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Original Article

Waste to shield: Tailoring cordierite/mullite/zircon composites for radiation protection through controlled sintering and  $Y_2O_3$  additionCelal Avcıoğlu<sup>a,b,c,\*</sup>, Recep Artır<sup>a</sup><sup>a</sup> Marmara University, Faculty of Engineering, Department of Metallurgical and Materials Engineering, 34854, Istanbul, Turkey<sup>b</sup> Technische Universität Berlin, Faculty III Process Sciences, Institute of Material Science and Technology, Fachgebiet Keramische Werkstoffe / Chair of Advanced Ceramic Materials, Straße des 17. Juni 135, 10623, Berlin, Germany<sup>c</sup> Scientific Research Projects Coordinatorship, Usak University, 64000, Usak, Turkey

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## ABSTRACT

In this study, investment casting shell waste successfully utilized to produce cordierite/mullite/zircon composites. Green pellets, consisting of investment casting shell waste, alumina, and magnesia, were prepared and sintered at temperatures between 1250 and 1350 °C. The influence of the sintering temperature on the crystalline phase composition, densification behavior, flexural strength, microstructure, and radiation shielding properties of the cordierite/mullite/zircon composites is investigated. Phase analysis showed that characteristic cordierite peaks appear at 1250 °C, but the complete conversion of silica from investment casting shell waste into cordierite requires a sintering temperature of at least 1300 °C. Notably, the cordierite/mullite/zircon composite sintered at 1350 °C exhibited a sixfold increase in flexural strength compared to the ceramic composite directly fabricated from investment casting shell waste at the same sintering temperature. Furthermore, the effect of  $Y_2O_3$  addition on composites' radiation shielding properties is investigated. The results show that the  $Y_2O_3$  addition improves densification behavior, enhancing the shielding capabilities of the composites against fast neutron and gamma radiation. Our findings suggest that the developed ceramic composites show significant potential for gamma-ray and neutron shielding applications.

## 1. Introduction

Radiation shielding has emerged as a critical consideration in various industries, including nuclear energy, healthcare, aerospace, and space exploration. Safeguarding human health and sensitive equipment from the adverse effects of ionizing radiation is paramount. However, conventional radiation shielding materials, like lead and concrete, face durability issues when subjected to elevated temperatures. This challenge is particularly significant in the context of nuclear reactor cores, where temperatures can reach 1000 °C [1]. To address these limitations, researchers explore alternative materials, including advanced ceramics, refractory metals, and specialized high-temperature alloys, to ensure reliable and durable radiation shielding in the demanding conditions of nuclear reactor environments [2–26].

Cordierite ( $Mg_2Al_4Si_5O_{18}$ ) is a well-established structural ceramic material within the  $MgO-Al_2O_3-SiO_2$  ternary system. Renowned for its excellent thermal shock resistance, chemical durability, low thermal expansion coefficient ( $0.7 \times 10^{-6} K^{-1}$ , 25–1000 °C), and dielectric

permittivity ( $\epsilon_r \approx 4$  at 1 MHz) [27–29], cordierite ceramics are commonly employed as refractories, catalytic converters, electro-ceramics, membranes, and tableware [30,31].

Nevertheless, despite its wide use, cordierite rarely occurs in nature. Therefore, most cordierite ceramics used in the industry are produced synthetically. Among various methods, reaction sintering proved to be the most economical way for industrial-scale cordierite production. Natural raw materials containing oxides of  $MgO$ ,  $Al_2O_3$ , and  $SiO_2$  are often employed as raw materials for cordierite production. Commonly used raw materials include clay, talc, kaolin, alumina, silica sand, feldspar, and quartz [32,33]. However, to reduce the cost of cordierite ceramics, researchers have explored the potential of various industrial wastes, including waste magnesite powder, serpentine waste, kiln rollers waste, kaolin waste, fly ash, aluminum slag, and aluminum sludge as alternative raw materials [34–37].

Investment casting shell moulds, comprising silica, zircon, alumina, and aluminum silicates like mullite, are valuable refractory materials widely used in the investment casting process. Despite their high

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**Table 1**  
Chemical composition (wt.%) of W powder using XRF [39].

Al	Si	Ca	Ti	Fe	Sr	Zr	Nb	Na	P	K	O
14.78	24.79	0.14	1.85	0.45	0.05	12.33	0.02	0.04	0.03	0.16	45.77

production costs and excellent refractory properties, these shell moulds are often discarded after casting, resulting in substantial waste. The inability to recycle investment casting shell waste (ICSW) in the casting industry underscores the need for alternative methods to repurpose this waste and mitigate its environmental impact.

In response to this challenge, we propose an innovative approach to utilize ICSW as a raw material in the production of cordierite-mullite-zircon composites. Cordierite ceramics, renowned for their outstanding refractory properties, are well-suited for harsh radiation environments encountered in the nuclear industry. However, their inherent porosity can impact their radiation shielding ability. To address this limitation,  $Y_2O_3$  introduced as an additive, leveraging its known capability to enhance densification and mechanical properties of mullite and cordierite-based ceramics through liquid phase sintering [38–40]. Additionally, the higher atomic weight of Y compared to Al, Si, and Mg may contribute to improved gamma ray attenuation capabilities due to its higher proton count and greater electron density in inner electron shells, advantageous for the photoelectric absorption process [38].

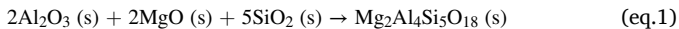
Our study focuses on the cost-effective fabrication of cordierite/mullite/zircon composites by sintering a mixture of ICSW, alumina, and magnesia at various temperatures. The detailed investigation encompasses the impact of sintering temperature and  $Y_2O_3$  addition on key properties of the composites, including crystal phase composition, morphology, bulk density, apparent porosity, and flexural strength.

While previous research has explored the refractory properties of cordierite-mullite composites [41], our study distinguishes itself by incorporating recycled materials in their synthesis and specifically examining their radiation shielding capabilities.

## 2. Materials and methods

The ICSW was obtained from a foundry plant in Istanbul-Turkey. Detailed characterization data for the waste material and the pre-treatment process have been previously published [39]. In summary, the waste was processed by grinding large chunks into a fine powder, which was then screened through a 63  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve to create a feedstock. The crystal phase composition of the investment casting shell waste powder includes zircon, quartz, cristobalite, mullite, and corundum and its chemical composition determined by XRF analysis is given in Table 1.

Cordierite-based composites prepared as follows. The batch formulation included ICSW, alumina, and magnesia, with the goal of converting all free silica in the waste into cordierite, as indicated by the XRF results and the following equation:



The determined batch composition contains ICSW, alumina, and magnesia in a 100: 17.7: 9.8 wt ratio. Additionally, several batches were prepared by adding 1 to 10 wt% of  $Y_2O_3$  to the base composition. Furthermore, for comparison, ceramic composites from ICSW without any additives were also prepared.

The raw materials were accurately weighed and thoroughly mixed using a planetary ball mill for 2 h in an alumina jar with high-purity alumina grinding media and water. The resulting mixture was dried overnight at 80 °C, followed by crushing in an agate mortar with a pestle. Rectangular green bodies (50 mm  $\times$  20 mm  $\times$  8 mm) were fabricated through uni-axial pressing at a pressure of 200 MPa. 1 wt %—polyvinyl alcohol and stearic acid were used as a binder and internal lubricant, respectively for the preparation of green bodies. Thermal debinding was conducted at 500 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 2 °C/

min in an electrical furnace. Subsequently, the green bodies were sintered at 1250 °C, 1300 °C, or 1350 °C for 3 h with heating and cooling rates of 5 °C/min. Sample codes, batch compositions, and sintering temperatures are listed in Table 2.

Crystalline phase compositions of samples analyzed by X-ray powder diffraction technique with a D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer (Bruker, Germany) by  $CuK\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$ ). Measurements were taken in the  $2\theta$  range of 8–80° with a step size of 0.1° and time intervals of 8s. The elemental composition of the ICSW was analyzed using an X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (Rigaku, Japan). The XRF analysis was conducted under an air atmosphere, and a 10 mm collimator was used. The three-point bending test was conducted from bar (20 mm  $\times$  8 mm  $\times$  8 mm) shaped samples. Samples were gently polished before experiments, and a crosshead speed of 0.5 mm/min was applied. Five replicas of each sample were tested, and their average values were obtained. The microstructural analysis was performed from fractured surfaces of samples upon a 3-point bending test using scanning electron microscopy (Quanta Feg 250, FEI, USA). The bulk density and apparent porosity of sintered ceramic composites were determined by the Archimedes method, based on the ASTM C-373-18. Initially, dry weights ( $W_d$ ) of samples were measured before Archimedes' experiment. Afterward, samples were boiled in water at 120 °C for 4 h until the open porosity was filled with water. Then, their suspended weights ( $W_s$ ) were measured while they were in the water. Lastly, they were removed from the water, and their surface water was cleaned gently with paper towels before being weighed to determine their saturated weights ( $W_m$ ).

The bulk density ( $\rho$ ) of samples was determined by the following equation;

$$\rho = \frac{W_d}{W_m - W_s}$$

The apparent porosity ( $\phi$ ) of samples was determined by the following equation;

$$\phi = \frac{W_m - W_d}{W_m - W_s}$$

Linear shrinkage of samples was measured by measuring the largest side of the rectangular (50 mm  $\times$  20 mm  $\times$  8 mm) ceramic bodies before and after sintering using a digital micrometer. Then the linear shrinkage was determined as follows;

$$\text{Linear shrinkage (\%)} = \frac{d_0 - d_f}{d_0} 100$$

**Table 2**

Sample codes and batch compositions. ("ICSW" represents investment casting shell waste).

Sample	Sintering Temperature (°C)	Composition (wt.%)			
		ICSW	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MgO	Y <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>
W-1250	1250	100	–	–	–
W-1300	1300	100	–	–	–
W-1350	1350	100	–	–	–
MAW-1250	1250	78.4	13.9	7.7	–
MAW-1300	1300	78.4	13.9	7.7	–
MAW-1350	1350	78.4	13.9	7.7	–
MAW-1350- Y1	1350	77.7	13.7	7.6	1
MAW-1350- Y3	1350	76.1	13.5	7.5	2.9
MAW-1350- Y5	1350	74.7	13.2	7.3	4.8
MAW-1350- Y7	1350	73.3	13	7.2	6.5
MAW-1350- Y10	1350	71.3	12.6	7	9.1

$d_0$  and  $d_f$  are the diameters of samples before and after sintering.

The linear mass attenuation coefficient of the ceramic composites was determined using the gamma-ray shielding experimental setup. The details of the gamma-ray shielding experimental setup were recently published elsewhere [40–42]. Briefly, the setup contains a NaI(Tl) scintillation detector with a  $3 \times 3$  inches diameter and a photomultiplier tube. The resolution of the NaI(Tl) crystal is approximately 7% at a photon energy of 662 keV for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , and the light decay time constant is approximately 0.23  $\mu\text{s}$ . Experiments were carried out from disc-shaped samples with 1.2 cm diameter and varying thicknesses from 0.5318 to 0.627. The linear mass attenuation coefficients of the samples were determined for two energy lines for  $^{133}\text{Ba}$  (81 keV and 356 keV) and another one for the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (662 keV) source. Each measurement was performed three times for 20 min, and their average values were obtained. The statistical error was lower than 2%. Furthermore, the PhyX/PSD program was used to explore the radiation shielding ability of manufactured ceramics theoretically [43,44].

### 3. Results and discussion

The XRD analysis of the ICSW powder reveals that it is mainly composed of zircon, quartz, cristobalite, mullite, and corundum phases, as shown in Fig. 1. It is now well-established that quartz transforms into cristobalite at elevated temperatures. From 1250 to 1350 °C, the peak intensity of quartz indeed decreases where almost no quartz was detected for the W-1350 sample. However, the peak intensity of cristobalite, along with that of corundum, also declined with increasing sintering temperature. Meanwhile, the relative intensity of mullite peaks slightly increases. This observation is probably due to the mullite formation reaction between silica and alumina, which starts at about 1250 °C and accelerates with increasing firing temperature. Nevertheless, both corundum and cristobalite phases are still evident for W-1350. This indicates that firing ICSW at 1350 °C for 4 h is not sufficient to complete the mullite formation reaction.

Fig. 2 shows the XRD patterns of the fired pellets prepared from alumina, magnesia, and ICSW powder mixture to obtain cordierite-containing composites at 1250–1350 °C for 3 h. The formation of cordierite was first observed at 1250 °C. This might be attributed to the reaction among corundum, magnesia, and silica, based on Equation (1). Nonetheless, the fraction of formed cordierite at 1250 °C was low. Besides, a large amount of cristobalite and corundum phases are still present. As temperature increases, the corresponding cordierite peaks become stronger and narrower. Meanwhile, cristobalite disappears first

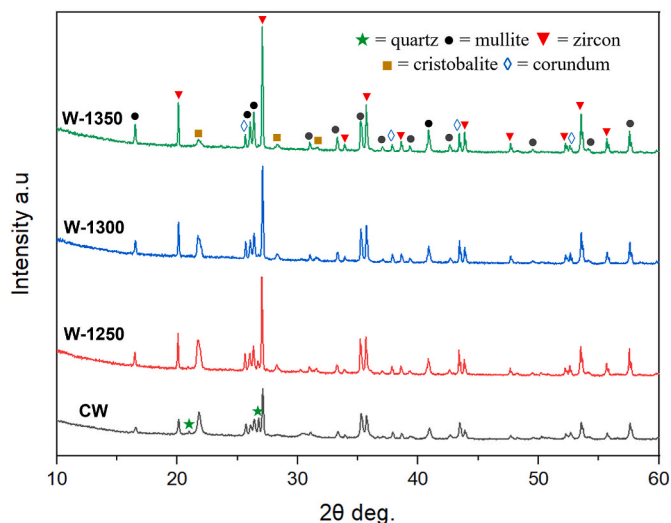


Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the W, W-1250, W-1300, and W-1350 samples. (★ = quartz, ● = mullite, ▼ = zircon, ■ = cristobalite, and ◇ = corundum).

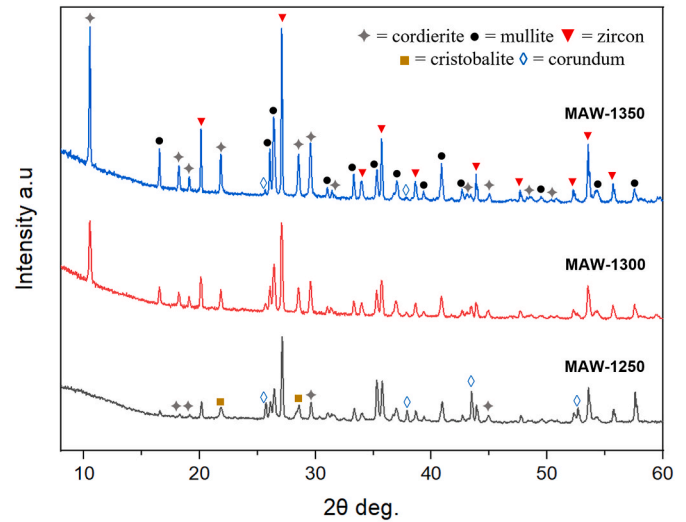


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of the MAW-1250, MAW-1300, and MAW-1350 samples. (◆ = cordierite, ● = mullite, ▼ = zircon, ■ = cristobalite, and ◇ = corundum).

and then almost corundum. Thereby, ceramic composites mainly composed of cordierite, mullite, and zircon are obtained for the MAW-1300 and MAW-1350 samples.

The bulk density of ceramic composites produced from ICSW without additives exhibits a distinct trend with increasing sintering temperature, as shown in Fig. 3a. Specifically, the bulk densities of W-1250, W-1300, and W-1350 ceramic composites are 1.77, 1.74, and 1.80  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ , respectively. XRD analysis confirms the presence of quartz in the ICSW. Quartz undergoes phase transformations upon heating, transitioning from  $\alpha$ -quartz to  $\beta$ -quartz at 573 °C, followed by  $\beta$ -quartz to tridymite at 870 °C, and ultimately forming cristobalite at 1470 °C. However, the presence of impurities can significantly lower the temperature at which cristobalite forms, sometimes below 1000 °C [45]. Importantly, cristobalite has a lower density than quartz, which can lead to the development of microcracks during the quartz-to-cristobalite phase transition, resulting in decreased density values.

XRD results show a gradual decrease in the intensity of quartz peaks in the ICSW as sintering temperature increases. This decrease in density, from 1.77  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  for W-1250 to 1.74  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  for W-1300, can be attributed to the phase changes occurring during the firing process. Subsequently, the increase from 1.74  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  to 1.80  $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  is linked to improved densification and the formation of mullite within the silica and alumina components of the ICSW. Nevertheless, it is essential to emphasize that the overall densification of these samples remained relatively low. While there is a slight reduction in apparent porosity with increasing sintering temperature, ranging from 39.84% to 41.10%, linear shrinkage increases from 0.9% to 2.1%. The morphological features of the samples, which align with the apparent porosity results and are characterized by a porous microstructure, are presented and discussed in the supporting information.

Fig. 3b illustrates the impact of firing temperature on the flexural strength of W-1250, W-1300, and W-1350 composites. Notably, the flexural strength exhibits a modest increase with higher sintering temperatures, albeit with a relatively low rate of improvement. Indeed, the flexural strength of these samples falls within a narrow range of 8.35–8.86 MPa.

In contrast, Fig. 3d highlights a substantial contrast in flexural strength between the cordierite/mullite/zircon composites and the ceramic composites produced from ICSW without any additives. Remarkably, the MAW-1350 sample exhibited a nearly six-fold higher flexural strength compared to W-1350. This remarkable enhancement can be attributed to the development of an interlocking structure of mullite whiskers and the reduction of silica phases.

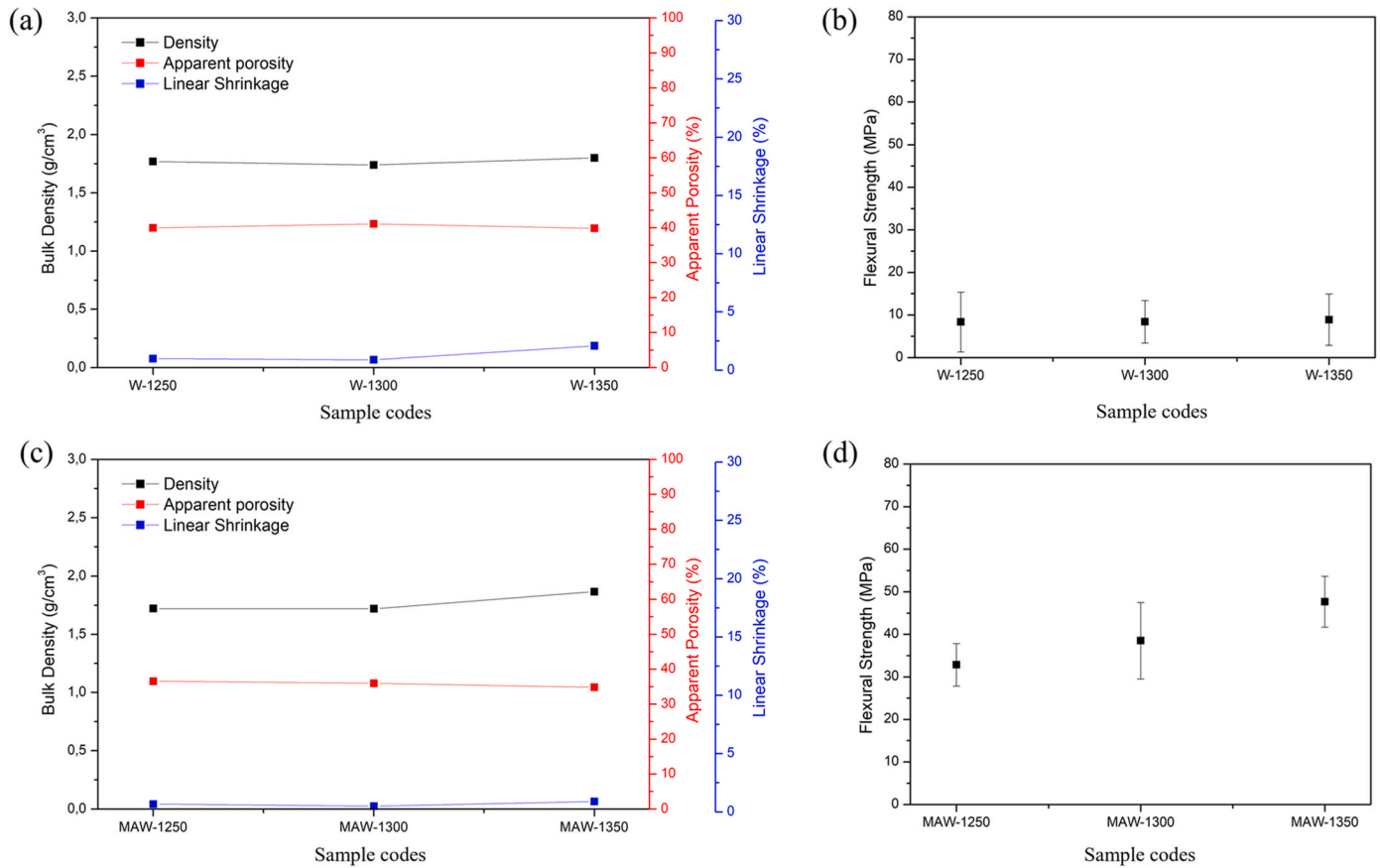


Fig. 3. Physicochemical properties of the W and MAW-series of ceramic composites.

As the porosity of the shielding material increases, the likelihood of radiation interacting with the shielding material's atoms decreases. Nevertheless, insufficient densification of the both W and MAW-series of ceramic composites are evident and their apparent porosities range between 34 and 36 vol% due to the slow diffusion process during solid-state sintering. Therefore, the effect of  $Y_2O_3$  addition on composites' properties including degree of densification and radiation shielding properties is also investigated.

The XRD patterns of MAW-1350 and 1–10 wt%  $Y_2O_3$ -added ceramic composites synthesized at 1350 °C are presented in Fig. 4a. All specimens are identified as cordierite-zircon-mullite composites. Notably, the sharp peak at  $2\theta = 10.4^\circ$ , corresponding to the cordierite phase's (100) plane, initially increases with  $Y_2O_3$  addition, reaching its maximum with

the 3 wt%  $Y_2O_3$  additive content. However, beyond this point, the intensity starts to decline and nearly disappears for the MAW-1350-Y10 sample. Conversely, the intensity of the peak at  $2\theta = 28.5^\circ$ , associated with the (222) plane, shows a significant increase, particularly when the  $Y_2O_3$  content reaches beyond 7 wt%. Consequently, it can be concluded that the addition of  $Y_2O_3$  influences the crystal structure, orientation, and growth behavior of cordierite crystals. Considering the known property that  $Y_2O_3$  addition promotes the formation of liquid phases [46]. Therefore, it is plausible that the observed changes in peak intensities are associated with alterations in the dissolution, migration, and reprecipitation of  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Al^{3+}$ , and  $Si^{4+}$  within the liquid media. These processes may contribute to the modification of crystal growth kinetics and morphology, ultimately influencing the XRD patterns observed in the synthesized composites.

The crystal structure of cordierite consists of six-membered rings composed of alternating aluminum and silicon tetrahedra, forming a framework structure. It is noteworthy that cordierite exhibits two polymorphs: a high symmetry hexagonal phase ( $P6/mcc$  No. 192) and low symmetry orthorhombic phase ( $Cccm$  No. 66), which typically coexisting. In the high symmetry hexagonal phase,  $Si_4Al_2O_{18}$  six-membered tetrahedron rings contain ordered  $SiO_4$  and  $AlO_4$  tetrahedra. Contrarily, in the low symmetry polymorph, the hexagonal rings undergo distortion, resulting in an orthorhombic crystal lattice [47].

Remarkably, the addition of 7–10 wt%  $Y_2O_3$  results in increased peak splitting, suggesting a greater presence of the orthorhombic phase. This change is likely associated with reduced Si/Al ordering in the  $Si_4Al_2O_{18}$  six-membered rings due to the introduction of  $Y_2O_3$ . Additionally, the peak at  $2\theta = 10.4^\circ$  shifts toward lower angles with increasing  $Y_2O_3$  addition, as observed in Fig. 4b. This shift indicates the doping of  $Y^{3+}$  ions into the cordierite lattice, leading to increased unit cell volumes since the size of  $Y^{3+}$  is considerably larger than  $Al^{3+}$ ,  $Si^{2+}$ , and  $Mg^{2+}$ .

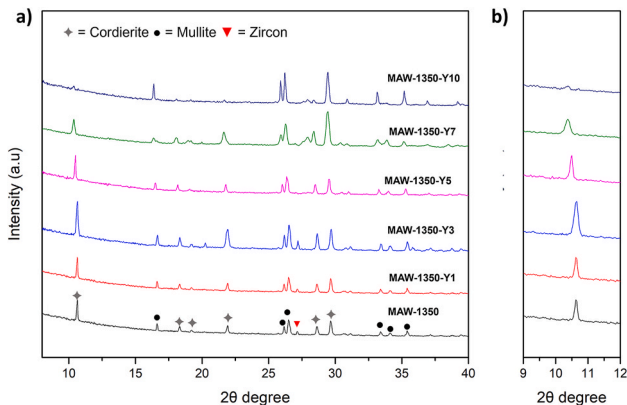


Fig. 4. XRD patterns of the MAW-1350 and MAW-Y1-10 samples. ( $\blacklozenge$  = cordierite,  $\bullet$  = mullite,  $\blacktriangledown$  = zircon, and  $\blacksquare$  = alumina).

Considering the incorporation of  $Y^{3+}$  in the cordierite lattice, one possibility is the replacement of  $Mg^{2+}$  ions in octahedral sites, as the size of  $Y^{3+}$  is more compatible with these sites. Additionally, it is probable that  $Y^{3+}$  can enter the hexagonal channels in the  $Si_4Al_2O_{18}$  six-membered rings—a phenomenon observed with other large cations [48,49]. In this case, the  $Al^{3+}/Si^{4+}$  ratio in tetrahedra increases with the rising  $Y^{3+}$  content due to charge balance. This change leads to lattice expansion and distortion of corresponding polyhedra due to the relatively larger length of Al–O bonds compared to Si–O bonds. This lattice variation, coupled with the reduction in Si/Al ordering in the six-membered rings, is likely the reason for the observed reduction in crystal symmetry in cordierite.

The addition of  $Y_2O_3$  enhances bulk density and reduces apparent porosity by generating a vitreous phase. This vitreous phase promotes viscous flow sintering and particle rearrangement, resulting in the closure of open pores. In  $Y_2O_3$ -added composites, bulk density progressively increases with higher  $Y_2O_3$  content, while apparent porosity decreases (as depicted in Fig. S3). For example, the addition of 10 wt%  $Y_2O_3$  increases bulk density from 1.86 g/cm<sup>3</sup> in MAW-1350 to 2.17 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. This substantial improvement in bulk density is anticipated to enhance the radiation shielding capability of the composites.

The mass attenuation coefficient (MAC) is a critical parameter describing a material's ability to attenuate or reduce the intensity of ionizing radiation. A higher MAC indicates that the material is more effective for shielding against gamma rays. MAC is a material-specific constant that depends on the elemental composition [50,51]. Therefore, the MAC values for W-1250, W-1300, and W-1350 were found to be identical across the entire photon energy range. Similarly, the MAC variations for MAW-1250, MAW-1300, and MAW-1350 with incident photon energy were also consistent (as shown in Fig. S4).

The photon energy range can be categorized into three regions based on the prevailing type of interaction. In the low-energy region, up to 0.1 MeV, attenuation decreases significantly. The primary interaction mechanism within this range is photoelectric absorption, and it's highly sensitive to the atomic numbers of the elements in shielding materials. Elements with higher atomic numbers provide more electrons for photon interaction, increasing the likelihood of photon absorption [52–56]. While the MAC variations of the W- and MAW-series samples are quite similar, the W-series exhibits slightly greater attenuation compared to the MAW-series in the region dominated by photoelectric absorption. This distinction arises because the W-series is directly fabricated from ICSW, whereas MgO with a lower molar weight is added to investment-casting shell waste to produce cordierite/mullite/zircon composites.

On the other hand, the atomic mass of Y is higher than that of Mg, Al,

and Si. Consequently, in the low energy region up to 0.1 MeV, the mass attenuation coefficient values demonstrate a direct relation with the  $Y_2O_3$  content and follow the order of MAW-1350-Y10 > MAW-1350-Y7 > MAW-1350-Y5 > MAW-1350-Y3 > MAW-1350-Y1 > MAW-1350 (as depicted in Fig. 5).

Compton scattering becomes the predominant attenuation mechanism in moderate photon energy regions, typically ranging from 0.1 MeV up to several MeV [57]. While not as pronounced as in the low-energy zone, attenuation continues to decrease with increasing photon energy within this intermediate energy range, ranging from 0.1 MeV to 3 MeV. Importantly, Compton scattering is relatively insensitive to the atomic number of constituent elements. Therefore, the disparities between the mass attenuation coefficient values of the composites are markedly reduced (Inset Fig. 5a). In the high-energy region, specifically above 3 MeV, the mass attenuation coefficient of the composites exhibits a slight increase due to the pair production phenomenon. Beyond this point, as incoming photon energy further rises, the coefficient stabilizes, remaining nearly constant.

Furthermore, the gamma shielding parameters of W-1350, MAW-1350, and MAW-1350-Y10 (as detailed in Table S2) were experimentally evaluated and compared with their theoretically calculated counterparts. Fig. S5 illustrates the reasonable agreement between experimentally measured MAC values and their theoretical counterparts.

The linear attenuation coefficient (LAC) refers to the fraction of an X-ray or gamma-ray beam that is either absorbed or scattered per unit thickness of the shielding material [58]. This coefficient is influenced by the atomic weights of the elements within the shielding materials and their densities. Generally, materials with higher density tend to be more effective at attenuating gamma rays because there are more atoms or particles within a given thickness to interact with and absorb the radiation. The linear attenuation coefficient (LAC) of the samples shows a direct relationship with both the sintering temperature and the  $Y_2O_3$  additive content. As the sintering temperature and  $Y_2O_3$  additive content increase, the LAC also increases, indicating that the ability of the samples to attenuate gamma radiation becomes enhanced (Fig. 5b).

The mean free path (MFP) represents the average distance a gamma ray can travel within the shielding material before interacting. In the low-energy region, all composites exhibit low MFP values, and these values increase as the photon energy rises. This trend indicates that the shielding effectiveness of the composites diminishes as photon energy increases (Fig. 6a–c). MFP values for all composites remain almost zero up to photon energies of roughly 30 keV, indicating that photons with energies less than 30 keV cannot penetrate deep into the fabricated ceramics. Nevertheless, beyond 100 keV MFP values steadily increases

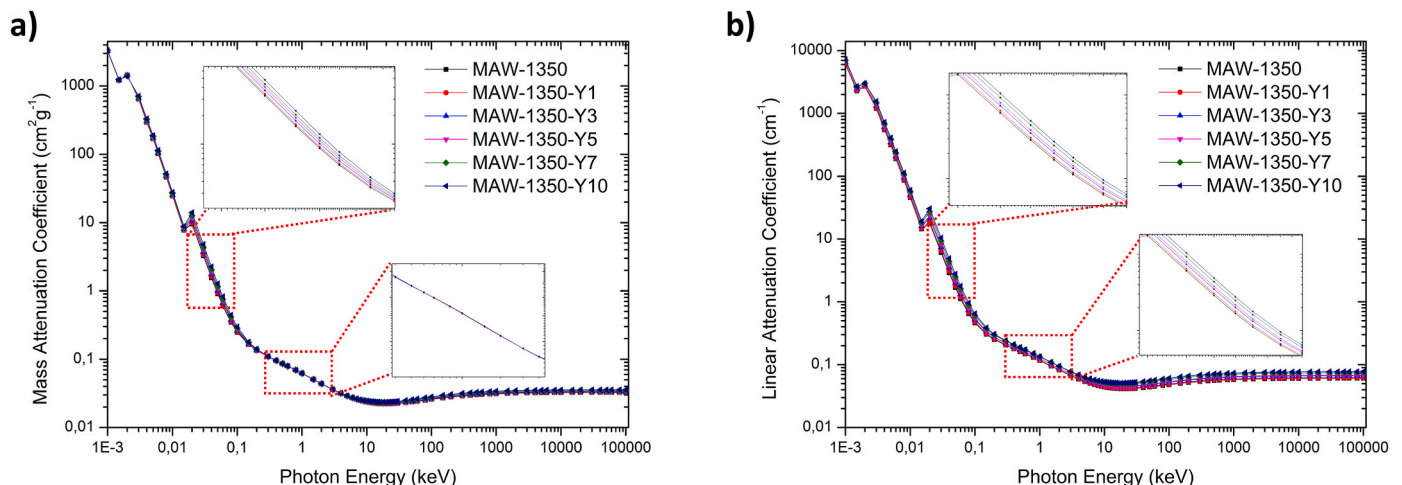


Fig. 5. The relative variations of mass attenuation coefficient (a) and linear attenuation coefficient (b) for MAW-Y1-10.

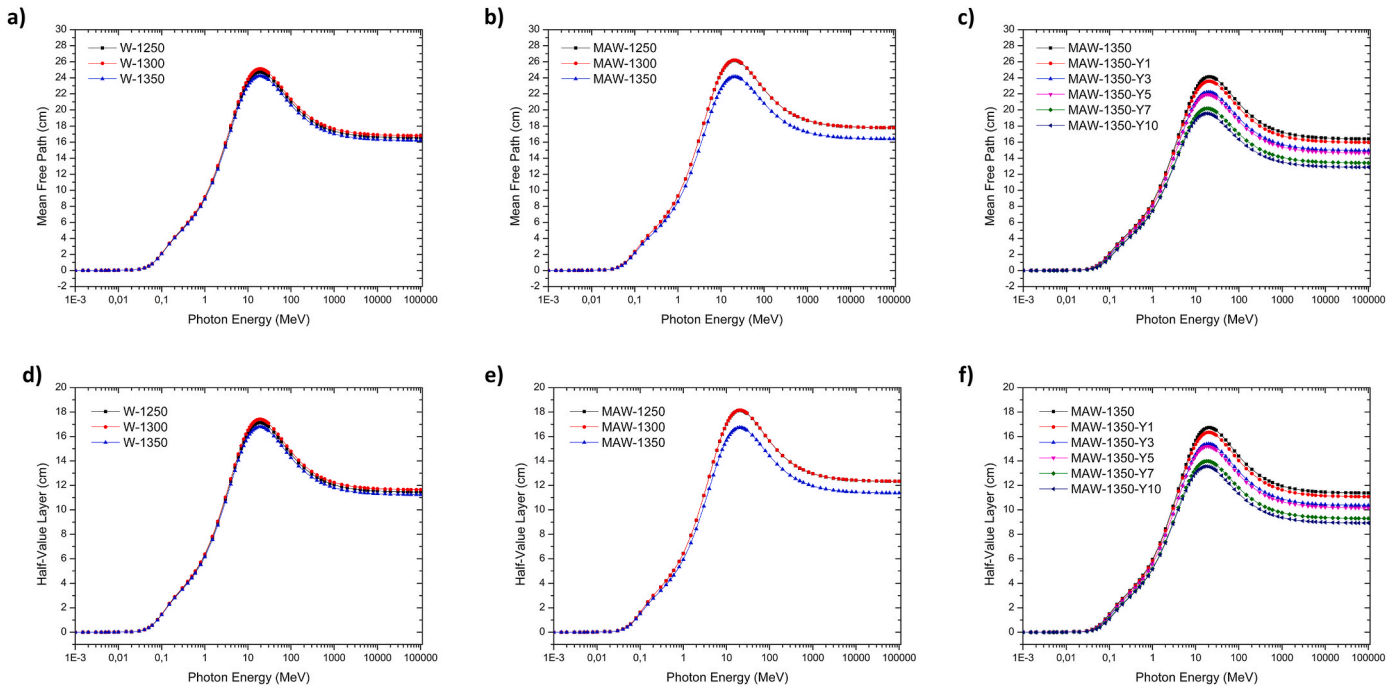


Fig. 6. The variations of mean free path and half-value layer of ceramic composites with photon energy.

for all composites. Maximum MFP values are observed at around 20 MeV photon energy. The maximum MFP values for W1250, W-1300, and W-1350 are 24.71, 25.12, and 24.23 cm, respectively. Similarly, the maximum MFP values for MAW-1250, MAW-1300, and MAW-1350 are 26.15, 26.21, and 24.14 cm. Notably, the MFP of MAW-1350 decreases by about 25% with the addition of 10 wt%  $Y_2O_3$ . MAW-1350-Y10, the densest material among all composites, exhibits the smallest MFP values (18 cm at 20 MeV). This occurs because photons encounter more collisions while traveling through the pores of this dense material.

Half-value layers (HVL) represent the required material thickness to reduce the incoming photon beam intensity by 50% [59,60]. The trend in HVL closely parallels that of MFP. HVL values also exhibit a strong correlation with both sintering temperature and  $Y_2O_3$  additive content (Fig. 6d–f). Notably, MAW-1350-Y10 stands out with the smallest HVL values across the entire photon energy range. This is attributed to its higher density and yttrium content.

Fig. 7 illustrates the effective atomic numbers ( $Z_{eff}$ ) for the studied

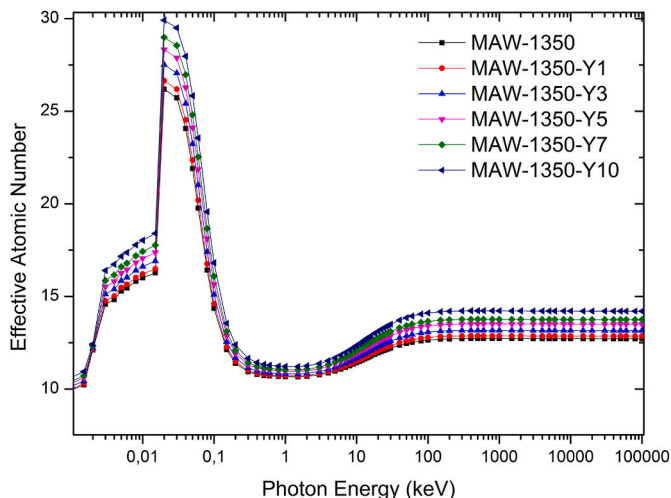


Fig. 7. Effective atomic number for MAW-Y1-10.

composites at different energies. It can be seen that the  $Z_{eff}$  values correlate well with the  $Y_2O_3$  content. At any specific energy, MAW-1350-Y10 demonstrates the highest  $Z_{eff}$ , while MAW-1350 has the lowest. Nonetheless,  $Z_{eff}$  values of the all composites follow the similar trend.

In the low-energy region,  $Z_{eff}$  values increase significantly with rising photon energy, with the highest  $Z_{eff}$  values observed in this region, where photoelectric absorption is the dominant interaction mechanism. The maximum  $Z_{eff}$  values are obtained at 0.02 MeV, with values of 29.91, 28.98, 28.32, 27.51, 26.65, and 26.18 for MAW-1350-Y10, MAW-1350-Y7, MAW-1350-Y5, MAW-1350-Y3, MAW-1350-Y1, and MAW-1350, respectively.

In the subsequent energy region, where Compton scattering governs the interaction, a rapid decline in  $Z_{eff}$  values is observed until  $Z_{eff}$  values reach their lowest points between 0.5 and 2 MeV. Afterward,  $Z_{eff}$  values exhibit a mild increase with increasing energy, driven by the pair production effect.

The neutron shielding capabilities of ceramic samples were assessed by calculating their fast neutron removal cross-sections (FNRCs). The FNRCs value of a material depends on the total neutron absorption cross-sections of the elements within the absorbent material and the material's density. Notably, among the W-series of samples, W-1350 exhibits the highest FNRCs value, while W-1300 displays the lowest, a trend that aligns well with their respective densities (as shown in Fig. S6). A similar trend is also observed in the MAW series of samples.

Furthermore, the FNRCs value of MAW-1350 surpasses that of W-1350, indicating that creating cordierite-based composites from investment casting shells is advantageous for achieving enhanced neutron attenuation performance. Moreover, the addition of  $Y_2O_3$  further enhances the material's neutron shielding ability. This can be explained by two reasons: first, the likelihood of an interaction between the neutrons and the atoms of the attenuator increases with decreasing apparent porosity. Secondly, the neutron cross-section of Y (1.28) is considerably higher than that of Mg (0.063), Al (0.233), and Si (0.166). Therefore, Y has a higher probability of interacting with incident neutrons. MAW-1350-Y10 has the highest fast FNRCs among the all fabricated ceramic composites with  $\Sigma R = 0.069 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and its FNRCs is comparable to some commonly used neutron shielding materials such as graphite ( $\Sigma R =$

0.077 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and paraffin ( $\Sigma R = 0.0773$  cm<sup>-1</sup>), and concrete ( $\Sigma R = 0.094$  cm<sup>-1</sup>) [61,62].

#### 4. Conclusions

In this study, eco-friendly cordierite-mullite-zircon composites were fabricated from investment casting shell waste, alumina, and magnesia as raw materials. The influence of sintering temperature and Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> addition on the composites' structural, physical, and radiation shielding properties were investigated. From our study, the following conclusions can be drawn.

- 1 XRD analysis revealed that the investment-casting shell waste comprises silica, mullite, alumina, and zircon. Thereby, cordierite/mullite/zircon ceramic composites could be obtained by firing appropriate mixtures of investment-casting shell waste, alumina, and magnesia. All the free silica in the investment casting shell waste was consumed to yield cordierite for samples fired at 1300 °C and 1350 °C for 3 h.
- 2 Flexural strength improved with increasing sintering temperature; it reached 47.69 Mpa for the sample sintered at 1350 °C. The flexural strength of MAW-1350 was almost 6 times higher than the ceramic composite fabricated directly from investment cast shell waste at the same sintering temperature. The enhanced mechanical properties of the cordierite/mullite/zircon composite were attributed to the removal of silica phases, the formation of the interlocking structure of elongated mullites, and the enhanced densification behavior of the composites with increasing sintering temperature.
- 3 The density of the composites increased with the rising concentration of Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Meanwhile, the apparent porosity is reduced. These outcomes attained enhanced radiation shielding ability for the composites. Indeed, the mass attenuation coefficient, linear attenuation coefficient, and Z<sub>eff</sub> increased with increasing Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> addition. Contrarily, the mean free path and half-value layer of the composites decreased with increased Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> concentration. Nevertheless, Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> addition had more influence in the low-energy region where photoelectric absorption is the governing effect. Besides, composites are more effective in radiation shielding in the low-energy region and their shielding ability became worse at high photon energies (>1 MeV). Moreover, theoretical and experimental studies showed good agreement with each other.

Consequently, the results of this work demonstrate the possibility of utilizing investment-casting shell waste in producing light and non-toxic radiation shielding materials.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.net.2024.02.038>.

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