

Radiological Effects of Fly Ash as Concrete Additive: A Study in Vietnam

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1 **Title page**

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Radiological effects of fly ash as concrete additive:

A study in Vietnam

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Abstract

Nowadays, fly ash is recycled to make more eco-friendly building materials and reduce landfill area of coal-fired power plant. However, the high amount of natural radionuclides contained in fly ash could potentially pose radiological risks to people living in buildings made from these materials. The results revealed that the ²²⁶Ra, ²³²Th and ⁴⁰K activities for the commonly used building material were in the range from 10.1 to 254.9 Bq kg⁻¹, from 16.6 to 176.9 Bq kg⁻¹ and from 21.2 to 1240.3 Bq kg⁻¹ and 569.1 Bq kg⁻¹, respectively: High gamma activity concentration for fly ash is due to the origin of fly ash and coal enrichment process of coal-fired power plant, in contrast, sand and stone samples which contain high radon concentration. Additional fly ash in concrete can

44 increase or decrease the radioactivity of building materials, in which its variation depends
45 on the percentage of the fly ash and matrix composition of the mixture. Even though the
46 average indoor annual effective doses were lower than the upper limit, the total annual
47 effective doses were slightly higher than the recommended dose of 2.4 mSv^{-1} due to the
48 exposure of natural sources by UNSCEAR. From this study, radiological effects of fly
49 ash samples as concrete additive in Viet Nam could be evaluated for any practical
50 circumstances before they are used.

51 **Keywords:** Natural radioactivity; radiation exposure; concrete; fly ash; raw building
52 material; coal-fired power plant; annual effective dose.

53 **Introduction**

54 All materials in the environment contain natural radionuclides with their various
55 isotopes. Human is exposed by ionizing radiation about 2.4 mSv y^{-1} from these natural
56 sources, in which, approximately about 1.0 mSv y^{-1} is due to the exposure of radon
57 (UNSCEAR, 2000). Materials contain mainly natural radionuclides from the primary
58 sources of ^{238}U series, ^{232}Th series and ^{40}K . The activity concentration of radionuclides in
59 raw building materials greatly affect the annual effective dose due to the ionizing
60 radiation. In ^{238}U series, ^{222}Rn is considered as the main factor of exposure. Radon atoms
61 located within solid grains are unlikely to release into the atmosphere, owing to their very
62 low diffusion coefficients in solids. However, if they are located in the interstitial space
63 between grains, they may diffuse into the surface. Therefore, the release of radon from a
64 residue repository to the atmosphere takes place by the following series of processes:

65 emanation, transport and exhalation (Ishimori et al., 2013). Due to its short half-life,
66 indoor radon inhalation could potentially damage lung cells and consequently, cause lung
67 cancer. Because of this radiological hazard, radon concentration needs to be monitored
68 from building materials.

69 Nowadays, significant efforts are made for environmental protection in the field of
70 construction. Higher buildings with closed rooms are built with ventilation and cooling
71 for air circulation. Lighter, more eco-friendly fly ash recycled materials are utilized in
72 construction. Economy, environment and technology could benefit from this utilization.
73 However, these materials contain natural radionuclides to a certain extent that can release
74 an amount of radiation and radon to the environment. Consequently, human's health
75 could be affected due to the radiological effects of radiation and radon (Kobeissi et al.,
76 2013; Hoffmann, 2018). Therefore, building materials made from industrial waste such as
77 fly ash and brick and their practical application should be investigated, evaluated and
78 subjected to different documents provided by IAEA – 474 (Ishimori et al., 2013 and
79 ICRP, 2017). Many authors have developed different methods and techniques to
80 determine the radioactivity released from raw building materials (Ali et al., 1996;
81 Vanasundari et al. 2012; Solak et al., 2014; Asaduzzaman et al., 2015; Tuo et al., 2020).
82 Radon concentration from building materials made from rock, fly ash were evaluated
83 (Bossey, 2003; Kobeissi et al., 2011; Hoffmann, 2018). Furthermore, the annual
84 effective doses due to the indoor radon exposure from building materials were calculated
85 in different studies (Bruzzi et al., 1992; Le et al., 2011; Asaduzzaman et. al., 2015;

86 Hoffmann, 2018). Moreover, fly ash and bottom ash from coal-fired power plants are
87 often used as a filler component in building materials as well as productions of ceramic
88 and glass-ceramic, zeolite synthesis, therefore the radiological impacts on human due to
89 fly ash and products from fly ash should be evaluated (Zacco et al., 2014; Asaduzzaman
90 et al., 2015).

91 Now adays, the supplement of fly ash in concrete is a simple replacement approach
92 with significant advantages: (i) Reducing heat of hydration, thus reducing thermal cracks
93 and improving soundness of concrete; (ii) Improving impermeability and resistance of
94 concrete against ingress of moisture and harmful gases, consequently increasing
95 durability; (iii) Reducing weight-to-strength ratio of cement in concrete, hence reducing
96 concrete cost (Temuujin et. al., 2019). Economy, environment and technology could
97 benefit from building material, more eco-friendly and fly ash recycled materials, but the
98 macroenvironment can create in such living area complex radioactivity surroundings,
99 which human's health could be affected due to the radiological effects. The careful
100 choice of raw building material in construction should be noted to reduce risk of radiation
101 exposure. Radioactivity in raw building material depends mainly on the origin of the
102 material itself and consequently affects the effective dose to human. Therefore, safety
103 assessment of building materials must be carried out before application in construction.
104 Ho Chi Minh City, one of the major cities in Vietnam is currently thriving in many
105 aspects of industrialization. Thus, a large number of building materials need to be
106 supplied from nearby areas. However, there are problems in the management of building

107 materials, especially in the control of radioactive content in the building materials, the
108 lack of regular and consecutive assessments of radiation safety in the field of
109 construction. Thus, raw building materials contain high radioactivity concentration could
110 enter the market and cause radiological effects on human. In this study, we evaluated
111 gamma radioactivity concentration, radon concentration and annual effective dose due to
112 gamma and radon exposure from currently used building materials. The raw materials as
113 soil, cement, sand, stone samples which were commonly used in the Viet Nam and their
114 mixtures with fly ash of different percentage for concrete production were studied. Their
115 potential radiological hazards to indoor workers in the standard room (CEN room) (CEN,
116 2017) made by the concrete samples which were made by these raw materials were then
117 calculated. These are the absorbed dose, the annual effective dose from gamma and radon
118 exposure. The data collected in this study could contribute to the international database of
119 natural radionuclides in building materials.

120 **Material and method**

121 **Description and processing of the sample**

122 A total of 85 samples of raw building materials and soil have been studied. Soil
123 samples were collected in different areas of Ho Chi Minh City. Cement, sand and stone
124 samples were taken from local manufacturers and suppliers in Vietnam. Fly ash samples
125 were taken from the landfill of thermal power plants, Vinh Tan, Vietnam. About 2 kg of
126 each sample was collected. All samples were placed in polythene bags, labelled and
127 transported to the laboratory for sample preparation and analysis.

128 The samples were then transported to the laboratory, dried at room temperature,
129 crushed with a particle size less than 0.2 mm. Following that, samples were dried at
130 105⁰C for 8 hours and packed into a cylinder beaker. Samples were sealed within 30 days
131 to reach radioactive equilibrium between ²²⁶Ra radionuclide and its daughters in uranium
132 series. After this period, the samples were measured by a gamma spectrometry system
133 using HPGe detector for 24 hours.

134 **Activity analysis**

135 The gamma spectrometer with the p-type HPGe detector GC3520 was used in this
136 work. It has the nominal relative efficiency of 35% at 1332.5 keV and the energy
137 resolution of 1.8 keV FWHM at 1332.5 keV energy peak of ⁶⁰Co. Its germanium crystal
138 has a 62.2 mm diameter, a 50.1 mm height, a 7.5 mm diameter of core hole, a 23 mm
139 depth, and a 1.5 mm thickness of aluminum window. Lead shield chamber is covered
140 outside with a 100 mm layer of lead and 10 mm of steel. Inside, the 1 mm tin and 1.6 mm
141 copper graded liner prevent interference by lead X rays. The system is operated by Lynx
142 32k MCA based on digital signal processor (DSP). The Lynx is controlled by Genie 2000
143 program of Canberra Industries. The ²²⁶Ra activity concentration of the sample was
144 determined by gamma-ray spectra from ²¹⁴Pb (295.2 keV and 351.9 keV) and ²¹⁴Bi
145 (609.3 keV). The ²³²Th activity concentration can be determined through ²²⁸Ac (338.3
146 keV and 911.2 keV), ²¹²Pb (238.6 keV) and ²⁰⁸Tl (583.2 keV and 2614.3 keV). The
147 activity concentration of ⁴⁰K was determined directly by their own gamma-ray 1460.83

148 keV (ISO, 2007). Details of activity concentration calculation method can be found in
149 Loan et al. (2018) and Ba et al. (2019).

150 **Indoor dose due to radiation exposure for standard room**

151 Indoor dose rate (D) (nGy h⁻¹) due to gamma radiation emitted from six surfaces of
152 CEN model room (4 × 3 × 2.5) m³ (CEN, 2017) was calculated using Eq. (1) (Ali et al.,
153 1996):

$$154 \quad D(\text{nGy h}^{-1}) = 0.922A_{\text{Ra}} + 1.096A_{\text{Th}} + 0.0806A_{\text{K}} \quad (1)$$

155 Indoor annual effective dose (D_γ) (mSv.y⁻¹) due to gamma radiation was calculated
156 using Eq. (2). with the dose conversion factor of 0.7 Sv Gy⁻¹ for workers and indoor
157 occupancy factor of 0.8 (Siotis et al. 1984; Sahu et al. 2016)

$$158 \quad D_{\gamma}(\text{mSv y}^{-1}) = D(\text{nGy h}^{-1}) \times 8760(\text{h}) \times 0.8 \times 0.7(\text{Sv Gy}^{-1}) \times 10^{-6} \quad (2)$$

159 The amount of radon available for transport to the surface was calculated using Eq.
160 (3) (Siotis et al., 1984; Ishimori et al., 2013; Taylor - Lange et al., 2014; Sahu et al.,
161 2016):

$$162 \quad J = Q \lambda \rho f L_0 \tanh\left(\frac{d}{L_0}\right) \quad (3)$$

163 where, J is the radon exhalation rate (Bq m⁻² s⁻¹), Q is the radium specific activity (Bq
164 kg⁻¹), λ is the radon decay constant (2.1×10⁻⁶ s⁻¹), ρ is the construction density (assumed
165 to be 2000 kg m⁻³), f is the radon emanation coefficient (0.14) (Ishimori et al., 2013), d
166 and L₀ are the half-thickness of the building material (assumed to be 0.09) and the

167 diffusion length in the concrete (assumed to be 0.2), respectively (Siotis et al., 1984;
168 Taylor - Lange et al., 2014; Sahu et al., 2016).

169 The radon concentration in air is given by Eq. (4) (Siotis et al., 1984; Ishimori et al.,
170 2013; Taylor - Lange et al., 2014; Sahu et al., 2016; Ba et. al. 2020).

$$171 \quad C = \frac{J A}{V \mu} \quad (4)$$

172 where, C is the steady-state indoor radon concentration (Bq m^{-3}); A, V, and μ are the
173 surface area of the concrete floor slab (m^2), house volume (m^3), and the air exchange rate
174 (s^{-1}) (assumed 3600 s), respectively (Siotis et al., 1984). In this study, the CEN room
175 with a dimension of $(4 \times 3 \times 2.5) \text{ m}^3$ (CEN, 2017) was made of the same building
176 material with a thickness of 20 cm and a density of 2350 kg cm^{-3} for all structures (Pepin,
177 2018).

178 The annual effective dose due to radon exposure was calculated using Eq. (5)
179 (ICRP, 2014; ICRP, 2017).

$$180 \quad E_{\text{radon}} = (C \times 0.4 \times K \times H) / (3700 \text{ Bq m}^{-3} \times 170 \text{ h}) \quad (5)$$

181 where E_{radon} is annual effective dose (mSv y^{-1}), C is radon concentration (Bq m^{-3}), K is
182 dose conversion factor from Bq m^{-3} to mSv (10 mSv per working level month for
183 occupational workers), 0.4 is exposure parameter, H is annual occupancy for workers
184 (7000 hours), 170 h is the exposure hours taken for working level month.

185 **Results and discussion**

186 **Activity concentrations**

187 The activity concentrations of naturally occurring radionuclides ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th and ^{40}K
188 in different samples of raw building materials were determined by gamma spectrometer
189 using HPGe detector as shown in Table 1. The results revealed that the average
190 representative ^{226}Ra activity was 48.8 Bq kg^{-1} in the range from 10.1 Bq kg^{-1} for *sand* to
191 254.9 Bq kg^{-1} for *stone*. The average activity of ^{232}Th was found to be 49.8 Bq kg^{-1} in the
192 range from 16.6 Bq kg^{-1} for *soil* to 176.9 Bq kg^{-1} for *stone*. For ^{40}K , the radioactivity
193 ranged from 21.2 Bq kg^{-1} for *soil* to $1240.3 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$ for *stone* with an average activity of
194 569.1 Bq kg^{-1} . The radioactive mineral content in the building materials, as well as the
195 geological, geochemical and geographical origins of the raw materials, could be taken
196 into account for the variation of radioactivity among the building materials (Kobeissi et
197 al., 2013). The average values of ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th and ^{40}K activity in the studied samples were
198 comparable with the world average values in UNSCEAR (50 , 50 and 500 Bq kg^{-1} ,
199 respectively) (UNSCEAR, 1993).

200 On the other hand, for fly ash samples, the average activity concentrations of 77.4
201 Bq kg^{-1} , 91.7 Bq kg^{-1} and 956.2 Bq kg^{-1} for ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th , and ^{40}K were 1.5 , 1.8 and 2.4
202 times higher, respectively than the world average values for building material. High value
203 of concentration in fly ash sample could be considered as a potential radiological risk if
204 fly ash is mixed with a high proportion in building materials. For this reason, an
205 appropriate proportion of fly ash in concrete mixture needs to be calculated. Furthermore,
206 the average activity concentrations of ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th were still lower than the world average
207 activity concentrations (200 Bq kg^{-1} and 200 Bq kg^{-1} , respectively) for fly ash. However,

208 the average activity concentration of ^{40}K was higher two times than the world average of
 209 500 Bq kg^{-1} for fly ash (UNSCEAR, 1982). The variation of radionuclide activity
 210 concentration is explained that radionuclide concentration in fly ash were related to the
 211 radionuclide concentration of the coal, the power station boiler conditions during the coal
 212 combustion and temperature of combustion (Temuujin et al., 2019). The results of
 213 activity concentration were found in good agreement with other studies (Asaduzzaman et
 214 al., 2015).

215 The average activity concentrations of ^{40}K in raw materials observed to be higher
 216 than those of ^{226}Ra and ^{232}Th , the average fraction values are 11.7 and 11.4. The highest
 217 average value of the ^{226}Ra and ^{232}Th activity concentrations were found to be in the fly
 218 ash (77.4 and 91.7 Bq kg^{-1} , respectively). Because, (i) fly ash is produced by coal with
 219 origins from fossilized organisms (mostly plants); (ii) fly ash were enriched due to the
 220 enrichment process of coal-fire power plant (Bhattacharyya et al., 2009). The highest of
 221 ^{40}K was found $1240.3 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$ in stone sample.

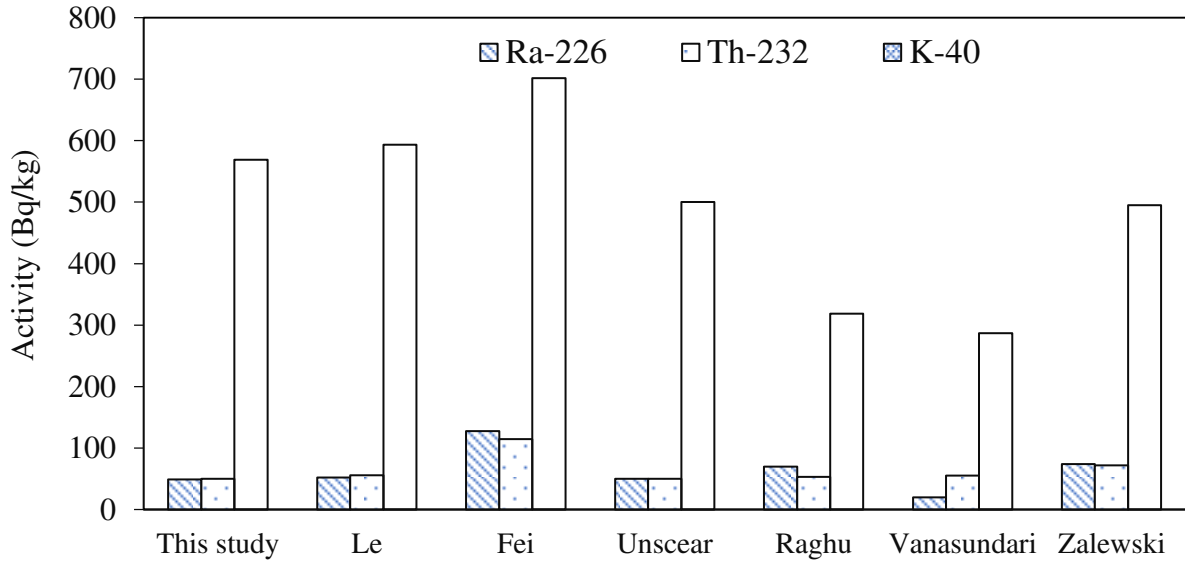
222 **Table 1:** Activity concentrations of natural radionuclides in raw building materials

Source	Samples (N)	Activity (Bq kg^{-1})		
		^{226}Ra	^{232}Th	^{40}K
Fly ash	16	68.2 - 90.6(77.4)	58.1 - 128.5(91.7)	840.2 - 1124.3(956.2)
Soil	39	15.1 - 47.8(22.8)	16.6 - 64.6(28.6)	21.2 - 485.6(208.4)
Cement	10	33.54 - 77.5 (40.1)	26.3 - 36.2 (27.4)	93.6 - 328.9(253.3)

Sand	12	10.5 - 142.5 (46.7)	17.9 - 167.5 (49.9)	65.5 - 902.8 (607.0)
Stone	8	24.6 - 254.9(57.2)	30.1 - 176.9(51.5)	72.2 - 1240.3 (820.6)
Average	-	10.5 - 254.9(48.8)	16.3 - 176.9(49.8)	21.2 - 1240.3 (269.1)

223 Note: The symbol of 68.2 - 90.6 (77.4) means Min - Max (Average).

224 For raw building material samples, the average activity of ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th and ^{40}K
225 radioactivity in this study are in the range of the obtained values from other studies (in
226 see Fig 1) (UNSCEAR, 1993, Le et al.; 2011; Asaduzzaman et al., 2015; Raghu et al.,
227 2017; Tuo et al., 2020). In details, Le et al. (2011) reported the average activity of 213
228 samples of different types of building materials collected in Vietnam market were 52.1,
229 55.7 and 593.5 Bq kg⁻¹ for ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th and ^{40}K , respectively. In the study of
230 Asaduzzaman et al. (2015), ^{226}Ra activity concentration of cement, red sand and fly ash
231 were 60.5, 49.4 and 117.8 Bq kg⁻¹, respectively at Bangladeshi dwellings. The values of
232 ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th and ^{40}K activity concentration were 69.9, 53.2 and 318.6 Bq kg⁻¹ for samples
233 collected in India (Raghu et al., 2017) and 74, 72 and 495 Bq kg⁻¹ for building materials
234 available in NorthEastern Poland (Zalewski et al., 2001); The average activity of raw
235 materials in this research were lower than Tuo et al. (2020) (127.8, 114.8 and 701.5 Bq
236 kg⁻¹, respectively). The differences in activity in research works are due to the differences
237 between the origins and number of investigated raw building materials samples.



238

239 **Fig 1.** Comparison of activity concentrations for raw building materials in different

240 studies.

241 **Indoor annual effective doses for raw building materials**

242 Possible radiological hazards to human health due to radiation exposure from the
 243 raw building material samples were assessed and shown in Table 2. The estimated
 244 gamma absorbed dose rates ranged from 69.2 nGy h⁻¹ for soil to 248.9 nGy h⁻¹ for fly ash
 245 with an average value of 145.5 nGy h⁻¹. The results were found to be similar to the work
 246 of Vanasundari et al. (2012) and Tuo et al. (2020) and 2.5 times higher than the value of
 247 84 nGy h⁻¹ provided by UNSCEAR (2000). Similarly, the indoor annual effective dose
 248 due to gamma exposure from the studied raw building material samples ranged from 0.34
 249 to 1.22 mSv y⁻¹ with an average value of 0.71 mSv y⁻¹. This average value was found to
 250 be higher than 0.41 mSv y⁻¹ for indoor radiation sources of terrestrial radionuclides
 251 evaluated by UNSCEAR (2000).

252 In the case of internal exposure by radon, the results indicated that the radon
253 exhalation rate and radon concentration for all raw building material samples were in the
254 range from 0.7 to 8.0 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ with the average value of 4.2 Bq m⁻² h⁻¹ and from 0.3 to
255 3.2 Bq m⁻³ with the average value of 1.7 Bq m⁻³, respectively. The highest radon
256 concentrations were found in soil and stone samples. Because the radon emanation
257 fraction of soil and stone samples in raw material were higher than the other samples (see
258 Table 3). The radon concentrations were in good agreement with previous studies of
259 Siotis et al. (1984) (1.2 Bq m⁻³) and Taylor - Lange et al. (2014) (1.2 - 5 Bq m⁻³). The
260 radon concentration contributions in the observed samples were lower than the maximum
261 value of 20 Bq m⁻³ for indoor radon from raw building material (Hoffmann, 2018).

262 Table 2 also summarizes the annual radon effective doses for the raw building
263 materials. The dose values varied from 0.01 to 0.14 mSv y⁻¹, with the average value of
264 0.07 mSv y⁻¹. This average value is lower than the worldwide average of 1.15 mSv y⁻¹
265 (UNSCEAR, 2000).

266 Living or working in a room, people will be exposed to gamma, alpha and radon
267 radiation exposure. Therefore, the total annual effective dose (D_{γ} , E_{radon}) needs to be
268 calculated. The results indicated the total annual effective dose for CEN room made of
269 the studied raw building material samples was in the range from 0.69 mSv y⁻¹ (for
270 cement) to 2.21 mSv y⁻¹ (for stone) with an average value of 1.44 mSv y⁻¹.

271

272

Table 2: The average indoor annual effective dose for the raw building materials.

Source	$E_{\text{emanation}}$	D (nGy h ⁻¹)	D_{γ} (mSv y ⁻¹)	J (Bq m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	C (Bq m ⁻³)	E_{radon} (mSv y ⁻¹)
Fly ash	0.03 ^a	248.9	0.31	3.0	1.2	0.05
Soil	0.2 ^b	69.2	0.08	5.8	2.3	0.10
Cement	0.013 ^c	87.4	0.11	0.7	0.3	0.01
Sand	0.059 ^c	146.7	0.18	3.5	1.4	0.06
Stone	0.11 ^c	175.3	0.22	8.0	3.2	0.14
Min	-	69.2	0.08	0.7	0.3	0.01
Max	-	248.9	0.31	8.0	3.2	0.14
Average	-	145.5	0.18	4.2	1.7	0.07

274 ^aBa et al., 2020, ^bKovler et al., 2017; ^c Bossew, 2003.

275 **The indoor annual effective doses for concrete containing fly ash**

276 Fly ash is coal combustion products from coal-fired power plants. It is used often for
 277 building purposes. It may be used to be an addition to concrete or raw component in
 278 cement production. Generally, fly ash in the cement can be used either as cement
 279 replacement or sand replacement with proportion depending on chemical and physical
 280 properties of fly ash. The proportion is from 6% to 55% in the European Union
 281 according to EN197-1:2011 standard (Labrincha et al., 2017). In this study, the high-
 282 quality concrete was used, the composition is 23.1 % cement, 27.4 % sand and 49.5%

283 stone. It was assumed that concrete was made with different combinations of fly ash and
284 other material (% fly ash + % material of the raw building material (cement, sand and
285 stone) = constant)). The percentage of fly ash in the raw building materials was varied
286 from 0 to 20% in this work.

287 Table 3 indicated that the gamma absorbed dose rate ranged from 147.2 (for
288 concrete with 0% fly ash) to 179.5 nGy h⁻¹ (for concrete with 20% fly ash replacement
289 material of cement). When fly ash was added to the concrete sample from 0 to 20%, the
290 average gamma absorbed dose rate increased by 22%. However, the absorbed dose rate
291 was reduced in the concrete samples with fly ash replacement material of sand and
292 stone. Because the radioactivities in the fly ash material were higher than those in the
293 cement and lower than those in the sand and stone samples (see Table 1). Similarly, the
294 average indoor annual effective doses for all types of the studied concrete samples
295 ranged from 0.72 to 0.88 mSv y⁻¹. The maximum value of indoor annual effective doses
296 estimated of all type concrete samples in this study were found to be higher than the
297 recommended limit of 0.3 mSv y⁻¹ for building material but still lower than the dose
298 limit of 1 mSv y⁻¹ (according to EC, 1999).

299 The lowest radon concentration of 2.3 Bq m⁻³ was found for the concrete with 0%
300 fly ash, whereas the maximum value of 19.0 Bq m⁻³ for the concrete sample using 20%
301 fly ash as replacement material of cement increased by 8.2 times. The maximum radon
302 concentration was lower than the maximum indoor radon concentration of 20 Bq m⁻³
303 from raw building material in the study of Hoffmann (2018). In addition, the average

304 annual effective dose by radon exposure for all types of studied concrete samples ranged
 305 from 0.12 to 1.01 mSv y⁻¹ which are lower than the worldwide average value of 1.15
 306 mSv y⁻¹ (UNSCEAR, 2000). The results show that the increase of the annual effective
 307 dose due to radon for concrete mixture containing from 0 to 20% fly ash replacement
 308 material of the raw building material is negligible.

309 The total annual effective dose due to gamma, alpha and radon exposure during
 310 time of living in the CEN room made by these concrete samples ranged from 1.59 to 9.69
 311 mSv y⁻¹. The high value of the total annual effective dose for each mixture is related to
 312 the high percentage of fly ash in the mixture. They depend on type of material which is
 313 replaced by fly ash in concrete mixture as follows: cement > sand > stone. The highest
 314 average of 2.88 mSv y⁻¹ for the concrete containing 20% fly ash as replacement material
 315 of cement increases 12% compared with the average value of 2.56 mSv y⁻¹ for concrete
 316 containing 0% of fly ash. The results showed that the exposure dose from concrete
 317 increased with the addition of fly ash into the sample. Noted that the average annual
 318 effective doses for all types of observed concrete samples were higher than the
 319 worldwide average value of 2.4 mSv y⁻¹ for the natural sources (UNSCEAR, 2000).

320 **Table 3:** The indoor annual effective doses for fly ash containing concrete samples

Fly ash	0.0%	5.0%	10.0%	15.0%	20.0%
Cement	23.1%	18.1%	13.1%	8.1%	3.1%
D (nGy h ⁻¹)	(55.5-399.)147.2	(61.8-408.7)155.2	(68.1-417.5)163	(74.55-426.4)171.4	(80.8-435.3)179.5

$D\gamma$ (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.27-1.96)0.72	(0.30-2.00)0.76	(0.33-2.05)0.80	(0.37-2.09)0.84	(0.40-2.14)0.88
J (Bq m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	(5.8-46.7)12.9	(6.3-46.9)13.3	(6.7-47.1)13.8	(7.2-47.2)14.3	(7.6-47.4)14.8
C (Bq m ⁻³)	(2.3-18.7)5.14	(2.5-18.7)5.33	(2.7-18.8)5.52	(2.9-18.9)5.71	(3.0-19.0)5.90
E_{radon} (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.12-1.00)0.27	(0.13-1.00)0.28	(0.14-1.01)0.29	(0.15-1.01)0.31	(0.16-1.01)0.32
Sand	27.4%	22.4%	17.4%	12.4%	7.4%
D (nGy h ⁻¹)	(55.5-399)147.2	(63.4-398.1)152.3	(71.4-392.5)157.4	(79.4-388.9)162.5	(87.4-385.2)167.6
$D\gamma$ (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.27-1.96)0.72	(0.30-1.94)0.75	(0.34-1.93)0.77	(0.37-1.91)0.80	(0.40-1.89)0.82
J (Bq m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	(5.8-46.7)12.9	(6.6-46.1)13.2	(7.3-45.4)13.6	(8.0-44.7)14.0	(8.7-44.1)14.4
C (Bq m ⁻³)	(2.3-18.7)5.14	(2.3-18.4)5.30	(2.9-18.2)5.45	(3.2-17.9)5.61	(3.5-17.6)5.77
E_{radon} (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.12-1.00)0.27	(0.14-0.98)0.28	(0.16-0.97)0.29	(0.17-0.96)0.30	(0.19-0.94)0.31
Stone	49.5%	44.5%	39.5%	34.5%	29.5%
D (nGy h ⁻¹)	(55.5-399.8)147.2	(62.1-389.1)150.8	(68.7-379.4)154.5	(75.4-367.7)158.2	(82.0-357.0)161.9
$D\gamma$ (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.27-1.96)0.72	(0.30-1.91)0.74	(0.34-1.86)0.76	(0.37-1.80)0.78	(0.40-1.75)0.79
J (Bq m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	(5.8-46.7)12.9	(6.4-44.6)13.1	(6.9-42.3)13.4	(7.5-40.4)13.6	(8.0-38.3)13.9
C (Bq m ⁻³)	(2.3-18.7)5.14	(2.6-17.9)5.24	(2.8-17.0)5.35	(3.0-16.2)5.45	(3.2-15.3)5.55
E_{radon} (mSv y ⁻¹)	(0.12-1.00)0.27	(0.14-0.95)0.28	(0.15-0.91)0.28	(0.16-0.86)0.29	(0.17-0.82)0.30

321 In general, the radioactivity in concrete depends on the composition of the raw
322 building material in concrete products. Some raw building materials used in construction
323 contain high concentrations of ²²⁶Ra, ⁴⁰K and ²³²Th depending on the nature of the
324 material origin and composition. People might be exposed from gamma, radon and alpha
325 rays by living in a room containing high concentration of radionuclides. Not only the

326 annual effective dose for each radiation exposure from gamma, alpha, radon needs to be
327 estimated, but also the total annual effective dose due to summing impacts from them
328 should also be calculated to evaluate accurately radiological impacts to human.

329 **Conclusion**

330 In this study, the average activity concentration of radionuclides were found to be
331 highest in fly ash sample. The radioactivity in fly ash were also higher than the
332 corresponding values of building materials about 1.5, 1.8 and 2.4 times for ^{226}Ra , ^{232}Th
333 and ^{40}K , respectively. Consequently, people could be exposed to the highest absorbed
334 dose rate of 248.9 nGy h^{-1} and indoor annual effective dose of 0.31 mSv^{-1} in a room
335 made from fly ash. However, due to the high radon emanation coefficient of stone, radon
336 is a radiological hazard to people living in a room made from stone. More specifically,
337 the radon exhalation rate, radon concentration, annual effective dose and equivalent
338 effective dose due to radon exposure by stone are the highest among other materials, 8.0
339 $\text{Bq m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, 3.2 Bq m^{-3} , 0.07 mSv y^{-1} and 1.58 mSv y^{-1} , respectively. Hence, appropriate
340 proportion between fly ash and other raw building materials in the concrete mixture need
341 to be evaluated. The results indicated that the indoor annual effective doses were in the
342 range from 0.72 to 0.88 mSv y^{-1} , below the limitation of 1 mSv^{-1} for all combinations of
343 fly ash and other raw materials. However, the total effective doses were slightly higher
344 than the recommended dose of 2.4 mSv^{-1} for natural sources by UNSCEAR, from 2.56 to
345 2.88 mSv^{-1} . Therefore, the utilization of the studied building materials needs to be
346 cautiously monitored in practical circumstances to ensure radiation safety for residents.

347 Close investigations are needed shortly to study the relationship between material
348 structure and radioactivity in raw building material for maintaining high health standards.

349 **Declarations**

350 **Authors Contributions:**

351 Vu Ngoc Ba, Bui Ngoc Thien, Truong Thi Hong Loan designed the ideas for the study,
352 planned for the experiment, derived the models and analysed the data, wrote the
353 manuscript. The others participated for sampling, did a preparation of samples for analysis.
354 All authors provided critical feedback, discussion and helped shape the research, analysis
355 for the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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363 in this paper.

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