

1 **Referee #2:**

2 This manuscript investigates the regional transmission of Urban Heat Islands via Urban Heat  
3 Advection (UHA) in the Yangtze River Delta, presenting a valuable framework of cross-city thermal  
4 plume superposition. The observational analysis and experimental design are robust. However, there  
5 are space for improvement regarding the quantitative metrics calculation and physically based  
6 discussion of these findings. I recommended a revision. The underlying hypothesis and conceptual  
7 framework are excellent, making this paper a potentially highly impactful contribution to the field  
8 of urban climate.

9 **RESPONSE: We sincerely thank you for the time and effort you devoted to reviewing this**  
10 **manuscript. We are grateful for your very positive feedback on our work. We have carefully**  
11 **considered all the constructive comments and revised the manuscript accordingly. Please find**  
12 **our point-by-point responses below.**

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15 1. Introduction: There are several key points that need to be emphasized and refined. The cities  
16 reviewed in the fourth paragraph are located in maritime (Netherlands, UK) and semi-arid (Texas)  
17 climates, whereas the YRD is a humid subtropical region. The author is encouraged to state whether  
18 there are existing studies conducted in similar climates. In line 80, the term "urban chain" is  
19 mentioned but is not explicitly defined or explained. The same applies to the "different wind  
20 regime." Since the YRD is significantly influenced by land-sea breeze circulation, the interaction  
21 between the sea breeze and UHA is crucial; the authors should provide a review and introduction  
22 regarding this specific phenomenon.

23 **RESPONSE: We thank the reviewer for these constructive points on the Introduction. First,**  
24 **we have added a tropical-monsoon example in the fourth paragraph of the Introduction, as**  
25 **follows:**

26 **Lines 66—70 of the revised manuscript in the introduction:**

27 "The observational findings are corroborated by numerical simulation results; for example,  
28 downwind temperatures can be up to 2.5°C higher than upwind during a Birmingham heatwave  
29 event (Heaviside et al., 2015); and in the Kolkata metropolitan area (tropical monsoon climate),  
30 different underlying surfaces (impermeable or permeable) lead to the downwind air temperature  
31 difference of approximately 0.95°C during the day and 1.62°C at night (Dinda and Chatterjee,  
32 2022)."

33 **Secondly, in the fifth paragraph, we have revised the ambiguous descriptions of " urban**  
34 **chain" and " different wind regime" as follows:**

35 Lines 85—92 of the revised manuscript in the introduction:

36 “Unlike isolated metropolitan areas, the Suzhou-Wuxi-Changzhou (SuXiChang) agglomeration  
37 features a clustered, near-linear alignment of heat sources that aligns with the prevailing monsoon  
38 winds, so downstream cities may experience a progressive, additive accumulation of thermal plumes  
39 from successive upstream cities. To understand the processes of UHA, the UHI can be vertically  
40 delineated into the canopy-layer UHI (CUHI) and the boundary-layer UHI (BUHI) (Oke, 1976).  
41 Using high-density automatic weather station observations and WRF-MLUCM simulations over the  
42 YRD, we investigate how UHA links UHIs across cities within an urban agglomeration. Specifically,  
43 we address: (1) how CUHI and BUHI are coupled along the alignment of urban agglomeration under  
44 different prevailing wind directions;”

45 **Third, we added the review of the effect of sea breezes on UHA in the second paragraph**  
46 **as follows:**

47 Lines 44—46 of the revised manuscript in the introduction:

48 “Furthermore, under weak synoptic forcing, local circulations can also modulate the downwind air  
49 temperature in urban areas. For instance, sea breezes exert a cooling effect in coastal regions while  
50 a warming effect in farther downwind urban areas (Yang et al., 2023).”

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53 2. Section 2.1: Strength: The authors filtered the wind direction for rural stations to effectively avoid  
54 bias in the UHI calculation. However, while "high AHF intensity" is used to define urban stations,  
55 the actual numerical threshold used is missing. Furthermore, while matching rural stations to the  
56 same latitudinal zone is an excellent way to control for incoming solar radiation, the longitude is  
57 equally important in the YRD region because it determines the distance to the ocean. The authors  
58 need to justify that their selection of rural stations does not introduce bias into the UHI calculation  
59 regarding coastal proximity.

60 **RESPONSE: We appreciate the reviewer’s careful attention to the station-classification**  
61 **criteria. First, “high AHF intensity” was defined as an intensity greater than 5 W/m<sup>2</sup> in a four-**  
62 **kilometer buffer zone around the observation station:**

63 Lines 107—108 of the revised manuscript in Section 2.1:

64 “Specifically, urban stations (U1–U10) are characterized by densely built-up areas with high AHF  
65 intensity (> 5 W/m<sup>2</sup> in a four-kilometer buffer zone);”

66 **In fact, matching rural reference stations is inherently challenging for UHA studies in the**  
67 **highly urbanized YRD region. Besides considering the low-density built-up area coverage, low**  
68 **anthropogenic heat flux, and similar latitude and longitude to urban areas around the stations,**

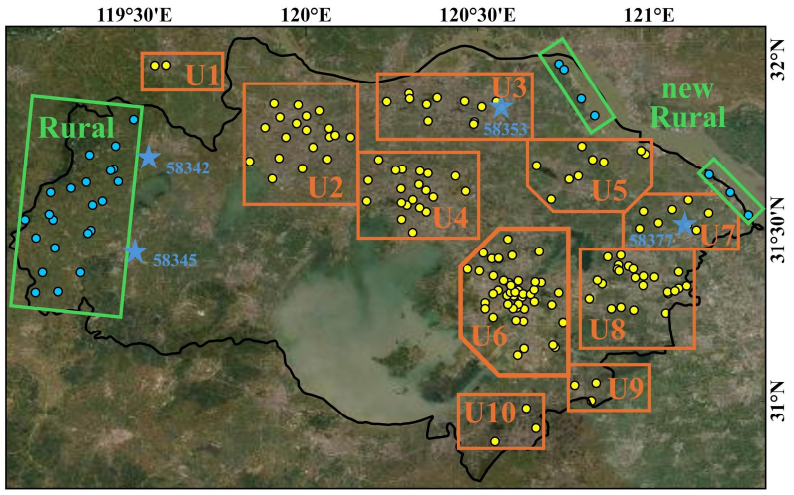
69 it is also necessary to minimize the influence of UHA from single or multiple cities on rural  
70 stations. This is particularly true in coastal areas, where the megacity of Shanghai makes it  
71 difficult to match rural reference stations at different longitudes.

72 If we add seven new rural reference stations in the coastal area in the northeast of the  
73 study region (Figure R1, northeastern region), Figures R2 and R3 show the UHA intensity  
74 under prevailing northwest and southeast wind conditions, respectively. The results show that  
75 updating rural stations in different regions does not change the qualitative analysis results  
76 (e.g., diurnal variation characteristics, upstream cooling effect and downstream warming  
77 effect, UHA gradually increasing along the wind direction), only affecting the quantitative  
78 analysis values (UHA decreases/increases in all regions under northwest/southeast wind  
79 conditions).

80 Accordingly, we have added a statement in Section 2.1 noting that the impact is limited.

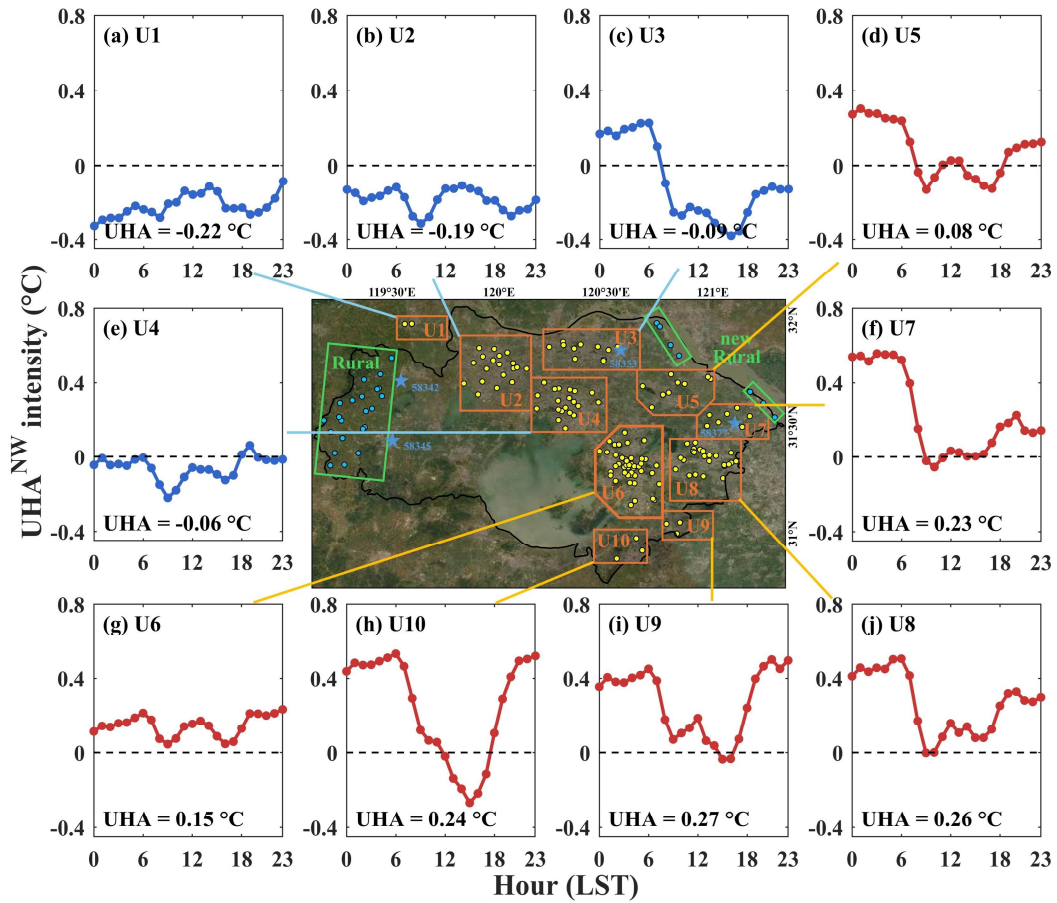
81 Lines 108—111 of the revised manuscript in Section 2.1:  
82 “whereas rural reference stations were matched according to the same latitudinal zone as the urban  
83 areas, featuring low impervious surface coverage and flat topography. Sensitivity tests using  
84 alternative rural reference stations located closer to the coast suggest that the potential bias arising  
85 from the limited longitudinal spread of the rural stations is small.”

86



87  
88 **Figure R1.** Locations of the automated weather stations, where the yellow and blue circles represent  
89 urban and rural stations, respectively, and blue asterisks indicate representative stations of the  
90 regional wind field. Note that the blue circles in the northeast direction represent the newly added  
91 rural stations.

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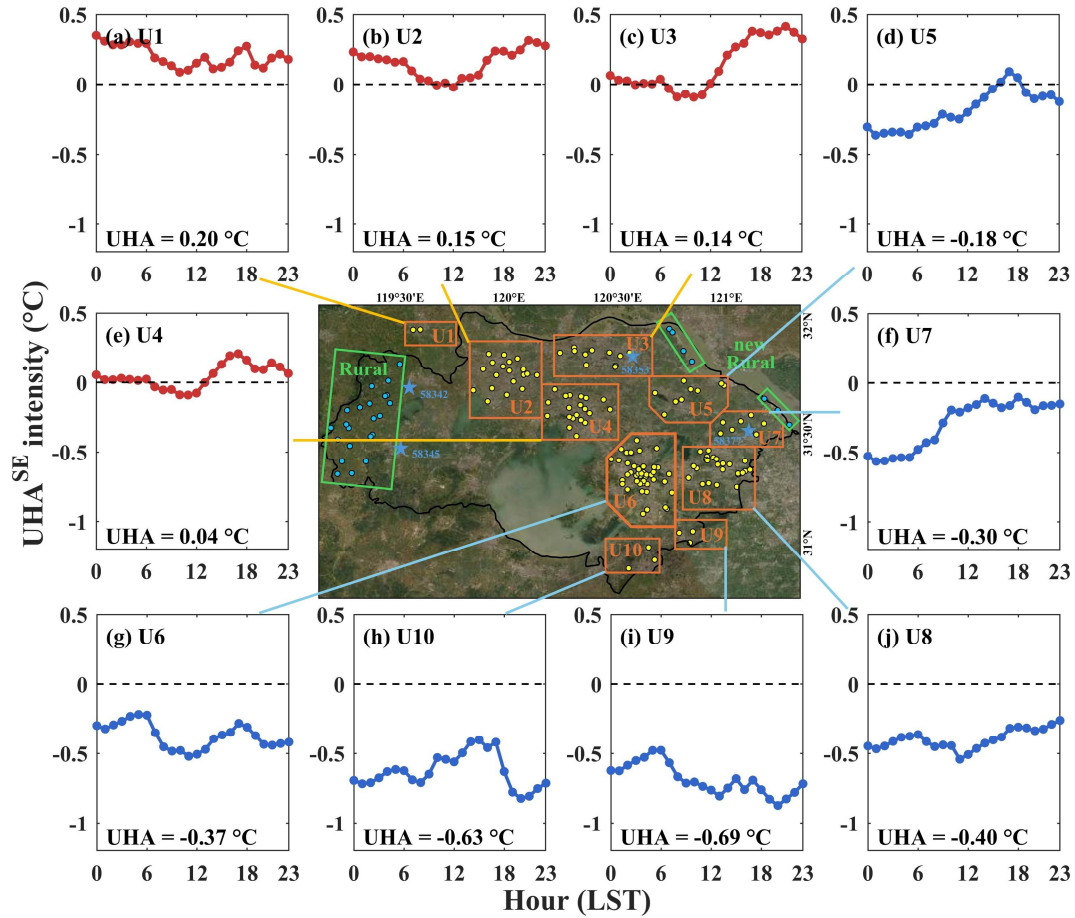
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**Figure R2.** Diurnal variation of hourly UHA intensity across different regions under northwest wind conditions. The numerical values indicate the daily-averaged UHA intensity for each region. Line colours represent the sign of the daily-averaged UHA intensity: red indicates positive values, while blue indicates negative values.

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100 **Figure R3.** Same as Figure R2, but under southeast wind conditions.

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103 3. Section 2.2.2, the definition of UHA intensity is effective because it isolates the background UHI  
 104 by calculating a seasonal average across all wind directions. However, this remains a statistical  
 105 definition rather than a thermodynamic one. Since the authors utilized the WRF model, which  
 106 explicitly solves the thermodynamic equations, they are encouraged to compare this statistical proxy  
 107 against the physical advection derived from the WRF simulations.

108 **RESPONSE:** We are grateful for this suggestion to compare the statistical index against the  
 109 model advection term. We have compared the UHA intensity with the horizontal temperature  
 110 advection term based on the WRF model as follows:

111 Lines 183—186 of the revised manuscript in Section 2.2.3:

112 “In addition, the horizontal temperature advection term in the thermodynamic energy equation was  
 113 calculated as follows:

$$114 A_T = -(U \frac{dT}{dx} + V \frac{dT}{dy}), \quad (4)$$

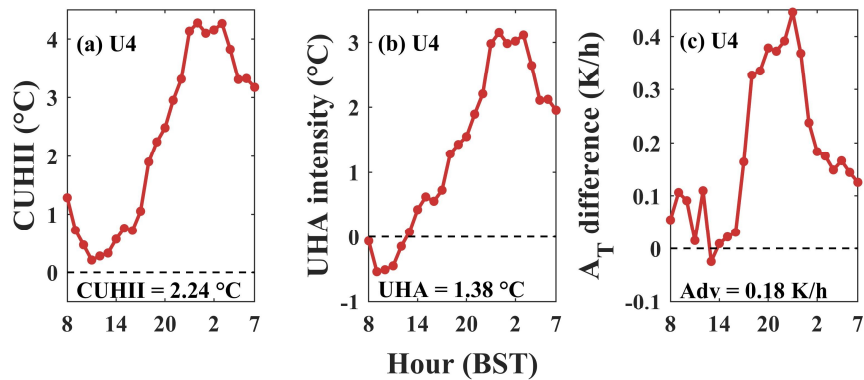
115 where  $U$  and  $V$  are the horizontal wind components, and  $T$  is the air temperature. All variables were

116 taken from the lowest atmospheric layer of the model.”

117 **Based on comment 9, SLUCM systematically overestimates the wind speed in the near-**  
118 **surface layer (Yu et al., 2021). In order to reduce simulation errors in wind speed, SLUCM**  
119 **has been replaced with MLUCM (BEP+BEM, coupling a global 1 km spatially continuous**  
120 **urban canopy parameter for the WRF model), and the PBL scheme was changed from YSU**  
121 **to MYJ to meet the requirements of BEM. Please see comment 9 for details.**

122 Lines 339—351 of the revised manuscript in Section 3.3:

123 “The observation-based UHA intensity was compared with the WRF-simulated horizontal  
124 temperature advection. Taking Wuxi (U4), which lies downwind of Changzhou (U2) under the  
125 prevailing northwest wind direction, as an example, the observed daily mean CUHII during the  
126 simulation period was 2.24 °C (Fig. 9a). The UHA intensity was negative after sunrise, turned  
127 positive around midday, and continued to intensify, reaching a maximum of 3.15 °C at night before  
128 declining toward the following morning (Fig. 9b). The daily mean UHA intensity was 1.38 °C,  
129 indicating that UHA enhances CUHII under the prevailing wind direction. Fig. 9c shows the  
130 difference in horizontal temperature advection between the control and sensitivity experiments  
131 (CTRL minus EXP). This difference also exhibited a broadly similar pattern with higher values at  
132 night and lower values during the day, with a nighttime peak of approximately 0.45 K/h and a daily  
133 mean of 0.18 K/h (Fig. 9c). Overall, the UHA intensity and the horizontal temperature advection  
134 showed similar diurnal variations.”



135

136 **Figure 9.** Diurnal variation of hourly (a) CUHII, (b) UHA intensity, and (c) horizontal temperature  
137 advection difference between the control simulation and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus  
138 EXP) over Wuxi (U4) during the simulation period. Annotated values indicate the respective daily  
139 means.

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142 4. Section 2.2.4, In Equations (6) and (7), the authors calculated the mean boundary layer potential

143 temperature as an arithmetic mean. However, the WRF simulation adopts non-uniform sigma levels,  
 144 where vertical levels are more densely packed near the surface. For example, there may be 10 levels  
 145 within the bottom 200 m and only 4 levels in the upper 800 m. In this case, an arithmetic mean will  
 146 be skewed toward the surface. The authors should instead utilize a thickness-weighted or mass-  
 147 weighted average to ensure an accurate representation of the boundary layer.

148 **RESPONSE: We thank the reviewer for raising the issue of vertical averaging across non-**  
 149 **uniform levels. We have revised this issue by using the thickness-weighted average to ensure**  
 150 **an accurate representation of the boundary layer.**

151 Lines 191—202 of the revised manuscript in Section 2.2.4:

$$152 \quad BUHII_i(t) = \langle \theta_i \rangle_{\text{PBL}} - \langle \theta_r \rangle_{\text{PBL}}, \quad (6)$$

153 where  $\langle \theta_i \rangle_{\text{PBL}}$  and  $\langle \theta_r \rangle_{\text{PBL}}$  represent the **thickness-weighted** mean potential temperature within  
 154 the boundary layer over urban and rural areas, respectively. Taking the urban area as an example:

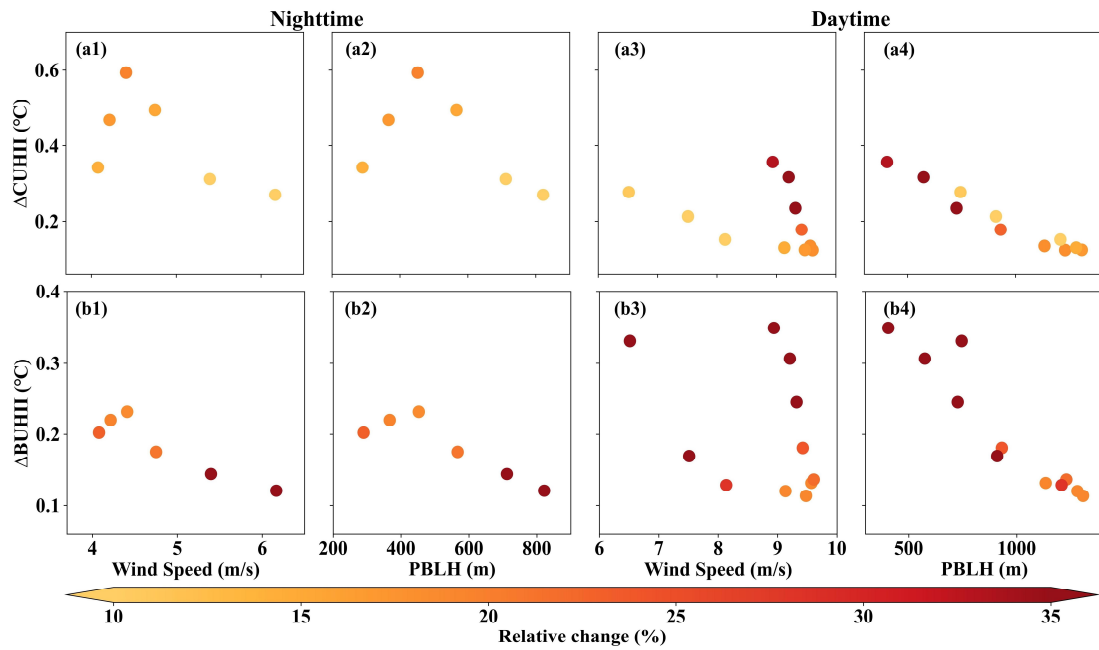
$$155 \quad \langle \theta_i \rangle_{\text{PBL}} = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_{j=1}^{N_i} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K_{i,j}} \theta_{i,j,k}(t) \Delta z_{i,j,k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{K_{i,j}} \Delta z_{i,j,k}}, \quad (7)$$

$$156 \quad \Delta z_{i,j,k} = zstag_{i,j}(k+1) - zstag_{i,j}(k), \quad (8)$$

157 where  $N_i$  is the number of grid points in the urban region  $i$ ; for a given grid point  $j$ ,  $K_{i,j}$  denotes  
 158 the number of vertical layers from the lowest model level to the PBLH (output by the model);  
 159 and  $\theta_{i,j,k}(t)$  is the potential temperature at time  $t$  at the  $k$ -th layer of grid point  $j$ .  $\Delta z_{i,j,k}$  denotes  
 160 the **physical thickness** of the  $k$ -th vertical layer, and  $zstag$  denotes the height of vertically  
 161 **staggered grid**. The calculation method for the rural area  $\langle \theta_r \rangle_{\text{PBL}}$  is similar:

$$162 \quad \langle \theta_r \rangle_{\text{PBL}} = \frac{1}{N_r} \sum_{j=1}^{N_r} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K_{r,j}} \theta_{r,j,k}(t) \Delta z_{r,j,k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{K_{r,j}} \Delta z_{r,j,k}}, \quad (9)$$

163 **The result of SLUCM is as follows:**



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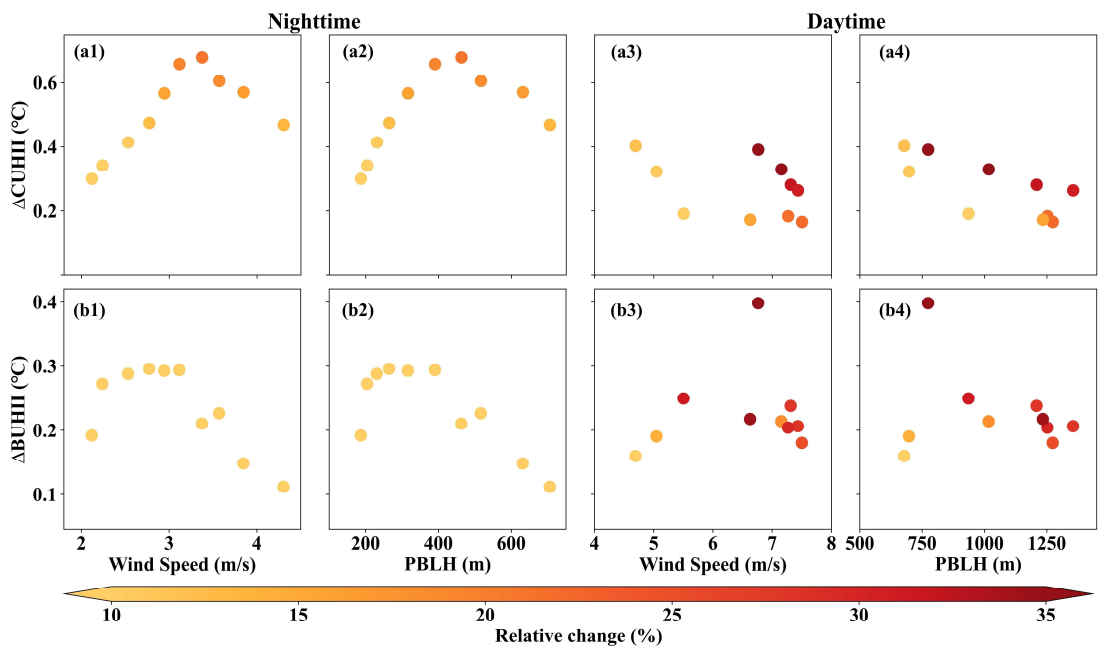
165 **Figure R4.** Scatter plots between  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  and (a1, a3) 10-meter wind speed, and (a2, a4) PBLH  
 166 between the control simulation and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus EXP) at (a1-a2)  
 167 nighttime and (a3-a4) daytime. (b1-b4) Same as (a1-a4), but for  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$ . Colours represent the  
 168 relative change of CUHII or BUHII. Note that only the moment when the northwest wind prevailed  
 169 in the ROI was reserved.

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171 **The result of MLUCM (BEP+BEM) in section 3.3 is as follows:**

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Lines 425—430 of the revised manuscript in Section 3.3:



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174 **Figure 12.** Scatter plots between  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  and (a1, a3) 10-meter wind speed, and (a2, a4) PBLH  
 175 between the control simulation and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus EXP) over Wuxi (U4)

176 at (a1-a2) nighttime and (a3-a4) daytime. (b1-b4) Same as (a1-a4), but for  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$ . Colours  
177 represent the relative change of CUHII or BUHII. Note that only the moment when the northwest  
178 wind prevailed in the ROI was reserved.

179

180 **For  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$ , the results obtained from the two schemes are consistent, and they are**  
181 **consistent with the conclusions from observation. For  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$ , the absolute magnitude is**  
182 **comparable between SLUCM (YSU) and BEP+BEM (MYJ), but the response to daytime wind**  
183 **speed and PBLH differs between the two schemes. Due to the lack of temperature observation**  
184 **data above the PBL, this study focuses on the magnitude of  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$  variation and does not**  
185 **explore its relationship with wind speed and PBLH. Furthermore, we have added a discussion**  
186 **about the uncertainties of  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$  in the results due to different schemes of PBL and urban**  
187 **models.**

188 Lines 406—440 of the revised manuscript in Section 3.3:

189 “The CUHII differences of the downstream adjacent city Wuxi (U4) were evaluated between  
190 two experimental scenarios. Figures 12a show scatter plots of  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  and both wind speed and  
191 PBLH across different hours. Nighttime conditions exhibited a higher  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  (with a maximum  
192 increase of  $0.68^\circ\text{C}$ ), accompanied by lower wind speed and shallower PBLH (Fig. 12a1–a2); while  
193 daytime conditions showed a comparatively lower  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  (with a minimum increase of  $0.17^\circ\text{C}$ ),  
194 accompanied by higher wind speed and deeper PBLH (Fig. 12a3–a4). The relative increase in  
195 CUHII ranged from 8.1% to 60.4%, with the large proportional amplifications occurring during the  
196 daytime period. Specifically, the average difference between nighttime and daytime is  $0.51^\circ\text{C}$   
197 ( $14.2\%$ ) and  $0.27^\circ\text{C}$  ( $18.9\%$ ), respectively. At night,  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  exhibited a non-linear response to  
198 increases in wind speed and PBLH, characterized by an initial amplification followed by a decrease  
199 (Fig. 12a1–a2). In contrast, daytime  $\Delta\text{CUHII}$  decreased with increasing PBLH, while its correlation  
200 with wind speed remained ambiguous (Fig. 12a3–a4). In summary, these sensitivity experiments  
201 provide corroborations for the observational findings, confirming that UHA is regulated by wind  
202 speed and PBLH non-linearly.

203 UHA also contributed to an increase in BUHII in the downstream city of Wuxi (U4, Fig. 12b1–  
204 b4). Specifically,  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$  increased by a maximum of  $0.40^\circ\text{C}$  and a minimum of  $0.11^\circ\text{C}$ , ranging  
205 from 4.7% to 41.7%. The average difference between nighttime and daytime is  $0.23^\circ\text{C}$  ( $7.5\%$ ) and  
206  $0.23^\circ\text{C}$  ( $23.3\%$ ), respectively. It should be noted that uncertainties remain in BUHII due to the  
207 schemes of PBL and urban canopy (Zhu and Ooka, 2023). In a supplementary sensitivity test  
208 utilizing the YSU PBL scheme (Hong et al., 2006) coupled with the SLUCM urban scheme (Fig.  
209 S6), while the absolute change in  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$  remains comparable in magnitude, the relative change of

210  $\Delta$ BUHII is larger, and its variation characteristics in response to wind speed and PBLH remain  
211 uncertain. Because the numerical simulation covered a limited time period, the potential moderating  
212 roles of wind speed and PBLH on BUHI were not further examined.”

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214

215 5. Line 220: The main distinction between SE and NW winds in the YRD region is that the SE flow  
216 originates from the East China Sea. As a marine boundary layer air mass, it naturally exerts a  
217 substantial upwind cooling effect; nonetheless, the SE wind still results in a positive downwind  
218 effect of up to 0.09°C. Furthermore, the urban thermal plumes in summer and winter are driven by  
219 different factors. In the summer, the plume is primarily driven by solar heating and the sensible heat  
220 flux from engineering materials. In contrast, during the winter, it is largely driven by anthropogenic  
221 heat flux (e.g., building heating, vehicle waste heat). I expect more detailed elaboration and  
222 discussion on these seasonal drivers in this section. The day–night asymmetry is also a highlight of  
223 the study. Is this phenomenon related to the lake breeze from Taihu Lake, or is it dominated by the  
224 solar diurnal cycle?

225 **RESPONSE: We appreciate these insightful comments on the seasonal and diurnal drivers of**  
226 **the plume. First, we added that the main reason why the UHA intensity is lower under**  
227 **southeast winds than under northwest winds.**

228 Lines 256—258 in Section 3.1: “Northwest winds mainly exacerbate the CUHI across most regions  
229 of the study area, whereas southeast winds exert a more extensive mitigating influence due to the  
230 cooling effect of sea breezes (Yang et al., 2023)”

231 **Secondly, discussion has been supplemented regarding the seasonal drivers between**  
232 **summer and winter.**

233 Lines 212—216 in Section 3.1: “During summer (June–August), southeast flows prevail under the  
234 influence of the Western Pacific subtropical high (Shi et al., 2025; Zong et al., 2021), and the urban  
235 thermal plumes are primarily driven by solar heating and the sensible heat flux from engineering  
236 materials. Conversely, the frequency of northwest winds increases relatively in winter (December–  
237 February), driven by the continental Siberian high (Dai et al., 2025), and anthropogenic heat flux is  
238 a key driver of thermal plumes (Varentsov et al., 2018).”

239 **In addition, diurnal asymmetry is primarily driven by the solar diurnal cycle. The**  
240 **phenomenon of night-stronger UHA is consistent with the report by Dinda and Chatterjee**  
241 **(2022). Our results further add that boundary-layer development modulates the asymmetry:**  
242 **during the day, the weaker CUHII and the deep, well-mixed PBL together dilute the urban**  
243 **heat plume vertically, weakening UHA; at night, a stronger CUHII coexists with a shallow,**

244 **often inversion-capped PBL, which confines heat transport to downstream within a very low**  
245 **altitude and limits vertical dilution. In addition, Taihu Lake further amplifies the contrast by**  
246 **acting as a daytime heat sink and a nighttime heat source.**

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249 6. Line 240: The relationship between WS (wind speed) and PBLH (planetary boundary layer height)  
250 during the nighttime is one of causality rather than simple correlation. At night, in the absence of  
251 solar radiation, the boundary layer is primarily driven by mechanical shear, which is fundamentally  
252 determined by wind speed. Therefore, applying a Pearson correlation in this context is inappropriate.  
253 However, the conclusion regarding the nonlinear modulation of UHA intensity by WS and PBLH  
254 remains sound. The authors should reframe this paragraph to reflect the underlying physical  
255 mechanisms rather than relying solely on statistical metrics.

256 **RESPONSE: Thanks for your constructive suggestion. We have revised the manuscript with**  
257 **more rigorous wording and have avoided applying Pearson correlation in Section 3.2 and**  
258 **Section 3.3.**

259 **Lines 274—293 in Section 3.2:**

260 “In a stable boundary layer (SBL), the advection term often dominates the surface heat budget (Stull,  
261 1988). Figure 6 presents the nocturnal UHA intensity as a function of wind speed and PBLH across  
262 different regions. For the downstream region with a positive mean UHA (red line in Fig. 6), UHA  
263 intensity generally increases and then decreases with increasing wind speed and PBLH. **At night, in**  
264 **the absence of solar-driven buoyancy flux, mechanical shear generated by wind is the primary**  
265 **source of turbulent kinetic energy (Stull, 1988), and strong shear forces are beneficial to the**  
266 **development of deep SBL (Zilitinkevich et al., 2002).** The variation in UHA appears closely linked  
267 to boundary layer processes. In a very stable boundary layer, characterized by weak winds, low  
268 PBLH, intermittent and weak turbulence (Sun et al., 2012; Xue et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2024b),  
269 **horizontal heat transport is suppressed and vertical mixing is negligible, limiting the efficiency of**  
270 **UHA transfer.** As wind speed and PBLH increase, horizontal advection and turbulence (driven by  
271 mechanical shear) strengthen (Mahrt, 2014), and UHA intensity reaches its peak (e.g., in region U7,  
272 the mean UHA intensity can reach 0.88°C in the wind speed range of 2–3 m s<sup>-1</sup>, see Fig. 6g1). This  
273 phenomenon is consistent with observations in Birmingham and Lubbock (Bassett et al., 2016;  
274 Danzig et al., 2025). Consequently, the peak impact of nocturnal UHA typically occurs under  
275 moderate wind speed conditions, and this pattern may be universal across cities with different  
276 climatic backgrounds. When wind speed further increases, and the stable boundary layer transitions  
277 to a neutral boundary layer, vertical turbulent exchange intensifies, promoting vertical dilution of

278 urban heat, leading to a decrease in UHA, which may even produce negative values in some regions  
279 (e.g., U3–U6; Fig. 6c–f). Furthermore, for upstream regions with negative mean UHA (e.g., U1),  
280 UHA intensity decreases with increasing wind speed and PBLH, demonstrating the mitigating effect  
281 of ventilation on CUHI. In summary, nocturnal UHA intensity is nonlinearly modulated by wind  
282 speed and boundary layer turbulence, with maximum UHA typically occurring under moderate wind  
283 and PBLH conditions.”

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286 7. Line 280: The experimental design is excellent and effectively isolates the impact of removing  
287 upwind heat sources. However, converting urban areas into croplands involves more than just  
288 "turning off" anthropogenic and sensible heat; it also significantly alters the surface morphology, as  
289 cities have a high aerodynamic roughness length ( $z_0$ ). Consequently, the authors should interpret  
290 these results with caution. It remains unclear whether the observed temperature drop is primarily  
291 due to the reduction in urban heat or the increased ventilation resulting from higher wind speeds  
292 over a smoother surface.

293 **RESPONSE: We are grateful for this insightful comment on the thermal-versus-dynamic**  
294 **interpretation of the experiment. For sensitivity experiments, we agree that the observed**  
295 **temperature changes are the combined result of a reduction in the upwind heat source**  
296 **(thermal effect) and enhanced ventilation due to a smoother surface (dynamic effect). This**  
297 **distinction is crucial for a rigorous interpretation of the model outputs. We have added a**  
298 **discussion in the revised manuscript to explicitly acknowledge that the temperature anomaly**  
299 **encompasses both the thermal and dynamic modifications inherent to urbanization, rather**  
300 **than just thermodynamic changes.**

301 Lines 353–361 in Section 3.3: “Figure 10 illustrates the spatial distribution of the 2-meter  
302 temperature difference between the control and sensitivity simulations (CTRL minus EXP),  
303 approximately representing the thermal and dynamic contributions of upstream urbanization in  
304 Changzhou to the downstream canopy temperature. During the analysis hours, northwest winds  
305 prevailed in domain 3. Influenced by the UHI, Changzhou exhibited a pronounced warming, with  
306 positive temperature anomalies of 3.58 °C and 0.42 °C at 22:00 BST and 15:00 BST, respectively.  
307 This phenomenon arises from the coupled interplay of thermal and dynamic processes. Thermally,  
308 urban materials and anthropogenic heat emissions drive a substantial increase in sensible heat flux.  
309 Dynamically, the elevated aerodynamic roughness length of the urban canopy suppresses near-  
310 surface wind speeds and ventilation (Oke et al., 2017). Both factors together modulate the local  
311 positive temperature anomaly and determine its subsequent advection propagation to downstream

312 regions.”

313       **The objective of this sensitivity experiment is to quantify the net thermal influence of**  
314 **upstream urbanization on downstream cities, which inherently encompasses both thermal and**  
315 **dynamic contributions. The observed downstream temperature anomaly is the integrated**  
316 **outcome of urbanization as a whole, and its spatial propagation is what this study aims to**  
317 **characterize. Disentangling the relative contributions of thermal versus dynamic effects would**  
318 **require additional targeted experiments (e.g., modifying roughness alone while holding heat**  
319 **factors constant, or vice versa), which represents an important direction for future work but**  
320 **lies beyond the scope of the present study.**

321

322

323 8. Figure 10: This result is intriguing; however, it confirms my concerns regarding the unweighted  
324 average potential temperature mentioned in Section 2.2.4. Since the wind vectors are more densely  
325 sampled near the ground, the arithmetic mean effectively oversamples the surface compared to the  
326 upper boundary layer. This bias may render the reported  $\Delta\text{BUHII}$  unreliable.

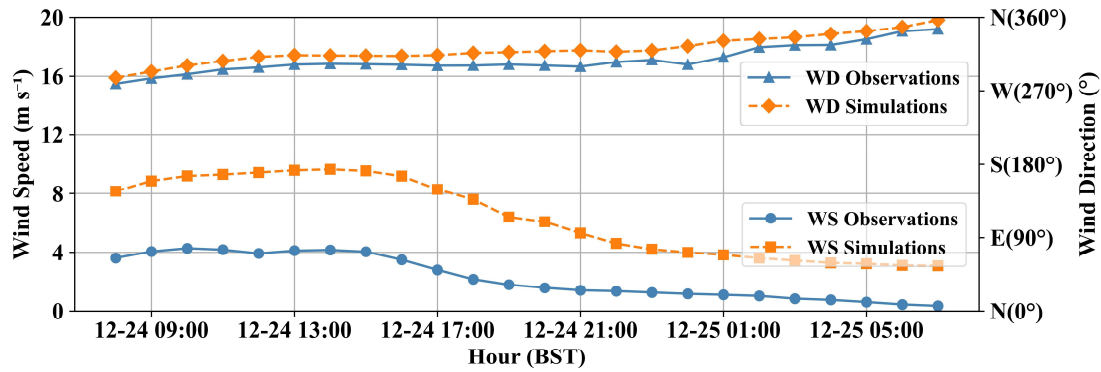
327 **RESPONSE: We thank the reviewer for this follow-up point. We have revised this issue by**  
328 **using the thickness-weighted average to ensure an accurate representation of the boundary**  
329 **layer as stated in RESPONSE 4 above.**

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332 9. Figure 8, since the heat advection is also a dynamic process ( $-\mathbf{v}\cdot\nabla T$ ), there should also have a  
333 validation for wind.

334 **RESPONSE: We appreciate the reviewer’s suggestion to validate the simulated wind field. We**  
335 **further validated the simulated wind speed and direction (Fig. R5). The RMSE for wind**  
336 **direction was  $35.86^\circ$ , which reasonably reproduced the wind direction. The RMSE for wind**  
337 **speed was  $4.68 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $R = 0.64$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), which is due to the SLUCM systematically**  
338 **overestimating near-surface wind speed (Avisar et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021).**  
339 **Accordingly, we replaced SLUCM with the MLUCM (BEP+BEM) scheme, drove the urban**  
340 **morphology with the 1 km GloUCP dataset (Liao et al., 2025), and switched the PBL scheme**  
341 **from YSU to MYJ as required by BEM. The wind-speed bias is markedly reduced in the new**  
342 **configuration (Fig. 8).**



343

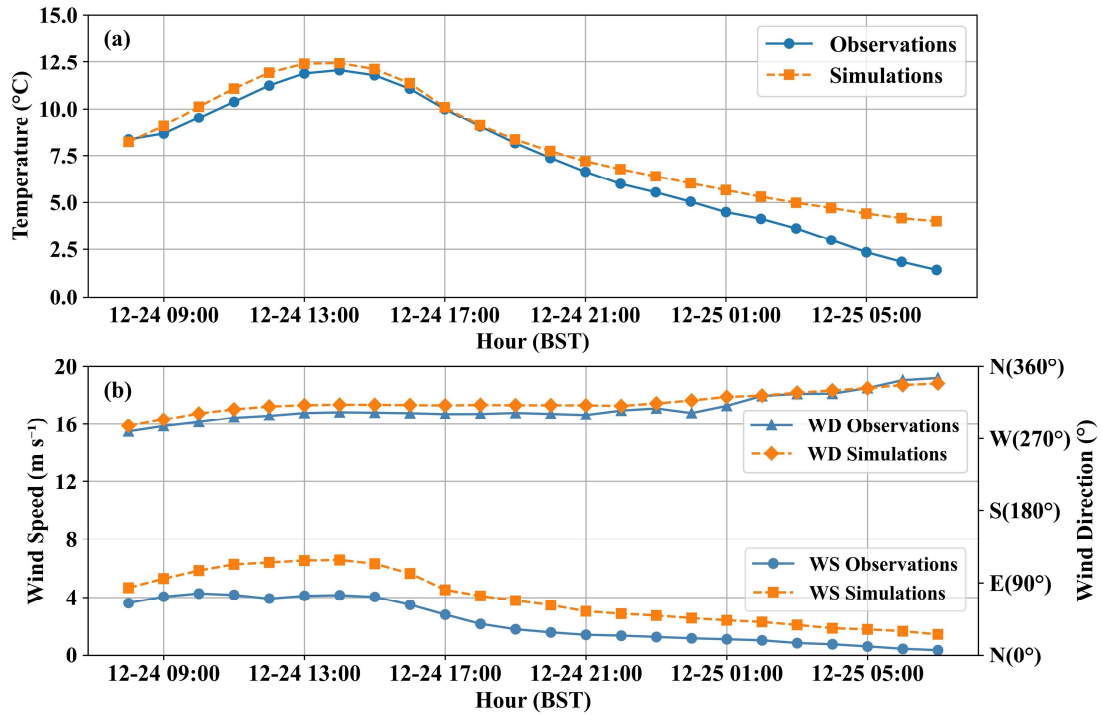
344 **Figure R5.** Comparisons of hourly mean 10-meter wind speed (below lines) and wind direction  
 345 (above lines) from WRF simulations and observations within the ROI.

346

347 **Furthermore, the entire section 3.3 has been modified based on the new simulation results.**  
 348 **Note that the MYJ scheme results show the phenomenon of heat anomalies reaching the top**  
 349 **of the PBL later than YSU, so the displayed times were adjusted. The new results do not affect**  
 350 **existing conclusions, and the abstract, data, and methods sections have been modified**  
 351 **accordingly.**

352 Line 320—447 in Section 3.3:

353 “Model performance was evaluated by comparing simulated 2-m air temperature and 10-m wind  
 354 field of domain 3 against hourly observations from all available meteorological stations within the  
 355 ROI (Fig. 8). For 2-m air temperature, the RMSE and the Pearson correlation coefficient (R) were  
 356 1.80 °C and 0.92 ( $p < 0.001$ ), respectively (Fig 8a). For 10-m wind field, the RMSE for wind  
 357 direction and wind speed were 34.77° and 2.62 m s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig 8b). In addition, the RMSE  
 358 of PBLH between the model and the dataset (Guo et al., 2024) is 262 m. To provide a more  
 359 comprehensive validation of the model's performance, we calculated additional statistical metrics  
 360 for the simulation period. For 2-m air temperature, the Mean Absolute Error (MAE) was 1.29 °C,  
 361 the Mean Bias (MB) was 0.99 °C (indicating a slight warm bias), and the Index of Agreement (IOA)  
 362 was 0.93. For 10-m wind speed, the MAE was 2.01 m s<sup>-1</sup> and the MB was +1.70 m s<sup>-1</sup> (reflecting a  
 363 typical overestimation of wind speed by WRF in urban areas due to simplified canopy drag  
 364 representations (Yu et al., 2021)), with an IOA of 0.71. For the PBLH, the MB compared to the  
 365 radiosonde-reanalysis merged dataset was -66 m. These quantitative metrics demonstrate that the  
 366 model captures both the diurnal thermal cycle and the wind-driven transport dynamics with  
 367 acceptable accuracy, establishing a solid baseline for the sensitivity experiments.

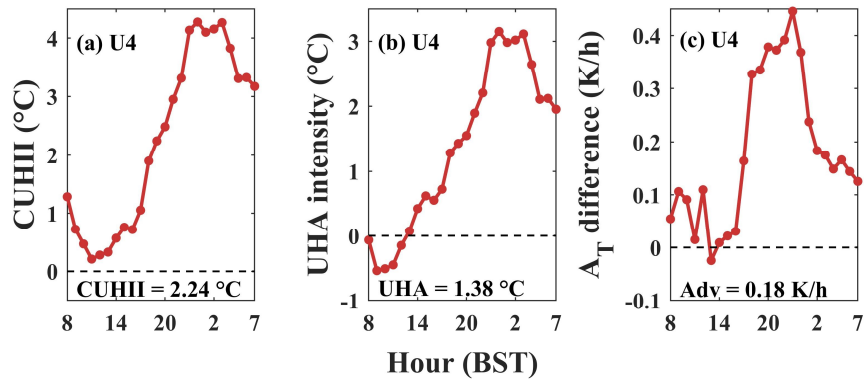


368

369 **Figure 8.** Comparisons of hourly mean (a) 2-meter temperature and (b) 10-meter wind speed (below  
 370 lines) and wind direction (above lines) from WRF simulations (orange lines) and observations (blue  
 371 lines) within the ROI.

372

373 The observation-based UHA intensity was compared with the WRF-simulated horizontal  
 374 temperature advection. Taking Wuxi (U4), which lies downwind of Changzhou (U2) under the  
 375 prevailing northwest wind direction, as an example, the observed daily mean CUHII during the  
 376 simulation period was 2.24 °C (Fig. 9a). The UHA intensity was negative after sunrise, turned  
 377 positive around midday, and continued to intensify, reaching a maximum of 3.15 °C at night before  
 378 declining toward the following morning (Fig. 9b). The daily mean UHA intensity was 1.38 °C,  
 379 indicating that UHA enhances CUHII under the prevailing wind direction. Fig. 9c shows the  
 380 difference in horizontal temperature advection between the control and sensitivity experiments  
 381 (CTRL minus EXP). This difference also exhibited a broadly similar pattern with higher values at  
 382 night and lower values during the day, with a nighttime peak of approximately 0.45 K/h and a daily  
 383 mean of 0.18 K/h (Fig. 9c). Overall, the UHA intensity and the horizontal temperature advection  
 384 showed similar diurnal variations.



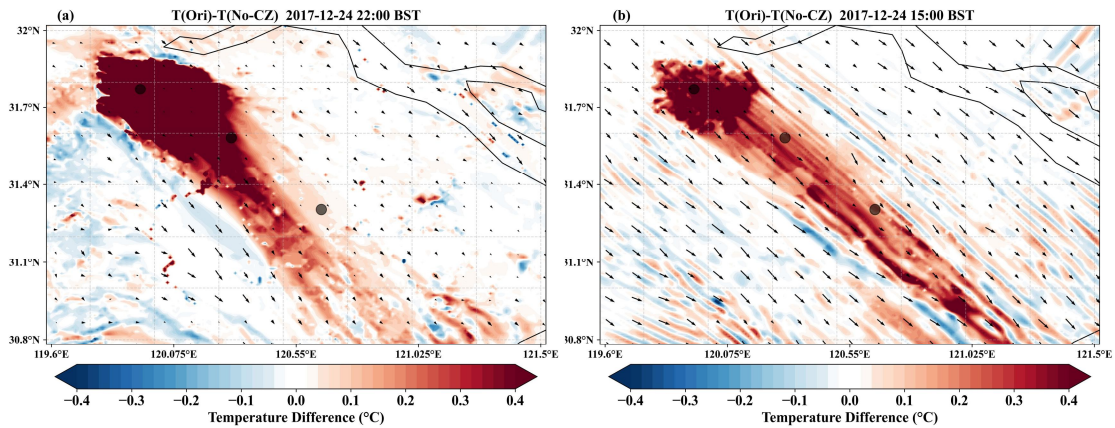
385

386 **Figure 9.** Diurnal variation of hourly (a) CUHII, (b) UHA intensity, and (c) horizontal temperature  
 387 advection difference between the control simulation and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus  
 388 EXP) over Wuxi (U4) during the simulation period. Annotated values indicate the respective daily  
 389 means.

390

391 “Figure 10 illustrates the spatial distribution of the 2-meter temperature difference between the  
 392 control and sensitivity simulations (CTRL minus EXP), approximately representing the thermal and  
 393 dynamic contributions of upstream urbanization in Changzhou to the downstream canopy  
 394 temperature. During the analysis hours, northwest winds prevailed in domain 3. Influenced by the  
 395 UHI, Changzhou exhibited a pronounced warming, with positive temperature anomalies of 3.58 °C  
 396 and 0.42 °C at 22:00 BST and 15:00 BST, respectively. This phenomenon arises from the coupled  
 397 interplay of thermal and dynamic processes. Thermally, urban materials and anthropogenic heat  
 398 emissions drive a substantial increase in sensible heat flux. Dynamically, the elevated aerodynamic  
 399 roughness length of the urban canopy suppresses near-surface wind speeds and ventilation (Oke et  
 400 al., 2017). Both factors together modulate the local positive temperature anomaly and determine its  
 401 subsequent advection propagation to downstream regions. The simulations show a diurnal variation  
 402 in the 2-meter temperature differences. At night (22:00 BST), lower wind speeds were accompanied  
 403 by a high UHA intensity but with a limited advective distance, and strong warming was concentrated  
 404 in the short distance downstream of the city (Fig. 10a). In contrast, daytime conditions (15:00 BST)  
 405 featured higher wind speeds, which were accompanied by lower UHA intensity but a greater thermal  
 406 influence distance (Fig. 10b). Under the prevailing northwest winds, the U10 region was also  
 407 affected by the thermal forcing of Taihu Lake in addition to UHA. During winter, Taihu Lake  
 408 functions as a daytime heat sink and a nighttime heat source relative to the surrounding environment  
 409 (Fig. S3). Furthermore, Cosgrove and Berkelhammer (2018) utilized a Lagrangian atmospheric  
 410 transport model to demonstrate that the Chicago urban thermal plume caused significant heating at  
 411 100–200 m above ground level, extending up to 70 km downwind. The sensitivity experiments in

412 this study show that the downstream canopy region was also heated, with the thermal influence  
413 beyond 100 km.

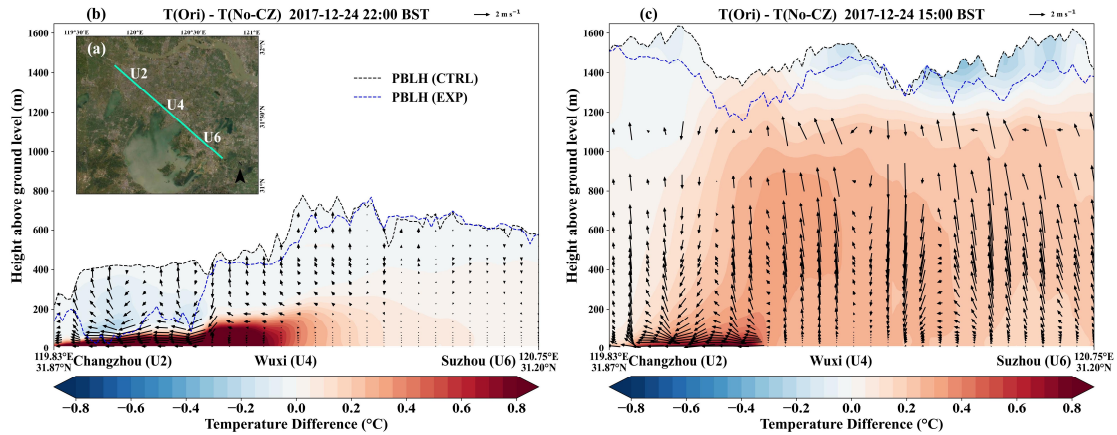


414

415 **Figure 10.** Spatial distribution of the 2-meter temperature difference between the control simulation  
416 and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus EXP) at (a) 22:00 BST and (b) 15:00 BST. Vector  
417 arrows indicate the 10-meter wind field of the CTRL. The three marked locations from northwest  
418 to southeast correspond to downtown areas of Changzhou (U2), Wuxi (U4), and Suzhou (U6),  
419 respectively.

420

421 Vertical cross-sections of potential temperature and wind vector differences between control  
422 and sensitivity experiments were analysed (Fig. 11). The cross-section along a northwest-southeast  
423 direction spans approximately 114 km (Fig. 11a), encompassing cities from Changzhou (U2)  
424 through Wuxi (U4) to Suzhou (U6). Note that the coordinate rotation was applied to the horizontal  
425 wind component  $u$  to align it with the cross-section direction, with positive values corresponding to  
426 northwest winds. For example, significant negative horizontal wind components within  
427 Changzhou's near-surface layer are due to the urban rough surface. At night (22:00 BST), the  
428 atmospheric stratification is stable, and updrafts and downdrafts induced by the UHI can be  
429 observed over urban areas, particularly in Wuxi (see the CTRL results in Figure S4b). Thermal  
430 plume was suppressed within the near-surface layer, and substantial heat within Changzhou  
431 propagated downstream primarily below 100 m, although the PBLH can reach 750 m (Fig. 11b).  
432 Following sunrise, solar shortwave radiation enhanced surface heating and buoyancy-driven  
433 turbulence (Zhang et al., 2023), elevating PBLH to approximately 1600 m by afternoon (15:00 BST,  
434 Fig. S4c). Compared to nighttime conditions, enhanced ventilation and vertical mixing extended  
435 thermal influences throughout the entire PBL depth (Fig. 11c), intensifying the BUHI in Wuxi and  
436 Suzhou. As the thermal plume propagates, vertical heat redistribution may occur through turbulent  
437 mixing in downstream cities. In addition, the updraft in the downstream area is strengthened, and  
438 the vertical circulation in Wuxi during the day may be UHA-enhanced UHI circulation (Fig. 11b-c).



439

440 **Figure 11.** (a) Geographical location of the vertical cross-section. (b, c) Vertical cross-sections of  
 441 the potential temperature and wind vector differences between the control simulation and the  
 442 sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus EXP) at (b) 22:00 BST and (c) 15:00 BST. Wind vectors were  
 443 synthesized by rotating  $u$  (along the transect axis) and scaling  $\omega$  ( $\omega$  multiplied by 50). The black and  
 444 blue solid lines denote the PBLH in the CTRL and EXP simulations, respectively.

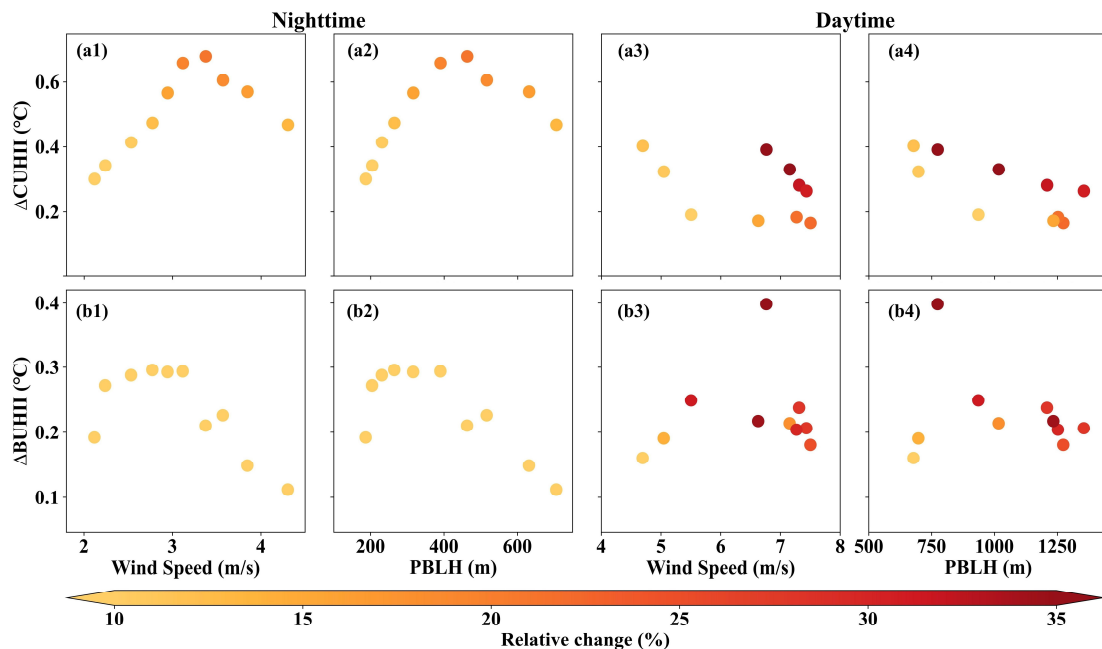
445

446 The sensitivity experiments quantified UHA contributions from a single upstream city. In  
 447 reality, taking the downstream city of Suzhou as an example, its UHI is influenced by multiple  
 448 upstream heat sources, including weak UHA transport from distant Changzhou superimposed upon  
 449 strong UHA contributions from adjacent Wuxi. When the LULCs in upstream Changzhou and Wuxi  
 450 are simultaneously replaced with croplands in the sensitivity experiment, enhanced cross-city  
 451 thermal plume superposition and greater PBLH differences were shown (Fig. S5). These results  
 452 demonstrate that the intensity and spatial structure of UHA are closely related to diurnal boundary  
 453 layer evolution.

454 The CUHII differences of the downstream adjacent city Wuxi (U4) were evaluated between  
 455 two experimental scenarios. Figures 12a show scatter plots of  $\Delta$ CUHII and both wind speed and  
 456 PBLH across different hours. Nighttime conditions exhibited a higher  $\Delta$ CUHII (with a maximum  
 457 increase of 0.68 °C), accompanied by lower wind speed and shallower PBLH (Fig. 12a1–a2); while  
 458 daytime conditions showed a comparatively lower  $\Delta$ CUHII (with a minimum increase of 0.17 °C),  
 459 accompanied by higher wind speed and deeper PBLH (Fig. 12a3–a4). The relative increase in  
 460 CUHII ranged from 8.1% to 60.4%, with the large proportional amplifications occurring during the  
 461 daytime period. Specifically, the average difference between nighttime and daytime is 0.51 °C  
 462 (14.2%) and 0.27 °C (18.9%), respectively. At night,  $\Delta$ CUHII exhibited a non-linear response to  
 463 increases in wind speed and PBLH, characterized by an initial amplification followed by a decrease  
 464 (Fig. 12a1–a2). In contrast, daytime  $\Delta$ CUHII decreased with increasing PBLH, while its correlation  
 465 with wind speed remained ambiguous (Fig. 12a3–a4). In summary, these sensitivity experiments

466 provide corroborations for the observational findings, confirming that UHA is regulated by wind  
 467 speed and PBLH non-linearly.

468 UHA also contributed to an increase in BUHII in the downstream city of Wuxi (U4, Fig. 12b1–  
 469 b4). Specifically,  $\Delta$ BUHII increased by a maximum of 0.40°C and a minimum of 0.11°C, ranging  
 470 from 4.7% to 41.7%. The average difference between nighttime and daytime is 0.23 °C (7.5%) and  
 471 0.23 °C (23.3%), respectively. It should be noted that uncertainties remain in BUHII due to the  
 472 schemes of PBL and urban canopy (Zhu and Ooka, 2023). In a supplementary sensitivity test  
 473 utilizing the YSU PBL scheme (Hong et al., 2006) coupled with the SLUCM urban scheme (Fig.  
 474 S6), while the absolute change in  $\Delta$ BUHII remains comparable in magnitude, the relative change of  
 475  $\Delta$ BUHII is larger, and its variation characteristics in response to wind speed and PBLH remain  
 476 uncertain. Because the numerical simulation covered a limited time period, the potential moderating  
 477 roles of wind speed and PBLH on BUHI were not further examined.



478  
 479 **Figure 12.** Scatter plots between  $\Delta$ CUHII and (a1, a3) 10-meter wind speed, and (a2, a4) PBLH  
 480 between the control simulation and the sensitivity experiment (CTRL minus EXP) over Wuxi (U4)  
 481 at (a1-a2) nighttime and (a3-a4) daytime. (b1-b4) Same as (a1-a4), but for  $\Delta$ BUHII. Colours  
 482 represent the relative change of CUHII or BUHII. Note that only the moment when the northwest  
 483 wind prevailed in the ROI was reserved.

484  
 485 In addition, the enhancement of downstream UHI (CUHII and BUHII) is primarily contributed  
 486 to by UHA, though it is not entirely attributable to this mechanism; it is concurrently modulated by  
 487 other physical processes. For example, advective transport from upstream urban areas can modify  
 488 local atmospheric conditions (e.g., ambient humidity, stability), which subsequently influence the

489 thermal environment of the downstream city. Furthermore, changes in the underlying surface will  
490 also affect local circulation by thermal (e.g., lake-land breeze circulation) and dynamic (e.g.,  
491 ventilation) effects, which in turn affect wind and temperature in downstream areas. Ultimately, the  
492 increase in downstream UHI is a combined result of multiple processes.”

493

494

495 **We sincerely appreciate your thorough review and hope these revisions meet with your**  
496 **approval.**

497 **Once again, thank you very much for your comments and suggestions.**

498

499

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