0 Results from Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

Each inspection technique that was applied in this blind flaw detection experiment was evaluated using the following performance attributes: 1) accuracy and sensitivity, 2) data analysis capabilities, 3) versatility, 4) portability, 5) complexity, 6) human factors and 7) inspection time. The most important of these parameters are the quantitative metrics since they are objective standards that can be numerically counted or quantified. Accuracy is the ability to detect flaws reliably and correctly in composite structures and repairs without false calls. Sensitivity is the extent to which the inspection system responds to flaws as a function of size, type, and location in the structure (e.g., proximity to edges, taper regions, underlying or adjacent structural elements).

The set of graphs in this chapter present all of the detailed results for all aspects of the solid laminate flaw detection experiment. These include the Probability of Detection (POD) curves for each NDI method applied to the SLE. Results from conventional pulse-echo UT inspections carried out by airlines inspectors are summarized first in Section 6.1. Next, the individual results from each advanced inspection method are presented. Finally, comparisons are made between the various methods and between conventional and advanced NDI results.

The results listed in Section 6.1 provide a comprehensive baseline of how the aviation industry currently performs in the detection of flaws in composite laminate aircraft components. Once these industry baseline results were obtained, the emphasis shifted to quantifying the degree of inspection improvement that could be obtained through the application of more advanced and alternative NDI methods (equipment and techniques). So, the same experiment was deployed with a wide array of advanced NDI methods and the results from those tests are presented in the Chapter 6 sections that follow.

Table 6-1 lists the set of advanced NDI methods that were deployed on the SLE. Note that some of the experiments included only a subset of the total number of test specimens. Some POD tests included only the 12-20 ply specimen set, some tests included only the 20-32 ply specimen set and some tests covered the entire SLE (all specimens). Due to limited time on the part of some of the participants listed in Table 6-1, some evaluations were conducted using only the NDI Feedback Specimens where the flaw profiles are known by the inspectors. All of these categories are clearly delineated in Table 6-1. The specimen sets deployed with each method (experimenter) are also summarized in Table 6-2.

6.1 Summary of Main Inspection Results from Conventional Ultrasonic Inspections

Ref. [1.4] contains the comprehensive set of results from the SLE applied to conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic inspections as deployed by airline inspectors in the field. A summary of those results is provided here to form the basis of comparison with the advanced NDI methods.

Probability of Detection (POD) curves for each inspector, as well as the resulting cumulative POD curve for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment were calculated in Ref. [1.4]. The curves show the variation within the group of inspectors that completed each experiment. In the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment, the best performing inspector produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.53$ " diameter flaw, the worst inspector produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = >3.00$ " diameter, and the overall cumulative result was a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29$ " diameter. For the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment the best performing inspector produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.54$ " diameter, the worst inspector produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = >3.00$ " diameter, and the cumulative result was a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82$ " diameter.

20-32 Ply - Solid Laminate Experiment - Advanced NDI Participants				
Inspection Company	Probe Frequency	Number of Elements	Inspection Method	Inspection Device
Olympus NDT	5 MHz	64	PA-UT	OmniScan MX2
Toshiba	3.5 MHz	32	PA-UT	Matrix Eye
All Nippon	3.5 MHz	32	PA-UT	Matrix Eye
GEIT	5 MHz	64	PA-UT	GE RotaArray, Phasor XS
NDT Solutions	5 MHz	64	Linear Array UT	FlawInspecta (MAUS)
Sandia Labs	5 MHz	64	Linear Array UT	Sonatest Wheel Probe, OmniScan MX1
iPhoton	500 KHz - 20 MHz	NA	Laser Ultrasonics	iPlus III
Imperium	500 KHz - 7.5 MHz	1	Digital Acoustic Video	AcoustoCam
TWI	NA	NA	Flash Thermography	Ecotherm
Mistras	NA	NA	Line Thermography	THELIS-P Scanner
MoviTHERM	NA	NA	Lock-in Thermography	FLIR Camera SR2 SC7650
Dantec	NA	NA	Shearography	Q-800
LTI	NA	NA	Shearography	LTI-5100 HD
Evisive	NA	NA	Microwave	Evisive Scan

12-20 Ply - Solid Laminate Experiment - Advanced NDI Participants				
Inspection Company	Probe Frequency	Number of Elements	Inspection Method	Inspection Device
Olympus NDT	5 MHz	64	PA-UT	OmniScan MX2
Toshiba	3.5 MHz	32	PA-UT	Matrix Eye
NDT Solutions	5 MHz	64	Linear Array UT	FlawInspecta (MAUS)
iPhoton	500 KHz - 20 MHz	NA	Laser Ultrasonics	iPlus III
Imperium	500 KHz - 7.5 MHz	1	Digital Acoustic Video	AcoustoCam
TWI	NA	NA	Flash Thermography	Ecotherm
Mistras	NA	NA	Line Thermography	THELIS-P Scanner
MoviTHERM	NA	NA	Lock-in Thermography	FLIR Camera SR2 SC7650
Dantec	NA	NA	Shearography	Q-800
Evisive	NA	NA	Microwave	Evisive Scan

NDI Feedback Panels Only				
Solid Laminate Experiment - Advanced NDI Participants				
Inspection Company	Probe Frequency	Number of Elements	Inspection Method	Inspection Device
DolphiTech	2 MHz - 6 MHz	16,000	Ultrasonic Video	DolphiCam
RCON NDT	5 MHz	64	Linear Array UT	Sonatest Wheel Probe, RapidScan 2

Table 6-1: List of Advanced Inspection Methods Applied to Solid Composite Laminate POD Experiment and the Type of Specimens Inspected by Each Method

Tabulated results in Ref. [1.4] also present the percentage of flaws detected for each flaw size in the different inspection categories of Constant Thickness Geometry and Complex Geometry and for All Flaws. Constant Thickness Geometry is defined as the inspection regions where the number of plies remain constant. Complex Geometry regions are defined as those areas containing tapered skins (i.e. changing thickness), substructure, curved portions, fasteners and laminate bonded to honeycomb. The Constant Thickness Geometry comprised 53% of the total 46.1 sq. ft. of inspection area and the Complex Geometry comprised 47% of the total 46.1 sq. ft. in the total Solid

Laminate Experiment. The tables also show the inspector's ability to properly size each flaw they detected. For example, of all the flaws they found in the Constant Thickness category, 21% were correctly sized (100% coverage). Additional tables show the False Calls for each inspector completing the Thin and Thick Laminate experiments as well as an average false call rate broken down into the different geometry categories and sizes.

Participant	12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate) POD Experiment	20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate) POD Experiment	Overall Solid Laminate Experiment (Both 12-20 & 20-32)	NDI Feedback Specimen Only
All Nippon		X		
Dantec	X	X	X	
DolphiTech				X
Evisive	X	X	X	
GEIT		X		
Imperium	X	X	X	
iPhoton	X	X	X	
LTI		X		
Mistras	X	X	X	
MoviTHERM	X	X	X	
NDT Solutions	X	X	X	
Olympus NDT	X	X	X	
RCON NDT				X
Sandia Labs		X		
Toshiba	X	X	X	
TWI	X	X	X	

Table 6-2: Summary of Test Specimen Coverage by Participant in SLE

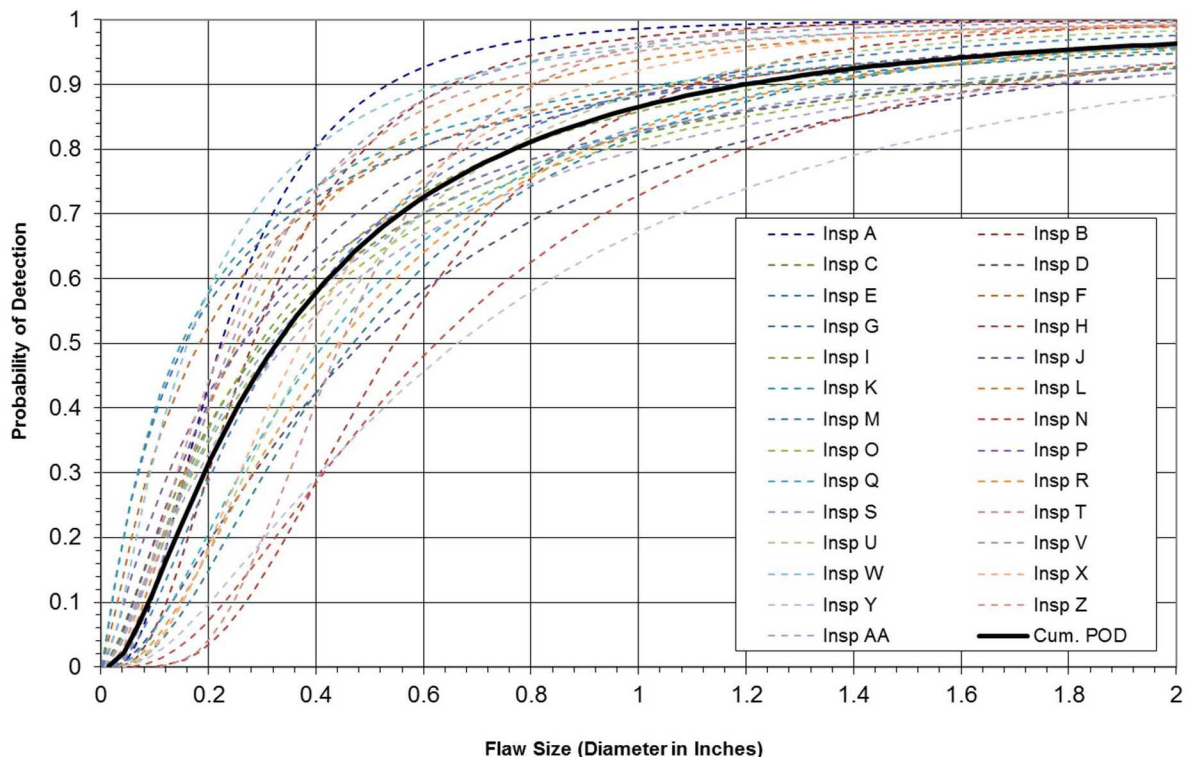
Overall, the POD results were consistent with a few outliers which is fairly common for human performance assessment experiments. In order to represent the range of construction found on aircraft, the substructure on the thick laminate was co-cured and the substructure on the thin laminate was secondarily bonded. The secondarily bonded structure can be more difficult to inspect. The thickness of the substructure can also be a major factor in flaw detection. A large number of variables were studied and isolated to determine their impact on POD values. Overall, the false call rates were low.

6.1.1 Summary Inspection Results for the 12-20 Ply Thin Laminate Experiment

Figure 6-1 shows the spread of all the individual inspector $POD_{[90]}$ curves (dashed lines) compared to the cumulative $POD_{[90]}$ curve (solid line) for all 27 inspectors. These results were produced by considering all flaws in constant thickness and complex geometry regions. The spread shows 15 inspectors with a $POD_{[90]}$ value less than the cumulative $POD_{[90]} = 1.20''$ diameter flaw ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$) and 12 inspectors with a $POD_{[90]}$ value higher than the cumulative $POD_{[90]}$ value. The variation within the experiment ranges from a $POD_{[90]} = 0.53''$ diameter flaw for the best performing inspector to a $POD_{[90]} = 2.17''$ diameter flaw for the worst performing inspector. The standard deviation for the inspector $POD_{[90]}$ data set is $0.417''$ diameter flaw. Figure 6-2 compares the maximum likelihood estimate ($POD_{[90]}$) to the POD curve that is calculated when a 90% flaw detection is combined with a 95% confidence bound ($POD_{[90/95]}$). This solid line in Figure 6-2

provides the performance curve that the industry normally uses to measure the performance of NDI methods as deployed by representative inspectors. For these experiments, POD values were calculated using a pass/fail analysis with a log normal model. It can be seen in Figure 6-2 that the overall cumulative $POD_{[90/95]}$ for all flaws in the Thin Laminate Experiment (i.e. 12-20 ply skins plus substructure elements) was $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$ diameter flaw.

The use of performance brackets to assess POD is shown in Figure 6-3. Performance brackets were used to place inspectors into groups and then calculate the resulting $POD_{[90/95]}$ for each performance bracket. These performance brackets utilized the inspectors that fell into the 30, 70 and 90 percentile categories. The inspectors that fell into the 30 percentile group (8 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 1.0") produced a 39% improvement to $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.79''$ diameter flaw value compared to the overall cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$ diameter flaw. The 50 percentile group (19 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 1.35") produced an 18% improvement with a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.06''$ diameter flaw. The 90 percentile group (24 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 1.7") shows only an 8% improvement with a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.19''$ diameter flaw. These performance brackets might be useful to airlines and MRO's who can judge where their inspectors fall within the brackets and the resulting performance they will obtain from their inspectors. The results in Figure 6-3 also reveal the degree of inspection improvements that are possible if inspectors can shift their performance from the higher (worse) performance brackets to the lower (better) performance brackets. This shift in performance can be brought about by improved or more extensive composite inspection training or through a number of other measures that are described in detail in Ref. [1.4].



**Figure 6-1: Individual & Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions
All Inspectors (27) - Pulse Echo UT Method**

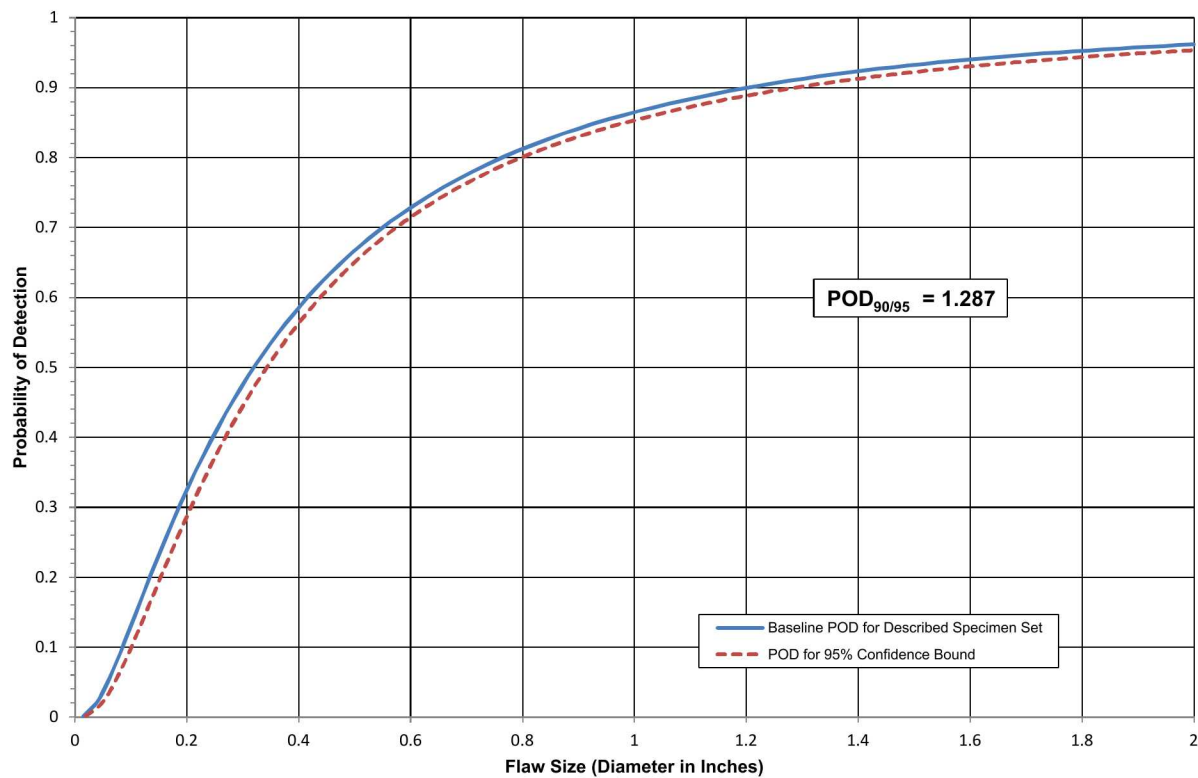


Figure 6-2: Cumulative POD Curve for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions; All Inspectors (27) - Pulse Echo UT Method

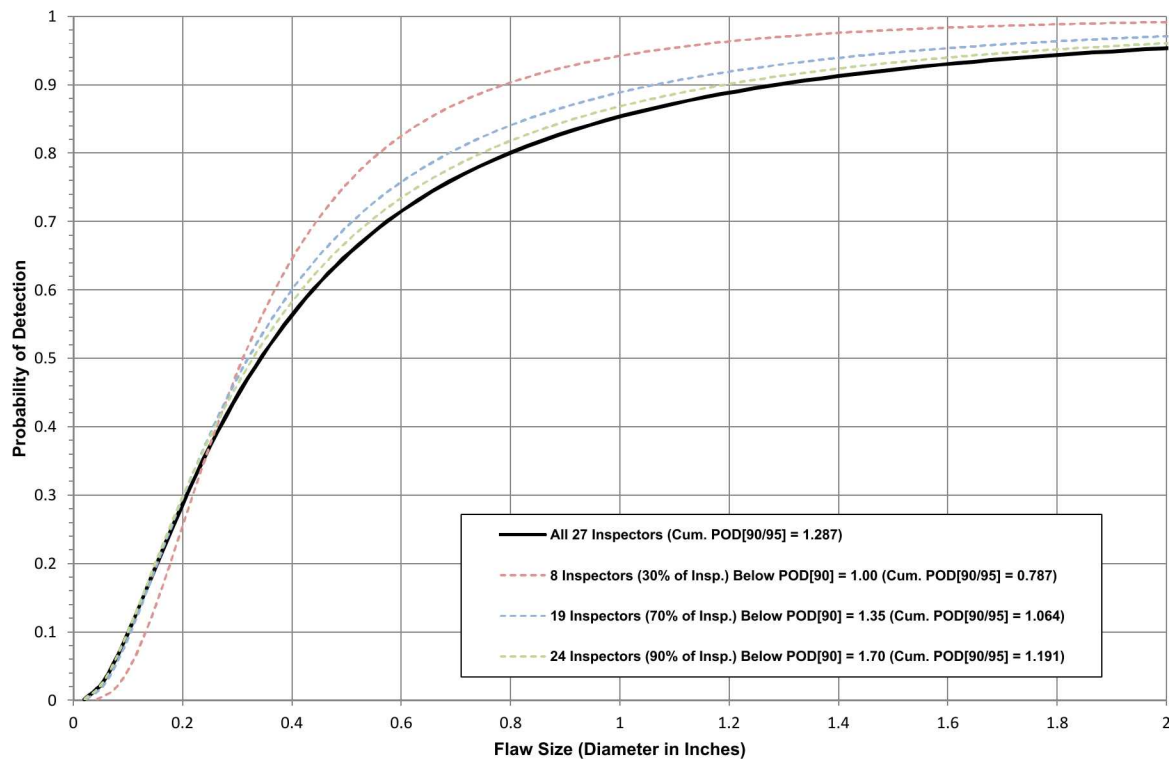


Figure 6-3: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison of the Performance Brackets for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – Pulse Echo UT Method

The overall POD values were analyzed further to study the flaw detection performance within specific composite construction regions in the test specimen set. Figure 6-4 shows the POD curve representing inspectors' performance in the constant thickness regions only. The constant thickness regions are defined as regions that have no taper and no substructure so they maintain a constant laminate thickness. The $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.80$ for constant thickness geometry regions indicates a better performance compared to the overall cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29$ when the complex geometry regions are also included in the calculation. This result clearly shows the inspection challenge associated with the complex geometry regions. A complimentary set of results were determined using the inspection results from only the complex geometry construction scenarios. Figure 6-5 shows the POD curve representing inspectors' performance in the complex geometry regions only. The complex geometry regions are defined as regions containing a taper, substructure (secondarily bonded), curved portion, fasteners or laminate over honeycomb. The $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.493$ for the complex geometry regions is a poorer performance than the cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29$ when the constant thickness regions are also included in the calculation. This shows that the complex geometry regions are a major factor in driving up the overall cumulative 12-20 ply POD value. Only 25% of the flaws in the fastener regions were detected and only 51% of the flaws were detected in the substructure regions. Consider the fact that 43% of all the flaws in the complex geometry data set are in the substructure and fastener regions and it can be seen how poor performance in these two construction areas will greatly affect the overall flaw detection performance in the complex geometry set. The substructure and fastener regions pinpoint the largest contributing factor in the complex geometry POD value, as well as the overall cumulative POD value. Improved flaw detection in these areas, through the use of better inspection techniques and possibly specialized training, could significantly reduce the overall cumulative POD value.

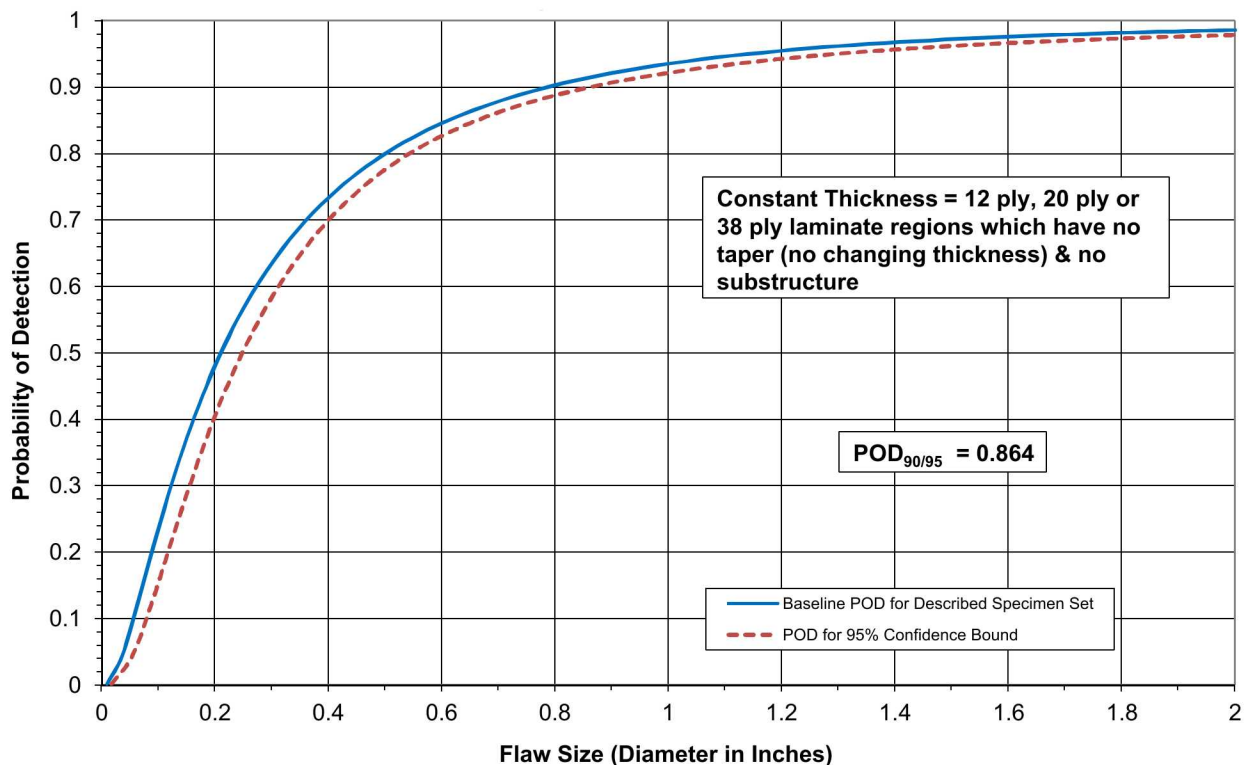


Figure 6-4: Cumulative POD Curve for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for Flaws in the Constant Thickness Region Only – All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT Method

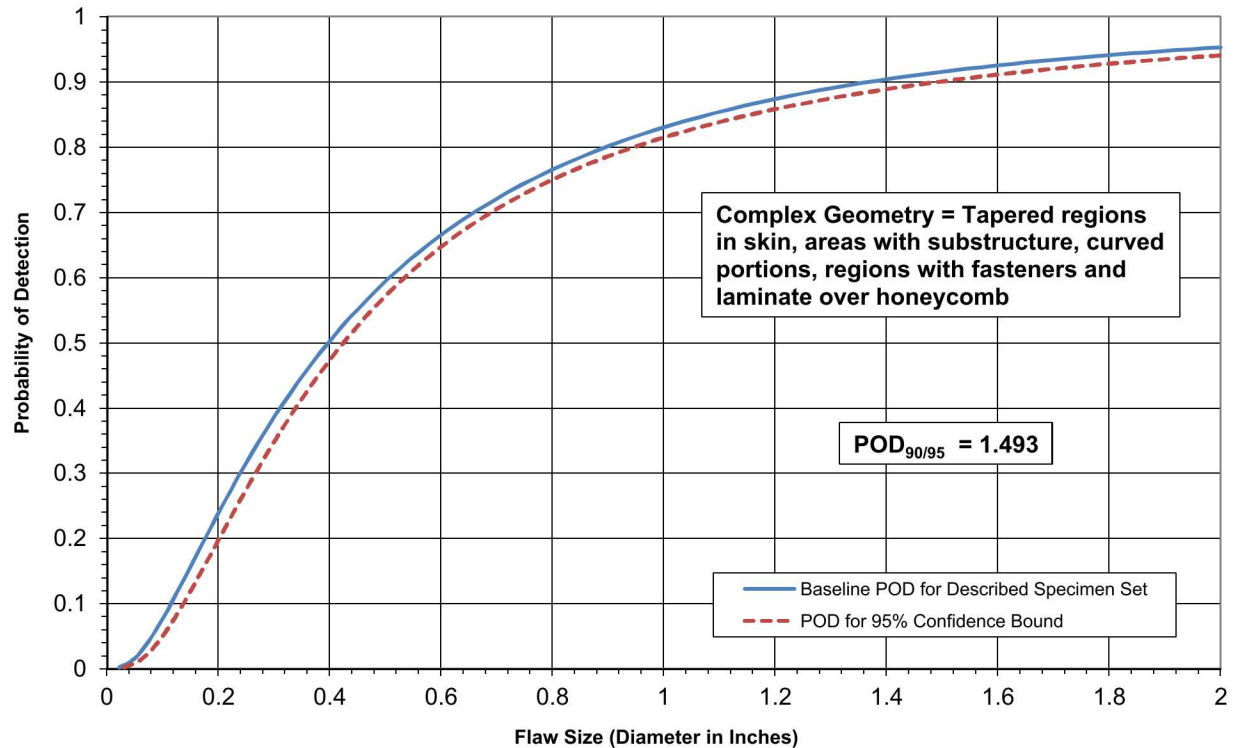


Figure 6-5: Cumulative POD Curve for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for Flaws in the Complex Geometry Regions Only - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT Method

The experiment monitors recorded the various methods that inspectors used to ensure inspection area coverage. Monitor notes determined if 100% surface coverage was achieved. Some inspectors covered the inspection area with their UT transducers using a pure freehand approach (i.e. no guides or markings on the panels). Some inspectors divided the inspection surface into quadrants to reduce freehand coverage errors. Some inspectors used a series of tic marks, often placed at 0.5" or 1" intervals, to divide the inspection surface into a number of rows and columns. Some inspectors used flexible straight edges to guide their transducer movement. The different surface coverage techniques that were observed fall into four categories. The POD results produced by each of these inspection coverage methods were calculated separately and are shown in Figure 6-6 along with the corresponding $POD_{[90/95]}$ values. The method that produced the lowest (best) POD level was where inspectors made tick marks for spacing and used a straight edge on all panels throughout the experiment (7 inspectors). This produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.055''$ which is an 18% improvement compared to the overall cumulative 12-20 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value of 1.29''. The poorest performing coverage method was where inspectors used the freehand method on all panels throughout the experiment (5 inspectors). This produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 2.390''$ which is an 86% decrease in performance compared to the overall cumulative 12-20 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value.

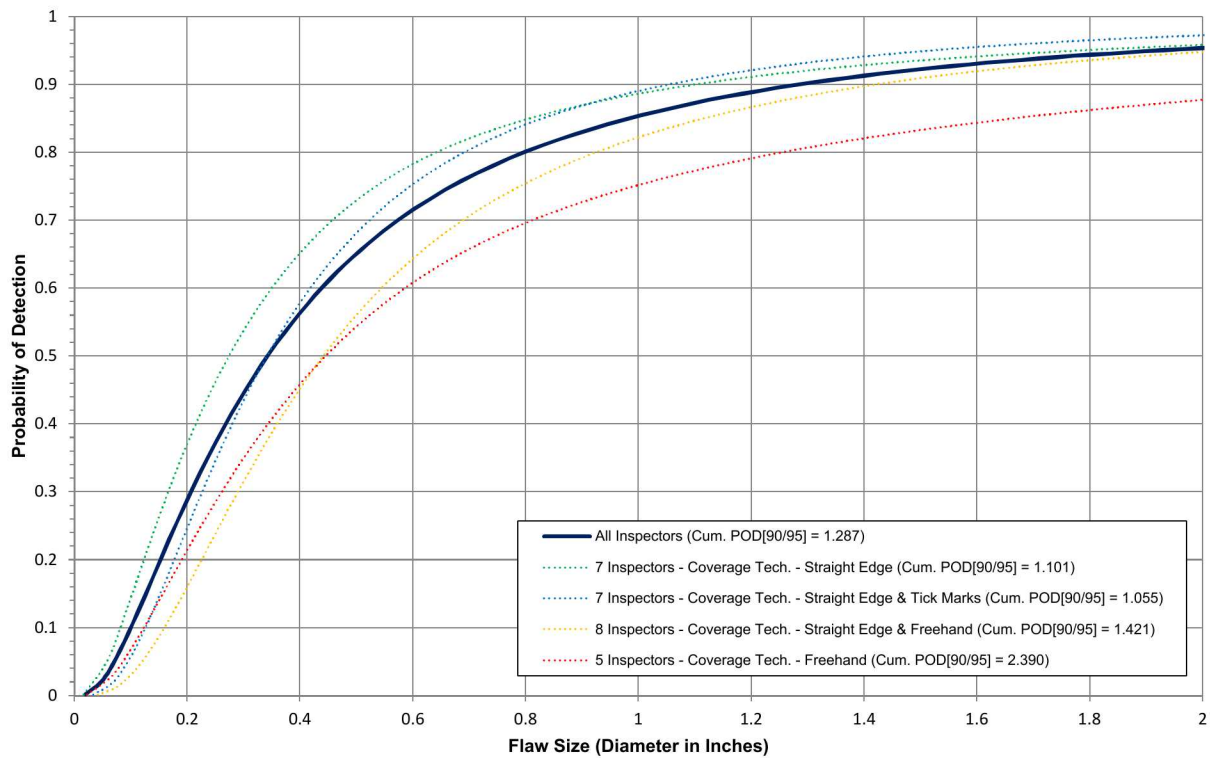


Figure 6-6: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison of Different Surface Coverage Techniques for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – All Inspectors (27) - Pulse Echo UT Method

Table 6-3 summarizes the number of false calls made by each inspector. This table shows the number of false calls made by each inspector for the 12-20 ply specimen set and lists the sizing category that incorporates each false call. The average number of false calls made was determined to be 4.4 false calls per inspector (34 ft.² inspection area) with an average of one false call per 7.73 ft² of inspection area. Notice that the majority of false calls were made in the complex geometry regions. Table 6-4 shows the false call data when false calls of less than 0.25 in² (i.e. very small items) were removed from the calculations. This table shows the resulting average number of false calls are reduced to 2.4 false calls per inspector (34 ft.² inspection area) with an average of one false call per 14.17 ft.² of inspection area. Thus, the overall false call rate was determined to be very low.

Another critical part of the inspection process is how long it takes an inspector to scan a defined area. Table 6-5 shows the time it took for each inspector to scan each panel and their total inspection time. The average total inspection time for the 12-20 ply specimen set was just under 15 hours which produced an average inspection coverage rate of 2.27 ft²/hr. The lowest (quickest) total inspection time was under 10 hours with an average inspection coverage rate of 3.48 ft²/hr. The highest (slowest) total inspection time was just under 22 hours with an average inspection coverage rate of 1.55 ft²/hr.

Inspection False Calls for 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT																														
Configuration/Sizing (in. ²)	Insp. A	Insp. B	Insp. C	Insp. D	Insp. E	Insp. F	Insp. G	Insp. H	Insp. I	Insp. J	Insp. K	Insp. L	Insp. M	Insp. N	Insp. O	Insp. P	Insp. Q	Insp. R	Insp. S	Insp. T	Insp. U	Insp. V	Insp. W	Insp. X	Insp. Y	Insp. Z	Insp. AA	Total	Avg.	
Constant Thickness (CT)																														
0 - .25in. ²	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	8	0.3	
.26in. ² - .75in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0	
.76in. ² - 1.25in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.0	
1.26in. ² - 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	
> 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0	
CT Total	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	11	0.4	
Complex Geometry (CG)																														
0 - .25in. ²	3	9	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	6	0	0	1	2	3	7	2	1	0	0	0	1	4	4	0	0	48	1.8	
.26in. ² - .75in. ²	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	5	1	0	2	3	5	3	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	31	1.1	
.76in. ² - 1.25in. ²	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	15	0.6		
1.26in. ² - 2.00in. ²	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0.2		
> 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0.3		
CG Total	7	12	0	2	1	3	6	0	2	6	6	0	0	13	9	3	9	6	7	3	0	0	3	5	6	0	0	109	4.0	
Total (All Flaws)	8	13	0	2	1	3	6	0	2	7	6	0	0	13	10	3	13	6	8	3	0	0	4	6	6	0	0	33	4.4	
1 False Call on Average Per 7.73 ft ² of Inspection Area																														

**Table 6-3: Inspection False Call Table for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set
All Inspectors – Pulse Echo Method**

Inspection False Calls for 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT (False Calls that are below 0.25 in ² in size have been removed)																													
Configuration/Sizing (in. ²)	Insp. A	Insp. B	Insp. C	Insp. D	Insp. E	Insp. F	Insp. G	Insp. H	Insp. I	Insp. J	Insp. K	Insp. L	Insp. M	Insp. N	Insp. O	Insp. P	Insp. Q	Insp. R	Insp. S	Insp. T	Insp. U	Insp. V	Insp. W	Insp. X	Insp. Y	Insp. Z	Insp. AA	Total	Avg.
Constant Thickness (CT)																													
.26in. ² - .75in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0
.76in. ² - 1.25in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0.0
1.26in. ² - 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
> 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0
CT Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0.1
Complex Geometry (CG)																													
.26in. ² - .75in. ²	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	5	1	0	2	3	5	3	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	31	1.1
.76in. ² - 1.25in. ²	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	15	0.6	
1.26in. ² - 2.00in. ²	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0.2	
> 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0.3	
CG Total	4	3	0	2	0	2	6	0	1	4	0	0	12	7	0	2	4	6	3	0	0	2	1	2	0	0	61	2.3	
Total (All Flaws)	4	3	0	2	0	2	6	0	1	5	0	0	12	8	0	2	4	6	3	0	0	2	2	2	0	0	17	2.4	
1 False Call on Average Per 14.17 ft ² of Inspection Area																													

**Table 6-4: Inspection False Call Table with False Calls that are Below 0.25 in² in Size
Removed for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors – Pulse Echo Method**

Experiment Timing Summary 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT												
	Specimen CT1-A	Specimen CT1-B	Specimen CT2-A	Specimen CT2-B	Specimen ST1U-A	Specimen ST1L-A	Specimen ST2U-A	Specimen ST2L-A	Specimen BN 1	Specimen BN 2	Specimen BN 3	Total Insp. Time (hr:min)
Inspector A	1:15	0:44	0:35	1:03	1:09	1:53	1:03	1:39	4:13	2:23	3:14	19:11
Inspector B	0:37	0:29	0:44	0:54	2:49	1:14	1:29	0:56	2:59	3:26	3:14	18:51
Inspector C	0:38	0:43	0:54	0:54	1:07	1:02	1:09	0:53	1:58	2:29	2:37	14:24
Inspector D	1:21	0:44	0:26	1:09	1:37	1:58	1:57	1:56	2:37	2:19	1:53	17:57
Inspector E	1:04	1:10	0:57	1:11	1:03	0:23	2:16	1:06	3:02	0:59	1:11	14:22
Inspector F	0:50	1:20	1:15	1:05	3:05	1:40	2:20	1:50	2:40	1:35	1:50	19:30
Inspector G	1:20	0:51	0:54	1:20	1:41	1:25	1:09	1:12	3:35	1:51	2:14	17:32
Inspector H	0:41	0:30	0:36	0:25	1:54	0:59	0:55	1:17	1:27	2:06	1:21	12:11
Inspector I	0:50	0:34	0:35	0:45	0:54	1:06	1:34	1:11	2:45	1:12	2:06	13:32
Inspector J	1:01	0:52	0:58	0:50	2:05	1:39	1:41	1:51	2:52	2:07	2:08	18:04
Inspector K	1:11	1:12	0:42	1:02	2:36	2:05	2:10	3:04	3:13	2:22	2:22	21:59
Inspector L	1:18	0:41	0:41	0:55	2:33	1:28	1:21	1:29	1:28	1:52	1:36	15:22
Inspector M	0:36	0:24	0:26	0:31	1:08	1:12	1:35	1:38	2:05	1:53	1:39	13:07
Inspector N	1:13	1:00	0:45	0:34	1:47	1:21	1:45	1:17	1:44	1:41	2:34	15:41
Inspector O	0:40	1:05	0:35	0:38	0:57	1:34	1:02	2:15	1:32	1:54	1:30	13:42
Inspector P	0:31	0:22	0:36	0:36	1:45	0:46	0:59	1:04	1:50	1:45	2:16	12:30
Inspector Q	0:58	0:40	1:07	0:43	1:08	1:14	0:50	1:16	1:32	2:13	1:50	13:31
Inspector R	1:30	1:28	1:14	0:51	1:40	1:22	1:31	1:24	1:09	1:34	2:05	15:48
Inspector S	0:31	0:23	0:16	0:22	0:42	0:38	0:42	1:14	1:18	1:33	2:07	9:46
Inspector T	0:47	0:31	0:33	0:21	1:15	0:59	1:13	0:54	1:43	1:21	0:54	10:31
Inspector U	0:52	0:34	0:34	0:35	1:13	0:55	1:35	1:23	1:22	1:38	1:20	12:01
Inspector V	0:29	0:26	0:31	0:28	1:05	1:01	1:07	1:04	2:47	1:33	1:49	12:20
Inspector W	0:44	0:46	0:39	0:36	0:43	1:00	0:52	0:47	3:08	2:31	3:56	15:42
Inspector X	0:38	0:30	0:31	0:35	1:46	1:42	2:10	1:48	2:30	1:37	2:00	15:47
Inspector Y	0:34	0:26	0:21	0:44	1:00	1:19	1:13	1:29	1:09	1:24	2:21	12:00
Inspector Z	1:22	0:25	0:48	0:34	1:19	1:17	3:34	1:35	1:31	1:13	1:31	15:09
Inspector AA	0:49	0:52	0:54	0:52	1:19	1:01	0:53	1:19	2:09	1:22	1:43	13:13
Ave. Insp. Time (hr:min)	0:54	0:43	0:42	0:45	1:31	1:16	1:29	1:26	2:14	1:50	2:03	14:57
Average Inspection Coverage Rate = 2.27 ft ² /hr												

**Table 6-5: Experiment Timing Summary Table for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set
All Inspectors – Pulse Echo UT Method**

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of each inspector's flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Table 6-6 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 12-20 ply specimen set (Thin Laminate Experiment). This table includes combined data for all inspectors and all flaws in both the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 76% of all flaws were detected or 2,766 of the total 3,645 flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 38% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage). Twenty-four percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category and 16% of the flaws were sized in the 51-75% coverage category. Thus, 78% of the detected flaws were sized with 51-100% accuracy. This table also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, meaning all 27 inspectors found every 2" flaw in the 12-20 ply specimen set. On the smaller side, only 47% of the 0.25" flaws were detected.

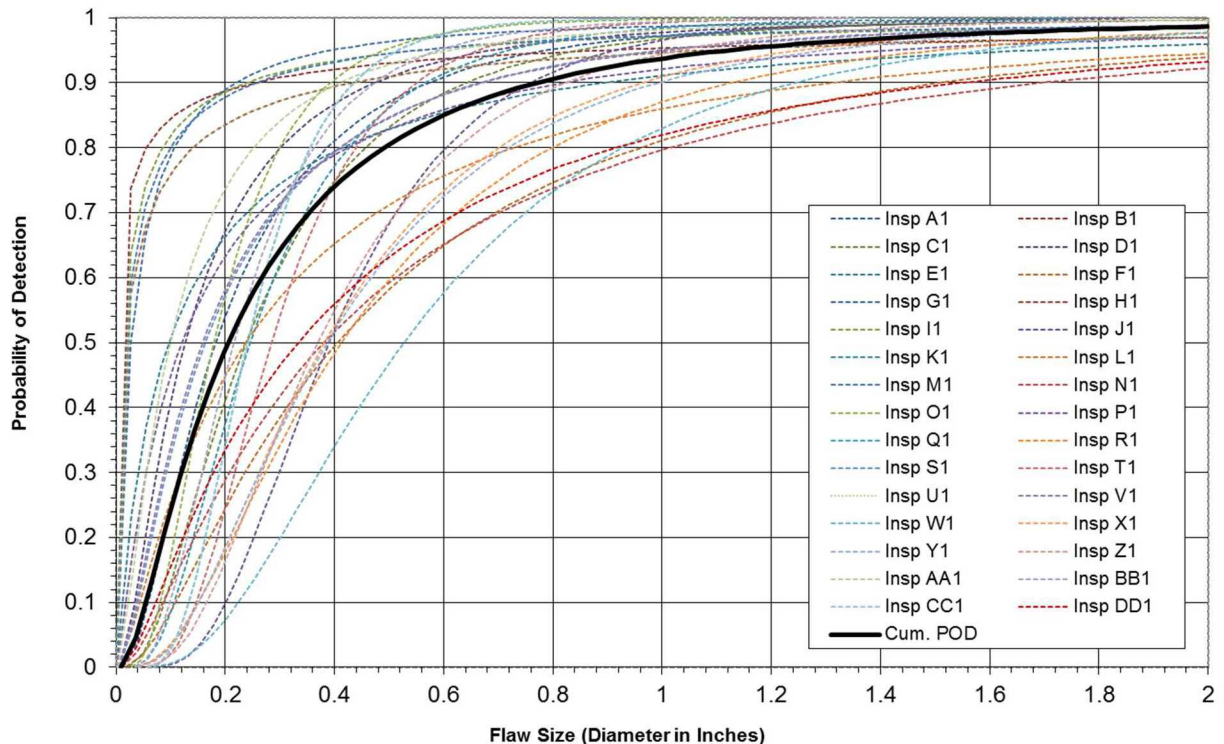
Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected (2766 Total Flaws Detected)						Flaw Detection Percentage (3645 Total Flaws)	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	57%	9%	7%	10%	16%	0.25	47%
0.50	40%	16%	12%	18%	15%	0.50	63%
0.75	42%	23%	16%	14%	5%	0.75	78%
1.00	35%	26%	19%	13%	6%	1.00	87%
1.50	29%	33%	23%	10%	6%	1.50	95%
2.00	40%	46%	11%	1%	2%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	38%	24%	16%	13%	8%	Overall Flaw Detection	76%

Table 6-6: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – All Inspectors – Pulse Echo UT Method

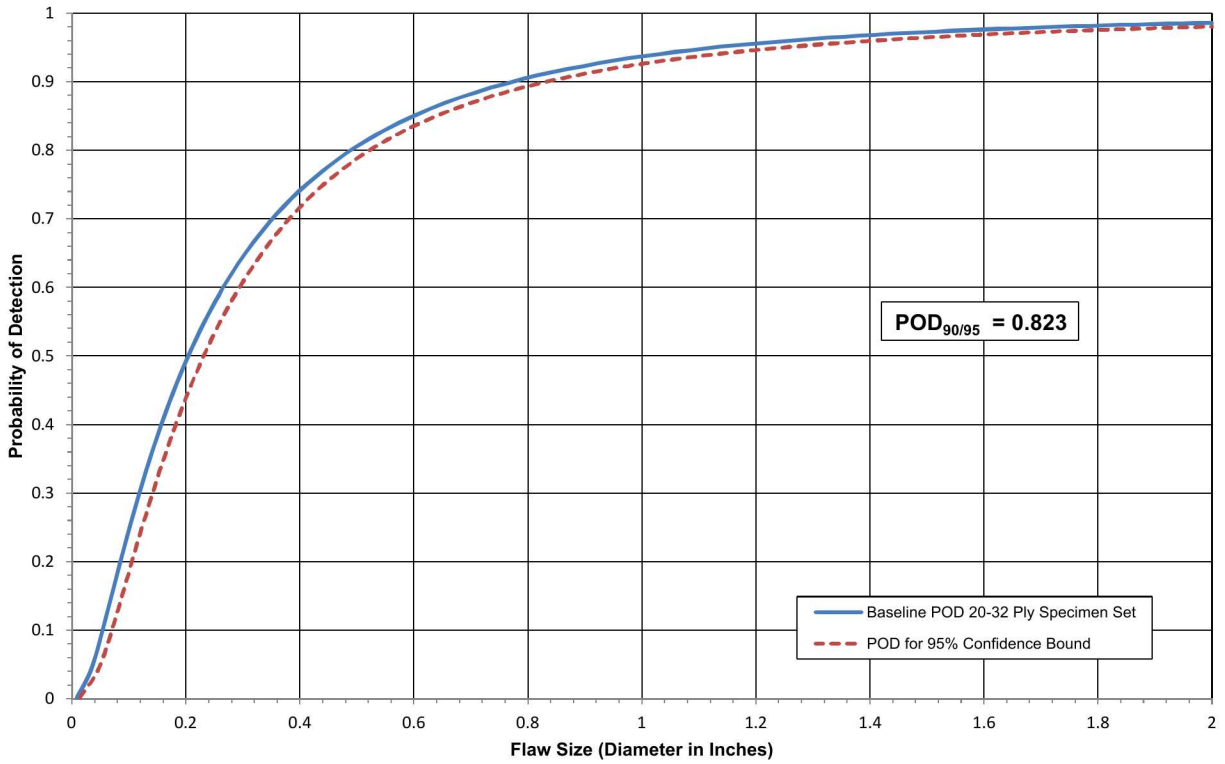
6.1.2 Summary of Inspection Results for the 20-32 Ply Thick Laminate Experiment

Figure 6-7 shows the spread of all the individual inspector $POD_{[90]}$ curves (dashed lines) compared to the cumulative $POD_{[90]}$ curve (solid line) for all 30 inspectors who participated in the 20-32 Ply Thick Laminate Experiment. These results were produced by considering all flaws in constant thickness and complex geometry regions. The spread shows 19 inspectors with a $POD_{[90]}$ value less than the overall cumulative $POD_{[90]} = 0.77''$ diameter flaw ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82''$) and 11 inspectors with a $POD_{[90]}$ value higher than the overall cumulative $POD_{[90]}$ value. The variation within the experiment ranges from a $POD_{[90]} = 0.20''$ diameter flaw for the best performing inspector to a $POD_{[90]} = 1.70''$ diameter flaw for the worst performing inspector. The standard deviation for the inspector $POD_{[90]}$ data set is $0.420''$ diameter flaw. Figure 6-8 compares the maximum likelihood estimate ($POD_{[90]}$) to the POD curve that is calculated when a 90% flaw detection is combined with a 95% confidence bound ($POD_{[90/95]}$). This solid line in Figure 6-8 provides the performance curve that the industry normally uses to measure the performance of NDI methods as deployed by representative inspectors. It can be seen in Figure 6-8 that the overall cumulative $POD_{[90/95]}$ for all flaws in the Thick Laminate Experiment (i.e. 20-32 ply skins plus substructure elements) was $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82''$ diameter flaw. When compared to the 12-20 Ply Thin Laminate Experiment, the $POD_{[90/95]}$ value for the 20-32 Ply Thick Laminate Experiment was better (lower). This is mainly due to the construction method used for this set of test panels which involved a co-cured substructure bond line which is less attenuative, and includes less “noise” in the signals, than the secondarily bonded substructure (film adhesive bonding) that was used in most of the Thin Laminate Experiment test specimens. Also, the test specimens for the Thick Laminate Experiment did not contain curvature, fasteners, sealed joints or skin over honeycomb substructure. This eliminated some of the deployment, human factors and signal interpretation challenges that were present in the Thin Laminate Experiment. Finally, it should be noted that the 20-32 ply specimen set includes 12 ft.² of inspection area whereas the 12-20 ply specimen set includes 34 ft.² of inspection area. Thus, inspector fatigue is less of an issue in the Thick Laminate Experiment.

The use of other performance brackets to assess POD is shown in Figure 6-9. Performance brackets were used to place inspectors into groups and then calculate the resulting $POD_{[90/95]}$ for each performance bracket. These performance brackets utilized the inspectors that fell into the 40, 60 and 80 percentile categories. The inspectors that fell into the 40 percentile group (12 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 0.55”) produced a 42% improvement to $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.48$ ” diameter flaw value compared to the overall cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82$ ” diameter flaw. The 60 percentile group (18 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 0.75”) produced a 34% improvement with a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.54$ ” diameter flaw. The 80 percentile group (24 inspectors, each having a $POD_{[90]}$ less than 1.00”) shows a 20% improvement with a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.66$ ” diameter flaw. These performance brackets might be useful to airlines and MRO’s who can judge where their inspectors fall within the brackets and the resulting performance they will obtain from their inspectors. The results in Figure 6-9 also reveal the degree of inspection improvements that are possible if inspectors can shift their performance from the higher (worse) performance brackets to the lower (better) performance brackets. This shift in performance can be brought about by improved or more extensive composite inspection training or through a number of other measures that are described in detail in Ref. [1.4].



**Figure 6-7: Individual & Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions
All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT Method**



**Figure 6-8: Cumulative POD Curve for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions
All Inspectors (30) - Pulse Echo UT Method**

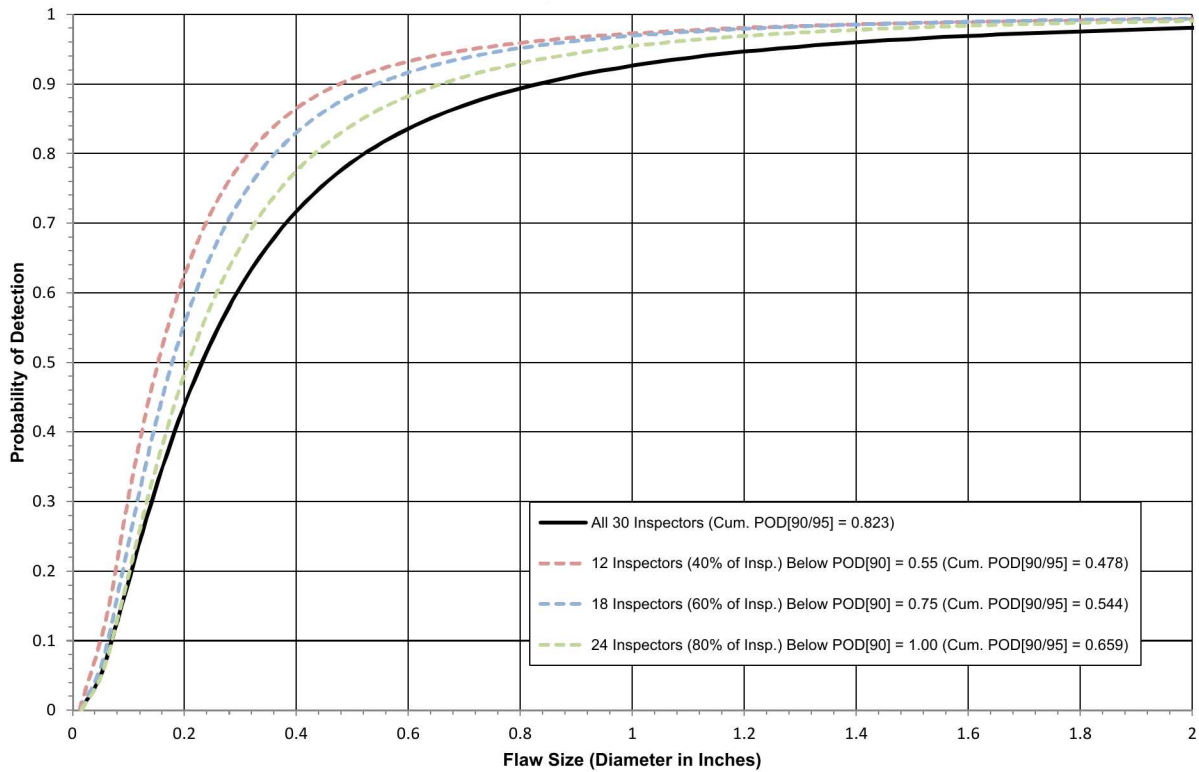


Figure 6-9: Cumulative POD Curve Performance Brackets for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions - Pulse Echo UT Method

The overall POD values were analyzed further to study the flaw detection performance within specific composite construction regions in the test specimen set. Figure 6-10 shows the POD curve representing inspectors' performance in the constant thickness regions, representing only 32 ply constant thickness. The constant thickness regions for this specimen set are defined as regions that have no taper and no substructure such that they maintain a constant laminate thickness. The $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.74$ for constant thickness geometry regions indicates a better performance compared to the overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82$ when the complex geometry regions are also included in the calculation. A complimentary set of results was determined using the inspection results from only the complex geometry construction scenarios. Figure 6-11 shows the POD curve representing inspectors' performance in the complex geometry regions only. The complex geometry regions for this specimen set are defined as regions containing a taper or substructure (no curved portions, fasteners or laminate over honeycomb are included in this specimen set). The $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.93$ for the complex geometry regions is a slightly poorer performance than the overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82$ when the constant thickness regions are also included in the calculation. This shows that the complex geometry regions are a factor in driving up the overall cumulative 20-32 ply POD value.

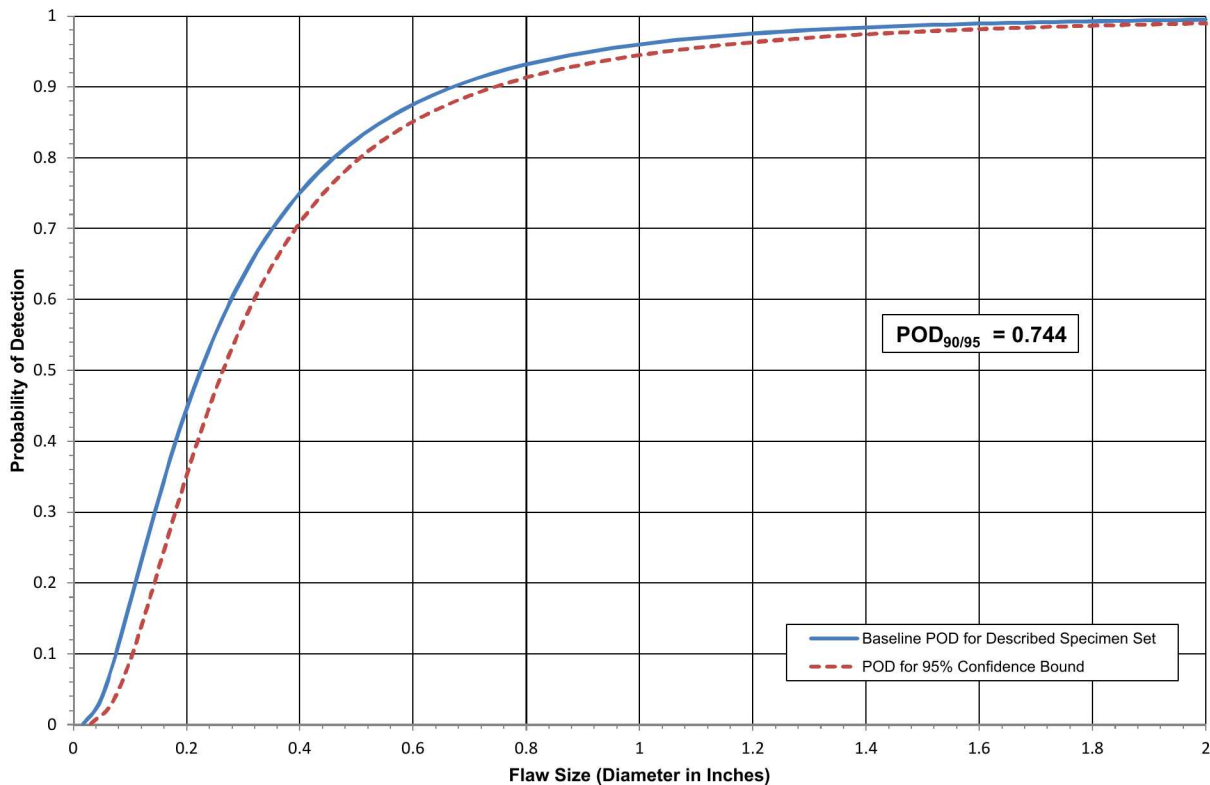


Figure 6-10: Cumulative POD Curve for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for Flaws in the Constant Thickness Regions Only (32 Ply) – All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT Method

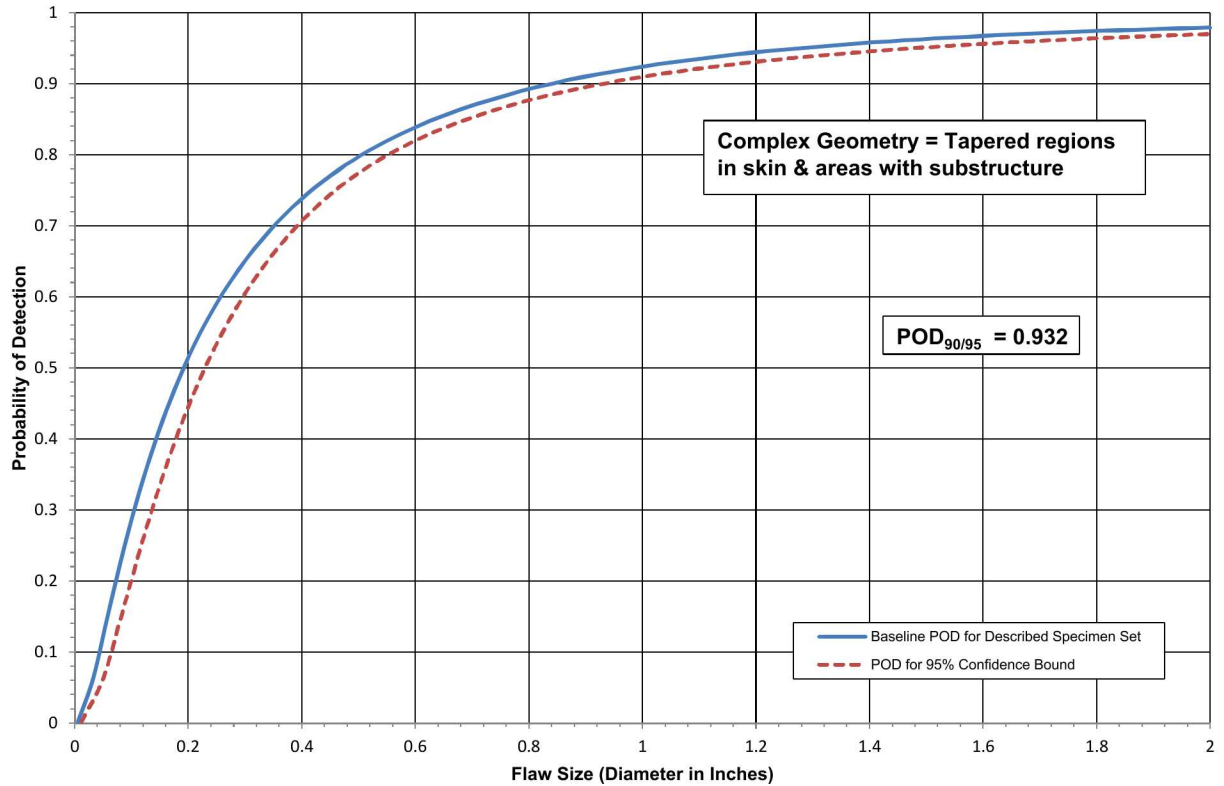


Figure 6-11: Cumulative POD Curve for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for Flaws in the Complex Geometry Regions Only – All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT Method

The experiment monitors also recorded the various methods that inspectors used to ensure inspection area coverage for the 20-32 Ply Thick Laminate Experiment. Some inspectors covered the inspection area with their UT transducers using a pure freehand approach (i.e. no guides or markings on the panels). Some inspectors divided the inspection surface into quadrants to reduce freehand coverage errors. Some inspectors used a series of tic marks, often placed at 0.5" or 1" intervals, to divide the inspection surface into a number of rows and columns. Some inspectors used flexible straight edges to guide their transducer movement. The different surface coverage techniques that were observed fall into four categories. The POD results produced by each of these inspection coverage methods were calculated separately and are shown in Figure 6-12 along with the corresponding $POD_{[90/95]}$ values. The method that produced the lowest (best) POD level was where inspectors used a straight edge on all panels throughout the experiment (11 inspectors), achieving a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.62$ " diameter flaw. This produced a 26% improvement compared to the overall cumulative 20-32 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value of 0.83". The poorest performing coverage method was where inspectors used the freehand method on all panels throughout the experiment (8 inspectors). This produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.35$ " which is a 62% decrease in performance compared to the overall cumulative 20-32 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value.

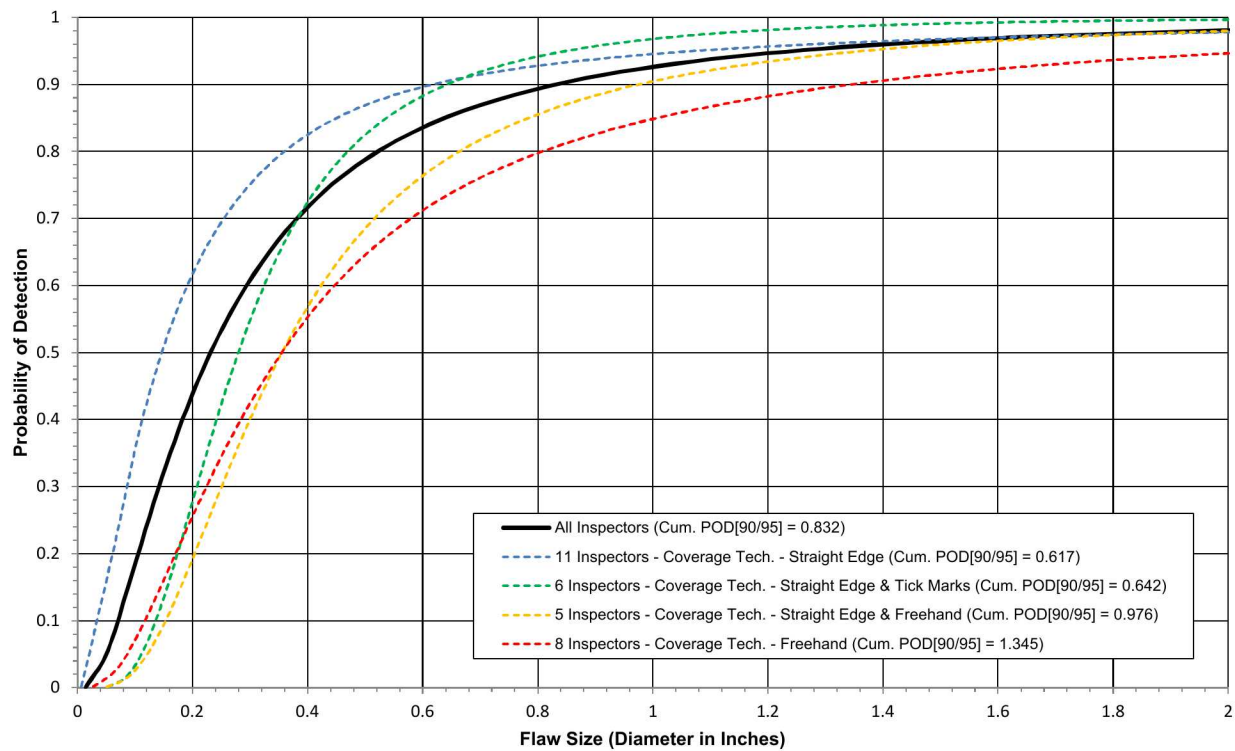


Figure 6-12: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison of Different Surface Coverage Techniques for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – All Inspectors (30) - Pulse Echo UT Method

Table 6-7 summarizes the number of false calls made by each inspector. This table shows the number of false calls made by each inspector for the 20-32 ply specimen set and lists the sizing category that incorporates each false call. The average number of false calls made was determined to be 1.1 false calls per inspector (12 ft.² inspection area) with an average of one false call per 10.91 ft² of inspection area. Notice that the majority of false calls were made in the complex geometry regions. Table 6-8 shows the false call data when false calls of less than 0.25 in² (i.e. very small items) were removed from the calculations. This table shows the resulting average number of false calls are reduced to 0.3 false calls per inspector (12 ft.² inspection area) with an average of one false call per 40 ft.² of inspection area. Thus, the overall false call rate was determined to be very low.

Inspection False Calls for 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT																																	
Configuration/Sizing (in.²)	Insp. A1	Insp. B1	Insp. C1	Insp. D1	Insp. E1	Insp. F1	Insp. G1	Insp. H1	Insp. I1	Insp. J1	Insp. K1	Insp. L1	Insp. M1	Insp. N1	Insp. O1	Insp. P1	Insp. Q1	Insp. R1	Insp. S1	Insp. T1	Insp. U1	Insp. V1	Insp. W1	Insp. X1	Insp. Y1	Insp. Z1	Insp. AA1	Insp. BB1	Insp. CC1	Insp. DD1	Total	Avg.	
Constant Thickness (CT)																																	
0 - .25"	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	1	19	0.6	
.26" - .75"	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	0.1	
.76" - 1.25"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.1	
1.26" - 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	
> 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	
CT Total	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	3	0	1	0	1	9	0	0	1	0	0	1	25	0.8	
Complex Geometry (CG)																																	
0 - .25"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	0.2	
.26" - .75"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.1	
.76" - 1.25"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	
1.26" - 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	
> 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0	
CG Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	8	0.3	
Total (All Flaws)	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	6	0	1	0	1	12	2	0	1	0	0	1	33	1.1	
1 False Call on Average Per 10.91 ft² of Inspection Area																																	

1 False Call on Average Per 10.91 ft² of Inspection Area

**Table 6-7: Inspection False Call Table for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set
All Inspectors – Pulse Echo Method**

Inspection False Calls for 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT																																
(False Calls that are below 0.25 in ² in size have been removed)																																
Configuration/Sizing (in.²)	Insp. A1	Insp. B1	Insp. C1	Insp. D1	Insp. E1	Insp. F1	Insp. G1	Insp. H1	Insp. I1	Insp. J1	Insp. K1	Insp. L1	Insp. M1	Insp. N1	Insp. O1	Insp. P1	Insp. Q1	Insp. R1	Insp. S1	Insp. T1	Insp. U1	Insp. V1	Insp. W1	Insp. X1	Insp. Y1	Insp. Z1	Insp. AA1	Insp. BB1	Insp. CC1	Insp. DD1	Total	Avg.
Constant Thickness (CT)																																
.26" - .75"	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	0.1
.76" - 1.25"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.1
1.26" - 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
> 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
CT Total	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	0.2
Complex Geometry (CG)																																
.26" - .75"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.1
.76" - 1.25"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
1.26" - 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
> 2.00"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.0
CG Total	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0.1
Total (All Flaws)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	9	0.3
1 False Call on Average Per 40 ft² of Inspection Area																																

Table 6-8: Inspection False Call Table with False Calls that are Below 0.25 in² in Size Removed for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors – Pulse Echo Method

Another critical part of the inspection process is how long it takes an inspector to scan a defined area. Table 6-9 shows the time it took for each inspector to scan each panel and their total inspection time. The average total inspection time for the 20-32 ply specimen set was just over 6.25 hours which produced an average inspection coverage rate of 1.91 ft²/hr. The lowest (quickest) total inspection time was just over 2 hours with an average inspection coverage rate of 5.76 ft²/hr. The highest (slowest) total inspection time was just over 9.75 hours with an average inspection coverage rate of 1.22 ft²/hr.

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of each inspector's flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Table 6-10 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). This table includes combined data for all inspectors and all flaws in both the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 20-32 ply specimen set 85% of all flaws were detected or 1,709 of the total 2,010 flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 31% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage). Twenty-seven percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category and 18% of the flaws were sized in the 51-75% coverage category. Thus, 76% of the detected flaws were sized with 51-100% accuracy. This table also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 99% of the 2" flaws were detected. In this case, that represents 29 of the 30 inspectors finding every 2" flaw in the 20-32 ply specimen set (only one 2" flaw was missed by an inspector). On the smaller side, 56% of the 0.25" flaws were detected.

Experiment Timing Summary 20-32 Ply Specimen Set All Inspectors - Pulse Echo UT					
	Specimen ST32-1	Specimen ST32-2	Specimen ST32-3	Specimen ST32-4	Total Insp. Time (hr:min)
Inspector A1	1:01	1:08	1:05	1:02	4:16
Inspector B1	1:13	1:35	1:53	2:32	7:13
Inspector C1	1:28	1:51	1:03	1:20	5:42
Inspector D1	2:26	2:44	2:41	1:57	9:48
Inspector E1	1:56	1:59	2:54	1:44	8:33
Inspector F1	1:31	2:18	0:50	1:11	5:50
Inspector G1	1:35	1:43	2:30	2:10	7:58
Inspector H1	1:30	2:09	2:29	2:33	8:41
Inspector I1	0:43	1:30	1:55	0:51	4:59
Inspector J1	1:43	1:18	2:31	1:32	7:04
Inspector K1	1:02	1:08	0:53	2:10	5:13
Inspector L1	2:31	1:53	2:41	1:51	8:56
Inspector M1	1:17	3:36	2:42	2:04	9:39
Inspector N1	1:54	1:09	1:57	1:42	6:42
Inspector O1	2:02	2:17	2:50	1:57	9:06
Inspector P1	0:23	0:18	0:55	0:29	2:05
Inspector Q1	0:56	3:13	1:52	1:21	7:22
Inspector R1	1:51	1:19	1:03	1:01	5:14
Inspector S1	0:51	0:39	1:37	0:58	4:05
Inspector T1	1:17	0:53	1:12	1:31	4:53
Inspector U1	1:46	1:18	1:26	2:05	6:35
Inspector V1	0:39	1:43	1:10	1:18	4:50
Inspector W1	0:47	1:19	0:32	0:28	3:06
Inspector X1	1:21	0:34	2:26	0:49	5:10
Inspector Y1	0:39	0:35	0:55	0:42	2:51
Inspector Z1	1:11	1:44	3:08	1:28	7:31
Inspector AA1	1:03	1:21	1:48	1:40	5:52
Inspector BB1	1:39	1:45	1:19	1:32	6:15
Inspector CC1	0:53	1:51	1:50	1:15	5:49
Inspector DD1	1:33	2:05	1:33	1:40	6:51
Ave. Insp. Time (hr:min)	1:21	1:37	1:47	1:29	6:16
Average Inspection Coverage Rate = 1.91 ft ² /hr					

Table 6-9: Experiment Timing Summary Table for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set
All Inspectors – Pulse Echo UT Method

Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Inspectors - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected (1709 Total Flaws Detected)						Flaw Detection Percentage (2010 Total Flaws)	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	47%	11%	6%	7%	28%	0.25	56%
0.50	31%	21%	16%	16%	16%	0.50	84%
0.75	26%	28%	20%	20%	6%	0.75	89%
1.00	30%	30%	20%	15%	5%	1.00	91%
1.50	25%	34%	26%	11%	5%	1.50	99%
2.00	32%	45%	18%	3%	2%	2.00	99%
Overall Sizing Performance	31%	27%	18%	14%	10%	Overall Flaw Detection	85%

Table 6-10: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – All Inspectors – Pulse Echo UT Method

6.1.3 Summary of Inspection Results for the Overall Combined Solid Laminate Inspection Experiment - Combined 12-20 Ply “Thin Laminate Experiment” and 20-32 Ply “Thick Laminate Experiment”

Figure 6-13 shows the POD curve representing the performance of all 57 inspectors for the cumulative, combined 12-20 and 20-32 ply specimen sets. The overall Probability of Flaw Detection for solid laminate composite structures is $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.13$ ” diameter flaw ($POD_{[90]} = 1.07$ ”). This represents a POD value that is consistent with the desired OEM minimum detectable flaw size as discussed in Chapter 4. The cumulative POD curve comparison for the 12-20 ply “Thin Laminate Experiment” ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29$ ”), the 20-32 ply “Thick Laminate Experiment” ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82$ ”) and the overall, combined specimen sets ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.13$ ”) is shown in Figure 6-14. POD values were also analyzed for the combined specimen sets within the breakdown of specific composite construction regions. Figure 6-15 shows the cumulative POD curve for the combined 12-20 and 20-32 ply specimen sets for all flaws in the constant thickness regions only. The overall Probability of Flaw Detection for constant thickness regions in solid laminate composite structures is $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.80$ ” diameter flaw. This represents a value calculated from inspection data for all flaws in the 12 ply, 20 ply, 32 ply and 38 ply (spar component) constant thickness regions. Figure 6-15 also compares the constant thickness region POD curves for the 12-20 ply “Thin Laminate Experiment”, the 20-32 ply “Thick Laminate Experiment” and the overall, combined specimen sets. All of the $POD_{[90/95]}$ values are quite similar and are in the range of 0.75” to 0.85” diameter flaw. Figure 6-16 shows the resulting cumulative POD curve for the combined 12-20 and 20-32 ply specimen sets for all flaws in the complex geometry regions. The overall Probability of Flaw Detection for complex geometry regions in solid laminate composite structures is $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.34$ ” diameter flaw. This represents a value calculated from inspection data for all flaws in regions containing a ply taper, substructure (co-cured and secondarily bonded), curved portions, fasteners or laminate over honeycomb. Figure 6-16 also compares the complex geometry region POD curves for the 12-20 ply “Thin Laminate Experiment”, the 20-32 ply “Thick Laminate Experiment” and the overall, combined specimen sets. In this case, the $POD_{[90/95]}$ values range from 0.93” to 1.49” diameter flaw.

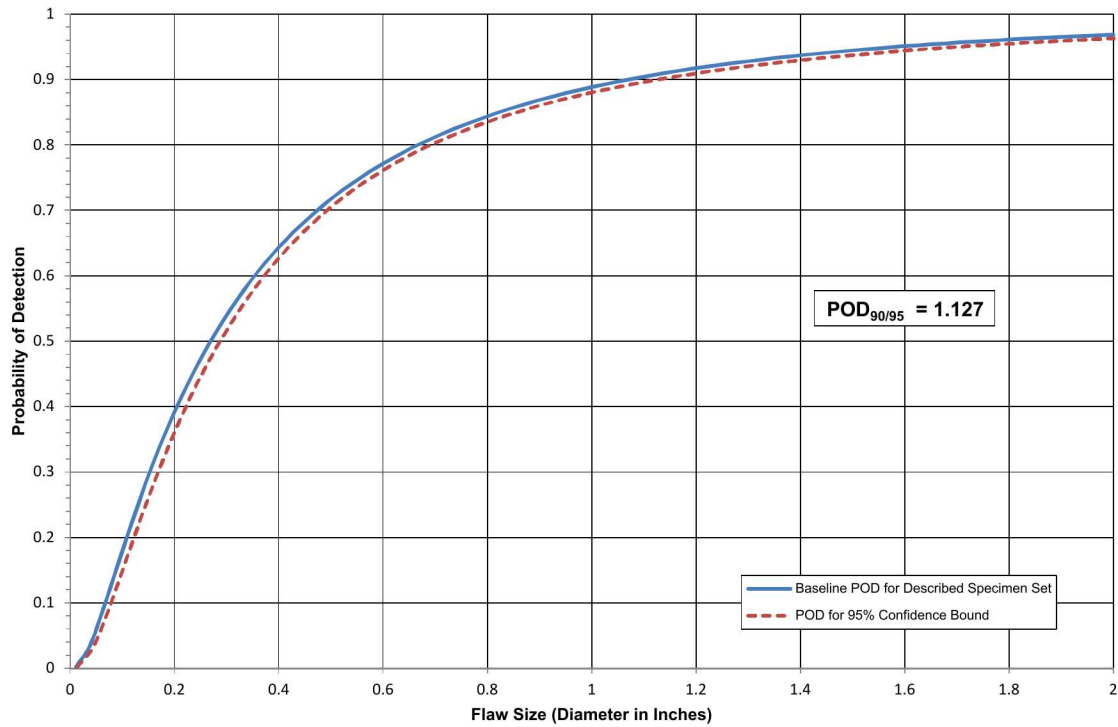


Figure 6-13: Cumulative POD Curve for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Combined Specimen Sets for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions All Inspectors (57) - Pulse Echo UT Method

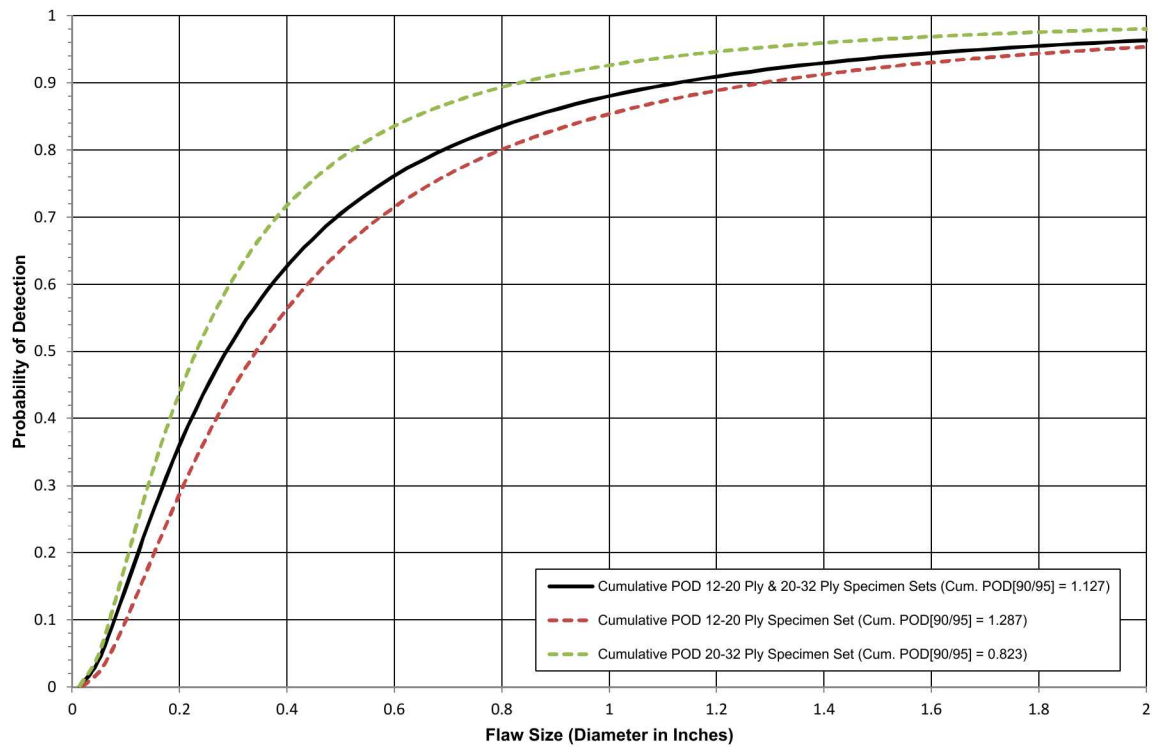
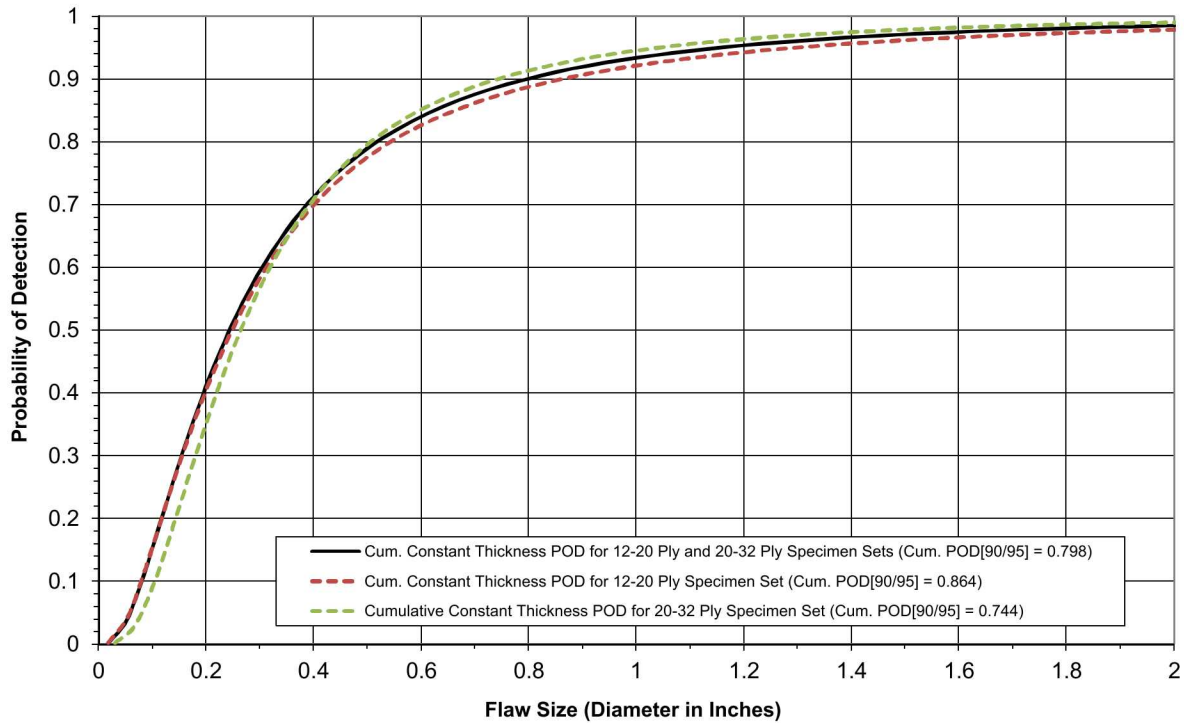
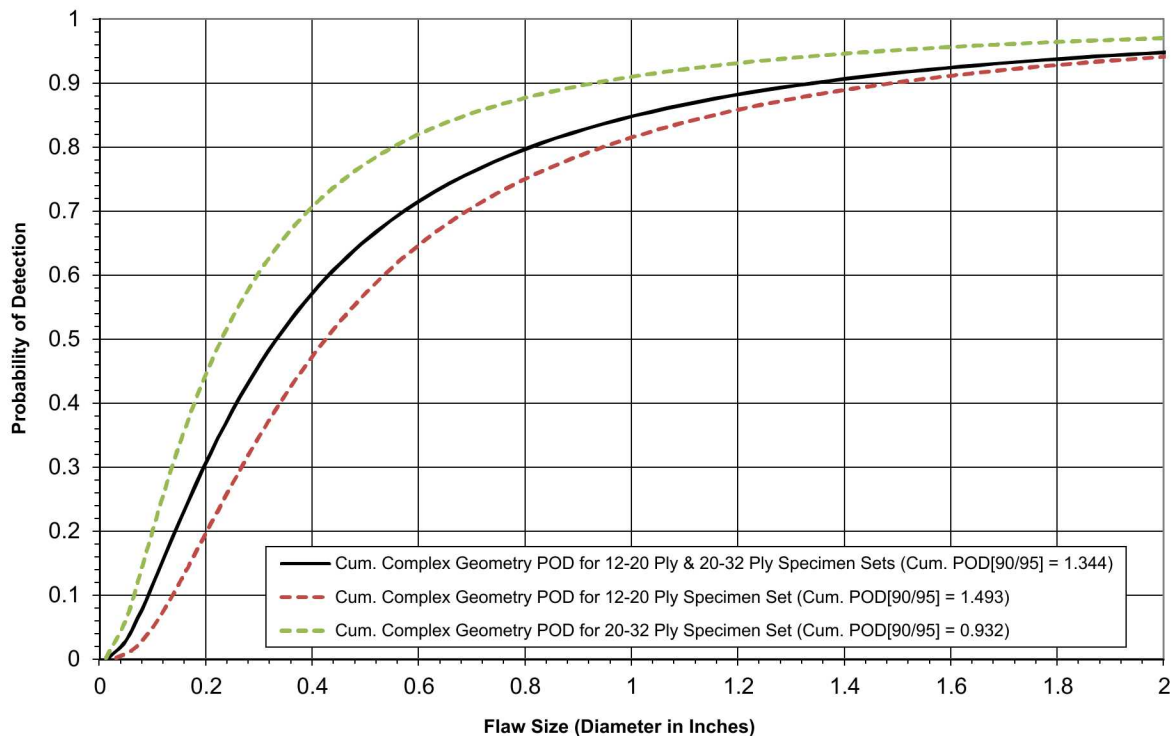


Figure 6-14: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Specimen Sets for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions All Inspectors (57) - Pulse Echo UT Method



**Figure 6-15: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Specimen Sets for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions Only
All Inspectors (57) - Pulse Echo UT Method**



**Figure 6-16: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Specimen Sets for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions Only
All Inspectors (57) - Pulse Echo UT Method**

The experiment monitors also recorded the various methods that inspectors used to ensure inspection area coverage for the Composite Laminate POD Experiment. Some inspectors covered the inspection area with their UT transducers using a pure freehand approach (i.e. no guides or markings on the panels). Some inspectors divided the inspection surface into quadrants to reduce freehand coverage errors. Some inspectors used a series of tic marks, often placed at 0.5" or 1" intervals, to divide the inspection surface into a number of rows and columns. Some inspectors used flexible straight edges to guide their transducer movement. The different surface coverage techniques that were observed fall into four categories. The POD results produced by each of these inspection coverage methods were calculated separately and compared to quantify the benefits of deploying specific inspection coverage methods. These results are plotted in Figure 6-17 along with the corresponding $POD_{[90/95]}$ values. The method that produced the lowest (best) combined POD level was where inspectors used a straight edge on all panels throughout both experiments (18 inspectors). This produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.89$ " which is a 21% improvement compared to the overall, cumulative combined 12-20 ply and 20-32 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value of 1.13" diameter flaw. The poorest performing coverage method was where inspectors used the freehand method on all panels throughout both experiments (13 inspectors). This produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.75$ " which is a 55% decrease in performance compared to the overall cumulative combined 12-20 ply and 20-32 ply $POD_{[90/95]}$ value. The summary of all $POD_{[90/95]}$ values for the overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment (combined 12-20 ply and 20-32 ply specimen sets) is presented in Table 6-11.

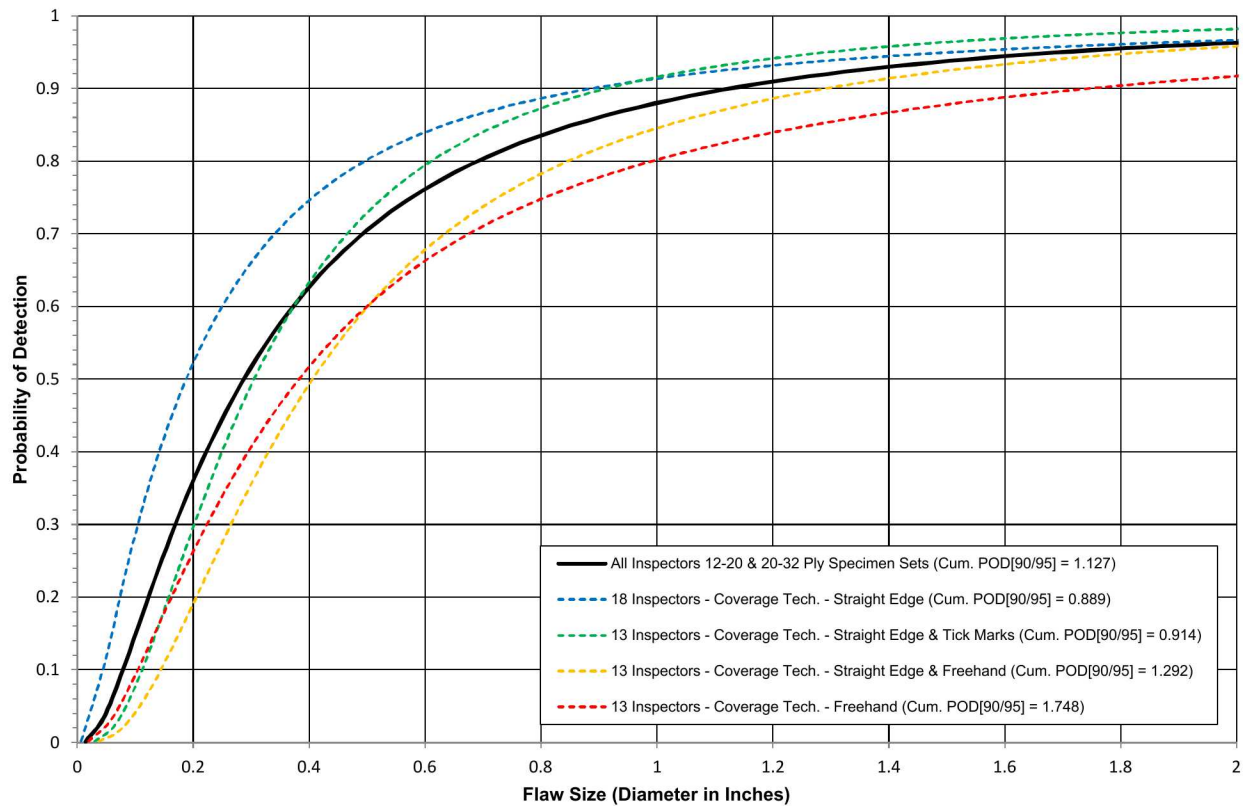


Figure 6-17: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison of Different Surface Coverage Techniques for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Specimen Sets for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – All Inspectors (57) - Pulse Echo UT Method

Cumulative POD Results Table 12-20 Ply & 20-32 Ply Specimen Sets	
Condition	POD_{90/95}
All Flaws - All Regions - All 57 Inspectors	1.127
All Flaws - All Regions - 49 Inspectors, 2 High & 2 Low Removed from Each Set	1.096
Only Flaws in Constant Thickness - All 57 Inspectors	0.798
Only Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions - All 57 Inspectors	1.344
Only Flaws in Tapered Regions - All 57 Inspectors	0.779
All Flaws - All Regions - 18 Inspectors - Coverage Technique - Straight Edge	0.889
All Flaws - All Regions - 13 Inspectors - Coverage Technique - Straight Edge & Tick Marks	0.914
All Flaws - All Regions - 13 Inspectors - Coverage Technique - Straight Edge & Freehand	1.292
All Flaws - All Regions - 13 Inspectors - Coverage Technique - Freehand	1.748

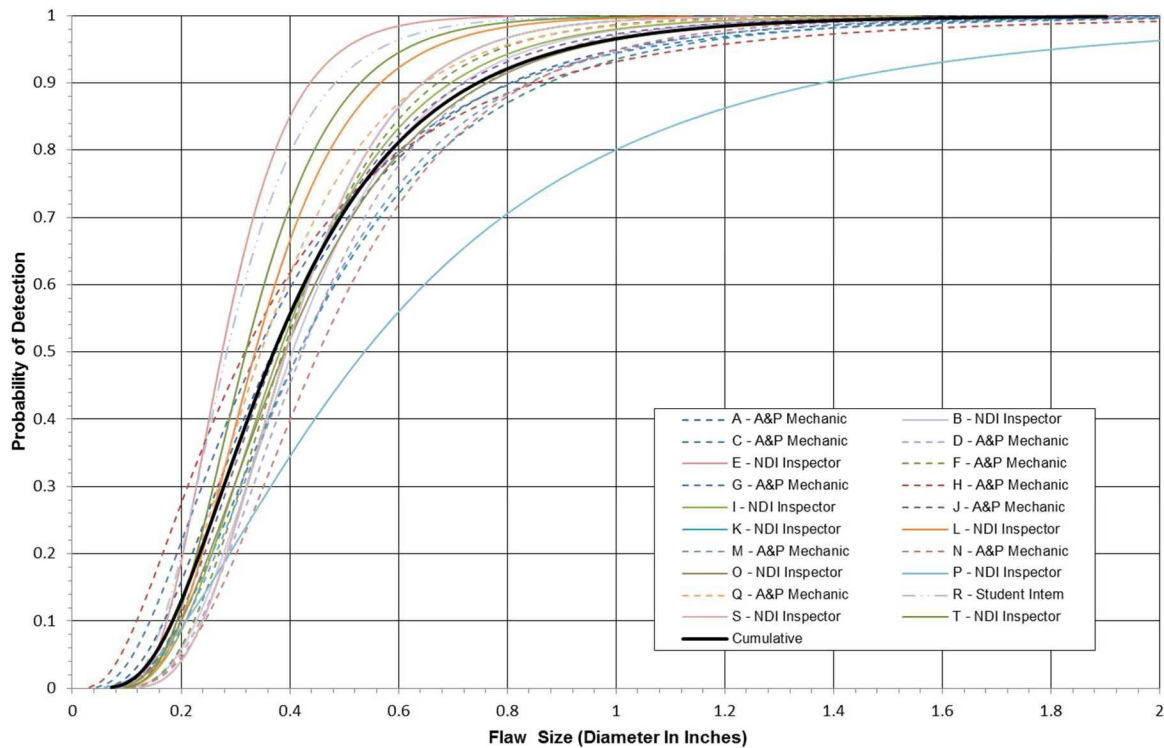
Table 6-11: Cumulative POD Results Table for the 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Combined Specimen Sets

6.1.4 Summary of Inspection Results for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment

The Solid Laminate POD Experiment was also used to evaluate two similar devices that are being considered for use in local, focused inspections: the Olympus Ramp Damage Checker (RDC) and GE Bond Tracer (BT) devices. The following POD curves compare the performance of individual participants, which included both inspectors and A&P mechanics, for the deployment of the Ramp Damage Checker (RDC) and Bond Tracer (BT) device in the Solid Laminate POD Experiment. The Solid Laminate POD Experiment was customized as described in Chapter 4 to accommodate the evaluation of the RDC and BT devices. For the inspection approach that accompanies the use of either the RDC or the BT device, specific, small regions were designated as focused inspection regions. These devices are not intended for wide-area inspections. Thus, specific regions on each test specimen – some containing flaws and some containing only pristine, undamaged structure – were identified with surface markers and the experiment was completed using only the subset of inspection regions. In total, there were 140 separate inspection regions for a total, combined inspection area of 8.4 ft.² (average of 0.06 ft.² per individual region). This customized presentation of the Solid Laminate POD Experiment (SLE) is referred to as the Ramp Damage Check Experiment (RDCE). All of the specimens (both thin and thick laminate) were used in the RDCE so the results provided in this section are overall results for the entire range of specimen thicknesses. Prior to conducting the RDCE, each inspector was provided with a brief training package on the RDC and BT devices. The inspectors were also allowed to get comfortable with the inspection devices through the use of the feedback specimens.

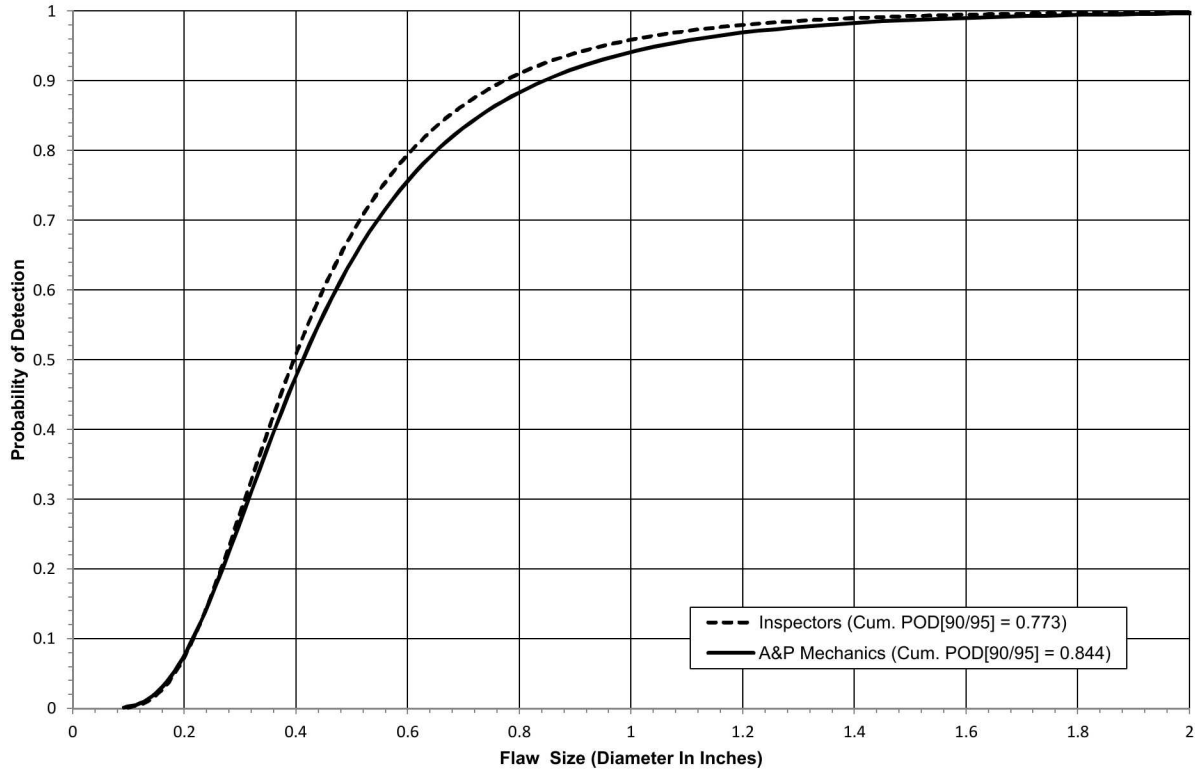
Figure 6-18 shows the spread of all individual inspector POD_[90] curves (dashed lines) compared to the cumulative POD_[90] curve (solid line) for all 20 participants in the RDCE. The participants included 10 A&P Mechanics, 9 NDI Inspectors and 1 Student Intern (representing an untrained person). These results were produced by considering all flaws in the RDCE including those in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. The spread shows 11 participants with a POD_[90] value less than the cumulative POD_[90] = 0.75" diameter flaw and 9 participants with a POD_[90] value higher than the cumulative POD_[90] value. Overall, the result from the RDCE for all

participants combined was $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.78$ " diameter flaw. The variation of results ranged from a $POD_{[90]} = 0.44$ " diameter flaw for the best performing participant to a $POD_{[90]} = 1.38$ " diameter flaw for the worst performing participant. The POD values were analyzed further to compare the flaw detection performance between the participant groups. Figure 6-19 compares the $POD_{[90/95]}$ cumulative curves for all inspectors and for all A&P mechanics. Both participant groups performed well with the 9 inspectors producing a cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.77$ " diameter flaw and the 10 A&P mechanics producing a cumulative $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.84$ " diameter flaw. The difference between the two POD values is less than 10%. The summary of all $POD_{[90/95]}$ values for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment is presented in Table 6-12.



**Figure 6-18: Individual & Cumulative POD Curve Comparison for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment Specimen Set for All Flaws - All Participants
(10 – A&P Mechanics, 9 – NDI Inspectors & 1 – Student Intern)
GE Bondtracer & Olympus NDT 35RDC**

A false call is defined as an inspector flaw indication in an area where no flaw actually exists. However, there are manufacturing flaws that aren't associated with the POD study such as porosity. If an inspector made a call that correlated to an area of unintentionally-high porosity, it was ignored and not deemed to be a false call. Table 6-13 summarizes the number of false calls made by each participant during the Ramp Damage Check Experiment. This table shows the number of false calls made by each participant for the RDCE specimen set and lists the sizing category that incorporates each false call. The average number of false calls made was determined to be 0.6 false calls per inspector (8.38 ft.² inspection area) with an average of one false call per 13.97 ft.² of inspection area. Thus, the overall false call rate was determined to be very low.



**Figure 6-19: Cumulative POD Curve Comparison of All NDI Inspectors & A&P Mechanics for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment Specimen Set for All Flaws
GE Bondtracer & Olympus NDT 35RDC**

Cumulative POD Results Table RDCE Specimen Sets	
Condition	POD _{90/95}
All Flaws - All Participants (Inspectors & A&P Mechanics, 1 Intern)	0.782
All Flaws - All NDI Inspectors (9)	0.773
All Flaws - NDI Inspectors (8) with Worst Performing Inspector Removed	0.681
All Flaws - All A&P Mechanics (10)	0.844

Table 6-12: Cumulative POD Results Table for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment Specimen Set

Inspection False Calls for RDCE Specimen Set - All Participants - GE Bondtracer & Olympus NDT 35RDC																						
Configuration/Sizing (in. ²)	A&P A	Insp. B	A&P C	A&P D	Insp. E	A&P F	A&P G	A&P H	Insp. I	A&P J	Insp. K	Insp. L	A&P M	A&P N	Insp. O	Insp. P	A&P Q	Intern R	Insp. S	Insp. T	Total	Avg.
RDCE Specimen Set																						
0 - .25in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0.2
.26in. ² - .75in. ²	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	0.3
.76in. ² - 1.25in. ²	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0.1
1.26in. ² - 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
> 2.00in. ²	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.1
Total (All Flaws)	0	0	0	3	1	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	12	0.6
1 False Call on Average Per 13.97 ft ² of Inspection Area																						

Table 6-13: Inspection False Call Table for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment Specimen Set - All Participants – GE Bondtracer & Olympus NDT 35RDC

Participant flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of each participant's flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Table 6-14 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the RDCE specimen set. This table includes combined data for all participants and all flaws. Notice that for the RDCE specimen set, 81% of all flaws were detected or 1,294 of the total 1,600 flaws. The flaw sizing performance shows that 13% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage). Thirty-two percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category and 30% of the flaws were sized in the 51-75% coverage category. Thus, 75% of the detected flaws were sized with 51-100% accuracy. This table also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 98% of the 2" flaws were detected. On the smaller side, only 23% of the 0.25" flaws were detected.

Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size Ramp Damage Check Experiment - All Flaws - All Participants							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected (1294 Total Flaws Detected)						Flaw Detection Percentage (1600 Total Flaws)	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	31%	22%	7%	7%	33%	0.25	23%
0.50	18%	19%	24%	24%	15%	0.50	68%
0.75	17%	26%	28%	22%	7%	0.75	95%
1.00	8%	37%	31%	19%	4%	1.00	97%
1.50	7%	36%	45%	11%	1%	1.50	98%
2.00	12%	59%	27%	3%	0%	2.00	98%
Overall Sizing Performance	13%	32%	30%	18%	7%	Overall Flaw Detection	81%

Table 6-14: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the Ramp Damage Check Experiment Specimen Set for All Flaws – All Participants – GE Bondtracer & Olympus NDT 35RDC

6.2 Inspection Performance Results for Phased Array and Linear Array Ultrasonics

6.2.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Olympus OmniScan

Figures 6-20 to 6-22 show the OmniScan device with a phased array UT probe and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the Olympus OmniScan phased array ultrasonic inspection device connected to a 3.5 MHz, 64 element array probe. The transducer was deployed in a 26.2 mm delay line, Aqualene wedge as shown in Figure 6-20. Sample C-scan images produced from the OmniScan phased array UT inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-23 to 6-25. Both amplitude and time-of-flight images were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Note the substructure flaws imaged in the C-scans generated by gates set for deeper flaw detection.



Figure 6-20: OmniScan Phased Array UT Device and 64 Element Probe

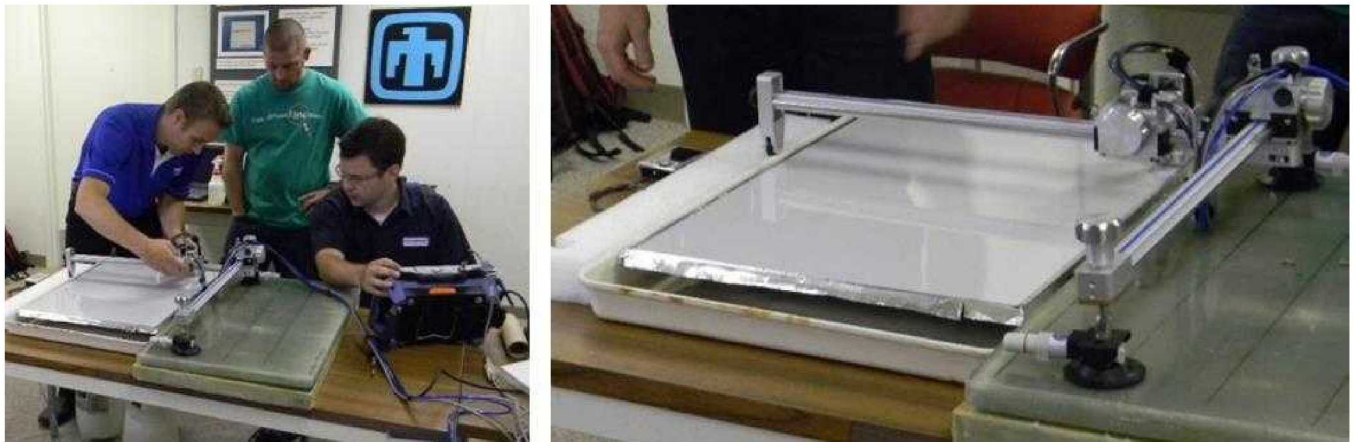


Figure 6-21: Deployment of OmniScan Phased Array UT System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment



Figure 6-22: Use of Different PA-UT Array Probes and Encoders to Inspect Various Test Specimen Geometries

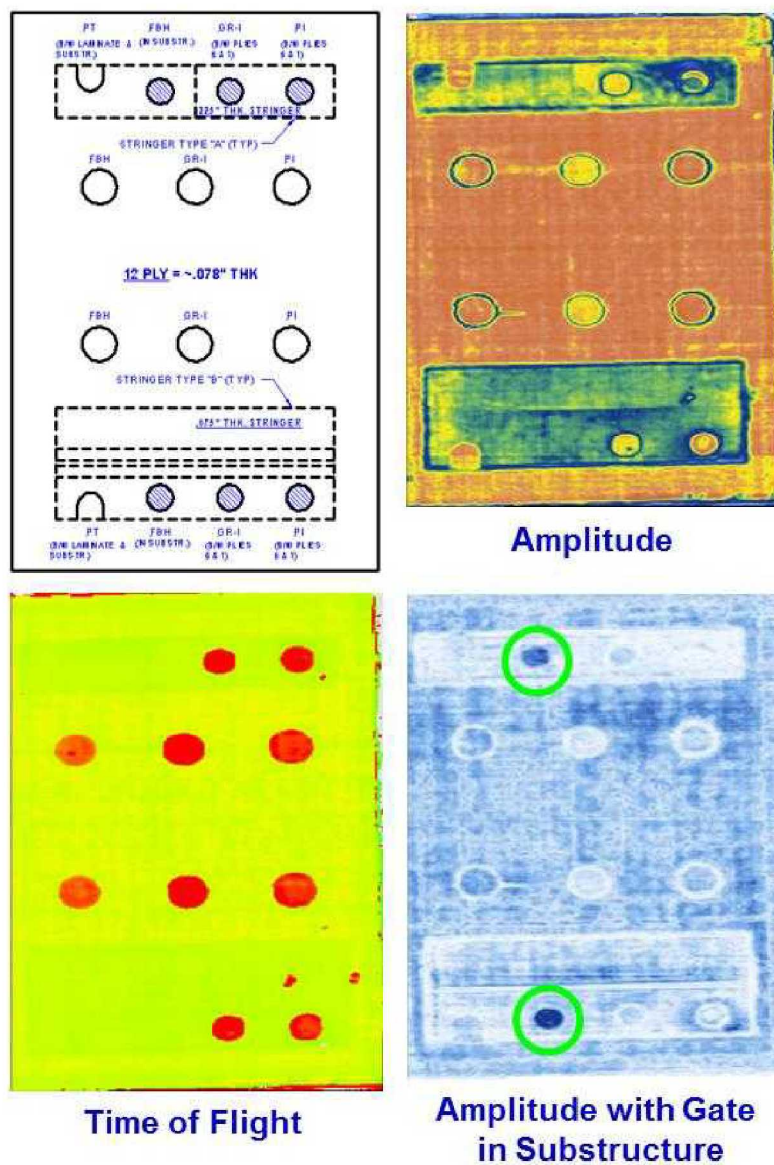


Figure 6-23: C-Scan Images Produced by OmniScan PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 12 Ply Reference Panel

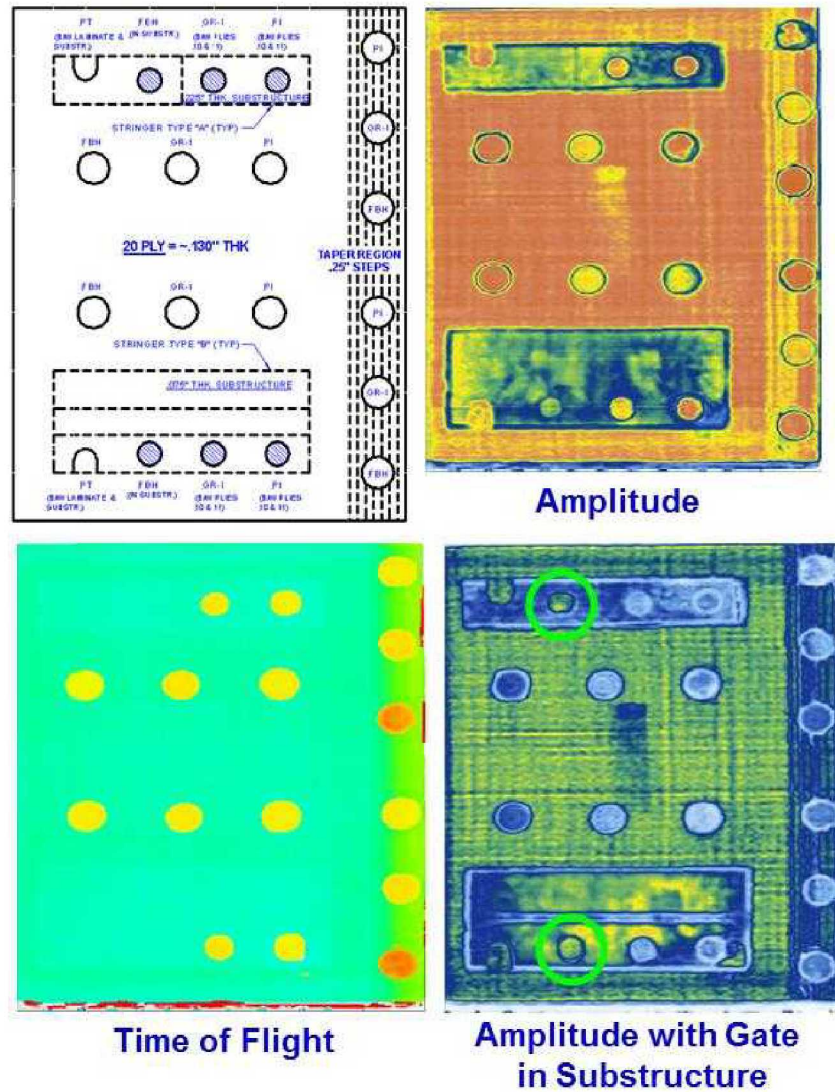


Figure 6-24: C-Scan Images Produced by OmniScan PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel

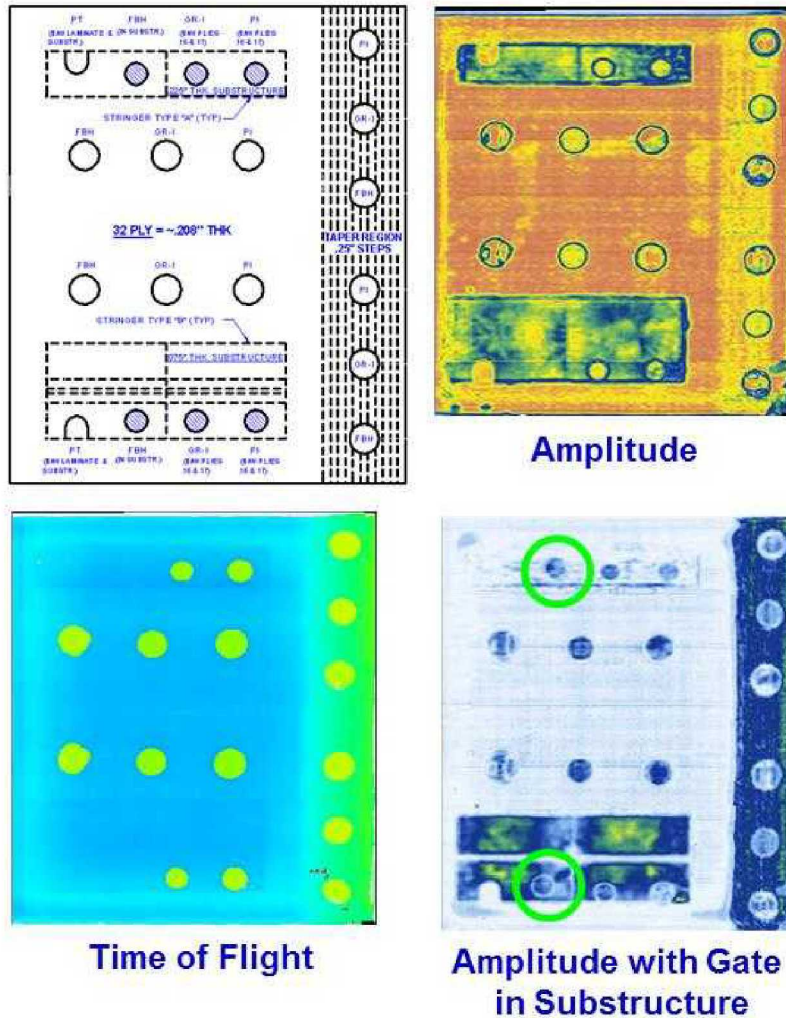


Figure 6-25: C-Scan Images Produced by OmniScan PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Reference Panel

Figure 6-26 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The OmniScan phased array UT system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.716''$. This is a 36% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.862''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25''$ (i.e. 100% flaw detection so min flaw size of 0.25'' is upper bound for POD). Tables 6-15 and 6-16 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the OmniScan phased array UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false

calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-17 through 6-22 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 92% of all flaws were detected or 124 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-19). This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 81% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Fifteen percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 96% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-19 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 79% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

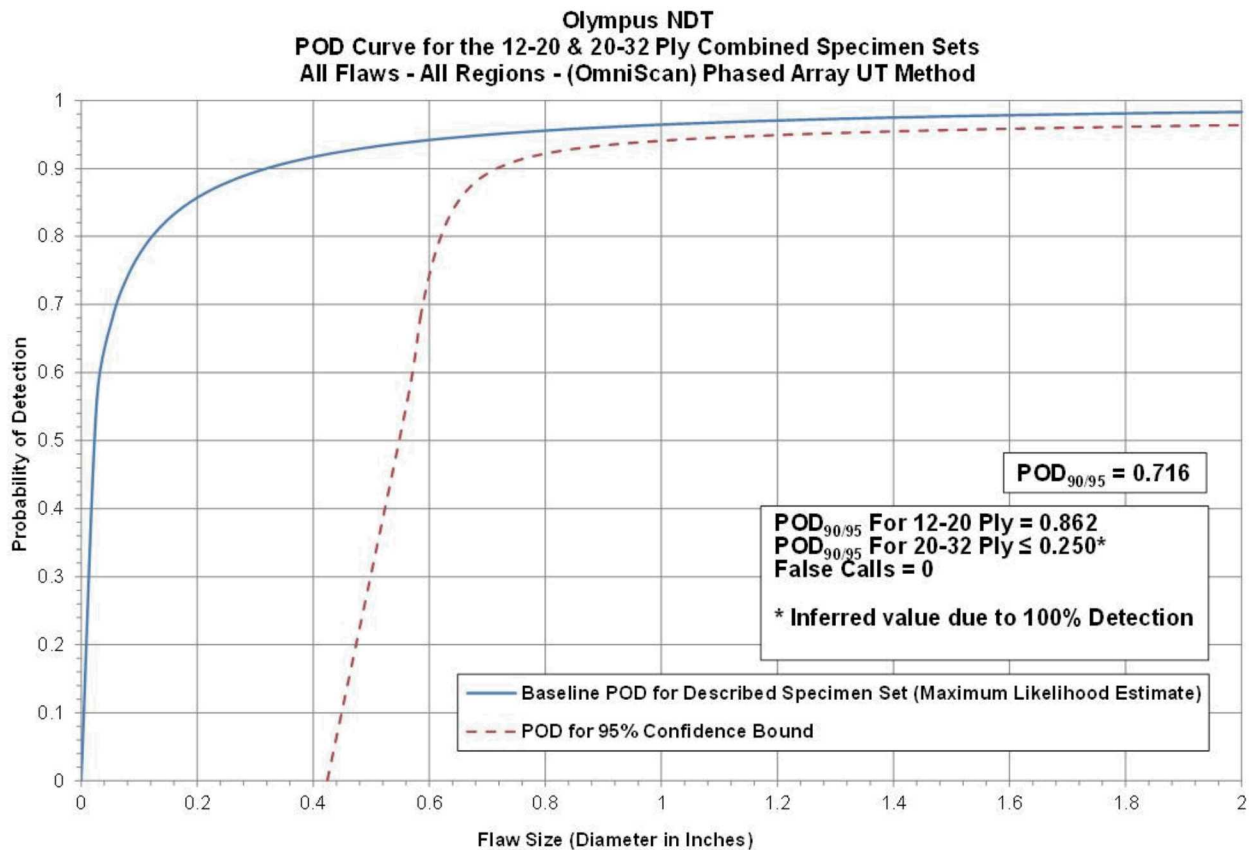


Figure 6-26: Probability of Detection Results for OmniScan PA-UT System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - Olympus NDT, (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
0.862	92%	100%	87%	100%*	100%	100%	100%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			
* Inferred POD _{90/95} value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)							

Table 6-15: Flaw Detection Performance for OmniScan PA-UT System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - Olympus NDT, (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
0.716	100%*	0.905	95%	100%	92%	81%	100%	100%	100%
* Inferred POD _{90/95} value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)								False Calls = 0	

Table 6-16: Flaw Detection Performance for OmniScan PA-UT System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Table 6-22 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 100% of all flaws were detected or all 67 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 97% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Three percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 100% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-22 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 100% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	73%	0%	27%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	60%	40%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	75%	25%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	57%	43%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	73%	21%	6%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-17: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	63%
0.50	86%	9%	5%	0%	0%	0.50	92%
0.75	89%	11%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	82%
1.00	90%	10%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	91%
1.50	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	87%	12%	1%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	87%

Table 6-18: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	79%
0.50	82%	6%	12%	0%	0%	0.50	94%
0.75	79%	21%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	88%
1.00	85%	15%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	94%
1.50	63%	38%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	81%	15%	3%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	92%

Table 6-19: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-20: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	88%	13%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-21: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

Olympus NDT - (OmniScan) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	93%	7%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	86%	14%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	97%	3%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-22: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – OmniScan PA-UT System

6.2.2 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Toshiba MatrixEye

Figures 6-27 to 6-29 show the MatrixEye device with a phased array UT probe and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the Toshiba MatrixEye phased array ultrasonic inspection device connected to a 2.5 MHz, 64 element array probe. Sample C-scan images produced from the OmniScan phased array UT inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-30 to 6-32. Both amplitude and time-of-flight images were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Note the substructure flaws imaged in the C-scans generated by gates set for deeper flaw detection.



Figure 6-27: MatrixEye Phased Array UT Device and 64 Element Probe

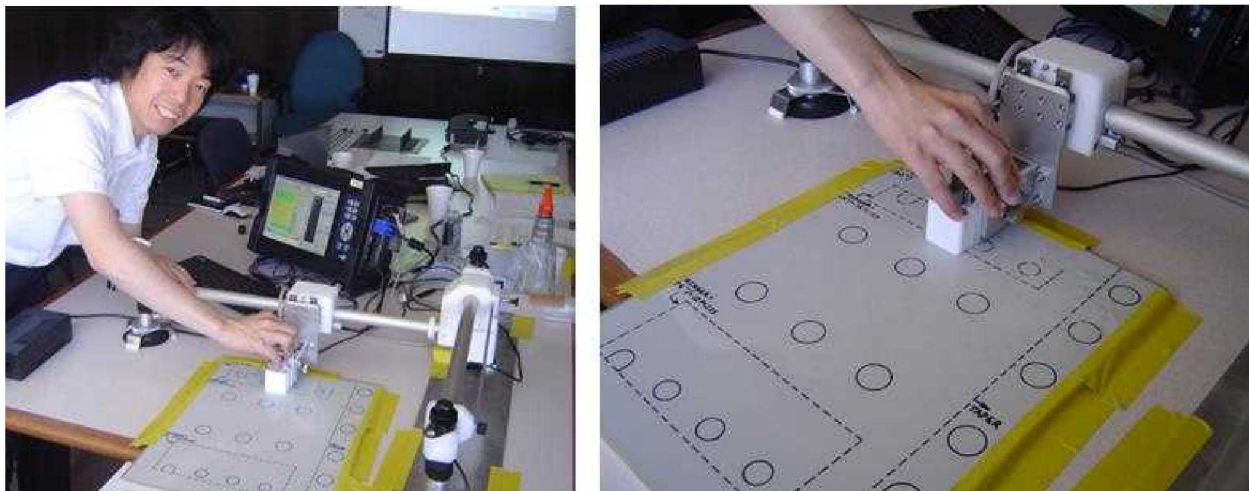


Figure 6-28: Deployment of MatrixEye Phased Array UT System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment



Figure 6-29: Use of Different PA-UT Array Probes and Encoders to Inspect Various Test Specimen Geometries

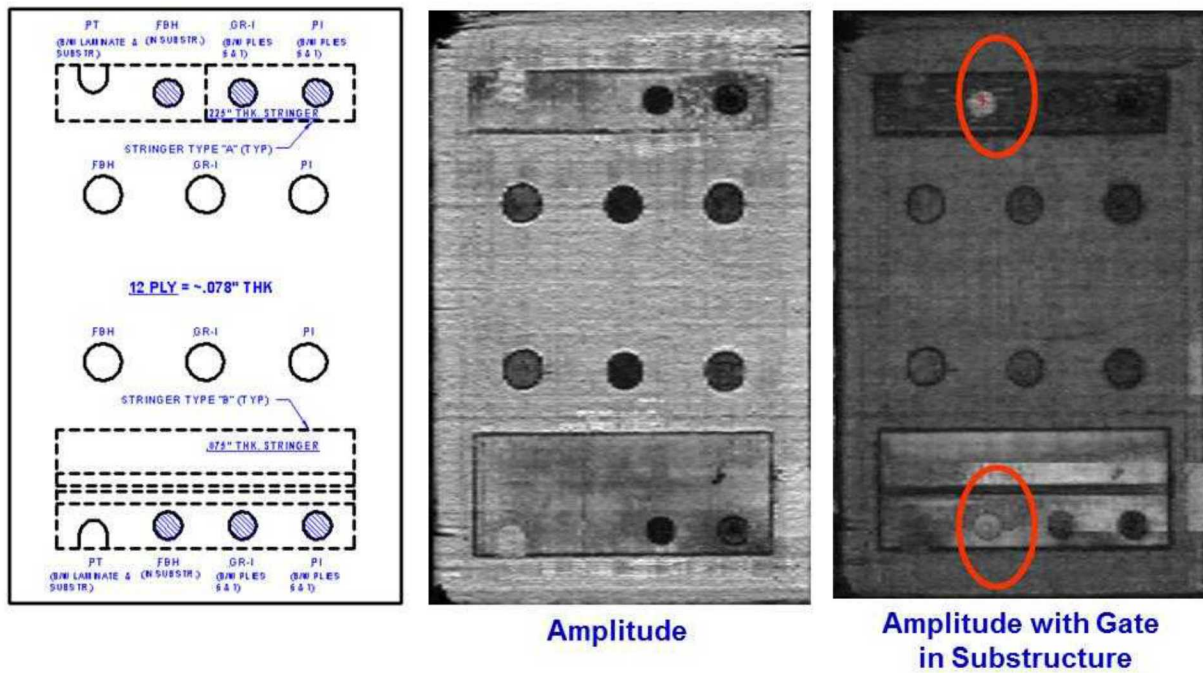


Figure 6-30: C-Scan Images Produced by MatrixEye PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 12 Ply Reference Panel

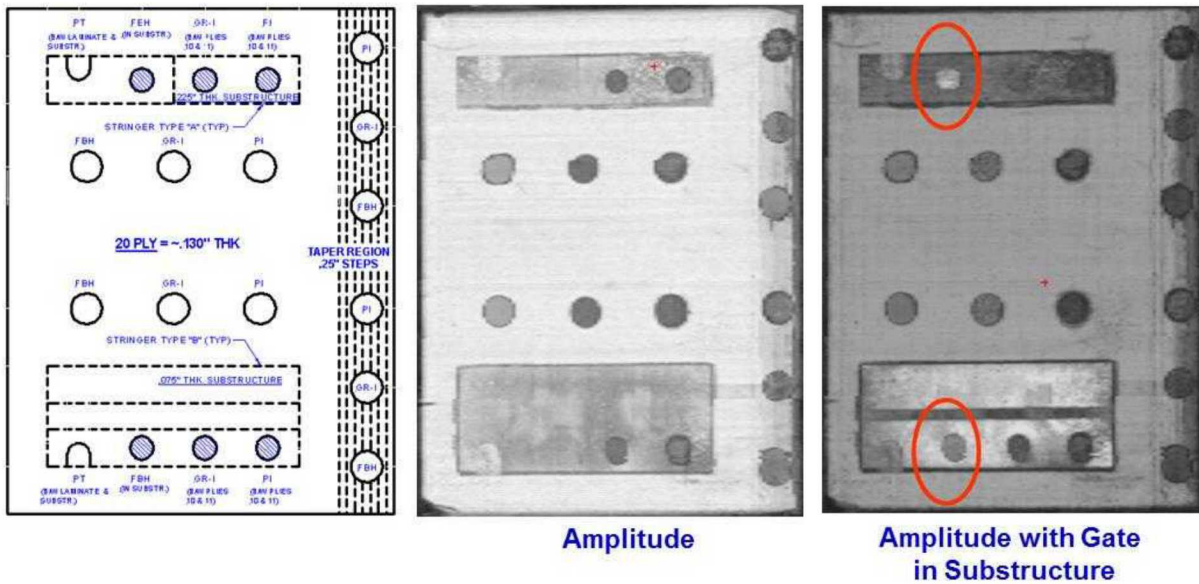


Figure 6-31: C-Scan Images Produced by MatrixEye PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel

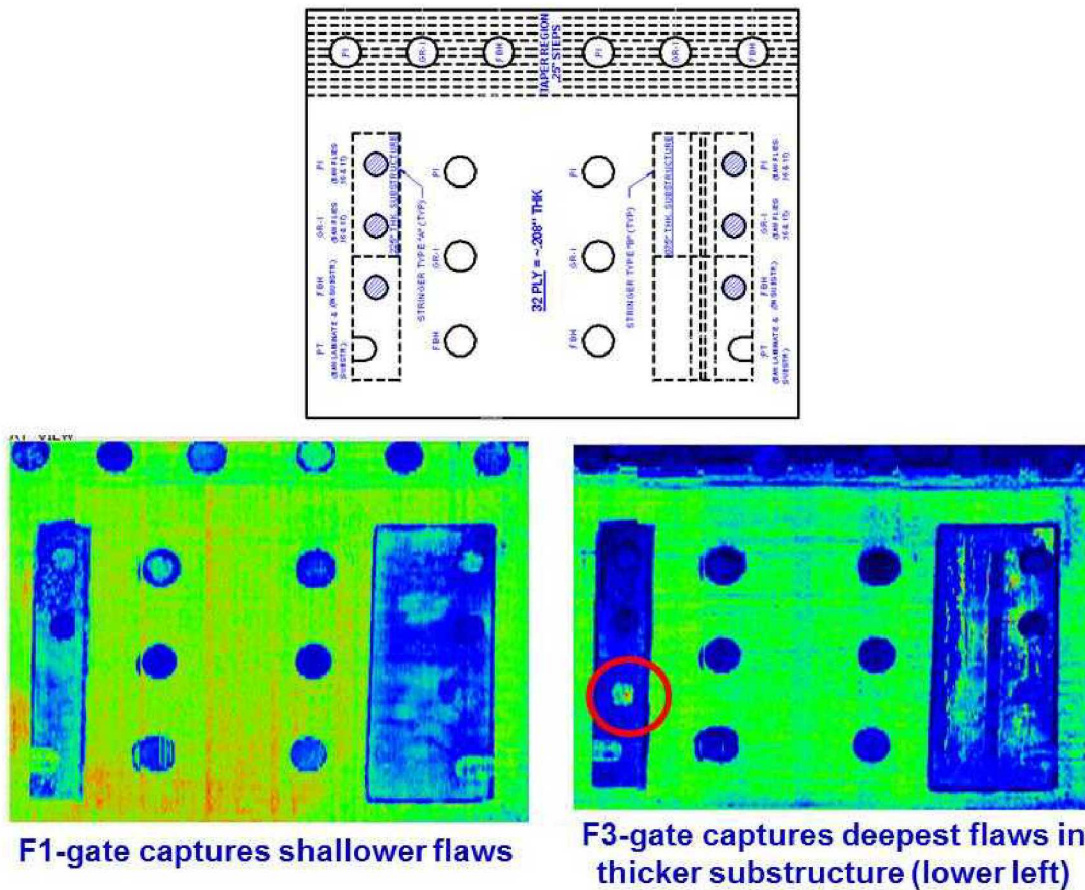


Figure 6-32: C-Scan Images Produced by MatrixEye PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Reference Panel

Figure 6-33 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The MatrixEye phased array UT system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.689$ ". This is a 39% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125$ ") that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.818$ " and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.606$ ". Tables 6-23 and 6-24 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

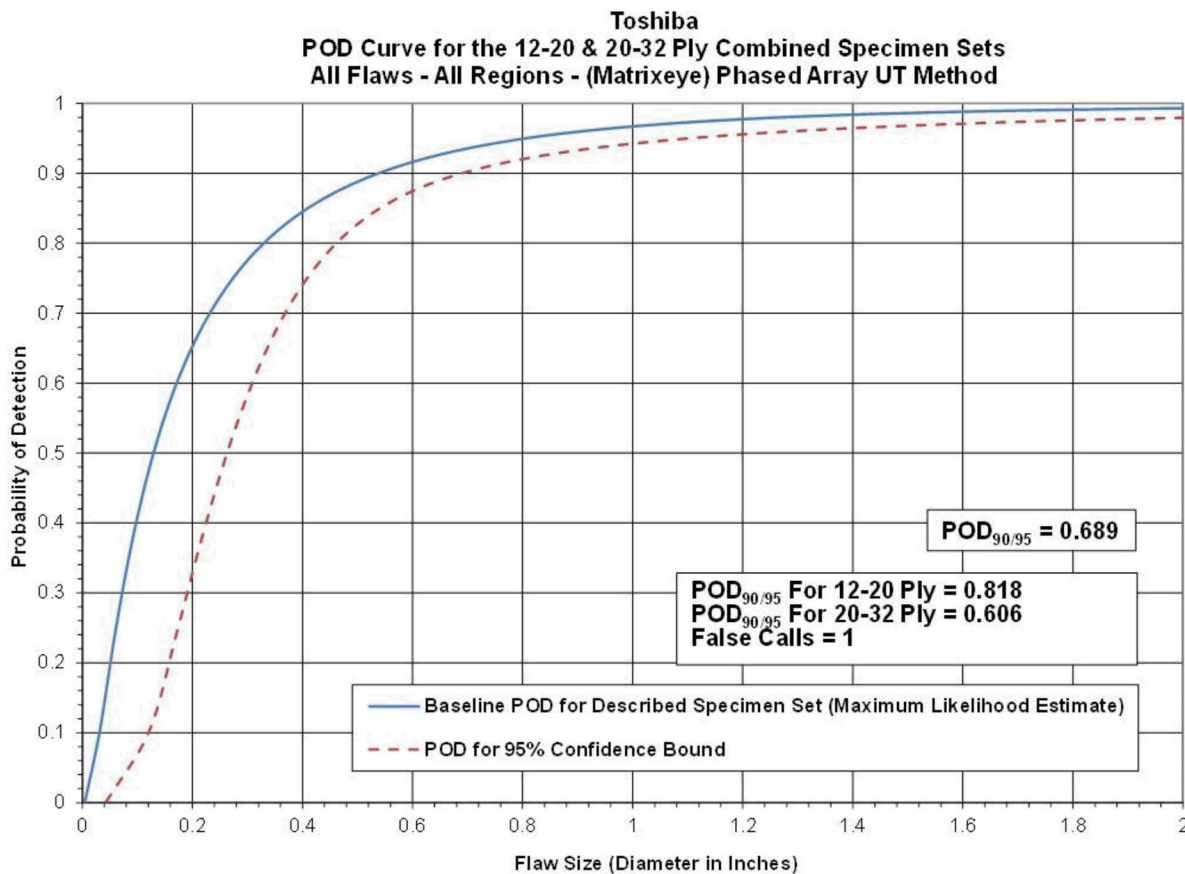


Figure 6-33: Probability of Detection Results for MatrixEye PA-UT System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the MatrixEye phased array UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-25 through 6-30 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant

thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 89% of all flaws were detected or 120 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-27). This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 97% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-27 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 64% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Results - Toshiba, (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
0.818	89%	96%	85%	0.606	97%	100%	95%
False Calls = 1				False Calls = 0			

Table 6-23: Flaw Detection Performance for MatrixEye PA-UT System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

Results - Toshiba, (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
0.818	89%	96%	85%	0.606	97%	100%	95%
False Calls = 1				False Calls = 0			

Table 6-24: Flaw Detection Performance for MatrixEye PA-UT System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Table 6-30 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 97% of all flaws were detected or 65 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 100% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Thus, 100% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-30 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size.

For example 100% of the 2” flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 91% of the 0.25” flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25” flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	67%
0.50	91%	0%	0%	9%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	80%	0%	0%	20%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	92%	0%	0%	8%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	91%	0%	0%	9%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	96%

Table 6-25: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	63%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	75%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	86%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	96%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	85%

Table 6-26: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	64%
0.50	97%	0%	0%	3%	0%	0.50	83%
0.75	93%	0%	0%	7%	0%	0.75	91%
1.00	97%	0%	0%	3%	0%	1.00	97%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	97%	0%	0%	3%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	89%

Table 6-27: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-28: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	86%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	88%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	95%

Table 6-29: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

Toshiba - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	91%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	93%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	97%

Table 6-30: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System

6.2.3 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Boeing MAUS V with FlawInspecta

Figures 6-34 to 6-36 show the MAUS FlawInspecta device with a linear array UT probe and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the Boeing MAUS V with a FlawInspecta linear array ultrasonic inspection device connected to a 5 MHz, 64 element linear array probe with a total pitch of 3.2". The inspections were performed with the FlawInspecta upgrade for the Boeing MAUS V, which does not support phased array inspection. The Diagnostic Sonar FlawInspecta stand-alone system does support phased array inspections, however, this inspection system was not tested during the implementation of this experiment. The transducer was deployed in a water-filled delay line shoe as shown in Figure 6-34. Sample C-scan images produced from the MAUS FlawInspecta linear array UT inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-37. Both amplitude and time-of-flight images were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Note the substructure flaws imaged in the C-scans generated by gates set for deeper flaw detection.

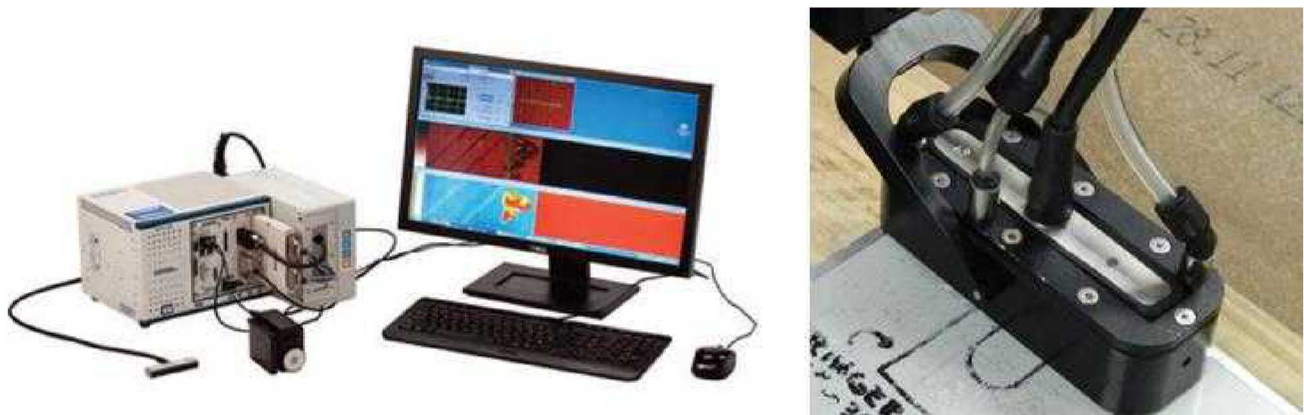


Figure 6-34: MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT Device and 64 Element Probe

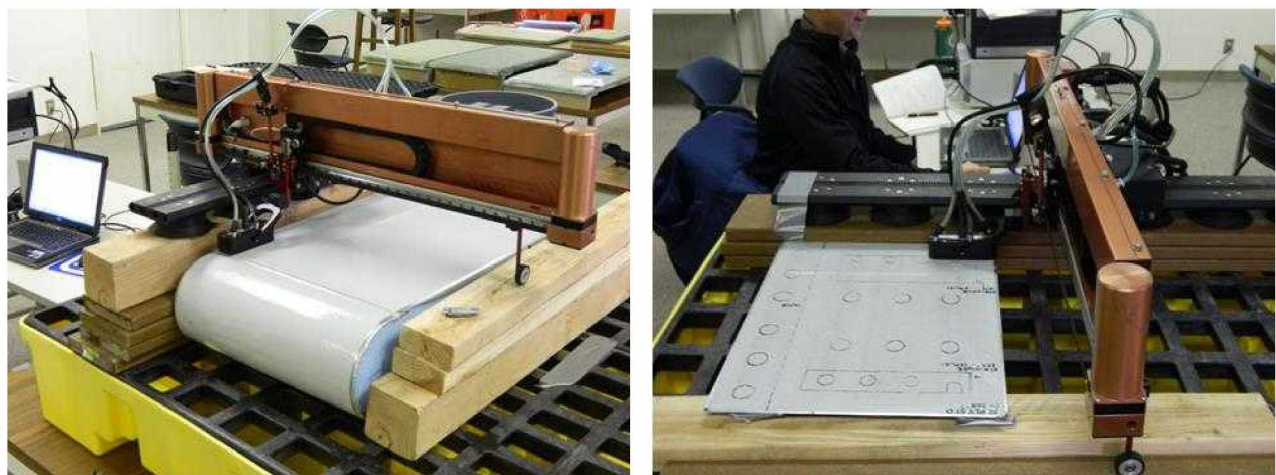


Figure 6-35: Deployment of MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment



Figure 6-36: Use of Different Linear Array Probes and Encoders to Inspect Various Test Specimen Geometries

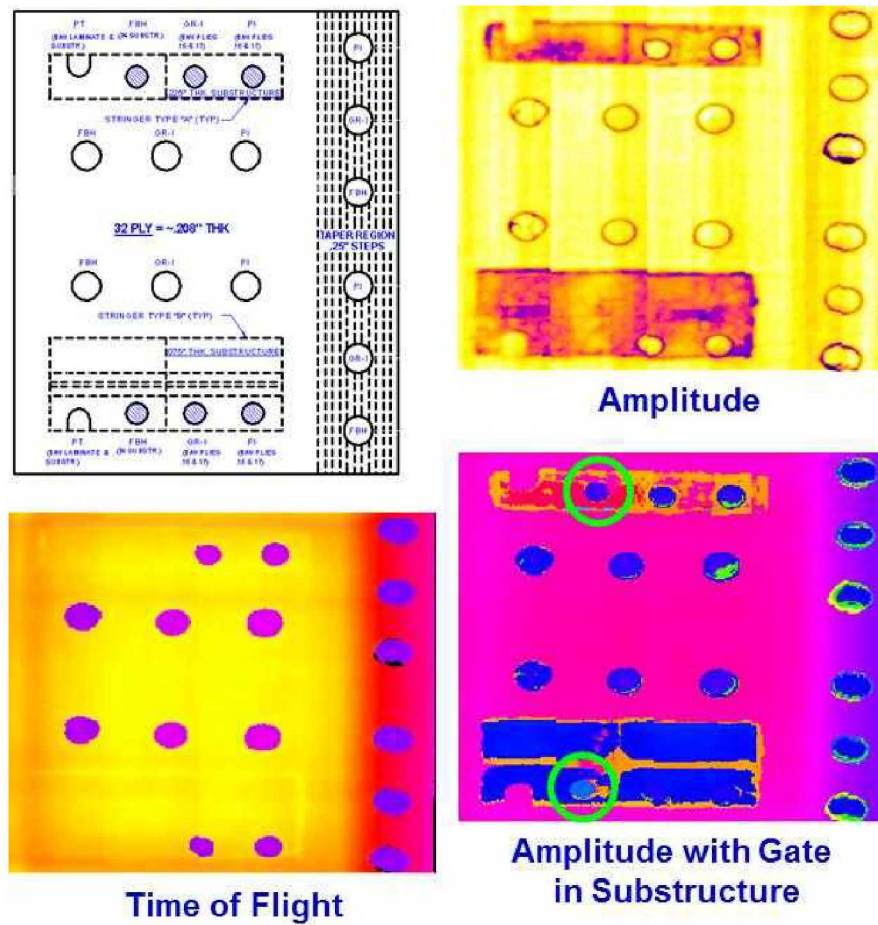


Figure 6-37: C-Scan Images Produced by MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Reference Panel

Figure 6-38 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The MAUS FlawInspecta linear array UT system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.884$ ". This is a 21% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125$ ") that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.393$ " and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ " (i.e. 100% flaw detection so min flaw size of 0.25" is upper bound for POD). Tables 6-31 and 6-32 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

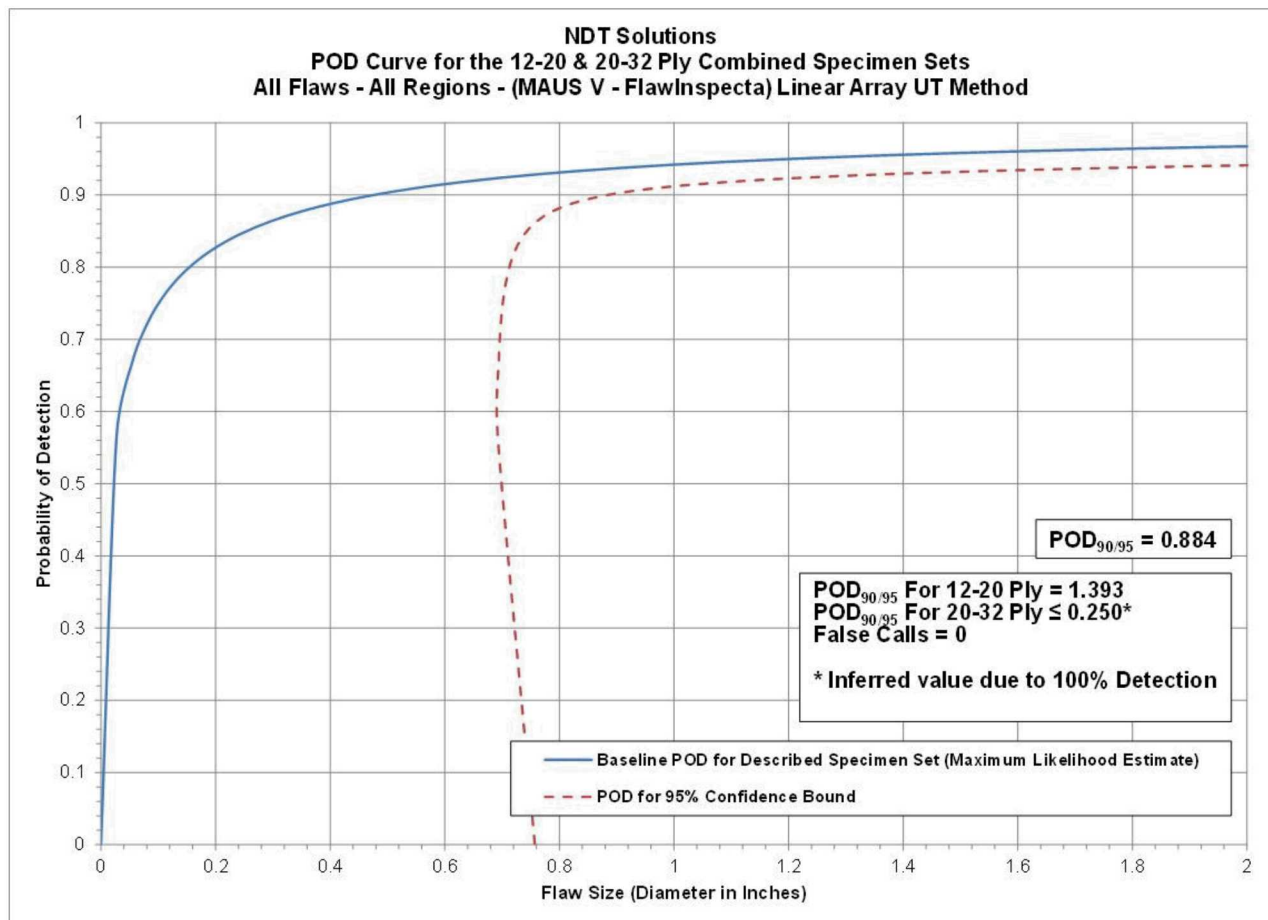


Figure 6-38: Probability of Detection Results for MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the MAUS FlawInspecta linear array UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-33 through 6-38 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate

Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 88% of all flaws were detected or 119 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-35). This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 82% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Thirteen percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 95% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-35 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 79% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Results - NDT Solutions, (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
1.139	88%	92%	86%	100%*	100%	100%	100%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			
* Inferred POD _{90/95} value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)							

Table 6-31: Flaw Detection Performance for MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - NDT Solutions, (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
0.884	0.775	1.120	92%	94%	91%	79%	100%	100%	100%
								False Calls = 0	

Table 6-32: Flaw Detection Performance for MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	83%
0.50	60%	30%	10%	0%	0%	0.50	91%
0.75	75%	13%	13%	0%	0%	0.75	80%
1.00	67%	25%	8%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	57%	43%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	70%	23%	7%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	92%

Table 6-33: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	75%
0.50	81%	14%	5%	0%	0%	0.50	88%
0.75	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	82%
1.00	95%	0%	5%	0%	0%	1.00	87%
1.50	78%	22%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	89%	8%	3%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	86%

Table 6-34: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	79%
0.50	74%	19%	6%	0%	0%	0.50	89%
0.75	88%	8%	4%	0%	0%	0.75	81%
1.00	84%	9%	6%	0%	0%	1.00	91%
1.50	69%	31%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	82%	13%	4%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	88%

Table 6-35: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

Table 6-38 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 100% of all flaws were detected or all 67 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 96% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Four percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 100% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-22 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 100% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	96%	4%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-36: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	86%	14%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-37: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

NDT Solutions - (MAUS V - FlawInspecta) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	91%	9%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	96%	4%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-38: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MAUS FlawInspecta Linear Array UT System

6.2.4 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by General Electric RotoArray

Figures 6-39 and 6-40 show the Phasor XS and RotoArray device with a phased array UT probe and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the GE 5 MHz, 64 element phased array probe. Figure 6-39 shows how the phased array UT transducer was deployed inside a rolling wheel arrangement. The rolling wheel included an encoder system to provide linear motion associated with each rolling scan and a water filled tube that provided a delay line between the transducer and the inspection surface. A sample C-scan image produced by the Phasor XS/RotoArray UT inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-41. The GE RotoArray was tested using the Phasor XS just prior to the RotoArray becoming commercially available. GE can now cable the RotoArray to work with an Olympus OmniScan unit but this was not tested during the implementation of this experiment.



Figure 6-39: General Electric Phasor XS with RotoArray PA-UT Device



Figure 6-40: Deployment of General Electric Phasor XS with RotoArray PA-UT System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

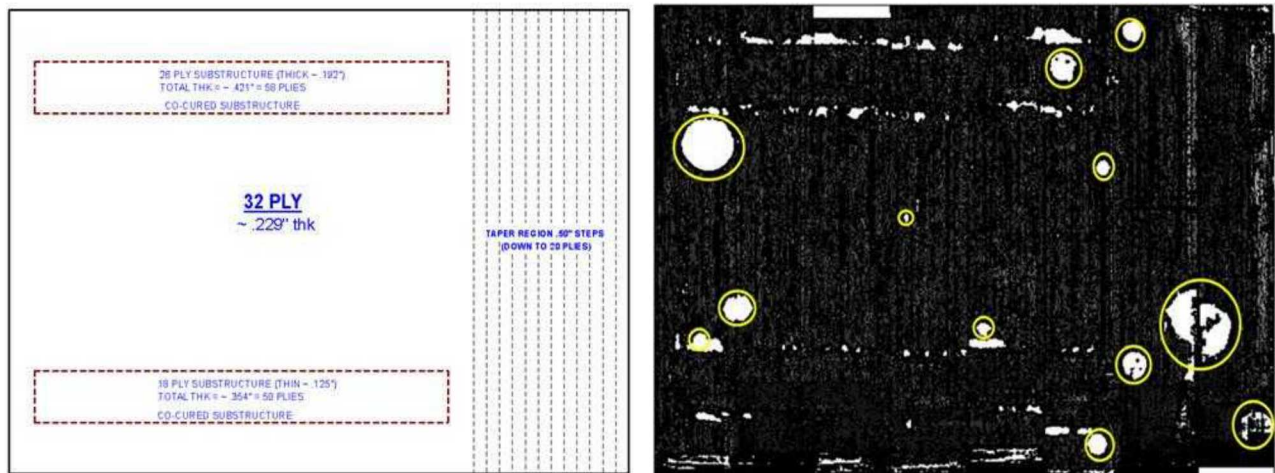


Figure 6-41: C-Scan Images Produced by Phasor XS with RotoArray PA-UT System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Reference Panel

Figure 6-42 contains the POD flaw detection curve for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The RotoArray device was not applied to the Thin Laminate Experiment so all results presented here are for the Thick Laminate Experiment only. The RotoArray phased array UT system produced a thick laminate $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. This represents a drop in performance of 265% versus the thick laminate results from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.823''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). Table 6-39 delineates the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions). It can be seen that while the RotoArray did well in detecting flaws in the constant thickness regions (92% detection) of the test specimens, it struggled in the regions of complex geometry (47% detection). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

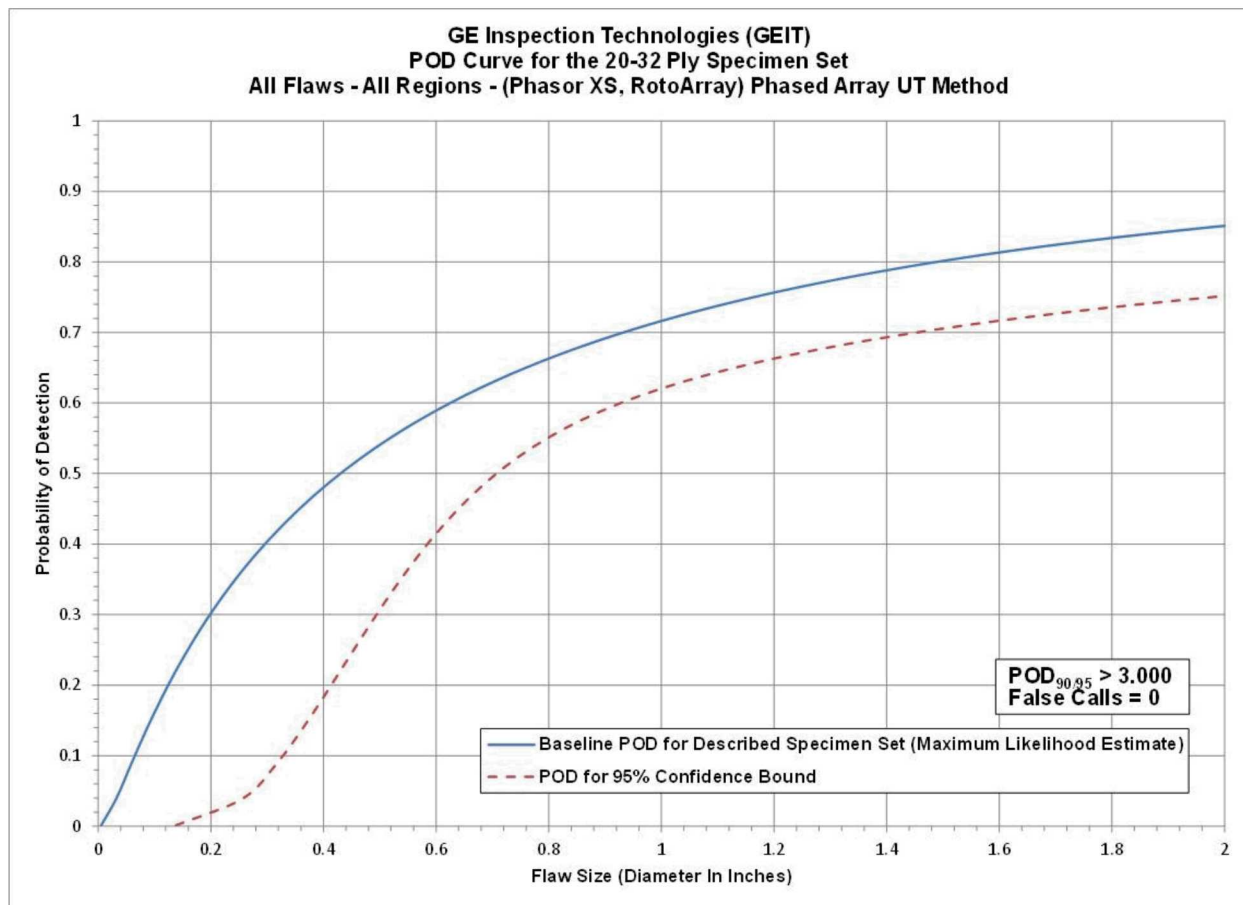


Figure 6-42: Probability of Detection Results for RotoArray PA-UT System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure – 20-32 Ply Specimen Set

Results - GE Inspection Technologies, (Phasor XS, RotoArray) Phased Array UT Method			
20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
> 3.000	63%	92%	47%
False Calls = 0			

Table 6-39: Flaw Detection Performance for RotoArray PA-UT System Separated into Thick Laminate Results

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the RotoArray device for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas

(sizing performance). Tables 6-40 through 6-42 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thick Laminate Experiment, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Table 6-42 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 63% of all flaws were detected or 42 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This represents a drop in performance versus the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 83% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Seven percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 90% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-42 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 36% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (a performance decrease vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

GE Inspection Technologies - (Phasor XS, RotoArray) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	50%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	0%	67%	0%	33%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	86%	9%	0%	5%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	92%

Table 6-40: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – RotoArray PA-UT System

GE Inspection Technologies - (Phasor XS, RotoArray) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	29%
0.50	75%	0%	0%	25%	0%	0.50	44%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	38%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	36%
1.50	60%	0%	0%	40%	0%	1.50	83%
2.00	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	80%	5%	0%	15%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	47%

Table 6-41: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – RotoArray PA-UT System

GE Inspection Technologies - (Phasor XS, RotoArray) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	36%
0.50	88%	0%	0%	13%	0%	0.50	62%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	64%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	59%
1.50	67%	0%	0%	33%	0%	1.50	86%
2.00	20%	60%	0%	20%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	83%	7%	0%	10%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	63%

Table 6-42: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – RotoArray PA-UT System

6.2.5 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe

Figure 6-43 shows the Sonatest RapidScan 2 system that includes the control and data acquisition hardware along with the Sonatest Array WheelProbe (linear array UT wheel probe). Figure 6-44 shows the Sonatest Array WheelProbe connected to the Olympus OmniScan device and the deployment of this equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Figure 6-43 shows how the linear array UT transducer was deployed inside a 50 mm diameter rolling wheel arrangement. The rolling wheel included an encoder system to provide linear motion associated with each rolling scan and a water filled tube that provided a delay line between the transducer and the inspection surface. Coupling between the array wheel probe and the inspection surface was produced by a thin film of water or a water-UT couplant mixture that was sprayed on the surface. Inspections for the POD experiment were completed with the Sonatest 5 MHz, 64 element Array WheelProbe connected to the OmniScan readout unit. The Sonatest RapidScan 2 ultrasonic inspection system, pictured in Figure 6-43, was only applied to the SLE feedback specimens. As a result, there are no POD levels or flaw detection percentages available for RapidScan 2 comparisons with the other advanced NDI methods.



Figure 6-43: Sonatest RapidScan 2 and Linear Array WheelProbe



Figure 6-44: Deployment of Sonatest UT Linear ArrayProbe with OmniScan Unit on the Solid Laminate POD Experiment

A sample C-scan image produced from the RapidScan 2 and rolling wheel array is shown in Figure 6-45. Sample C-scan images produced from the inspection of the SLE test specimens by the Sonatest Array WheelProbe connected to the OmniScan unit are shown in Figure 6-46. Both amplitude and time-of-flight images were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Note the substructure flaws imaged in the C-scans generated by gates set for deeper flaw detection.

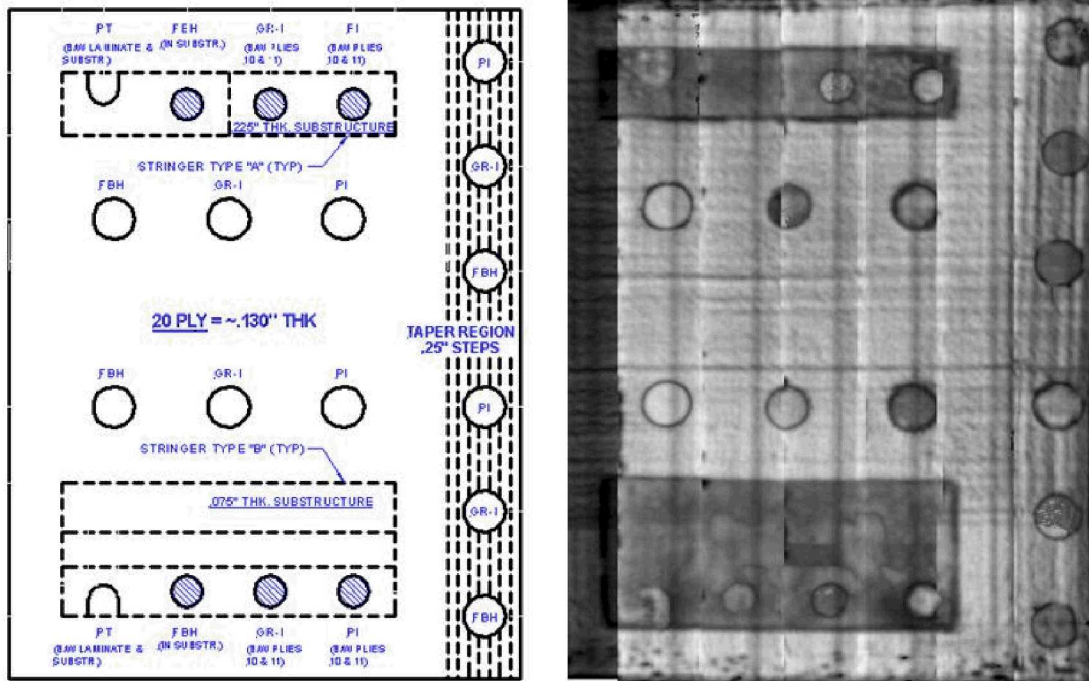


Figure 6-45: C-Scan Images Produced by RapidScan 2 Linear Array UT System Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel

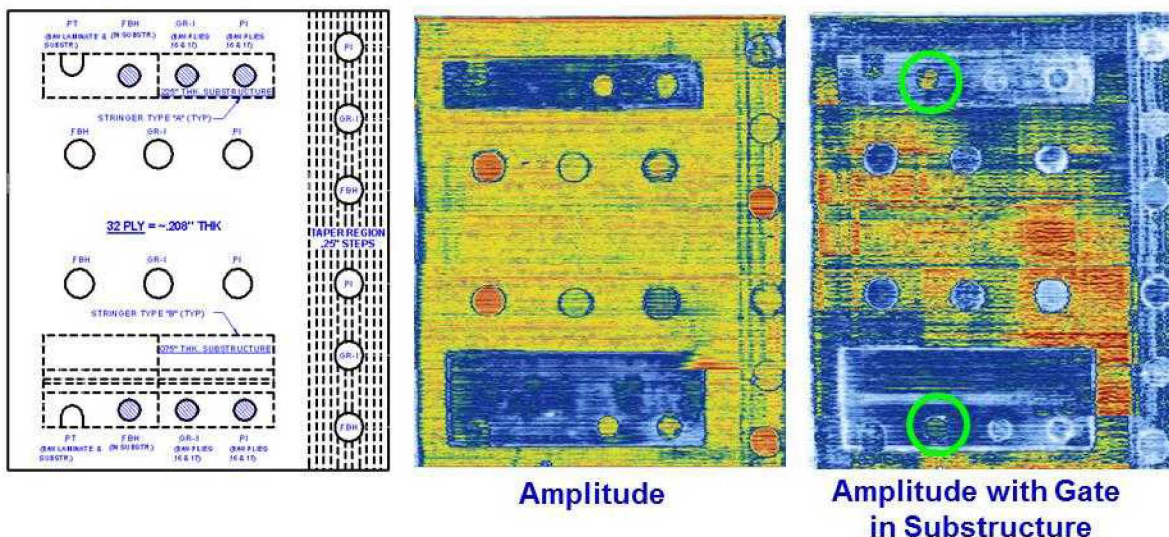


Figure 6-46: C-Scan Images Produced by the Inspection of the SLE 32 Ply Reference Panel Using the Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe Connected to the OmniScan Device

The Sonatest Array WheelProbe was not applied to the Thin Laminate Experiment so all results presented here are for the Thick Laminate Experiment only. A POD flaw detection curve for the Array WheelProbe/OmniScan applied to the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment could not be produced because the Sonatest Array WheelProbe method detected all flaws in every test specimen. Thus, the Sonatest Array WheelProbe UT system with OmniScan readout produced a thick laminate $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25''$ (i.e. 100% flaw detection so min flaw size of 0.25'' is upper bound for POD). This is over a 70% improvement versus the thick laminate results from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.823''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). Table 6-43 delineates the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions). It can be seen that while the Sonatest Array WheelProbe did well in detecting flaws in both the constant thickness regions (100% detection) of the test specimens and in the regions of complex geometry (100% detection). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

Results - Sandia National Labs, (OmniScan, Sonatest Wheel Probe) Linear Array UT Method			
20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
100%*	100%	100%	100%
False Calls = 0			
* Inferred POD _[90/95] value is $\leq 0.25''$ diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)			

Table 6-43: Flaw Detection Performance for Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe Separated into Thick Laminate Results

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the Sonatest Array WheelProbe UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-44 through 6-46 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thick Laminate Experiment, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions.

Table 6-46 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 100% of all flaws were detected or all 67 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 100% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-46 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2'' flaws were detected, while on the

smaller side, 100% of the 0.25” flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25” flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Sandia National Labs - (OmniScan, Sonatest Wheel Probe) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-44: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe

Sandia National Labs - (OmniScan, Sonatest Wheel Probe) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-45: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe

Sandia National Labs - (OmniScan, Sonatest Wheel Probe) Linear Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-46: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – Sonatest Linear Array WheelProbe

6.3 Inspection Performance Results for Laser Ultrasonics

6.3.1 Results for Test Specimens Inspected by iPhoton iPlus Laser Ultrasonic System

Figures 6-47 to 6-49 show the iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System device and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the iPhoton iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic inspection device connected to a transducer that could operate in the 0.5 MHz – 20 MHz range. An articulating robot system was used to move and align the laser UT head around the test specimens. The set up for each flat panel only took a few minutes for the first panel of each type. The inspector placed the panel on the floor and used the laser to create a rectangular pattern around the panel to determine the scan area, prior to the first scan. One of the unique features of the iPhoton system is that you can teach the system to inspect complex parts for use on subsequent, similar inspections. Figure 6-49 shows how the inspector set up a bullnose specimen by teaching the system to make five different scans; one for the top, one for bottom and three for the bullnose itself. This took about an hour to program, however, once this movement pattern was properly programmed, it only took two minutes to actually scan each bullnose specimen.

Sample C-scan images produced from the iPLUS laser ultrasonic inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-50. Both amplitude and time-of-flight images were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Note the substructure flaws imaged in the C-scans generated by gates set for deeper flaw detection. The slicer C-scan shown in Figure 6-50 is a flaw detection tool in the iPLUS software that consists of producing a C-scan image from the amplitudes of all A-scans at a particular point in time. This allows for very specific data to be highlighted such that damage at specific depths can be identified.



Figure 6-47: iPhoton Laser Ultrasonic Gantry-Based Inspection System



Figure 6-48: Deployment of iPhoton Laser Ultrasonic System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

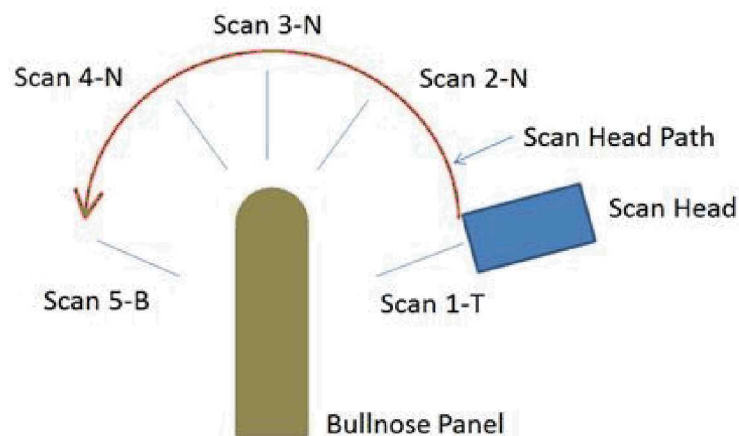


Figure 6-49: Use of Scan Pattern Teaching to Automate the Scans of Parts with iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Robot

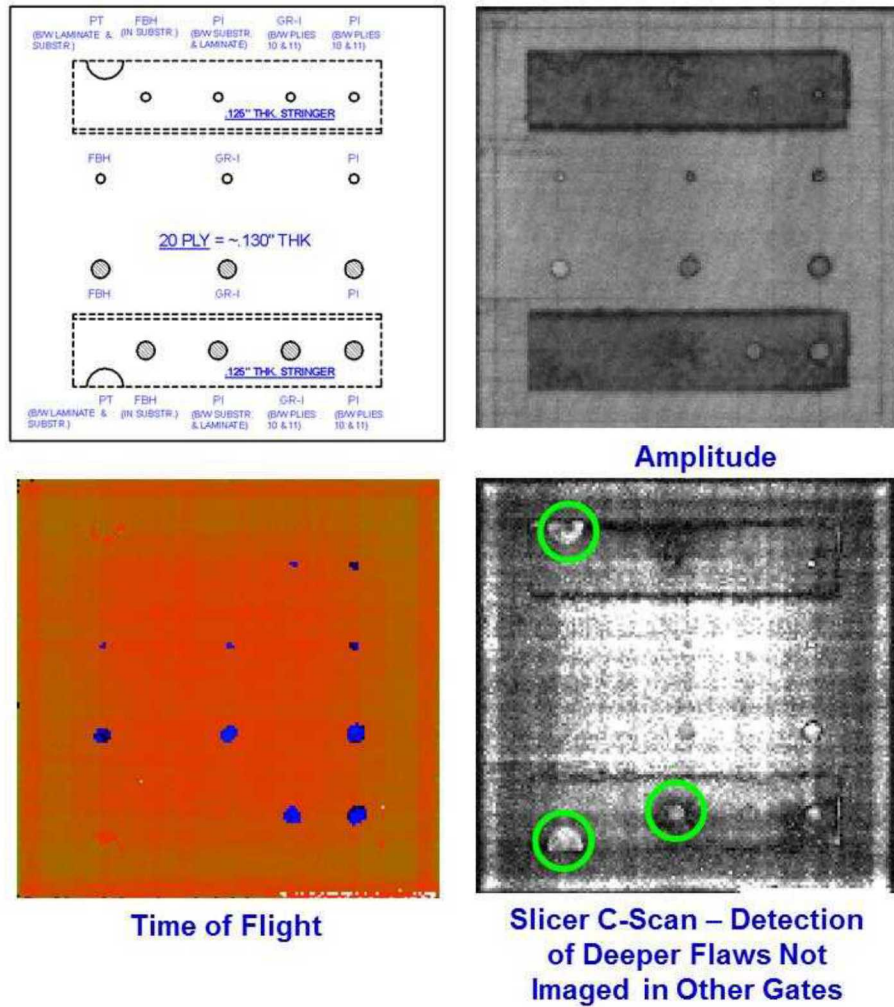
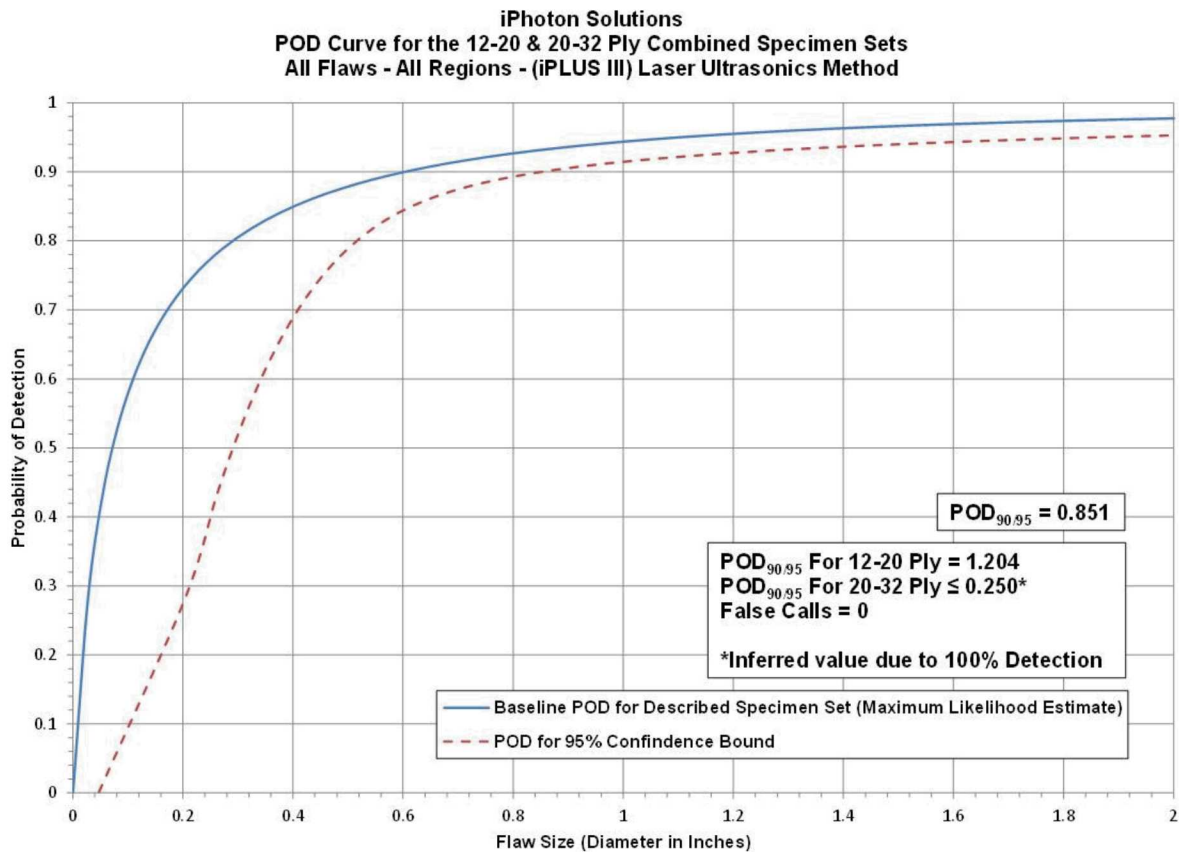


Figure 6-50: C-Scan Images Produced by iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel

Figure 6-51 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The iPLUS laser ultrasonic system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.851''$. This is a 24% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.204''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25''$ (i.e. 100% flaw detection so min flaw size of 0.25'' is the upper bound for POD). Tables 6-47 and 6-48 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.



**Figure 6-51: Probability of Detection Results for iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System
Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure**

Results - iPhoton Solutions, (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
1.204	86%	100%	78%	100%*	100%	100%	100%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			
* Inferred POD _{90/95} value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)							

**Table 6-47: Flaw Detection Performance for iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System
Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results**

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - iPhoton Solutions, (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
0.851	100%*	1.311	91%	100%	85%	67%	100%	100%	100%
* Inferred POD90/95 value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)								False Calls = 0	

Table 6-48: Flaw Detection Performance for iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the iPLUS laser ultrasonic method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-49 through 6-54 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions.

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	91%	9%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	92%	8%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	96%	4%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-49: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 86% of all flaws were detected or 116 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-51). This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 97% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Three percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 100% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100%

accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-51 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2” flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 71% of the 0.25” flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25” flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	50%
0.50	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	71%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	73%
1.00	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	91%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	97%	3%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	78%

Table 6-50: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	71%
0.50	93%	7%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	80%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	81%
1.00	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	94%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	97%	3%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	86%

Table 6-51: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

Table 6-54 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 100% of all flaws were detected or all 67 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was

observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 94% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Six percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 100% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-54 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 100% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	83%	17%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	92%	8%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-52: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	82%	18%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	95%	5%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-53: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

iPhoton Solutions - (iPLUS III) Laser Ultrasonics Method Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	93%	7%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	82%	18%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	94%	6%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-54: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic System

The final POD curves in Figure 6-52 highlights the human factors issues associated with any inspection that still involves human interpretation of data. This second, improved POD curve was generated by results obtained when the inspector revisited the same iPLUS data but spent additional time to study potential flaws in the images. The iPLUS system possesses full waveform data capture capability, which facilitated the ease of a second data review of both A-scan and C-scan data. When the data was analyzed a second time, it was observed that the POD value improved by 25% to an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.641$ ". This new POD level is a 43% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125$ "). This indicates that flaw detection, and potentially reductions in false calls, can be improved through the use of a second, follow-on inspector to aid in data interpretation.

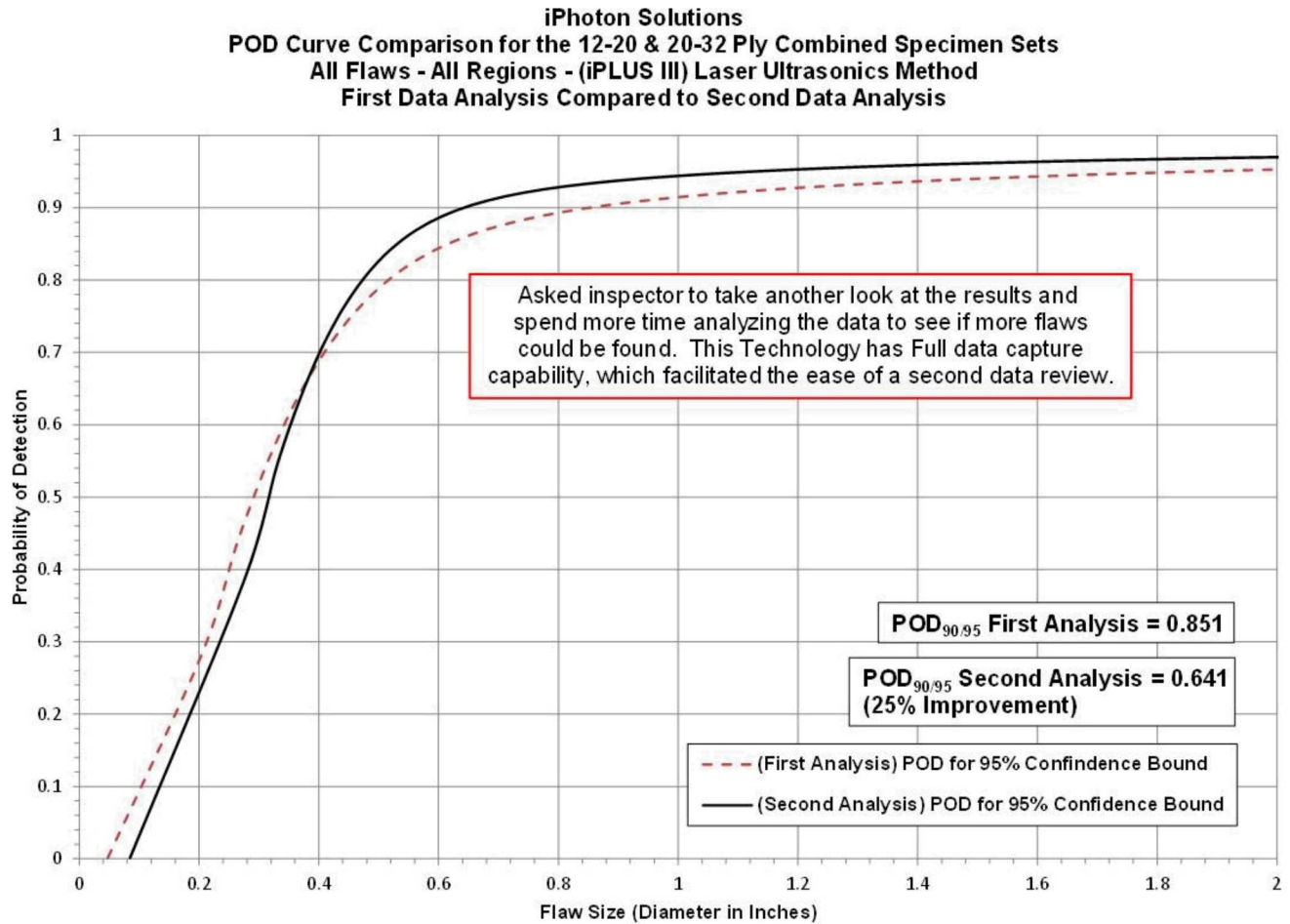


Figure 6-52: Probability of Detection Improvements Stemming from a Second Analysis of iPLUS Laser Ultrasonic Data

6.4 Inspection Performance Results for Video-Based Ultrasonics

6.4.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Imperium AcoustoCam

Figures 6-53 to 6-55 show the AcoustoCam device and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Figure 6-55 reveals an issue associated with device accessibility within the spar cap channel region of the bullnose specimens. The size of the AcoustoCam imaging camera did not allow for full coverage of the inspection surface in this region. Inspections were completed with the Imperium AcoustoCam video-based (Digital Acoustic Video) ultrasonic inspection system where the single element transducer could operate in the 500 KHz – 7.5 MHz range. The video set-up possessed a resolution of 120 X 120 pixels (14,400 pixels per image). Sample ultrasonic images and A-scan data produced from the AcoustoCam video-based ultrasonic inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-56. Amplitude images and A-scan data were used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens.

Figures 6-57 and 6-58 contain sample C-scan images produced by the AcoustoCam system. The new AcoustoCam FirstMap software takes a series of individual, small images (see Figure 6-56) and connects them in the proper order to generate real-time images of large inspection areas that are easier to read, more precise and offer a greater level of detail. The built in encoder and FirstMap software were not available at the time of the experiment.



Figure 6-53: Imperium AcoustoCam Video-Based UT Device



Figure 6-54: Deployment of AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment



Figure 6-55: Photos Showing Some Restriction in AcoustoCam Movement Within the Confined Spaces Present on Bullnose Specimens (Spar Cap Channel Region)

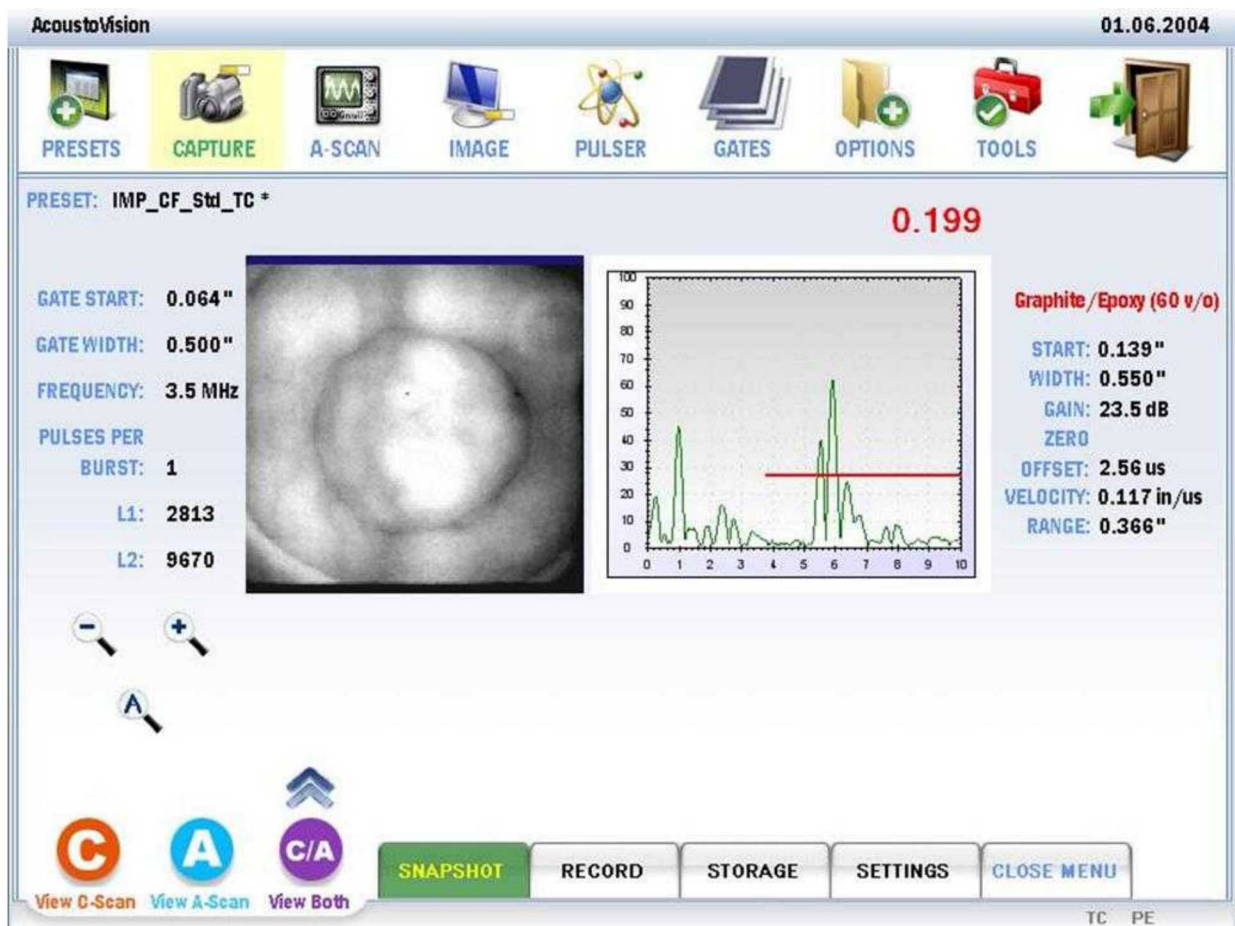


Figure 6-56: Typical UT Image and A-scan Display Produced by AcoustoCam Showing an Individual Flaw – Small Images Can Be Placed into a Full 2-D C-scan Using FirstMap Software

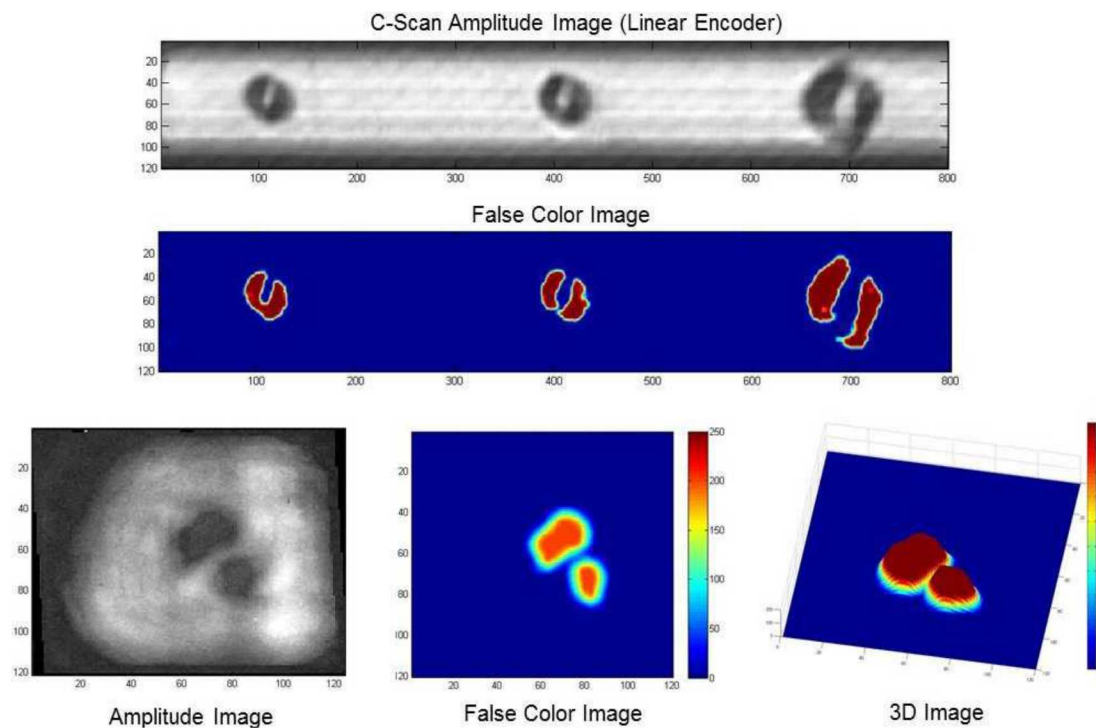


Figure 6-57: Image Display Options in AcoustoCam UT System

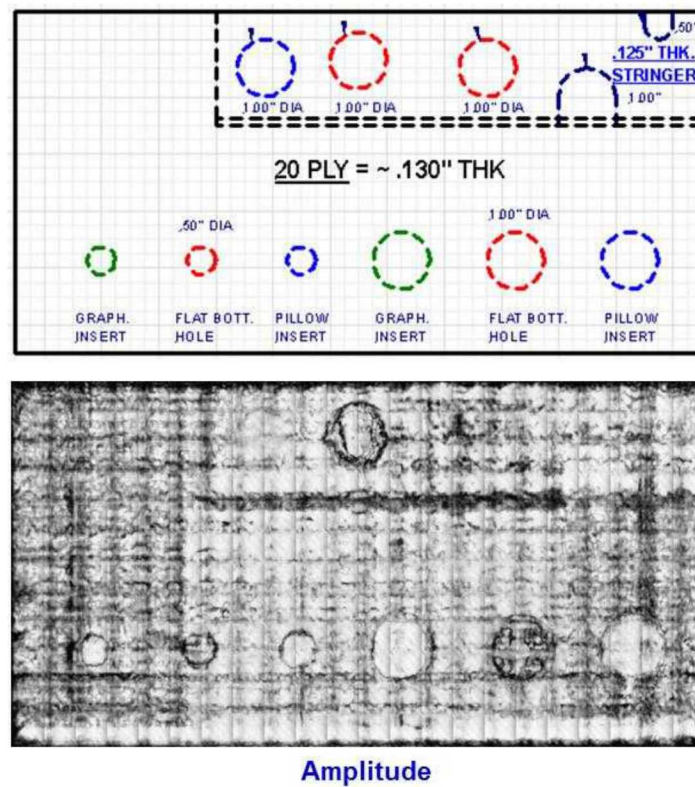


Figure 6-58: C-Scan Images Produced by AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel – Series of Individual Images Are Placed into Full 2-D C-scan Using FirstMap Software

Figure 6-59 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The AcoustoCam video-based ultrasonic inspection system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.118''$. This is a 1% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.422''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25''$ (i.e. 100% flaw detection so min flaw size of 0.25'' is upper bound for POD). Tables 6-55 and 6-56 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

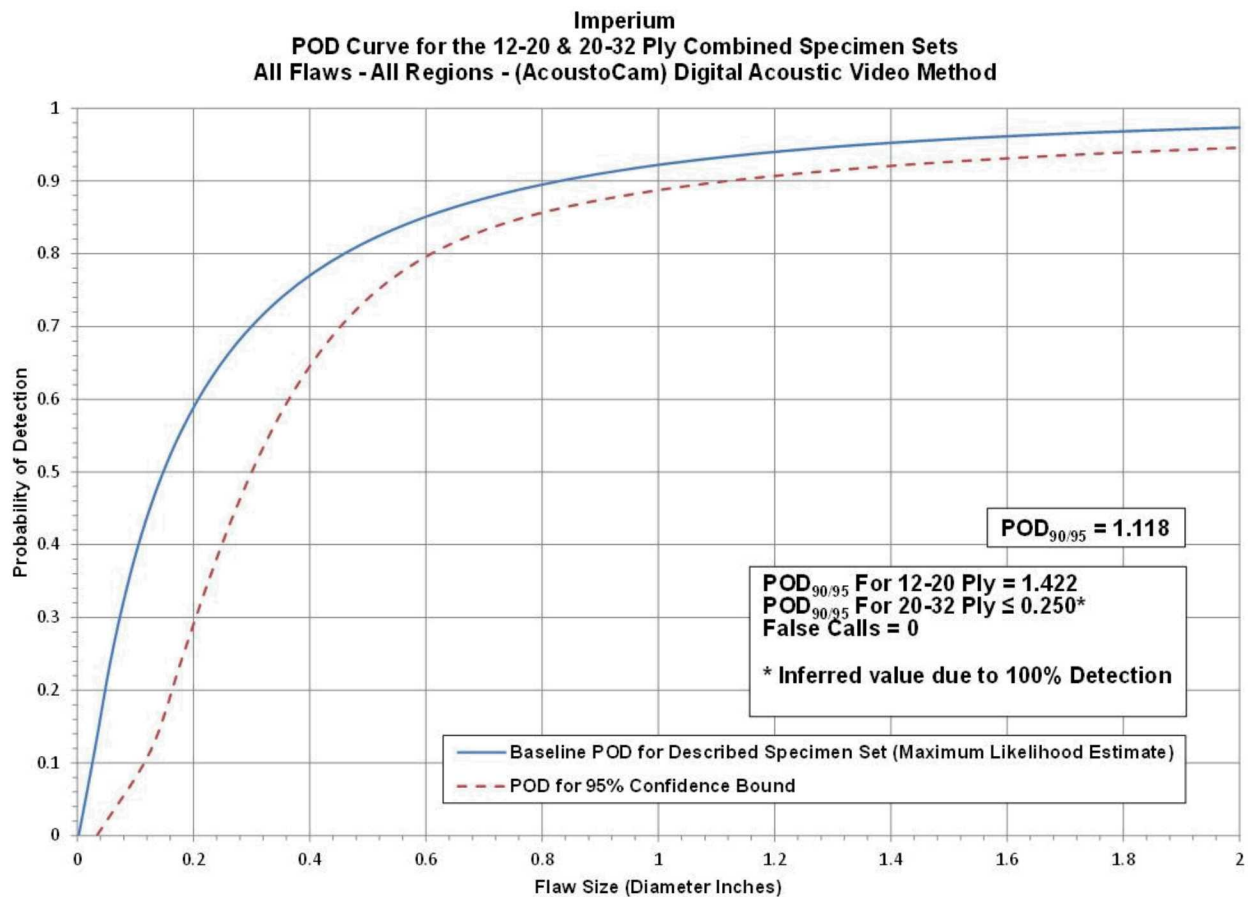


Figure 6-59: Probability of Detection Results for AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - Imperium, (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
1.422	79%	90%	74%	100%*	100%	100%	100%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			
* Inferred POD _{90/95} value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)							

Table 6-55: Flaw Detection Performance for AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - Imperium, (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
1.118	97%	1.376	86%	93%	82%	64%	100%	96%	89%
									False Calls = 0

Table 6-56: Flaw Detection Performance for AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the AcoustoCam video-based UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-57 through 6-62 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 79% of all flaws were detected or 107 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-59). This is a very slight improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 74% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Twelve percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 86% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-59 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 50% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	75%	0%	0%	0%	25%	0.25	67%
0.50	64%	0%	18%	18%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	75%	13%	13%	0%	0%	0.75	80%
1.00	91%	0%	9%	0%	0%	1.00	92%
1.50	71%	29%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	77%	7%	9%	5%	2%	Overall Flaw Detection	90%

Table 6-57: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	67%	0%	0%	33%	0%	0.25	38%
0.50	77%	8%	8%	0%	8%	0.50	54%
0.75	74%	21%	5%	0%	0%	0.75	86%
1.00	79%	16%	0%	0%	5%	1.00	83%
1.50	56%	11%	22%	0%	11%	1.50	100%
2.00	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	72%	16%	6%	2%	5%	Overall Flaw Detection	74%

Table 6-58: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	71%	0%	0%	14%	14%	0.25	50%
0.50	71%	4%	13%	8%	4%	0.50	69%
0.75	74%	19%	7%	0%	0%	0.75	84%
1.00	83%	10%	3%	0%	3%	1.00	86%
1.50	63%	19%	13%	0%	6%	1.50	100%
2.00	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	74%	12%	7%	3%	4%	Overall Flaw Detection	79%

Table 6-59: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System

Table 6-62 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 100% of all flaws were detected or all 67 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 51% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Twenty-seven percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 78% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-62 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 100% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	25%	0%	0%	25%	50%	0.25	100%
0.50	50%	25%	25%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	50%	17%	33%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	50%	21%	17%	4%	8%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-60: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – RapidScan PA-UT System

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	57%	29%	0%	0%	14%	0.25	100%
0.50	56%	22%	0%	11%	11%	0.50	100%
0.75	50%	25%	25%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	36%	36%	27%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	51%	30%	12%	2%	5%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-61: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System

Imperium - (AcoustoCam) Digital Acoustic Video Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	45%	18%	0%	9%	27%	0.25	100%
0.50	54%	23%	8%	8%	8%	0.50	100%
0.75	50%	21%	29%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	47%	35%	18%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	43%	43%	14%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	80%	20%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	51%	27%	13%	3%	6%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-62: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – AcoustoCam Video-Based UT System

6.4.2 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by DolphiTech DolphiCam

Figures 6-60 and 6-61 show the DolphiCam device and the deployment of the equipment on various composite test specimens. Inspections were completed with the DolphiTech DolphiCam video-based ultrasonic inspection system containing a 16,000 element UT transducer, ranging from 2-6 MHz. Sample ultrasonic images, A-scan and B-scan data produced from the DolphiCam video-based ultrasonic inspection of various test specimens are shown in Figure 6-62 to 6-65. C-scans produced from different types of composite laminate damage are shown in these figures. Amplitude, time-of-flight and B-scan images are used to detect the hidden flaws and various gates were also used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. Figure 6-65 shows a series of individual damage images that have been arranged to produce an overall 2-dimensional map of a SLE feedback test panel. The DolphiCam now has software to automate this placement of individual images into an overall C-scan, however, the software was not available for testing when DolphiTech participated in this Solid Laminate POD Experiment.

The DolphiCam video-based ultrasonic inspection system was only applied to the SLE feedback specimens and some of the AANC composite impact panels. As a result, there are no POD levels or flaw detection percentages available for comparison with the other advanced NDI methods.



Figure 6-60: DolphiTech DolphiCam Video-Based UT Device

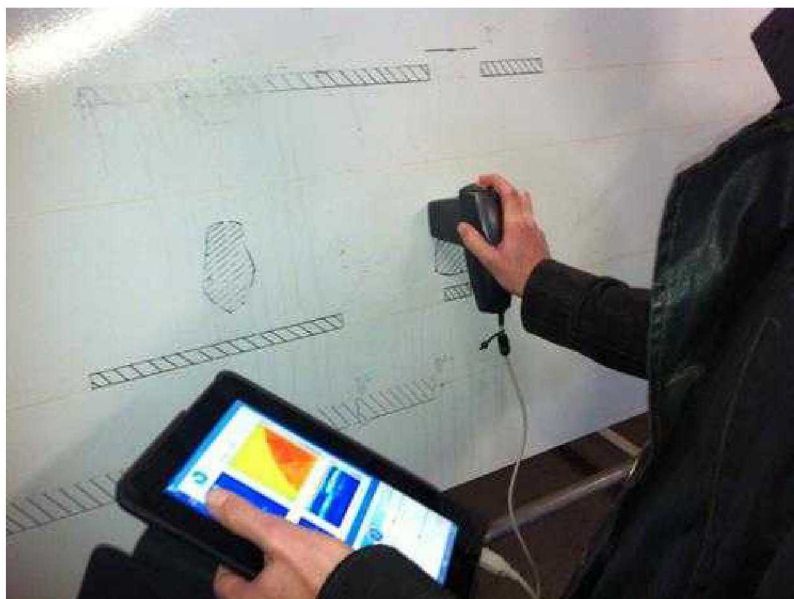


Figure 6-61: Deployment of DolphiCam Video-Based UT System on Full-Scale Composite Panel – Image of Impact Damage on Screen

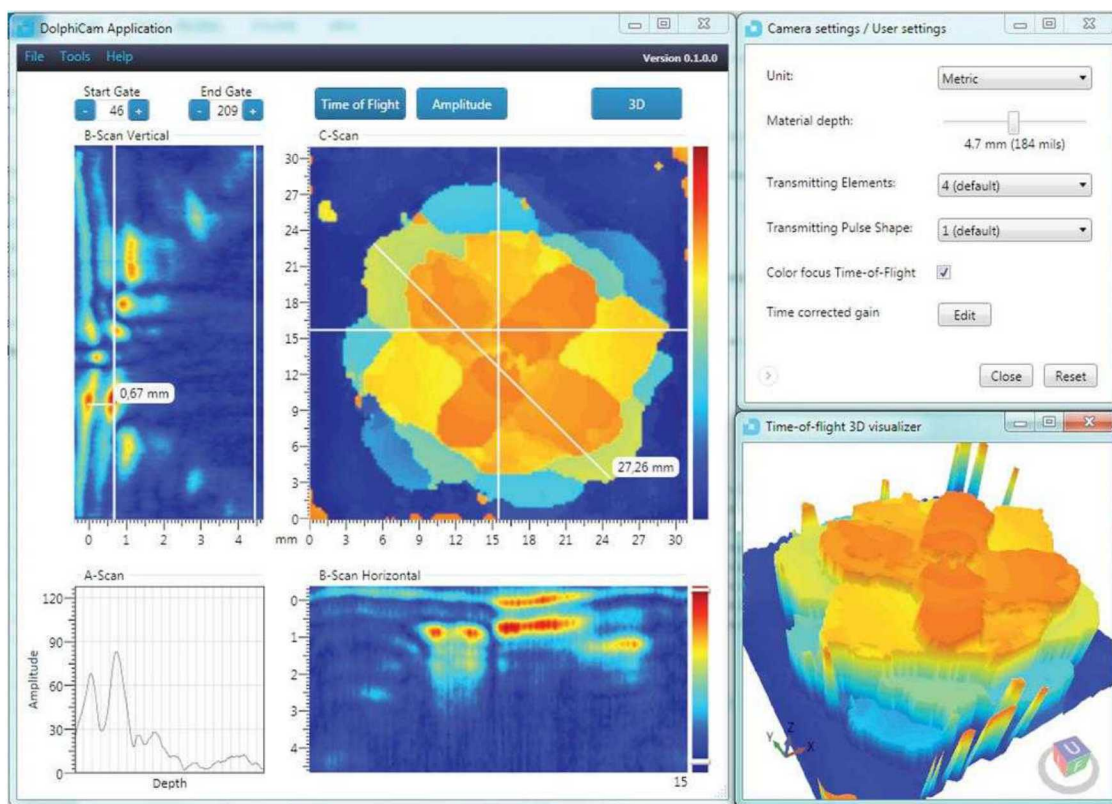


Figure 6-62: Typical UT Image and A-scan Display Produced by DolphiCam Showing an Individual Flaw

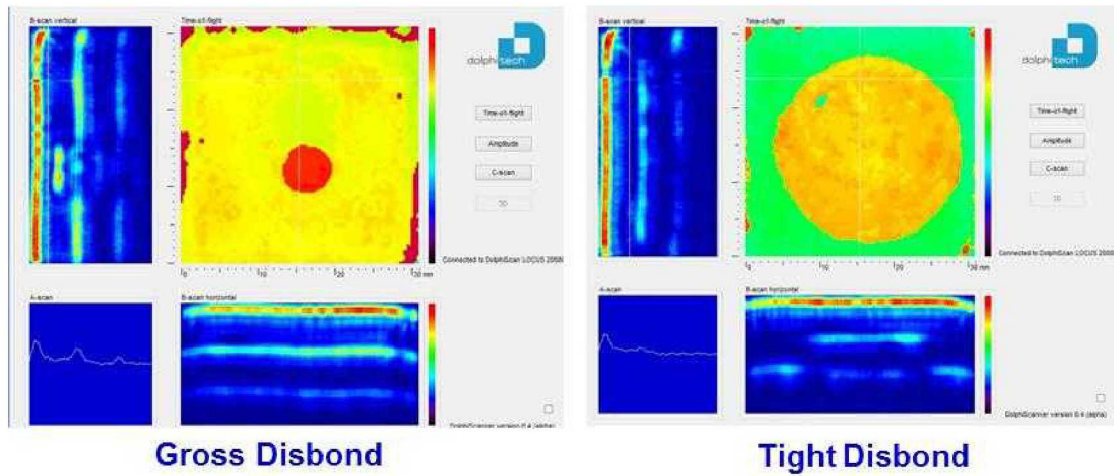


Figure 6-63: Image Displays Produced by DolphiCam UT System for Different Flaw Types

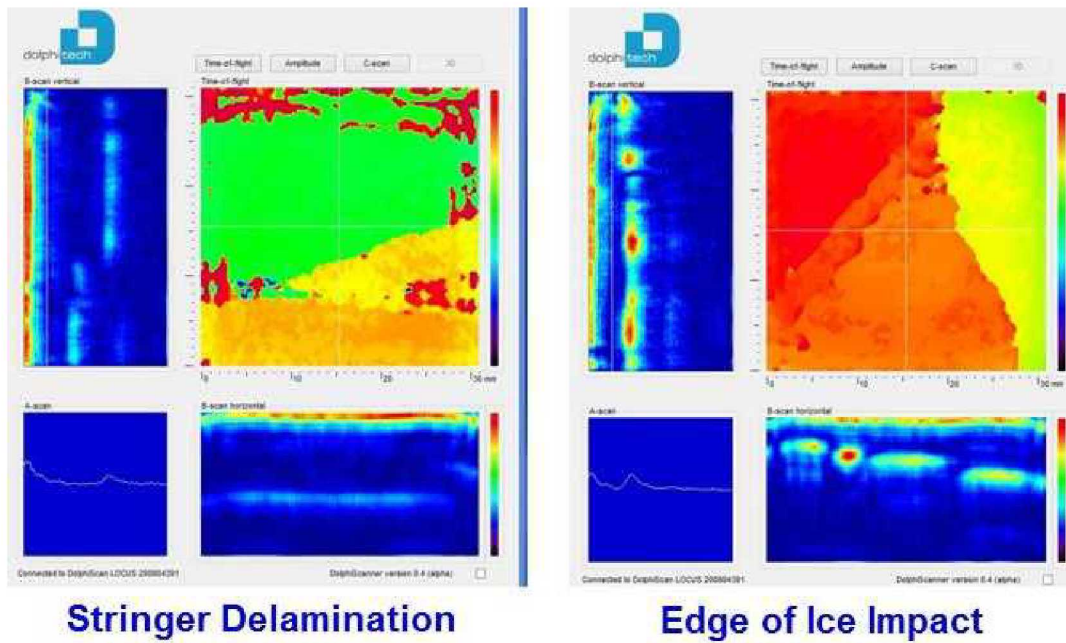


Figure 6-64: Image Displays Produced by DolphiCam UT System for Delamination and Impact Damage

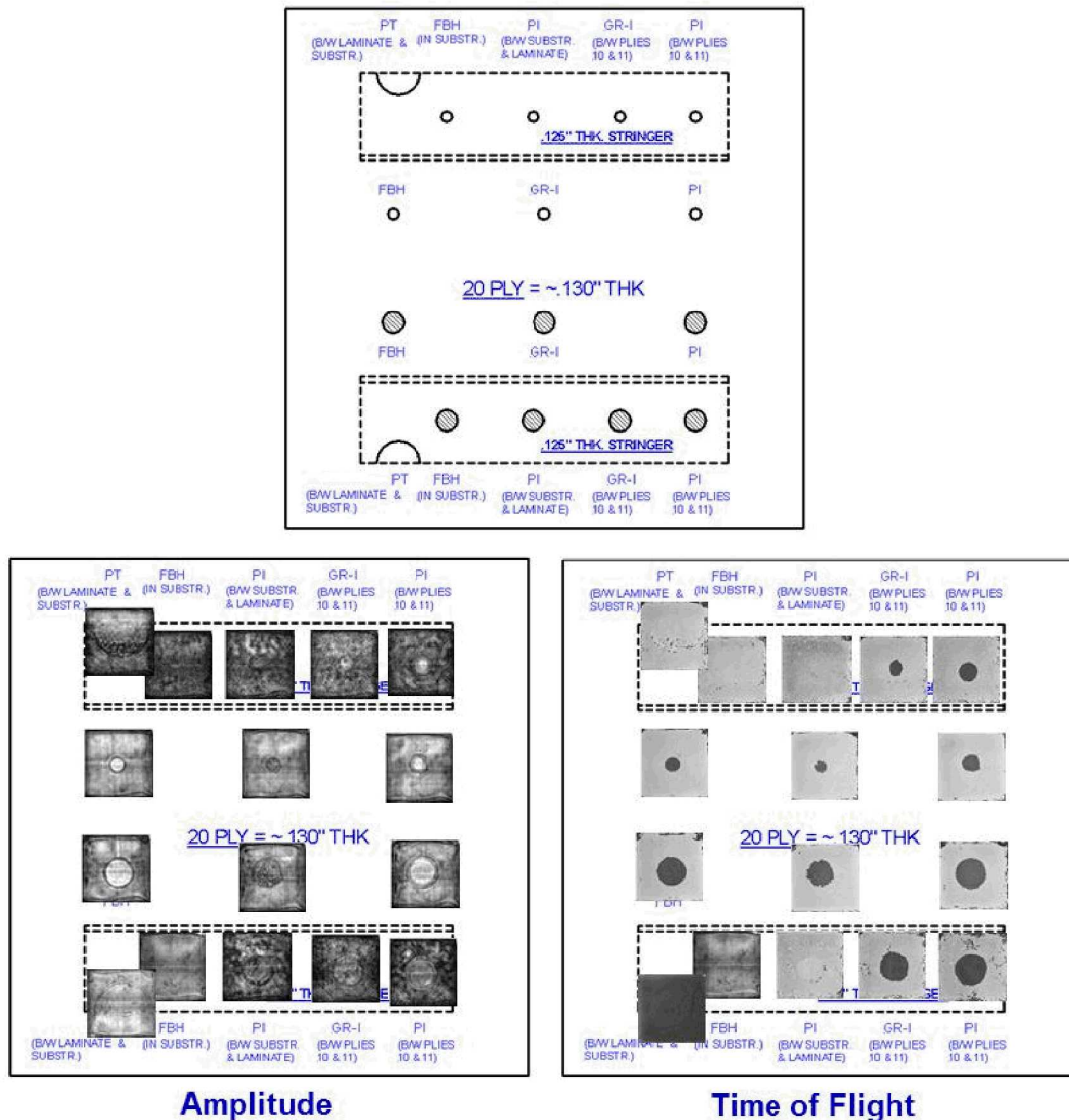


Figure 6-65: Flaw Images Produced by DolphiCam Video-Based UT System Inspection of SLE 20 Ply Reference Panel

6.5 Inspection Performance Results for Microwave

6.5.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Evisive Microwave

Figures 6-66 and 6-67 show the Evisive microwave device and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the Evisive microwave inspection device connected to a 24 GHz probe. Sample A-scan and C-scan data produced from the Evisive microwave inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-68. As discussed in Chapter 3, the microwave inspection method requires specific material properties in order to be successful in generate the signals needed for identifying damage in a component. The carbon fiber composite material did not have the acceptable dielectric properties needed for the propagation of the Evisive scan waves. Thus, no productive scans could be obtained from the microwave

inspection method. Figure 6-68 shows the lack of detail in the microwave scan which does not make it possible to differentiate the flaws from the unflawed regions. As a result, there are no POD levels or flaw detection percentages available for comparison with the other advanced NDI methods.

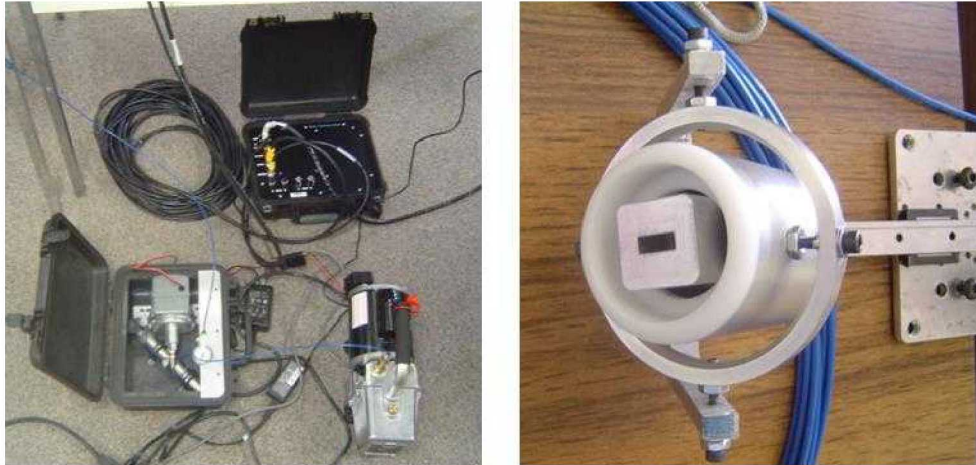


Figure 6-66: Evisive Microwave Device

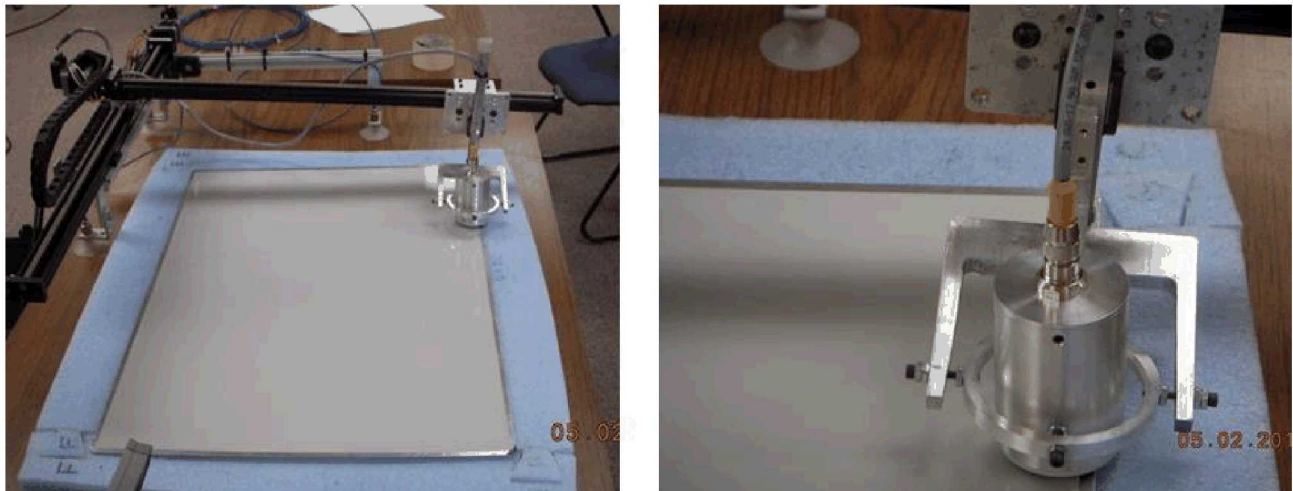


Figure 6-67: Deployment of Evisive Microwave System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

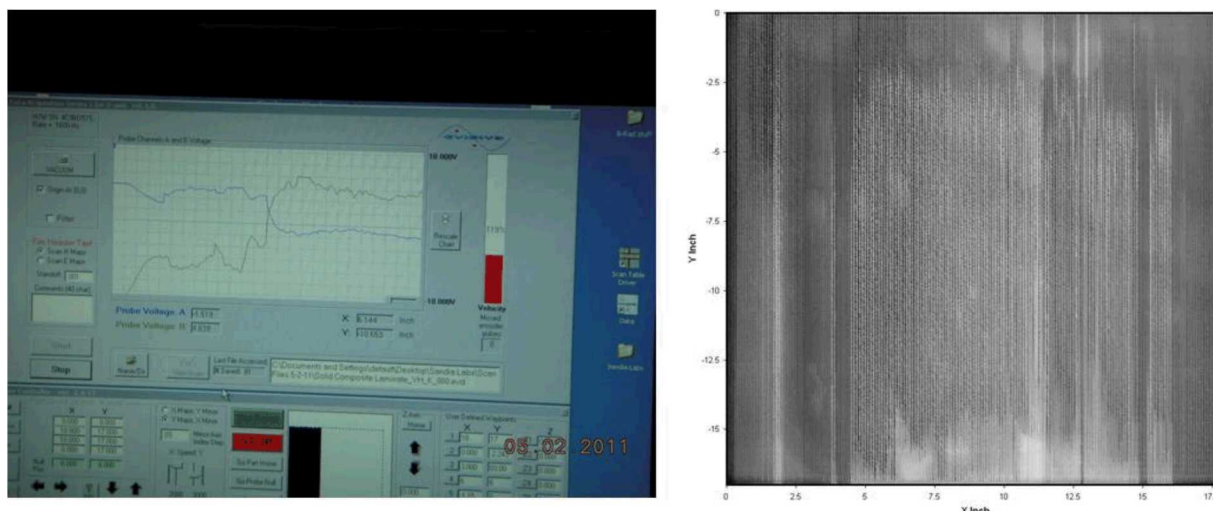


Figure 6-68: Typical A-scan Display Sample Image Produced by Evisive Microwave System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

6.6 Inspection Performance Results for Shearography

6.6.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Laser Technology Inc. Shearography

Figures 6-69 shows the LTI Shearography System (5100 HD) and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the 5100 HD shearography inspection device that included a LTI-5100 HD camera, a TES-200 Thermal Excitation System and a 150 mW green laser. Sample shearography images produced from the 5100 HD shearography inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figures 6-70 and 6-71. Changes in surface deformation, and associated shading of the images, were used to detect the hidden flaws. Substructure flaws must manifest themselves as changes (anomalies) in out-of-plane deformation on the surface of the part in order to be detected by shearography. As a result, thick and stiff structures are a challenge for the shearography inspection method. Small flaws, especially those embedded deep within a structure, are difficult to image as their presence has less of an effect on surface deformations.



Figure 6-69: Deployment of LTI Shearography System (5100 HD) on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

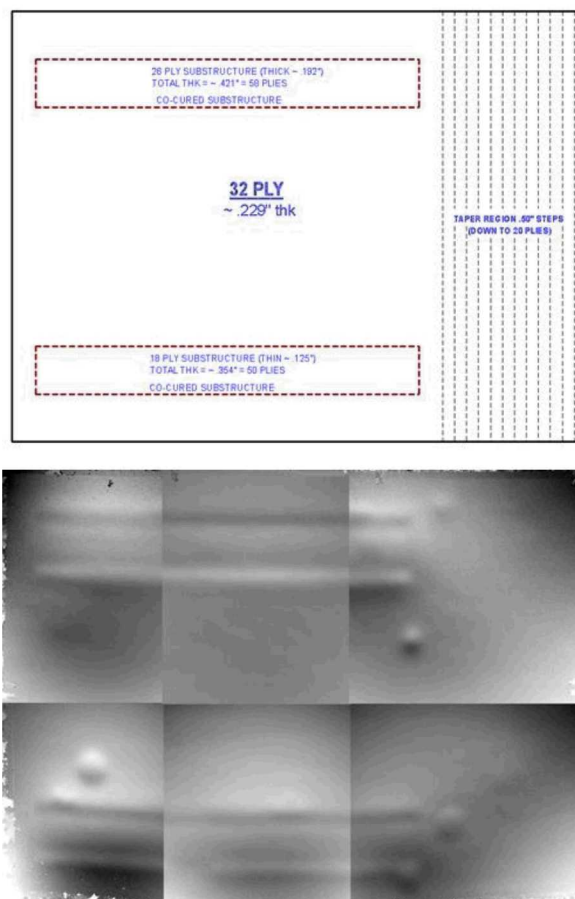
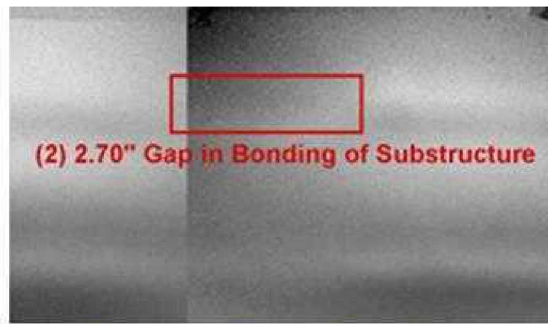
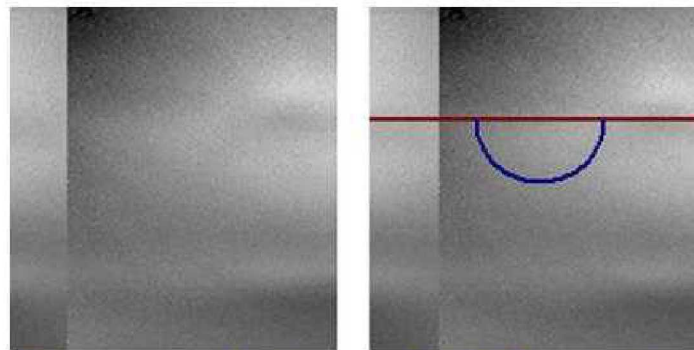


Figure 6-70: Shearography Images Produced by LTI Shearography System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Laminate Test Panel



**Sample Flaw Called by
Shearography System**



**Shearography Image (left) Containing
Undetected Flaw (indicated on right)**

**Figure 6-71: Shearography Images Produced by LTI Shearography System Showing
Flaw Detection and Missed Flaws**

Figure 6-72 contains the POD flaw detection curve for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The 5100 HD shearography device was not applied to the Thin Laminate Experiment so all results presented here are for the Thick Laminate Experiment only. The 5100 HD shearography system produced a thick laminate $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ". This represents a drop in performance of 265% versus the thick laminate results from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.823$ ") that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). Table 6-63 delineates the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions). It can be seen that the 5100 HD shearography did slightly better detecting flaws in the constant thickness regions (42% detection) of the test specimens, than in the regions of complex geometry (33% detection), although both were worse performance numbers than those produced by conventional pulse-echo UT. No flaws in the substructure were detected, although many (5 out of 6) of the disbonds (pull-tabs) at the 32 ply level were detected. No flat bottom hole disbonds (FBH), graphoil insert disbonds (GR-I) or pillow insert disbonds (PI) were detected. This table also shows that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

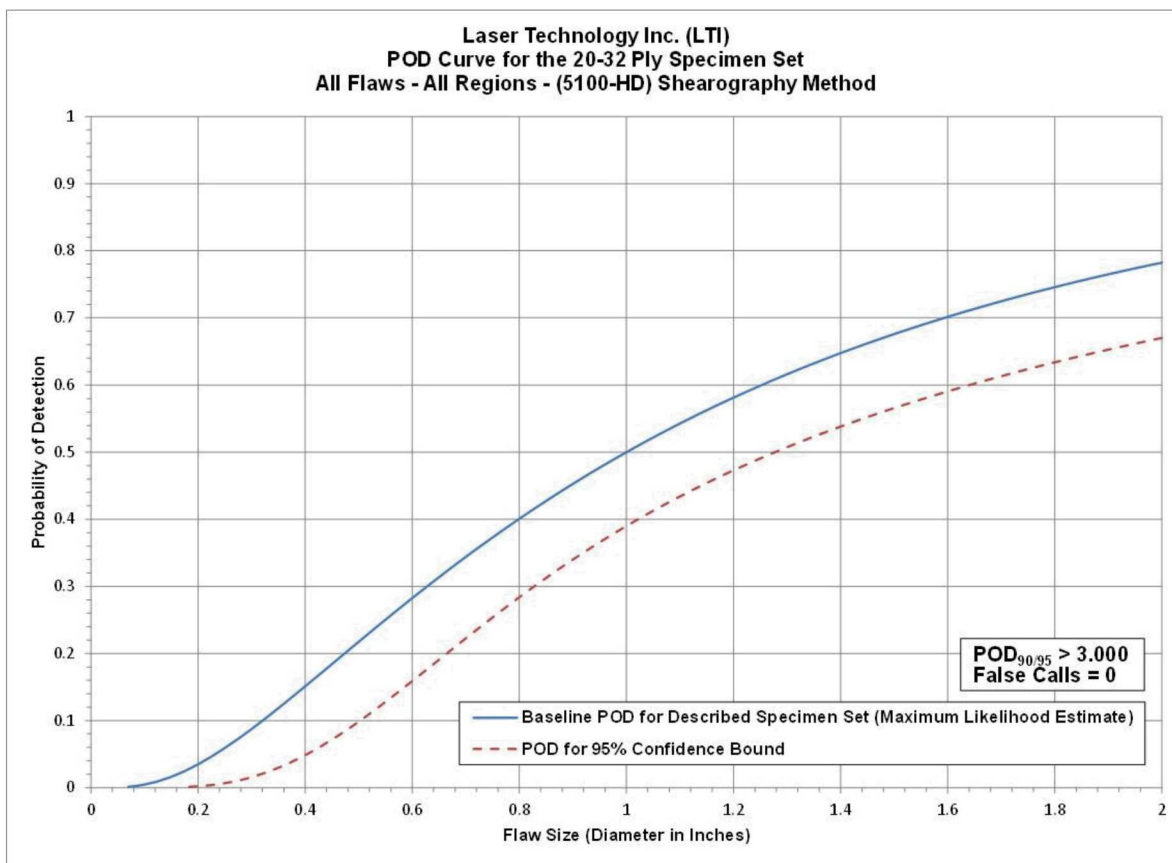


Figure 6-72: Probability of Detection Results for LTI Shearography System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure - 20-32 Ply Specimen Set

Results - Laser Technology Inc. (LTI) - (5100 HD) Shearography Method			
20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
> 3.000	36%	42%	33%
False Calls = 0			

Table 6-63: Flaw Detection Performance for LTI Shearography System Separated into Thick Laminate Results

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the 5100 HD shearography method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-64 through 6-66 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thick Laminate Experiment, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions.

Laser Technology Inc. (LTI) - (5100 HD) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	0%
0.50	50%	0%	50%	0%	0%	0.50	50%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	50%
1.00	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	50%
1.50	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	0%
2.00	50%	0%	0%	0%	50%	2.00	67%
Overall Sizing Performance	70%	10%	10%	0%	10%	Overall Flaw Detection	42%

Table 6-64: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – LTI Shearography System

Laser Technology Inc. (LTI) - (5100 HD) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	0%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	22%
0.75	25%	25%	25%	0%	25%	0.75	50%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	36%
1.50	25%	50%	25%	0%	0%	1.50	67%
2.00	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	0%
Overall Sizing Performance	57%	21%	14%	0%	7%	Overall Flaw Detection	33%

Table 6-65: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – LTI Shearography System

Table 6-66 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set, 36% of all flaws were detected or 24 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This represents a drop in performance versus the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 63% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Seventeen percent of the flaws were sized

in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 80% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 58% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-66 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 40% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 0% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (a performance decrease vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Laser Technology Inc. (LTI) - (5100 HD) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	0%
0.50	75%	0%	25%	0%	0%	0.50	31%
0.75	57%	14%	14%	0%	14%	0.75	50%
1.00	86%	14%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	41%
1.50	25%	50%	25%	0%	0%	1.50	57%
2.00	50%	0%	0%	0%	50%	2.00	40%
Overall Sizing Performance	63%	17%	13%	0%	8%	Overall Flaw Detection	36%

Table 6-66: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – LTI Shearography System

6.6.2 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Dantec Dynamics Shearography

Figures 6-73 to 6-75 show the Dantec Dynamics Q-800 shearography device and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the Q-800 **shearography system** consisting of a miniaturized shearography sensor with integrated high-resolution CCD and variable computer controlled shear optics. Illumination was provided by an integrated diode laser array and the whole system was controlled from a laptop PC using the Istra 4D software platform. This shearography system can be used to detect defects such as delaminations, disbonds, kissing bonds, wrinkling, and impact damage. The interferometric technique measures microscopic surface deformations caused by internal flaws when a small loading is applied to the object. This can be done using thermal, pressure, vibration or mechanical excitation. The results are displayed live as the material responds to the excitation and can then be interpreted by the operator. The Q-810 device was used along with vacuum loading for some of the test specimens (see Figure 6-74) while other inspections used thermal loading (heat gun) and the Q-800 shearography device to induce the deformations needed for flaw detection (see Figure 6-75). Sample shearography images produced from the Dantec Dynamics shearography inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-76.



Figure 6-73: Dantec Dynamics Shearography Devices – Q800 (left) and Q810 (right)

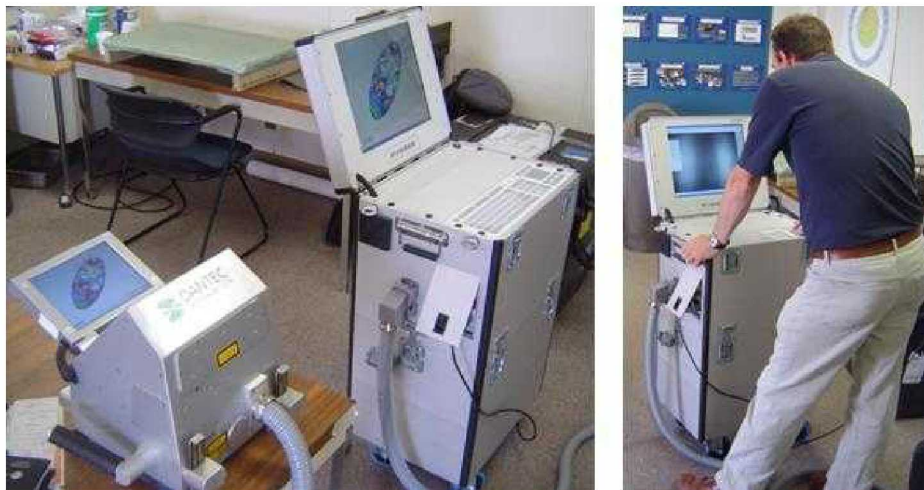


Figure 6-74: Deployment of Dantec Dynamics Q800 Shearography Systems on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

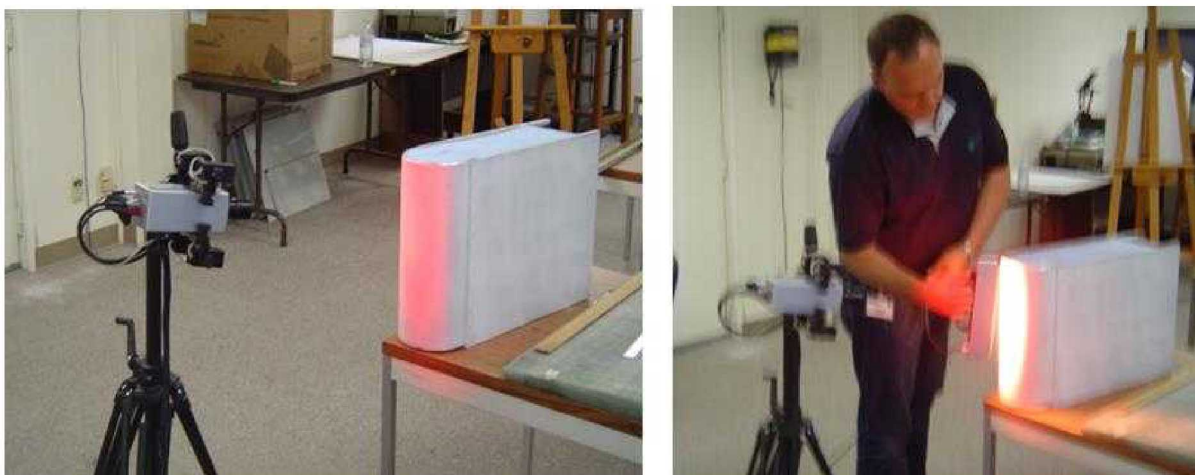


Figure 6-75: Deployment of Dantec Dynamics Q810 Shearography Systems on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

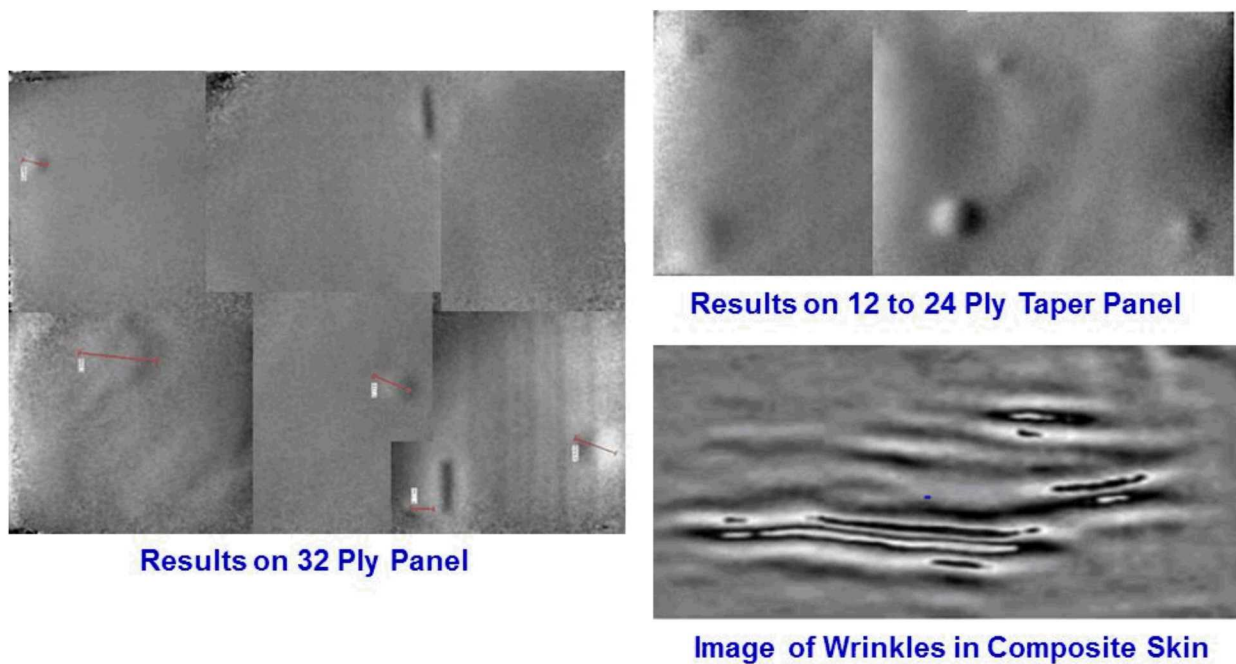
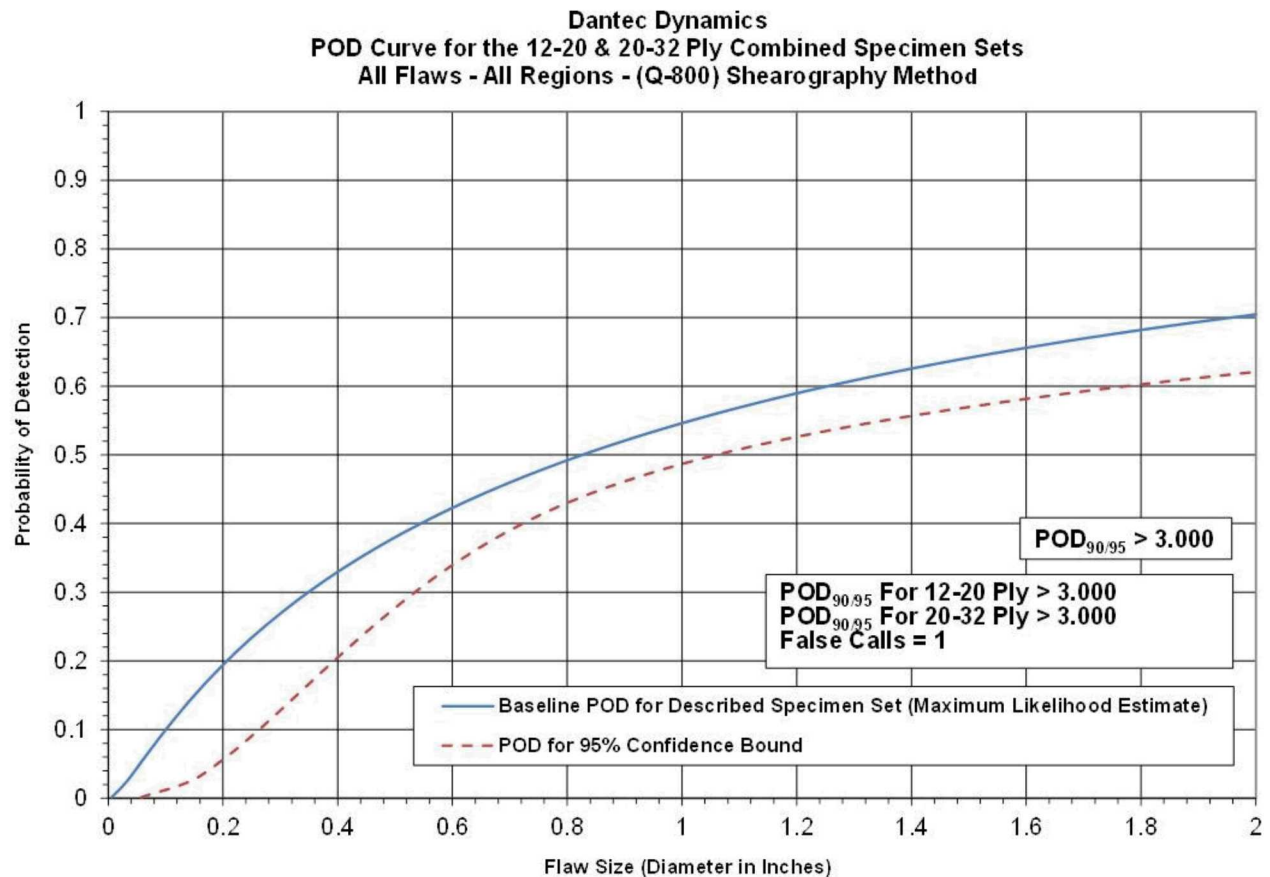


Figure 6-76: Shearography Images Produced by Dantec Dynamics Shearography Inspection of Composite Test Specimens

Figure 6-26 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The Dantec Dynamics Q-800 and Q-810 shearography system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. This represents a drop in performance of 167% versus the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. Both performance levels were well below those observed using conventional pulse-echo UT methods. Tables 6-67 and 6-68 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there was 1 false call (False Calls = 1) for the entire experiment.



**Figure 6-77: Probability of Detection Results for Dantec Dynamics Shearography System
 Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure**

Results - Dantec Dynamics, (Q-800) Shearography Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
> 3.000	53%	67%	46%	> 3.000	34%	54%	23%
False Calls = 1				False Calls = 0			

**Table 6-67: Flaw Detection Performance for Dantec Dynamics Shearography System
 Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results**

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - Dantec Dynamics, (Q-800) Shearography Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
>3	>3	>3	47%	63%	38%	28%	43%	48%	67%
								False Calls = 1	

Table 6-68: Flaw Detection Performance for Dantec Dynamics Shearography System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Tables 6-69 through 6-74 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 53% of all flaws were detected or 72 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-71). This is a performance decrease versus the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-71 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 14% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). For the 20-32 ply specimen set, 34% of all flaws were detected or 23 of the total 67 flaws were detected (see Table 7-74). This is a performance decrease versus the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-74 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 60% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 9% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). It was not possible to evaluate the flaw sizing performance of the Dantec Dynamics Q-800 and Q-810 shearography system because flaw sizing was not provided by the experiment participants.

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	33%
0.50						0.50	64%
0.75						0.75	60%
1.00						1.00	75%
1.50						1.50	86%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	67%

Table 6-69: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	0%
0.50						0.50	46%
0.75						0.75	55%
1.00						1.00	48%
1.50						1.50	56%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	46%

Table 6-70: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	14%
0.50						0.50	51%
0.75						0.75	56%
1.00						1.00	57%
1.50						1.50	69%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	53%

Table 6-71: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	25%
0.50						0.50	75%
0.75						0.75	50%
1.00						1.00	67%
1.50						1.50	0%
2.00						2.00	67%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	54%

Table 6-72: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	0%
0.50						0.50	22%
0.75						0.75	13%
1.00						1.00	45%
1.50						1.50	17%
2.00						2.00	50%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	23%

Table 6-73: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

Dantec Dynamics - (Q-800) Shearography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	9%
0.50						0.50	38%
0.75						0.75	29%
1.00						1.00	53%
1.50						1.50	14%
2.00						2.00	60%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	34%

Table 6-74: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – Dantec Dynamics Shearography System

6.7 Inspection Performance Results for Pulsed Thermography

6.7.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Thermal Wave Imaging Pulsed IR

Figures 6-78 and 6-79 show the Thermal Wave Imaging EcoTherm IR device and the deployment of the equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed using the TWI EcoTherm Thermography System that included a Phoenix Midway-Indigo camera (60 Hz in the 3-5 mm range). Mosaic and Voyager IR software were used for data analysis and to accommodate inspections of thick laminate structures. In order for the thermography system to detect a flaw, the flaw size-to-depth ratio has to be at least 1 or greater. Coverage area for a single shot is roughly 12" x 10" and multiple shots with some overlap coverage were used to insure complete coverage of test specimens.

A sample thermography image produced from the EcoTherm IR inspection of the SLE test specimens is shown in Figure 6-80. Both flash and extended pulse thermography were applied to the thick 32 ply laminates to detect the deeper flaws. Both still images captured at various times and movies of the infrared signature of the part over time were used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. The IR images showing the substructure flaws correspond to the thermography images generated later in time than those showing the near-surface flaws. The Mosaic software was used to connect all images into a single image corresponding to each test specimen. Figure 6-80 shows how four different IR shots can be joined together to form a single view of an entire test specimen.

Figure 6-81 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The EcoTherm thermography system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 2.299''$. This represents a drop in performance of 104% versus the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests

($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.225''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. The results in the thinner laminates are much better than the flaw detection observed in the thicker laminates indicating that depth of penetration is a critical factor in the successful application of thermography inspection methods. Tables 6-75 and 6-76 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

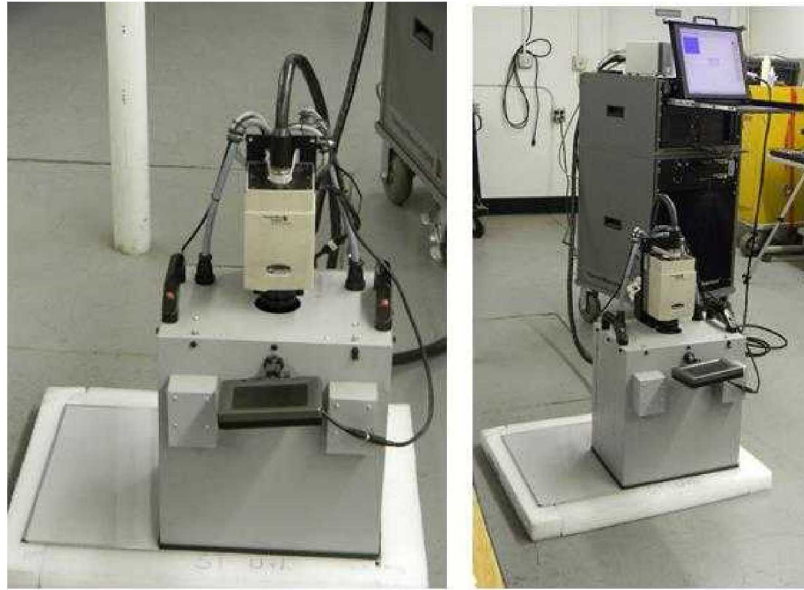


Figure 6-78: TWI EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

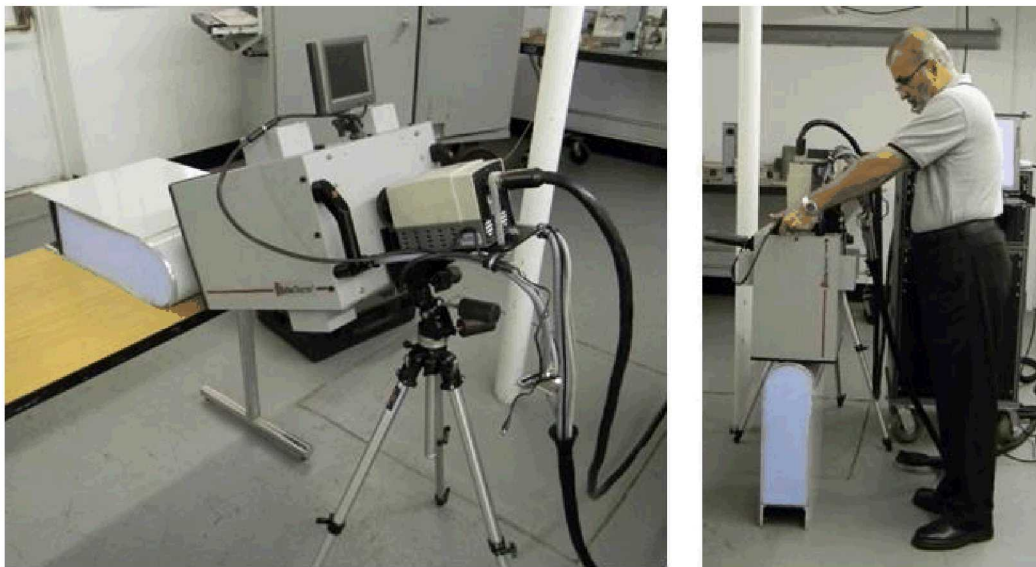


Figure 6-79: Deployment of EchoTherm Flash Thermography System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

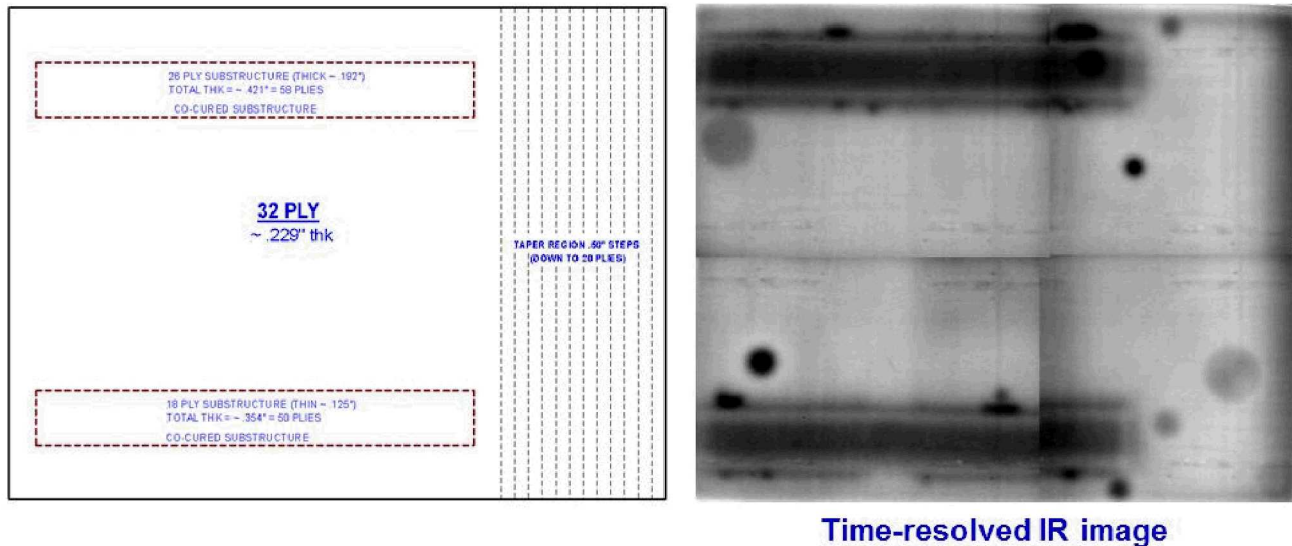


Figure 6-80: IR Image Produced by EchoTherm Flash Thermography System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Test Specimen

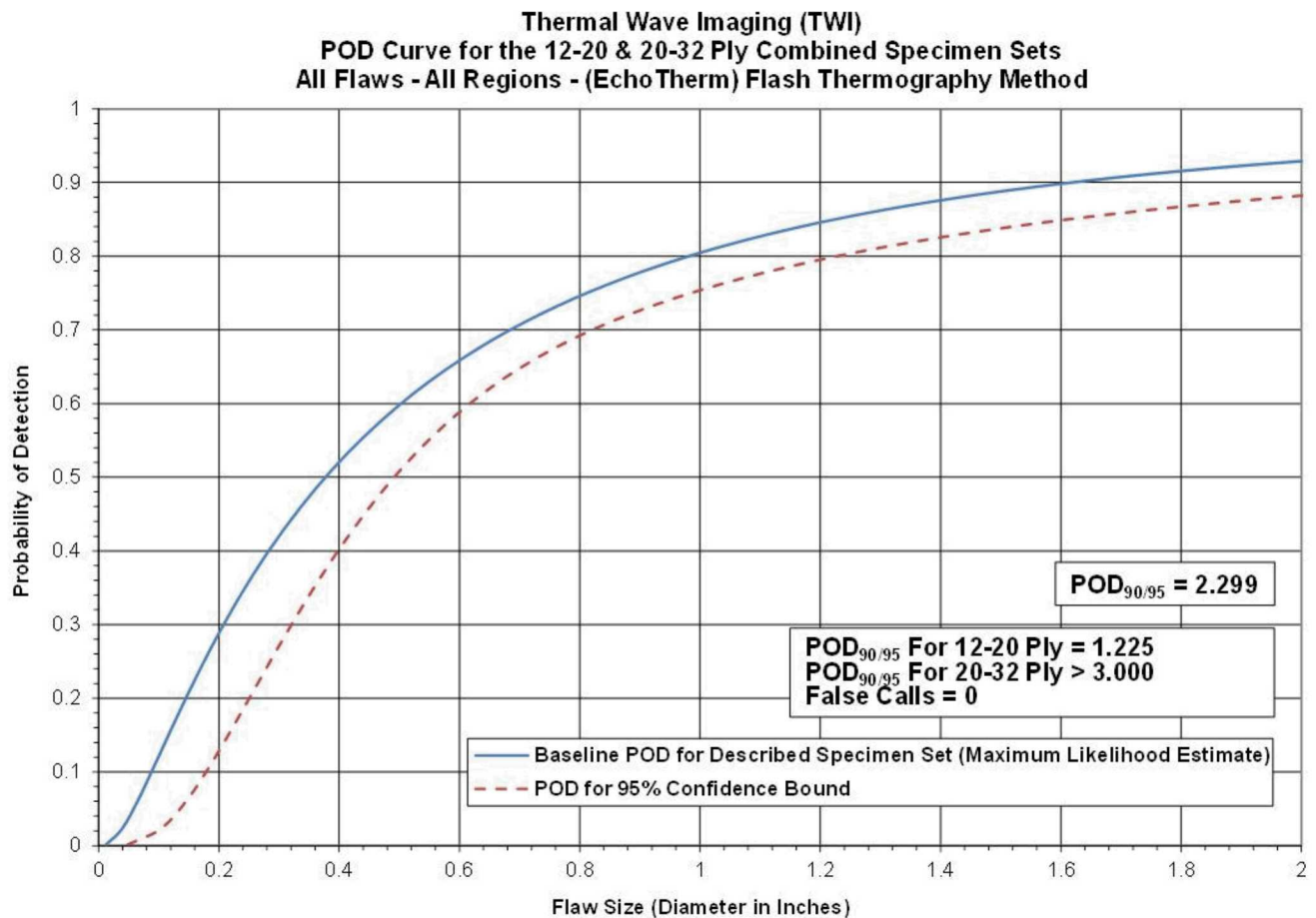


Figure 6-81: Probability of Detection Results for EchoTherm Flash Thermography System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
1.225	76%	90%	69%	> 3.000	55%	58%	53%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			

Table 6-75: Flaw Detection Performance for EchoTherm Flash Thermography System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
2.299	2.685	2.406	70%	79%	65%	41%	75%	96%	89%
								False Calls = 0	

Table 6-76: Flaw Detection Performance for EchoTherm Flash Thermography System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the EcoTherm thermography method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-77 through 6-82 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 76% of all flaws were detected or 103 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-79). This is similar to the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 94% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 38% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Three percent of the flaws were sized in the 76-99% coverage category. Thus, 97% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. When using conventional pulse-echo UT, only 64% of the detected flaws were sized with 76-100% accuracy. Table 6-79 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 36% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	67%
0.50	89%	0%	0%	11%	0%	0.50	82%
0.75	89%	11%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	90%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	50%	50%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	93%	5%	0%	2%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	90%

Table 6-77: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	13%
0.50	92%	8%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	54%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	73%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	87%
1.50	78%	0%	11%	11%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	95%	2%	2%	2%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	69%

Table 6-78: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	36%
0.50	91%	5%	0%	5%	0%	0.50	63%
0.75	96%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	78%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	91%
1.50	88%	0%	6%	6%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	67%	33%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	94%	3%	1%	2%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	76%

Table 6-79: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

Table 6-82 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 55% of all flaws were detected or all 37 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This represents a drop in performance versus the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. The flaw sizing performance shows that 97% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Table 6-82 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 50% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 29% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT).

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	25%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	50%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	67%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	83%
1.50	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	0%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	67%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	58%

Table 6-80: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	29%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	44%
0.75	80%	0%	20%	0%	0%	0.75	63%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	55%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	83%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	50%
Overall Sizing Performance	96%	0%	4%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	53%

Table 6-81: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

Thermal Wave Imaging, (EchoTherm) Flash Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	27%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	46%
0.75	89%	0%	11%	0%	0%	0.75	64%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	65%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	71%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	60%
Overall Sizing Performance	97%	0%	3%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	55%

Table 6-82: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – EchoTherm Flash Thermography System

6.8 Inspection Performance Results for Line Scanning Thermography

6.8.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by Mistras Line Scanning Thermography

Figures 6-82 to 6-84 show the Mistras THELIS-P line scanning thermography device and the deployment of this equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the THELIS-P line scanning thermography inspection device which incorporated an Indium

Antimony MW IR camera and a rolling heat source that produced temperature gradients in the part in advance of the IR camera. A sample thermography image produced from the THELIS-P line scanning thermography inspection of the SLE test specimens is shown in Figure 6-85. Both still images captured at various times and movies of the infrared signature of the part over time were used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. The IR images showing the substructure flaws correspond to the thermography images generated later in time than those showing the near-surface flaws.



Figure 6-82: Mistras Line Scanning Thermography THELIS-P Device



Figure 6-83: Deployment of Mistras Line Scanning Thermography System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Figure 6-86 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The THELIS-P line scanning thermography system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0\%$. This represents a drop in performance of 167% versus the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125\%$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section

6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. Tables 6-83 and 6-84 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were no false calls (False Calls = 0) for the entire experiment.

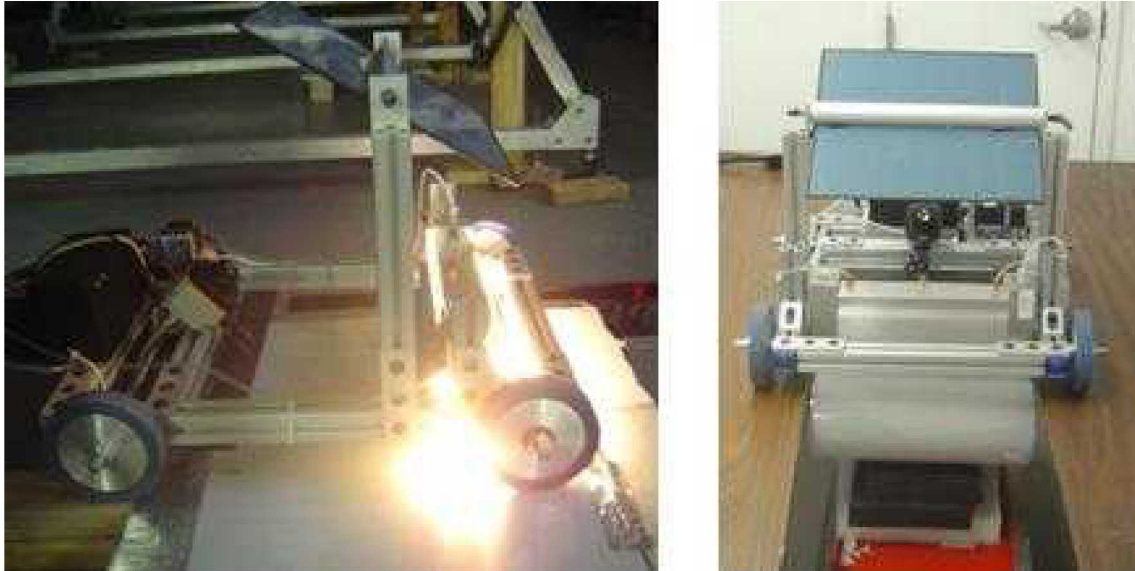


Figure 6-84: Mistras Line Scanning Thermography - Use of Heat Lamps to Provide Thermal Gradient to Test Specimens and Rolling Encoder to Provide Position Data for IR Image Correlation

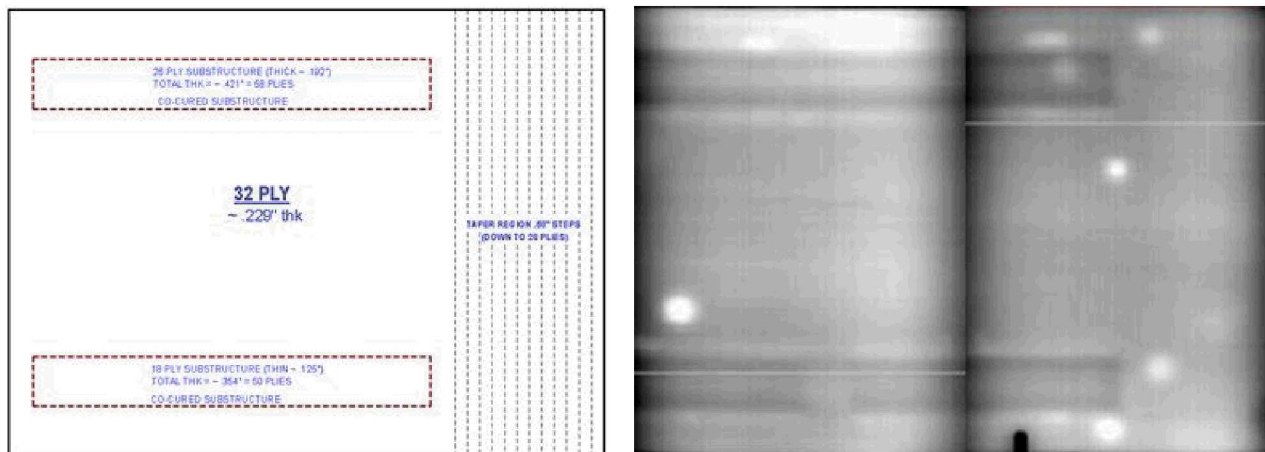


Figure 6-85: IR Image Produced by THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System Inspection of SLE 32 Ply Test Specimen

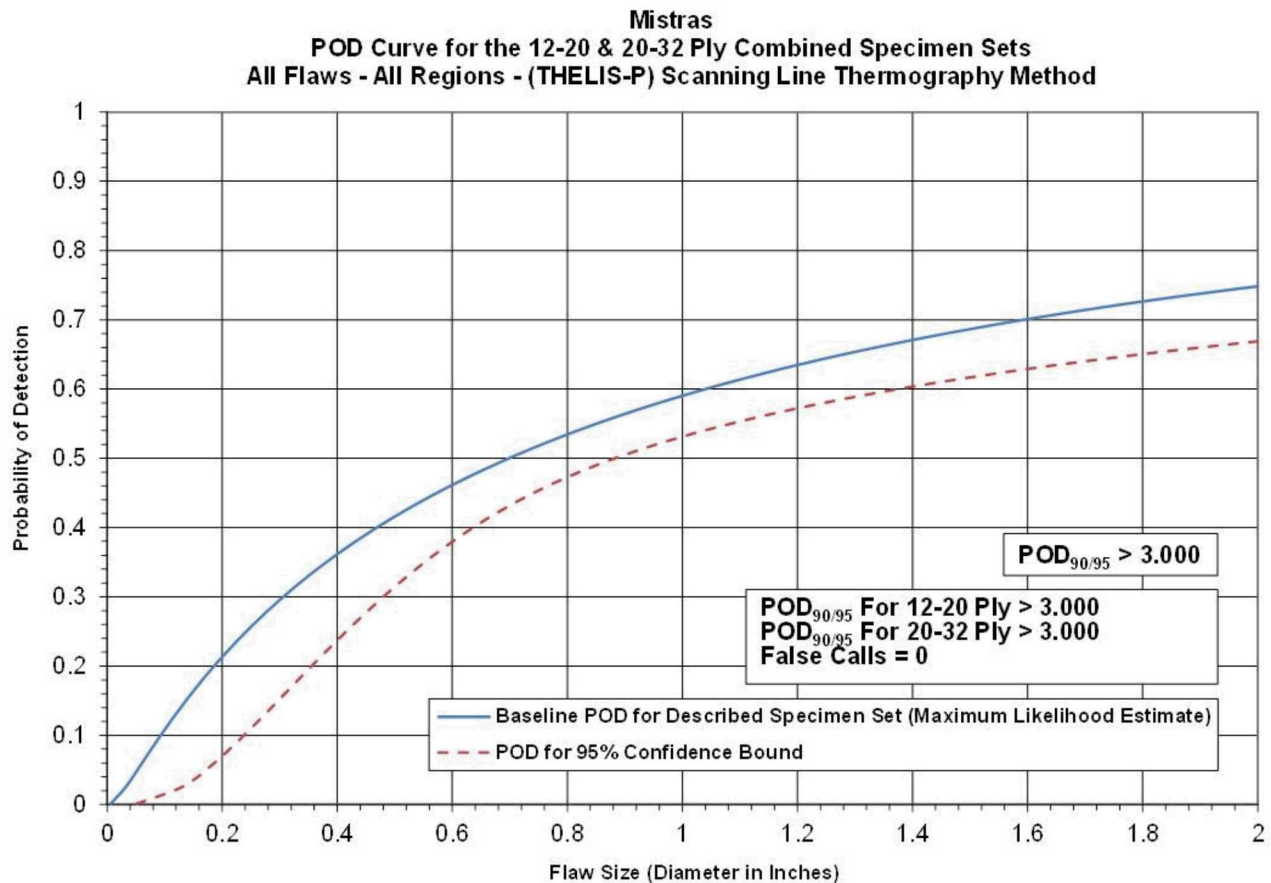


Figure 6-86: Probability of Detection Results for THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
> 3.000	54%	60%	51%	> 3.000	45%	42%	47%
False Calls = 0				False Calls = 0			

Table 6-83: Flaw Detection Performance for THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
>3	>3	>3	51%	54%	49%	40%	53%	74%	33%
								False Calls = 0	

Table 6-84: Flaw Detection Performance for THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the THELIS-P line scanning thermography method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-85 through 6-90 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 54% of all flaws were detected or 73 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-87). This is a drop in performance compared to the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-87 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 67% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 14% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). It was not possible to evaluate the flaw sizing performance of the THELIS-P line scanning thermography system because flaw sizing was not provided by the experiment participants.

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	33%
0.50						0.50	64%
0.75						0.75	60%
1.00						1.00	67%
1.50						1.50	71%
2.00						2.00	50%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	60%

Table 6-85: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	0%
0.50						0.50	33%
0.75						0.75	55%
1.00						1.00	74%
1.50						1.50	67%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	51%

Table 6-86: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	14%
0.50						0.50	43%
0.75						0.75	56%
1.00						1.00	71%
1.50						1.50	69%
2.00						2.00	67%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	54%

Table 6-87: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

Table 6-90 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 45% of all flaws were detected or 30 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is a drop in performance compared to the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-90 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 40% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller

side, only 18% of the 0.25” flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25” flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). It was not possible to evaluate the flaw sizing performance of the THELIS-P line scanning thermography system because flaw sizing was not provided by the experiment participants.

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	25%
0.50						0.50	25%
0.75						0.75	67%
1.00						1.00	50%
1.50						1.50	0%
2.00						2.00	33%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	42%

Table 6-88: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	14%
0.50						0.50	56%
0.75						0.75	50%
1.00						1.00	55%
1.50						1.50	50%
2.00						2.00	50%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	47%

Table 6-89: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

Mistras, (THELIS-P) Line Scanning Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	18%
0.50						0.50	46%
0.75						0.75	57%
1.00						1.00	53%
1.50						1.50	43%
2.00						2.00	40%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	45%

Table 6-90: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – THELIS-P Line Scanning Thermography System

6.9 Inspection Performance Results for Lock-In Thermography

6.9.1 Results for the Test Specimens Inspected by MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography

Figures 6-87 and 6-88 show the MovieTherm lock-in thermography device and the deployment of this equipment on the various SLE test specimens. Inspections were completed with the lock-in thermography inspection device which incorporated a FLIR SR2 SC7650 camera and a Hedler 2500 W lamp. Figure 6-88 shows the use of lighting to produce thermal gradients in the test specimens so that the IR camera can detect changes in heat transfer associated with flaws in the part. A sample thermography image produced from the lock-in thermography inspection of the SLE test specimens are shown in Figure 6-89. Both still images captured at various times and movies of the infrared signature of the part over time were used to detect the range of flaws at different depths within the specimens. The IR images showing the substructure flaws correspond to the thermography images generated later in time than those showing the near-surface flaws.

Figure 6-90 contains the cumulative POD curve when combining all flaw detection results for both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The MovieTherm lock-in thermography system produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. This represents a drop in performance of 167% versus the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). The breakdown of results revealed performance for the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$ and performance for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment of $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$. Tables 6-91 and 6-92 delineate the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions, curved surfaces and honeycomb regions). These tables also show that there were 26 false calls (False Calls = 26) for the entire experiment.



Figure 6-87: MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography Device

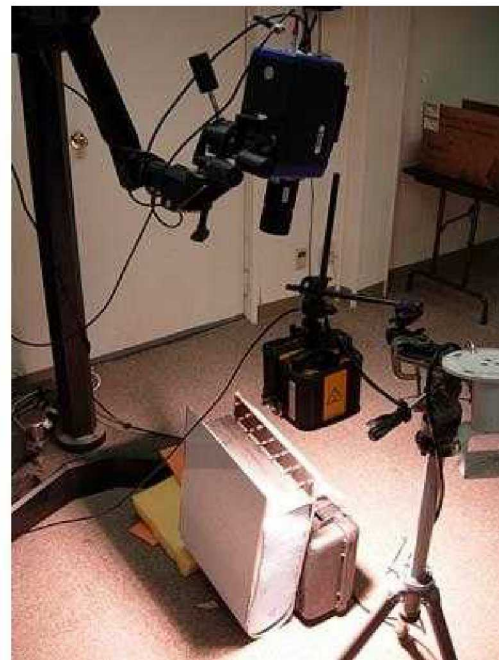


Figure 6-88: Deployment of MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

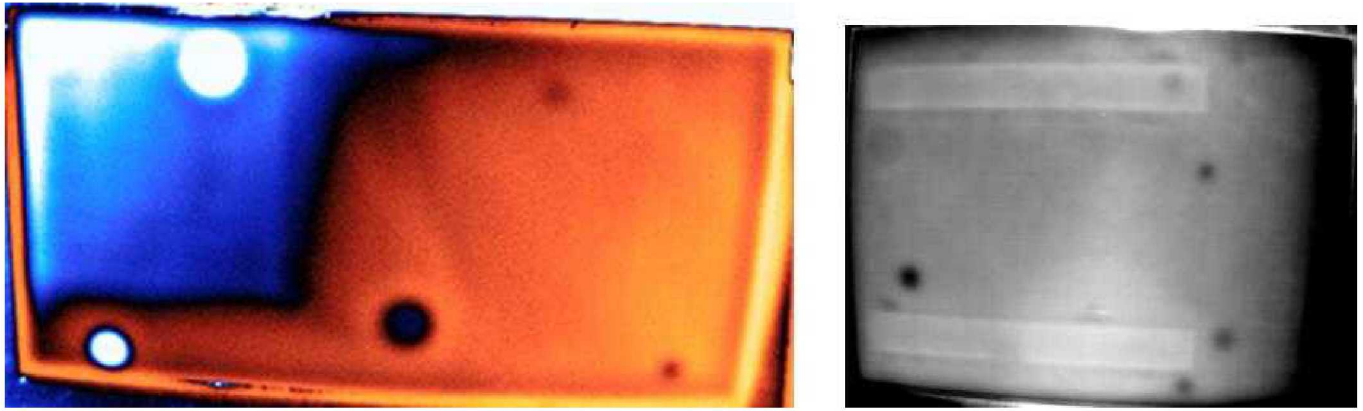


Figure 6-89: Thermography Images Produced by MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System Inspection of SLE 12-24 Ply (left) and 32 Ply (right) Test Specimens

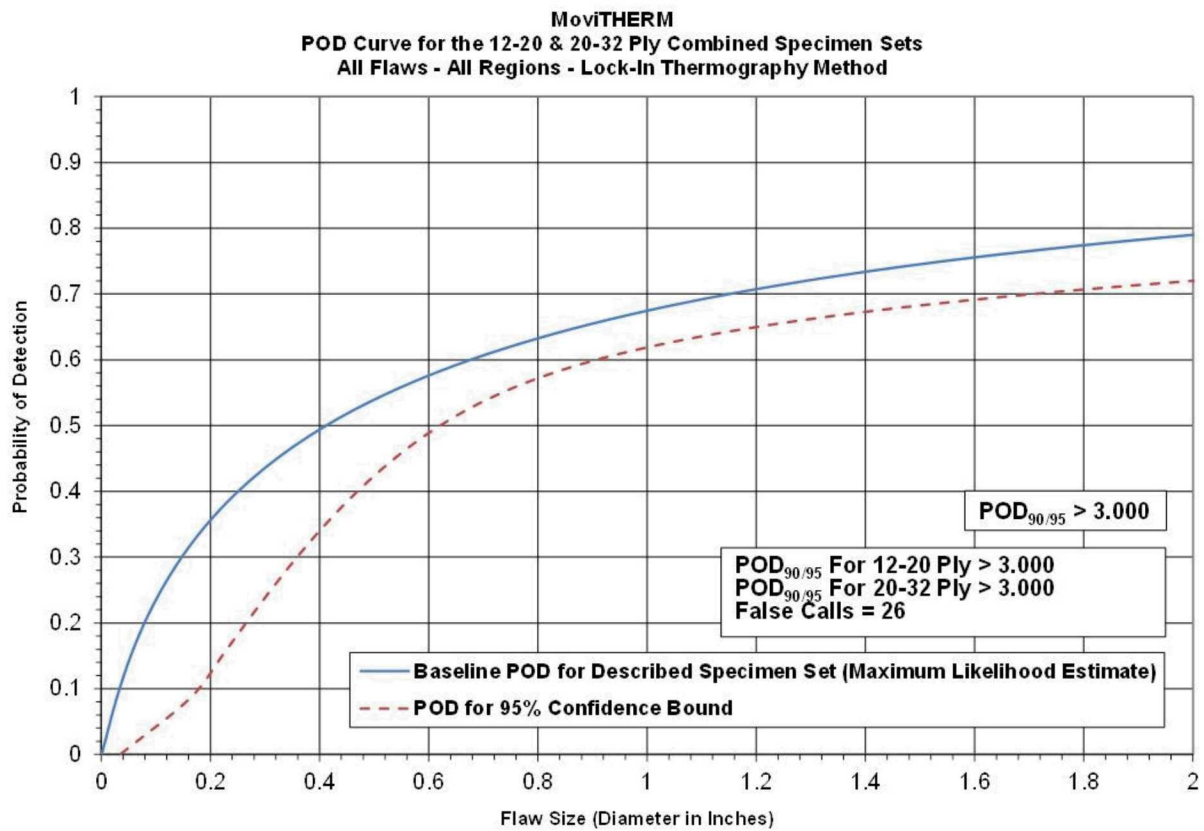


Figure 6-90: Probability of Detection Results for MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System - Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Method							
12-20 Ply (Thin Laminate Experiment)				20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection			POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
> 3.000	67%	77%	62%	> 3.000	48%	63%	40%
False Calls = 22				False Calls = 4			

Table 6-91: Flaw Detection Performance for MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System Separated into Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Results

12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results - MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Method									
POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection						
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
>3	>3	>3	61%	72%	55%	40%	60%	78%	67%
								False Calls = 26	

Table 6-92: Flaw Detection Performance for MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System for the Overall Solid Laminate POD Experiment

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the MovieTherm lock-in thermography method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-93 through 6-98 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thin Laminate and Thick Laminate Experiments, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Notice that for the 12-20 ply specimen set 67% of all flaws were detected or 90 of the total 135 flaws were detected (see Table 6-95). This is a drop in performance compared to the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 76% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-95 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 50% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 47% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). It was not possible to evaluate the flaw sizing performance of the MovieTherm lock-in thermography system because flaw sizing was not provided by the experiment participants.

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	67%
0.50						0.50	55%
0.75						0.75	80%
1.00						1.00	100%
1.50						1.50	71%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	77%

Table 6-93: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	38%
0.50						0.50	54%
0.75						0.75	59%
1.00						1.00	78%
1.50						1.50	67%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	62%

Table 6-94: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	50%
0.50						0.50	54%
0.75						0.75	66%
1.00						1.00	86%
1.50						1.50	69%
2.00						2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	67%

Table 6-95: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 12-20 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

Table 6-98 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 48% of all flaws were detected or 32 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is a drop in performance compared to the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. Table 6-98 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 60% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, only 27% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). It was not possible to evaluate the flaw sizing performance of the MovieTherm lock-in thermography system because flaw sizing was not provided by the experiment participants.

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	50%
0.50						0.50	50%
0.75						0.75	67%
1.00						1.00	83%
1.50						1.50	0%
2.00						2.00	67%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	63%

Table 6-96: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	14%
0.50						0.50	33%
0.75						0.75	50%
1.00						1.00	36%
1.50						1.50	67%
2.00						2.00	50%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	40%

Table 6-97: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

MoviTHERM, Lock-In Thermography Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	Flaw sizing not provided					0.25	27%
0.50						0.50	38%
0.75						0.75	57%
1.00						1.00	53%
1.50						1.50	57%
2.00						2.00	60%
Overall Sizing Performance	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Overall Flaw Detection	48%

Table 6-98: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MovieTherm Lock-In Thermography System

6.10 Comparison of Advanced NDI Methods

Figure 6-91 provides an overall $POD_{[90]}$ comparison of all advanced NDI methods evaluated in this study that completed both the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment (complete SLE set of specimens), along with the baseline of the aviation industry that was produced from airline inspectors using conventional, hand-deployed, single-element, pulse-echo ultrasonic inspections. It can be seen that some of the advanced NDI methods performed better than conventional pulse-echo ultrasonics while some methods performed worse. It was revealed that some advanced NDI methods are not well-suited for composite laminate inspections or perhaps thick laminate inspections. In addition, it should be noted that the array of advanced NDI methods that were evaluated in this study are in various levels of technology readiness. Thus, improvements in both equipment and deployment may improve the performance of many of the advanced NDI methods. Simple feedback from this experiment provided NDI developers with critical information that can lead to equipment improvements.

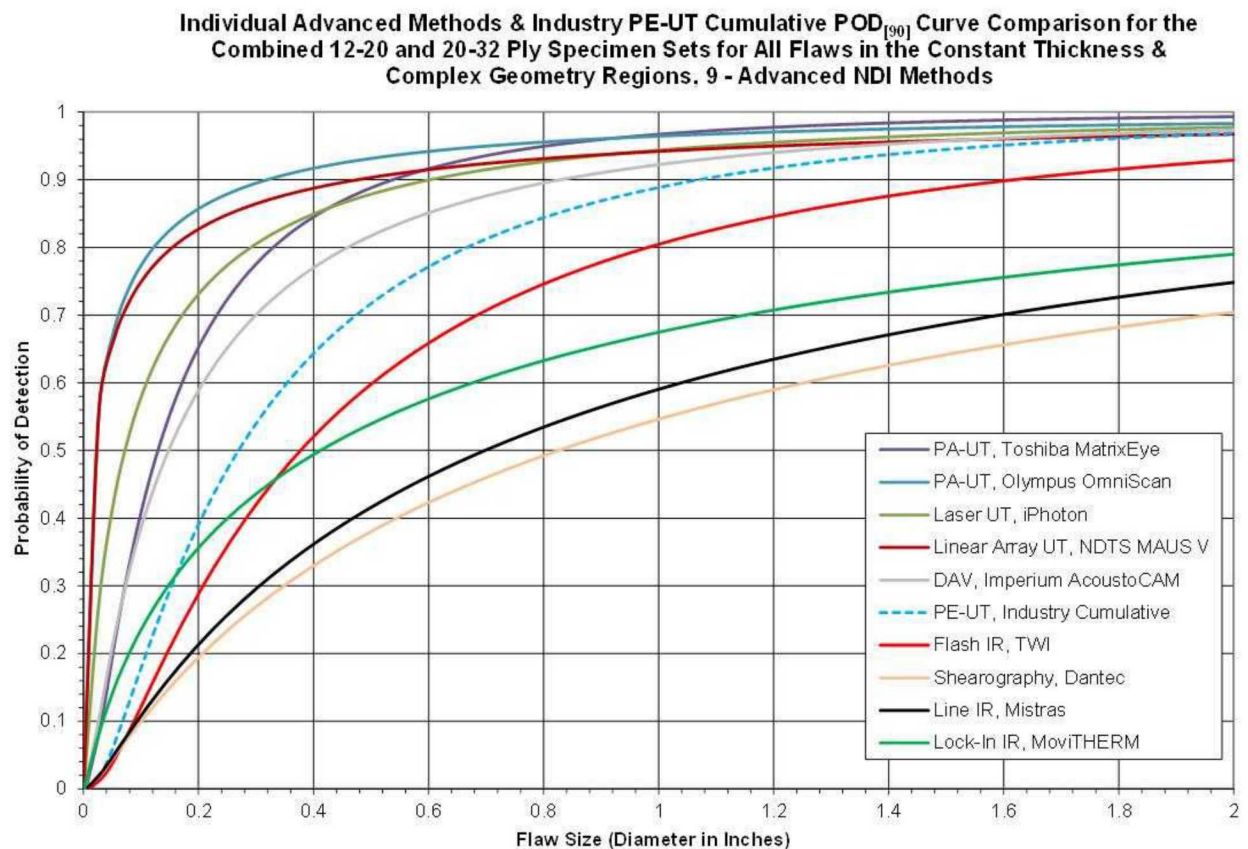


Figure 6-91: Probability of Detection Results Comparing Performance of All Advanced NDI Methods - Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Overall, the phased array UT, linear array UT and the laser UT methods all outperformed the industry baseline results, producing $POD_{[90/95]}$ levels that are 24% to 39% better than those produced with the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method. The use of C-scan images that accompanied all PA-UT equipment is a key factor in this improvement. The C-scan images provide much better data with which to identify flaws and ensured 100% area coverage. Human factors

issues regarding temporary inattentiveness to the A-scan signals, a significant concern with the hand-deployed PE-UT method, are not present when wide-area C-scan methods are used. Similarly, the imaging capability of acoustography methods resulted in overall POD levels that were slightly better than those produced with the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method. Thus, proper inspection area coverage and use of color-coded images are two of the key ingredients in the improved performance observed with array UT, Laser ultrasonics and acoustography.

Due to time limitations, not all of the advanced NDI methods were able to complete the entire Solid Laminate POD Experiment. Some methods completed only the Thin Laminate or Thick Laminate portions of the entire experiment. Tables 6-99 and 6-100 summarize the advanced NDI results for the Thin Laminate Experiment (12-20 ply skins). The POD levels listed on Table 6-99 indicate that the PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT and acoustography results are similar to or better than the industry baseline results obtained from conventional PE-UT. In addition, pulsed (flash) thermography produced results in the Thin Laminate Experiment that are slightly better than those produced with the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method. It has been noted that depth of penetration is an issue for thermographic inspections, however, the Thin Laminate Experiment uses specimens that are within the inspection capability of thermography. Thus pulsed (flash) IR is an option for inspecting thin laminate composite structures. Line thermography, lock-in thermography, shearography and microwave inspection methods did not produce acceptable performance levels. Table 6-100 presents the side-by-side data in the form of percent of flaws detected. It can be seen that the top performers listed above – PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT, acoustography and pulsed IR – primarily have detection levels in the 80% to 100% levels over all constant thickness and complex geometry regions, with the exception of flaw detection percentages in the more challenging substructure regions.

12-20 Ply Results Comparison (Thin Laminate Experiment)	POD _{90/95} Values			
	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. In inches)	
	Olympus NDT, PA-UT	0.862	100%*	1.292
	Toshiba, PA-UT	0.818	0.606	1.094
	NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	1.393	1.097	1.348
	iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	1.204	100%*	1.627
	Imperium, Digital Acoustic Video	1.422	1.290	1.541
	TWI, Flash Thermography	1.225	0.889	1.360
	Mistras, Line Thermography	>3	>3	2.841
	MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	>3	>3	>3
Dantec, Shearography	>3	>3	>3	
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive scan waves			
* Inferred POD[90/95] value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)				

Table 6-99: Comparison of POD Flaw Detection Performance for All Advanced NDI Methods Separated into Thin Laminate Results – Breakout by Constant Thickness Regions, Complex Geometry Regions & All Flaws

12-20 Ply Results Comparison (Thin Laminate Experiment)	Percent Flaw Detection						
	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
Olympus NDT, PA-UT	92%	100%	87%	71%	100%	100%	100%
Toshiba, PA-UT	89%	96%	85%	66%	100%	100%	100%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	88%	92%	86%	68%	100%	100%	100%
iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	86%	100%	78%	50%	100%	100%	100%
Imperium, Digital Acoustic Video	79%	90%	74%	45%	100%	96%	89%
TWI, Flash Thermography	76%	90%	69%	42%	88%	96%	89%
Mistras, Line Thermography	54%	60%	51%	37%	59%	74%	33%
MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	67%	77%	62%	50%	65%	78%	67%
Dantec, Shearography	53%	67%	46%	34%	59%	48%	67%
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive scan waves						

Table 6-100: Comparison of Percent Flaw Detection Performance for All Advanced NDI Methods Separated into Thin Laminate Results – Breakout by Constant Thickness Regions, Complex Geometry Regions & All Flaws

Tables 6-101 and 6-102 summarize the advanced NDI results for the Thick Laminate Experiment (20-32 ply skins). Note that there are not enough flaws in the individual constant thickness and complex geometry categories to produce POD curves for these attributes alone. Thus, it is only possible to produce the overall POD for the Thick Laminate Experiment and the other categories are listed as NA (definition also provided in Table 6-101). Once again, it can be seen in the POD levels listed on Table 6-101 that the PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT and acoustography results are similar to or better than the industry baseline results obtained from conventional PE-UT. However, pulsed thermography produced results in the Thick Laminate Experiment that are worse than those produced with the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method. In this case, the depth of penetration produced a significant inspection impediment such that the Thick Laminate Experiment specimens are no longer within the inspection capability of thermography. Thus pulsed IR is not an option for inspecting thick laminate composite structures. Line thermography, lock-in thermography, shearography and microwave inspection methods did not produce acceptable performance levels. Table 6-102 presents the side-by-side data in the form of percent of flaws detected. It can be seen that the top performers listed above – PA-UT, laser UT, acoustography and pulsed IR – primarily have detection levels in the 90% to 100% levels over all constant thickness and complex geometry regions.

Figure 6-92 highlights one of the only deployment obstacles that was identified in this study. The Bullnose test specimens contained a spar channel region with a U-shaped geometry. This provided a tight inspection region such that it was not possible to deploy large scanning systems or large interrogation probes. The photos in Fig. 6-92 show how the acoustography camera, phased array UT probes and thermography units have limited-to-no mobility within this spar region. Even if the PA-UT probe was removed from its X-Y scanner and attached to a smaller linear encoder device, the resultant footprint limits its ability to inspect the entire area. Thus, there are some limitations on the regions that these advanced NDI systems can inspect, mostly pertaining to areas with small access ports or tight geometry changes. In these cases, it may be necessary to deploy the smaller, manually-deployed single-element PE-UT inspections.

20-32 Ply Results Comparison (Thick Laminate Experiment)	POD _{90/95} Values		
	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. in inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only (dia. in inches)	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only (dia. in inches)
Olympus NDT, PA-UT	100%*	NA	NA
Toshiba, PA-UT	0.606	NA	NA
All Nippon, PA-UT	0.524	NA	NA
GEIT, PA-UT	>3	NA	NA
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	100%*	NA	NA
Sandia, Linear Array UT	100%*	NA	NA
iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	100%*	NA	NA
Imperium, Digital Acoustic Video	100%*	NA	NA
TWI, Flash Thermography	>3	NA	NA
Mistras, Line Thermography	>3	NA	NA
MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	>3	NA	NA
Dantec, Shearography	>3	NA	NA
LTI, Shearography	>3	NA	NA
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive scan waves		
* Inferred POD[90/95] value is ≤ 0.25 " diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)			
NA - Not enough data to calculate POD for the described specimen set.			

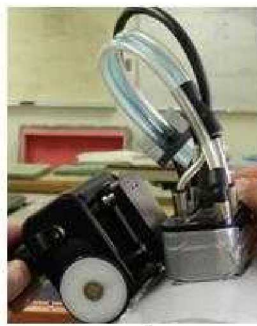
Table 6-101: Comparison of POD Flaw Detection Performance for All Advanced NDI Methods Separated into Thick Laminate Results – Breakout by Constant Thickness Regions, Complex Geometry Regions & All Flaws

20-32 Ply Results Comparison (Thick Laminate Experiment)	Percent Flaw Detection				
	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only
Olympus NDT, PA-UT	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Toshiba, PA-UT	97%	100%	95%	90%	100%
All Nippon, PA-UT	97%	100%	95%	90%	100%
GEIT, PA-UT	63%	92%	47%	10%	78%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Sandia, Linear Array UT	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Imperium, Digital Acoustic Video	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
TWI, Flash Thermography	55%	58%	53%	40%	65%
Mistras, Line Thermography	45%	42%	47%	45%	48%
MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	48%	63%	40%	20%	57%
Dantec, Shearography	34%	54%	23%	15%	30%
LTI, Shearography	36%	42%	33%	25%	39%
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive scan waves				

Table 6-102: Comparison of Percent Flaw Detection Performance for All Advanced NDI Methods Separated into Thick Laminate Results – Breakout by Constant Thickness Regions, Complex Geometry Regions & All Flaws



Imperium



NDT Solutions



Mistras

Figure 6-92: Images Showing Accessibility Challenge Associated with Inspection of Spar Channel – Channel Results Removed for Additional POD Analysis (See Tables 6-103 and 6-104)

Tables 6-103 and 6-104 summarize the advanced NDI results for the entire Solid Laminate POD Experiment (Thin Laminate Experiment and Thin Laminate Experiment combined). The $POD_{[90/95]}$ values listed in the first column (all flaws, all specimens) correspond to the $POD_{[90]}$ plots presented in Figure 6-91. These two tables also include the breakdown for $POD_{[90/95]}$ levels by test specimen attribute (constant thickness, complex geometry), as well as the percent flaw detection broken down into each of the test specimen features (constant thickness, presence of substructures, taper regions, curved surfaces, honeycomb region). Tables 6-103 and 6-104 also summarize the effect of removing the channel flaws and recalculating the $POD_{[90/95]}$ values. A 10% improvement was observed for two of the participants for all flaws in constant thickness and complex geometry (channel flaws only removed).

All of these results provide similar conclusions as those described above. The PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT and acoustography NDI methods produce flaw detection levels that are similar to or better than the industry baseline results obtained from conventional PE-UT. Pulsed thermography produced overall results that show promise but are slightly worse than those produced with the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method. It was shown that pulsed IR is an option for inspecting thin laminate composite structures. Line thermography, lock-in thermography, shearography and microwave inspection methods did not produce acceptable performance levels. The top performers – PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT, acoustography – primarily have detection levels in the 90% to 100% levels over all constant thickness and complex geometry regions with the exception of flaw detection percentages in the more challenging substructure regions. For flaws in the substructure region, the more successful advanced NDI methods produced flaw detection rates in the 70% to 80% level. This can be compared with the results obtained from conventional PE-UT where the set of airline inspectors produced flaw detection rates of 63% for flaws in the substructures.

	POD _{90/95} Values			Percent Flaw Detection	
12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only
Olympus NDT, PA-UT	0.716	100%*	0.905	95%	100%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	0.884	0.775	1.120	92%	94%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Channel Removed (See Note 2)	0.797	0.567	1.120	NA	NA
Toshiba, PA-UT	0.689	0.516	0.926	92%	97%
iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	0.851	100%*	1.311	91%	100%
iPhoton, Regraded (See Note 1)	0.641	100%*	0.859	94%	100%
Imperium, Digital Accoustic Video	1.118	0.968	1.376	86%	93%
Imperium, Channel Removed (See Note 2)	0.973	0.567	1.376	NA	NA
TWI, Flash Thermography	2.299	2.685	2.406	70%	79%
TWI, Example (See Note 3)	2.005	1.618	2.406	NA	NA
Mistras, Line Thermography	>3	>3	>3	51%	54%
Mistras, Channel Removed (See Note 2)	>3	>3	>3	NA	NA
MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	>3	>3	>3	61%	72%
Dantec, Shearography	>3	>3	>3	47%	63%
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive Scan waves				
* - Inferred POD90/95 value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)					
Note 1 - Asked inspector to take another look at the results and spend more time to see if more flaws could be found. Technology has Full data capture capability, which facilitated the ease of a second data review.					
Note 2 - Channel data removed. Deployment issues due to size of device or scanning equipment used.					
Note 3 - Changed 2" diameter miss to hit for "All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions" and for "All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only" to show effect of missing a large flaw.					

Table 6-103: Comparison of POD and Flaw Detection Values for All Advanced NDI Methods Including Adjustments in POD Calculations to Show Effects of Various Inspection Impediments – Category Set A

	Percent Flaw Detection Continued				
12-20 and 20-32 Ply Combined Results	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only	All Flaws Substructure Regions Only	All Flaws Taper Regions Only	All Flaws Laminate over Honeycomb Regions Only	All Flaws Curved Surface Regions Only
Olympus NDT, PA-UT	92%	81%	100%	100%	100%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Linear Array UT	91%	79%	100%	100%	100%
NDT Solutions (NDTS), Channel Removed (See Note 2)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Toshiba, PA-UT	88%	74%	100%	100%	100%
iPhoton, Laser Ultrasonics	85%	67%	100%	100%	100%
iPhoton, Regrated (See Note 1)	91%	79%	100%	100%	100%
Imperium, Digital Accoustic Video	82%	64%	100%	96%	89%
Imperium, Channel Removed (See Note 2)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
TWI, Flash Thermography	65%	41%	75%	96%	89%
TWI, Example (See Note 3)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Mistras, Line Thermography	49%	40%	53%	74%	33%
Mistras, Channel Removed (See Note 2)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
MoviTherm, Lock-in Thermography	55%	40%	60%	78%	67%
Dantec, Shearography	38%	28%	43%	48%	67%
Evisive, Microwave	No Data - Carbon material does not have acceptable dielectric properties for the propagation of Evisive Scan waves				
* - Inferred POD90/95 value is ≤ 0.25" diameter flaw (100% flaw detection, POD value cannot be determined)					
Note 1 - Asked inspector to take another look at the results and spend more time to see if more flaws could be found. Technology has Full data capture capability, which facilitated the ease of a second data review.					
Note 2 - Channel data removed. Deployment issues due to size of device or scanning equipment used.					
Note 3 - Changed 2" diameter miss to hit for "All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions" and for "All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only" to show effect of missing a large flaw.					

Table 6-104: Comparison of POD and Flaw Detection Values for All Advanced NDI Methods Including Adjustments in POD Calculations to Show Effects of Various Inspection Impediments – Category Set B

Tables 6-105 and 6-106 summarize the inspection rates obtained from each of the advanced NDI methods. Recall that the manually-deployed, single-element PE-UT method produced an overall coverage rate of 2 ft.² per hour. In addition, it was determined that this is the optimum inspection rate as faster inspection rates would not produce much improvement in performance. However, the advanced NDI methods all possessed much faster inspection rates. The best performing PA-UT and linear array UT methods ranged in inspections rates from 3 to 40 ft.² per hour. The acoustography methods were in the 5 to 8 ft.² per hour while the laser UT method produced inspection rates of 30 to 40 ft.² per hour. The conclusion is that the advanced NDI methods that performed better than the conventional PE-UT method – PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT, acoustography – also provide much better inspection rates while producing lower false call rates. The advantage of wide area inspections, through larger field of views or the use of surface scanning hardware, is evident in Tables 6-105 and 6-106.

Experiment Timing Summary 12-20 Ply Specimen Set - Advanced Methods (Inspection Times Only)													
NDI Method	Specimen											Total Inspection Time (hr:min)	Inspection Coverage Rate (ft ² /hr)
	CT1-A	CT1-B	CT2-A	CT2-B	ST1U-A	ST1L-A	ST2U-A	ST2L-A	BN 1	BN 2	BN 3		
Dantec (Shearography)	0:15	0:11	0:25	0:15	1:05	0:52	1:30	0:47	1:14	0:59	1:08	8:41	3.93
Imperium (Digital Acoustic Video)	0:05	0:08	0:09	0:09	0:35	0:29	0:19	0:35	0:45	0:30	0:34	4:18	7.93
iPhoton (Laser Ultrasonics)	0:03	0:03	0:02	0:02	0:03	0:04	0:06	0:04	0:15	0:16	0:15	1:13	28.03
Mistras (Line Thermography)	0:04	0:03	0:05	0:04	0:08	0:10	0:08	0:08	0:23	0:23	0:16	1:52	18.27
MoviTHERM (Lock-in Therm.)	0:24	0:13	0:26	0:52	0:57	0:50	0:32	1:34	4:32	2:30	1:25	14:15	2.39
NDT Solutions (Linear Array UT)	0:01	0:01	0:02	0:01	0:06	0:04	0:05	0:08	0:19	0:24	0:22	1:33	22.00
Olympus NDT (PA-UT)	0:04	0:12	0:05	0:04	0:33	0:15	0:11	0:12	1:20	1:25	2:26	6:47	5.03
Toshiba (PA-UT)	0:19	0:19	0:13	0:21	0:28	0:40	0:34	0:40	1:41	1:58	1:22	8:35	3.97
TWI (Flash Thermography)	0:12	0:05	0:05	0:09	0:14	0:09	0:21	0:17	0:47	0:53	1:01	4:13	8.09

Table 6-105: Comparison of Inspection Times and Area Coverage Rate for All Advanced NDI Methods – Thin Laminate 12-20 Ply Specimen Set

Experiment Timing Summary 20-32 Ply Specimen Set Advanced Methods (Inspection Times Only)						
NDI Method	Specimen				Total Inspection Time (hr:min)	Inspection Coverage Rate (ft2/hr)
	ST32-1	ST32-2	ST32-3	ST32-4		
All Nippon (PA-UT)	1:15	2:25	1:11	1:01	5:52	2.05
Dantec (Shearography)	1:00	0:39	0:23	0:34	2:36	4.62
GEIT (RotoArray)	1:16	1:18	1:09	0:59	4:42	2.55
Imperium (Digital Acoustic Video)	0:24	0:27	0:29	0:59	2:19	5.18
iPhoton (Laser Ultrasonics)	0:06	0:04	0:04	0:04	0:18	40.00
LTI (Shearography)	0:58	1:02	0:39	0:49	3:28	3.46
Mistras (Line Thermography)	0:12	0:21	0:11	0:12	0:56	12.86
MoviTHERM (Lock-in Thermography)	0:22	0:13	0:14	0:15	1:04	11.25
NDT Solutions (Linear Array UT)	0:08	0:03	0:04	0:03	0:18	40.00
Olympus NDT (PA-UT)	0:12	0:11	0:32	0:23	1:18	9.23
Sandia Labs (Wheel Probe)	0:46	0:36	0:38	1:40	3:40	3.27
Toshiba (PA-UT)	0:40	0:36	0:34	0:37	2:27	4.90
TWI (Flash Thermography)	0:21	0:24	0:24	0:18	1:27	8.28

Table 6-106: Comparison of Inspection Times and Area Coverage Rate for All Advanced NDI Methods – Thick Laminate 20-32 Ply Specimen Set

The final analysis of the advanced NDI results assessed the maturity of each inspection technique based on the observations from the Solid Laminate POD Experiment. Standard Technology Readiness Levels (TRL), which are similar across DOE, DOT, NASA and DOD, were used to place each inspection method into an appropriate TRL category. Table 6-107 describes each of the TRL levels ranging from basic concepts (TRL 2) to fully functional and tested/marketed technology

(TRL 9). Table 6-108 shows that most of the NDI methods were deemed to be in the latter or final stages of development and ready for utilization. It was observed that some of the devices could benefit from customization to address the unique demands of composite laminate inspections. Such customization, along with additional exposure to composite inspections, should improve the performance of the advanced NDI methods. However, it is clear that some of the methods are simply not well-suited for inspection of composite laminate structures (composite skins with substructure elements). Table 6-107 also provides some insight into the personnel deploying each inspection system. Since the data presented here stems from a single application of each inspection system – as opposed to the conventional PE-UT evaluation which is an industry baseline produced from 57 airline inspectors – the expertise and experience of the person(s) conducting the experiment plays a large role in the results. Thus, an “Inspector Proficiency Rating” was applied to each experiment participant and was determined by both the experiment participant and the AANC experiment observers. Some of these ratings indicate that the results could be improved with a more experienced user (e.g. GE RotoArray phased array UT). Other ratings show that even inexperienced users can produce good results with the equipment (e.g. Sonatest RapidScan linear array UT).

Technology Readiness Levels for the Department of Energy	
Technology Readiness Level	Description
TRL 1.	Scientific research begins translation to applied R&D - Lowest level of technology readiness. Scientific research begins to be translated into applied research and development. Examples might include paper studies of a technology's basic properties.
TRL 2.	Invention begins - Once basic principles are observed, practical applications can be invented. Applications are speculative and there may be no proof or detailed analysis to support the assumptions. Examples are limited to analytic studies.
TRL 3.	Active R&D is initiated - Active research and development is initiated. This includes analytical studies and laboratory studies to physically validate analytical predictions of separate elements of the technology. Examples include components that are not yet integrated or representative.
TRL 4.	Basic technological components are integrated - Basic technological components are integrated to establish that the pieces will work together.
TRL 5.	Fidelity of breadboard technology improves significantly - The basic technological components are integrated with reasonably realistic supporting elements so it can be tested in a simulated environment. Examples include “high fidelity” laboratory integration of components.
TRL 6.	Model/prototype is tested in relevant environment - Representative model or prototype system, which is well beyond that of TRL 5, is tested in a relevant environment. Represents a major step up in a technology's demonstrated readiness. Examples include testing a prototype in a high-fidelity laboratory environment or in simulated operational environment.
TRL 7.	Prototype near or at planned operational system - Represents a major step up from TRL 6, requiring demonstration of an actual system prototype in an operational environment.
TRL 8.	Technology is proven to work - Actual technology completed and qualified through test and demonstration.
TRL 9.	Actual application of technology is in its final form - Technology proven through successful operations.

Table 6-107: Description of Technology Readiness Levels

Technology Readiness Level (TRL)						
Company	Method	Device Manuf.	Inspection Device	TRL at Time of		IPR at Time of
				Experiment	Report	Experiment
All Nippon	PA-UT	Toshiba	Matrix Eye	9	9	2
Sandia Labs	Linear Array UT	Sonatest	Wheel Probe w/ OmniScan MX1	9	9	0
Dantec	Shearography	Dantec	Q-800	9	9	4
Evisive, Inc.	Microwave	Evisive	Evisive Scan	NA	NA	NA
GEIT	PA-UT	GE	RotoArray w/ Phasor XS	7	9	1
Imperium	Digital Acoustic Video	Imperium	AcoustoCam	7	9	4
iPhoton	Laser Ultrasonics	iPhoton	iPLUS	9	9	4
LTI	Shearography	LTI	LTI-5100 HD	9	9	4
Mistras	Line Thermography	Mistras	THELIS-P Scanner	6	7	2
MoviTHERM	Lock-In Thermography	MoviTHERM	FLIR Camera, SR2 SC7650	9	9	4
NDT Solutions	Linear Array UT	Boeing	FlawInspecta - MAUS V	9	9	4
Olympus NDT	PA-UT	Olympus	Olympus OmniScan MX2	9	9	4
Toshiba	PA-UT	Toshiba	Matrix Eye	9	9	4
TWI	Flash Thermography	TWI	Ecotherm	9	9	4
DolpniTech	Ultrasonic Video	Sonatest	DolphiCam	6	9	4
RCON NDT	Linear Array UT	Sonatest	Wheel Probe w/ RapidScan 2	9	9	4

Inspector Proficiency Rating (IPR) (at the time of the experiment)	
0	Never used the device prior to Experiment
1	Used the device a couple times
2	Very familiar with the device
3	Used the device for many years
4	Expert user of the device

Table 6-108: TRL Ratings for the Advanced NDI Methods as Pertains to Maturity for Aircraft Inspections in a Maintenance Hangar Environment

One of the inspection devices, the Toshiba MatrixEye phased array UT system, was also deployed by an airline inspector. Related to the above discussion regarding inspector experience, this exercise allowed us to evaluate the performance of inexperienced airline inspectors deploying advanced NDI. The airline inspector was a Level III ultrasonic inspector so he had experience in the inspection of composite laminate structures. Figure 6-93 shows the deployment of the MatrixEye device by the airline inspector. This inspector completed the Thick Laminate Experiment so that it was possible to compare the consistency of results between the deployment of the MatrixEye by two different agencies: Toshiba and All Nippon Airways inspectors.

Figure 6-94 contains the POD flaw detection curve for the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. The MatrixEye phased array UT system, deployed by an airline inspector, produced a thick laminate $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.524''$. This is a 36% improvement over the thick laminate results from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.823''$) that evaluated the performance of airline inspectors (see Section 6.1). It is also slightly better than the results produced by Toshiba personnel deploying the MatrixEye device ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.606''$). Table 6-109 delineates the flaw detection percentages for each of the specimen design attributes (constant thickness, complex geometry, substructures regions, taper regions). It can be seen that while the flaw detection percentages produced by the airline inspector were the same as those produced by Toshiba personnel. This table also shows that there was 1 false call (False Calls = 1) for the entire experiment.



Figure 6-93: Deployment of MatrixEye Phased Array UT System by All Nippon Airways on Solid Laminate POD Experiment

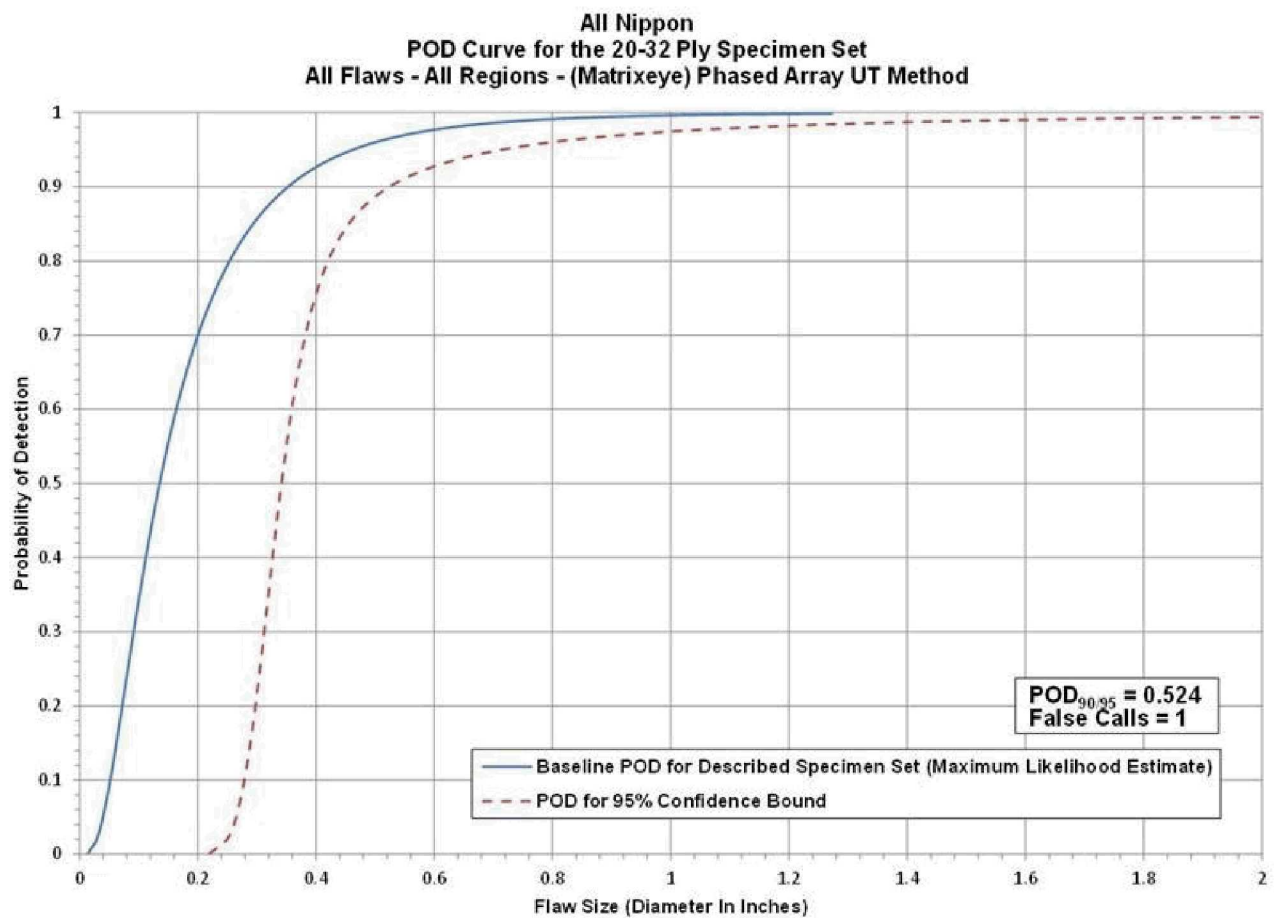


Figure 6-94: Probability of Detection Results for MatrixEye PA-UT System (All Nippon Airways Deployment) - Flaw Detection in Solid Laminate Composite Structure

Results - All Nippon - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Method			
20-32 Ply (Thick Laminate Experiment)			
POD _{90/95} Value	Percent Flaw Detection		
All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions (dia. In inches)	All Flaws Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions	All Flaws Constant Thickness Regions Only	All Flaws Complex Geometry Regions Only
0.524	97%	100%	95%
False Calls = 1			

Table 6-109: Flaw Detection Performance for MatrixEye PA-UT System (All Nippon Airways Deployment) Separated into Thick Laminate Results

Inspector flaw calls were also graded to evaluate the accuracy of the MatrixEye phased array UT method for flaw sizing. The overall test results identified hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the actual flaw location), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas (sizing performance). Tables 6-110 through 6-112 summarize the results for flaw sizing and percent detection based on flaw size for the Thick Laminate Experiment, along with a breakdown of these same performance attributes in the constant thickness and complex geometry regions. Table 6-112 summarizes the results for the overall flaw detection percentage and the associated accuracy in determining flaw size for the 20-32 ply specimen set (Thick Laminate Experiment). For the 20-32 ply specimen set 97% of all flaws were detected or 65 of the total 67 flaws were detected. This is an improvement over the conventional pulse-echo UT results where it was observed that 85% of all flaws were detected. It is also the same flaw detection level that was produced by Toshiba personnel deploying the MatrixEye device. The flaw sizing performance shows that 100% of the detected flaws were sized properly (5 category for 100% coverage) versus 31% calculated for the conventional pulse-echo UT method. Table 6-112 also shows a breakdown of percent detection based on flaw size. For example 100% of the 2" flaws were detected, while on the smaller side, 82% of the 0.25" flaws were detected (vs. 56% detection of the 0.25" flaws using conventional pulse-echo UT). These results indicate that the MatrixEye phased array UT device can be successfully deployed by airline inspectors to improve flaw detection beyond the current industry baseline.

All Nippon - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Constant Thickness (CT) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	100%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	100%

Table 6-110: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System (All Nippon Airways Deployment)

All Nippon - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Complex Geometry (CG) Flaws							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	71%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	95%

Table 6-111: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System (All Nippon Airways Deployment)

All Nippon - (Matrixeye) Phased Array UT Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size 20-32 Ply Specimen Set - All Flaws (CT & CG)							
Accuracy in Sizing the Flaws That Were Detected						Flaw Detection Percentage	
Flaw Size	5 (100%)	4 (76%-99%)	3 (51%-75%)	2 (25%-50%)	1 (< 25%)	Flaw Size	Percent Detected
0.25	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.25	82%
0.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.50	100%
0.75	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0.75	100%
1.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.00	100%
1.50	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1.50	100%
2.00	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2.00	100%
Overall Sizing Performance	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	Overall Flaw Detection	97%

Table 6-112: Tabulated Results Showing Overall Flaw Detection Percentage & Accuracy in Determining Flaw Size for the 20-32 Ply Specimen Set for All Flaws in Constant Thickness & Complex Geometry Regions – MatrixEye PA-UT System (All Nippon Airways Deployment)

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7.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Overview Thoughts on NDI for Solid Laminate Composite Structures

- Engineering and economic benefits of composites will continue to expand its use.
- Damage tolerance and durability is good but parts will sustain damage.
- Maintenance and training issues are being addressed at airlines and MROs to accommodate the transition to increased inspection of composite structures.
- This program assessed current industry capabilities by quantifying flaw detection performance in composite laminate structures.
- This experiment provides overall POD values for inspecting composite laminate structures so that the aviation industry can: 1) better understand what type of damage detection is possible for specific inspection scenarios, 2) adjust inspection procedures to optimize performance, 3) determine the level of flaw detection improvements that are possible through the application of more sophisticated, advanced NDI and 4) smartly enhance inspector preparation and training in order to generate the performance improvements possible via optimized NDI deployment, sufficient knowledge of the inspection idiosyncrasies and increased exposure to realistic, composite inspection demands.
- The SLE study showed that lower POD values are obtained in constant thickness regions and higher POD values for more complex regions.
- Overall, the results from the Solid Laminate Experiment established a capability baseline for current NDI techniques and quantified improvements stemming from advanced NDI.
- Field testing approach to this experiment provided insights into procedural and implementation issues.
- While the size of flaw, or damage, that must be detected is affected by many parameters (structure type, location on aircraft, stress and fatigue levels), the general goal for composite inspections is to detect flaws that are 1" diameter or larger. Many of the NDI Reference Standards in OEM NDT Manuals use 1" diameter flaws to guide equipment set-up. In addition, the CACRC ITG members generally concede that 1" flaw detection provides a good center point for this SLE. Thus, the flaw sizes in the SLE design were established with 1" diameter at the center. Larger and smaller flaws were included such that POD values smaller than 1" (as small as 0.25") and POD values larger than 1" (as large as 2") could be ascertained.
- NDI growth areas are focusing on features for large area, rapid scanning, improved data presentation, enhanced sensitivity, defect characterization, automated analysis, and advanced sensors/probes.
- The viability of certain NDI methods, selected to meet specific application demands, and the quantification of performance must be continually pursued. Towards that end, this composite laminate flaw detection experiment is available for continued testing. All future testing will have the results from this PE-UT and advanced NDI assessment to serve as the basis of comparison and help quantify NDI improvements.

7.2 Results from Conventional Pulse-Echo Ultrasonics POD Tests

Following is a summary from the related study to this which addressed the use of airline inspectors to quantify the performance of the conventional pulse-echo ultrasonic method [7.1].

- Overall Inspector Performance – The overall results for the Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment, which includes all areas and all skin and substructure flaws are as follows:
 - Thin 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$ dia. (60-90% of flaws were detected depending on the inspector)
 - Thick 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82''$ dia. (70-95% of flaws were detected depending on the inspector)
 - Overall (combined 12-20 & 20-32 Ply Skins) $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.13''$ dia.

This indicates that a flaw of approximately 1.125'' dia. could be reliably detected (within the industry standard of 90% POD with a 95% confidence) by an inspector using manually-deployed, pulse-echo ultrasonic equipment to inspect a composite structure in the 10-32 ply skin thickness range (plus substructures which make the total lay-up a maximum of 64 plies).

- Performance Brackets – In order to determine the difference between outstanding, good and average inspectors, the flaw detection data was adjusted to eliminate individual inspectors whose performance dropped below a specific level. The POD analyses were then completed on the remaining set of inspection data to calculate the resulting overall POD levels corresponding to inspector categories. The results from this analysis approach are as follows:
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$ dia. (all inspectors)
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.19''$ dia. (top 90 percentile) - Average
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.06''$ dia. (top 70 percentile) - Good
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.79''$ dia. (top 30 percentile) - Outstanding
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82''$ dia. (all inspectors)
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.70''$ dia. (top 80 percentile) - Average
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.54''$ dia. (top 60 percentile) - Good
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.48''$ dia. (top 40 percentile) - Outstanding

Inspectors in the upper bracket performed approximately 40% better than the overall results produced by all inspectors combined. The purpose of this exercise was to demonstrate the clear improvements that are possible if an inspector is able to improve their skills to reach the next performance level. Methods that an airline might use to transition their inspectors towards the “Outstanding” bracket include: enhanced/increased training, apprenticeships, exposure to representative inspections, enhanced procedures along with reiteration of proper procedures and inspector teaming or other oversight.

- False Calls – Overall, false calls were not deemed to be a problem. The false call rates were as follows:
 - 12-20 Ply = One False Call per 7.7 ft.²
 - 12-20 Ply (using only false calls that were larger than 0.25'' dia.) = One False Call per 14 ft.²
 - 20-32 Ply = One False Call per 10.9 ft.²
 - 20-32 Ply (using only false calls that were larger than 0.25'' dia.) = One False Call per 40 ft.²
 - Overall (combined 12-20 & 20-32 Ply) = One False Call per 8.4 ft.²
 - Overall (combined 12-20 & 20-32 Ply and using only false calls that were larger than 0.25'' dia.) = One False Call per 17 ft.²

- Flaw Sizing – Inspectors were asked to provide the size and shape of the flaws that they detected. Once the inspectors found a flaw, their ability to size the flaw using their UT equipment was very consistent. Approximately 60% of the flaws were sized between 75-100% of their actual size and approximately 80% were sized at 50-100% of their actual size.
- Inspection Challenges: Flaw Detection in Substructure Regions - Detection of flaws in the presence of substructure elements, either in the bond line or in the substructure itself (e.g. stringer, frame), are the most challenging. The complexity of the pulse-echo UT waveform increases drastically in the areas of substructure elements. In addition, the added signal penetration requirement and associated porosity increase, coupled with reflections from dissimilar materials (resin or bond lines vs. composite laminates) create lower amplitude signals. This decreases the signal-to-noise ratios such that flaw signals are more difficult to discern. Further, intermediate signals, stemming from internal inclusions, disbonds and delaminations are more difficult to clearly identify amidst an extensive set of internal reflection peaks and signal harmonics. The reduction in performance when inspecting complex geometry regions can be summarized in the following results:
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.29''$ dia. (all regions)
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.86''$ dia. (constant thickness regions)
 - 12-20 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.49''$ dia. (all complex geometry regions)
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.82''$ dia. (all regions)
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.74''$ dia. (constant thickness regions)
 - 20-32 Ply Skins $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.93''$ dia. (all complex geometry regions)
 - Overall (12-20 & 20-32 Ply Skins) $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.13''$ dia. (all regions)
 - Overall (12-20 & 20-32 Ply Skins) $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.80''$ dia. (constant thickness regions)
 - Overall (12-20 & 20-32 Ply Skins) $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.34''$ dia. (all complex geometry regions)

For the 12-20 ply skin specimen set only 51% of the flaws in the regions with substructure elements were detected. This includes flaws in the surface skin, as well as flaws in the substructure elements or bond line beneath the surface skin. Only 65% of the flaws greater than 0.75'' dia. were detected and 30% of the flaws less than 75% dia. were detected. For all specimens combined into the overall Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment (12-20 and 20-32 ply skin specimens), the inspection performance declined in the complex geometry regions. It was determined that the inspection performance in all substructure regions was 19% worse than the overall $POD_{[90/95]}$ and was 68% worse than the $POD_{[90/95]}$ value obtained in the constant thickness region (0.80'' in constant thickness vs. 1.34'' in the substructure regions). Additional experience and use of very representative NDI Reference Standards could help improve the detection levels in substructure regions.

- Inspection Challenges: Confounding Effects of Signal Harmonics – Figure 7-1 shows how signal harmonics can appear in the range of interest when harmonics from thinner surface laminates fold into the same time frame as the actual signals of interest generated from the back wall of a substructure element. In these cases, it may be critical to use the appearance of new intermediate signals to infer the presence of damage. Substantial changes in the expected shape of the back wall signals could also indicate the presence of intermediate damage where such changes may not be below the normal accept-reject threshold.

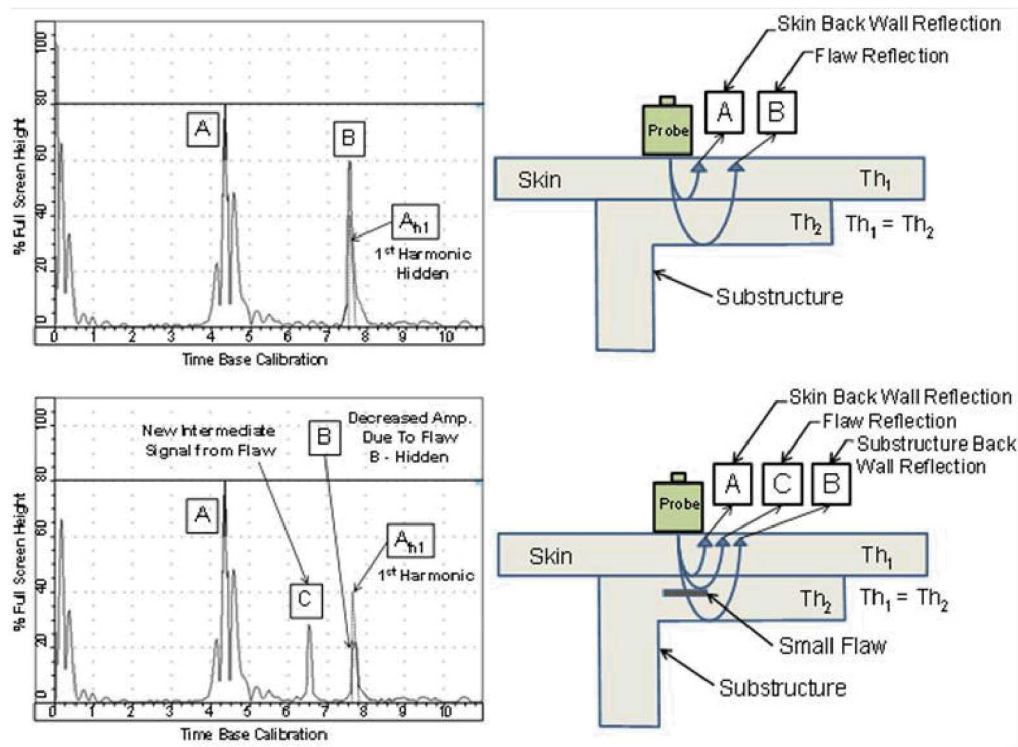


Figure 7-1: Inspection Impediment Where Signal Harmonics Occur in the Same Time Frame as the Signals of Interest

- Human Factors Issue: Effect of Inspection Rate on POD – The average inspection rates for the SLE experiment were as follows:
 - 12-20 Ply Average Coverage Rate = 2.3 ft.²/hour [Max Rate = 3.5 ft.²/hour; Min Rate = 1.5 ft.²/hour]
 - 20-32 Ply Average Coverage Rate = 1.9 ft.²/hour [Max Rate = 4.2 ft.²/hour; Min Rate = 1.2 ft.²/hour]

It was noted that there was an approximate 10% improvement in POD levels when comparing inspection rates of 2 ft.²/hour or less with those above 2 ft.²/hour. Thus, inspection rates faster than 2 ft.²/hour are not recommended. Previous studies by the AANC revealed that there are diminishing improvements to be obtained by slowing the inspection rate to very small numbers. Thus, rates below 1.5 ft.²/hour are not expected to yield better results except in cases where structural complexities warrant slower inspection rates to properly understand the resulting UT signals.

- Proper Execution of Procedures: Use of Aids to Ensure Proper Coverage – The inspection procedures discuss proper coverage of the inspection area and even suggest the use of grids or other methods to ensure that the UT transducer is moved over the entire surface area. In addition, conformable straight edges and rulers were provided to the inspectors for their use. Some inspectors completed their work using simple freehand (unguided) motion over the entire surface area of each specimen. Some inspectors divided the test specimens into quadrants, while still moving the transducer in a freehand motion, so that they could better monitor their coverage and transducer movement. Some inspectors used straight edges to

guide their transducer movement while some inspectors also added tick marks to ensure that they moved their straight edge in 0.5” increments along the test specimens. Finally, some inspectors used straight edges in some regions and freehand in other regions (the percentage of each was not logged but this combined practice was noted). The inspection results showed a significant improvement in POD for inspectors that used straight edges. The following POD values compare inspectors who used freehand transducer deployment with inspectors who used straight edges with tick marks:

- 12-20 Ply Freehand $POD_{[90/95]} = 2.39''$ dia.
- 12-20 Ply Straight Edge with Tick Marks $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.06''$ dia.
- 20-32 Ply Freehand $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.35''$ dia.
- 20-32 Ply Straight Edge with Tick Marks $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.64''$ dia.
- Overall (combined 12-20 & 20-32 Ply) Freehand $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.75''$ dia.
- Overall (combined 12-20 & 20-32 Ply) Straight Edge with Tick Marks $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.91''$ dia.

Thus, it can be seen that the inspection performance decreases by a factor of 100-125% when the inspectors attempt to cover the entire inspection area using a freehand method.

7.3 Results from POD Tests Using Advanced Nondestructive Inspection Methods

- Overall, it was determined that there are advanced NDI methods that can be deployed to improve on the flaw detection performance that was obtained from conventional pulse-echo UT deployed by airline inspectors (aviation industry baseline). The advanced NDI methods (equipment plus deployment approach) that were evaluated in this experiment covered a wide range of Technology Readiness Levels so it is important to view the performance of each NDI method in light of the TRL level. Subsequent advances in the NDI device may improve performance in the future.
- Some of the advanced NDI methods were better suited for composite laminate inspections than others. Structural features such as material type, thickness and geometry affect some NDI methods more than others, rendering some NDI methods unusable for composite laminate inspections or limiting their application to some subset of the spectrum of composite laminate designs represented in this flaw detection experiment. Thus, in addition to identifying current limitations on the applications of the advanced NDI methods tested, this experiment also highlighted some development needs that may help guide system redesigns to improve these advanced NDI methods for composite inspections.
- All of the NDI methods evaluated in this experiment produced some form of a two-dimensional image. These images either covered relatively large areas compared to single-element PE-UT or the smaller images could be tiled together to produce a wide-area coverage method. It has been demonstrated that the use of color-coded or gray-scale images, coupled with wide-area coverage that accommodates comparisons with adjacent areas, is extremely helpful in both identifying flaws and reducing false calls. It may be useful to conduct composite laminate inspections using the scanning methods evaluated here and then complete flaw confirmation inspections on questionable regions only using conventional PE-UT where focused A-scan signals can nicely compliment the C-scans. Another advantage of the advanced NDI systems is that they have the ability to store the images for future use. This allows for additional image interpretation from other inspectors,

as well as an ability to track questionable regions to determine if subtle shadings remain unchanged over time or if they evolve into something that is clearly damage in the part.

- Following is a summary of the $POD_{[90/95]}$ performance values for the advanced methods that participated in the complete Solid Laminate Experiment (i.e. combined Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment and Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment). These results are compared to the cumulative industry baseline result produced by conventional pulse echo UT ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$).
 - OmniScan PA-UT produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.716''$; 36% performance improvement
 - MatrixEye PA-UT produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.689''$; 39% performance improvement
 - MAUS V FlawInspecta linear array UT produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.884''$; 21% performance improvement
 - iPLUS laser ultrasonics produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.851''$; 24% performance improvement
 - AcoustoCam digital acoustic video produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.118''$; 1% performance improvement
 - EcoTherm pulsed thermography produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 2.299''$; 104% drop in performance
 - Q-800 shearography produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 167% drop in performance
 - THELIS-P line scanning thermography produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 167% drop in performance
 - MovieTherm lock-in thermography produced an overall $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 167% drop in performance
- Following is a summary of the $POD_{[90/95]}$ performance values for the advanced methods that completed the Thin (12-20 ply) Laminate Experiment. These results are compared to the cumulative industry baseline result produced by conventional pulse echo UT ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.287''$).
 - OmniScan PA-UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.862''$; 33% performance improvement
 - MatrixEye PA-UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.818''$; 36% performance improvement
 - MAUS V FlawInspecta linear array UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.393''$; 8.2% drop in performance
 - iPLUS laser ultrasonics produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.204''$; 6.4% performance improvement
 - AcoustoCam digital acoustic video produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.422''$; 10.5% drop in performance
 - EcoTherm pulsed thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 2.299''$; 4.8% performance improvement
 - Q-800 shearography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 133% drop in performance
 - THELIS-P line scanning thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 133% drop in performance
 - MovieTherm lock-in thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0''$, 133% drop in performance
- Following is a summary of the $POD_{[90/95]}$ performance values for the advanced methods that completed the Thick (20-32 ply) Laminate Experiment. These results are compared to the

cumulative industry baseline result produced by conventional pulse echo UT ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.823$ ”).

- OmniScan PA-UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ ”; 70% performance improvement
 - MatrixEye PA-UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.606$ ”; 26% performance improvement
 - MAUS V FlawInspecta linear array UT produced a $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ ”; 70% performance improvement
 - Sonatest Array WheelProbe with Omniscan produced a $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ ”; 70% performance improvement
 - RotoArray with Phasor XS produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
 - iPLUS laser ultrasonics produced a $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ ”; 70% performance improvement
 - AcoustoCam digital acoustic video produced a $POD_{[90/95]} < 0.25$ ”; 70% performance improvement
 - EcoTherm pulsed thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
 - Q-800 shearography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
 - LTI 5200 shearography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
 - THELIS-P line scanning thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
 - MovieTherm lock-in thermography produced a $POD_{[90/95]} > 3.0$ ”, 264% drop in performance
- False calls were not deemed to be an issue. False call rates for the top performers were less than those observed with the hand-deployed, single-element pulse-echo ultrasonic inspection method. Similarly, the ability to accurately determine the size of each detected flaw was improved significantly via the use of the advanced NDI methods. The challenging detection of flaws in the presence of substructure elements, either in the bond line or in the substructure itself (e.g. stringer, frame) was also improved when deploying the higher performing advanced NDI systems discussed in this report.
 - From the fieldable methods that participated in this experiment, it was shown that most of the phased array UT methods and some of the linear array UT methods exceeded the capabilities of conventional pulse-echo ultrasonics. A clear improvement was shown in the overall $POD_{[90/95]}$ results ranging from 20% to almost 40%. Note that laser ultrasonics performed very well but the system is not portable so it is not considered fieldable at this time. Other improvements using phased array or linear array UT systems over conventional pulse-echo UT include the following:
 - Improved flaw detection percentages
 - Improved flaw detection of smaller flaws
 - Improved detection of substructure flaws
 - Improved sizing performance
 - Faster scan speeds (coverage)
 - Fewer false calls. C-scan imaging vs. A-scans is a major factor influencing an inspector’s ability to detect and interpret a flaw, reducing the number of false calls.
 - The top performers – PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT, acoustography – primarily have detection levels in the 90% to 100% levels over all constant thickness and complex geometry regions with the exception of flaw detection percentages in the more challenging substructure regions. For flaws in the substructure region, the more successful advanced

NDI methods produced flaw detection rates in the 70% to 80% level. This can be compared with the results obtained from conventional PE-UT where the set of airline inspectors produced flaw detection rates of 63% for flaws in the substructures.

- There are some deployment issues with many of the advanced NDI methods when it comes to inspecting highly curved surfaces (bullnose) and tight spaces (channel). Many of the methods studied had difficulty detecting flaws in these regions using their normal set-up and some methods switched to different hand held encoders to attempt flaw detection. The use of scanning systems hinders the ability to inspect these regions without using a different set-up. Scanning systems work well on large areas that aren't highly curved such as a fuselage or wing sections. Thus, the size of the probes or interrogating heads in many of the advanced NDI systems evaluated in this study limited the regions that these systems can inspect, mostly pertaining to areas with small access ports or tight geometry changes. In these cases, it may be necessary to deploy the smaller, manually-deployed single-element PE-UT inspections.
- This experiment revealed that human factors issues still exist when using the more automated scanning inspection approach. A second, improved POD curve was generated by results obtained when the inspector revisited the same iPLUS data but spent additional time to study potential flaws in the images. The iPLUS system possesses full waveform data capture capability, which facilitated the ease of a second data review of both A-scan and C-scan data. When the data was analyzed a second time, it was observed that the POD value improved by 25% to an overall $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.641''$. This new POD level is a 43% improvement over the overall result from the conventional pulse-echo UT tests ($POD_{[90/95]} = 1.125''$). This indicates that flaw detection, and potentially reductions in false calls, can be improved through the use of a second, follow-on inspector to aid in data interpretation.
- The depth of penetration required to conduct successful inspections in solid laminate structures is a major impediment to many of the advanced NDI methods. This is especially evident when looking at the results from line thermography, lock-in thermography, and shearography inspections. External excitation, such as those deployed with these methods, and the resultant need to observe changes in surface conditions stemming from subsurface anomalies, make it difficult for these methods to detect deeply-embedded flaws. Note, for example, the performance of pulsed thermography in the Thin Laminate Experiment. It is slightly better than the performance produced by the conventional PE-UT method. These thin laminate test specimens are within the depth of penetration sensitivity for pulsed thermography. Thus flash (pulsed) IR is an option for inspecting thin laminate composite structures. Contrast these results with those produced by pulsed thermography in the Thick Laminate Experiment where the interrogation must be completed on much thicker laminates. In this case, the POD results are much worse than those obtain from the conventional PE-UT method. Similarly, shearography performs well for wide area imaging to detect near surface flaws. Substructure flaws must manifest themselves as changes (anomalies) in out-of-plane deformation on the surface of the part in order to be detected by shearography. As a result, thick and stiff structures are a challenge for the shearography inspection method. Small flaws, especially those embedded deep within a structure, are difficult to image as their presence has less of an effect on surface deformations. It should also be noted that a companion POD experiment for flaw detection in honeycomb composites - where the skin thickness ranged from 3 to 12 plies - revealed that both thermography and shearography inspections produce outstanding results for honeycomb structures. POD levels produced by

thermography and shearography were much better than those produced by conventional honeycomb inspection methods [7.2].

- The advantage of scanning pulse echo ultrasonics (the phased and linear array UT methods studied in this experiment) is the addition of C-scan imaging to compliment the A-scan signals used in conventional, single element PE-UT. The advantages of the scanning ultrasonic methods are: 1) C-scan area views provide the inspector with easier-to-use and more reliable data with which to recognize flaw patterns, while eliminating the human factors concerns related to continuously observing and detecting subtle changes in A-scan signals, 2) scanning approach ensures full coverage of the inspection region and allows for more rapid inspections of large surface areas, 3) multiple gate settings can be used simultaneously to optimize flaw detection at different depths within complex structures.
- An additional advantage related to the phased array UT method is that it can carefully control the generation of UT signals and data acquisition from select elements in the array to produce customized focusing of the array to improve the sensitivity of the inspection. Electronic focusing permits optimizing the beam shape and size at the expected defect location, thus further optimizing probability of flaw detection. The ability to focus at multiple depths also improves flaw sizing of critical defects in volumetric inspections. Focusing can significantly improve the signal-to-noise ratio in challenging applications, and electronic scanning across many groups of elements allows for C-scan images to be produced very rapidly.
- Phased array and linear array wheel probes have the same advantages as traditional array scanning systems, but offer the ability to scan surface structures without scanner set-up time. Another advantage is that wheel probes maintain better contact with the inspection surface and virtually eliminate probe wobble. As mentioned above, one drawback of rolling wheel probes is that their size can create deployment challenges and make it difficult to inspect in tight spaces.
- The GE RotoArray was tested using the Phasor XS controller device prior to the RotoArray being commercially available. The newness of the hardware, coupled with the inexperience associated with its use contributed to the performance that was lower than other phased array and linear array UT methods. Testing using a new commercially available RotoArray might produce improved results.
- Key advantages of laser ultrasonics are: 1) the ability to scan quickly in a non-contact mode, all the way to the edge of a part, and 2) the ability to launch a through-thickness longitudinal wave even when the laser beam impinges on the surface at an angle, 3) very large area rapid scanning at high sensitivity, and 4) the ability to scan complex geometries. Disadvantages of laser ultrasonics include: 1) lack of system portability, 2) sensitivity to surface coatings (variations in coatings can affect the strength of the ultrasonic signal), 3) maximum sensitivity requires tuning for each structure type, 4) system expertise/training is needed to ensure alignment to produce uniform signal, 5) safety concerns necessitating personnel exclusion zones, 6) the potential for the laser to damage the part surface if not used with caution, and 7) cost, some articulated robotic systems can cost \$2 million plus.
- Potential advantages of acoustography include: 1) accommodates full-field area inspection as opposed to point-by-point inspection, 2) provides near real-time, rapid screening of

components, 3) possesses high lateral resolution where ultrasound is converted into visual images by minute molecules, 4) simplicity provided by visual image which is intuitive and easy to interpret compared with electronic signals, 5) automated approach can accommodate use by lower skilled or lesser experienced operators, 6) system is hand portable with no need for mechanical scanning equipment, and 7) system is easy to set-up. Inability to inspect in tight spaces and limited large area imaging are some of the disadvantages with acoustography.

- The advantages of the thermography inspection method include: 1) thermography can be performed without physical contact with the surface, 2) single images can include relatively large areas (1-2 ft²) allowing for rapid inspections of large surface areas, and 3) two-dimensional image of the inspected surface helps the operator visualize the location and extent of any defect. The primary disadvantages of thermography are: 1) it is often necessary to apply a high-emissivity coating during inspections to obtain an acceptable image; steps have been taken to minimize the labor time associated with this task, 2) as noted above, damage to layers deep within a structure is more difficult to detect than damage in surface layers because the larger mass of material tends to dissipate the applied heat energy.
- An advantage of shearography is that through judicious selection of the surface loading method, it can detect some types of flaws, such as wrinkles, localized weak bonds and kissing disbonds, that may be transparent to most other inspection methods. The major limitation of shearography is that it cannot be applied to thick laminates as deeply embedded flaws in laminate are difficult to detect with shearography. Thus, it is well-suited for thinner-skinned honeycomb structure.
- Advantages associated with microwave techniques include: 1) can be conducted on a contact or no-contact basis, 2) only need to inspect from one side of a structure, 3) no coupling required, and 4) do not require a high level of expertise from an operator. The main disadvantage of microwave techniques is that they are limited to non-conductive materials. It has been successfully applied to fiberglass composite structures but cannot be used to inspect carbon graphite composites. Thus, the microwave inspection method did not produce acceptable performance levels during this experiment.
- Overall, this Solid Laminate Experiment was able to quantify the flaw detection performance of a wide array of advanced NDI methods that are candidates for inspecting solid laminate composite structures. Sensitivity, deployment, data presentation and human factors aspects have been highlighted here so that users can draw their own conclusions with respect to which NDI system provides the best approach for their unique needs.

7.4 Summary of Key Points and Best NDI Practices

- Overall, the results from this study provide input and recommendations to the FAA regarding guidance (e.g. Advisory Circular) that can enhance the composite inspection process. This study is driven by a desire to improve aircraft safety. Airlines and OEMs can use these results to guide NDI deployment and training, to define what flaws/damage can be reliably found by inspectors and to reduce the human factors issues in order to produce improved NDI performance in the field.

- For an inspector deploying hand-held, pulse-echo ultrasonic inspection methods, the overall $POD_{[90/95]}$ level for solid laminate composite structures occurs when the flaw, or damage, is approximately 1.0" in diameter. Flaw detection in skins has a lower (better) $POD_{[90/95]}$ while flaw detection in substructure elements has a higher (worse) $POD_{[90/95]}$.
- For an inspector deploying hand-held, pulse-echo ultrasonic inspection methods, the inspection performance in all substructure regions was 19% worse than the overall $POD_{[90/95]}$ and was 68% worse than the $POD_{[90/95]}$ value obtained in the constant thickness region ($POD_{[90/95]} = 0.80$ " in constant thickness vs. 1.34" in the substructure regions).
- It was determined that there are advanced NDI methods that can be used to improve on the flaw detection performance that was obtained from conventional pulse-echo UT deployed by airline inspectors (aviation industry baseline). For an inspector deploying the higher-performing advanced inspection methods (all methods with POD levels better than conventional PE-UT), the overall $POD_{[90/95]}$ level for solid laminate composite structures occurs when the flaw, or damage, is approximately 0.8" in diameter with the best performance of $POD_{[90/95]} = 0.64$ " and the lowest performance of $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.118$ " (compared with $POD_{[90/95]} = 1.13$ " for hand-deployed PU-UT).
- Flaw detection percentages were improved through the use of the higher-performing advanced inspection methods (all methods with POD levels better than conventional PE-UT). The top performers – PA-UT, linear array UT, laser UT, acoustography – primarily have detection levels in the 90% to 100% levels over all constant thickness and complex geometry regions with the exception of flaw detection percentages in the more challenging substructure regions. The comparison between the performance of these methods and the conventional PE-UT results is as follows:
 - Flaw detection percentage for overall experiment (all flaws) – Advanced NDI Methods = 92%; Conventional PE-UT = 79%
 - Flaw detection percentage in constant thickness regions - Advanced NDI Methods = 97%; Conventional PE-UT = 86%
 - Flaw detection percentage in the complex geometry regions (substructure, taper, curved surfaces) - Advanced NDI Methods = 88%; Conventional PE-UT = 75%
 - Flaw detection percentage in the most challenging substructure regions - Advanced NDI Methods = 74%; Conventional PE-UT = 63%.
- When inspecting composites with substructure elements, additional signal penetration requirements coupled with a more extensive set of complex reflections, results in a clear reduction in NDI performance in the region of substructure elements. Additional NDI training and use of more representative NDI Reference Standards is recommended to improve flaw detection in the presence of substructure elements.
- False call rates for composite laminate inspections using PE-UT methods were extremely low with one false call occurring per 8.5 ft.² of inspection area (or one false call per 17 ft.² of inspection area if only false calls greater than 0.25 ft.² in area are considered). False call rates for the high-performing advanced NDI methods were less than those observed with conventional PE-UT.

- Successful efforts to transition inspectors from “average” to “good” or “outstanding” performance levels will have a significant effect on POD_[90/95] levels. Possible measures to achieve this include: increased training, apprenticeships, exposure to representative inspections, enhanced procedures, inspector teaming and awareness training on inspection obstacles.
- Signal harmonics and composite construction scenarios that result in a complex set of signal reflections, were determined to be the major contributors in reducing NDI performance while laminate thickness, tapered ply regions and curved, or non-flat, surfaces were not significant factors on the NDI results.
- From a human factors perspective, the inspection of large areas can reduce NDI performance and the recommendation is that any wide area inspections be divided into a number of smaller regions to allow for the necessary inspection focus. The use of two-man teams is another recommendation for NDI improvement and this was supported by the analysis accompanying this experiment.
- All of the advanced NDI methods evaluated in this experiment produced some form of a two-dimensional image. The use of color-coded or gray-scale images, coupled with wide-area coverage that accommodates comparisons with adjacent areas, is extremely helpful in both identifying flaws and reducing false calls. The advantage of scanning pulse echo ultrasonics (the phased and linear array UT methods studied in this experiment) is the addition of C-scan imaging to compliment the A-scan signals used in conventional, single element PE-UT.
- The advanced NDI methods (equipment plus deployment approach) that were evaluated in this experiment covered a wide range of Technology Readiness Levels so it is important to view the performance of each NDI method in light of the TRL level. Subsequent advances in the NDI device may improve performance in the future.
- With respect to both POD and the generation of false calls, it was determined that the optimum inspection rate is approximately 2 ft.² per hour. Furthermore, the SLE tests revealed that aircraft inspectors currently conduct their inspections with a coverage rate of approximately 2 ft.² per hour.
- The use of inspection coverage aids, such as straight edges and/or tic marks, is highly recommended. It was determined that inspectors who used such aids performed significantly better than inspectors who did not.
- This experiment revealed that human factors issues still exist when using the more automated scanning inspection approaches of the advanced NDI methods. A second, improved POD curve was generated by results obtained when the inspector revisited the same data. This indicates that flaw detection, and potentially reductions in false calls, can be improved further through the use of a second, follow-on inspector to aid in data interpretation.
- The Ramp Damage Check experiment revealed the ability of untrained people to receive basic training and properly deploy the “Go”/“No Go” NDI equipment if they utilize

sufficient attention to detail. The key is that the user must properly set up the equipment in order for the subsequent inspections to be effective.

- Limitations in the application of the “Go”/”No Go” devices were identified and user guidance with respect to equipment deployment in various composite constructions was developed. Equipment users must understand the exact layout of the composite structure (surface, subsurface and taper regions) in order to complete an accurate calibration and to understand the resulting indications from the equipment.
- The inspection devices that operate in a “Go”/”No Go” mode, such as the Ramp Damage Check and the Bondtracer devices, cannot be easily deployed in taper regions or other regions with rapidly changing configurations.
- The use of an audible alarm on the “Go”/”No Go” devices and/or the addition of an alarm light to the hand-held probe are highly recommended. This would prevent the operator from having to look at the device to read the display at all times. It would also eliminate tedious eye motion, as well as the concern over proper equipment orientation relative to the user.
- In general, the lack of routine exposure to composite inspections makes it difficult for inspectors to maintain the necessary level of expertise. It is recommended that OEMs, or some other aviation agency, design a set of composite specimens – much like the NDI Feedback Specimens utilized in this experiment – for insertion into aircraft NDI shops. Added exposure to available flaw specimens is viewed as a way to keep the inspectors ready, well-trained and current on composite inspections.
- Overall, this Solid Laminate Experiment was able to quantify the flaw detection performance of a wide array of advanced NDI methods that are candidates for inspecting solid laminate composite structures. Sensitivity, deployment, data presentation and human factors aspects have been highlighted here so that users can draw their own conclusions with respect to which NDI system provides the best approach for their unique needs.

References

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APPENDIX A

Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

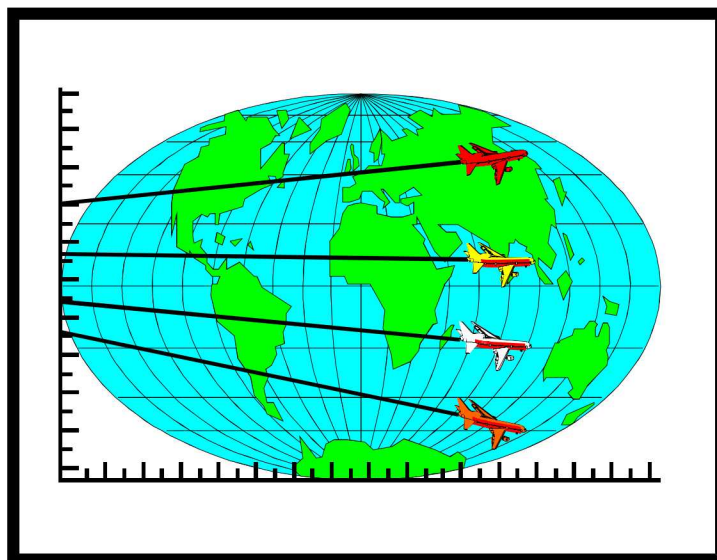
Experimenter Information Packet

(sent to host coordinators prior to experiment deployment)



Detection of Hidden Flaws in Aircraft Solid Laminate Composite Structure

EXPERIMENTER INFORMATION PACKET



**Experiment Coordinators: D. Roach (505)844-6078
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**FAA Airworthiness Assurance Center
Infrastructure Assurance and NDI Department
Sandia National Labs**

Experimenter Briefing and Information

Introduction

The Sandia National Labs' FAA Airworthiness Assurance NDI Validation Center (AANC), under contract to the Federal Aviation Administration's William J. Hughes Technical Center, is conducting an experiment to assess flaw detection in composite laminate aircraft structures. The Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment, including a set of 15 composite laminate test specimens containing engineered flaws, will travel to airlines, third party maintenance depots, aircraft manufacturers, and NDI developer labs to acquire flaw detection data. The experiment will require approximately 2 to 4 days of each inspector's time. In general, inspectors will be asked to locate and size hidden flaws in the test specimens. After a sufficient number of inspectors have completed the experiment (using standard pulse-echo UT), industry-wide performance curves will be established that determine: 1) how well current inspection techniques (PE-UT) are able to reliably find flaws in composite laminate structure, and 2) the degree of improvements possible through the integration of more advanced NDI techniques and procedures. The inspections will emphasize flaw detection methods applicable to solid laminate structures ranging from 12 plies to 64 plies thick. The results will be published as industry-wide performance measures and all links to specific aircraft maintenance depots will be permanently removed.

Inspectors will gain experience and feedback on the implementation of your inspections on representative aircraft structure. No individual inspector's names will be linked to any experiment results. Similarly, no organization's name will be linked to any group of experiment results. However, results will be made available to potential users and they will be able to compare the results of competing inspection techniques and systems.

The inspectors will receive feedback on how they performed in the experiment. This will come in the form of tabulated results indicating the number of flaws correctly detected, the number of flaws missed, the number of false calls made, and the ability of the inspector to accurately size the flaws they detected. We can also provide feedback on the type of flaws that were detected and missed so that the inspector will learn what types of flaws they have trouble detecting. It is important to note that the feedback to the inspectors is kept confidential. In the final aggregate results, we ensure that the participants are always kept anonymous so that there is no way to correlate any results to a specific person or airline.

Background

The inspection category for evaluation in this experiment is the inspection for representative disbonds, interply delaminations, and "simulated" impact flaws in solid laminate composite structures. The test articles are modeled after the general range of construction scenarios found on commercial aircraft. The test program is intended to evaluate the technical capability of the inspection procedures, process and the equipment (i.e. NDI technique). Evaluation of inspector specific or environment specific factors associated with performing this inspection are not the primary objective of this experiment. However, notice will be taken by the experiment monitor if such factors seem to influence results or if unplanned events occur which could impact the results of the inspection. Specific notice will be taken if issues such as deployment or maneuverability adversely affect the outcome of the inspection.

For this experiment a set of test specimens containing engineered flaws have been manufactured. The inspections will be conducted on a series of panels and Bullnose specimens of different sizes. These panels will be placed on a foam frame to support the entire perimeter of the panel and the Bullnose specimens will be placed on a flat surface to produce uniform boundary conditions across all experimenters. You will be asked to inspect each test specimen and provide any information you can about the presence of applicable flaws. If you determine that flaws are present, you should then provide size and shape information about each detected flaw. The results should be marked directly on the test specimen using only markers provided by the experiment monitors. *Inspectors should use any positive indications to find flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter.* Experimenters should work at a pace that is comfortable for them. Although monitors will note start and stop times for your inspection, time to inspect is a secondary variable of the experiment. Inspectors should take whatever time is necessary to assure that any and all flaws in the test specimens are found.

1. Test Specimens and the Flaw Detection Experiment

Engineered Specimens - Engineered specimens have been manufactured that mimic the inspection applications of interest and include realistic flaws found in those structures. Specific information on the construction of the test panels follows. Experimenters will be told the configuration of each panel they inspect and be provided with drawings for reference.

- **Laminate Type** - carbon graphite
- **Laminate Thickness** - Panels have 12 (~.078"), 20 (~.130"), 24 (~.156") and 32 (~.229") plies.
- **Paint** - All panels are painted as per current aircraft specifications.
- **Substructure Thicknesses** - .075", .125", .192", .225", and .250"
- **Tapered Area Ranges** - 12-20 (.50" step), 20-32 (.50" step), 12-20 (.25" step)
- **Specimen Deployment** - During testing, panels will be placed on a flat surface to support the entire footprint.
- **Flaw Detection** - Inspectors should use any positive indications to find flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter.
- **Inspection Device** - For the most part, the inspector will utilize their own NDI equipment. We will provide acceptable inspection devices (UT probes) to be used for this testing (meet Boeing/Airbus specs) and the inspectors will make the final choice based on availability and familiarity with that equipment. Some testing with non-standard devices may also be conducted in order to form a basis of comparison with results obtained using the recommended pulse echo UT devices.
- There are two separate experiments. There is a Thin Laminate Skin experiment with skins ranging from 12-20 plies (0.078" to 0.130" thick) and total thickness extending to 62 plies (0.406") when substructure is considered. There is also Thick Laminate Skin experiment with 32 ply skins (0.21" thick) and total thickness extending to 58 plies (0.377") when substructure is considered.

Equipment Calibration and Familiarization - Each blind inspection process will be preceded by inspections on appropriate training/feedback specimens supplied by the experiment monitors. The inspector will be given information on the manufactured flaws present in the

training/feedback specimens and will be allowed to use them for check-out of their inspection equipment. The training/feedback specimens will have similar construction as the blind test specimens and include similar flaws. Thus, they also can be used to allow inspectors to become familiar with an inspection device and learn about a specific equipment's response for various solid laminate composite structures and flaws within those structures. Figures A-1 thru A-5 show the flaw profiles of all the training/feedback specimens.

Figure A-6 is a drawing of various cross-sectional views of the 12 ply training/feedback specimen showing how the pillow inserts & Graphoil inserts are used to simulate interply delaminations, flat bottom holes are used to simulate the presence of an air gap, and pull tabs are used to simulate the presence of an air gap between the laminate and the bonded substructure. The training/feedback specimens will be used as a training tool prior to starting the experiment and will also be used by inspectors during the course of the experiment to set-up their equipment.

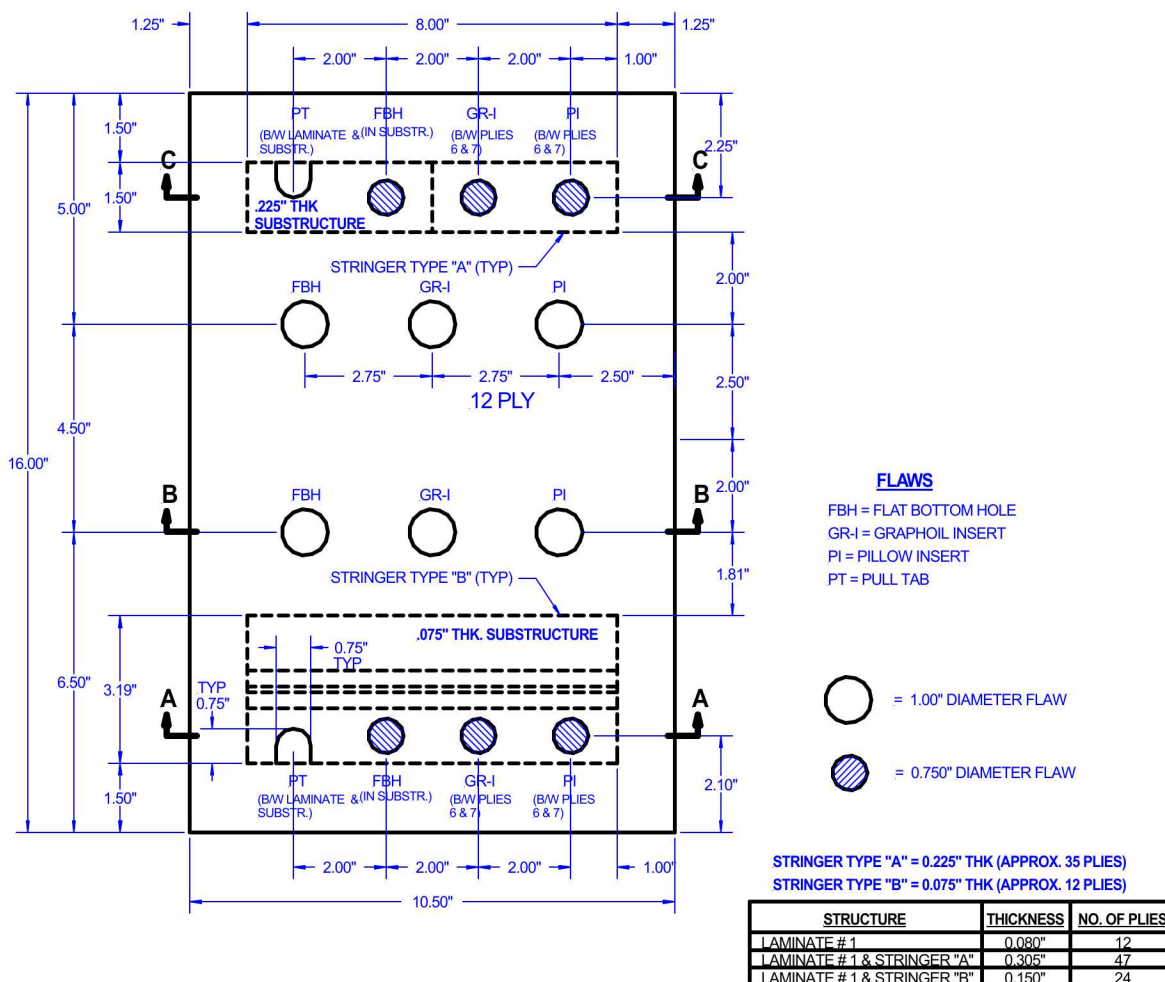


Figure A-1: Final Design of 12 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen

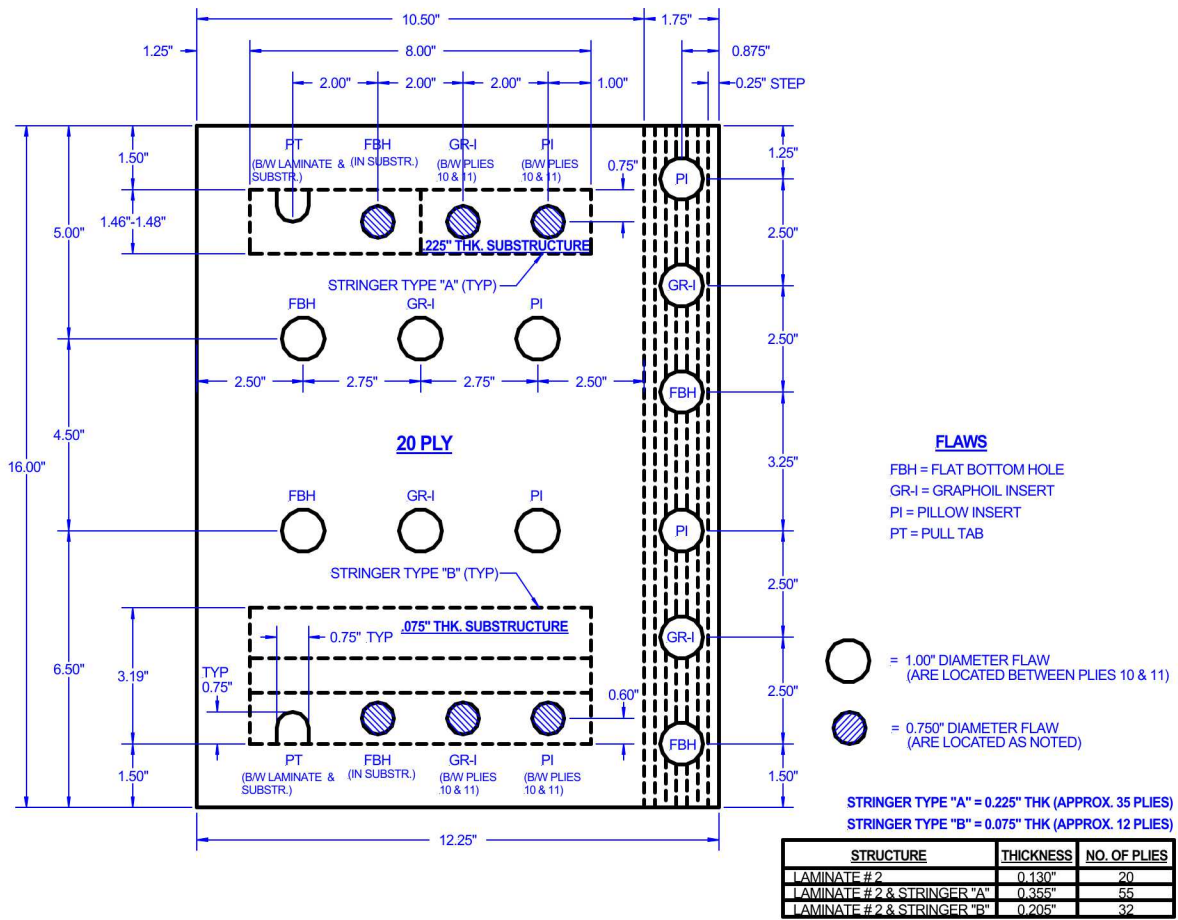


Figure A-2: Final Design of First 20 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen with Taper

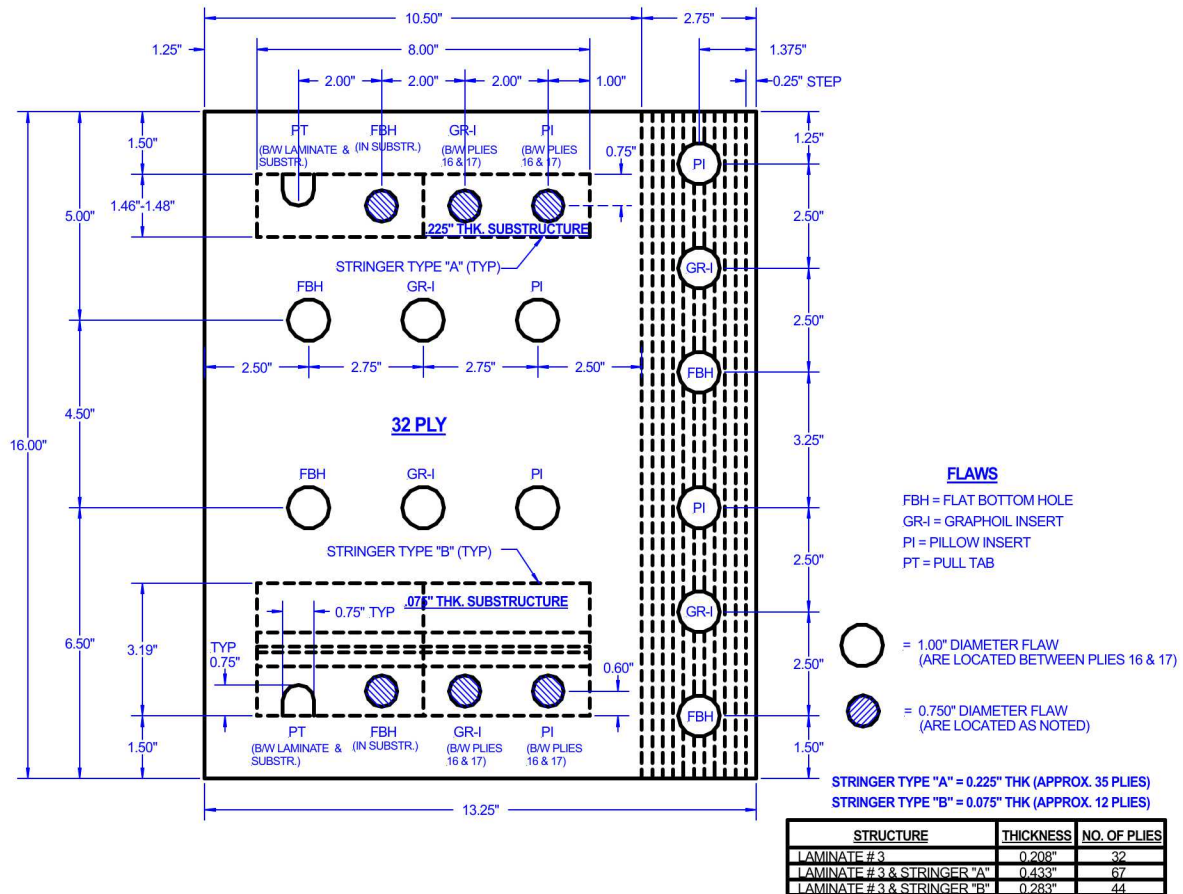


Figure A-3: Final Design of 32 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen with Taper

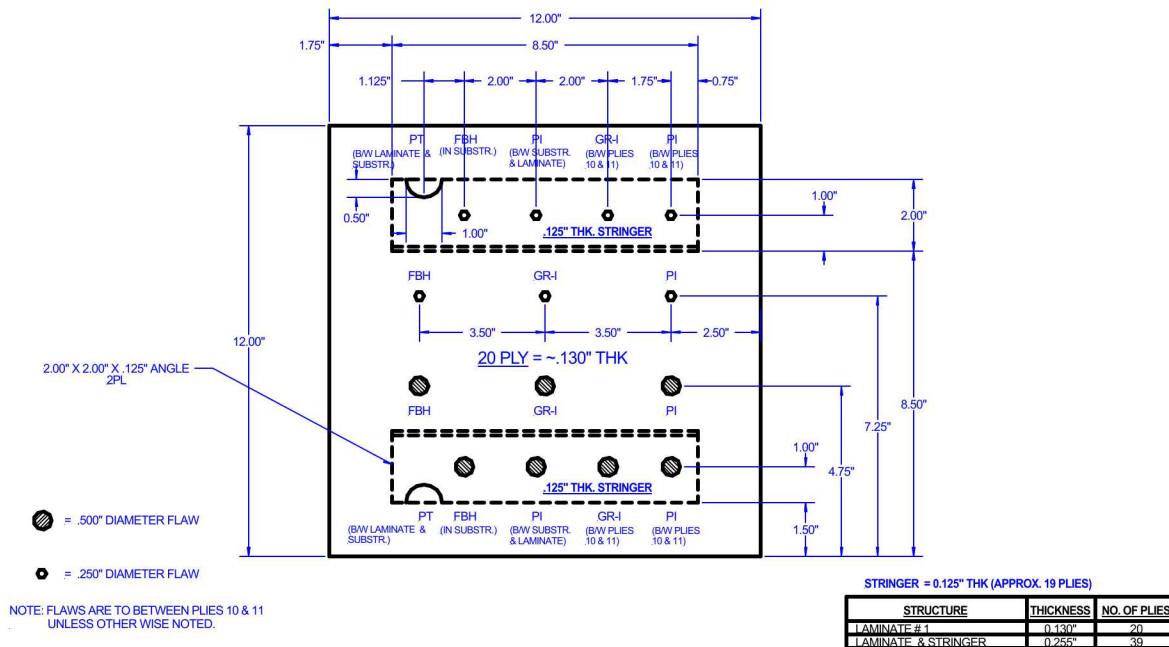


Figure A-4: Final Design of second 20 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen without Taper and Different Substructure and Smaller Flaws

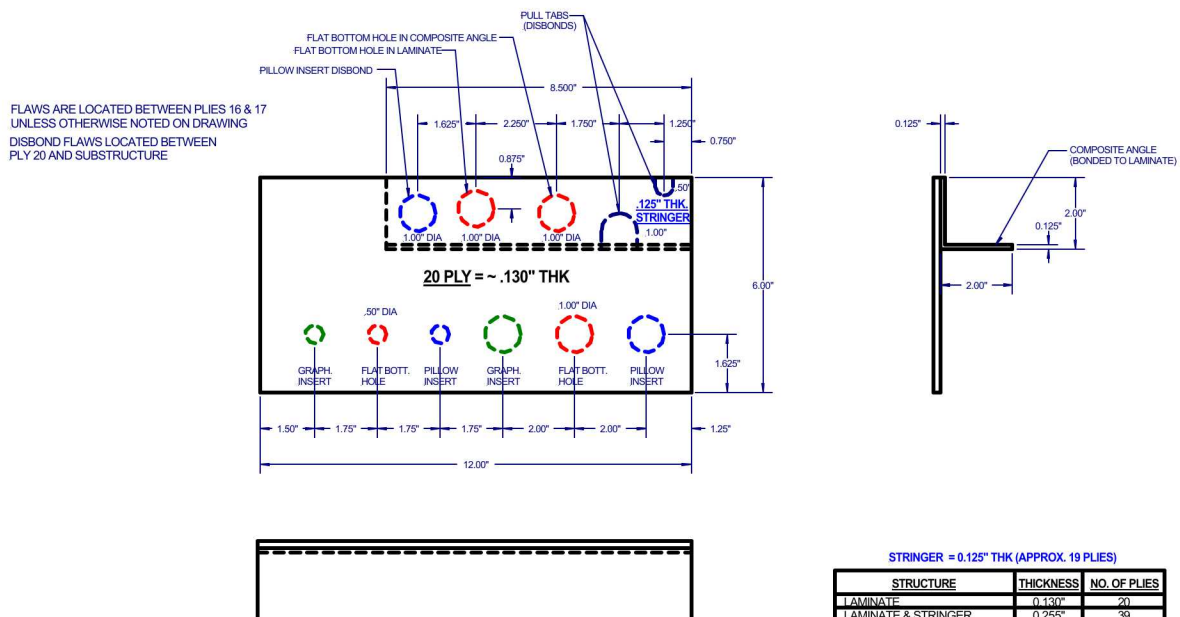


Figure A-5: Final Design of third 20 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen

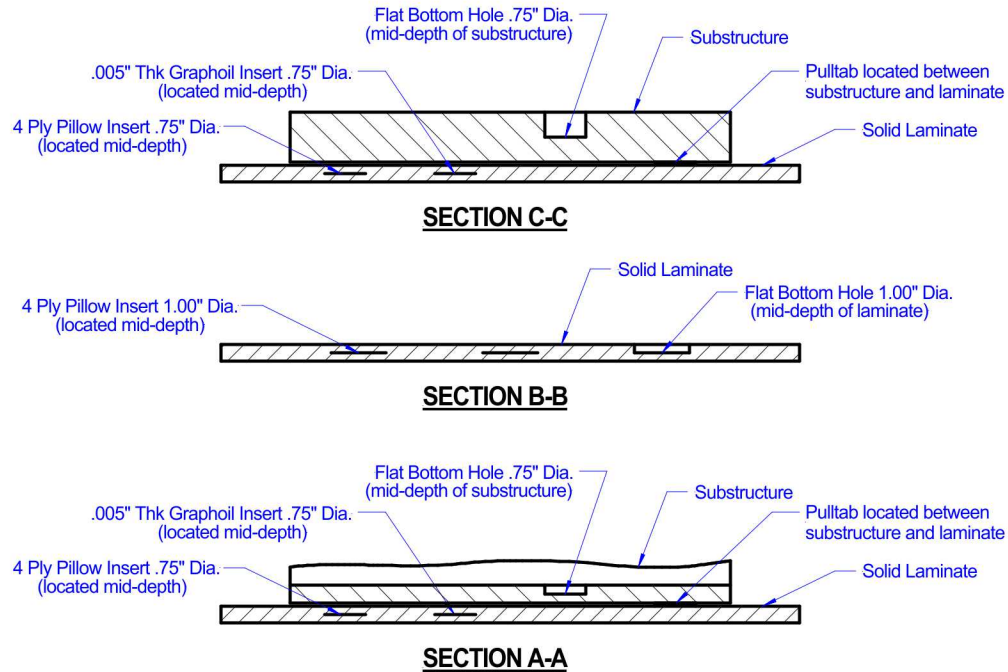


Figure A-6: Cross Section Views of 12 Ply Training/Feedback Specimen Showing the Locations of the Different Flaws

2. Performance Metrics

Multiple performance attributes will be discussed in the final report for this experiment. These are given in the table below and are briefly discussed following the table. Quantitative metrics (standards applied to events that can be numerically counted or quantified) will be applied when appropriate but many of the performance attributes will be discussed using qualitative metrics (standards that rely on human judgments of performance). Where practical, qualitative assessments will be based on predetermined criteria to ensure grading consistency. The intent is to provide useful summaries of the major factors that would influence the user communities' perception of the viability of the technique or specific equipment. Because different users may have different priorities, we will not rank or prioritize the various measures.

Quantitative Metrics - objective standards applied to events that can be numerically counted or quantified.

Qualitative Metrics - subjective standards that rely on human judgments of performance; where practical, qualitative assessments will be based on predetermined criteria to ensure grading consistency.

STRUCTURED EXPERIMENT EVALUATION CRITERIA	
1.	Accuracy and Sensitivity
2.	Data Analysis Capabilities
3.	Versatility
4.	Portability
5.	Complexity
6.	Human Factors
7.	Inspection Time

1. Accuracy and Sensitivity

Accuracy is the ability to **detect** flaws reliably and correctly in composite structures and repairs without overcalling (false calls). Sensitivity is the extent to which the inspection system responds to flaws as a function of size, type, and location (e.g., proximity to repair edges, underlying or adjacent structural elements) in the structure.

Test results will be graded to evaluate the accuracy of quantitative measurements and to assess qualitative measurement parameters. The test results will identify hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the solution), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas, and accuracy of quantitative call.

2. Data Analysis Capabilities

Data analysis capabilities define how well the inspection system and process can correctly characterize flaws. Analysis capabilities include, but are not limited to, the ability to identify the flaw size (e.g., lateral extent), flaw location, and flaw type (i.e., distinguish between disbonds and delaminations). Quantitative aspects of the data analysis capabilities are provided by evaluating the accuracy and sensitivity as discussed above. Also, the repeatability, reliability, degree of automation, data storage and retrieval capabilities and constraints, and subjective interpretation requirements are considered when assessing the data analysis capabilities.

3. Versatility

Versatility is the capability of the inspection system to be easily adapted for application to varying inspection tasks and conditions (e.g., varying surface conditions, specimen orientations and accessibility). Versatility is primarily assessed using qualitative metrics, such as calibration and equipment reconfiguration requirements to address differing inspection applications. Furthermore, variations in system performance due to changes in the surface condition (e.g., paint variations, front and/or back surface contaminants, surface scratches or dents), and specimen configuration (e.g., accessibility and orientation).

4. Portability

Portability is the capability of the inspection system to be easily moved and used in standard aircraft inspection applications. Portability is assessed using qualitative metrics such as the inspection system's size, weight, apparent ease of use in each evaluated inspection application, and inspection restrictions (i.e., limitations created by power requirements, tethering or remote control issues, safety, or other factors that may restrict equipment usage). Equipment storage and shipment requirements will also be considered when evaluating the system portability.

5. Complexity

Complexity is the intricacy of the tasks required to perform the inspections and data analysis. The inspection system should be suitable for use by qualified airline NDI personnel. Also, the inspection process should be efficient, repeatable, and reliable. Complexity is assessed using qualitative metrics, such as: the number of people required to perform the inspection; the number and difficulty of the range of tasks required for the inspection (including setup, calibration, system reconfiguration for changing inspection requirements, data acquisition, and data analysis); the number of simultaneous tasks required; tasks requiring unusual manipulative skills (as compared to traditional inspection needs) or which place the inspector in awkward positions that may be uncomfortable; and tasks that require advanced interpretative skills (including calibration, data acquisition, and data analysis - both qualitative and quantitative).

6. Human Factors

For purposes of this evaluation, human factors include procedures or equipment (hardware or software) related inspection elements that may act as a source of human error. Environmental factors such as temperature, noise, and lighting level will not be considered. The Human Factors criterion is assessed subjectively considering: man-machine interface issues (e.g., data presentation clarity and ease of interpretation, presentation speed, layout and usability of knobs and dials, opportunities for operational or interpretative errors, glare effects, safety to the inspector and others in the surrounding area, etc.); written procedure usability (e.g., clarity, correctness, correlation to tasks actually performed); inspector education, training (initial and recurring) and experience requirements; objective versus subjective calibration, inspection, and analysis processes.

7. Inspection Time

Inspection time is assessed quantitatively. Set up, clean up, inspection, and analysis time will be measured. This includes re-calibration and equipment reconfiguration time to move to differing inspection applications.

3. Experimenter Flaw Calls and Data Logging

The purpose of this experiment is to determine the capability of various inspection methods to detect and measure flaws in solid laminate composite aircraft structure. The Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment will travel to airlines, third party maintenance depots, aircraft manufacturers, and NDI developer labs to acquire flaw detection data.

For this experiment a set of test specimens containing engineered flaws has been manufactured. The inspections will be conducted on a series of panels and Bullnose specimens of various sizes. These panels will be placed on a foam frame to support the entire perimeter and the Bullnose specimens will be placed on a flat surface to produce uniform boundary conditions across all experimenters. You will be asked to inspect each test specimen and provide any information you can about the presence of applicable flaws. If you determine that flaws are present, you should then provide size and shape information about each detected flaw. If possible, the results can be marked directly on the test specimen using only the markers provided by the experiment monitors.

If instructed by the experiment monitors, inspection results can also be marked on a full-scale sheet of tracing paper. Registration points/lines should be used on the tracing paper to assure location accuracy of the flaws. Also, test specimen numbers should be logged onto each log sheet. Note: if providing C-scan or other signal data as final results, you should identify flawed area and size (x and y dimension if at all possible on the scan image). Figure A-7 shows a sample set of flaw marks on one of the solid laminate test specimens. This study would like to assess performance for flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter. Inspectors should use any positive indications to find flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter. It is not necessary to track small anomalies, such as porosity, that are less than 1/4" in length.

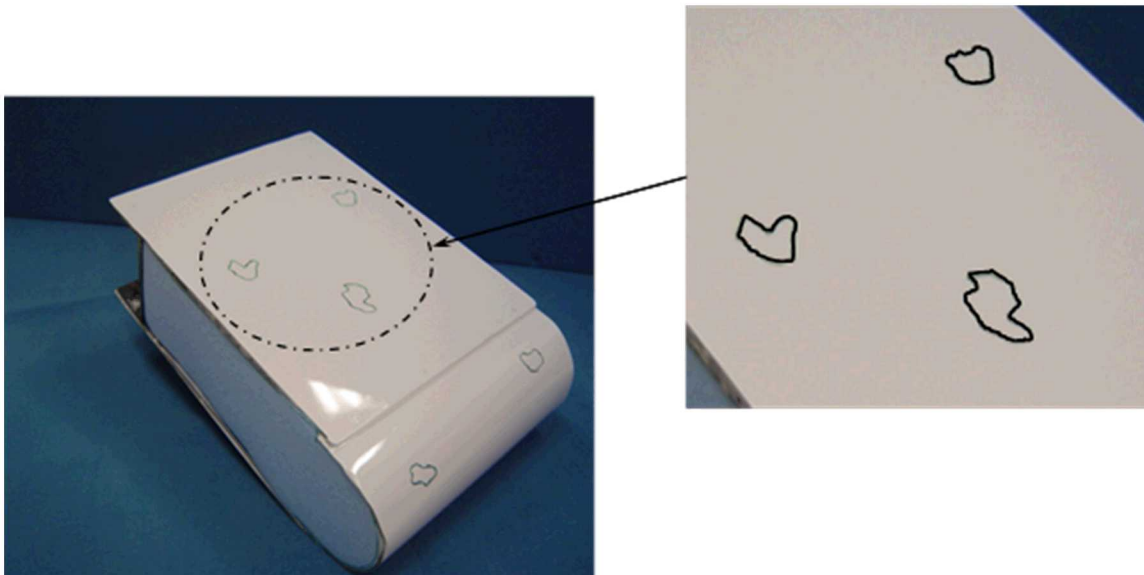


Figure A-7: Sample Set of Inspector's Flaw Marks on a Solid Laminate Test Specimen

Typical Signals & Flaw Calls

Figures A-8 through A-11 show a series of representative ultrasonic signals that may be produced during a pulse-echo UT inspection of a solid laminate structure. Figure A-8 shows signals that might be expected from an inspection on a co-cured laminate (skin and substructure cured at the same time) as the transducer engages flaws at various depths in the structure. Figure A-9 shows a similar set of signals stemming from an inspection on a secondarily-bonded

laminate (skin and substructure cured separately and bonded in another process). Note that the secondary bond creates a bond line signal that will appear in time before the back wall signal. Figures A-10 and A-11 show two different signals corresponding to flaws in the laminate. In Figure A-10, the back wall signal disappears, or is reduced drastically, while a new intermediate signal between the front and back wall appears. In Figure A-11, the back wall signal is reduced significantly (approximately 30%) while a new, substantial, intermediate signal appears between the front and back wall. Normally, one would use a drop in the back wall signal below 20% Full Screen Height (FSH) as an indication of a flaw. However, due to the nature of this study and the desire to detect flaws as small as 0.25" there may be instances where the back wall signal drops significantly (perhaps 50% FSH) but not below the 20% FSH threshold. This may be due to the fact that the UT transducer has a larger footprint than the 0.25" flaw. Thus, the transducer is actually covering an area that is both flawed (center region with disruption of UT signal) and unflawed (outer region with no disruption in UT signal). However, as shown in Figure A-11, there will also be a large intermediate signal (in the 80% FSH range) that appears between the front and back wall. When this is accompanied by a non-uniform or unusual reduction in the back wall signal, it could indicate the presence of a small delamination. A schematic of the signal travel through the flawed and unflawed regions beneath the transducer is shown in Figure A-12. UT waves at points (A) and (C) are unaffected by the presence of the small delamination flaw but the UT waves at point (C) interact with the delamination. These waves around point (C) cause the back wall signal to be reduced and also create an intermediate signal between the front and back wall. Inspectors should utilize the small flaws in the feedback panels in order to understand the type of signals associated with these flaws. This will be helpful in interpreting the flaw signals in this experiment.

Specimen Deployment

During the inspections, the various panels will be placed on a foam frame to support the entire perimeter and the Bullnose specimens will be placed on a flat surface to produce uniform boundary conditions across all experimenters. The test specimens should not be turned over at any time. The foam frame, supplied, should be assembled as per Figure A-13 to support the panels properly. The order of inspections will be set forth by the experiment monitors. The inspection order may be varied, but once started on a specific panel the inspector will be expected to complete that panel before moving onto another. The test specimens and the training/feedback specimens are painted.

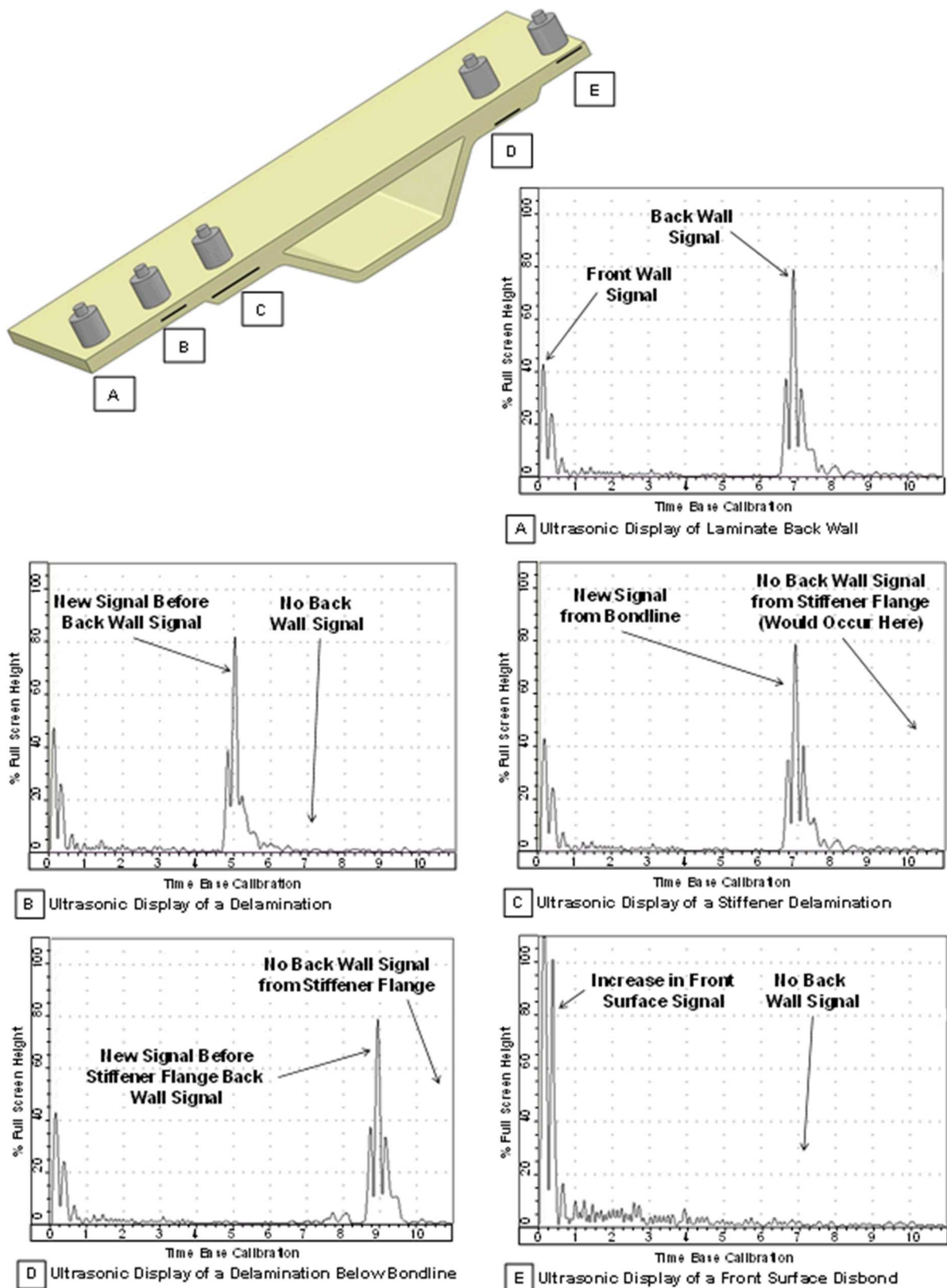


Figure A-8: Delamination Indications at Different Structure Thicknesses for Co-Cured Substructures

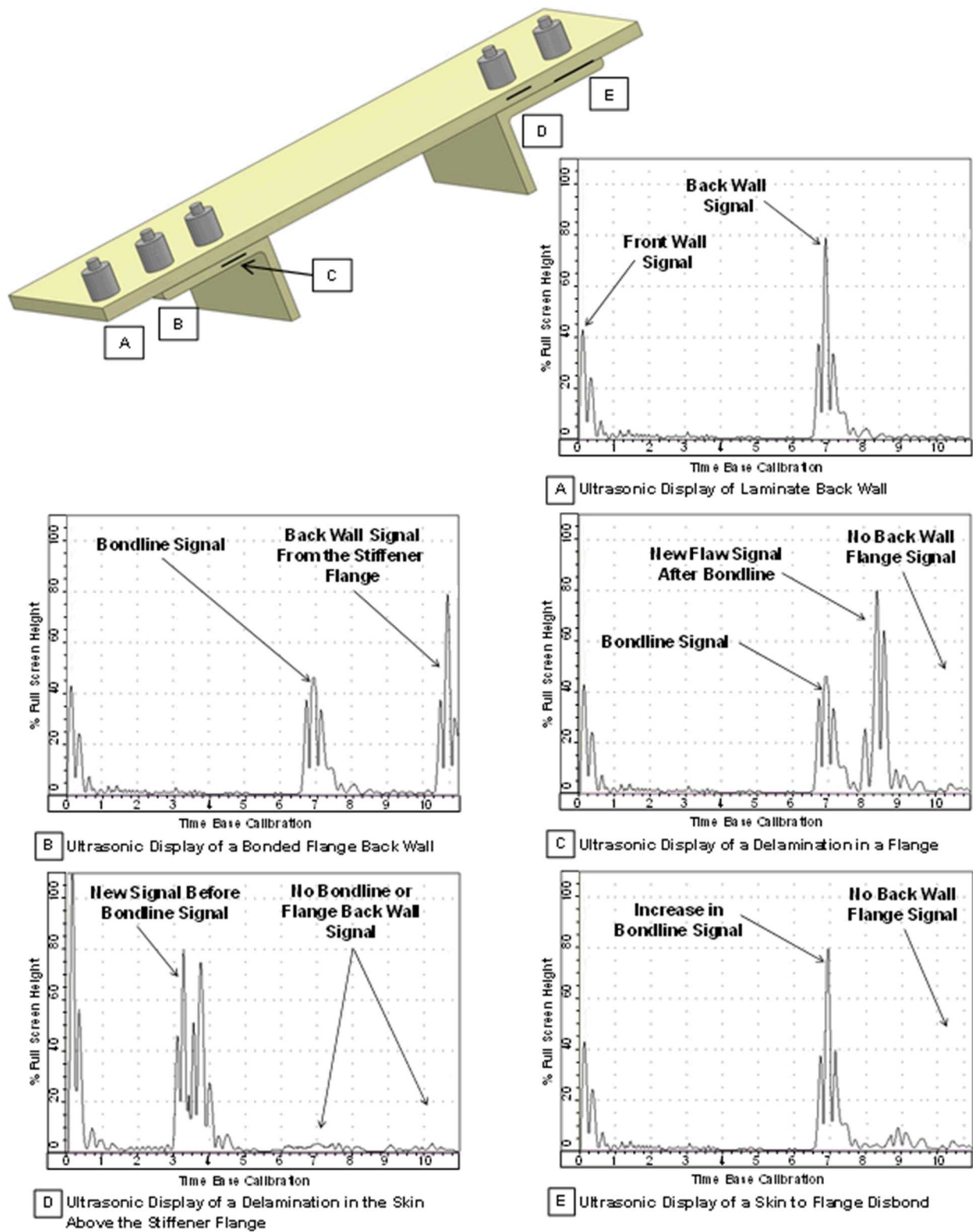


Figure A-9: Delamination Indications at Different Structure Thicknesses for Secondarily Bonded Substructures

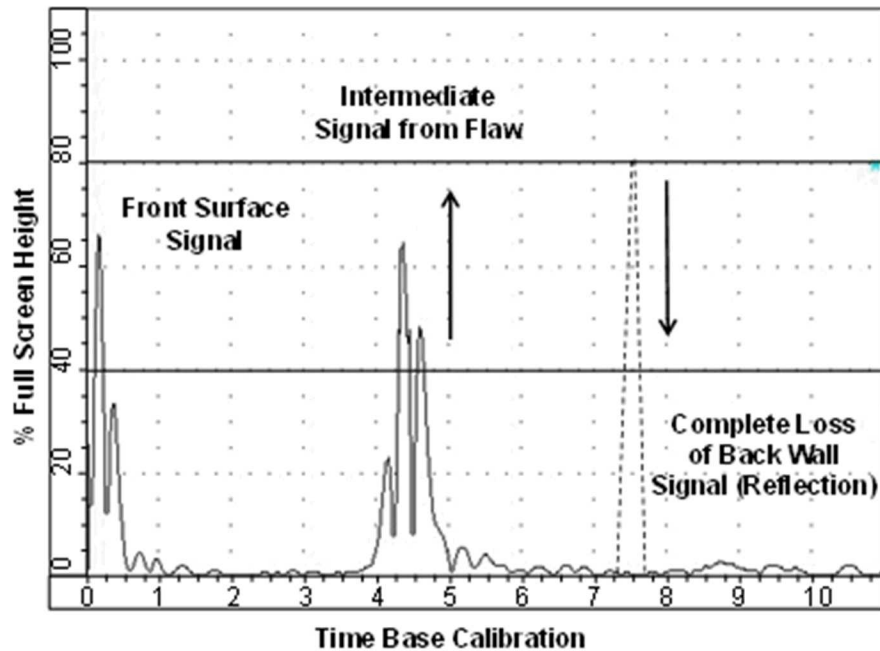


Figure A-10: Intermediate Peak and Reduction of Back Wall Signal Indicating a Flaw

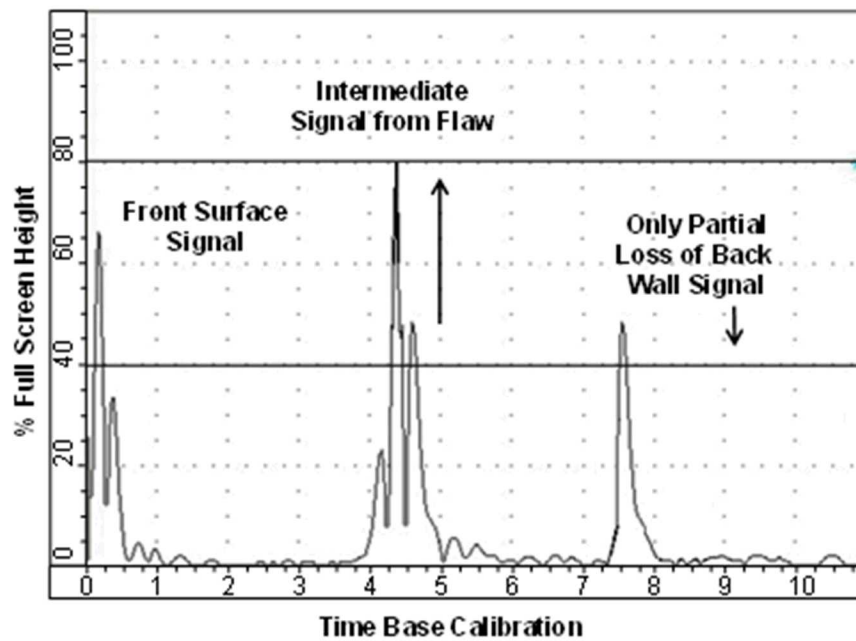


Figure A-11: Intermediate Peak with Only a Partial Reduction in Back Wall Signal that May Indicate a Small Flaw

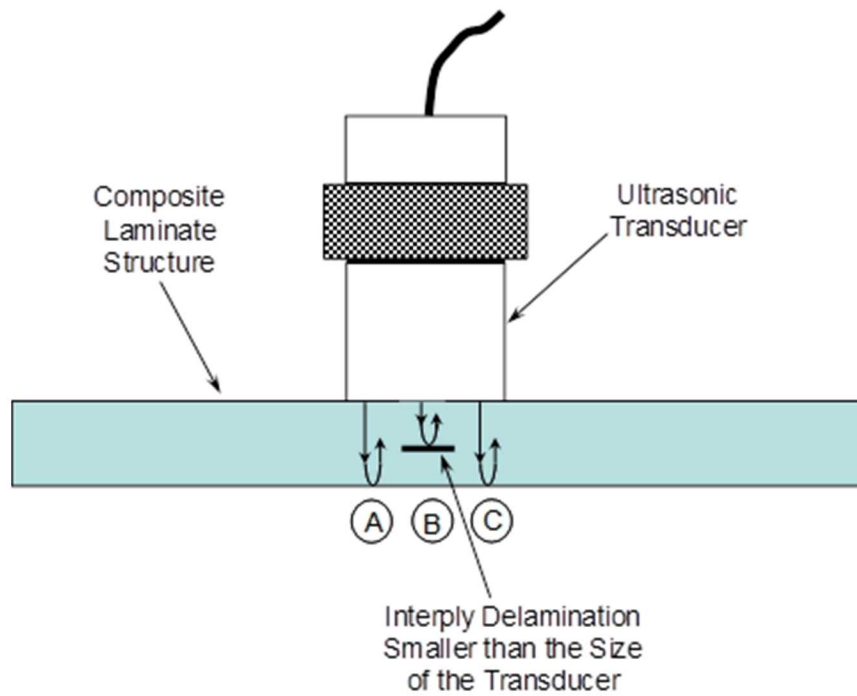


Figure A-12: Schematic Showing Reflection of Pulse-Echo UT Signals When the Flaw is Smaller than the Diameter of the UT Probe

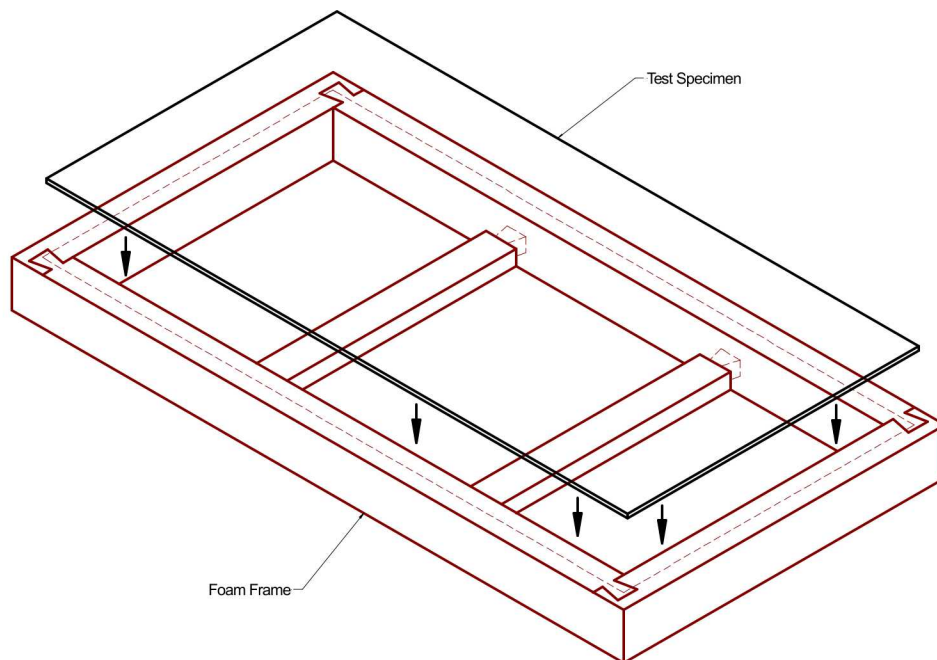


Figure A-13: During Inspections, Place Each Panel Such That it is Supported Around its Perimeter by a Foam Frame. This will Provide Uniform Boundary Conditions.

Additional guidance for inspectors performing this experiment are as follows:

- Experimenters should work at a pace that is comfortable for them. Although monitors will note start and stop times for your inspection, time to inspect is a secondary variable of the experiment.
- Applicable procedures from OEM manuals will be provided as a reference tool. Inspectors should use their own judgment as to how to perform the inspection (i.e. a strict procedure will not be enforced).
- Inspection coverage should be 100% of the panel with the exception of a small .50" band around the perimeter of the panels where edge effects may create problems.
- The Solid Laminate Training/Feedback Specimens, or equivalent, should be used to set-up the equipment. Minor equipment adjustments stemming from in-situ calibration on the parts being inspected are allowed.
- Inspectors should draw the entire size/shape of the flaw (i.e. delineate the edges).
- Training/feedback specimens should be used as an aid to determine where to make flaw call edges. This is based on the diameter of the probe and how much of the probe needs to be over the flaw in order to react/detect.
- Inspectors do not need to determine the type of flaw just the location, size, and shape of the suspected anomaly.
- Inspectors should ignore any visual clues (surface anomalies in the paint or small surface marks) and to avoid using these as flaw detection aids. Such anomalies may be intentionally planted to add complexity to the inspection. Inspectors should only make a call on those flaws that are highlighted by their inspection device.

Test results will be graded to evaluate the accuracy of quantitative measurements and to assess qualitative measurement parameters. The test results will identify hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the solution), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas. Figure A-14 is a grading parameter drawing that shows how the hits-misses-false calls results will be graded. Percentage of flaw covered will be another variable of primary interest. Error in lateral extent of flaw and maximum linear extent of overcall are variables of secondary concern and are not currently being considered as part of the grading plan.

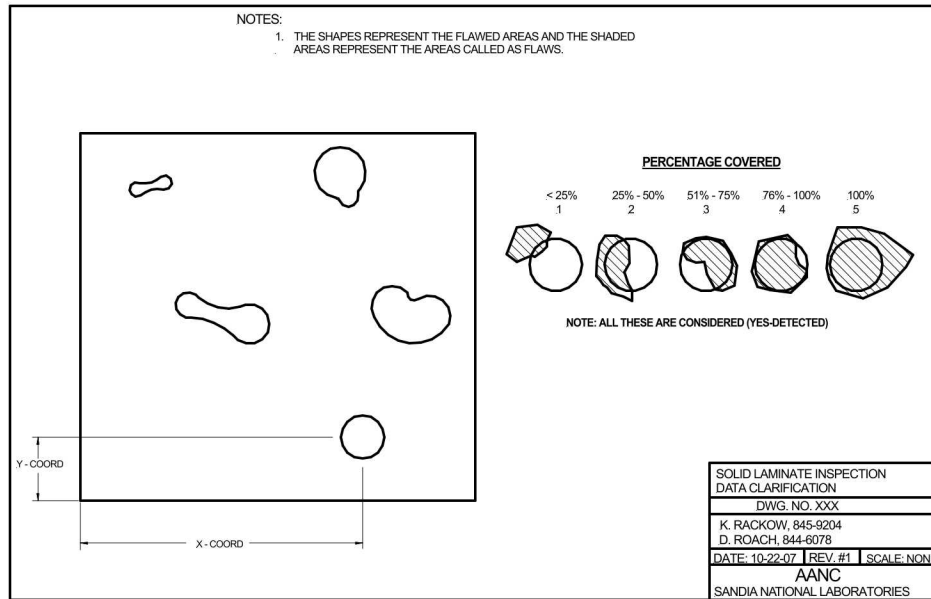


Figure A-14: Schematic Showing the Sizing Categories Comparing Experimenter Flaw Calls with Actual Flaw Information

4. Sample NDI Procedures for Pulse Echo Ultrasonic Inspection of Solid Laminate Composite Structures

Boeing and Airbus inspection procedures for solid laminate structures are provided as reference during the experiment. The procedures are for general deployment of NDT equipment that is relevant to this flaw detection experiment. The NDI procedures are included here as general information to aid inspectors in preparing for the flaw detection experiment. It is not expected that these procedures are sufficient to train an inexperienced inspector. Rather, they provide additional background and guidance to inspectors who are already familiar with the equipment and have experience in performing this type of solid laminate composite inspection. The Solid Laminate NDI Feedback Specimens provided with this experiment can be used in lieu of, or in addition to, the NDI standards described in the Boeing and Airbus inspection procedures.

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APPENDIX B

Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

Experiment Briefing

(presentation provided to inspectors prior to starting experiment)

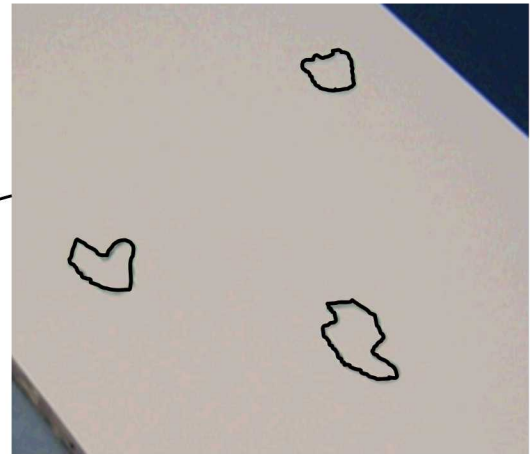
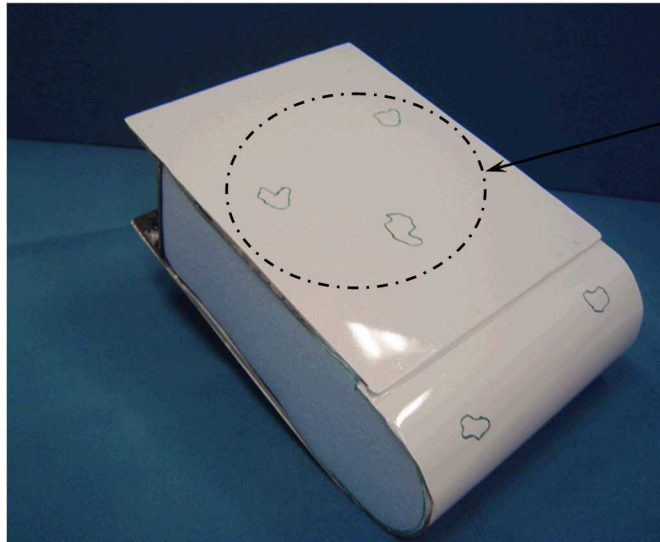
Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

Experiment Briefing

- The purpose of this experiment is to determine the capability of various inspection methods to detect and measure flaws in composite solid laminate aircraft structure. The Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment will travel to many airlines and third party maintenance depots but it is not an evaluation of individual inspectors or particular companies.
- This effort will also identify the factors influencing composite inspections so that improved methods & procedures can be developed.
- You will be inspecting for representative disbonds, interply delaminations, and impact flaws in solid laminate composite structures. The test articles are modeled after the general range of construction scenarios found on commercial aircraft.
- Inspections will be conducted on a series of test panels and structures. The flat panels will be placed on a foam frame and the Bullnose specimens will be placed on a flat surface to produce uniform boundary conditions across all experimenters. You will be asked to inspect each test specimen and provide any information you can about the presence of flaws. If you determine that flaws are present, you should then provide size and shape information about each detected flaw. The results should be marked directly on the test specimen with the provided marking device.
- At no time should the inspector look at the underside of the blind test specimens. All references to test specimen structural configuration should be done by reviewing drawings provided for each specimen type. Note: two drawings will be provided for each specimen type. The first one will show the structural configuration of the panel in the orientation it is being inspected (painted side up with dark triangle marked in upper right-hand corner). The second drawing is an Isometric of the panel if the bottom side of the panel was turned up (just to show structural details that are on underside).

- When you have completed your inspection of the panel do not remove the panel from the inspection frame. Call on your experiment monitor to remove the test panel and provide the next panel.
- We will be recording the equipment make and model, probe information, and various settings that are used during the inspections, so if at any time you change probes, frequency or other pertinent settings during your inspections please call it to our attention so that we can record them.
- There are spray bottles available if you would like to mix the couplant with water to dilute it and then spray on the test specimens for coupling purposes.
- There are two separate experiments. There is a Thin Laminate Skin experiment [1] with skins ranging from 12-20 plies (0.078" to 0.130" thick) and total thickness extending to 62 plies (0.406") when substructure is considered. There is also Thick Laminate Skin experiment [2] with 32 ply skins (0.21" thick) and total thickness extending to 58 plies (0.377") when substructure is considered.
- Inspectors can complete the Thin Laminate Skin experiment in 3 days. There are 11 specimens in this experiment. Inspectors can complete the Thick Laminate Skin experiment in 1 to 2 days. There are 4 specimens in this experiment.
- Experimenters should work at a pace that is comfortable for them; time to inspect is a secondary variable of the experiment. Inspectors should take whatever time is necessary to assure that any and all flaws in the test specimens are found.
- Test Specimens
 - **Material Type** - carbon graphite
 - **Laminate Thicknesses** - Panels have 12 (~.078"), 20 (~.130"), 24 (~.156"), and 32 (~.229") plies.
 - **Substructure Thicknesses** – .075", .125", .192", .225", and .250"
 - **Tapered Area Ranges** – 12-20 (.50" step), 20-32 (.50" step), and 12-20 (.25" step)
 - **Paint** - All panels are painted as per current aircraft specifications.
 - **Flaw Detection** - Inspectors should use any positive indications to find flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter.
 - **Inspection Device** – You may use any inspection device that you would normally use to inspect composite laminate structures.

- Each blind inspection process should be preceded by inspections on appropriate solid laminate training/feedback specimens supplied by the experiment monitors. You will be given information on the manufactured flaws present in the training/feedback specimens. The training/feedback specimens have the same construction as the blind test specimens and include similar flaws.
- Inspectors may need or choose to use alternate probes due to: a) variation and extremes in thickness, and b) our desire to find flaws as small as 1/4" diameter. The training/feedback specimens allow inspectors to try probes of various sizes and frequencies so that they can optimize their equipment before performing the blind inspections.
- The figure below shows a sample set of flaw marks on one of the solid laminate composite test specimens. This study would like to assess performance for flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter. Inspectors should use any positive indications to find flaws as small as 1/4" in diameter. It is not necessary to track small anomalies, such as porosity, that are less than 1/4" in length.
- Experimenters should try various transducers on the feedback panels (known flaw profiles) provided in this experiment to determine the best transducer to use for each laminate thickness. Existing Boeing and Airbus procedures reference the use of UT transducers in the range of 1-10 MHz (1, 2.25, 5, 10 MHz are all listed). The transducer diameters are listed as 0.5" and 0.25" dia. The required flaw detection listed in the Boeing procedures is 5/64" dia. Both the Boeing and Airbus procedures are contained in the "Experimenters Information Packet."
- An inspector will complete all specimens (11) for the 12-20 ply experiment or 4 specimens for the 20-32 ply experiment and will be asked to finish all of a specific specimen design (i.e. Bullnose, Complex Taper) before moving on to the next specimen type.



- Additional guidance for inspectors performing this experiment are as follows:
 - Experimenters should work at a pace that is comfortable for them. Although monitors will note start and stop times for your inspection, time to inspect is a secondary variable of the experiment.
 - Applicable procedures from OEM manuals will be provided as a reference tool. Inspectors should use their own judgment as to how to perform the inspection (i.e. a strict procedure will not be enforced).
 - Inspection coverage should be 100% of the panel with the exception of a small .50" band around the perimeter of the panels where edge effects may create problems.
 - The Solid Laminate Training/Feedback Specimens provided should be used to set-up the equipment. Minor equipment adjustments stemming from in-situ calibration on the parts being inspected are allowed.
 - Inspectors should draw the entire size/shape of the flaw (i.e. delineate the edges).
 - Inspectors do not need to determine the type of flaw just the location, size, and shape of the suspected anomaly.
 - Inspectors should ignore any visual clues (surface anomalies in the paint or small surface marks) and to avoid using these as flaw detection aids. Such anomalies may be intentionally planted to add complexity to the inspection. Inspectors should only make a call on those flaws that are indicated by their inspection device.

→ Training/Feedback Specimens should be used as an aid to determine where to make flaw call edges. This is based on the diameter of the probe and how much of the probe needs to be over the flaw in order to react/detect.

- Go through the series of A-scan signals in Experimenter Information Packet to clarify flaw calls.
- Test results will identify hits (calls with any amount of overlap between the call and the solution), misses (no call for an area of a known flaw), false calls (call with no overlap of a flaw), and the degree of overlap between experimenter calls and actual flaw areas.
- You will be provided with feedback to indicate how you performed - percentage of flaws found, how well you sized the flaws, and number of false calls made. Inspectors will gain experience and feedback on the implementation of your inspections on representative aircraft structure. No individual inspector's names will be linked to any experiment results. Similarly, no organization's name will be linked to any group of experiment results. However, results of all participants will be combined and potential users will be able to compare the results of competing inspection techniques and systems.
- We can also provide feedback on the type of flaws that were detected and missed so that the inspector will learn what types of flaws they have trouble detecting. It is important to note that the feedback to the inspectors is kept confidential. In the final aggregate results, we ensure that the participants are always kept anonymous so that there is no way to correlate any results to a specific person or airline.
- A series of Boeing and Airbus inspection procedures, relevant to this flaw detection experiment, are included in your "Experimenter Information Packet." Use them as you see fit. They provide information on equipment set-up and scan patterns for typical solid laminate inspections.

Appendix C

Composite Solid Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheets

SOLID LAMINATE INSPECTION TIMING RESULTS AND PANEL DISTRIBUTION (12-20 PLY)															
Panel Description	Panel Inspection Order (random)	Start Time 1	Stop Time 1	Elapsed Time 1	Start Time 2	Stop Time 2	Elapsed Time 2	Start Time 3	Stop Time 3	Elapsed Time 3	Start Time 4	Stop Time 4	Elapsed Time 4	Total Elapsed Time	
Complex Taper 1-A															
Complex Taper 1-B															
Complex Taper 2-A															
Complex Taper 2-B															
Simple Taper 1-A Upper															
Simple Taper 1-A Lower															
Simple Taper 2-A Upper															
Simple Taper 2-A Lower															
Bullnose 1															
Bullnose 2															
Bullnose 3															
Total															

Inspector Name: _____

Date: _____

Company: _____

Inspection Method: _____

Note: Multiple start and stop times for a single test specimen are provided in case the inspector needs to take a break(s) before completing inspection of a single specimen.

Figure C-1: Solid Laminate Inspection Timing Results and Panel Distribution (12-20 Ply)

SOLID LAMINATE INSPECTION TIMING RESULTS AND PANEL DISTRIBUTION (20-32 PLY)															
Panel Description	Panel Inspection Order (random)	Start Time 1	Stop Time 1	Elapsed Time 1	Start Time 2	Stop Time 2	Elapsed Time 2	Start Time 3	Stop Time 3	Elapsed Time 3	Start Time 4	Stop Time 4	Elapsed Time 4	Total Elapsed Time	
New 32 - 1															
New 32 - 2															
New 32 - 3															
New 32 - 4															
Total															

Inspector Name: _____

Date: _____

Company: _____

Inspection Method: _____

Note: Multiple start and stop times for a single test specimen are provided in case the inspector needs to take a break(s) before completing inspection of a single specimen.

Figure C-2: Solid Laminate Inspection Timing Results and Panel Distribution (20-32 Ply)

EQUIPMENT CALIBRATION

Name of inspector/facility: _____

Inspector Number: _____

12-20 or 20-32 ply Experiment: _____

Inspectors Experience: Overall NDI - _____ NDI of Composites - _____

Record the technique to be used : _____

Record equipment information :

Manufacturer: _____

Model: _____ Serial #: _____

Certification Date: _____

Record probe or other ancillary equipment information:

Manufacturer: _____

Reference #: _____

Record any other accessory information: _____

Ask the participant to provide specific equipment set/up or calibration settings. Examples of the type of information to be provided could include some of the following:

Gain: horizontal _____ vertical _____ meter _____

Frequency (kHz) _____

Filtering _____

Calibration Level _____

_____ Inspection threshold

Coil output impedance _____

Digitization _____

Figure C-3 (sheet 1): Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheet

Equipment calibration performed: YES NO (circle one)

Record calibration standard information:

a) Solid Laminate Composite Ref. Stds. were used: YES NO (circle one)

b) Other Ref. Stds. used (if so, list) _____

c) Is calibration standard used referenced in NDT manual? YES NO (circle one)

d) How long did it take to calibrate the equipment? _____

Note any difficulties encountered during equipment calibration.

Note any innovative procedures or practices used for equipment calibration.

Figure C-3 (sheet 2): Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheet

INSPECTION

Name of inspector/facility: _____

Device Deployed _____

Experience, background information (including experience on device deployed). _____

List NDI devices used at the facility for composite inspections: _____

Note any difficulties encountered during the inspection. _____

Note any innovative procedures or practices used during the inspection of this specimen.

INSPECTION DATA LOGGING

Figure C-4 (sheet 3): Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheet

ANALYSIS

Name of inspector/facility: _____

Did the operator/inspector follow pre-set criteria for flaw identification? Yes No

If Yes, describe the criteria; If No, describe how the decision was made.

Note any difficulties encountered during the analysis of this specimen?

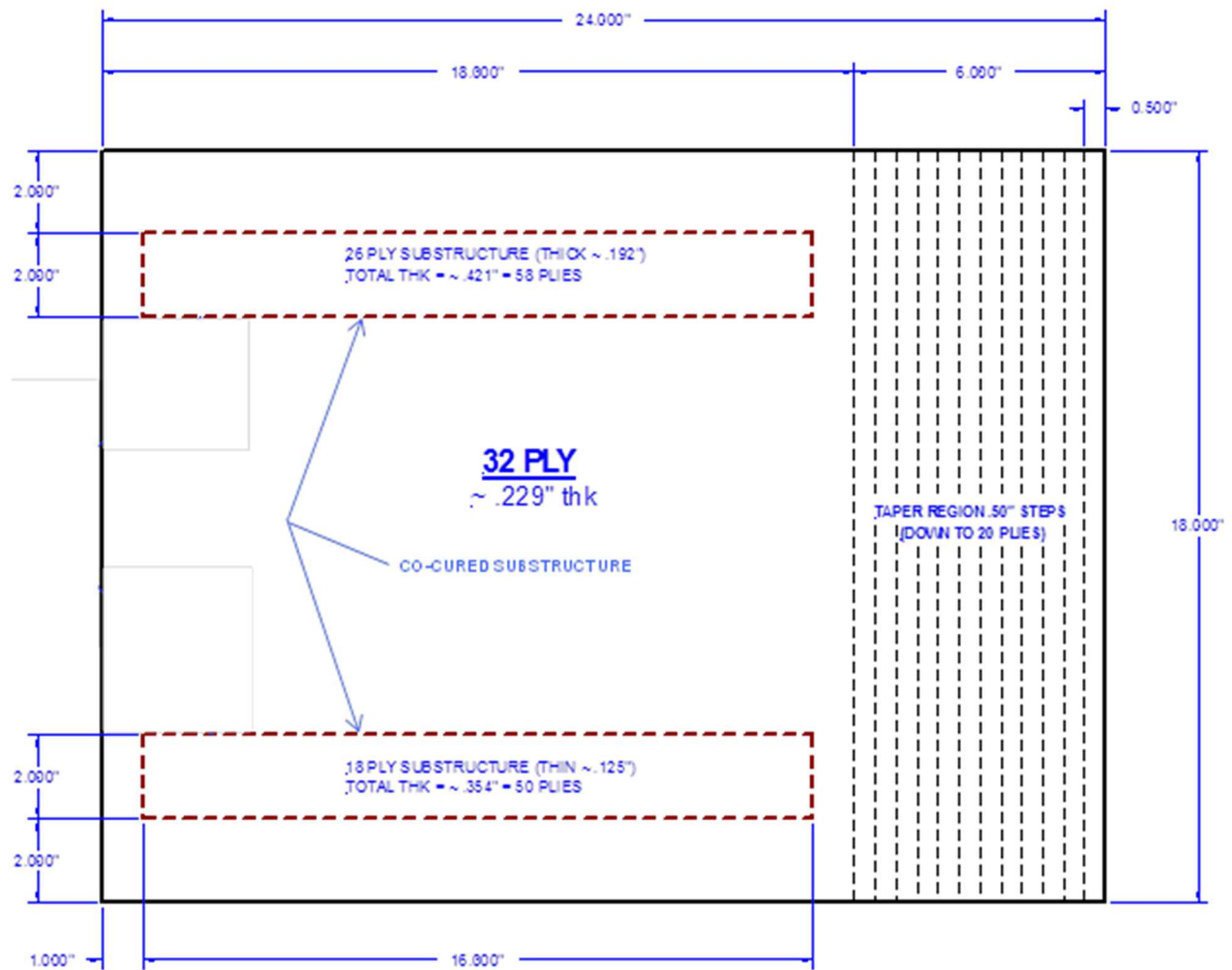
Note any innovative procedures or practices used for analysis?

Figure C-5 (sheet 4): Experiment Monitor Data Acquisition Sheet

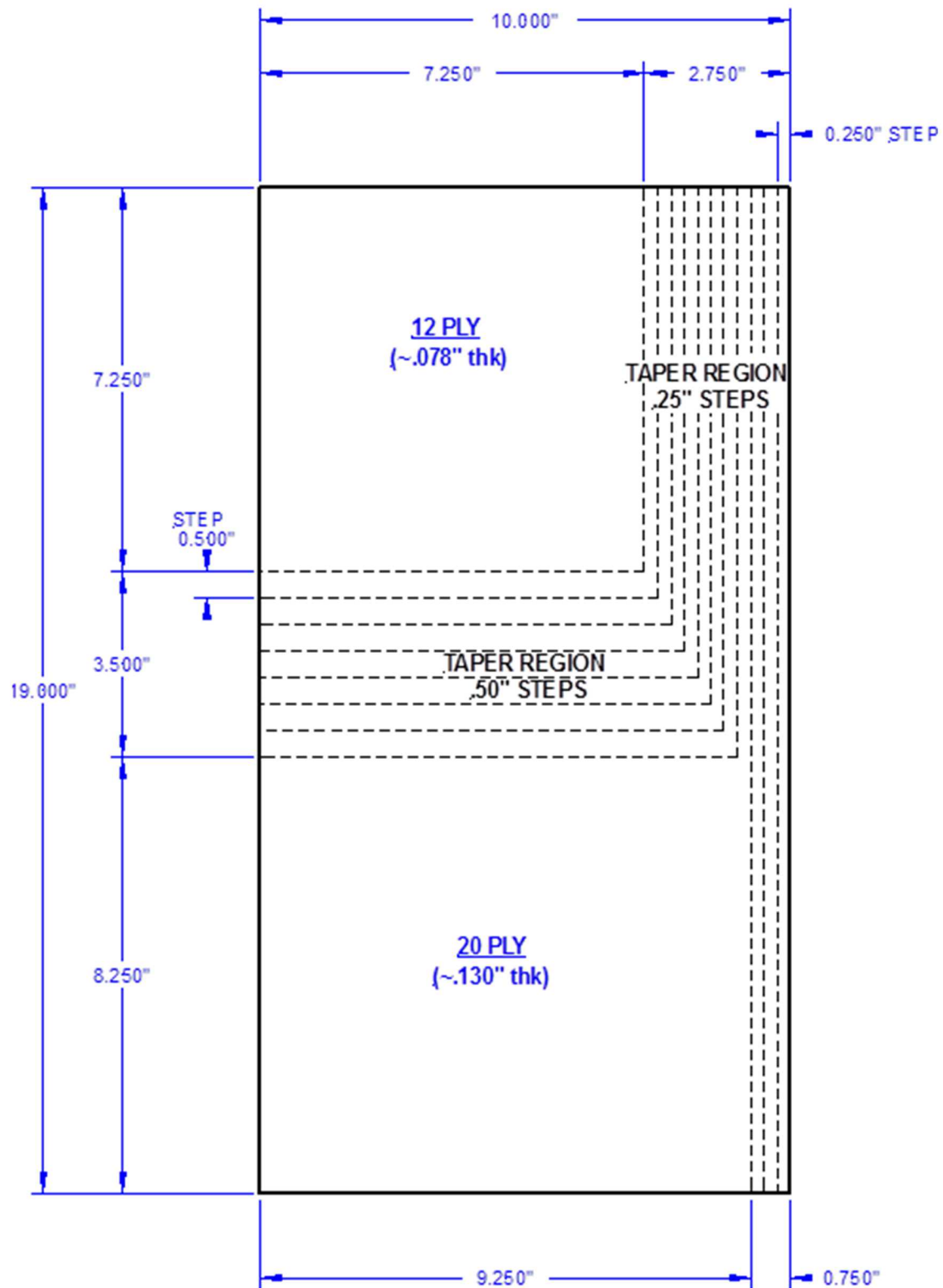
APPENDIX D

Composite Laminate Flaw Detection Experiment

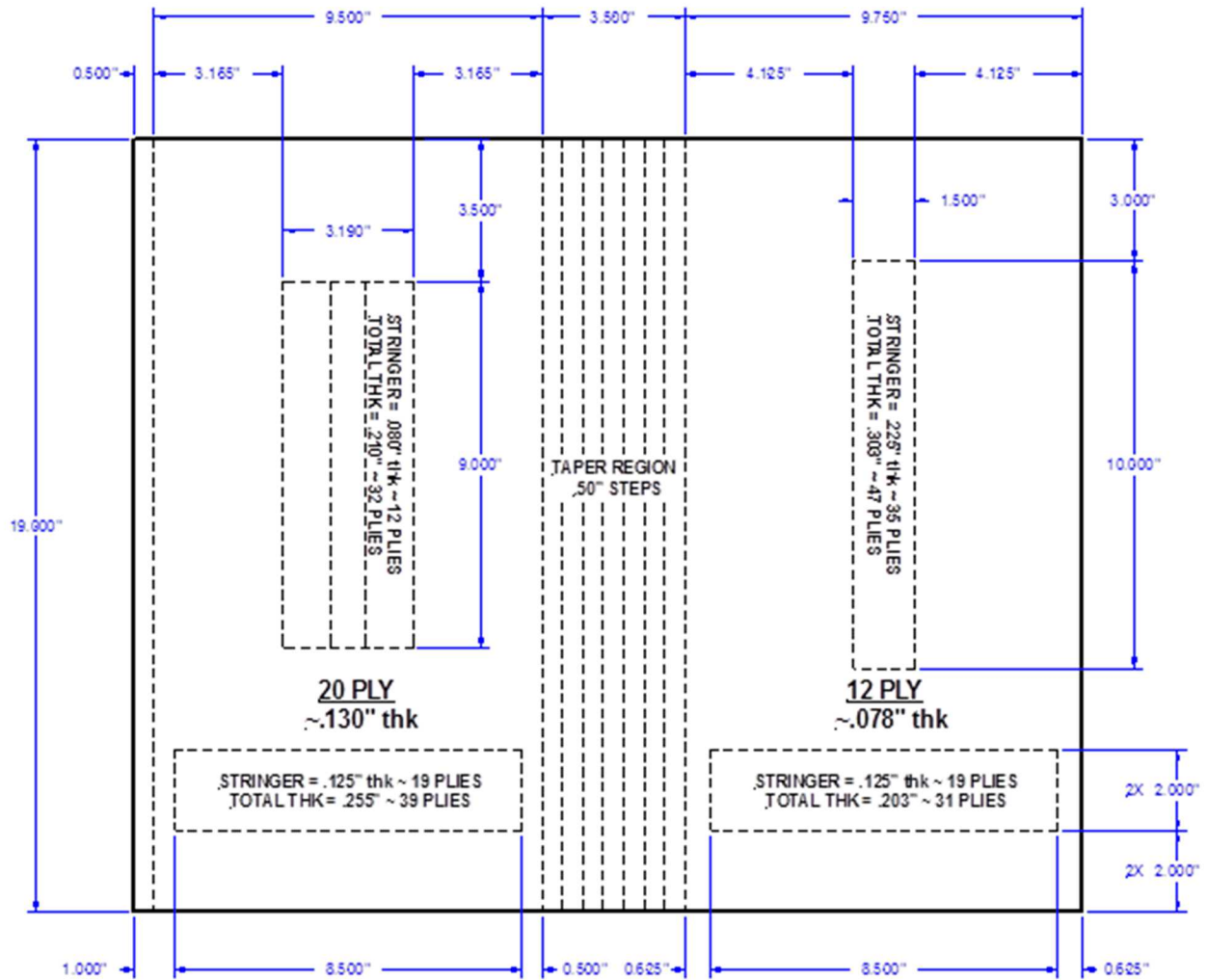
Summary of Test Specimens



**Figure D-1: Simple Taper 20-32 Ply Specimen –
4 Panels, All the Same Size But Different Flaw Profiles**



**Figure D-2: Complex Taper 12-20 Ply Specimen –
4 Panels, All the Same Size But Different Flaw Profiles**



**Figure D-3: Simple Taper 12-20 Ply Specimen –
4 Panels, All the Same Size But Different Flaw Profiles**

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APPENDIX E

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