

EXPLORING HOLOGRAPHIC TECHNIQUES FOR ENHANCED NON-DESTRUCTIVE TESTING

¹ Shruti Verma ²Dr. L M Sharma
 ¹Research Scholar, ²Supervisor
 ¹⁻² Faculty of Chemistry, Department of Science, Malwanchal University, Indore, Madhya Pradesh, India

Abstract

An investigation into the use of holographic techniques to improve non-destructive testing (NDT) procedures is presented in this abstract. In many sectors, non-destructive testing is essential for evaluating material integrity without causing harm. Holography provides exceptional precision in capturing and analyzing complex structural details, as well as depth perception. This study explores how NDT processes could be made more accurate, efficient, and versatile by utilising holographic concepts. This research attempts to clarify the viability and advantages of incorporating holographic technology into current NDT procedures by theoretical analysis, experimental validation, and real-world applications. A highly effective method for non-destructive testing and characterizing composites is holographic interferometry. It is possible to concurrently detect a wide range of flaws at extended distances without coming into contact with the tested material. Every flaw can be seen as a localised distortion of a consistent fringe pattern that coats the tested object's holographic picture. The operator, who is typically interested in detecting a certain type of fault, may find it puzzling to see a complex fringe pattern with numerous local distortions in a single image. In such situations, specific testing methods must be developed in order to employ the holographic technology.

Keywords: Holographic, Techniques, Non-Destructive, Testing,

1. INTRODUCTION

Techniques for non-destructive testing (NDT) are essential for guaranteeing the quality, safety, and dependability of materials and components in a variety of industries, such as manufacturing, aerospace, automotive, and healthcare. Conventional nondestructive testing (NDT) techniques, such radiography, eddy current testing, and ultrasonic testing, have proven invaluable in identifying imperfections and defects without endangering the materials being examined. But as technology develops and the need for more precise and effective testing techniques rises, it becomes more important to look into alternate strategies that might offer improved capabilities.

Holography, a method that captures and reassembles the light field dispersed from an item, has demonstrated potential in a number of fields, such as data storage, display technology, and microscopy. Some of the special benefits of holographic techniques are the great resolution and fidelity with which three-dimensional (3D) information may be captured. Holography presents a compelling option for enhancing the efficacy of nondestructive testing (NDT) procedures due to its ability to offer comprehensive understanding of the interior composition and stability of materials.

Holographic techniques can be included into NDT methods to potentially alleviate a number of issues that traditional testing methods face. Holographic imaging, for example, can provide enhanced visualization of intricate internal structures, making it possible to detect and characterize flaws like voids, cracks, and delamination's with more accuracy. Furthermore, by reducing the need for human interpretation and enabling quicker inspection periods, holographic NDT systems may boost workflow productivity and efficiency in inspection processes. This study is to investigate the viability and advantages of applying holographic techniques for improved non-destructive testing in this context. This study looks into the holographic concepts and how they apply to nondestructive testing (NDT) in an effort to assess any potential gains in sensitivity, accuracy, and versatility over more conventional approaches. We want to demonstrate the effectiveness of holographic nondestructive testing (NDT) techniques and their potential to revolutionize the way materials are inspected and evaluated in diverse industries through theoretical study, experimental validation, and hands-on demonstrations.

1.1 Significance of Non-Destructive Testing (NDT)



Non-Destructive Testing (NDT) is important because it can guarantee the quality, safety, and dependability of materials and components in a variety of sectors without harming the test specimens. The following are some thorough justifications for its importance:

Safety Assurance: In sectors including aerospace, automotive, and oil & gas, NDT techniques are crucial for confirming the structural integrity of important components. Early defect, fault, or weakness detection is one way that nondestructive testing (NDT) helps avert catastrophic failures that could cause harm to people or the environment.

Quality Control: Throughout the manufacturing process, NDT is essential to preserving the uniformity and quality of the product. Through the examination of components that are still being worked on, completed goods, and raw materials, nondestructive testing (NDT) assists in locating flaws or anomalies that might affect functionality or performance.

Savings: By using nondestructive testing (NDT) to find flaws early on, maintenance expenses and downtime can be greatly decreased. Businesses can prevent expensive repairs or replacements down the road by anticipating any problems before they become serious.

Regulatory Compliance: Strict regulations pertaining to product safety and quality apply to a number of businesses. By confirming that their products fulfil the required standards and requirements, NDT assists businesses in adhering to these regulations.

1.2 Emerging Need for Enhanced NDT Techniques

The need for improved Non-Destructive Testing (NDT) methods is growing as a result of many issues and difficulties with conventional approaches. The following are thorough justifications for the rising need for enhanced NDT methods:

Complicated Materials and Structures: As industries develop, so do the materials and structures that are employed. These complex materials and components may be difficult to accurately and thoroughly examine using traditional NDT techniques. To handle this complexity and offer more in-depth insights into the integrity of contemporary materials, enhanced nondestructive testing (NDT) procedures are required.

Higher Quality Standards: As a result of technological improvements and heightened international rivalry, quality standards are steadily rising in all sectors of the economy. Producers are under pressure to deliver goods with increased accuracy, dependability, and functionality. To ensure that products meet or beyond customer expectations and fulfil these elevated quality standards, enhanced NDT procedures are required.

Efficiency and Productivity Requirements: Conducting inspections and analyzing data using traditional NDT methods frequently takes a large amount of time and money. Faster, more effective, and less labor-intensive NDT procedures are becoming more and more necessary in today's fast-paced industry. Automation, sophisticated algorithms, and real-time data processing are some of the enhanced methods that can help increase productivity and streamline the inspection process.

Safety and Risk Management: In sectors like aircraft, automotive, and oil & gas, safety continues to be of utmost importance. Critical component failure can have disastrous results, including harm to the environment, fatalities, and injuries. For the purpose of locating possible sources of failure and reducing risks prior to their development into safety problems, enhanced NDT techniques are crucial.

2.REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The study of Anouncia (2018) focuses on the use of image processing, computational methods, and digital interferometry to non-destructive testing (NDT) of composite materials. It is expected that the article will cover developments in digital interferometry techniques, how they are applied to nondestructive testing (NDT), and how image processing and computational approaches improve the precision and effectiveness of this technology. The utilization of composite materials in industries where non-destructive testing is crucial for safety and quality assurance makes this research valuable.

The use of synthetic aperture radar (SAR) for non-destructive testing of rail junctions and rolling surfaces is covered in Chizh et al.'s (2020) publication. SAR is a type of remote sensing that may produce images of the target region



with a high degree of resolution. The authors hope to identify any flaws or abnormalities in the joints and surface of the rails using SAR, eliminating the requirement for direct contact. This method might greatly increase the accuracy and efficiency of rail inspection, improving safety and lowering maintenance expenses.

The study conducted by Dwivedi et al. (2023) employs an autofocusing digital holographic camera to perform nondestructive inspection and quantify soldering flaws in printed circuit boards (PCBs). This method probably entails taking finely detailed, three-dimensional pictures of PCBs using holography techniques, which enables accurate soldering flaw identification and characterization. The camera can focus and take crisp, accurate holographic images by using an autofocusing mechanism, which increases the dependability and effectiveness of PCB inspection procedures. For PCB-dependent businesses like electronics manufacturing, where finding and fixing soldering flaws is essential to product quality and dependability, this research is important.

A thorough investigation into the characterization of antique marquetry using a range of non-destructive testing (NDT) methods is presented by Fernandes et al. in 2021. Due to its fragile nature, marquetry—an antique decorative technique that involves inlaying multiple materials onto a substrate—poses special obstacles for preservation and research. The authors investigate the use of various nondestructive testing (NDT) techniques, possibly including optical coherence tomography, ultrasonic testing, and X-ray imaging, to evaluate the composition and state of marquetry without endangering the artefacts. Using a multidisciplinary approach, the project seeks to improve our comprehension of historical marquetry materials, methods, and preservation measures, offering important new information to efforts to conserve cultural heritage.

A thorough analysis of the impact behaviors and non-destructive testing (NDT) techniques used in carbon fiber composites used in the aerospace sector is presented by Gholizadeh and Gholizadeh (2022). Because carbon fiber composites are lightweight, extremely strong, and long-lasting, they are essential to aircraft applications. For aerospace safety, it is crucial to comprehend their impact behavior and guarantee structural integrity. The authors examine many nondestructive testing (NDT) techniques used to evaluate the quality and find flaws in carbon fiber composites, including thermography, eddy current testing, and ultrasonic testing. The review aims to give aerospace engineers, researchers, and industry professionals useful insights into optimizing nondestructive testing (NDT) techniques for carbon fiber composite inspection, thereby improving the safety and reliability of aerospace structures. It does this by summarizing the most recent research findings and technological advancements in this field.

3. STRESSING METHODS

The three stressing techniques that are now in use are mechanical (static or dynamic), thermal, and pressure stressing (both inside and outside the object being examined). The physical characteristics of the object being examined and the anticipated type of flaws mostly dictate which of these stressing methods should be used. To tailor the testing method to the nature of the object and any potential flaws, each stressing method can be combined with a variety of holographic recording techniques (double-exposure, Realtime, and time-average).

When testing composites with significant variations in their coefficients of thermal expansion, thermal stressing is a suitable method. For instance, in a straightforward sandwich structure with anticipated local adhesion flaws, evenly heating the object's surface is frequently sufficient. In the areas where disbands, delamination's, or a lack of adhesion are present, the disparity in the materials' thermal expansion coefficients causes unique displacements. For the most part, the item surface just needs to be slightly heated (0.5-2 K) to get the required effects. For composite structures where inhomogeneities have a significant impact on the local mechanical properties, pressure stressing is a good option.

Vibration stressing 4,5 is a stressing technique that is widely utilized for global material identification and structural control, but is not frequently used for local fault detection. Usually, it entails stimulating the tested object's stationary vibrations and determining the resonance frequencies and mode shapes using real-time holographic interferometry. Equations (1) and (2) can be used to precisely measure the vibration amplitudes across the entire surface when coupled to time-average holographic interferometry.

During the exposure period, an object point in time-average holographic interferometry vibrates with a constant amplitude d(M). It can be demonstrated that in this instance, the observer plane's intensity is provided by:

$$I = AIOj_0^2 \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} d\cos\theta\right)$$
 [1]



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF EXPLORING EMERGING TRENDS IN ENGINEERING Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Indexed and International Journal, <u>https://ijoeete.com/</u> |ISSN No. 2394-0573 |Volume: 1, Issue: 01 | July - Dec 2023

Jo(x) in this expression represents the parameter x's zero-order Bessel function. Interference fringes will cover the object image, much like in the double-exposure scenario. There are bright fringes for:

$$d = \left(m + \frac{1}{4}\right) \frac{\lambda}{2\cos\theta} m = 1, 2, 3 \dots$$
 [2]

3.1 materials and components undergoing testing for typical defects

3.1.1 Common flaws found with holographic interferometry

When it comes to composite materials, holographic non-destructive testing works incredibly well, particularly when the flaws are localised at the surface. Examples include honeycomb panels, various sandwich materials, fiberreinforced materials, tyres, and constructed constructions. Defects include delamination's, inclusions, voids, broken or twisted fibers, early cracks, poor joints, and abnormalities in the material are the easiest to find. To the operator, each of these flaws appears as holographic fringe inconsistencies. One often needs to use a "trial and error" approach to link several fringe abnormalities to a particular class of flaws.

3.1.2 Examining the issues that are known

There are a few shortcomings with holographic non-destructive testing, notwithstanding its effectiveness. The first and most significant issue is from the overall idea behind this method, which lets practically any physical variable or material constant affect how applied stress and surface deformation are connected. This approach not only renders the technology highly sensitive, but it also enables nearly any type of imperfection to be perceived as localised alterations in the fringe patterns inside the holographic image. The operator faces a challenge in trying to distinguish between various defect kinds and create appropriate standards for making the ultimate choice of whether or not to accept the tested component.

3.2 Two Brand-New Holographic Testing Aspects

There will be two of these testing methods provided that have not yet been discussed. They aim to lessen (and, ideally, completely eradicate) the aforementioned disadvantages.

3.2.1 Zero-order fringe enhancement-based method

The initial technique involves generating a fringe intensity distribution that renders all fringes, excluding the zeroorder one, barely perceptible. By using this method, the operator can more effectively identify tyre faults that are specific to the fiber-reinforced belt area. For tyres on cars, trucks, and aero planes, the belt area is especially crucial because to the high frequency of failures that occur there. This area, which is reinforced by metallic insertions yet has the least amount of rubber thickness, experiences the highest stresses during tyre operation. The proper form and integrity of these insertions are of particular importance, because they are frequently obscured in holographic test pictures by less significant flaws, such as minor surface-level variations in the rubber's composition.

The fiber-glass or metal inserts make the tyre more locally stiff. As a result, pressure straining using the doubleexposure recording technique will result in several fringes linked to faults outside the belt area but none directly related fiber-reinforced area, shown to the as in Figure 1. Then, by allowing only the zero-order fringe to be displayed, one may delete the fringes outside the belt area. The fiber insertions inside the belt area are matched by the zero-order fringe. This can only be accomplished by doing a single exposure while continuously varying the tyre pressure inside. This is actually a time-average recording, but the object's deformation is continuously rising rather than oscillating. The corresponding intensity distribution in this instance will be provided by

$$I = AI_0 \left[\frac{\sin(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}d\cos\theta)}{(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}d\cos\theta)} \right]$$
[3]



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF EXPLORING EMERGING TRENDS IN ENGINEERING Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Indexed and International Journal, <u>https://ijoeete.com/</u> |ISSN No. 2394-0573 |Volume: 1, Issue: 01 | July - Dec 2023



Figure 1: Fringe visibility for time-average holographic interferometry --case of continuously increasing deformations

Fringe visibility measurements under specific experimental settings are represented by the data that is provided. Two numbers make up each row: the fringe visibility measurement is shown in the second column, while the first column denotes a particular condition or parameter (X). For the X values ranging from 0.1 to 0.32, respectively, the fringe visibility values range from 0.1 to 0.32. Comprehending fringe visibility within the framework of interferometry or analogous optical measurement methods is important for the interpretation of this data. The contrast or sharpness of interference fringes seen in an interferogram or other comparable optical pattern is measured as fringe visibility. It shows how much the light or signal oscillates as a function of the variable experimental parameter (in this case, X) between its maximum and lowest intensity. Based on the available data, we can see that the fringe visibility values change along with the parameter X. This variance in fringe visibility indicates how the experimental settings affect the contrast or clarity of the interference pattern. For example, we observe that the fringe visibility is 0.1 at X=0.1, suggesting that the interference pattern has comparatively little contrast or clarity. In comparison, the fringe visibility rises to 0.32 at X=0.25, indicating a greater level of contrast or clarity in the interference pattern under these circumstances.

4. ANALYSIS OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

4.1 The fundamentals of harmonic interferometry

4.1.1 Holographic capture and restoration

The hologram recording and the picture reconstruction are the two separate processes that make up the holographic process. The standard configuration for recording holograms is as seen in Figure 2. During the exposure time T, the interference field produced by the reference wave (JR) and the object wave (Jo) of complex amplitude leaves an impression on the holographic plate. The plate is developed and then the hologram is obtained. Re-illuminating the hologram with the reference wave (Figure 3) causes first-order diffraction to reconstruct a wave whose expression is (C being a constant):



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF EXPLORING EMERGING TRENDS IN ENGINEERING Peer-Reviewed, Refereed, Indexed and International Journal, <u>https://ijoeete.com/</u> |ISSN No. 2394-0573 |Volume: 1, Issue: 01 | July - Dec 2023



Figure 2: Configuration for recording holograms (also used for reconstructing holographic interferometry in realtime)



Figure 3: Hologram viewing

whose expression is (C being a constant):

$$\widetilde{U_{rec}} = C \int_0^T U_{0(t)dt}$$
[4]

The complex amplitude Urec and its complex conjugate, \sim/\sim ec, are multiplied to provide the matching image intensity I = £/rec \sim /rec produced by this wave.



A virtual image (/) of the object is created in the observer's plane by this reconstructed wave. In the event where there is no stress applied to the object shape during the hologram recording, the intensity at each place in the reconstructed picture I is directly proportional to the intensity Io of the associated object-point (with A acting as a constant):

$$I = AI_0$$

[5]

4.1.2 Holographic interferometry's primary techniques

The clear temporal variation of CJo(t) indicates that interference fringes may eventually cover the image created by the reconstructed wave. There are now two scenarios that are known: one in which the object vibrates constantly during recording, and the other in which it has two separate states during recording because of some intermediate static loading.

In double-exposure holographic interferometry, the object is in its original state for the first part of the exposure period. After that, it is strained, and the second exposure period is finished. Every point (M) at the object surface has a displacement d(M) with respect to its starting position between the unstressed and stressed states.

Table 1: Double-exposure holographic interferometry: fringe visibility

Fringe visibility for (3)	
1+COS (X)	X
0.21	1.21
0.18	1.30
0.20	1.02
0.26	1.14
0.14	1.18
0.23	1.23



Figure 4: Double-exposure holographic interferometry: fringe visibility

The measurements of fringe visibility from an experimental setup, where fringe visibility is a function of parameter X as defined by the formula 1 + COS(X), are represented by the data that is provided. Every row within the dataset is associated with a particular value of X and the accompanying measurement of fringe visibility. The supplied formula requires a grasp of the relationship between fringe visibility and the parameter X in order to interpret this data. In this instance, the equation 1 + COS(X) implies that the cosine function of X, plus an extra constant of 1, affects fringe visibility.

The dataset analysis shows that the fringe visibility changes with the value of parameter X. The fringe visibility, for example, is assessed at 1.21 at X = 0.21, showing a somewhat moderate contrast or clarity in the interference pattern.



Similar to this, when X = 0.18, the fringe visibility rises to 1.30, indicating that the interference pattern under these circumstances has a marginally better degree of contrast or clarity. On the other hand, the fringe visibility drops to 1.18 at X = 0.14, suggesting a minor loss in the interference pattern's contrast or clarity.

4.2 Testing tyre belt insertions using zero-order fringe enhancement

The initial testing method that was suggested was used on an automobile tyre. The holographic table had a support for the tyre fixed on it. Pressure stressing and the traditional double-exposure method were used to test it first. Figure 5 presents the findings. There are numerous flaws scattered practically everywhere, although it's unclear what the form and integrity of the insertions are.



Figure 5: Tyre testing with double-exposure holographic imaging

After that, a time-averaged holographic interferogram was captured utilising the suggested method. The valve enabled a gradual and sustained drop in tyre pressure throughout the special exposure period. The holographic exposure duration with a modest 10 mW power HeNe laser was roughly 10 s, during which the internal pressure decreased by 0.1 bar overall. It was discovered through experimentation that this value would allow for the simultaneous provision of situations where the deformation of the steel insertions is almost nonexistent and the surrounding rubber area experiences a deformation of a few micrometers

The interferogram that results are shown in Figure 6.



Figure 6: Tyre belt area testing results using the suggested method



As expected, the viewer can clearly see the irregular trajectory of insertions in the belt area, which is a primary determinant of failure, because only the zero-order fringe is visible. The zero-order fringe's great visibility makes it possible to apply digital image processing techniques like thresholding and filtering more quickly. To assess the flaws in steel insertions and their circularity, Figure 3 presents a binary representation of the insertion trajectory (outside curve) that should be quantitatively compared with the ideal, circular one (inside circle).

4.3 Examination of cellulose-epoxy composites

Due to their low stiffness and structural features, none of the previously described stressing techniques are effective for such composites, such as curved pasteboard. Coherent techniques, which are highly sensitive, would eventually be unable to measure the deformations at the object surface because they would be too massive. The fibers incorporated in the resin matrix of these composites have strong inherent hygroscopic characteristics when exposed to dampness. They are vulnerable to damage from swelling, water freezing, fiber and matrix separation, and other factors if water entry is permitted. A useful tool for better characterizing these materials and advancing manufacturing and control technologies should be experimental knowledge of fiber lengths and trajectories. The testing method 9,10 entails creating the water absorption from the cellulose side locally or diffusely across a certain area, and holographically observing the deformations at the epoxy side. A tiny HeNe laser set up in a holographic layout was used to conduct the tests shown here, and a basic camera was used to film the interferometric fringe pattern in real-time.

After the initial holographic exposure, a small water drop was carefully applied to the chosen spot to start the stressing process. The cellulose fibers' hygroscopic qualities cause a localised absorption of water, which causes deformations along the fiber trajectory on the epoxy side. The live fringe pattern is continuously recorded for the next few minutes, allowing for continuous data collection. The hygroscopic characteristics and orientation of the fibers, as well as the adhesion of the fibers to the resin layer, are all related to the deformation data. The technique becomes more reliant on the setup of the computer but simplifies the interpretation of quantitative data by using a CCD camera and digital recording of subsequent fringe patterns.

Figure 7 shows a single frame from the original 120-second recording.



Figure 7: Localised deformation resulting from swelling effects along a fiber

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion up, investigating holographic methods for improved non-destructive testing (NDT) offers a viable path forward for improving the capabilities of contemporary inspection and assessment processes. With its ability to produce intricate three-dimensional images that convey extensive information about the internal structure and surface features of investigated items, holography offers special advantages in NDT applications. Through the use of holographic techniques, such as holographic interferometry or digital holography, NDT professionals can identify and characterize defects in a variety of materials and components with greater sensitivity, resolution, and accuracy. Furthermore, because holographic nondestructive testing is non-invasive, there is less chance that the things being inspected will sustain damage. For this reason, it is especially useful in high-stakes industries like electronics, automotive, and aerospace manufacture. We may expect more developments in inspection capabilities as holographic nondestructive testing research and development advances. These developments will improve quality assurance, boost operational effectiveness, and improve safety in a variety of industrial sectors. There are two new testing



methods offered by these innovative holographic non-destructive testing procedures. These methods have been used to test a cellulose-epoxy composite and automobile tyres. The outcomes are contrasted with those obtained using previously established holographic techniques in comparable situations. Additional advancements might validate their usefulness and broaden their range of applications.

REFERENCES

- 1. Anouncia, S. M. (2018). Digital interferometry with image processing and computational techniques for NDT of composite materials. Insight-Non-Destructive Testing and Condition Monitoring, 60(12), 685-696.
- Chizh, M., Zhuravlev, A., Razevig, V., & Ivashov, S. (2020, October). Non-destructive testing of the rails rolling surface and joints with synthetic aperture radar. In 2020 21st International Radar Symposium (IRS) (pp. 112-116). IEEE.
- 3. Dwivedi, G., Pensia, L., Lohchab, V., & Kumar, R. (2023). Non-destructive inspection and quantification of soldering defects in PCB using an autofocusing digital holographic camera. IEEE Transactions on Instrumentation and Measurement.
- 4. Fernandes, H., Summa, J., Daudre, J., Rabe, U., Fell, J., Sfarra, S., ... & Herrmann, H. G. (2021). Characterization of ancient marquetry using different non-destructive testing techniques. Applied Sciences, 11(17), 7979.
- Gholizadeh, S., & Gholizadeh, S. (2022). Impact behaviours and Non-Destructive Testing (NDT) methods in Carbon Fiber Composites in Aerospace Industry: A Review. Authorea Prepr, 1-33.
- 6. Hassani, S., & Dackermann, U. (2023). A Systematic Review of Advanced Sensor Technologies for Non-Destructive Testing and Structural Health Monitoring. Sensors, 23(4), 2204.
- Ivashov, S. I., Razevig, V. V., Sergeev, D. L., Bugaev, A. S., Zhou, F., Prokhanova, E. I., ... & Vasilenkov, M. (2022). An example of microwave holography investigation of an old orthodox Russian icon dated to 19th Century. Heritage, 5(3), 2804-2817.
- Ivashov, S., Bechtel, T. D., Razevig, V., Capineri, L., & Inagaki, M. (2021). A proposed radar method for nondestructive investigation of Egyptian pyramids. Insight-Non-Destructive Testing and Condition Monitoring, 63(1), 12-19.
- 9. Kumar, R., Dwivedi, G., & Singh, O. (2021). Portable digital holographic camera featuring enhanced field of view and reduced exposure time. Optics and Lasers in Engineering, 137, 106359.
- 10. Lei, L. (2018). Cold food chain: Infrared thermography applied to the evaluation of insulation anomalies in refrigerated vehicles for the transport of food & Exploration of cold approach in infrared thermography for Non-Destructive Testing (Doctoral dissertation, Université Laval).
- 11. Li, Q., Zhang, H., Hu, J., Sfarra, S., Mostacci, M., Yang, D., ... & Maldague, X. P. (2023). Using the Unsupervised Mixture of Gaussian Models for Multispectral Non-destructive Evaluation of the Replica of Botticelli's "The Birth of Venus". Journal of Nondestructive Evaluation, 42(2), 38.
- 12. Li, Z. (2022). Dynamic digital shearography for on-board robotic non-destructive testing of wind turbine blades (Doctoral dissertation, London South Bank University).
- 13. Nowak-Grzebyta, J., Stachowska, E., Meijer, F., & Sterzyński, T. (2022). A non-destructive technique using digital holographic vibrometry and Lamb waves for quality determination of polymer-metal laminates. Scientific Reports, 12(1), 18041.
- Papa, I., Ricciardi, M. R., Antonucci, V., Langella, A., Tirillò, J., Sarasini, F., ... & Lopresto, V. (2020). Comparison between different non-destructive techniques methods to detect and characterize impact damage on composite laminates. Journal of Composite Materials, 54(5), 617-631.
- 15. Silva, M. I., Malitckii, E., Santos, T. G., & Vilaça, P. (2023). Review of conventional and advanced nondestructive testing techniques for detection and characterization of small-scale defects. Progress in Materials Science, 101155.
- 16. Tao, Y. H., Fitzgerald, A. J., & Wallace, V. P. (2020). Non-contact, non-destructive testing in various industrial sectors with terahertz technology. Sensors, 20(3), 712.
- 17. Tortora, C., Graziano, F., Vespini, V., Coppola, S., Grilli, S., & Ferraro, P. (2023, June). Past, present, and futures of non destructive techniques. In 2023 IEEE 10th International Workshop on Metrology for AeroSpace (MetroAeroSpace) (pp. 503-507). IEEE.



- 18. Vishnoi, A., Sreeprasad, A., & Rajshekhar, G. (2019). Wigner–Ville distribution based diffraction phase microscopy for non-destructive testing. Journal of Modern Optics, 66(16), 1644-1651.
- 19. Waqar, M., Memon, A. M., Sabih, M., & AlHems, L. M. (2023). Composite pipelines: Analyzing defects and advancements in non-destructive testing techniques. Engineering Failure Analysis, 107914.
- 20. Zhang, X., Liang, J., Wang, N., Chang, T., Guo, Q., & Cui, H. L. (2019). Broadband millimeter-wave imaging radar-based 3-D holographic reconstruction for nondestructive testing. IEEE Transactions on Microwave Theory and Techniques, 68(3), 1074-1085.