

# Advancing Elastic Wave Imaging Using Thermal Susceptibility of Acoustic Nonlinearity

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25 **Abstract**

26 Despite proven effectiveness in characterizing material degradation and embryonic defects,  
27 the use of acoustic nonlinearity is restricted by its intrinsic vulnerability to measurement  
28 contamination and to fluctuations in ambient temperature in particular. Analytically, we shed  
29 light on the susceptibility of acoustic nonlinearity embodied in elastic waves to ambient  
30 temperature. Rather than eliminating or compensating for such thermal susceptibility, we  
31 subtly exploit it to advance nonlinear elastic wave imaging. Experimental validation  
32 corroborates theoretical prediction, spotlighting the capacity of the approach to improve the  
33 precision of material characterization using nonlinear elastic waves and therefore to enhance  
34 the accuracy of anomaly imaging when other nonlinearity sources interfere with the  
35 extraction of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves.

36

37 **Keywords:** elastic wave propagation; acoustic nonlinearity; elastic wave imaging; thermal  
38 susceptibility; material characterization

## 39 **1. Introduction**

40 Acoustic nonlinearity embodied in elastic waves features greater sensitivity than its linear  
41 counterparts to subtle changes in material properties, even when the changes are minimal.  
42 This characteristic provides a physical cornerstone on which basis diverse material  
43 characterization techniques have been deployed, as typified by microstructure inspection [1-  
44 3], defect evaluation [4-6], tissue pathology [7, 8], and therapeutic applications [9, 10].  
45 Central to the interest is leveraging acoustic nonlinearity to non-destructively gauge material  
46 degradation (*e.g.*, dislocation, vacancy, grain boundary, micro-crack) induced by various  
47 causes including manufacturing glitches, in-service loads, ageing or environmental attacks  
48 [4, 11, 12].

49

50 The effectiveness of using acoustic nonlinearity for material characterizing lies in the  
51 premise that the material anomalies can introduce or augment the material acoustic  
52 nonlinearity, and consequently modulate the probing elastic waves and generate nonlinear  
53 attributes in elastic waves, as typified by the second harmonic generation of elastic waves.  
54 Representatively, Deng [13] and De Lima et al. [14], respectively, investigated the generation  
55 of second harmonic wave modes in plate-like waveguides analytically, linking the second  
56 harmonic generation with the acoustic nonlinearity parameter. Cantrell et al. [15] proposed  
57 a model to interpret the effect of dislocation dipoles on the material acoustic nonlinearity  
58 and presented experimental evidence. Xiang et al. [16] developed an analytical model to  
59 describe the influence of mixed dislocations on acoustic nonlinearity in plastically deformed  
60 materials. Kim et al. [17] and Sohn et al.[18], respectively, tracked the change of acoustic  
61 nonlinearity parameter and nonlinear wave modulation with the evolution of fatigue damage  
62 using experimental approaches. These researches have unveiled the effect of material  
63 anomalies on the acoustic nonlinearity and demonstrated the superb potentials of using

64 nonlinear wave features for material characterization.

65

66 Despite considerable previous investigations of the physical nature of acoustic nonlinearity,  
67 precise acquisition of the nonlinear attributes of elastic waves remains a daunting task in  
68 measurement practice, precluding the use of delicate nonlinear attributes of elastic waves for  
69 calibrating material acoustic nonlinearity – a challenge attributable to the extremely low  
70 magnitude of material acoustic nonlinearity, that results in the marked susceptibility of  
71 nonlinear wave features to other sources of nonlinearity than the material nonlinearity itself.  
72 These sources include environmental contamination (e.g., temperature fluctuation), and  
73 testing apparatus among others[19].

74

75 Continued efforts [20-22] have been made to isolate these non-material-related acoustic  
76 nonlinearity sources and consequently minimize their contribution to the overall nonlinearity  
77 of elastic wave signals in measurement, thereby enhancing the precision of material  
78 characterization and anomaly imaging. Nevertheless, it is envisaged that these undesirable  
79 nonlinearity sources can only be more or less reduced rather than entirely eliminated.  
80 Prevailing endeavors do not provide a generic solution for effective elimination of the  
81 adverse effects of numerous sources of nonlinearity on wave feature extraction. Among  
82 various non-material-related sources of acoustic nonlinearity, the thermal variation is usually  
83 a concern which can alter propagation attributes of waves [22-26]. To put it into perspective,  
84 a variation of 0.1°C in temperature can lead to a shift of 0.01% in the resonant frequency,  
85 which is comparable with the intrinsic material nonlinearity, as reported elsewhere [25].  
86 Together with other nonlinearity sources, these practical factors can remarkably contaminate  
87 the measurement of nonlinear features of elastic waves. These contaminations suffice to  
88 erode the confidence in material characterization or anomaly imaging using the acoustic

89 nonlinearity extracted from elastic wave signals. In contrast, exploitation of the benign  
90 aspects of the thermal susceptibility of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves, rather than  
91 eliminating or compensating for its adverse effect, has ushered in a new avenue to enhance  
92 the accuracy, precision and reliability of the use of acoustic nonlinearity. This approach  
93 entails rigorous interpretation of the thermal attributes of nonlinear wave features. Taking  
94 advantage of those thermal attributes, the material phase change (from a cubic structure to a  
95 tetragonal structure) of a selected waveguide ( $\text{SrTiO}_3$ ) is evaluated experimentally [27], and  
96 the interfacial stress between matrix and reinforcements in composites is quantified [28, 29].  
97  
98 Considering that the material anomaly can alter the thermal susceptibility of wave  
99 nonlinearity to a salient degree, we exploit such a phenomenon to improve material  
100 characterization and anomaly imaging using acoustic nonlinearity. With this motivation, we  
101 achieve an analytical insight into the thermal susceptibility of a particular nonlinear attribute  
102 of elastic waves (i.e., the second harmonic generation) to variation of ambient temperature,  
103 and on this basis the effect of material anomaly on thermal susceptibility is investigated, to  
104 advance nonlinear elastic wave-based anomaly imaging. Accurately extracted and quantified  
105 material acoustic nonlinearity gives anomaly imaging enhanced precision and accuracy, and  
106 this allows experimental validation to be followed, in which a fatigue crack can be imaged  
107 with higher precision, compared with conventional acoustic nonlinearity-based methods.  
108 This approach is physically underpinned by the fact that the extent of thermal susceptibility  
109 of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves manifests differently in accordance with the different  
110 physical properties of materials. The merits of this study mainly include the interpretation of  
111 the effect of material anomaly on the thermal susceptibility of nonlinear wave features, and  
112 also the use of this defect-altered thermal susceptibility to enhance the precision and  
113 accuracy of material characterization and anomaly imaging using the acoustic nonlinearity.

114 **2. Theoretical principle: thermal susceptibility of nonlinear attributes of**  
115 **elastic waves**

116 The intrinsic acoustic nonlinearity of a material can be depicted analytically using the  
117 material's nonlinear elastic moduli – a physical property commonly referred to as the *third-*  
118 *order-elastic tensor*. Macroscopically, such nonlinearity mirrors the shift of acoustic energy  
119 from the incident frequency band to other frequencies; microscopically, it is in essence linked  
120 to the interatomic bonding in the material, namely the interatomic force and interatomic  
121 distance. Atomic bonding is governed by the interatomic potential that calibrates the  
122 potential energy of a system of atoms and the material deformation at the atomic scale. There  
123 is no lack of physical models that are capable of approximating the interatomic potential  
124 between neutral atoms [30-33], such as the embedded atom model, the Lennard-Jones  
125 potential, the Sutton-Chen potential, and the glue potential, to name a few. In particular, the  
126 Lennard-Jones potential reads

127 
$$E_{L-J}(r) = 4w \left[ \left( \frac{q_{L-J}}{r} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{q_{L-J}}{r} \right)^6 \right], \quad (1)$$

128 where  $E_{L-J}(r)$  signifies the interatomic potential – a function of the interatomic distance  
129  $r$ .  $w$  and  $q_{L-J}$  denote two empirical parameters accounting for the depth of the potential  
130 well and the distance between two atoms at which the potential is zero, respectively. **Fig. 1**  
131 depicts the correlation between  $E_{L-J}(r)$  and  $r$ .

132

133 As temperature increases, the kinetic energy of atoms in the material rises correspondingly,  
134 augmenting the magnitude of atomic vibration and interatomic potential. Because the  
135 Lennard-Jones potential is “an-harmonic”, the average interatomic separation increases, as  
136 shown in **Fig. 1**. Here, the interatomic separation is defined, at a given potential, using the

137 mean value of the interatomic distances of the repulsive branch and the attractive branch.

138 This consequently leads to macroscopic thermal expansion of the material.

139

140 By virtue of the linearized thermal expansion theory [34], the interatomic distance  $r$  can

141 be correlated to temperature  $T$  as

$$142 \quad r(T) = r_0[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)], \quad (2)$$

143 where  $\alpha$  is the thermal expansion coefficient of the material;  $T - T_0$  is the temperature

144 change from the reference temperature  $T_0$  at which the initial interatomic distance is  $r_0$ .

145 When changes are introduced into the material by, for example, material anomaly (*e.g.*,

146 dislocation, permanent slip band, void, micro-cracks), an increase in the order of  $r_0$  in the

147 interatomic distance is triggered, and the increase is denoted as  $r_{anomaly}$  in what follows.

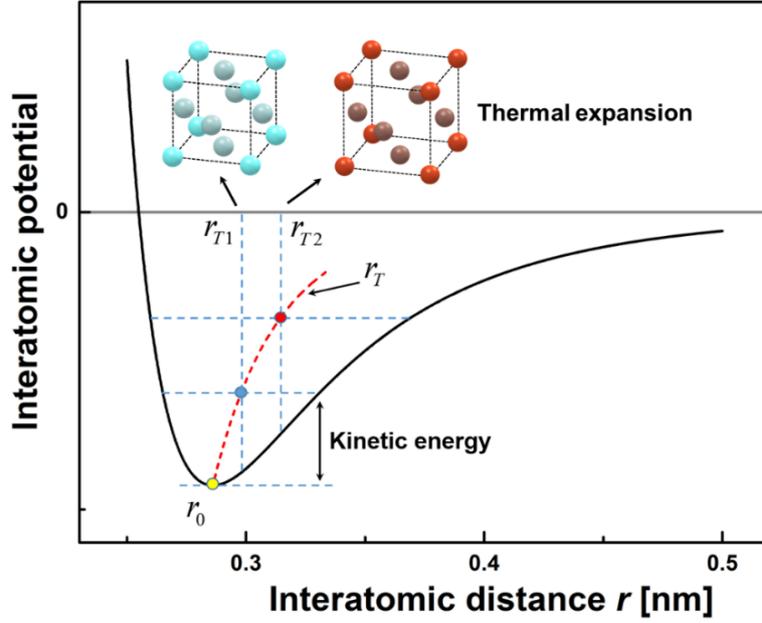
148 With  $r_{anomaly}$  taken into account, the total interatomic distance  $r_{tot}(T)$ , as a consequence of

149 the change in material properties, is rewritten as

$$150 \quad r_{tot}(T) = r_0 + \alpha(T - T_0) + r_{anomaly}. \quad (3)$$

151 With Eqs. (1) and (3), the interatomic force ( $F = -\partial E_{L-J} / \partial r$ ), linked to  $T$  and  $r_{anomaly}$ , is

152 yielded analytically.



153

154

155 **Fig. 1.** Interatomic potential  $E_{L-J}(r)$  as a function of the interatomic distance  $r$ : the left  
 156 and right insets in main diagram schematically show the crystal lattice of material at  
 157 temperature  $T1$  and  $T2$ , respectively ( $r_{T1}$  and  $r_{T2}$ : the average interatomic separation at  
 158 temperature  $T1$  and  $T2$ , respectively, which indicate the increase in average interatomic  
 159 separation with temperature elevation due to the “an-harmonicity” of interatomic potential).

160

161 Now, when a probing elastic wave is emitted into the material, its propagation can be  
 162 depicted using an equilibrium principle. Without loss of generality, we first consider a one-  
 163 dimensional scenario [14]. Assuming a disturbance in the deformation of the system of  
 164 particles, the motion of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  particle can be depicted using the Newton’s second law, which

165 reads

$$\begin{aligned}
m \frac{d^2 u_1^n}{dt^2} &= F_{n,n+1} - F_{n,n-1} \\
166 \quad &= \left[ \frac{\partial E_{L-J}}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial^2 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^2} (u_1^{n+1} - u_1^n) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^3} (u_1^{n+1} - u_1^n)^2 \right] - \\
&\quad \left[ \frac{\partial E_{L-J}}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial^2 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^2} (u_1^n - u_1^{n-1}) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^3} (u_1^n - u_1^{n-1})^2 \right].
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

167 After mathematical manipulations, Eq.(4) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}
168 \quad m \frac{d^2 u_1^n}{dt^2} &= \left[ \frac{\partial^2 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^2} ((u_1^{n+1} - u_1^n) - (u_1^n - u_1^{n-1})) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^3} ((u_1^{n+1} - u_1^n)^2 - (u_1^n - u_1^{n-1})^2) \right] \\
&= \frac{\partial^2 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^2} r \left( \left( \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)_{x_1} - \left( \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)_{x_1-r} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^3} r^2 \left( \left( \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)_{x_1}^2 - \left( \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right)_{x_1-r}^2 \right).
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

169 Dividing Eq.(5) by  $r$ , one can get

$$170 \quad \frac{m}{r} \frac{d^2 u_1}{dt^2} = \frac{\partial^2 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^2} \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^3 E_{L-J}}{\partial r^3} r \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2}. \tag{6}$$

171 Letting  $\frac{m}{r} = \rho$ , Eq.(6) can be reformed as

$$\begin{aligned}
172 \quad \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial t^2} &= (V_p)^2 \left[ 1 - \gamma \left( \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} \right) \right] \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2}, \\
V_p &= \sqrt{\frac{C(T, r_{anomaly}) r_{anomaly}}{\rho}}, \quad \gamma = -\frac{D(T, r_{anomaly}) r_{anomaly}}{C(T, r_{anomaly})},
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

173 where  $u_1$  signifies the atomic displacement in the wave propagation direction  $x_1$ ,  $V_p$  the

174 wave propagation velocity,  $\rho$  the material density, and  $t$  the time.  $\gamma$  is a nonlinear

175 parameter.  $C(T, r_{anomaly}) = \partial^2 E_{L-J} / \partial r^2$  and  $D(T, r_{anomaly}) = \partial^3 E_{L-J} / \partial r^3$  are obtained from

176 the differentiations of  $E_{L-J}(r)$  with regard to  $r$ . The above derivation reveals that the

177 variation of the interatomic distance induced by material anomaly can affect the interaction

178 between adjacent particles and the elastic modulus of the material, as a result of which both

179 the wave propagation velocity (reflecting the propagation velocity of disturbance in the

180 atomic displacement) and nonlinear parameters in the governing equation of particulate

181 motion are altered. **It is also noteworthy that the material nonlinearity is essentially linked to**

182 the features of material at an atomic scale (*i.e.* interatomic distance), and the damage, which  
 183 is observed at a micro-scale, is a collective and holistic manifestation of the changes in the  
 184 material at an atomic scale.

185

186 Recalling the perturbation method [14], the solution to Eq. (7) can be ascertained, yielding  
 187 a wave-field that embraces the linear portion  $u_1^1$  and the nonlinear portion  $u_1^2$  ( $u_1^2 = u_1^1$ ).  
 188 A relative acoustic nonlinearity parameter,  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ , is defined, serving as a  
 189 quantitative measure of a nonlinear attribute of elastic wave (*i.e.* second harmonic generation)  
 190 which reads

$$191 \quad \beta'(T, r_{anomaly}) = \frac{A_2(T, r_{anomaly})}{A_1(T, r_{anomaly})^2} = -\frac{D(T, r_{anomaly})}{C(T, r_{anomaly})^2} \times K \quad (8)$$

192 In the above,  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , correlated to  $T$  and  $r_{anomaly}$ , are the amplitudes of  $u_1^1$  and  $u_1^2$ ,  
 193 respectively.  $K$  is related with the incident frequency and the propagation distance.  
 194 Considering that the present investigation is focused on the thermal susceptibility of  
 195 nonlinear wave features, the incident frequency and propagation distance are invariable, as  
 196 a result of which  $K$  signifies a constant. With Eq. (8), the relation between  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$   
 197 and the temperature has been obtained analytically and explicitly, from which the trend of  
 198  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  against the interatomic distance  $r$  is predicted, as shown in **Fig. 2(a)**. In **Fig.**  
 199 **2(a)**,  $r_{anomaly}^1$  and  $r_{anomaly}^2$  signify the increase in interatomic distance induced by the two  
 200 defects of different degrees of severity.

201

202 As already stated, measurement of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  is susceptible to contamination from  
 203 various sources of nonlinearity. Instead of quantifying the absolute value of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$

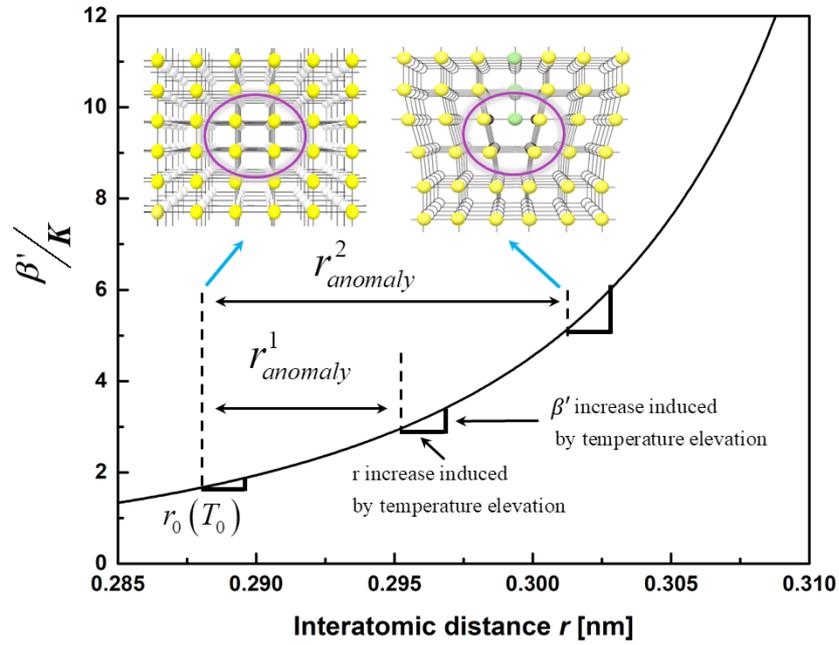
204 itself, the extent to which  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  fluctuates against the ambient temperature  
 205 variation – namely *thermal susceptibility* – is interrogated. To this end, a thermal  
 206 susceptibility index (*TSI*) is defined as

$$207 \quad TSI = \frac{\nabla \beta'(T, r_{anomaly})}{\nabla T}, \quad (9)$$

208 where  $\nabla \beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  denotes the fluctuation in  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  when the material is  
 209 subject to a temperature variation  $\nabla T$ . With Eq. (9), the relation between the defined *TSI*  
 210 and the interatomic distance  $r$  can be obtained, as shown in **Fig. 2(b)**. Analogous to  
 211  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ , *TSI* is also linked to material properties, and consequently its change can  
 212 be used inversely to characterize material properties. It is apparent that, at given temperature  
 213 elevation, material with an anomaly exhibits a higher gradient of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  than its  
 214 intact counterpart, consequently leading to a higher *TSI*, see **Fig. 2(b)**. *TSI* increases  
 215 drastically along with the augment in the interatomic distance induced by defect. Therefore,  
 216 the variation of nonlinear wave features is significant when defects induce increase in  
 217 interatomic distance and also when the waveguide is subjected to notable temperature  
 218 elevation. Calibrating the gradient of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  with respect to ambient temperature  
 219 (via thermal sensitivity), rather than acquiring the  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  itself, *TSI* is immune to  
 220 interference from various contaminants that might downgrade the measurement precision of  
 221 the absolute value of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ .

222  
 223 The thermal susceptibility of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves, usually considered  
 224 pessimistically as a detrimental factor in the practical measurement of material acoustic  
 225 nonlinearity, can now be exploited positively to improve the precision of nonlinear elastic

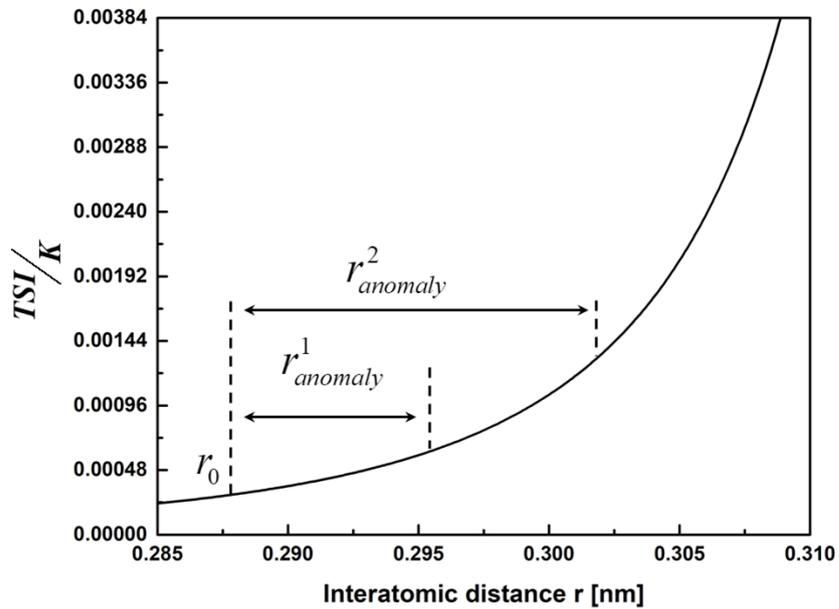
226 wave-based material characterization, hence enhancing the accuracy and robustness of  
 227 anomaly imaging under the effect of varying ambient factors.



228

229

(a)



230

231

(b)

232 **Fig. 2.** (a) Correlation between  $\beta'/K$  and  $r$  (insets in main diagram: crystal lattice of  
 233 material without (left) and with (right) dislocation-type defect):  $r_{anomaly}^1$  and  $r_{anomaly}^2$   
 234 represent increase in interatomic distance induced by material anomalies; (b) correlation

235 between  $TSI/K$  and  $r$  for a unit temperature elevation (material with an anomaly  
236 exhibiting a higher  $TSI/K$  than its intact counterpart).

### 237 **3. Experimental validation and an application paradigm**

#### 238 **3.1. Validation via imaging of fatigue crack**

239 For proof-of-concept validation, an aluminum (Al 6061) waveguide measuring 2mm in  
240 thickness is fatigued to the point of suffering a slight degree of material deterioration. Precise  
241 imaging of embryonic fatigue damage or fatigue-damage-induced initial material  
242 degradation, whose significance cannot be over-emphasized, has been the object of intense  
243 effort yet with high challenge [17, 35-37]. Upon completion of the fatigue test, diverse types  
244 of defect are generated, including dislocations, permanent slip bands and micro-cracks.  
245 These defects jointly lead to an increase in the interatomic distance and intensify the material  
246 nonlinearity, leading to the second harmonic generation. To image the fatigue-induced  
247 material deterioration in the waveguide, the second harmonic generation – a typical  
248 nonlinear feature of elastic waves, is evaluated. For comparison, wave imaging for the  
249 fatigue damage is implemented, respectively in a temperature-consistent condition and a  
250 temperature-varying condition.

251

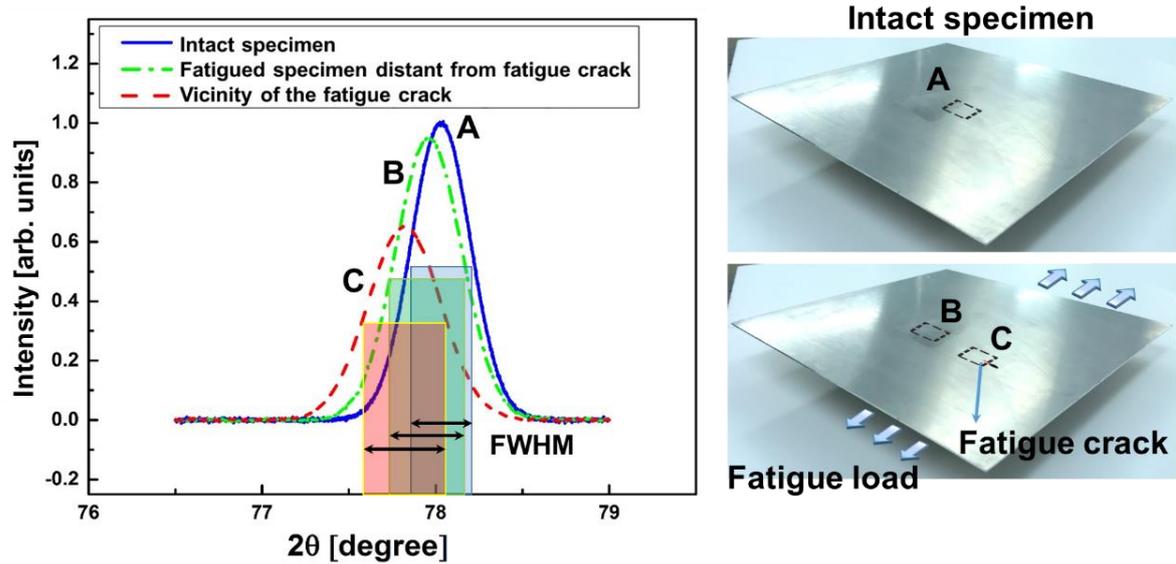
252 To better comprehend the microstructure of the invisible material deterioration, X-ray  
253 radiation diffraction (XRD) testing is performed for the aluminum waveguide before and  
254 after the fatigue process, with results presented in **Fig. 3**, from which the diffraction angles  
255 and interatomic spacing can be ascertained. Compared with the pristine status of the  
256 waveguide, an increase in the *full width at half maximum* (FWHM) of the XRD peak is  
257 clearly observed in the fatigued specimen, indicating intensified dislocations and micro-  
258 cracks in the waveguide, both of which increase the interatomic distance of the lattice in the

259 fatigued material. This observation authenticates the assertion in section 2 that anomaly in  
260 material enlarges interatomic distance therein.

261 A sensor network consisting of 44 miniaturized lead zirconate titanate (PZT) discs is surface-  
262 mounted on the specimen with a distance of 1cm between two adjacent discs, schematically  
263 depicted in **Fig. 4**, to enclose an inspection region. This sensor network provides multiple  
264 actuating-sensing paths in virtue of the dual-piezoelectricity of PZT, including the two  
265 examples Path I and Path II shown in **Fig. 4**. The inspection region is evenly heated with a  
266 heat flux of 360°C for one minute, ensuring uniform temperature elevation throughout the  
267 region. Subsequently, the specimen is naturally cooled to the room temperature of 20°C.

268 Note that the process of heating and cooling is completed in a short period in the absence of  
269 external loading, and therefore the microstructures of the specimen are invariant during such  
270 as heating processing, and no more variations in the specimen (dislocations, PSB,  
271 interatomic distances, etc.) are generated. At intervals of a minute in this process of heating  
272 and cooling, a ten-cycle Hanning-windowed sinusoidal toneburst at a central frequency of  
273 300 kHz is produced with a nonlinear ultrasonic testing system (RITEC®, RAM-5000  
274 SNAP), to drive each PZT disc in turn and emit a probing elastic wave into the sample. At  
275 the selected excitation frequency and the current thickness of the sample, the fundamental  
276 symmetric Lamb mode ( $S_0$ ) dominates the excited probing waves. The phase velocity and  
277 group velocity of excited fundamental  $S_0$  mode and corresponding second harmonic mode  
278 ( $S_0$ ) are quasi-matching, and thus in a certain propagation distance, accumulation of second  
279 harmonic mode ( $S_0$ ) is warranted along wave propagation path, as theoretically and  
280 experimentally proven elsewhere [14, 38]. Via the dispersion length, this distance for the  
281 material used in this study is predicted to be 0.3 m approximately, which is much greater  
282 than the distance from any actuator to a sensor in the sensor network. When a PZT disc  
283 serves as wave actuator, the other discs in the network are used to acquire wave signals from

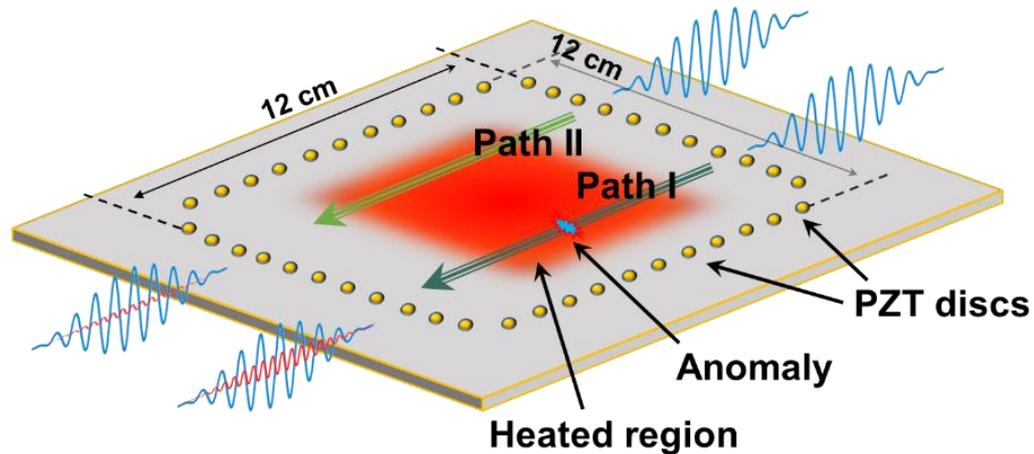
284 which nonlinear wave features (i.e. second harmonic modes) are extracted. To mitigate  
285 measurement uncertainty, 256 wave signals that are captured under the identical  
286 measurement conditions are averaged.



287

288

289 **Fig. 3.** (311) diffracted peaks in XRD patterns of intact and fatigued specimens: compared  
290 with the intact waveguide (region A), an increase in the full width at half maximum (FWHM)  
291 of the XRD peak is clearly observed in the fatigued specimen (region B representing material  
292 in the fatigued specimen distant from the fatigue crack, and C material in the vicinity of the  
293 fatigue crack).



### Fundamental waves and second harmonics

294

295

296 **Fig. 4.** Experiment set-up: on an Aluminium plate (thickness 2mm), a sensor network  
 297 consisting of 44 miniaturized lead zirconate titanate (PZT) discs (1cm apart for adjacent  
 298 discs) is surface-mounted to enclose an inspection region; the inspection region is evenly  
 299 heated with a heat flux of 360°C for one minute, and naturally cooled to the room  
 300 temperature of 20°C; a ten-cycle Hanning-windowed sinusoidal toneburst (central frequency  
 301 300 kHz) is used to drive each PZT disc in turn and the other discs are used to acquire wave  
 302 signals from which nonlinear wave features are extracted.

303

304 Representative signals acquired via Path I are shown in **Fig. 5(a)**, from which the magnitudes  
 305 of the fundamental and second harmonic modes are extracted and displayed in **Fig. 5(b)**.  
 306 From the velocity of the acquired wave modes, it can be concluded that the first arrival wave  
 307 packet is the  $S_0$  mode, as highlighted by the rectangle in **Fig. 5(a)**. As the propagation  
 308 distance in the configured sensor network is much smaller than the accumulative distance as  
 309 analyzed in the above, accumulative second harmonic mode is warranted. On this basis,  $\beta'$   
 310 from each path and its variation can be obtained. Note that the defect in the waveguide under  
 311 investigation is of small scale (e.g., fatigue crack), and under the conditions depicted in this

312 investigation the second harmonics generated by the defect mainly propagate along the  
313 propagation direction of incident waves, as proven elsewhere [39], inducing negligible  
314 interference of waves along different propagation paths. Thus the probing waves can be  
315 modulated by the defect along those propagation paths that traverse the damaged zone, in  
316 which generation of second harmonic modes are remarkably induced.

317

318 **Fig. 5(c)** compares the variation of  $\beta'$ , respectively obtained via Path II before the fatigue  
319 test (blue, corresponding to region A in **Fig. 3**), Path II in the fatigued specimen distant from  
320 the fatigue crack (black, corresponding to region B), and Path I in the fatigued specimen  
321 traversing the fatigue crack (red, corresponding to region C). **Fig. 5(c)** supports the argument  
322 that:

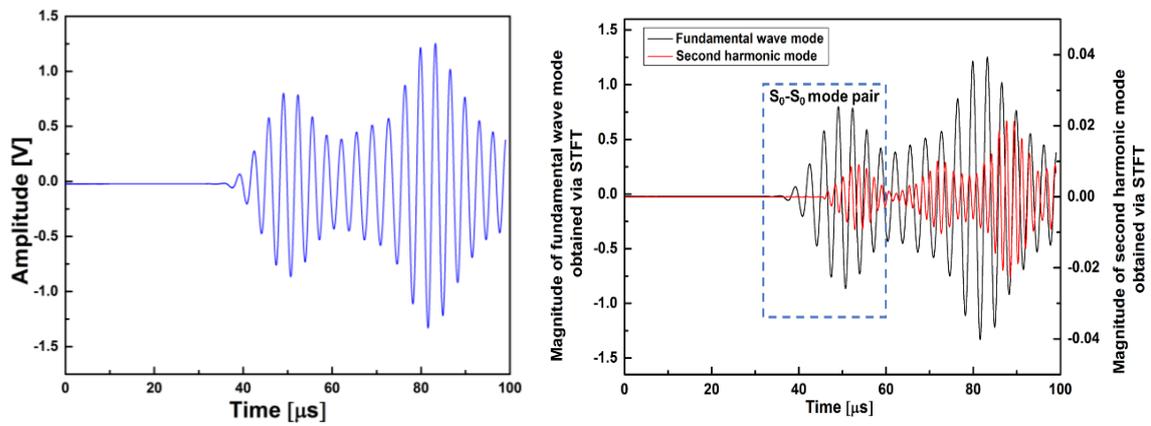
- 323 (i) the amplitude of  $\beta'$  increases during the heating process and reverts to its original level  
324 after the cooling process;
- 325 (ii) fatigue damage – a typical material anomaly – triggers a remarkable augmentation of  
326 the amplitude of the  $\beta'$  when compared with its counterpart induced by material  
327 nonlinearity in its pristine status; and
- 328 (iii) the more severe the fatigue damage, the greater the increase in amplitude.

329

330 As the measurement systems and conditions remain unchanged and the microstructures of  
331 the specimen are invariant during the heating and cooling process, the changes in nonlinear  
332 wave features can be solely attributed to thermal variation. These observations corroborate  
333 well the theoretically interpreted temperature-dependence of nonlinear features of elastic  
334 waves in section 2. Note that the amplitude of  $\beta'$  reverts to its original level after the cooling  
335 process, and this validates the earlier assertion that the heating and cooling processing which  
336 is finished in a short period does not lead to changes in the microstructure of the specimen.

337

338 Diverse elastic wave imaging methods, as typified by nonlinear phased array imaging [35]  
339 and path-based imaging [40], can be recalled to visualize the material anomaly. **Fig. 6(a)**  
340 displays the pixelated anomaly image for the fatigued specimen by synthesizing elastic wave  
341 signals from all actuating-sensing paths in a sensor network using the path-based imaging  
342 algorithm. In the image, the likelihood of the existence of fatigue damage in the waveguide  
343 is calculated using *TSI*, with the highest likelihood highlighted that pinpoints the fatigue  
344 damage.

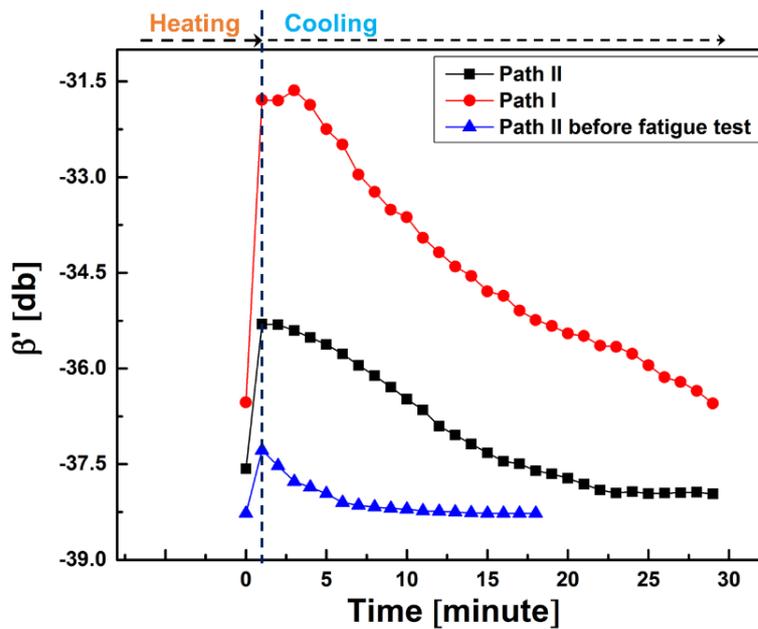


345

346

(a)

(b)



347

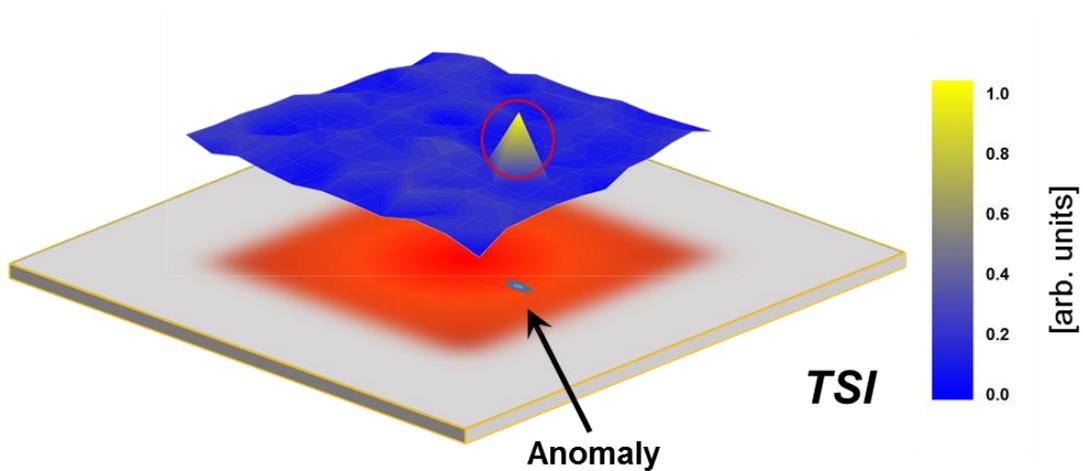
348

349

(c)

350 **Fig. 5.** (a) Wave signals acquired via Path I; (b) separated wave signals via short time Fourier  
351 transform (STFT) processing from which the magnitudes of the fundamental mode ( $S_0$ ) and  
352 second harmonic mode ( $S_0$ ) can be extracted; and (c) variation of  $\beta'$  from representative paths  
353 against time, demonstrating that the paths traversing material with defect manifest higher  
354 variations when subjected to temperature elevation.

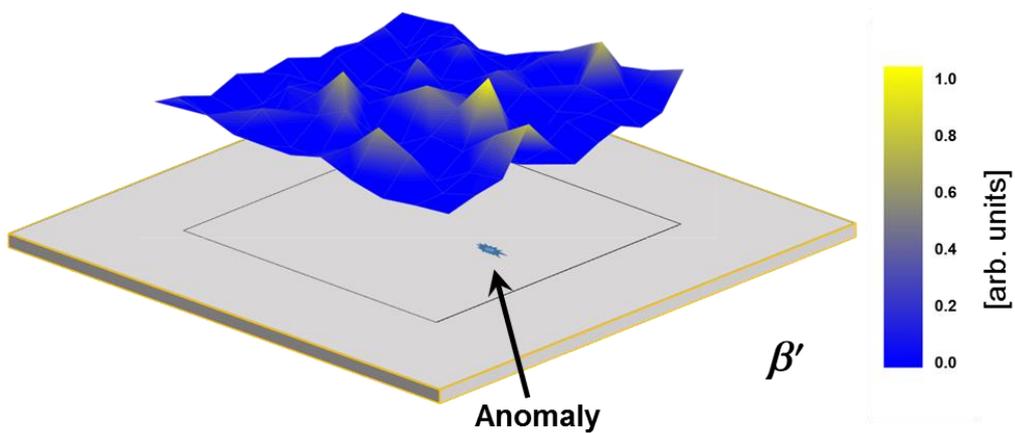
355



356

357

(a)



358

359

(b)

360

361 **Fig. 6.** Elastic wave imaging results via path-based method using (a) *TSI*, showing high

362 precision; and (b) absolute value of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ , showing that the fatigued zone in the  
363 specimen is not imaged clearly and pseudo spots of fatigue damage are generated.

364

365 For comparison, **Fig. 6(b)** displays the image obtained using the absolute value of  
366  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$  measured at room temperature without a heating and cooling process, in

367 which the fatigued zone in the specimen is not imaged clearly. This is because that besides  
368 the nonlinearity induced by the defects in the damaged zone (dislocations, permanent slip

369 bands, and micro-cracks), the second harmonic modes produced by other sources are also  
370 introduced in the process of wave generation and acquisition. Typically, those second

371 harmonic modes are generated simultaneously when exciting probing waves using different  
372 actuators. Thus, the fatigue damage-induced intensification in  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ , usually weak

373 in magnitude, is likely overwhelmed by the second harmonic modes linked to other sources.

374 As a result, pseudo spots are observed in the imaging results, as shown in **Fig. 6(b)**. In  
375 contrast, the imaging approach using *TSI* is of high precision, even when nonlinearity in

376 probing waves generated by diverse sources interferes with the measurement of damage-  
377 related nonlinear features. Such a merit of this new imaging approach using *TSI* enhances

378 the accuracy and reliability of anomaly imaging under the interference of ambient noise. It

379 is worth noting that during the cooling process, the cooling rate for the inspected region of  
380 the sample is uniform, but the decreasing rate for the defined *TSI* is different along different

381 paths, as shown in **Fig. 5(c)**. This phenomenon can be attributed to the fact that along  
382 different wave propagation paths, the microstructure features (including dislocations,

383 permanent slip bands and micro-cracks) induced by the fatigue loading are different, as  
384 analyzed in the above. When the sample is subject to the ambient temperature variation, the

385 status of these microstructure features can be changed, such as the alternation of contact  
386 status of micro-cracks in damaged zone. The reversion of these microstructure features is

387 different from that of the material in the intact region, and thus this induces the extended  
388 period for the nonlinear features of waves traversing the damaged zone to return to their  
389 original level during the cooling stage.

### 390 **3.2. Application to imaging of pitting damage**

391 To further examine its applicability and adaptability, the wave imaging approach based on  
392 *TSI* is practiced to characterize another particular genre of material degradation – pitting  
393 damage. From pitting corrosion in maritime structures through electrical pitting in bearings  
394 to debris cloud-induced pitting craters in spacecraft, pitting damage is a typical modality of  
395 material degradation and structural lesion in engineering assets subjected to harsh  
396 environments. Characterization of this category of defect is of both scientific and practical  
397 importance, but is highly challenging and daunting because of its specific manifestation: in  
398 most circumstances a pitting damage area features hundreds of small craters and cracks  
399 disorderedly clustered over a wide area. **Fig. 7(a)** shows pitting damage generated by a debris  
400 cloud in a hyper-velocity impact (HVI) event. Evaluation of pitting damage is a difficult task  
401 to fulfill using conventional ultrasonic waves-based approaches with either linear or  
402 nonlinear wave features – that is because the sophistication of the pitting damage disturbs  
403 probing waves to a high degree of complexity. This complexity applies to all methods using  
404 nonlinear attributes of elastic waves, due to the interference from diverse measurement  
405 contaminations and also the fact that changes in nonlinear attributes linked to material  
406 degradation are obfuscated by the changes due to multiple wave scattering by individual  
407 craters and cracks in the pitted area.

408

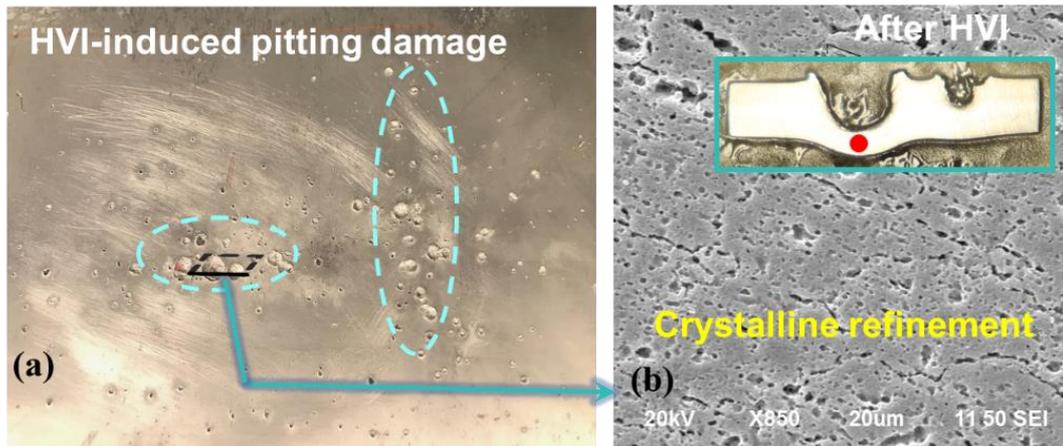
409 XRD tests and scanning electronic microscopy (SEM) analysis are first performed to canvass  
410 microstructural characterization of the pitting damage, with results in **Figs. 7** and **8**. It is

411 observed in **Fig. 7(b)** and (c) that the grain boundaries increase dramatically. These grain  
412 boundaries represent 2-D defects in the crystal lattice structure in which point defects (e.g.,  
413 dislocations and voids) are concentrated [41-43]. The XRD diffraction patterns, **Fig. 8(a)**,  
414 indicate that the dislocation densities increase remarkably in the vicinity of pitting damage.  
415 Results from both XRD tests and SEM analysis show that the interatomic distances in the  
416 crystal lattice of the material are enlarged, leading to intensification of the thermal  
417 susceptibility of  $\beta'(T, r_{anomaly})$ , namely *TSI*, as analyzed in section 2. By calibrating the  
418 defined *TSI*, the pitting damage is imaged using the path-based imaging algorithm, in **Fig.**  
419 **8(b)**. Good coincidence is observed with the actual location of the pitting damage, as  
420 indicated in **Fig. 7(a)**, demonstrating the capability of the proposed method to gauge this  
421 type of damage with high sophistication.

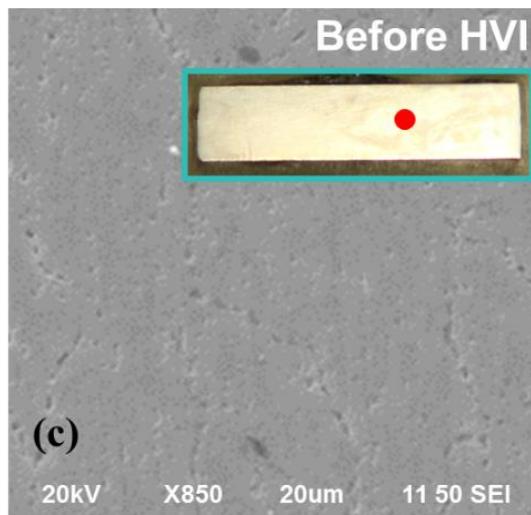
422

423 Note that to depict the thermal susceptibility of nonlinear wave features accurately, the  
424 interatomic potential model must be selected prudently for different materials, leading to  
425 different modalities of Eq. (1). In some circumstances, thermal variation may induce changes  
426 in nonlinear wave features via a physical mechanism unlike that interpreted in this study, so  
427 that the trend of nonlinear wave features to vary thermally might manifest differently. For  
428 example, in a metal-matrix composite, elevation of the ambient temperature can result in  
429 relaxation of the residual stress in the matrix [28], thereby reducing distortion of the matrix  
430 and leading to a decrease in measured acoustic nonlinearity.

431



432

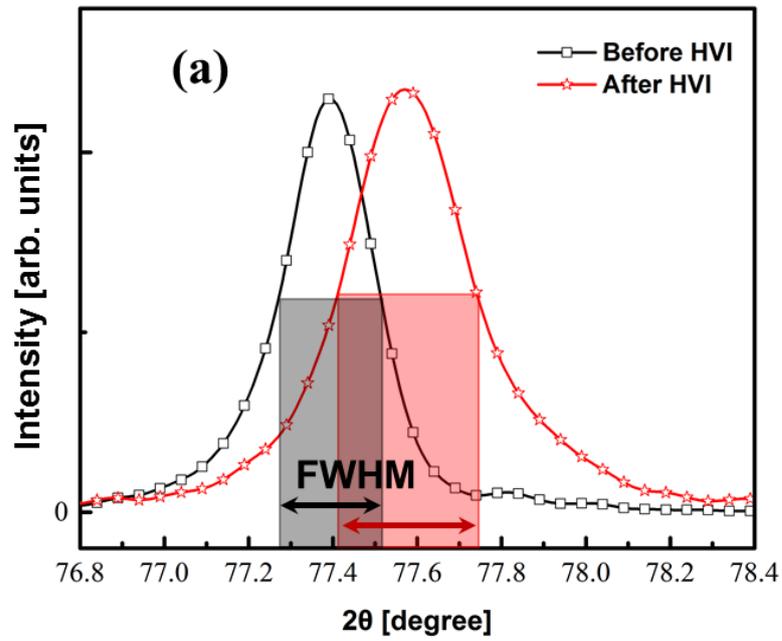


433

434

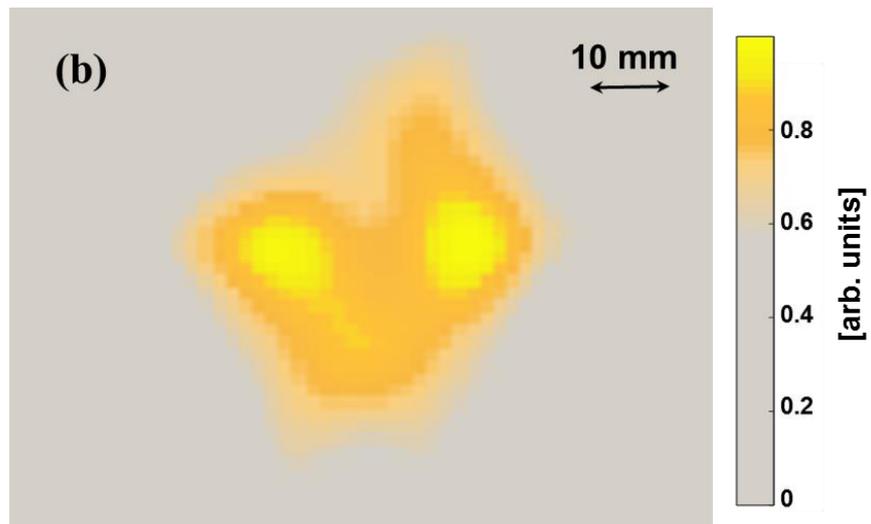
435 **Fig. 7.** (a) An aluminum plate waveguide (thickness 3mm) bearing HVI-induced pitting  
 436 damage; SEM analysis results of the plate (b) after and (c) before HVI: after the HVI, the  
 437 grain boundaries that represent 2-D defects in the crystal lattice structure increase  
 438 dramatically, showing obvious enlargement in interatomic distances in the crystal lattice of  
 439 the material.

440



441

442



443

444

445 **Fig. 8.** (a) XRD test results of the waveguide: an increase in the full width at half maximum

446 (FWHM) of the XRD peak is clearly observed in the vicinity of pitting damage fatigued

447 specimen; and (b) elastic wave imaging result using *TSI*, showing good coincidence with the

448 actual location of the pitting damage.

449

#### 450 **4. Conclusions**

451 Targeting improving the precision and accuracy of material characterization and detection  
452 of small-scale defect, we develop a new approach that makes use of the thermal susceptibility  
453 of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves, rather than eliminating or compensating for it, to  
454 evaluate material acoustic nonlinearity and visualize material anomalies. This approach is  
455 physically underpinned by the fact that the material anomaly can impose significant effect  
456 on the thermal susceptibility of nonlinear attributes of elastic waves. Experimental results  
457 have demonstrated the feasibility of using the thermal susceptibility of acoustic nonlinearity  
458 to advance elastic wave-based material anomaly imaging, with improved imaging precision  
459 and enhanced accuracy in practical applications. Implementation of the approach can be  
460 facilitated either by active temperature control or by passive temperature variation caused  
461 by ambient conditions. With these merits, the proposed approach can be applied to the  
462 evaluation of diverse material defects including dislocations, vacancies, slag inclusions, and  
463 impurities.

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469

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