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1	Key factors explaining severe air pollution episodes in Hanoi during 2019 winter
2	season
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11	
12	Abstract: With the aim of identifying key factors explaining the severe pollution events that occur under
13	the impact of the Northeast monsoon during the winter period in Hanoi, a two-month campaign was
14	carried out (11 January to 22 March 2019). The local meteorological parameters and the origin of the air
15	masses were investigated, notably using a Doppler Lidar, and the structure of the boundary layer was
16	thoroughly studied using elastic Lidar measurements for the first time in Hanoi. Four heavily polluted
17	events occurred during the campaign, which were associated with hazy days; the highest daily PM _{2.5}
18	concentrations reached ${\sim}130\mu gm^{\text{-}3}$ while the mean concentration during the campaign was
19	$45 \pm 25 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. These severe polluted events in Hanoi were mainly related to LRT coming from China
20	besides local emission or LRT from other polluted regions of Vietnam. BLH proved to be one of the key
21	factors controlling air pollution in Hanoi. Indeed, the elastic Lidar measurements showed that the daily
22	maximum of the hourly BLH varied from 700m to 1200m during cloudy days, while it was always below
23	1000m during hazy days. The lower BLH on the hazy days weakened the vertical mixing and was
24	directly related to an increase in aerosol concentrations at the surface.
25 26	Keywords: Air pollution; Boundary layer; Southeast Asia ; Haze; Lidar; PM _{2.5}

27 Abbreviations:

AQI: Air Quality Index	RH: Relative humidity
BL: Boundary layer	ROCS : Range and overlap corrected signal
BLH: Boundary layer heights	SLIM: Aerosol micro-pulse Lidar
BAM: Beta attenuation monitoring	SEM-EDX: Scanning Electron Microscopy coupled

	what Energy Dispersive II hay analysis			
CBL: Convective boundary layer	SBL: Stable boundary layer			
DBS: Doppler Beam Swinging	T: Temperature			
EPA: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency	TSP: Total Suspended Particles			
GDAS: Global Data Assimilation System	TSV: Total spatial variance			
GM: Gradient method	USE: US Embassy			
HYSPLIT: Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory	VAST: Vietnam Academy of Science and Technology			
LRT: Long-Range Transport LLJ: Low-level jet	VMHA: Vietnam Meteorological and Hydrological Administration			
NAAPS: US Naval Research Laboratory	VC: Ventilation coefficient			
NBL: Neutral boundary layer	WS: Wind speed			
OS : Observation Site	WD: Wind direction			
PM: Particulate matter	WAQI: World Air Quality Index			

with Energy Dispersive X-Ray analysis

28 **1. Introduction**

A high level of particulate matter (PM), especially PM_{2.5} (particles with aerodynamic diameters 29 \leq 2.5µm), has been proven to adversely impact human health and life quality (Kelly and Fussell, 2012; 30 Pope et al., 2020). Moreover, PM_{2.5} has been considered as the main pollutant causing severe air 31 pollution issues in cities in Southeast Asia (Reddington et al., 2019; Janta et al., 2020) including Hanoi 32 (Cohen et al., 2010a, 2010b; Hai and Kim Oanh, 2013; Ly et al., 2020). Hanoi, the capital of Vietnam, 33 has experienced rapid growth and urbanization over the past two decades along with extreme changes 34 in weather such as atmospheric circulation, air temperature and downward solar radiation (Taylor, 35 2010; Nguyen et al., 2019), resulting in a severe increase of pollutants such as PM_{2.5}, NO_x and SO₂. 36

From 2010 to 2013, considering the EPA's Air Quality Index (AQI), the number of days with unhealthy levels for sensitive groups (AQI = 101 - 200) accounted for 40 to 60% of the monitored days at Hanoi, while 102 days and 20 days were associated with very unhealthy (AQI = 201 - 300) and hazardous (AQI \ge 300) levels, respectively (MONRE, 2013). Concerning PM, the diurnal particulate

concentrations fluctuate substantially along the year. Daily variations of fine (PM_{2.5}) and coarse (PM₁₀) 41 particulate matter concentrations in Hanoi varied from 26 to 143 µg m⁻³ and from 37 to 165 µg m⁻³ 42 respectively (Hai and Kim Oanh, 2013). Furthermore, the number of days with levels of PM₁₀ 43 exceeding the specified Vietnam's standard for ambient air quality in 24-h ($\geq 150 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) was 44 approximately 50 days per year (Hien et al., 2011) while PM2.5 concentrations exceeding standard 45 $(\geq 50 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ were also recorded regularly. As a result, air pollution has been identified as one of the 46 major environmental concerns in Hanoi. Northern Vietnam has two main seasons, which include 47 Winter (November - March) and Summer (May - September), and two transitory seasons Spring 48 including (April) and Autumn (October) (MONRE, 2007). Particularly, PM concentrations in Hanoi are 49 lower in summer, when the southeast monsoon directed by tropical maritime air from the Pacific and 50 Indian Oceans delivers hot weather and convective conditions. Conversely, high levels of PM are 51 recorded in winter, when northern Vietnam is affected by the northeast monsoon (Cohen et al., 2010a; 52 Hien et al., 2011; Huy and Kim Oanh, 2017). Moreover, a high-pressure ridge from polar air in Siberia 53 results in the northeast monsoon bringing continental cold air from this area either through inland 54 China (dry period) from November to January or via the Gulf of Tonkin (humid period) from January 55 to March. However, the synoptic motion of air masses is not the only parameter that can explain the 56 pollution levels encountered in Vietnam. A high level of pollutants was noticed in winter in Hanoi for 57 days under haze condition (Ly et al., 2018, 2020), so the humidity can play a notable role in the 58 variation of pollutants. Besides local emissions, long-range transport (LRT) was also considered as a 59 potential source to the high level of PM, especially in winter with a strong impact of the northeast 60 monsoon. Although there was still a debate, a few studies have stated a similar contribution of emission 61 originating from both local and LRT sources in Hanoi (Cohen et al., 2010a; Nguyen et al., 2020). 62

On the other hand, boundary layer heights (BLH) and vertical wind profiles also play an important 63 role in the vertical mixing and transport of pollutants (Stull, 1988). Solar radiation and weather 64 conditions are the main variables affecting the dynamics of the boundary layer (BL). Inland, BL may 65 undergo a typical daily evolution driven by surface heating, but it is also strongly dependent on local 66 meteorology (haze, sea-breeze) and fronts (Stull, 1988). Concerning wind profiles, horizontal and 67 vertical wind speeds can change quickly in time as well as in space, thus, monitoring these profiles lead 68 to improve our understanding of atmospheric dynamics as well as the evolution of the BL. Radiosonde 69 measurements are considered as the most reliable method for retrieving vertical profiles of 70 meteorological parameters as well as BLH. Unfortunately, soundings are usually released into the 71

atmosphere 2 - 3 times per day, so this method is not able to monitor continuously the BLH evolution. Nowadays, Lidar becomes more suitable for analyzing the BL structure and determining BLH due to its high spatio-temporal resolution. However, this method requires greater technical resources and it still has some optical limits especially under cloudy weather. In a few recent decades, Lidar's application in order to analyze the BLH is widely applied in many regions of the world like Europe and Asia (Menut et al., 1999; Delbarre et al., 2005; Dieudonné et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2019). However, similar studies in Southeast Asia, especially in Vietnam are still limited (Hai et al., 2013).

In this study, our goal is to identify the key factors explaining severe pollution events in Hanoi during winter, which is the highest pollution period over the year. The impact of the local meteorological factors and the origin of the air masses will be firstly investigated. In addition, the structure of BL will be thoroughly studied by the Lidar measurements for the first time in Hanoi. The impact of its evolution as well as of atmospheric dynamics on hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations during pollution episodes will be explored.

85 2. Field campaign for a dynamical study of air pollution in Hanoi

86 2.1 Devices, location and availability

The campaign was carried out from 11 January to 22 March 2019 in Hanoi. Three observation sites (OS) located in the urban area were considered (Fig. 1): OS1 located at Vietnam Academy of Science and Technology (VAST) (21° 2' N, 105° 47' E) which is a residential and traffic mixed area including a ring road and several busy roads, OS2 at US embassy (USE) building (21° 1' N, 105° 49' E) and OS3 at Vietnam Meteorological and Hydrological Administration (VMHA) (21° 1' N, 105° 48' E). The surrounding areas of sites OS2 and OS3 are also densely populated and experience busy traffic.

First of all, a Doppler Lidar (Windcube V2 from Leosphere/Vaisala) and a custom-made aerosol 93 micro-pulse Lidar (SLIM) were located at the site OS1 on the rooftop of a 15m high building. In 94 addition, an aerosol sampler was set up next to the Lidar devices. A meteorological station (Davis 95 Instruments, Hayward, CA; model Vantage Pro 2) was placed on the rooftop of a second building (50m 96 above ground level (a.g.l.), around 100m away from the Lidar location) to minimize the impact of high 97 buildings around the site OS1. Next, the site OS2 hosted a PM2.5 analyzer, based on a Beta Attenuation 98 Monitoring (BAM) system, from an international monitoring network of the World Air Quality Index 99 (WAQI) at USE. PM_{2.5} concentrations in Hanoi were retrieved from EPA (https://www.airnow.gov/). 100 Finally, the sounding profiles were extracted from the University of Wyoming website 101 (http://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding.html) and radiosondes are launched routinely from site 102

OS3 by VMHA twice per day, at 07:00 and 19:00 local time (LT) (i.e. 00:00 and 12:00 UTC). This radiosonde generally offers profiles of temperature, pressure, relative humidity, wind speed and direction with a vertical resolution of 5m.

106 2.2 Remote sensing of boundary layer and wind vertical profile

107 2.2.1 Doppler Lidar (Windcube V2)

The Windcube V2 from Leosphere/Vaisala is an eye-safe pulsed Doppler Lidar operating in the 108 infrared (1.543 µm) at low power (7mW laser). It measures the Doppler shift due to the particles 109 motion along the laser beam direction (radial wind speed), which is determined through heterodyne 110 detection followed by fast Fourier transform analysis. The profiles of the three components of the wind 111 are reconstructed using the Doppler Beam Swinging (DBS) technique originally proposed for Doppler 112 radars (Koscielny et al., 1984), here combining four slanted beams (28° from zenith) pointing in the 113 cardinal directions and a vertical beam. The accumulation time is 1s per bream so that a DBS cycle is 114 repeated every 5s; then, wind observations are averaged over 10-min periods. The laser pulse duration 115 and shape allow a 20m vertical resolution while the optics allow a minimal/maximal range of 40/280m 116 a.g.l. During the campaign, this device was set to retrieve the wind every 20m from 60m to 280m a.g.l. 117 (the 40m altitude was not used due to the interference of nearby higher buildings). Besides wind speed 118 (WS) and wind direction (WD) profiles, the vertical wind speed standard deviation (σ_w) was also 119 computed using the Doppler Lidar observations. This quantity provides a direct estimation of the 120 amount of turbulence, thus the vertical mixing state of the BL. 121

122 2.2.2 Aerosol micro-pulse Lidar (SLIM)

The SLIM was deployed during the campaign. It is a custom-made micro-pulse Lidar developed at LATMOS in collaboration with CIMEL that operates at the edge of the visible spectrum (808nm) and at low power (12 mW laser). The device was pointed at the zenith and recorded profiles of elastic signal back-scattered by the atmosphere with a vertical resolution of 15m, averaged over 10-min, then 1-h. The overlap function was determined using the slope method applied to a 3-h average profile recorded in a well-mixed afternoon BL. Then, the BLH was determined by the 1-h average profiles of the Range and Overlap-Corrected Signal (ROCS), noted P(z) with the altitude (z).

In cloud-free conditions, the Lidar signal yields a strong back-scattering from the particles within the BL, then decreases through a transition zone and disperses completely in the free troposphere as backscattering from the molecules is much weaker, especially at 808nm. Thus, the first derivative dP(z)/dzof the ROCS exhibits a strong negative peak at the height which is considered to be the BLH.

This well-known method for BLH determination is the Gradient Method (GM) (Flamant et al., 134 1997; Cohn and Angevine, 2000). The GM is still valid when a thin cloud is capping the BL. Indeed, 135 that type of cloud is included in the BL, and the GM will then detect the strong decrease of signal 136 occurring when the laser beam exits the cloud. When a thick cloud is present just above the BL, it 137 rapidly extinguishes the laser beam, and the GM will return the extinction height, which is located 138 inside the cloud. This will cause a slight overestimation of the BLH because thick clouds are not 139 included in the BL, so the cloud base should be considered instead as BL top. However, this slight 140 overestimation is not a problem when the main point is to follow the BLH variability and its influence 141 over pollution, so a simple and more reliable algorithm was preferred. Table A.1 shows the SLIM data 142 availability during the campaign. Due to technical issues as well as problems with water condensation 143 in the optical head, the retrieval-signals in all the days was not always reliable and even if the data were 144 available, it did not mean that processing them to retrieve the aerosol optical properties was always 145 possible. 146

147 2.3. Aerosol sampling and elemental analysis

Total Suspended Particles (TSP) were collected at site OS1 by total filtration with 1-week period on cellulose filter (Whatman® grade 41) with a flow rate of $1.2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$. The filters were changed every Wednesday at 16:00 LT from 11/01 to 22/03, resulting in 10 TSP samples referenced from S₁ to S₁₀.

One fraction of each filter was dedicated to the analysis of the water soluble NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} by ionic chromatography, using an ICS 5000+ ion chromatograph from Thermo Scientific Dionex equipped with an anionic CS 12A column (2x250 mm). After leaching of the sample in ultrapure water (18.2 M Ω cm) under ultrasonic shaking for 1-h, the obtained aqueous solution was filtered (IC Millex®, Millipore) and analyzed using KOH solution as eluent. Atmospheric concentration of ammonium is then deduced from nitrate and sulfate concentrations considering atmospheric nitric and sulfuric acids as completely neutralized by ammoniac.

The other fraction of each filter was dedicated to SEM-EDX (Scanning Electron Microscopy coupled with Energy Dispersive X-Ray) analysis using a JEOLTM JSM7100F electron microscope, equipped with three ultrathin-window ($30mm^2$) energy-dispersive X-ray detectors (BrukerTM XFlash 6/30). EDX spectra were acquired at an acceleration voltage of 15 kV, a probe current of 200 pA with a time acquisition of 40s. 10 spectra per sample were acquired with large fields ($1600 \times 1100 \ \mu m^2$) and summed to be then considered as one. Then, the elemental ratios of detected elements (Na, Mg, Al, Si, S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, Fe, Zn) were calculated using PhiRoZ quantification procedure from

the Esprit Software (Bruker Nano, Germany). The most significant error in the quantitative analyses is 165 due to the heterogeneity of particle deposition on the surface of the collection substrate. To assess this, 166 relative standard deviations associated with the 10 spectra per sample were calculated. They depend 167 strongly on the element considered, but are less than 10% for major elements and up to 20% for minor 168 elements. Atmospheric concentrations were then computed based on the atmospheric SO₄²⁻ 169 concentrations measured by ionic chromatography and S relative content in PM measured by EDX, 170 considering Al, Si, Ti, Fe and Zn as oxides and Ca as calcite. Though the particulate carbon fraction has 171 not been determined, the sum of these compounds represents a large part of the TSP and is highly 172 correlated with the online PM_{2.5} measurements with BAM (y = 1.22x, $R^2 = 0.83$). 173

174 2.4 HYSPLIT (Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) back-trajectories

The PC Windows-based HYSPLIT model (Stein et al., 2015) was widely used for generating backward trajectories to evaluate potential sources for LRT. The Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) was used as weather input to the HYSPLIT model. 72-h backward trajectories were computed, ending at site OS1 every hour from 11/01 to 22/03/2019. Based on the observation of the radiosonde profiles, four ending altitudes were used: 100m a.g.l. (daytime surface layer or stable layer), 600m a.g.l. (convective layer or residual layer), 1000m a.g.l. (transition layer) and 1500m a.g.l. (free troposphere).

Single backward trajectory estimation by the HYSPLIT model has been considered to be definite, 182 but still maintain some computational uncertainty. For example, 10 to 20% of the travel distance was 183 estimated as the horizontal uncertainty of the trajectory measurements (Draxler and Hess, 1998), while 184 the bias of trajectories originated from wind fields considered to be typically of the order of 20% of the 185 travel distance (Stohl, 1998). However, the accuracy of this model can be improved by using a large 186 number of trajectories in statistical analysis (Cabello et al., 2008). Thus, control measures were applied 187 in our study to improve confidence in the HYSPLIT generated back-trajectories: Firstly, trajectories 188 were computed for four different heights to reduce topographic effects as well as to sample the different 189 dynamic layers. Secondly, an 1h integration time step, which is the shortest possible in HYSPLIT, was 190 used for the cluster analysis. Finally, the statistical analysis with a huge number of trajectories arriving 191 at the study site was performed to reduce the uncertainties of the cluster analysis. In total, almost 1700 192 193 backward trajectories were computed and classified using the clustering analysis of the HYSPLIT software. These trajectories were assigned to clusters depending on their characteristics (speed and 194 direction) using a k-means clustering method, which has been considered as one of the simplest 195

unsupervised learning algorithms. The optimal number of clusters were chosen so as to minimize thetotal spatial variance (TSV).

198 **3. Results and discussion**

199 3.1 Overview of basic meteorological parameters and pollution during the campaign

A summary of the meteorological conditions and their temporal variability for each month is shown 200 in Table 1. January was colder by ~ 3°C compared to February and March. Since the whole campaign 201 was carried out in the humid period, the RH was high. The visibility was at its lowest in January due to 202 frequent fog/haze episodes, and its highest in February. Moreover, monthly-mean PM_{2.5} concentrations 203 were the highest in January, while the lowest concentrations were recorded in February, probably as a 204 result of the decrease of industrial activity and transport during the Lunar New Year (01 - 10/02). Figure 2 205 shows the mean PM_{2.5} levels as a function of the WS and WD, using wind data from the Doppler Lidar at 206 100m a.g.l. as input. This height was chosen to be just above the highest buildings in the area (which 207 have 30 to 35 floors). Besides, the WS from the NE and SE were predominant during the three months, 208 which is typical of the winds observed in winter in Hanoi (Lasko et al., 2018). This figure also explicitly 209 demonstrates that the highest levels of PM_{2.5} were mainly related to weak WS, so probably due to local 210 emissions that are not well dispersed. These local sources seem to be mainly located to the west of site 211 OS1 in January, to the Northeast in February and to the East and Southeast in March. Nevertheless, a 212 finer analysis of the atmospheric dynamics is necessary to draw reliable conclusions on the origin of this 213 pollution. 214

	January	February	March
T (°C)	18.3 ± 2.5	21.9 ± 3.2	21.4 ± 2.8
RH (%)	83.1 ± 6.7	85.2 ± 4.9	85.9 ± 7.2
WS (m s ⁻¹)	3.1 ± 1.2	3.9 ± 0.8	3.5 ± 0.87
Visibility (km)	5.4 ± 2.4	7.1 ± 1.6	6.5 ± 2.1
PM _{2.5} (µg m ⁻³)	56.8 ± 33.2	36.4 ± 14.2	44.4 ± 23.5

215	Fable 1: Statistical	summary (mean \pm	one standard deviation) of meteorological	parameters for each month.
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Figure 3 displays time-series of the daily averages of some basic meteorological factors along with the PM_{2.5} concentrations during the campaign. Figure 3a shows the daily average temperature (T) in a range of 12° C - 26° C. In addition, the weather in this period was under humid conditions with daily relative humidity always higher than 60% (Fig. 3a). This humid condition might facilitate a reinforcement in the level of PM_{2.5} through the formation of secondary aerosols by heterogeneous

reactions and their hygroscopic growth in ambient air (Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994; Marris et al., 222 2012). This is notably demonstrated by an increase of the sulfate to nitrate ratio retrieved from our 223 weekly PM samples as a function of relative humidity (RH) (Fig. A.1). Indeed, the sulfate can be 224 formed in aqueous phase reaction at high RH, while the nitrate is predominantly formed by gas-phase 225 or heterogeneous photo-chemical reaction (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). Figure 3b shows the result of 226 daily-average value of solar radiation (Q) and the daily maximum of the hourly BLH values (max 227 BLH) for each day during the study period. We can observe a relation between these two parameters, 228 but the correlation is very weak ($r^2 = 0.44$) because the weather is often cloudy during the campaign. In 229 conclusion, the solar radiation cannot be a good indicator of the maximum BLH at this period of the 230 year and the BLH need to be measured with a reliable method. Concerning PM_{2.5}, the daily values 231 varied from 9 to 129 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 3f) with an average and standard deviation of 45 ± 25 μ g m⁻³, which 232 are typical values recorded in Hanoi within this period (Hien et al., 2011; Huy and Kim Oanh, 2017). 233 The highest daily level of PM_{2.5} was recorded on 25 January (129 µg m⁻³), while the lowest daily PM_{2.5} 234 concentrations (~ 25 µg m⁻³) were mainly recorded in February. During the campaign, four heavily 235 polluted events characterized by PM_{2.5} higher than 50 µg m⁻³ for more than 48-h were observed (P1 -236 P4 marked by grey areas), based on the specified Vietnam's standard for ambient air quality. Although 237 this is not always the case, the daily variation of PM_{2.5} concentration is generally associated with local 238 WS: high WS are related to low concentrations of PM2.5 and lower WS correspond to the high levels of 239 PM_{2.5} (Fig. 3c and 3f). 240

In order to study the relation between PM concentration and meteorology, weather conditions were 241 classified into four distinct types typically observed in Hanoi from January to March: "clear", "hazy", 242 "foggy" and "cloudy" conditions (Fig. 3f). In this paper, hazy days should satisfy two criteria: a daily 243 visibility \leq 5km and a daily RH \leq 95%. Foggy days were discriminated only by RH \geq 90%. The clear 244 days were selected by a daily visibility ≥ 10 km. The rest of the days were considered as cloudy days. 245 During the campaign, these cloudy days were observed in 41 days, which accounted for ~ 59% of total 246 days, so they were the most frequent type of weather condition. Afterward, the hazy days were the 247 second most common weather type during the campaign which were 20 days and made up for ~ 29% in 248 total. Then foggy and clear days accounted for ~ 11% and ~ 1% respectively. 249

As indicated in Figure 3(f), the daily RH values were very high (~ 90%) on both hazy and foggy days. In fact, one of the parameters distinguishing these two types of day is the PM_{2.5} concentration: The hazy days are characterized by higher daily-average PM_{2.5} concentrations ($75.8 \pm 23.1 \mu g m^{-3}$)

compared to foggy days, for which PM_{2.5} concentrations were $33.4 \pm 9.5 \,\mu g \, m^{-3}$. Moreover, the 4 253 pollution events (P1-P4) are all associated with hazy days. This is explained by the fog's ability to wash 254 out the atmosphere and thus reduce air pollution. In the clear days, which appeared only one day during 255 the campaign, daily PM_{2.5} concentrations were 19.1 µg m⁻³, while PM_{2.5} concentrations in cloudy days 256 were $32.6 \pm 12.6 \,\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The daily-average PM_{2.5} concentrations can be also controlled by WS 257 measured at 100m a.g.l.: clear days are characterized by high daily WS (5.6 m s⁻¹), while hazy days 258 were related to lower WS ($2.5 \pm 0.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). WS on cloudy and foggy days were $4.1 \pm 0.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and 259 3.3 ± 0.6 m s⁻¹, respectively. In conclusion, a strong wind, which is favorable to the dispersion of 260 pollutants, generally induces lower concentrations of pollutants than a weak wind. Figure 3(c) indicates 261 that there was a significant difference between WS recorded at 50m a.g.l. by the weather station and the 262 Doppler Lidar observations at 280m. This could be explained by the complex structure of vertical wind 263 motion and the atmospheric dynamics which are not easy to be fully monitored by meteorological 264 ground-based devices. Thus, in order to clearly understand the role of the atmospheric dynamics on the 265 sudden change of $PM_{2.5}$, the vertical wind speeds need to be studied in further by using the Doppler 266 Lidar, which will be explored with the BLH in section 3.3. 267

The occurrence of cold surges in winter can also be a factor affecting PM_{2.5} concentrations in 268 Hanoi. During our campaign, there were 5 cold surges marked with red triangles on the time axis in 269 Figure 3. The beginning of these cold surges was detected by (1) a significantly daily temperature drop 270 of more than 2°C along with (2) high wind coming from the NE. For example, a first cold surge 271 occurred in Hanoi from 14 to 17 January: the WD shifted from SE to NE (Fig. 3d), with a dramatically 272 increased of the WS and the temperature significantly dropped. After that, the 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th surges 273 were recorded on 21/01, 21/02, 05/03 and 14/03 respectively. Figure 3(f) shows the arrival of a cold 274 surge generally coincides with a sudden drop in PM_{2.5} concentrations, followed by a gradual increase in 275 the following days when the temperature rises again. However, this decrease is not always of the same 276 magnitude, levels of PM2.5 clearly decrease at the arrival of the first two and the last cold surges of the 277 campaign, but not really for the 3rd and the 4th cold surges. Thus, meteorological parameters associated 278 with cold surges cannot predict completely the variability in PM_{2.5} levels. In more general terms, 279 conventional meteorological parameters recorded on the ground such as T, RH, WS and WD influence 280 pollution levels, but they do not seem to be the only determining parameters. It is in fact necessary to 281 take into account other factors to better understand the pollution events, such as the origin of air masses 282 notably described by backward trajectory data or the structure of the boundary layer. 283

284 3.2 Local against Long-Range Transport

The results of the HYSPLIT cluster analysis over the whole campaign are presented on Figure 4 to 285 further analyze the impact of LRT. During the scope of this study, pollution is considered from LRT 286 when the sources are located more than 50km from the OS1. The back-trajectories of air masses 287 arriving at 100m a.g.l. at Hanoi are classified among six clusters (Fig. 4a). For four clusters out of the 288 six (from clusters #1a to #4a), accounting for a total of 75% of time, the air masses arrived in Hanoi by 289 the Southeast while staying at low altitudes (i.e. inside the BL). Evidently, most of these air masses 290 passed through the northeastern coast of Vietnam (i.e. Quang Ninh, Hai Phong, etc.) and Red River 291 Delta (Fig. 1a) which were reported to have high number of pollution sources (Huy and Kim Oanh, 292 2017). Thermal power plants and industrial activities (i.e. mineral products, brick manufacturing and 293 cement factories) are notably significant PM sources located in these areas. Thus, the air quality in 294 several cities in these regions are highly impacted by local emissions, as demonstrated by the increase 295 of Pb-PM₁₀ in Hai Phong under NE monsoon (Chifflet et al., 2018) or PM_{2.5} in Quang Ninh in winter 296 (Hang and Kim Oanh, 2014). In this latter case, PM_{2.5} was composed of organic matter, water soluble 297 inorganic ions (NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻), soot and crustal elements which were essentially attributed to 298 pollution sources such as biomass burning, or to the formation of secondary inorganic aerosols. As a 299 result, these regional sources of pollution can contaminate the air masses arriving in Hanoi and this 300 LRT explains high PM concentrations. In addition, before reaching Vietnam, the air masses for 301 clusters #2 and #4 flew over eastern China where PM2.5 emissions are very high, especially on winter 302 haze days, as observed by many studies (Ding et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The major pollutions 303 transported from these regions include secondary sulfate-rich compounds originating from 304 automobiles, coal-fired power stations and industrial emissions (Cohen et al., 2010b; Hai and Kim 305 Oanh, 2013) and occasionally dust from deserts located a little more to the north (Cohen et al., 2010a). 306 By using the chemical transport model NAAPS (from the US Naval Research Laboratory), the 307 simulated mean of total optical depth over East Asia for the most polluted day of each pollution event 308 (P1-P4) confirms the presence of these polluted areas in China (Figure A.2). 309

The mean PM_{2.5} levels associated with each of these six air mass clusters is highly variable (Fig. 4a). The highest PM_{2.5} concentrations were observed when the back-trajectories ending at 100m belonged to clusters #2a ($59.6 \pm 34.3 \mu g m^{-3}$ in average) and #4a ($48.5 \pm 29.1 \mu g m^{-3}$ in average), as these air masses likely accumulated pollution from eastern China and northeastern Vietnam. This situation represented a total of 36% of time during the campaign. Lower PM_{2.5} concentrations were

observed when the air mass back-trajectories belonged to clusters #1a (38.1 \pm 23.1 μ g m⁻³ in average) 315 and #3a (32.9 \pm 12.4 µg m⁻³ in average) which flew over the sea before reaching in Hanoi, with local 316 and Northeastern Vietnam's emissions predominantly contributing to these levels. This situation 317 represented a total of 40% of time during the campaign. Cluster #5a (21% of time) corresponded to air 318 masses coming at low altitude from the North, i.e. from inland China, an area that is less populated and 319 industrialized than the eastern coast, but still has large sources of pollution (the trajectory points 320 towards the Chongqing and Chengdu large agglomerations), thus leading to an intermediate PM_{2.5} 321 concentrations (41.3 \pm 34.8 μ g m⁻³ in average). Besides the dominated northeastern air masses during 322 this time, the westerly trajectories of cluster #6a rarely occurred (3% of time) and were associated with 323 higher levels of PM_{2.5} concentrations (51.2 \pm 27.6 μ g m⁻³ in average). They flew over Laos and 324 northern Thailand, a forested area in which many burning spots were visible on MODIS thermal 325 anomaly images during the period of the campaign, especially in March (Fig. A.3). The altitude of 326 these trajectories is high, but still compatible with catching emissions from the ground, especially 327 smoke from large forest fires that rises in altitude due to the heat. For the back-trajectories arriving in 328 Hanoi at 600m, 1000m and 1500m a.g.l. (Fig. 4b, c and d respectively), HYSPLIT returned five 329 clusters similar to those found for an arriving height of 100m, only the cluster from inland China 330 (cluster #5a) did not exist for air masses arriving at high altitude (600m and higher). The fraction of the 331 westerly back-trajectories increased with altitude, representing 13% of time in total at 600m a.g.l. 332 (clusters #3b and #4b) against only 3% at 100m a.g.l. (cluster #6a). This point is even more marked at 333 higher altitudes, with 30% and 60% of westerly back-trajectories arriving at 1000m (clusters #3c and 334 #5c) and 1500m a.g.l. (clusters #2d, #4d and #5d), respectively. Conversely, the share of the 335 southeastern back-trajectories was maximal at an arriving height of 600m a.g.l. (87%) and then 336 decreased as the ending altitude increased; it still accounted for 49% of the back-trajectories at 337 1000m a.g.l. but only for 13% at 1500m a.g.l. Thus, there is a stronger impact of the northeast 338 monsoons at the heights of 100m and 600m than other altitudes. In the next parts, the relation of these 339 air masses and the pollution near the ground will be further studied. 340

In order to highlight a possible relationship between the chemical composition of aerosols and potential source areas, the relative chemical composition of the weekly TSP samples and the origin of associated air masses ending at 100m a.g.l. are presented in Figure 5(a) and 5(b). In general, the relative contribution of sea-salt composed from Na and Cl were low (below 5% of total of TSP), although it was slightly higher for samples associated with a strong contribution from marine air

masses (clusters #1a and #3a), i.e. for samples S5, S6 and S8. In the meantime, a high contribution of 346 minerals (Al, Si, Ca and Mg), metals (Fe, Zn) and secondary inorganic aerosols (sulfate, nitrate and 347 ammonium) was observed during all weeks, even for sample S6 for which clean oceanic air masses 348 were predominant. Therefore, these non seasalt aerosols have a local origin in this case, such as the Red 349 River Delta or the northeastern coast of Vietnam. The highest PM2.5 concentrations were observed for 350 weekly samples S2, S3 and S9 associated with air masses dominated by continental clusters #2a, #4a 351 and #5a, while the lowest level of PM2.5 were observed for samples S6 and S8 associated with the 352 domination of marine air masses from clusters #1a and #3a. Furthermore, a comparison of the TSP 353 composition between these samples indicates a similar chemical composition although there was a 354 huge different in TSP concentrations and origins between these weeks. This demonstrates a similarity 355 in the major chemical composition of local particulate emissions and those coming from LRT including 356 from other polluted regions of Vietnam and from China. This can be explained by the presence of the 357 same types of industrial and urban sources in these geographical areas. 358

At last, we focused at the four major pollution events (P1 - P4) in order to understand what are the 359 factors that explain these strong transient increases in PM_{2.5}. During the first episode (P1), Hanoi was 360 dominated by a high-pressure system and below a subsidence region (Fig. A.4a). This subsidence 361 generated a very strong temperature inversion above the BL, and the calm conditions at the surface were 362 favorable to the accumulation of pollutants, leading to widespread haze. The levels of PM_{2.5} started to 363 increase on 18/01, when the WD shifted from strong NE winds to weaker southwest and northwest winds 364 (Fig. 3d) and remained at high level until the arrival of a new cold surge. As expected, this one was 365 associated with an increase in the WS and precipitation on 20/01, which put an end to this pollution 366 event. Next, similar to the P1 event, Hanoi was also dominated by a high-pressure system during the 367 episode P2 from 23 - 28/01 (Fig. A.4b) and the event started when the WD shifted from strong NE winds 368 to weaker SE on 23/01. The daily PM_{2.5} concentrations tended to maintain at high pollution levels until 369 the beginning of the 28/01 with the replacement of a low-pressure system that normally brings wet and 370 windy conditions (Fig. A.4c). Afterward, the third polluted event (P3) occurred on day 26/02 when the 371 WD shifted from strong NE winds to weaker southwest winds along with the increase of PM_{2.5} 372 concentration. On 28/02, the appearance of low pressure system (Fig. A.4d) led to the reinforcement of 373 WS which ended this pollution event. Finally, the last pollution event (P4) was recorded between 11 and 374 14 March. The PM_{2.5} concentrations rose from 11/03 when the WD changed from NE to SE. Similar to 375 the first pollution event, the arrival of a new cold surge on day 14/03 with high WS put a termination to 376

this event. During the first three pollution events, the air masses originating from coastal or inland China 377 overwhelmed at lower heights, i.e. clusters #2a, #4a and #5a at 100m a.g.l. (Fig. 6a) and clusters #1b and 378 #2b at 600m a.g.l. (Fig. 6b). For the last pollution event P4, the appearance of cluster #6a from the West 379 (Fig. 6a) suggest an impact of transported biomass burning emission at elevated altitude. Moreover, the 380 total optical depth from simulated-model NAAPS shows clearly the impact of smoke from biomass 381 burning from the West on day 14/03 (P4 pollution event) (Fig. A2.d). This is consistent with scenarios in 382 which the NE monsoon air masses pass through eastern or inland China, the northeastern regions of 383 Vietnam and arrive in Hanoi, possibly carrying a large number of aerosols and gaseous pollutants. 384 Consequently, LRT from the Northeast includes a combination of essentially two main polluted 385 contributions, from the northeastern coast of Vietnam and from eastern or inland China. In addition, the 386 impact of biomass burning from forest burning and burning activities in Laos and Thailand in March is 387 also observed as mentioned by other studies (Huang et al., 2013; Reid et al., 2013). 388

However, the results shown in figure 6 does not fit with the results in figure 2, according to which 389 steady winds from the NE to SE were associated with very low PM2.5 levels. This means that the local 390 WD measured by the Lidar was not always in agreement with the air mass origin, i.e. to the large-scale 391 WD data used by HYSPLIT to compute the back-trajectories. For instance, the WD on 18/01 and 19/01 392 (Fig. 3d) was southwest and northwest respectively while the direction of the dominant clusters on these 393 days was NE (cluster #5a) and SE (clusters #2a and #4a). This difference could be explained by external 394 local factors such as lake-breeze or topography which lead to a sudden change in the local wind. As a 395 result, models like HYSPLIT are likely more effective than local wind data in studying the LRT. 396

397 3.3 Role of the boundary layer dynamics on PM_{2.5} levels during pollution events

In general, the evolution of the BL during a day can be described as follows: After the sunrise 398 (recorded at 07:00 LT), the convective boundary layer (CBL) grows steadily and often reaches its 399 maximum height from 14:00 to 16:00 LT. Afterward, the sensible solar radiation decreases and the CBL 400 gradually changes into neutral boundary layer (NBL) that has a short-lived state. Around the sunset 401 (recorded at 18:00 LT), the bottom part of the NBL is transformed into stable boundary layer (SBL) 402 driven by weaker and sporadic turbulence under stable conditions (Stull, 1988). However, the BLH 403 development is strongly impeded under haze conditions because a large part of the incoming solar 404 405 radiation is either absorbed or scattered by the fog, by clouds or by the pollution layer, thus reducing the solar flux reaching the surface and leading to increased stability (Quan et al., 2013; Leng et al., 2016). 406

Lower BLH on hazy days weakens the vertical mixing and directly results in the accumulation of aerosol
at the surface, leading to an increase in aerosol concentration.

Figure 3(f) shows that the daily maximum of the hourly BLH ranged from 700m to 1200m during 409 cloudy days, depending on cloud properties (type, thickness and altitude), while it was typically below 410 1000m during hazy days or foggy days. Unfortunately, there are less days with maximum BLH on 411 figure 3(f) than days with data availability in Table S1; this is because it was not always possible to 412 retrieve the BLH due to the low-altitude clouds and precipitation. Furthermore, it is clear that the daily 413 concentration of PM_{2.5} is higher throughout a day when the maximum BLH is lower. For example, during 414 the event P2, a sudden drop of the maximum BLH occurred from day 24 to 25/01, leading to a dramatic 415 increase of daily PM_{2.5} level on day 25/01 (Fig. 3f). Figure 7 shows the time series of BLH measured by 416 the SLIM in Hanoi on 19/01, 24/01, 28/02 and 14/03, which corresponds to the most polluted day of each 417 pollution event (P1-P4). High back-scattering coefficient values were recorded at altitudes lower than the 418 BLH suggesting that the haze pollution was formed and evolved within the BL. Thus, a fine analysis of 419 the relation between the BLH and PM_{2.5} variations will be performed for these four pollution events. 420

421 3.3.1 Pollution event P1: 18 - 20/01

The analysis of the most polluted day of event P1 (19/01) indicates that the CBL grew constantly 422 after sunrise (around 07:00 LT) when the incoming solar radiation increased. The growth rate of the 423 boundary layer was weak ($\leq 50 \text{ m h}^{-1}$) in the morning but increased gradually in midday (~ 80 m h⁻¹) 424 but remained moderate as medium altitude clouds were present above the BL until 16:00 LT (Fig. 8a). 425 The maximum BLH on this day was 660m, observed at 16:00 LT before falling gradually. After the 426 sunset, the SBL maintained at heights around 400m to 450m until the next morning and it remained 427 capped by low-level clouds. Besides BLH, it is important to take into account the ventilation 428 coefficient (VC), an indicator which combines the effects of the vertical and horizontal dispersion of 429 aerosols. VC (m²s⁻¹) is normally defined as the horizontal wind speed integrated over the whole BL 430 depth (Iyer and Raj, 2013; Sujatha et al., 2016); here, it was estimated as the product of hourly BLH 431 and the hourly mean wind speed (WS) at 200m a.g.l. 432

Regarding PM_{2.5}, the concentration was already high (~ 90 μ g m⁻³) at the beginning of the day which could be a consequence of the cumulative process from the day before. Besides, the vertical mixing was weak (Fig. 9a) due to the influence of a high-pressure system associated with low SBL height, enhancing the accumulation of pollutants near the surface. During the first 2 hours of the day, PM_{2.5} concentrations increased to reach 106 μ g m⁻³ at 02:00 LT. Afterward, the concentration of PM_{2.5} fell gradually to 68 μ g m⁻³ between 02:00 and 07:00 LT although there was no significant variation of BLH at that moment. This decrease could be explained by the existence of a weak low-level jet (LLJ) in very stable conditions that was recorded by the Doppler Lidar between 02:00 and 05:0 LT around 180 m altitude (Fig. 9a). The radiosonde profile recorded at 07:00 LT (Fig. A.5a) shows the presence of another weak LLJ (2 - 3 m s⁻¹) located beyond the Doppler Lidar range and just below the SBL top. These jets were able to result in a sudden increase of vertical mixing at lower levels, leading to the dispersion of pollutants near the surface (Mahrt, 2014; Wei et al., 2018).

After the sunrise, the concentration of PM_{2.5} started to rise following the increase of emitting 445 activities, such as vehicles or cooking, during the rush hours, which occurred in a still slowly growing 446 BL. Around 16:00 LT, the PM_{2.5} levels decreased slightly when the BLH reached its maximum height, 447 before rising once again from 18:00 LT. This evening increase in PM is likely due to the combination 448 between the depletion of BL and the second rush hour also starting from 18:00 LT. Interestingly, the 449 PM_{2.5} concentration continued to rise rapidly despite a considerable reduction of vehicle activities and 450 others after the end of rush hour around 20:00 LT. This PM2.5 increase was in fact associated with very 451 weak vertical mixing as indicated by the low VC observed at this time (Fig. 9a), leading to the poor 452 dispersion of particles and the accumulation of PM_{2.5} near the surface. 453

454 3.3.2 Pollution event P2: 23 - 28/01

The analysis of 24/01 shows that the CBL also grew constantly after sunrise, along with the increase of incoming solar radiation in the morning (Fig. 7b). However, the growth rate of the CBL during daytime on 24/01 was faster (~100 m h⁻¹) than that on 19/01. The maximum height was 780m, observed at 15:00 LT. Then, the BLH collapsed suddenly with a higher decay rate compared to day 19/01. At night, this layer maintained at a stable height of approximately 300m from 22:00 LT until the next early morning.

At midnight, the PM_{2.5} concentration was high (~90 μ g m⁻³) then decreased gradually (Fig. 8b) 461 until sunrise (07:00 LT). After that, the concentration of PM_{2.5} increased rapidly and reached a peak at 462 10:00 LT. This could be explained by enhanced transport activities in the first rush hour, associated 463 with the low BL height in the morning. Furthermore, the wind speeds during this period were weak, 464 with values $\leq 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, leading to low values of VC and mixing (Fig. 9b). After 10:00 LT, the PM_{2.5} 465 levels decreased, along with a rapid increase of BLH, which reached its maximum height at 15:00 LT. 466 The increase in VC in this period may be attributed to the fact that both BLH and WS show an 467 ascending trend, enhancing the air quality. From 16:00 LT, the PM_{2.5} concentrations tended to increase 468

slightly once again and reached a peak at 20:00 LT. This trend was again the result of a combination of the decrease of BLH and the second rush hour after the sunset. Afterward, the PM_{2.5} concentration fell gradually but still remained at a high level (~ 70 μ g m⁻³) at night due to the low height of the SBL. Contrary to the 19/01, no LLJ was visible on this day within the SBL, either on the wind Lidar observations (Fig. 9b) or on the radiosondes profiles (at 07:00 and 19:00 LT, Fig. A.5b). In general, this result is consistent with low BLH and WS measured on day 24/01.

475 *3.3.3 Pollution event P3: 26 - 28/02*

Day 28/02 was one of the rare hazy days in February, and this day was also associated with the third pollution event. After sunrise, the height of the BL started to increase with a weak growth rate $(\leq 50 \text{ m h}^{-1})$ from 07:00 to 11:00 LT (Fig. 8c). From 11:00 to 14:00 LT, the BLH increased rapidly and reached its maximum height of 850m at 14:00 LT (more than on 19/01 and 24/01). Then, the BL decayed due to the decrease of the sensible solar radiation in the late afternoon.

Concerning PM_{2.5} concentration, it was high at the beginning of the day (~80 μ g m⁻³) and remained 481 this way until 12:00 LT (Fig. 8c). This phenomenon might be due to the low height of the SBL at night 482 and the slow growth of CBL in the morning, which weakened the mixing (Fig. 9c), leading to the 483 accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$ near the ground. During the campaign, the BLH retrieved from 00:00 to 484 11:00 LT was generally lower than what was observed on 19 and 24 January, as it mainly varied in the 485 range of 300 - 350 m. Afterward, the concentration of PM2.5 started to fall gradually with the 486 simultaneous increase of the BLH, which reached its maximum altitude at 15:00 LT, leading to the 487 increase of vertical mixing near the surface (Fig. 9c). In addition, an increase of VC was also recorded 488 at the moment. More generally, higher values of VC were observed on day 28/02 (Fig. 9c) due to the 489 higher BLH. Then, the concentration of PM_{2.5} declined more rapidly after 16:00 LT (from ~ 77 μ g m⁻³ 490 to less than 35 µg m⁻³) due to the increase of WS under the impact of low-pressure system. Especially, 491 LLJ located just below the SBL top (~ 400m) were recorded at 19:00 LT (Fig. A.5c). Then, these LLJ 492 combined with the wind shear (Fig. 9c) to form intermittent turbulence at lower levels that was 493 recorded by the Doppler Lidar during at night around 200m to 280m a.g.l, enhancing the mixing and 494 increasing the dispersion of PM_{2.5} near the surface. 495

496 3.3.4 Pollution event P4: 11 - 14/03

⁴⁹⁷ Day 14/03 was the last day and the most polluted day during the period P4. Concerning the ⁴⁹⁸ boundary layer, the heights of SBL on this day was commonly higher than these on other cases (with ⁴⁹⁹ heights \geq 500m from 03:00 to 07:00 LT). Furthermore, CBL evolved slowly with a rate \leq 40 m h⁻¹ after the sunrise. And BLH reached the highest altitude at 890m at 14:00 LT (Fig. 8d) before decreasing over time as a normal scenario for the depletion of the CBL in the late afternoon. After 23:00 LT, the BLH could not be retrieved because of the precipitation.

At the beginning of the day, the PM_{2.5} concentration was lower than during the other cases 503 (~ 60 μ g m⁻³) but it was still considered a high concentration. This result is expected considering that 504 this day had the highest value of VC of the four case studies (Fig. 9d). Later on, the PM_{2.5} 505 concentration suddenly increased from 03:00 LT and after two hours, it reached ~ 130 μ g m⁻³ which 506 was twice as much as its value at the beginning of the day (Fig. 8d). The Doppler Lidar shows that a 507 LLJ probably existed from 04:00 to 09:00 LT (Fig. 9d), though the top of the jet was visible only on the 508 radiosonde profile at 07:00 LT (Fig. A.5d). This jet could have carried pollutants from regional sources 509 to Hanoi, leading to the increase of PM2.5. Also, the increased wind shear below the jet reinforced the 510 vertical mixing leading to the irruption of pollutants at the surface. Afterward, the PM_{2.5} concentration 511 went down slightly but it maintained at a high polluted level ($\geq 100 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) until 14:00 LT, as the 512 boundary layer only grew moderately after sunrise. After the BLH reached its maximum height of 513 910m at 14:00 LT, it tended to decrease gradually and the concentration of PM_{2.5} began to increase 514 until 20:00 LT because of the depletion of the BL. Then, the concentration of PM_{2.5} fell suddenly by 515 the arrival of a new cold surge, which resulted in a significant increase in WS. 516

517 3.4 Discussion

The main goal of our study was to identify key factors explaining the pollution events during the 518 winter season in Vietnam, by considering all phenomena that could contribute to air pollution, i.e. local 519 meteorological parameters, vertical wind profiles, BLH, air mass trajectories... At a large geographic 520 scale, our results indicate a significant impact of LRT on air quality during winter 2019, especially 521 during pollution events. The increase of $PM_{2.5}$ during these events corresponds mainly to large scale 522 pollutant transport from the Northeast, under the winter monsoon's impact, which is in agreement with 523 previous studies (Hien et al., 2004; Hai and Kim Oanh, 2013; Ly et al., 2020). In addition, the pollution 524 can sometimes come from high altitude LRT of biomass burning emissions from the West, as observed 525 for the event P4. Nevertheless, the LRT of pollution alone does not explain the temporal variability of 526 PM_{2.5} levels in Hanoi. A complementary analysis of the local atmospheric dynamics is necessary. 527

The impact of meteorological factors (i.e. humidity, temperature) is known to influence the variation of pollutant concentrations at the surface in winter (Hien et al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2020). However, while previous studies only considered WS and WD data from ground observations, the

hourly vertical structure of turbulence and vertical mixing profiles were measured precisely in this 531 study, and they revealed to be determinant parameters governing the hourly variability of PM_{2.5} during 532 pollution events. The vertical mixing measured by Doppler Lidar can vary significantly with the 533 evolution of incoming solar radiation during daytime, while it can be reinforced during nighttime when 534 a LLJ appears. These vertical mixing evolutions could lead to the accumulation or dispersion of PM2.5 535 at the surface, as observed during the four pollution events in winter 2019 (Figure 9). The approach 536 proposed in this study brings a more accurate view for understanding the PM variations under stagnant 537 condition in Hanoi. 538

In addition, the dynamics of PM_{2.5} concentrations in the boundary layer is closely related to the 539 height of this layer (Stull, 1988; Cohn and Angevine, 2000; Boyouk et al., 2010; Altstädter et al., 540 2018). Thus, the study of BLH here provides for the first time a complementary analysis on PM2.5 541 variations during pollution events, while there is still limited information on the BLH evolution in 542 Southeast Asia, particularly in Vietnam. The maximum BLH in Hanoi ranges from 700m to 1200m 543 with values systematically below 1000m during hazy days. Besides, having simultaneous 544 measurements of the wind profile and BLH allows to determine the ventilation coefficient, a synthetic 545 parameter characterizing the pollutant dispersion which is of high interest for air pollution monitoring 546 and assessment. The high hourly PM_{2.5} concentration during hazy days is essentially consistent with the 547 slower growth of BLH and lower ventilation coefficient. Consequently, this analysis suggests that BLH 548 is an essential parameter to understand the mechanism connecting atmospheric dynamic factors and air 549 quality in Hanoi during the winter period. 550

551 **4. Summary**

To identify the factors affecting air pollution, this study analyzed the relationship between multiscale meteorological conditions and pollution events during the winter 2019. The mean PM_{2.5} concentration during the campaign that took place in Hanoi from 11/01 to 22/03/2019 was $45 \pm 25 \ \mu g.m^{-3}$. The highest daily level of PM_{2.5} was recorded on 25/01 (129 $\mu g m^{-3}$), while lower levels of PM_{2.5} were mainly observed in February.

Four severely pollution events were recorded during the campaign, associated with stagnant conditions. The results of HYSPLIT backward trajectories showed that the three first pollution events were mainly related to the occurrence of LRT from China and from the northeast coastal regions of Vietnam. In addition, a mix of two LRT contributions was recorded during the fourth pollution event, that included emissions from the Northeast and biomass burning from the West. However, the chemical composition of TSP was pretty constant over the 10 weeks of sampling, which included both periods associated with LRT aerosols and other periods with only local emissions. This indicates that locally emitted particles had a major chemical composition which was relatively similar to those coming from LRT.

Besides, the aerosol Lidar observations showed a large variability in the daytime BLH according to the different weather conditions: the daily maximum of the hourly BLH varied from 700m up to 1200m during cloudy days, while it was typically below 1000m during hazy days. In hazy days, the height of the boundary layer was compressed and grew slowly within just a few hundred meters due to the strong effect of haze. Because of the lower BLH, the accumulation of pollutants at the surface was reinforced, leading to severe degradations of the air quality in Hanoi.

Our study provides a better understanding of the mechanisms linking meteorological parameters, BLH and air quality during the winter period in Hanoi. The methods and results presented here can be used to further assess the contents, types and controlling factors of atmospheric dynamics on polluted events in Hanoi under different weather conditions and season, or in other cities in South-East Asia.

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FIGURES:



Figure 1: (a) Location of Hanoi, Red River Delta and northeastern coast of Vietnam and (b) three observation sites (VAST - OS1), (USE - OS2) and (VMHA - OS3).



Figure 2: Bivariate polar plots of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at site VAST - OS1 for each month. The radial and tangential axes represent the wind direction and speed in m s⁻¹ at 100m a.g.l.



Figure 3: The daily average (a) air temperature (T) and humidity (RH), (b) Solar radiation (Q) and the daily maximum of the hourly BLH values (max BLH), (c) wind speeds (WS) at 100m, 280m a.g.l. and ground-based, (d) wind direction (WD) at 100m and 280m a.g.l., (e) precipitation and visibility, (f) $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Black triangles on the horizontal axis mark the cold surges. P1 - P4 represent polluted events as grey areas.



Statistical summary of frequency and $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (mean \pm one standard deviation) as a function of clusters of air masses arriving in Hanoi ending at 100m a.g.l.



Figure 5: a) Relative chemical composition of the Total Suspended Particles (TSP) associated to the weekly samples collected at site OS1, along with the corresponding $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations; b) relative contribution of the HYSPLIT clusters for back-trajectories ending at 100m a.g.l. in the ten weekly samples.



Figure 6: Hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations colored as a function of the HYSPLIT cluster attribution for back-trajectories arriving at height of 100m and 600m a.g.l. Threshold (orange line) based on the specified Vietnam's standard for ambient air quality in 24-h (\geq 50 µg m⁻³). S₁ - S₁₀ represent the periods of time of the 10 weekly filter samples.



Figure 7: Time-height cross-sections of SLIM Lidar range-corrected signal (Pr²) and time series of boundary-layer height (BLH) on (a) 19/01, (b) 24/01, (c), 28/02 and (d) 14/03. The BLH retrieved from SLIM (respectively radiosondes) profiles is represented as red circles (respectively black triangles).



Figure 8: Hourly time series of boundary layer height (BLH) from the aerosol lidar and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations on (a) 19/01, (b) 24/01, (c) 28/02 and (d) 14/03.



Figure 9: Time series of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (upper) and time-height cross-sections of horizontal wind speeds (middle) and vertical mixing (below) measured by the Doppler Lidar on (a) 19/01, (b) 24/01, (c) 28/02 and (d) 14/03.

Key factors explaining severe air pollution episodes in Hanoi under the impact of the Northeast winter monsoon

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Graphical abstract