

GAMMA RADIATION SHIELDING POTENCY OF B_2O_3 - TeO_2 - BaO - Dy_2O_3 GLASS-CERAMIC

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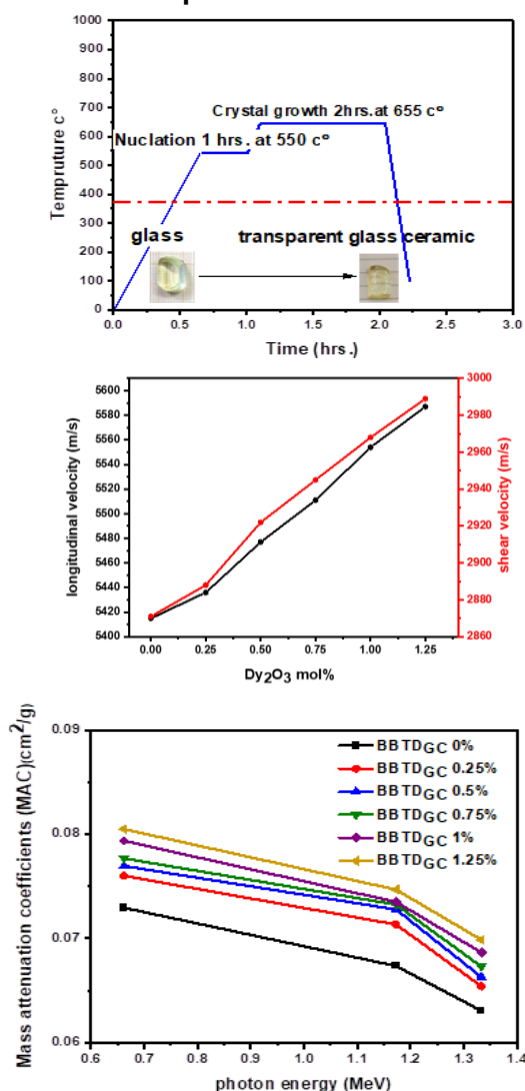
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Graphical abstract



Abstract

Ionizing radiation Teletherapy Ionizing radiation is used in medical imaging, radiation therapy and research, which requires high-performance shielding materials to be safe. Ionizing radiations are very dangerous to the health and this is dependent on the amount of dose and the duration of exposure. Considering this, it is important to develop shielding materials. In this work, a novel family of glass systems was synthesized $(50-x)B_2O_3-25TeO_2-25BaO-xDy_2O_3$ with 0 mol % x 1.25 mol %. Partially crystallized glass ceramic (GC) samples were obtained by undergoing a stepwise heating processing: annealing at 570 °C and heating at 620/655 °C for 2 hours forming glasses. XRD structural analysis proved crystallinity as well as multi-phased. High Dy_2O_3 content also increased the G C density to 4.994 g / cm^3 and reduced molar volume to 24.8376 cm^3 / mol as well as led to a rise in elastic properties such as longitudinal velocity, shear velocity, longitudinal elastic modulus and shear elastic modulus as a reflection of the increased density and bond strength. The shielding effectiveness of gamma rays against sources of ^{137}Cs and ^{60}Co at 0.662, 1.173, and 1.333 MeV were tested by a NaI(Tl) detector. As concentration of Dy_2O_3 increased, the mass attenuation coefficient (MAC) increased in this order BBTDGC1.25 > BBTDGC1 > BBTDGC0.75 > BBTDGC0. The BBTDGC1.25 sample had the best MAC and worst half-value layer (HVL) tenth-value layer (TVL) and mean free path (MFP), which are better against gamma-ray shield. Therefore BBTDGC1.25 glass ceramic has a good prospect as a good gamma radiation shielding agent in comparison to the other samples provided.

Keywords: Glass-ceramic, MAC, HVL, TVL, MFP, Shielding

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Through the controlled crystallization of glass, composite materials known as glass-ceramics are formed, showing characteristic fine grains and homogeneous structures. This structure is composed of small crystals that have an irregular and distorted shape, wherein these tiny grains are often grouped together in spheroids, with residual glass inter-layers that bind the GC concretion [1]. The expected outcome of these materials is that they will possess good mechanical, electrical, and thermal properties, along with a high level of chemical durability and an extremely low coefficient of thermal expansion when compared to glass [2, 3]. The crack growth in these materials is further impeded by the inter-wined crystals that are present. Consequently, the studies focusing on crystallization and its relationship with the physical properties [4]. The GC materials have gained significant interest in various industrial and engineering applications due to their advantageous properties [5]. Tellurite with boron oxide glass systems doped with (rare earth elements) have unique optical and electronic properties [6]. Rare-earth (RE) ions are interesting elements due to their unique properties, particularly in the field of optical and photonic devices [6]. Glasses doped with dysprosium oxide (Dy_2O_3) can exhibit enhanced optical and magnetic properties, making them suitable for various applications [7, 8]. Tellurite glasses are considered excellent hosts for the RE ions due to their low phonon energy of approximately 700 cm^{-1} . This characteristic allows for the effective inhibition of non-radiative processes, leading to improved quantum efficiencies [9, 10]. During the process of crystallization, nucleating agents such as RE ions have the ability to either facilitate the separation of different phases or contribute to the accumulation of specific micro- or nano-phase within the phase separated glasses [11].

The conventional method of heat treatment is utilized to create a crystalline environment in glasses that involves the nucleation steps and subsequent growth of crystals. This created a possibility to produce GC materials with nanocrystals of sizes below 100 nm . These materials have unique characteristics (like enhanced thermal stability, electro-optic effects, and elastic modulus) different from the original glass [5]. These properties make them suitable for engineering a wide range of technical and household appliances [12]. Ionizing radiation is an essential technology that plays a crucial role in medicine, energy, safety, diagnostics, and resource exploration. However, it is absolutely necessary to handle radiation sources safely, as there is no completely risk-free level of exposure to radiation [13]. In the field of medicine, radiation is heavily utilized for tasks such as X-ray imaging and radiation therapy, which are employed to shrink or eradicate tumors. Radioisotopes are also employed in the agricultural industry to induce mutations in crops [14]. Researchers have discovered that rare earth elements can be effectively used as doping materials in glass, resulting in numerous benefits derived from their exceptional

properties. Siripuram and co-workers [12] made some tellurite glass and glass-ceramic systems, containing Nb_2O_5 and Comparative studies of the structural, optical and thermal properties of glass and glass-ceramic systems have been systematically performed. The physical properties reveal that the formation of a glass network is associated with a less dense and less compact structure due to the degradation of structural units by the formation of non-bridging oxygen sites in the glass matrix. However, glass-ceramic systems exhibit an increase in average bond energy, increased density, a shift in the system to close packed and more compactness state, and a decrease in the optical edge and refractive index with an increase in the band gap. Imed Boukhris et al; [13] studied the Chalcogenide glass-ceramics containing $x\text{CsCl}-(100-x)(0.5\text{GeS}_2-0.5\text{Sb}_2\text{S}_3)$ show promising radiation shielding properties. The mass attenuation coefficient (μ/ρ), half value layer (HVL), removal cross section (RCS), exposure buildup factor (EBF), mean free path (MFP), and effective atomic number (Z_{eff}) were analyzed to understand how well the chalcogenide glass-ceramics can shield radiation. The μ/ρ values of Geant4 simulations and theoretical calculations showed a strong agreement. The clear indication of low EBF values, particularly at lower and intermediate photon energies, supports the potential application of the suggested glasses for shielding purposes in medical contexts. Over the past ten years, one of the hidden objectives of numerous research groups has been the pursuit of materials with dual functionalities [15]. Nevertheless, there are ways to develop materials that can lessen radiation across various energy levels, and the choice of materials with suitable high densities plays a crucial role in this [16]. Both glasses and glass ceramics have the ability to function as transparent materials while also blocking radiation [17, 18]. Glasses and glass ceramics have gained significant attention in this industry due to their many advantages, such as easy manufacturing, cleanliness, clarity, light transparency, and portability [1]. Glasses are often made by combining two or more components. The composition of the glass and glass ceramic is determined based on the intended application. The presence of crystalline phases and grain structure in glass ceramics gives them the ability to exhibit a range of transparency, from clear to opaque. Glass ceramics can range from highly crystalline to containing a substantial amount of glass [19]. Glass formers and modifiers can thus be used to change the features of glasses associated with physical and structural needs [20]. High-density glass formers play a vital role in the structure of glass, making them indispensable for creating a shield that is highly effective. Glass can be made by using different glass formers such as B_2O_3 , TeO_2 , SiO_2 , P_2O_5 , and GeO_2 [21, 22]. Adding metal oxides and rare earth in specific ratios to the glass matrix can improve its physical properties, including radiation shielding [23]. The primary focus of this work is to synthesize TeO_2 -based barium-borate glasses and GC with Dy_2O_3 doping at various contents. Glass samples were converted into GC using the traditional heat treatment process, leading to 2 step

mechanisms such as nucleation and crystal growth. The effects of various Dy_2O_3 doping contents on the hardness, density, structures, and gamma radiation shielding traits of the obtained GC were studied, displaying their excellent promise towards the attenuation of gamma rays.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

The new glass system composed of $(50-x) \text{B}_2\text{O}_3\text{-}25\text{TeO}_2\text{-}25\text{BaO-xDy}_2\text{O}_3$ with $x = 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1$ and 1.25 mol\% was prepared by the melt-quenching approach. Once the chemical powders were measured, combined, and stirred, the mixture was transferred into a platinum crucible. This crucible, along with its contents, was then placed inside an electric furnace set at a temperature of 950°C for the duration of 30 minutes to ensure complete melting. A separate furnace was used to conduct the annealing process, which lasted for three hours at a temperature of 350°C preparation of glass sample show in Figure 1. The DTA analysis of the samples was conducted from room temperature up to 900°C , with a heating rate of 10°C/min . The purpose of this analysis was to determine the temperature of glass transition T_g , crystallization onset (T_x), and crystallization (T_c). To produce a glass-ceramic, first the glasses were prepared. Next, these glasses were partially crystallized through a controlled heat treatment at two phases like annealing for 1 h (at 570°C) and heating for 2 h in the range of $620\text{--}655^\circ\text{C}$ preparation glass ceramic sample preparation show in Figure 2. The GC samples made with of Dy_2O_3 contents of 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1, and 1.25 mol% were named as $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}0}$, $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}0.25}$, $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}0.5}$, $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}0.75}$, $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}1.0}$, and $\text{BBTD}_{\text{GC}1.25}$. The obtained GC samples were characterized at room temperature by various measurement tools including XRD, FESEM, DTA, etc.

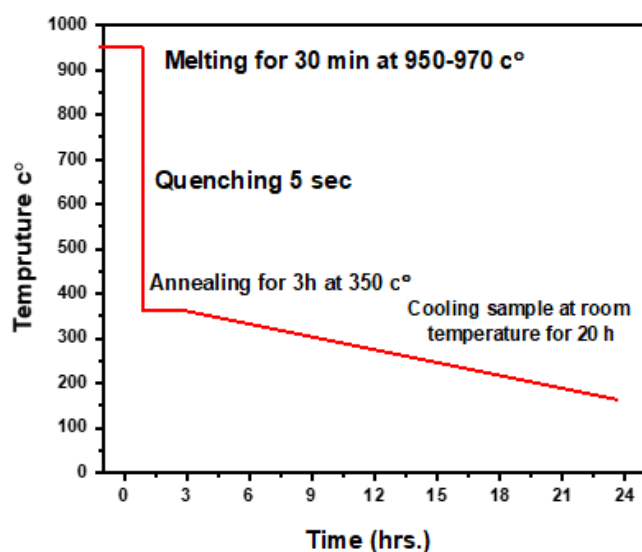


Figure 1 The diagram of the glass sample preparation

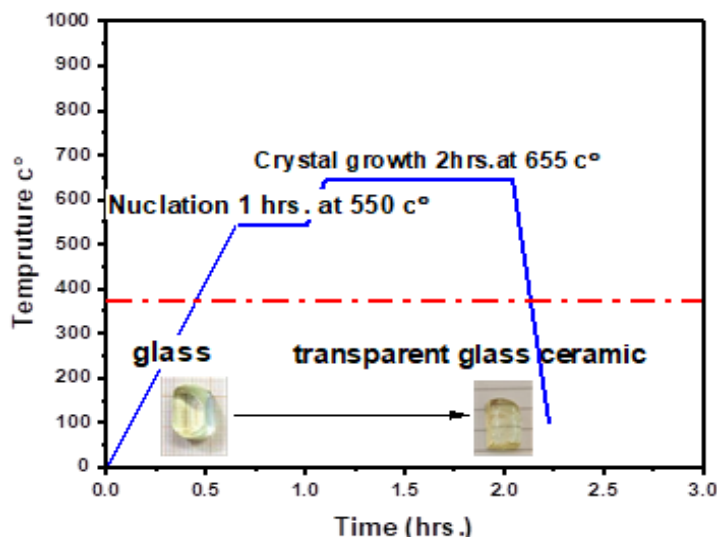


Figure 2 The diagram of the glass ceramic sample preparation

3.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Structure and Morphology Analysis of GC

Figure 3 displays the XRD profiles of the glasses, showing a broad hump centered around 25° , which highlights the asymmetric nature of the crystals present. To induce the crystal formation the glasses were subjected to specific temperature regimes determined from DTA thermograms. For every sample the crystallization required a different temperature and time duration, depending on the temperature parameters obtained from the thermograms. This controlled heat treatment results in the formation of distinct crystalline peaks in the XRD profiles. The sharp peak signifies the presence of well-defined crystal planes, while the wider hump indicates the presence of amorphous regions or less ordered structures within the glass ceramic samples.

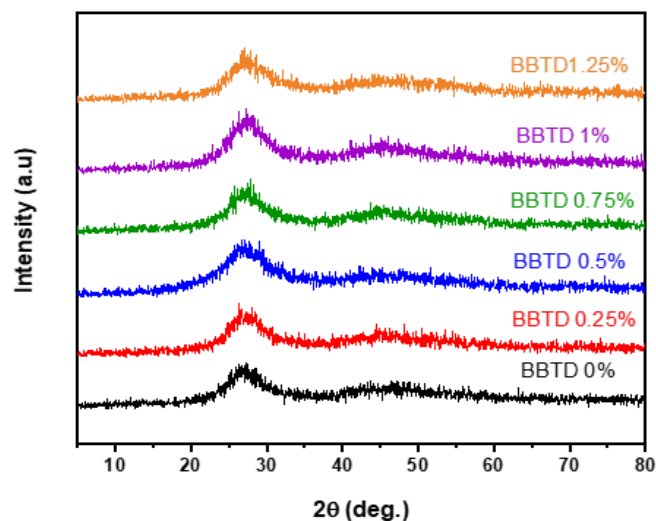


Figure 3 XRD profiles of the glasses

The XRD peaks in Figure 4 shows the nano crystallinity in the obtained GC that superimposed on the diffuse background of the host glass. The XRD patterns of the GC annealed at 520 °C for 1 h and then at 600 °C for 2 h clearly showed the nucleation and growth process. The intense crystalline peaks shown by BBTD_{GC}0 sample was identified as orthorhombic B₂Ba₃O₆(112), cubic TeO₂O₅ (003), Cubic TeO₂ (011), Cubic B₂O₃ (101) and Tetragonal BaO₂(101), which were matched with the corresponding JCPDS card number of [96-154-8109], [96-145-0090], [96-154-8797], [96-151-0797] and [96-901-3414]. The mean size of grain in this sample was 17 nm.

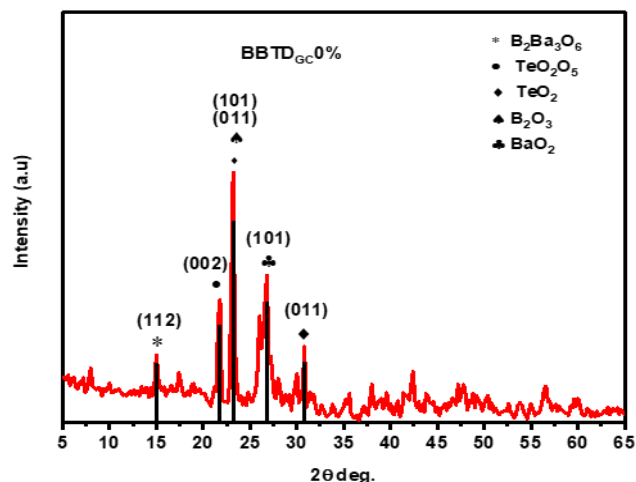


Figure 4 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 0% sample annealed at 520-600 °C for 3hrs

Figure 5 showed three different crystal structures such cubic TeO₂ (011), Cubic B₂O₃ (101) and triclinic Ba₃Te₄O₁₁ (021) that tallied with the corresponding JCPDS card number of [96-145-0090], [96-154-8797], and [96-202-0150].

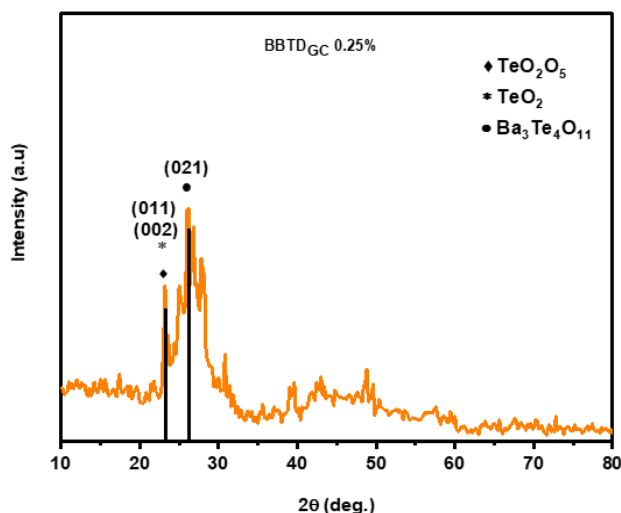


Figure 5 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 0.25% sample annealed at 550-612 °C for 3hrs

BBTD_{GC}0.5 and BBTD_{GC}0.75 sample annealed at 550 °C for 1 h and then 633 °C for 2 h as shown in Figures 6&7 respectively displayed 5 distinct crystalline structures like cubic TeO₂O₅(003), cubic TeO₂(011), trigonal TeO₃(110), triclinic Ba₃Te₄O₁₁(021), and hexagonal BDy₂O₃(440) that corresponded to the JCPDS card number of [96-210-7045], [96-154-8797], [96-153-5877], [96-202-0150], and [96-151-1090] having grain size range of 12.6-13.6.

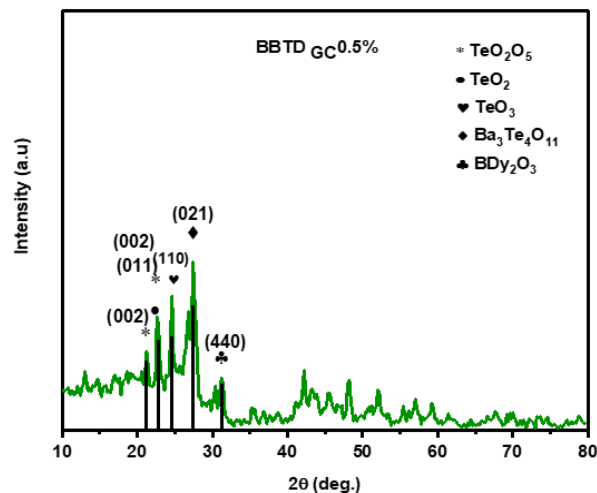


Figure 6 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 0.5% sample annealed at 550-633 °C for 3hrs

Figure 7 showed four different distinct crystalline structures with crystalline size of 42 nm. Crystal phase including cubic TeO₂ (011), trigonal TeO₃ (110), triclinic Ba₃Te₄O₁₁ (021), hexagonal BDy₂O₃ (440) and triclinic Dy₂O₂Te (013) corresponding to the JCPDS card number of [96-210-7045], [96-154-8797], [96-202-0150], and [96-151-1090].

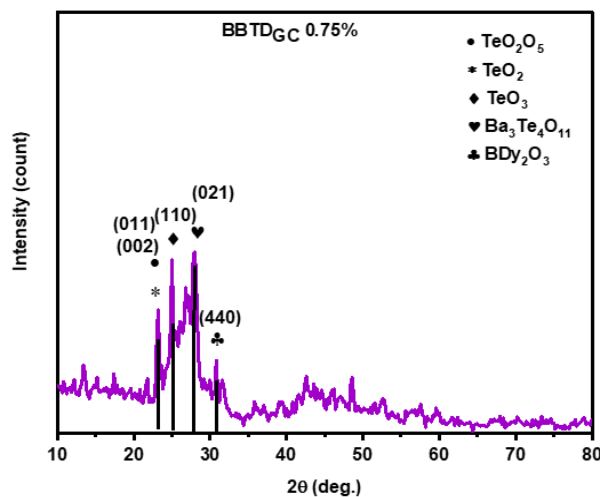


Figure 7 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 0.5% sample annealed at 550-633 °C for 3hrs

Figure 8 showed four different distinct crystalline structures with crystalline size of 48 nm exhibited crystal phase TeO_2 (011), trigonal TeO_3 (110), $\text{Ba}_3\text{Te}_4\text{O}_{11}$ (021), hexagonal BDy_2O_3 (440) and triclinic $\text{Dy}_2\text{O}_2\text{Te}$ (013) corresponding to the JCPDS card number of [96-154-8797], [96-153-5877], [96-202-0150], [96-151-1090], and [96-210-7045]. The grain size was calculated by Debye-Scherrer formula [24]:

$$T = \frac{K\lambda}{A \cos(\theta)} \quad (1)$$

Where λ is the wavelength of the x-ray, and β is width (in radians) of the peak at 2θ . The samples were also stack the data in the Figure 10.

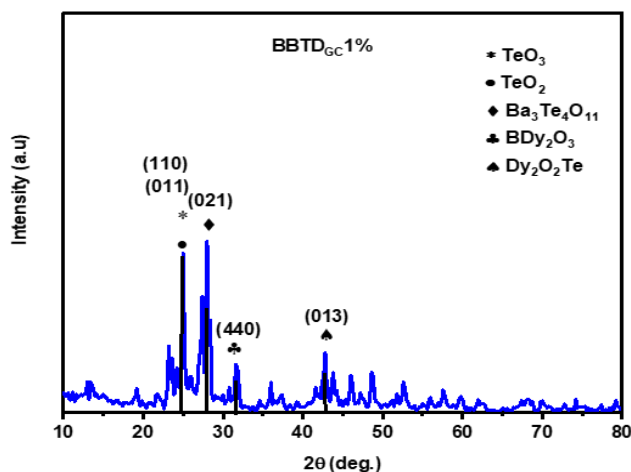


Figure 8 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 1% sample annealed at 550-646 °C for 3hrs

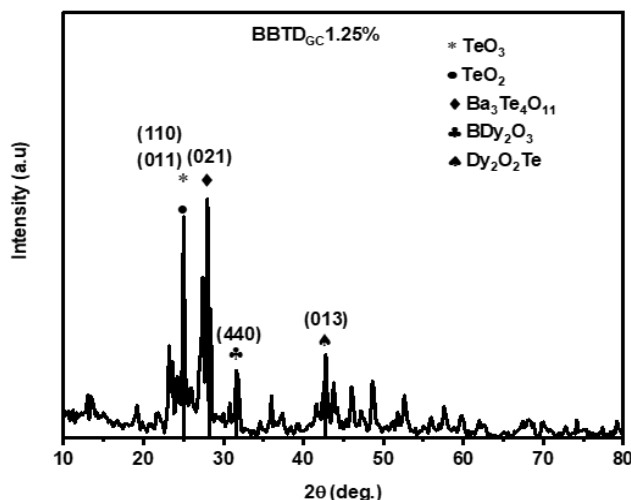


Figure 9 XRD patterns of BBTD_{GC} 1.25% sample annealed at 550-646 °C for 3hrs

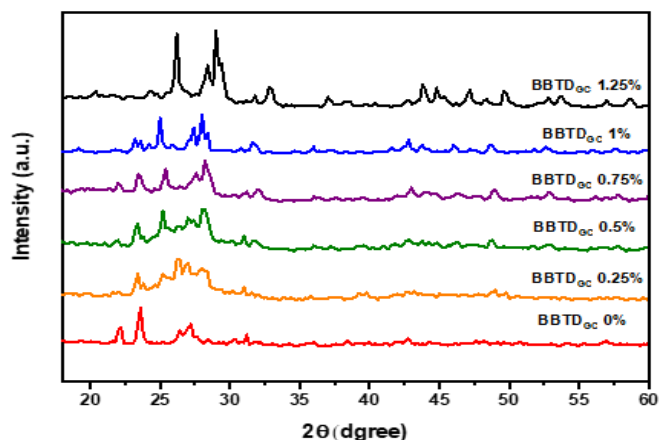
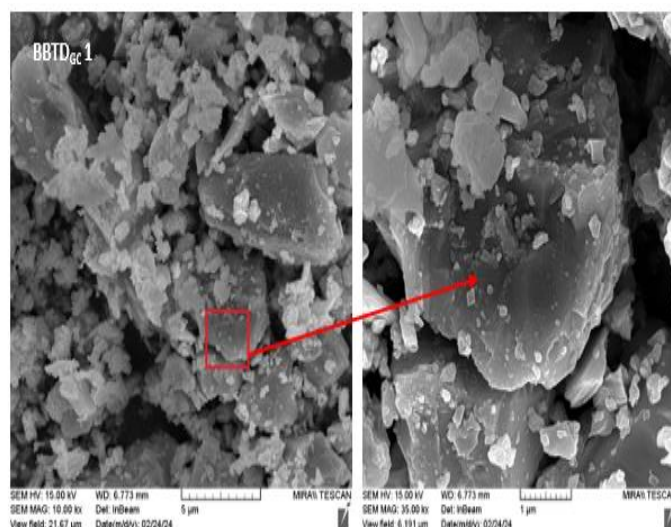
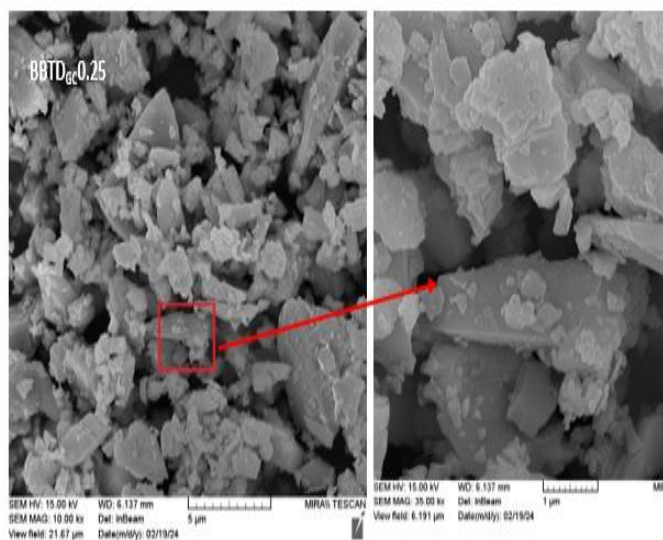
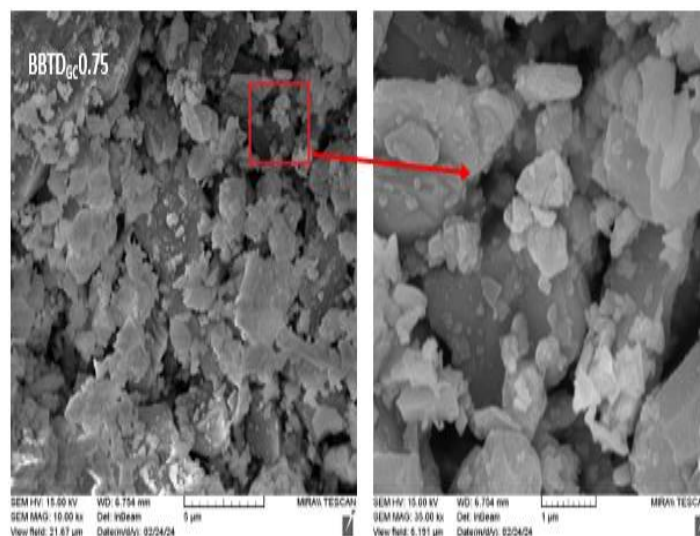
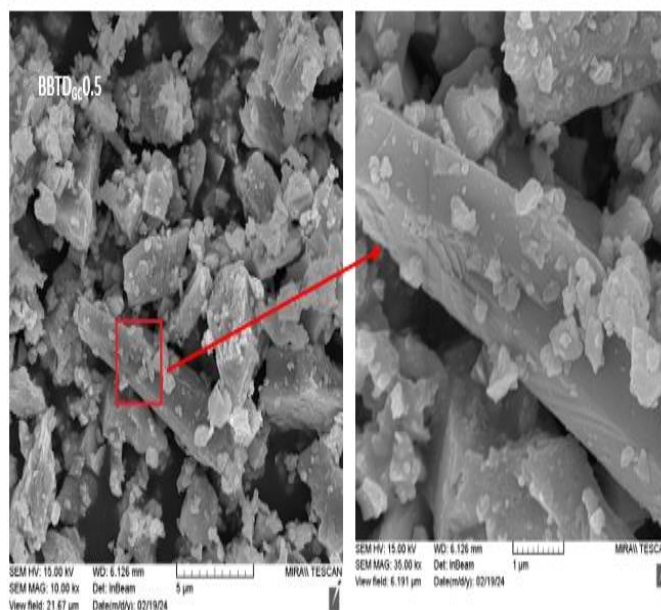
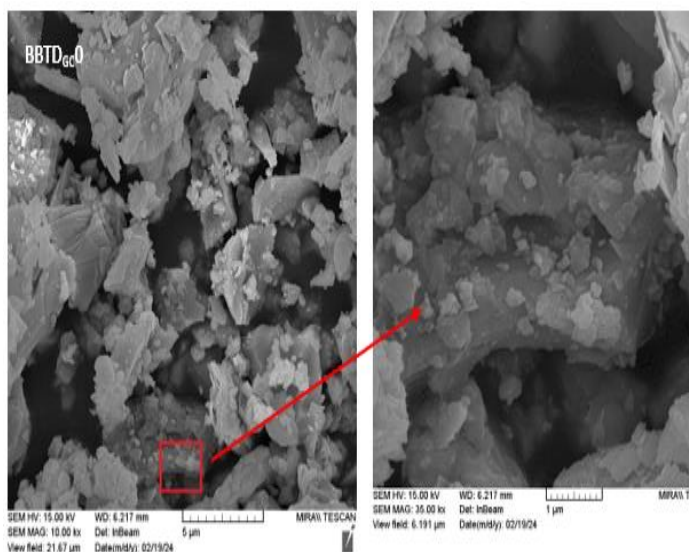


Figure 10 XRD patterns of all BBTD_{GC} sample annealed with different temperature

By using field emission scanning electron the microstructure of samples was studied for cross-section images of the studied nano-powder samples: BBTD_{GC} 0, BBTD_{GC} 0.25, BBTD_{GC} 0.5, BBTD_{GC} 0.75, BBTD_{GC} 1 and BBTD_{GC} 1.25 showed in Figure 4.11. Instead of chemical treatment, the surface of the samples was coated with a thin layer of gold film. The powder samples BBTD_{GC} 0 and BBTD_{GC} 0.25 exhibited grains with sharp edges that were visibly accumulated, unlike the other samples. The edges of these grains were well-defined and angular, indicating a higher degree of aggregation. This aggregation could be attributed to the presence of low concentration of Dy_2O_3 additives or processing conditions during the production of BBTD_{GC} 0 and BBTD_{GC} 0.25. The addition of Dy_2O_3 to the pure powder of sample resulted in a significant change in the surface morphology. The presence of Dy_2O_3 seems to have influenced the formation of smaller, nearly spherical grains. These grains appear to contain accumulated nanoparticles, which can be observed on the surface. Interestingly, some nano-rods are still observed within these smaller grains, suggesting a complex interaction between the Dy_2O_3 and the nanoparticles. This finding highlights the potential role of Dy_2O_3 as a modifier in controlling the morphology and structure of doped samples.

Two magnifications (5 and 1 μm) were used to get the samples FESEM images Figure 11. Instead of chemical treatment, A thin layer of gold film was applied to the surface of the samples. The BBTD_{GC} 0% & BBTD_{GC} 0.25% GC exhibited grains with sharp edges that were visibly accumulated, unlike the other samples. The morphology of the particles displayed differences in form. The edges of these grains were well-defined and angular, indicating a higher degree of aggregation. This aggregation could be attributed to the presence of low concentration of Dy_2O_3 additives or processing conditions during the production of BBTD_{GC} 0 & BBTD_{GC} 0.25 samples. The surface texture of the sample underwent a significant transformation when Dy_2O_3 was incorporated into the pure powder. It appeared that the introduction of Dy_2O_3 and the utilization of higher heat treatment had an influence on the formation of

grains, resulting in their smaller size and more spherical morphology. The grains that were examined seemed to contain nanoparticles that had clumped together, and these aggregates were visible on the surface. By highlighting the potential role of Dy_2O_3 , this finding emphasizes its ability to act as a modifier and exert control over the morphology and structure of the doped samples. The formation of nanoparticles with various shapes within the random glass matrix is heavily influenced by heat treatment and temperature control. This, in turn, results in the production of denser and more interconnected samples, ultimately enhancing their mechanical properties and ability to attenuate high gamma rays. The analysis revealed that the majority of particles in the sample had sizes ranging from 40 to 70 nm.



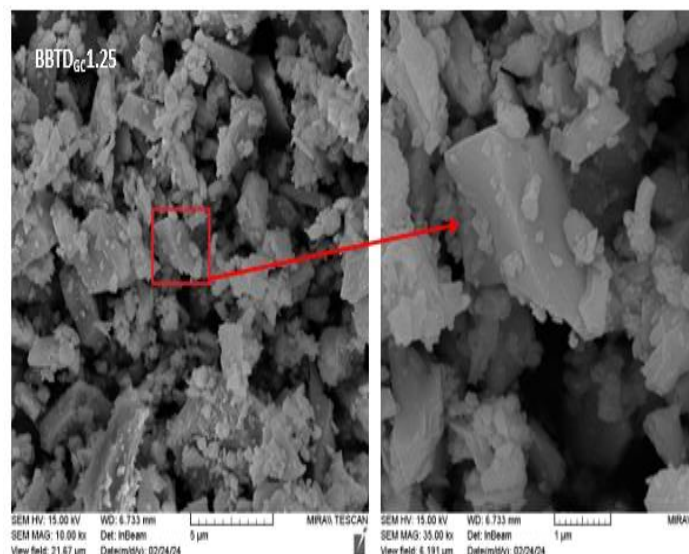


Figure 11 FESEM images of the made GC at different magnification

3.2 Physical Characteristics of GC

Figure 12 displays the obtained densities, molar volumes, and oxygen packing densities (OPD) of the GC, wherein the densities were increased from 4.66 - 4.795 gm/cm³ as Dy₂O₃ concentration was increased. The increase of density was mainly due to the high packing of structural units when replacing B₂O₃ by Dy₂O₃. The density of the GC is significantly higher than that of the glass system due to its increased compactness [25]. The density was determined using the following equation:

$$\rho = \frac{W_a}{W_a - W_l} \times \rho_{\text{fluid}} \quad (2)$$

Where W_a the weight of the sample in air, W_l the weight of the sample in toluene.

The addition of Dy₂O₃ caused a decrease in the molar volume of GC from 25.777 - 24.837 cm³/mol. Variations in the distance between atoms resulted in alterations in the volume of one mole of substance due to modifications in its structure when the glass transformed into GC, the increased cross-linkages of the network results in higher OPD values for the GC compared to the glass. This suggested that the increased cross-linkages might have contributed to the higher OPD values observed in glass-ceramic systems [26]. The samples OPD was determined using [27]:

$$OPD = \frac{1000 \times N}{V_m} \quad (3)$$

Where, N is the number of oxygen atoms per formula unit, V_m molar volume.

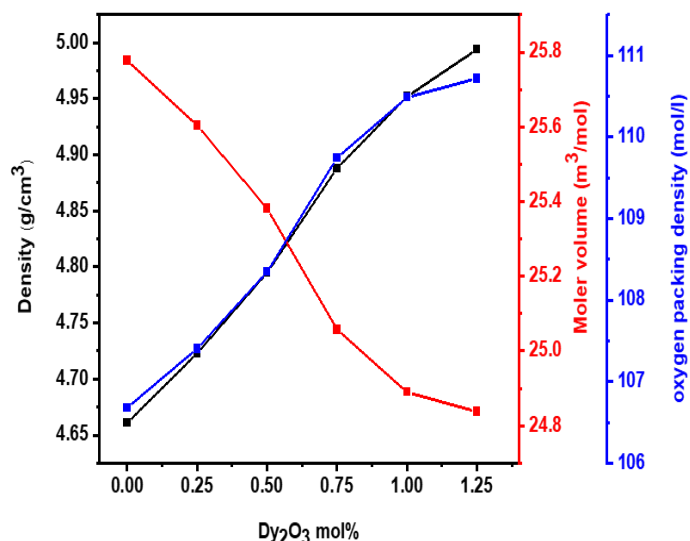


Figure 12 Density, molar volume, and OPD of GC with varying Dy₂O₃ concentrations

3.3 Thermal Properties of GC

The thermal properties of the samples were analyzed using a DTA instrument, specifically the Pyries Diamond TG.DTA from Japan, with a heating rate of 10°C/min. A broad endothermic peak was observed in the obtained DTA curves Figure 13, which can be attributed to glass transition T_g . Subsequent to this transition, there occurred an additional endothermic event, which was found to be related to , crystallization temperature T_c . Lastly, the other endothermic event was observed, corresponding to melting temperature T_m via the equation thermal stability $S = (T_c - T_g)$.

The calculated Hruby parameters of the GC are shown in Table 1. The increase in the amount of host rare earth (RE) in the glassy network enabled to strengthen the stretching force constant of bonds. This results in a decrease in inter-atomic spacing, causing the macromolecular structure to become more closely packed. As the molecules become tightly packed, more energy is required to overcome the intermolecular forces and attain the necessary mobility for the glass transition. This increased energy requirement leads to a higher T_g . In other words, as the amount of host rare earth increases, the glassy network becomes more rigid and requires more energy to convert from a solid to a glassy state. Thus, the change of T_g was due to the change of molar volume and inter-atomic distances that are affected by the stretching force constant and OPD in the glass matrix [28]. The primary reason for the increase in the T_g with the presence of RE ions is the enhanced connectivity of the network. This is attributed to the fact that the bond strength between the host and oxygen is higher compared to that of tellurium and oxygen bonds. Consequently, the T_g of the samples is elevated. The weak covalent bonds of Te-O-Te bridges are substituted with strong O-RE ionic bonds. The presence of a strong electrostatic field from the ionic

bonds contributes to the increase in both T_g and T_m value of the GC [29].

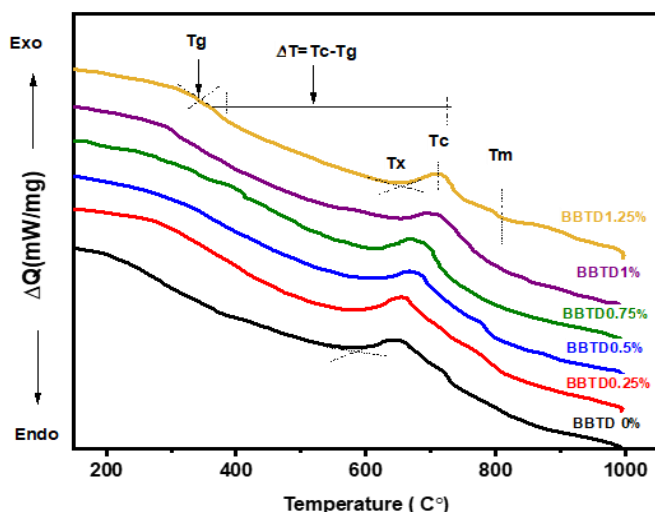


Figure 13 DTA results of the GC

With increasing Dy_2O_3 contents, there is also an increase in the value of T_c [30]. The values of S and T_c serve as indicators of the glass's ability to form easily [31]. The observed increases in these parameters suggest that the RE ions could be effective glass modifiers. The glass structure can be effectively strengthened by altering the TeO_4 tpb unit to a TeO_3 tp unit and coordinating it with TeO_{3+1} [32]. The thermal stability (S) as well as the Hruby's parameter H together with the glass-forming tendency, clearly indicate a strong propensity for good glass formation and stability [33] [34].

Hruby's parameter (H) [35]. This parameter serves as a valuable measure for assessing the devitrification tendency of the glass samples.

$$H = \frac{T_c - T_g}{T_m - T_c} \quad (4)$$

The T_g/T_m ratio of the glass transition and melting temperatures factor is a useful tool for evaluating glass stability [36].

Table 1 Glass transition T_g , onset crystallization temperature T_x , crystallization temperature (onset point) T_c , melting temperature T_m , thermal stability temperature S , Hruby's

Sample code	T_g	T_x	T_c	T_m	S	H	T_g/T_m
	$^{\circ}C$	$^{\circ}C$	$^{\circ}C$	$^{\circ}C$	$^{\circ}C$		
BBTD0%	265	598	646	729	381	4.59036	0.41021
BBTD 0.25%	274	616	660	789	386	2.99224	0.41515
BBTD0.5%	292	630	672	792	380	3.16666	0.43452
BBTD0.75%	301	639	674	798	373	3.00806	0.44658
BBTD1%	313	648	704	805	391	3.87128	0.44460
BBTD1.25%	342	658	711	810	369	3.72727	0.48101

parameter H , and T_g/T_m ratio of glasses samples

3.4 Mechanical Properties of GC

Figure 14 display the estimated value of longitudinal v_l and shear velocity v_s of GC was improved with the increase of Dy_2O_3 contents. this increase indicated rise the internal energy [37]. In order to calculate elastic modules of the GC as:

$$L = \rho(v_l)^2 \quad (5)$$

$$G = \rho v_s^2 \quad (6)$$

$$K = L - \frac{4}{3} G \quad (7)$$

$$E = (1 + \sigma) 2G \quad (8)$$

Where L longitudinal modulus, G shear modulus, K bulk modulus, and E young's modulus.

The elastic modulus of glass-ceramic materials was estimated and is depicted in the Figure 15. It was discovered that Dy_2O_3 and increasing heat treatment contributes to the increase in these velocities due to its impact on density, bonding strength, and cross-link density [37]. "Poisson's ratio σ ", "microhardness H ", "thermal expansion coefficient α_p ", and "Debye temperature θ_D " of the GC depicted in Table 2 were increased with increase Dy_2O_3 content this evidence strongly supports the presence RE dopants in the glass system due to the forming of BOs, resulting in a more compact glass network due to the change in structural units [38] by increasing heat treatment the glass ceramic becomes more rigid as a result of increased networking between the atoms in addition to increasing the BOs number [39].

$$\text{Poisson's ratio: } \sigma = \frac{(L - 2G)}{2(L - G)} \quad (9)$$

$$\text{Microhardness: } H = \frac{(1 - 2\sigma)E}{6(1 + \sigma)} \quad (10)$$

$$\text{Thermal expansion coefficient: } \alpha_p = 23.2(v_l - 0.5745) \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Debye temperature: } \theta_D = \frac{h}{k} \left[\frac{3nNA}{4\pi V_m} \right]^{1/3} U_m \quad (12)$$

Where U_m mean ultrasonic velocity

The value of mean ultrasonic velocity was calculated using relation [38].

It was found in our investigation that the elastic properties of the glass ceramics demonstrated a considerable advancement in comparison to the elastic properties of glass that were investigated in our earlier research [40].

$$U_m = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{1}{v_l^3} \right) + \left(\frac{2}{v_s^3} \right)}{3} \right]^{1/3} \quad (13)$$

Table 2 Values of Poisson's ratio, microhardness, thermal expansion coefficient and Debye temperature of the studied GC

Sample	δ	H (GP_a)	αp	θ_D (K)
BBTD _{GC} 0	0.30449	8.4191	125614.6	480.76
BBTD _{GC} 0.25	0.30338	8.6700	126101.8	485.21
BBTD _{GC} 0.5	0.30106	9.1081	127053.0	492.807
BBTD _{GC} 0.75	0.30014	9.4908	127841.8	499.357
BBTD _{GC} 1.00	0.29414	10.0302	128839.4	504.989
BBTD _{GC} 1.25	0.29951	10.0842	129605.0	509.485

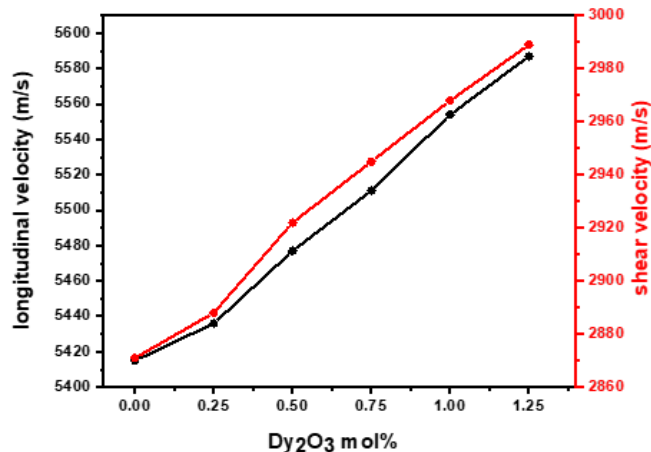


Figure 14 Variation of v_l and v_s against Dy_2O_3 contents for GC

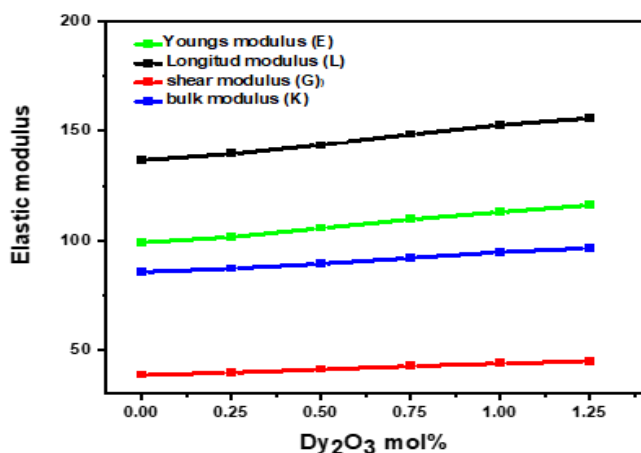


Figure 15 Variation of elastic modulus against Dy_2O_3 contents for GC

3.5 Gamma Radiation Shielding Capacity of GC

This study used a thallium doped sodium iodide detector for measuring the gamma radiation exposure Figure 16. To determine the interaction probability of gamma ray photons with a material, we rely on a crucial gamma ray shielding parameter known as MAC (μ/ρ), measured in cm^2/g , with μ representing the linear attenuation coefficient, LAC). When an attenuator material is positioned between the gamma source and detector, the primary intensity of gamma rays diminishes exponentially

in accordance with the Beer-Lambert law written as [41, 42] $I = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$, where I_0 & I represent the incoming and outgoing intensity of gamma rays respectively, while x signifies the thickness of the glass attenuator.

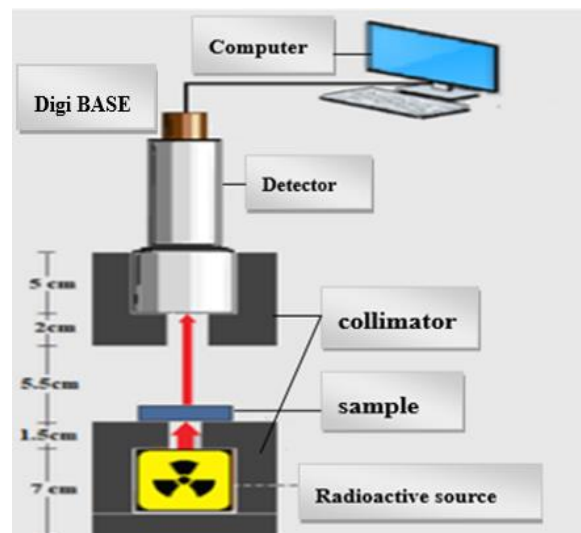


Figure 16 Schematic diagram of gamma ray spectrometer detector made of sodium iodide doped with thallium

Radioactive ^{137}Cs and ^{60}Co were used to generate the gamma rays with energies 0.662, 1.173 and 1.333 MeV. The parameter MAC of any material characterizes its capacity to protect against gamma rays exposure, quantifying the likelihood of photons being absorbed as they pass through a shielding material. The GC MAC values were calculated using [43]:

$$\frac{\mu}{\rho} = \sum_i w_i \left(\frac{\mu}{\rho_i} \right) \quad (14)$$

Where ρ is represented is density, μ the linear attenuation coefficient.

Figure 17 shows the experimentally measured μ/ρ values against $h\nu$ of the GC, wherein the attenuation ability was decreased with the raise of photons energy. In addition, the MAC values were increased with the increase of Dy_2O_3 level and increasing heat treatment in the GC. essentially, substitution of B_2O_3 with Dy_2O_3 caused an enhancement in the GC density from 4.661 - 4.994 $g \cdot cm^{-3}$, thus increasing the MAC values [44]. BBTD_{GC} 1.25 showed the best MAC value. The figure clearly shows that the linear attenuation coefficient peaks at the lowest energy of gamma rays 0.662 MeV and then declines as the energy increases, reaching its minimum value at 1.333 MeV. As the photon energy increases, it is expected that the LAC & MAC values will decrease for all the prepared samples. This occurs because when the energy is increased, the probability of the photoelectric effect reaction, which is more prevalent at lower energies, decreases, and in turn, we observe the appearance of the Compton scattering reaction in the medium energy range. The parameter values start decreasing once the energy exceeds 1.173 MeV, as the pair production [45].

The values of half value layer HVL represent the material's depth that can attenuate 50% of the incident photon energy. The HVL values of the studied GC were calculated in terms of the linear attenuation coefficient μ via [46]:

$$HVL = \frac{0.693}{\mu} \quad (15)$$

Figures 18, 19 and 20 show the corresponding variation of the HVL, TVL and MFP values against $h\nu$ for the studied GC. Both half value layer HVL and tenth value layer TVL and are crucial in determining the shielding effectiveness of the synthesized GC against hazardous radiation [47]. The TVL thickness of a shielding or absorbing material necessary to decrease the radiation level by a factor of one-tenth. The TVL values of the proposed GC were estimated using:

$$TVL = \frac{\ln 10}{\mu} \quad (16)$$

The mean free path (MFP) is a measure of how far a gamma photon can travel before it undergoes an interaction. It is defined as the average distance between two consecutive gamma photon interactions. Generally, the MFP values of a shielding material can be affected by different factor like the kind of gamma ray photon energies, material's elemental composition and density and the radiation-matter interaction mechanisms. The MFP was calculated from $MFP = (1/\mu)$. It is an important parameter in radiation shielding and radiation detection, as it helps determine the effectiveness of materials in attenuating or absorbing gamma radiation.[48]. The density of the material has an inverse relationship with both MFP,HVL and TVL values[49]. Hence, it is concluded that the sample containing BBTDGC1.25 exhibits the lowest MFP and HVL values, indicating superior gamma ray protection capability. The values of MFP,TVL, and HVL are all measures of the penetration power of gamma photons through a material. A low value for any of these parameters indicates that gamma photons are more likely to interact with the glass sample, rather than passing through it. This suggests that the glass has a higher probability of absorbing or scattering gamma photons, resulting in better shielding performance. In practical terms, this means that the glass ceramic sample can effectively block or attenuate the transmission of gamma radiation, making it an ideal material for shielding applications in diverse industries including nuclear reactors, and medical facilities like radiography. The small values of these parameters for the GC are significant in determining its ability to provide efficient radiation protection [7]. The results of the study on glass ceramics showed a significant improvement in the ability to attenuate gamma rays, surpassing previous our research we conducted on glass[50].

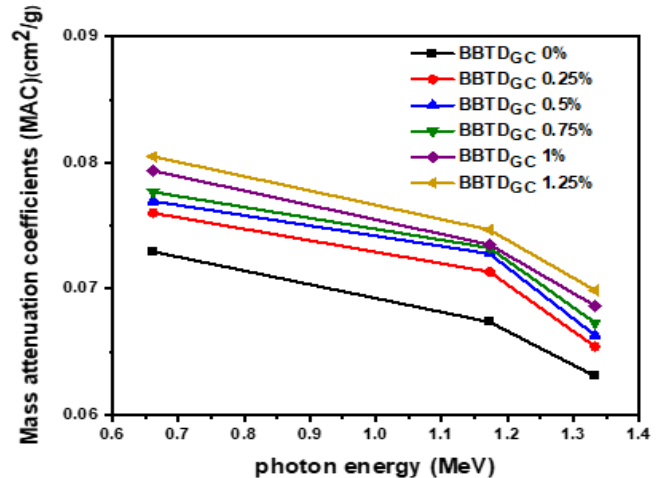


Figure 17 Variation of MAC values of the GC vs photon energy

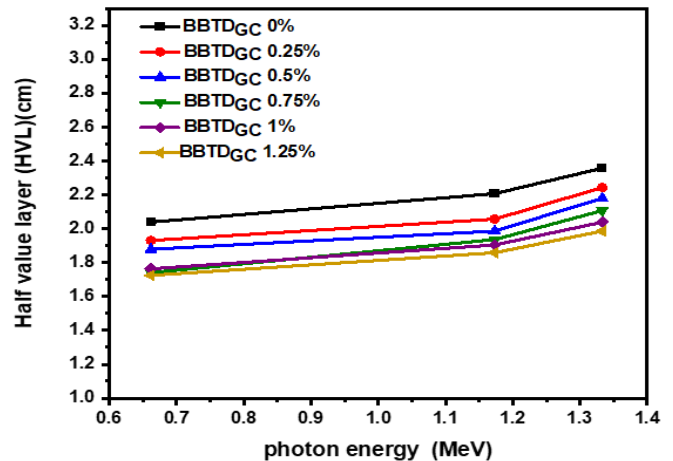


Figure 18 Change of HVL values of the GC as a function of photon energy

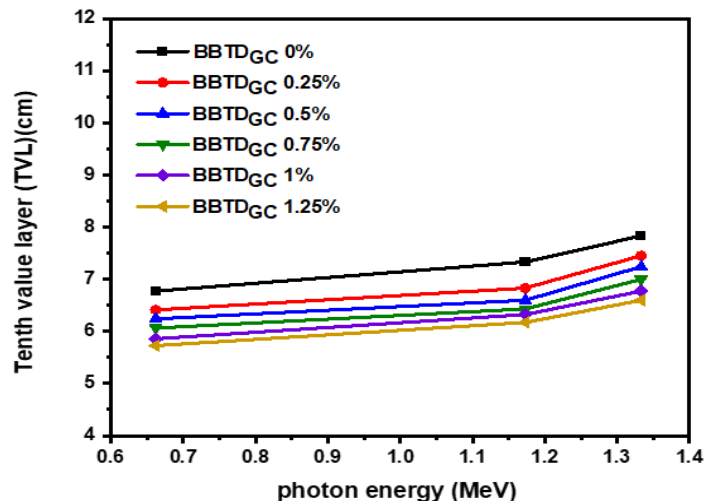


Figure 19 Change of TVL values of the GC as a function of photon energy

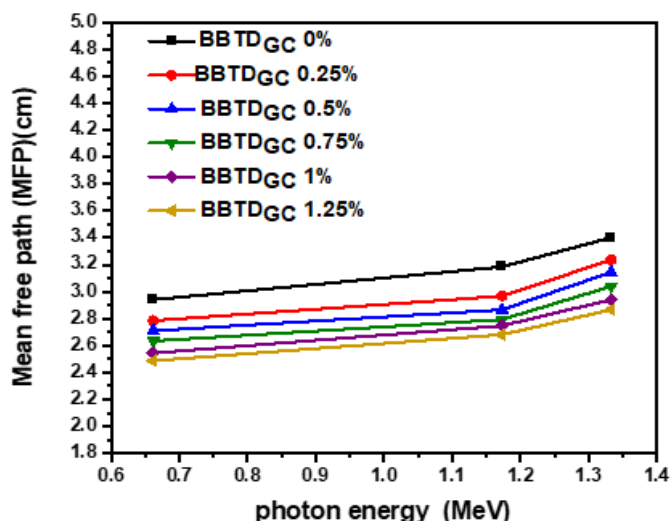


Figure 20 Changes of MFP values of the GC as a function of photon energy

4.0 CONCLUSION

A new type of gamma ray shielding GC composed of $(50-x)\text{B}_2\text{O}_3-25\text{TeO}_2-25\text{BaO}-x\text{Dy}_2\text{O}_3$ were made from melt-quenching route and characterized using diverse analytical methods. The concentration (x) of Dy_2O_3 were changed from 0-1.25 mol% to tailor the structure, morphology, mechanical, and gamma ray shielding properties of the synthesized GC. Radioactive ^{137}Cs and ^{60}Co were used to generate the gamma rays with energies 0.662, 1.173 and 1.333 MeV for exposing the GC, determining their shielding capacity using a (NaI)TI detector. These Dy_2O_3 -doped GC showed excellent gamma rays shielding potency with the improvement of HVL, MAC, TVL and MFP values when Dy_2O_3 contents were increased with increasing heat treatment, which was mainly due to the increase of their network compactness (density was increased from 4.661 - 4.994 g.cm^{-3}). The obtained GC showed the expected elemental compositions and various crystalline phases with matched JCPDS card number. The improvement of the GC mechanical traits with the increase of Dy_2O_3 contents clearly indicated their strength enhancement and suitability to use against high energy gamma ray photons. It was affirmed that GC made with 1.25 mol% Dy_2O_3 can be the best shield against gamma ray exposure.

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Conflicts of Interest

The author declares that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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