

AVIATION MAINTENANCE TECHNICIAN CERTIFICATION SERIES

MATERIALS AND HARDWARE

6



EASA 2023-888 COMPLIANT

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| VERSION | EFFECTIVE DATE | DESCRIPTION OF REVISION(S) |
|---------|----------------|--|
| 001 | 2013.01 | Module creation and release. |
| 002 | 2014.07 | Format Updates |
| 003 | 2018.07 | Modified Submodule sequence in accordance to Appendix A. Added content in the following areas: 6.3 – Thixotropic agents; Wood preservation methods; Types of fabric defects. 6.4 – Stress corrosion; Exfoliated corrosion detection; Galvanic corrosion growth; Fretting corrosion. 6.5 – Screw threads; Dowels. 6.6 – Rigid fluid line sizes; Swaged fittings. 6.7 – Laws obeyed by springs. 6.8 – Bearing material and construction. 6.11 – Connector types, Identification codes, and ratings. |
| 003.1 | 2023.04 | Inclusion of Measurement Standards for clarification, page iv. Minor appearance and format updates. |
| 004 | 2024.04 | Regulatory update for EASA 2023-989 compliance. |

Module was reorganized based upon the EASA 2023-989 subject criteria. Enhancements included in this version 004 are:

- 6.1 *Aircraft Materials — Ferrous* - added Inspection of Ferrous material structures.
- 6.2 *Aircraft Materials — Non-ferrous* - added Inspection of Non-ferrous material structures.
- 6.3.1 *Aircraft Materials — Composite and Non-metallic* - added Sealant and Bonding Agents.
- 6.3.2 *Aircraft Materials — Composite and Non-metallic* - Wooden structures reduced to level 1.
- 6.3.3 *Aircraft Materials — Composite and Non-metallic* - Fabric covering reduced to level 1.
- 6.5.4 *Fasteners* - added Pin Fasteners, Lockbolts, Blind Bolts, and Rivnuts.

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ROCKWELL TESTER

The Rockwell hardness tester [Figure 1-7] measures the resistance to penetration, as does the Brinell tester. Instead of measuring the diameter of the impression, the Rockwell tester measures the depth, and the hardness is indicated directly on a dial attached to the machine.

The dial numbers in the outer circle are black, and the inner numbers are red. Rockwell hardness numbers are based on the difference between the depth of penetration at major and minor loads. The greater this difference, the lower the hardness number and the softer the material.

Two types of penetrators are used with the Rockwell tester: a diamond cone and a hardened steel ball. The load which forces the penetrator into the metal is called the major load and is measured in kilograms. The results of each penetrator and load combination are reported on separate scales, designated by letters.

The penetrator, the major load, and the scale vary with the kind of metal being tested. For hardened steels, the diamond penetrator is used; the major load is 150 kilograms; and the hardness is read on the "C" scale. When this reading is recorded, the letter "C" must precede the number indicated by the pointer.

The C-scale setup is used for testing metals ranging in hardness from C-20 to the hardest steel (usually about C-70). If the metal is softer than C-20, the B-scale setup is used. With this setup,

the 1/16 inch ball is used as a penetrator; the major load is 100 kilograms; and the hardness is read on the B scale. In addition to the "C" and "B" scales, there are other setups for special testing. The scales, penetrators, major loads, and dial numbers to be read are listed in Figure 1-8.

The Rockwell tester is equipped with a weight pan, and two weights are supplied with the machine. One weight is marked in red. The other weight is marked in black. With no weight in the weight pan, the machine applies a major load of 60 kilograms. If the scale setup calls for a 100 kilogram load, the red weight is placed in the pan. For a 150 kilogram load, the black weight is added to the red weight. The black weight is always used with the red weight; it is never used alone.

Practically all testing is done with either the B scale setup or the C scale setup. For these scales, the colors may be used as a guide in selecting the weight (or weights) and in reading the dial. For

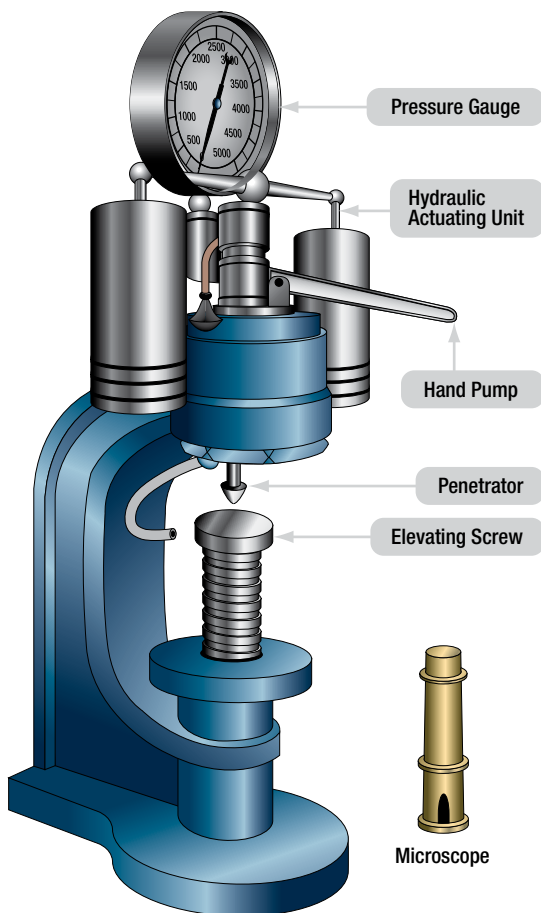


Figure 1-6. Brinell hardness tester.

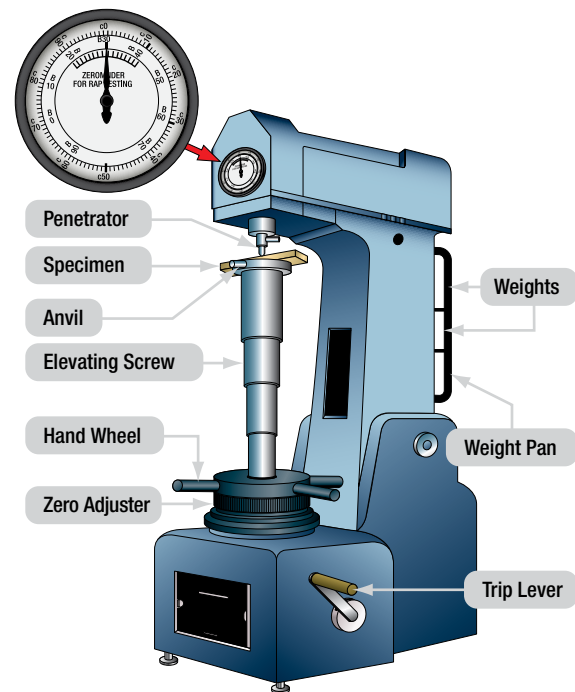


Figure 1-7. Rockwell hardness tester.

| Scale Symbol | Penetrator | Major Load (kg) | Dial Color/Number |
|--------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| A | Diamond | 60 | Black |
| B | 1/16-inch ball | 100 | Red |
| C | Diamond | 150 | Black |
| D | Diamond | 100 | Black |
| E | 1/8-inch ball | 100 | Red |
| F | 1/16-inch ball | 60 | Red |
| G | 1/16-inch ball | 150 | Red |
| H | 1/8-inch ball | 60 | Red |
| K | 1/8-inch ball | 150 | Red |

Figure 1-8 Standard Rockwell hardness scales.

the B-scale test, use the red weight and read the red numbers. For a C-scale test, add the black weight to the red weight and read the black numbers.

In setting up the Rockwell machine, use the diamond penetrator for testing materials known to be hard. If the hardness is unknown, try the diamond, since the steel ball may be deformed if used for testing hard materials. If the metal tests below C-22, then change to the steel ball. Use the steel ball for all soft materials, those testing less than B-100. Should an overlap occur at the top of the B-scale and the bottom of the C scale, use the C scale setup.

Before the major load is applied, securely lock the test specimen in place to prevent slipping and to seat the anvil and penetrator properly. To do this, apply a load of 10 kilograms before the lever is tripped. This preliminary load is called the minor load. The minor load is 10 kilograms regardless of the scale setup.

The metal to be tested in the Rockwell tester must be ground smooth on two opposite sides and be free of scratches and foreign matter. The surface should be perpendicular to the axis of penetration, and the two opposite ground surfaces should be parallel. If the specimen is tapered, the amount of error will depend on the taper. A curved surface will also cause a slight error in the hardness test. The amount of error depends on the curvature; i.e., the smaller the radius of curvature, the greater the error. To eliminate such error, a small flat should be ground on the curved surface if possible.

Clad aluminum alloy sheets cannot be tested directly with any accuracy with a Rockwell hardness tester. If the hardness value of the base metal is desired, the pure aluminum coating must be removed from the area to be checked prior to testing.

OTHER TESTING

Materials strength testing is largely done by manufacturer's and design engineers long before the field technician ever encounters the aircraft for maintenance. It is vitally important that all materials, not just metals, have the strength required for the application in which they are used. The tensile strength of a material is what is commonly thought of as the strength of a material. It is a measurement of tension, which is the stress that resists a force that tends to pull a material apart. To perform a test of tensile strength, the material is secured in a specially designed electromagnetically or hydraulically powered machine that exerts force on the material to pull it apart. While the force is applied and increased, dimensional measurements are made and recorded. Most materials will elongate before the force becomes so great that there is critical failure. Many materials also have an elastic range where a relatively small amount of force elongates the material, and, when released, the material returns to its original dimensions.

A tensile strength test could be performed by clamping a sample of the material securely and then hanging weight from it until it fails. From this, one can understand that tensile strength is a weight related measurement. But the area of the sample is an important factor that contributes to when a sample will fail. Thus, to be able to compare tensile strengths of various materials, weight per unit

area is used. In the Imperial system, this is denominated in of pounds per square inch (psi). In SI, measurement is typically in Pascals (Pa), hectoPascals (hPa) or kiloPascals (kPa) depending on the relative strength of the material being tested.

Many materials are tested along a single axis since they are isotropic. This means tensile strength is uniform in all directions. Aviation metals are in this category. Aircraft fabrics and composites are anisotropic, meaning that tensile strength varies depending upon which direction the force is applied. Standards exist for size, and shape of the sample material to be tested and the attachment methods into the testing machine are also carefully regulated. Alignment is important as well, especially in anisotropic. Test results can be graphed and numerous characteristics of the material can be examined or derived. **Figure 1-9** illustrates a tensile testing machine.

FATIGUE STRENGTH TESTING

Fatigue is a weakness in materials, especially metals, caused by repeated variations of stress. Fatigue is of great concern in aviation due to the constantly changing loads experience by nearly all parts of the structure during operation. Older aircraft are particularly suspect of weakness due to fatigue. The critical issue with fatigue is that numerous, repeated applications of over and over a relatively small load can result in failure. A single small load of the size under considerations size would have virtually no effect on the material. But application and release of the small load gradually weakens it. An example of fatigue failure is bending a piece of metal back and force until is weakened and breaks.

Aircraft and materials manufacturer's cannot rely solely on tradition strength measurements such as tensile strength or shear strength. Simple and elaborate repeated load and unload machines are constructed to observe fatigue in various structural aircraft components. There are also commercially available machines designed to test the fatigue strength of a variety of components. Stresses beyond those projected during service life are produced. The effects are measured so the component can be designed to perform without failure when installed on the aircraft.

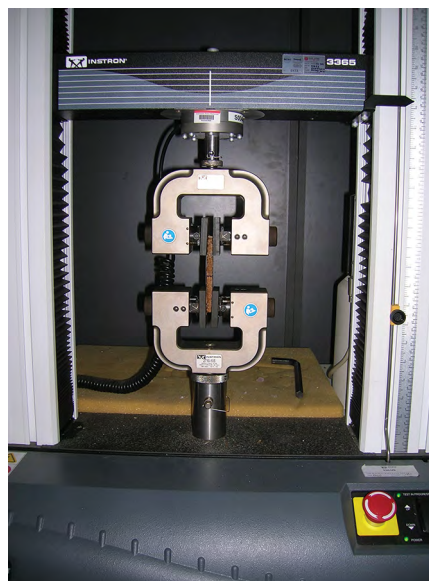


Figure 1-9. A tensile testing machine.

Metal fatigue can cause micro cracks and other fatigue damage precursors that are sought during periodic inspection. Visual, eddy current, ultra sound, fluorescent penetrant, magnetic particle, and even radiography inspection techniques are all employed in various situations to detect metal fatigue. The progression from a micro crack to cracks that join to cause a large section of metal to fail can be rapid. It is critical, especially on aircraft with a high number of operating cycles, to follow all manufacturer's specifications for investigating fatigue. New studies and methods of detection are being developed such as electrochemical and light scattering inspection processes. Some country authorities have placed limits on the number of cycles an aircraft may accrue before it must be frequently inspected or retired from service.

IMPACT TESTING

Impact tests are used to indicate the toughness of a material and most importantly its ability to resist mechanical shock, to ensure that temper brittleness has not been introduced during heat treatments. Toughness is, broadly, a measure of the amount of energy required to cause an item - a test piece or a bridge or a pressure vessel - to fracture and fail. The more energy that is required then the tougher the material.

There are two types of machine used for testing aircraft materials, both of which use a pendulum weight to fracture the specimen. The energy absorbed by the specimen is measured from the angle through which the pendulum swings after causing the fracture. The IZOD test is required by most of the British material specifications, but where the test piece must be tested at high or low temperatures the CHARPY test is used. The test is carried out within the 6 seconds of removal of the test piece from the heating or cooling bath. Machines are available which carry out both the Izod and Charpy tests. [Figure 1-10]

ELECTROCHEMICAL TESTING OF STAINLESS VERSUS INCONEL

Prepare a wiring assembly as shown in Figure 1-11, and prepare the two reagents (ammonium fluoride and dimethylglyoxime solutions) placing them in separate dedicated dropper solution bottles. Before testing, you must thoroughly clean the metal in order for the electrolytic deposit to take place. You may use nonmetallic hand scrubbing pads or 320 to 600 grit "crocus cloth" to remove deposits and corrosion products (thermal oxide).

Connect the alligator clip of the wiring assembly to the bare metal being tested. Place one drop of a 0.05 percent reagent grade ammonium fluoride solution in deionized water on the center of a 1 inch x 1 inch sheet of filter paper. Lay the moistened filter paper over the bare metal alloy being tested. Firmly press the end of the aluminum rod over the center of the moist paper. Maintain connection for 10 seconds while rocking the aluminum rod on the filter paper. Ensure that the Light Emitting Diode (LED) remains lit (indicating good electrical contact and current flow) during this period.

Disconnect the wiring assembly and set it aside. Remove the filter paper and examine it to determine that a light spot appears where the connection was made.

Deposit one drop of 1.0 percent solution of reagent grade dimethylglyoxime in ethyl alcohol on the filter paper (same side that was in contact with the test metal). A bright, distinctly pink spot will appear within seconds on the filter paper if the metal being tested is Inconel. A brown spot will appear if the test metal is stainless steel. Some stainless steel alloys may leave a very light pink color. However, the shade and depth of color will be far less than would appear for Inconel. For flat surfaces, the test spot will be circular while for curved surfaces, such as the outside of a tube or pipe, the test spot may appear as a streak. (Refer to Figure 1-12 for sample test results.) This procedure should not be used in the heat affected zone of weldments or on nickel coated surfaces.



Figure 1-10. An IZOD impact test machine.

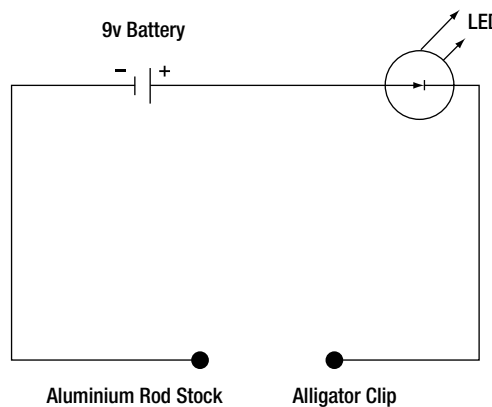


Figure 1-11. Wiring assembly schematic.

SECTION C

REPAIR AND INSPECTION PROCEDURES FOR FERROUS MATERIAL STRUCTURES AND AIRFRAMES

DEFECTS

A defect is any condition which reduces the serviceability of the part. There are nearly countless defects that could occur on an aircraft. However, manufacturers typically specify the areas needed to be inspected and the type of defect expected to be found. However, this does not relieve the technician of the responsibility to look for any sign of abnormality. The following types of defects can occur on ferrous components and structures.

- Overheating
- Distortion, dents, scores, and chafing
- Pulled or missing fasteners, rivets, bolts or screws
- Evidence of cracks or wear
- Failures of welds
- Deterioration of protective treatment
- Corrosion

INSPECTION PROCEDURES

VISUAL INSPECTION

As a first step in identifying any defect, the component or structure should be thoroughly cleaned.

Visual inspection can be enhanced by looking at the suspect area with a bright light, a magnifying glass, and a mirror (when required). Some defects might be so obvious that further inspection methods are not required.

SURFACE CRACKS

When searching for surface cracks with a flashlight, direct the light beam at a 5 to 45 degree angle to the inspection surface towards the face. [Figure 1-13] Do not direct the light beam at such an angle that the reflected light beam shines directly into the eyes. Determine the extent of any cracks found by directing the light beam at right angles to the crack and tracing its length. Use a 10 power magnifying glass to confirm the existence of a suspected crack. If this is not adequate, use other NDI techniques, such as penetrant, magnetic particle, ultrasonics or eddy current inspection to verify cracks.

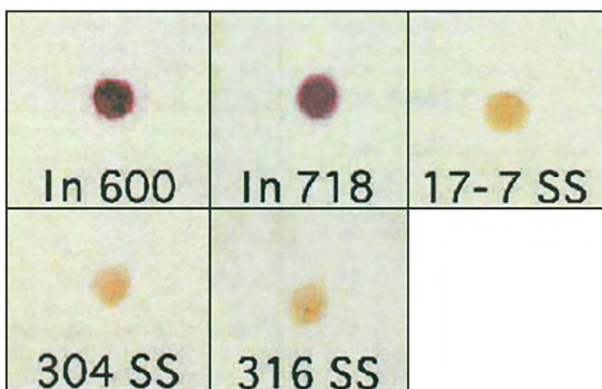


Figure 1-12. Electrochemical test results, Inconel and stainless steel alloys.

BORESCOPIES

A borescope is a device that enables the inspector to see inside areas that could not otherwise be inspected without disassembly. An example of an area that can be inspected with a borescope would be the hot section of a turbine engine to which access could be gained through the hole of a removed igniter or removed access plugs specifically installed for inspection purposes.

Many borescopes provide images that can be displayed on a computer or video monitor for better interpretation of what is being viewed and to record images for future reference. Most borescopes also include a light to illuminate the area being viewed.

NON-DESTRUCTIVE INSPECTION (NDI)

The lack of visible defects does not necessarily mean further inspection is unnecessary. Some defects may lie beneath the surface or may be so small that the human eye, even with the assistance of a magnifying glass, cannot detect them.

The objective of non-destructive inspection is to determine the airworthiness of a component without damaging it. Some of these methods are simple, requiring little additional expertise, while others are highly sophisticated and require that the technician be highly trained and specially certified.

Before conducting NDI, it is necessary to follow preparatory steps in accordance with procedures specific to that type of inspection. Generally, the parts or areas must be thoroughly cleaned. Some parts must be removed from the aircraft or engine. Others might need to have any paint or protective coating stripped. A complete knowledge of the equipment and procedures is essential, and if required, calibration and inspection of the equipment must be current. The following NDI procedures are useful for ferrous materials:

Common non-destructive inspection techniques relevant to ferrous materials include:

- Visual inspection
- Penetrant inspections
- Eddy current inspections
- Ultrasonic inspections
- Magnetic particle inspection

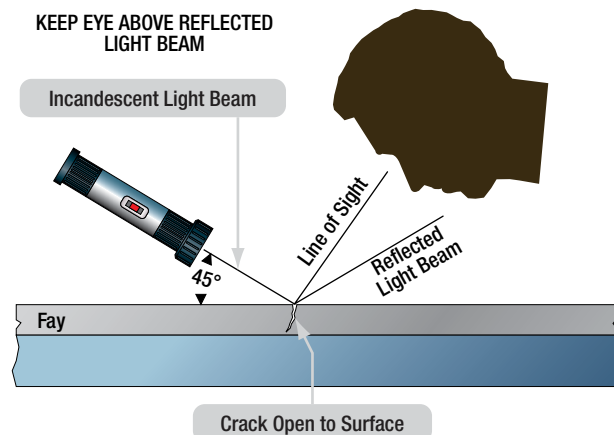


Figure 1-13. Using a flashlight to inspect for cracks.

Each of these techniques and the related equipment are covered in depth in *Module 7 Submodule 18 of the Aviation Maintenance Technician Certification series*.

CORROSION CONTROL

Corrosion is a problem that requires continuous preventive maintenance. Inspection for and removal of corrosion, including rust (ferrous oxide), the most common form of corrosion of ferrous material, is a critical step during any inspection and repair procedure. Corrosion, assessment, removal and control is covered in *Submodule 4* of this module and in *Submodule 18 of Module 7 of the Aviation Maintenance Technician Certification Series*.

GENERAL REPAIR METHODS

Aircraft structural members are designed to perform a specific function or to serve a definite purpose. The primary objective of aircraft repair is to restore damaged parts to their original condition. Very often, replacement is the only way this can be done effectively. When repair of a damaged part is possible, first study the part carefully to fully understand its purpose or function.

Strength may be the principal requirement in the repair of certain structures, while others may need entirely different qualities. For example, fuel tanks and floats must be protected against leakage; cowlings, fairings, and similar parts must have such properties as neat appearance, streamlined shape, and accessibility. The function of any damaged part must be carefully determined to ensure the repair meets the requirements.

Specific repair methods for all components, including ferrous structures are too numerous to be covered in this module. Aircraft Structural Repair Manuals (SRMs) can be many hundreds of pages long, encompassing nearly every conceivable repair to any aspect of the airframe the manufacturer deems appropriate. For older and non production aircraft where SRMs are not available, generalized documents exist such as the FAA Advisory Circular 43.13 1B/2B; Acceptable Methods of Aircraft Inspection and Repair which details the acceptable standards which must be followed for continuing airworthiness. When available, always consult the manufacturer's maintenance manual and the structural repair manual before beginning a repair on the aircraft and follow the instructions for the correct repair method.