



# COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY (CT) FOR NON-DESTRUCTIVE EVALUATION: ENHANCING INSPECTION CAPABILITIES AND 3D VISUALIZATION

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## ABSTRACT

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*The inside designs of an object may be seen using X-ray computed tomography (CT) without having to actually open or cut it. In the experiments described in this article, X-ray computed tomography has been used to allow non-destructive testing, disappointment inspection, or performance assessment of modern components and objects. Following is a review of the early history of the technology and how it relates to current non-destructive testing and assessment. The investigation of non-destructive testing techniques is being shaped by a few important inventive and financial trends. An NDT result of these ongoing developments is X-ray computed tomography, which is now a crucial tool for specialists, material researchers, and others working with materials where the fine inner structure or internal progressions are crucial to understanding how the material behaves or to gain insight into ongoing cycles. This work focuses on the design, creation, and use of an intelligent scanner for non-destructive testing (NDT) of medium-sized titanium biomedical components created using 3D printing technology. By combining regular, hands-on HIS NDT as a component of the clinical device quality control framework cycle control and approval process, the proposed scanner will work with the production of titanium LPBF printed components for biomedical applications. The x-ray finder and safeguarding costs may be reduced such that the sweep cost is comparable to the overall cost of the authorized item.*

**Keywords:** *Computed tomography, Non-destructive testing, Evaluation, 3D visualization, Reconstruction.*

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Non-Destructive Evaluation (NDE) controls the assessment of the equipment's fundamental reliability without compromising its usability and valuable lifespan. Traditional NDE

methods, including as X-ray radiography and ultrasonic procedures, are often used to inspect equipment made of metals, composites, and earthenware in order to detect flaws. Since radiography converts 3D information about an object into a 2D image. It is challenging to distinguish between various and collinear abnormalities. While examining various designs and thick composite components, ultrasonic methods create ambiguity in locating and determining the level of abnormalities. The two methods don't provide precise three-dimensional information on the degree of defects.

The metal projecting industry uses X-ray Computed Tomography (CT), which was first developed as a clinical imaging technique in the latter half of the 1970s, for quality control. Comparing X-ray Computed Tomography (CT) to conventional radiography, it offers a significant increase in its ability to identify minor defects, which has led to its growing usage in contemporary applications. Additionally, its use is routinely monitored in academic research, with continuing surveys in the fields of geosciences, material sciences, and food sciences. The use of X-ray CT in metrology and even inline applications using quick-checking contemporary CT frameworks is rapidly expanding.

Modern CT and clinical CT share comparable underlying material science norms but vary in structure and plan due to their various application kinds. contemporary CT or micro CT should be considered in comparison to clinical CT checks regarding image quality for thick things since greater X-ray voltages are possible with contemporary CT frameworks that enable more penetrating power. Modern CT scanners are often used for quantitative slice examination. However, clinical CT scanners have been improved for subjective examination (image quality of human subjects), especially lower examination, but slice accuracy is not required for clinical judgment.

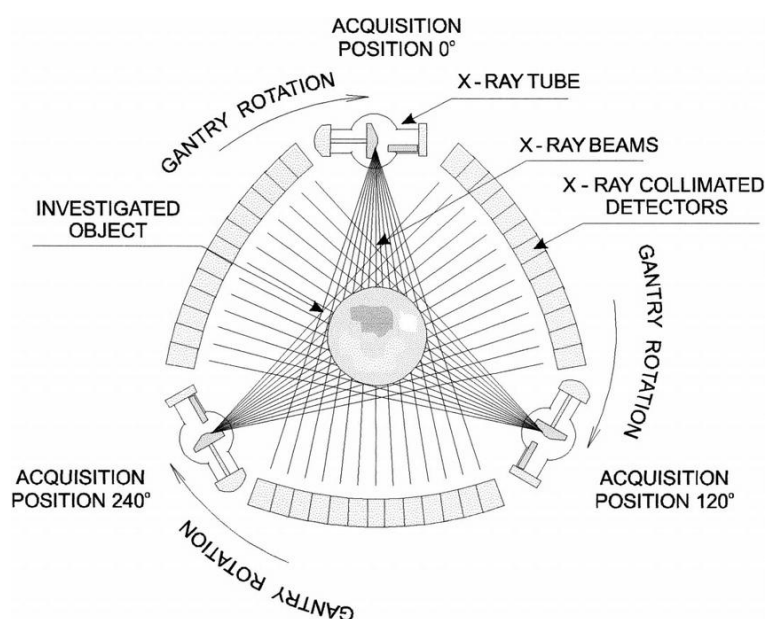
### **1.1. X-ray Computed Tomography**

The computed tomography method was originally used in a clinical environment in the middle of the 1970s, but it has since come to be recognized as a crucial tool for material study and an effective NDT method. It is used to assess volumetric in-line, such as aspects, voids, concerns, and thickness variations inside a strong as well as to offer visual perspectives on the interior and external construction of materials. The primary benefit of computed tomography is the capacity to quantitatively and precisely see the interior structure of materials in 3D utilizing a sequence of 2D cross-sectional CT pictures.

An accuracy controller to analyze cross-sectional cuts from multiple sites is often included in a computed tomography framework together with an X-ray radiation source, a radiation finder, and other components. A tiny fan shaft is often made by collimating the X-ray source. The test object's thickness and thickness, the material's piece, and the X-ray bar's energy are all closely connected to the tiny fraction of the decreased X-ray pillar that was acquired. To offer a comprehensive arrangement of imaging data, the guinea pig, X-ray source, or indicator array rotates. A number of incremental points are used to construct a series of estimations. The information security framework reads the sign of each identifier in the array, turns the estimations into numerical characteristics, and sends the information to a PC for automated reconstruction. The reconstruction cycle uses a calculation to determine the point-by-point dispersion of the X-ray densities in the 2D image of the cross sectional cut.

## 1.2. Overview of Computed Tomography

Cross-sectional pictures in planes across a component are created using the non-destructive examination technique known as X-ray CT. The third-era CT imaging rule is shown in Figure 1 as it is used in the present. This component is exposed to a characteristic luminous beam from a modern X-ray source while mounted on a precision turntable. A finder array (line array or area array) is used to measure the force transmitted through a component by an X-ray beam rotating in a rod. Then, a numerical calculation is used to create (or "reproduce") the CT scans using the purposely given forces as input.



**Figure 1:** A third generation of CT's projection acquisition is shown schematically.

The final CT scans are precise cross-sectional representations of the component's geometry in the cross-segment plane. The spatial resolution that may be attained for components that are measured in millimetres may be as high as 10 microns if a small-sized X-ray source (a tiny central source) is employed. The CT scan's grayscale values provide information about the material's X-ray attenuation coefficient at each place in the image. Correcting different impacts, notably "wave hardening," is now a hot topic. This enables a complete translation of the CT grayscale to values that simply reflect the local material's thickness.

An office-based serial radiography system may include CT capability by adding a precise turntable and a PC with the requisite image capture boards, motor control features, and code for image reconstruction and presentation.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

A thorough analysis of the developments in computed tomography for non-destructive testing was done by Zhang, Zhao, and Wu (2018). The promise of CT in materials assessment was highlighted as they spoke about its concepts, methodology, and equipment. The value of CT in identifying intricate geometries, defining internal flaws, and giving quantitative measures was stressed by the authors. This study is a useful tool for comprehending the many applications of CT for non-destructive testing as well as its most current advancements.

Dong, Peng, and Zeng (2019) reviewed the literature and concentrated on the use of CT for non-destructive testing in additive manufacturing (AM). They described how CT may be used to assess the quality and integrity of AM components and looked at the special possibilities and problems that AM processes bring. In order to analyze flaws, porosity, and dimensional accuracy in AM, CT is crucial. This helps to enhance manufacturing procedures and component quality, as was noted in the review.

Three-dimensional imaging and image processing in nondestructive CT assessment were discussed by Li, Sun, and Zhao (2017). For CT-based assessment, the authors described improvements in image capture methods, reconstruction algorithms, and image analysis methodologies. For effective data processing and interpretation in non-destructive assessment applications, they underlined the significance of precise picture registration, segmentation, and visualization approaches.

In their 2018 article, Holzner, Grünzweig, and Zabler provided a thorough analysis of the use of industrial X-ray CT in materials science and engineering. The advantages of X-ray CT for

non-destructive testing were noted by the authors, including its capacity to provide comprehensive 3D details on the interior structure of materials. They covered a variety of industrial uses for X-ray CT, including defect analysis, microstructure characterization, and dimensional metrology, to demonstrate the many potential applications for this technology in materials science and engineering.

Aiken, Wang, and Kupiec (2017) concentrated on CT-based non-destructive testing of composites made of fiber-reinforced polymers. The authors reviewed the difficulties in assessing composite materials and emphasized how CT may be used to identify interior flaws in composite constructions. They noted CT's benefits, such as its non-destructive nature and capacity to offer 3D depiction of flaws, which make it an invaluable tool for quality control and inspection of composite materials.

### **3. COMPUTED TOMOGRAPHY (CT) FOR PERFORMING NON-DESTRUCTIVE TESTING**

The imaging/review technique has undergone significant changes since its inception and is being employed across several projects for a wide range of item types. Above all, be aware that CT is an x-ray-based imaging technique that is only used when the usual x-ray security precautions and issues have been addressed. Whatever the case, it's not your typical standard x-ray. An object is focused on, the x-rays pass through it with varying degrees of retention, and then they are finally captured on film, an imaging plate, or a computerized locator in a traditional x-ray. The outcome is a two-layered image of the test object. A professional or a contemporary expert will interpret this image to determine if everything is normal or, on the other hand, whether there are any problems.

With CT, despite the x-rays really passing through the item with fluctuating amounts of ingestion and being detected at the locator, revolution and occasional precise vertical development are accomplished. When used for clinical CT and a few other unique current applications, the x-ray source and location are rotated around the objective. In the majority of modern CT and NDT procedures, the object is rotated while the x-ray source and location remain stationary. There are several designs and tactics for the equipment and information assortment. On the x-ray side, there are either smaller than anticipated center or microfocus sources, and on the identifier side (LDAs), larger region locators and straight diode arrays are available. The computerized x-ray identifiers and enormous area finders both essentially

collect the whole sweep in a volumetric method. The LDAs are quite different. The LDA, a restricted band indicator, detects a single "cut" of x-rays at a certain Z level.

Either method may be used to build three-layered data on the object being tested. Numerous occasions, volumetric devices filter the whole topic instantly. LDAs will be used to examine the complete topic, various portions, or a 2-D cut. Every framework type offers benefits and drawbacks, but each application will have unique requirements that will influence the framework that is selected.

In addition to equipment, there is programming, and a variety of options are available in light of the anticipated assessment. There are specialist third-party packages created especially for CT as well as a few framework manufacturers' own cutting-edge programming configurations. Which option to employ will depend on the requirements, preferences, and anticipated outcomes for each review. The two options may provide reliable research findings. The two main outcomes are comprehensive 3-layered recordings and cross-sectional photographs. To create the 3-layered records, the cross-sectional photos are simply connected using volume delivered handling. These results may typically be applied to several tests.

The employment of CT informative indexes is common for investigation necessities like deformity differentiating evidence, wall thickness estimates, mathematical confirmation, and others, particularly for NDT. These tests are often used in industries like added substance manufacturing, gas turbine component manufacturing, and others where integrity and mental arithmetic are crucial. CT is the preferred tool for basic components with internal calculations that cannot be properly probed by another NDT method. The sample photographs show high-pressure turbine edges. They are often inspected using CT because to their complex internal and external calculation. they are indeed attempting to review, even with CT, but without CT, there is a serious risk that many of them might malfunction while being utilized.

### **3.1. Application of industrial CT scans**

There are a few potentials uses for the high-resolution, three-layered imaging of objects provided by modern computed tomography.

#### **Defect Analysis**

By identifying and eliminating flaws like pores, holes, and incorporations, contemporary computed tomography aids in the enhancement of functional cycles.

- beginning of production
- Tool improvement
- optimizing and controlling production
- Quality control
- Analysis of failure

### **3D Measurement and Metrology**

By precisely estimating 3D models of internal and exterior elements, metrological applications are made possible.

- Comparisons between targets and actuals as well as actuals and actuals
- Measuring the thickness of walls
- Surface assessment

### **Assembly and Joining Inspection**

The use of modern CT allows for the non-destructive detection of gathering flaws without the need to disassemble the gathering:

- final inspection of the assembly
- Inadvertently or accidentally installed components
- the location of seals
- examination of solder points
- visualizing rust and leaks

### **Reverse Engineering**

CT scans of existing components enable the creation of drawings or informative databases for computer-aided design, for example for the

- digitizing hand-crafted prototypes
- digitalization of out-of-production replacement parts

#### **3.2. Detecting defects**

Previous experience brings increased information value. Whereas CMMs and vision machines only generate layered information, CT scanning, when used with the appropriate

software, provides previously unavailable data on, and in-depth analysis of, internal designs, material qualities, and probable failure points. From there, the possibilities are endless.

Consider porosity, a flaw that is commonly missed by conventional testing methods. When combined with associated porosity and consideration add-on modules, CT-information research and visualization software is used for a broad range of defect assessments. This cutting-edge device, developed in collaboration with leading foundries, is appropriate for a variety of applications. One industry-specific test, for instance, occurs when the filtering device's individual pores are positioned at the goal's outermost reaches and accurate desert differentiation is needed. The deformity examination capability in the product really accomplishes this. Additionally, this tool doesn't only detect escapes; it also communicates information about the part's luck or misfortune, for instance by evaluating the size and condition of the pores in relation to their placement in the part's wall.

Additionally, available are froth structure analyses, which are crucial to furniture manufacturers, automobiles, and manufacturers of commercial goods, as well as fiber studies, which an aircraft manufacturer may use to confirm the validity of a carbon-fiber composite. Forgings, machined and sheet metal components, plastic infusion-shaped parts, and parts produced using additional material (AM or 3D printing) all have comparable capabilities. In other words, if there is anything plainly wrong with a product, it's possible that there is a product investigation mode that will not only find it but also help you solve it.

## **4. PROPOSED METHOD**

### **4.1. System geometry description**

The X-ray tube, X-ray viewfinder, and turntable are the three basic parts of a tiny CT scanner. The 20 x 20 mm aluminum extrusion that covers these components of the affordable CT assembly is readily accessible from the connection rim. This interstitial fuzzy non-intelligent circuit board, measuring 1040 x 500 x 540 mm, produces a shade environment within the box to shield the focal-mounted viewfinder structure from the effects of outside light. A big backpack that could contain up to 100 kg of equipment could be used to carry all of the equipment, which also had a convenient x-ray source. The shell featured a texture on one side that wasn't exactly like a solid piece of board; rather, it had an amorphous, fuzzy texture that made it difficult to enter the rotational stage for tasks like stacking. By installing the corner and its internal components in a lead-safe space, we avoided X-ray exposure for the administrator.



#### 4.2. atomic structure, and experimental set-up

This frame is anticipated to include a tiny X-ray source with a 33 mm center, an 80 kVp maximum cylinder capacity, and a 0.5 mA maximum current. To increase the X-ray flux in the confined plane, the sources are arranged in a close-by array (i.e., a source-to-finder distance (SDD) of less than 300 mm). Tragically, the coronavirus pandemic's administrative restrictions and reductions in research funding prevented scientists from using X-ray sources. So, a versatile X-ray source located on the roof was used. Images of this design were captured with a 600mm SDD at 80 kVp and 10 mama. To synchronize the exposure levels possible with the suggested practical X-ray source, the X-ray protocol utilized with the universal X-ray source was altered. Table 1 lists the distinctions between the two X-ray machines as well as the exposure-safe default settings.

**Table 1:**X-ray techniques, matching exposure levels, and source comparisons

	Portable x-ray Unit		General Purpose x-ray Unit	
	Unit	Protocol	Unit	Protocol
x-ray tube-potential (kVp)	37–82	82	42–152	82
x-ray tube-current (mA)	0.7	0.7	12–402	12
Focal spot size (mm)	0.035	0.035	0.8	0.8
Source-to-detector distance (mm)	-	302	-	602
Dose-rate* (R/h)	-	346	-	1920
Exposure time (s)	-	6	-	0.10
Tube-current exposure-time product (mAs)	-	4	-	10

Internally produced, the rotating stage for the framework had an accuracy of 5 m and was controlled by a closed-circuit stepper engine. 360 images were added at 1° rakish augmentations for each output. The stage was 300 millimetres (mm) between the x-ray source and the focal axis of the phosphor screen (source-to-protest distance, grass). The amplification factor (M) for the framework was found to be:

$$M = \frac{SDD}{SOD} = \frac{600 \text{ mm}}{300 \text{ mm}} = 0.5$$

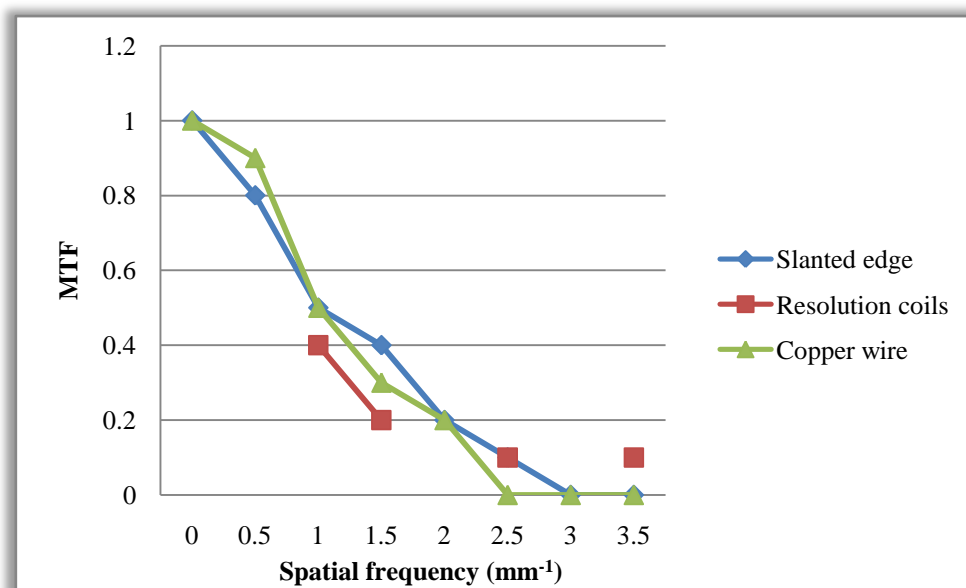
A full-frame DSLR camera (Nikon D800), a fast lens (35mm, f1.4 Prime Nikkor), and a 180x240mm Gd2O2S. Tb phosphor screen (Lanex Min-R 2000, Eastman Kodak Company) are all included in the X-ray viewfinder. Prior to data collection, the camera-to-screen distance was set to 230mm, and the CMOS sensor's center was externally tuned. To enable for capturing photos with as much light as possible, the biggest aperture (f/1.4 in the centre) was used. To match the needed exposure time while utilizing the designated X-ray source SR-800-500, the camera's exposure time was modified to 4 seconds. This made sure that during data collection and subsequent CT reconstruction, the proper levels of electronic noise or dull magnetic fields were taken into consideration. To cover the whole performance range of the 14 Nikon D800 cameras, the ISO responsiveness has been raised to 1600 ISO.

## 5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 5.1. Spatial resolution

We quantitatively assessed the spatial purpose of the framework by calculating the pre-checked MTF of the framework using duplicate images of the QA ghost beveled edge plate. In comparison to a geographical aim of 235 m, 2.12 line matches per mm, or as far as possible at the 10% level, was attained. When calculating the framework's MTF using the wire-based approach, similar results were shown and confirmed (Fig. 2).

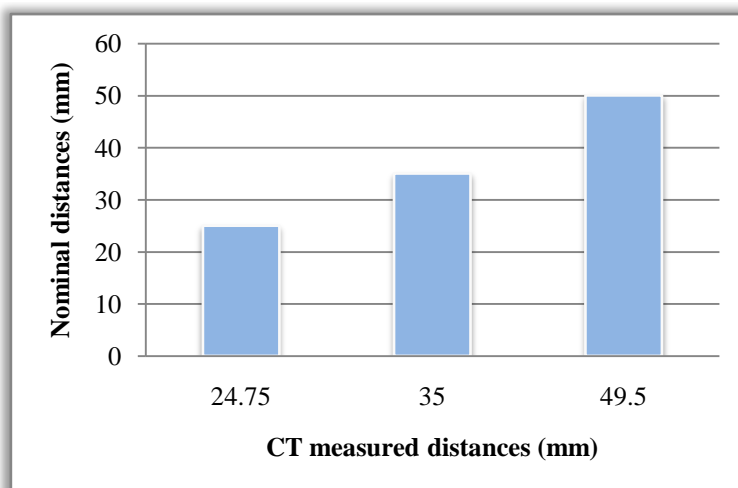
It turns out that only the 300m and 500m loop designs were solved. This is because we consider different spatial frequencies of 2.5- and 3.3-line coincidence per millimeter. The standard deviation of initial capital investment returns utilizing MTF gauges and quantitative MTF estimation approaches were in perfect agreement (Fig. 2).



**Figure 2:** The bevel plate, resolution coil plate, and copper wire of the CT quality assurance phantom are used to determine the Modulation Transfer Function (MTF) of an affordable CT scanner.

## 5.2. Geometric accuracy

To determine the normal voxel distribution in the plane of CT reconstruction (120, 410, 22 m), the realized spacing between beads in QA Ghost's mathematical accuracy plate (Fig. 3) was mapped to intentional points of voxels. divided by the interval. As shown in Table 2, the centroids of each of the five beads on QA Ghost's mathematical precision plate are separated by Euclidean sub voxel distances. The mean sub-voxel real distances (36.990.08, 26.760.03, and 51.490.05 mm) between globule designs were 297.650.48, 211.070.48, and 420.120.18 voxels, respectively. The low-cost CT framework used in the CT reconstructions produced a high degree of mathematical correctness, as seen by the little difference in standard deviation between the planned Euclidian distances.



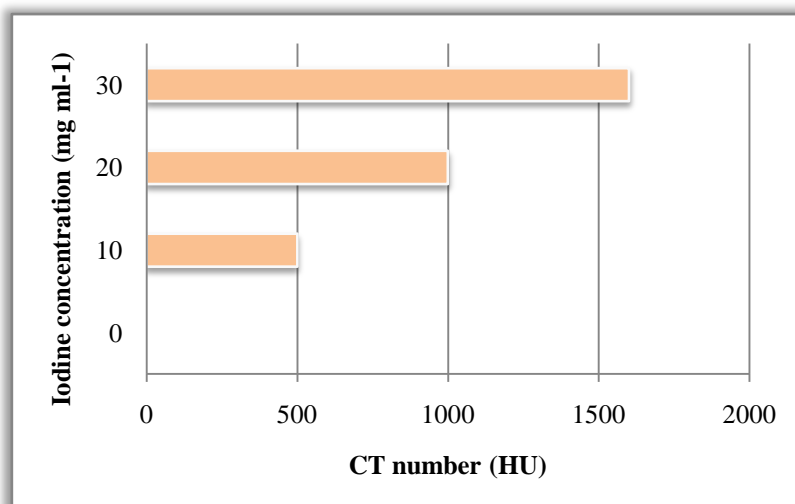
**Figure 3:** Geometric-accuracy plate showing error bars that indicate the 95% confidence range for all nominally feasible vs CT determined lengths between beads.

**Table 3:** CT Quality Assurance Phantom Geometric Accuracy Euclidean distance (in millimeters) between centroids of each of the five beads on the plate

	Central bead	Periphery 1	Periphery 2	Periphery 3	Periphery 4
Central bead	0	26.76	26.85	26.76	26.70
Periphery 1	26.76	0	37.01	51.50	37.02
Periphery 2	26.85	37.01	0	37.11	51.54
Periphery 3	26.76	51.50	37.11	0	36.94
Periphery 4	26.70	37.02	51.54	36.94	0

### 5.3. Linearity

Linearity was assessed using the deliberate force upsides of investment returns put within vials containing varying centralizations of iodine (p 0.001). The findings of a direct relapse between these components are given in Figure 4, along with the link between signal strength (S) and iodine focus (C). C is the iodine fixation in mg m<sup>-1</sup> (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9999), and S is defined as 56.64 (mg m<sup>-1</sup>) x C plus 28.6 (HU). The framework CT number was significantly altered given that the y-capture 28.6 HU was not fundamentally different from zero.



**Figure 4:** A plot of the measured CT values and known iodine concentrations within the ROI within each iodine vial can be viewed in the CT quality control phantom linearity panel.

Permeable titanium-compound 3D-printed products might undergo non-destructive testing using a cheap, off-the-shelf miniature CT scanner. The affordability of the proposed framework is determined by a number of design criteria typical of most clinical instruments, such as: B. High porosity, compact size, minimal X-ray reducing material. This method demonstrated the feasibility of routine non-destructive inspection of medium-sized, high-permeability 3D-printed titanium medical components using the recommended smart CT frame.

This innovative CT system consists of a phosphor screen, a high-end DSLR camera, and a low-cost X-ray locator connected to the focal point. A consumer DSLR camera and carefully chosen focus is used in a front-illuminated arrangement that captures the light transmitted through the phosphor better than other arrangements. Other benefits of this contract are: (1) Less optical scattering of the captured light (ie less light scattered within the fluorophore) because it does not need to pass through the fluorophore for detection. (2) Spatial targeting in the cross-axis plane has been improved by shifting the layout of the phosphor screen. (3) the camera sensor can be properly shielded from the direct path of his X-ray beam so that the image taken is free of bright pixels; (4) Reduction of light dispersion

The study's low-cost scanner was safely operated within a room with adequate security. If this arrangement cannot be made, the scanner's edge should be entirely protected using the proper safeguards (such as lead boards). The additional cost of the required safety measures won't significantly change the scanner's final cost. However, if the scanner were to be used in

distant areas, the anticipated protection may interfere with the hardware's shipping, meaning the scanner wouldn't likely be protected to function normally. Characterizing a designated restricted location where no employees may be accessible will be one solution to this problem. Similar treatments are often carried out in contemporary, quick locations or gigantic creature radiography. To prevent unintentional exposure to ionizing radiation, a remote interlock technology edge might be established at the boundary of the designated regulated zone.

The recommended structure also benefits from regular updates. For example, your system's camera may change as digital photography technology advances. New technologies can improve spatial targeting, speed information transfer, provide additional capabilities, and extend the useful life of imaging hardware.

The main part of the scanner on display resembles an economically compact, commercially viable CT scanner with nearly identical imaging capabilities. Even considering that the cost of in-house components can account for 33% of the cost of a device, the cost of a particular framework (\$11,000) is still much cheaper (for a \$260,000 scanner is \$85,000). The suggested CT scanner provides a novel way for non-destructive assessment of medium-sized titanium composite healthcare goods while also drastically lowering the cost per pass. Additional quality assurance activities can be performed using the included d-SLR camera, thus improving the financial viability of the hardware. Cameras can be set to capture clean images of parts for photogrammetry, surface analysis and mathematical evaluation. Finally, the thoughtful design will enable specific scanner components to be updated, overhauled, or replaced without having to replace the whole device.

## 6. CONCLUSION

An overview of X-ray computed tomography, a useful technique for nondestructive examination of design components for disappointment studies, model assessment, and performance evaluation, is the goal of this work. The efficient design, creation, and use of a portable, low-energy (80 kVp) CT scanner for regular non-destructive testing of clear, 3D-printed titanium clinical combination components are described in this paper. Combining data gathered at reduced X-ray potentials with a low-cost focal-limited identification architecture allowed for the practical CT reconstruction of 3D-printed titanium structures. These reconstructions successfully matched the linearity, consistency, and mathematical precision of very costly commercial small CT scanners.

The method advised for smart scanners may be used to assess medium-sized 3D printed items composed of titanium alloys without causing any damage, leaving strong metal up to 13 mm thick. Future research will need to do non-destructive testing of clinical components using calculations that are relevant to clinical practice since this assessment was conducted using test items. It's a common misconception that for components composed mostly of cemented carbide to efficiently reach an 80 kVp X-ray source's maximum range, a changed imaging technique is needed.

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