



# 1 **Characterizing Urban Planetary Boundary Layer** 2 **Dynamics Using 3-Year Doppler Wind Lidar** 3 **Measurements in a Western Yangtze River Delta City,** 4 **China**

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## 13 **Abstract**

14 Understanding the dynamics of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) is crucial for comprehending  
15 land-atmosphere interactions. This study utilizes three years of Doppler wind lidar measurements from  
16 June 2019 to June 2022 to investigate PBL dynamics over Hefei, a city in the Western Yangtze River  
17 Delta, China. We focus on the seasonal and diurnal variations in key characteristics, such as wind profiles,  
18 shear intensity, turbulent mixing, low-level jets (LLJs), and mixing layer heights (MLH). Results show  
19 that horizontal wind speeds accelerated more rapidly above 3 km, with the predominant westerly winds  
20 ( $270^{\circ}\pm 15^{\circ}$ ) in all seasons. The vertical depth of high wind zone ( $> 8$  m s<sup>-1</sup>) during the day is found  
21 generally deeper than at night, particularly in winter. In Hefei, LLJs primarily form at sunset and dissipate  
22 by noon, typically at altitudes between 0.5 and 0.6 km throughout the year, except in July. LLJ  
23 occurrences are most frequent in spring (31.7%), followed by summer (24.7%), autumn (22.3%), and  
24 winter (21.3%). Summer LLJs are most intensified, extending up to 1.5 km. The larger wind gradient  
25 below the jets significantly enhances turbulence and shear intensity near the ground at night. The seasonal  
26 average MLH peaks between 2:00 p.m. and 3:00 p.m., reaching approximately 1.2 km in spring and  
27 summer. Cloud cover raises MLH by about 100 m at night but decreases it by 200 m at the afternoon  
28 peak. This study provides insights into lidar-based PBL dynamics and highlights implications for local  
29 standards concerning low-altitude economic activities.

## 30 **1. Introduction**

31 The planetary boundary layer (PBL) refers to the lowest 1~3 km of the atmosphere that is directly  
32 influenced by the presence of the underlying surface, and usually responds to surface forcings in an hour  
33 or less (Stull, 1988). These surface forcings include frictional drag, heat transfer, pollutant emission,  
34 evaporation and transpiration, and terrain induced flow modifications (Garratt, 1994). The depth and  
35 structure of the PBL are determined by the physical and thermal properties of the underlying surface as  
36 well as the dynamics and thermodynamics of the lower atmosphere (Madala et al., 2014). One of the  
37 most important characteristic of the PBL is turbulence, which dominates the vertical exchange of heat,



38 moisture, momentum, trace gases, and aerosols between the free atmosphere and the Earth's surface or  
39 regolith (Baklanov et al., 2011; Petrosyan et al., 2011). In the PBL, the sources of turbulent mixing exhibit  
40 significant temporal and spatial variations, which include buoyancy (convective mixing), wind shear  
41 (mechanical mixing), entrainment at the top of boundary layer, and radiative cooling in stratocumulus  
42 clouds (top-down convective mixing) (Ortiz-Amezcuca et al., 2022). Such turbulent motion in the PBL  
43 has been demonstrated to be inherently connected to air pollution by modulating the dispersion, transport,  
44 and accumulation process, and have critical impacts on land-atmosphere energy balance, as well as  
45 aerosol-cloud-precipitation interactions (Kim and Entekhabi, 1998; Wang et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2011;  
46 Wood et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Su et al., 2020, 2018; Christensen et al., 2024).

47 Hefei, the capital of Anhui province, has experienced incredible economic growth and urban sprawl  
48 over the past two decades (Zhao and Zou, 2018). Situated between the Yangtze River and Huaihe River,  
49 in what is known as the Jianghuai region, the Hefei Metropolitan Circle plays a pivotal role in the Yangtze  
50 River-Huaihe River Water Transfer Project to provide benefits for water supply, transportation,  
51 agriculture, and power generation (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023). Apart from tremendous economic  
52 benefits achieved in Hefei, intense human activities create a profound influence on the local climate,  
53 affecting the thermal, hydrological, and wind environments in the PBL within and beyond city limits (Shi  
54 et al., 2008; Li et al., 2022a). In this context, the PBL study is vital for better understanding the exchange  
55 process between the atmosphere and land over complex underlying surfaces, and improving the  
56 parameterization schemes in numerical weather prediction models. However, previous studies mainly  
57 focused on surface air pollution characteristics and its associations with meteorological parameters, as  
58 well as the impacts on human health based on in-situ monitoring measurements or air quality modelling  
59 (Hu et al., 2024; Qin et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2019). Among various  
60 observation techniques, the lidar is a powerful tool and has been applied in retrieve vertical profiles of  
61 PBL properties in Hefei, such as aerosols, winds, turbulence, precipitation, temperature, and water vapor  
62 during a period (Zhou, 2002; Xia et al., 2015, 2016; Wei et al., 2021, 2022; Jiang et al., 2022; Yuan et al.,  
63 2020; Wang et al., 2015b). Therefore, it is essential to utilize the long-term lidar measurement to  
64 characterize the PBL dynamics such as winds and turbulence sources to further understand the land-  
65 atmosphere interaction.

66 The key parameter of PBL meteorology is the PBL height (PBLH) which displays significant  
67 spatiotemporal variability under different atmospheric and surface conditions (Guo et al., 2019; Zhang  
68 et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023). It strongly depends on surface characteristics such as surface heating rate,  
69 strength of winds, topography, surface roughness, free atmospheric characteristics, the amount of clouds  
70 and moisture (Kotthaus et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2020). Multiple approaches have been developed to  
71 determine the PBLH based on observations, such as in situ radiosonde (Gu et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2021;  
72 Yue et al., 2021), aerosol-based and dynamic-based lidar techniques (Chen et al., 2022; Huang et al.,  
73 2017; Vivone et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020, 2021; Yang et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2019). In the practical  
74 measurements of PBLH, it is necessary to consider its distinct diurnal cycle of PBL. The PBL can be  
75 categorized into three dominant regimes: convective boundary layer (CBL), stable boundary layer (SBL),  
76 and residual layer (RL) based on the thermodynamic stability in the lower atmosphere (Caughey and  
77 Palmer, 1979). After sunrise, increasing radiative heating triggers the development of near-surface  
78 turbulent eddies and leads to the formation of CBL, which the CBL grows with time and reaches its  
79 maxima in the early afternoon. The CBL consists of a convective surface layer, mixing layer (ML) above,  
80 and entrainment zone (EZ) at the top (Wyngaard, 1988). After sunset, the radiative cooling creates the  
81 SBL close to the surface and its depth grows as night progresses. The RL lies above the SBL meanwhile



82 a capping inversion overlies the RL (Fochesatto et al., 2001). However, studies in diurnal and seasonal  
83 characteristics of the PBLH under different stable conditions in Hefei based on long-term measurements  
84 have not been documented yet, to the best of our knowledge at the writing of this work.

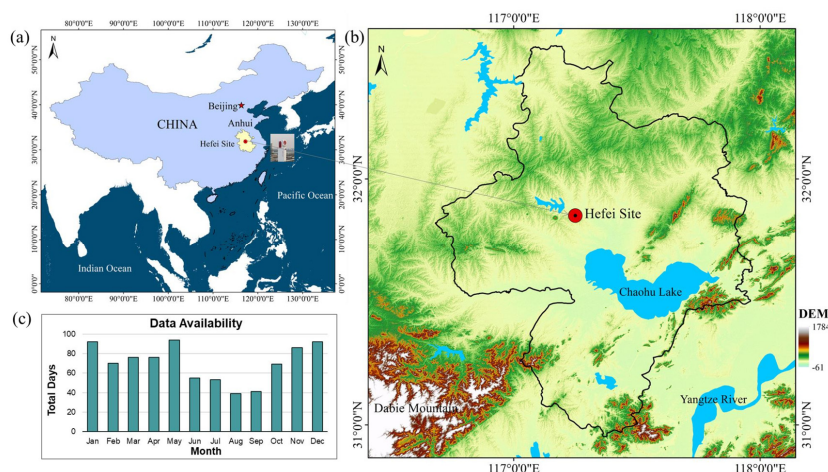
85 Turbulence in the PBL is generated mechanically by wind shear, and convectively by buoyancy.  
86 Wind shear is the main source of turbulence in the nocturnal boundary layer (NBL, also known as the  
87 SBL), which can be enhanced in the presence of low-level jets (LLJs). Yang et al. (2023) found that wind  
88 shears induced by LLJs often enhanced the vertical mixing processes, reduced the atmospheric stability,  
89 and resulted in small weak direction shifts in eastern Idaho, USA. The formation of LLJ can provide a  
90 driving force for the development of a deeper CBL on the Tibet Plateau (Su et al., 2024). Many studies  
91 investigated the prominent role of LLJs in heavy rainfall events in the Jianghuai region (Chen et al., 2020;  
92 Yan et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Cui et al., 2023), but there has been a lack of research specifically  
93 focusing on Hefei. The Huaihe River region, including Hefei, is one of the six high-frequency regions of  
94 LLJs in China (Yan et al., 2021). The LLJs over China are usually classified into two types: boundary  
95 layer jets (BLJs, below 1 km) and synoptic-system-related LLJs (SLLJs, within 1–4 km) (Du et al., 2014).  
96 The occurrence of BLJs is associated with significant vertical shear of horizontal wind and diurnal  
97 variation. On the contrary, SLLJs are usually related to synoptic-scale weather systems. This study  
98 addresses a previous research gap by investigating the characteristics of LLJs formation and types, and  
99 vertical wind shear (VWSH) in Hefei, with a focus on their monthly variations across different times and  
100 altitudes.

101 In this paper, we utilize a 3-year Doppler wind lidar measurements to characterize the PBL  
102 dynamics in Hefei. The horizontal wind speeds and direction, LLJs, VWSH, turbulent kinetic energy  
103 dissipation rate (TKEDR), mixing layer height (MLH) and PBLH are thoroughly analyzed. Remote  
104 sensing retrieval of the above PBL parameters have been fully illustrated and validated in our previous  
105 studies (Wang et al., 2019, 2021; Wei et al., 2019, 2022; Wang et al., 2024). This paper aims to shed new  
106 light on the diurnal and seasonal characteristics of PBL meteorology and turbulence influenced by diurnal  
107 cycles, general circulation, the Asian monsoon, and the synoptic systems.

## 108 **2. Materials and methodology**

### 109 **2.1 Study area and instruments**

110 Hefei, a rapidly developing new first-tier city, is located in Eastern China within central Anhui  
111 Province in Figure 1(a). It covers an area of 11465 km<sup>2</sup>, comprising four urban districts, one county-level  
112 Chaohu city, and four counties. Its topography includes flat plains, gently rolling hills, and major water  
113 bodies such as Chaohu Lake to the southeast in Figure 1(b). The city altitude mainly ranges from 15 to  
114 81 m, with the highest point reaching 595 m (Sun and Ongsomwang, 2021). The Dabie Mountain in the  
115 southwest introduces varied elevations and complex topographical features that influence regional  
116 atmospheric dynamics in Hefei. Anhui province including Hefei, is located across both the eastern  
117 monsoon region and the north-south climate transition zone of China. Hence, Hefei is characterized by  
118 the typical subtropical monsoon climate with four distinct seasons. The city receives an annual  
119 precipitation of ~1000 mm and average temperature of 15.7 °C, with prevailing southeast winds in spring  
120 and summer and northwest winds in autumn and winter (Li et al., 2024).



121

122 **Figure 1.** Study area and location of the Doppler wind lidar system. (a) Location (31.83°N, 117.25°E) of Hefei site  
 123 and administrative boundary of Anhui province; (b) DEM, and the solid black line represents the administrative  
 124 boundary of Hefei city; (c) Data availability of 3-year Doppler wind lidar measurements. Total days with valid lidar  
 125 measurements are accounted for each month.

126 A compact coherent Doppler wind lidar (CDWL) system was deployed on the roof of the School of  
 127 Earth and Space Science (SESS) building of the University of Science and Technology of China (31.83°  
 128 N, 117.25°E) in the urban area of Hefei, to monitor the vertical profiles of aerosol, cloud and wind field.  
 129 The specific location of lidar is referred as Hefei site in Figure 1(a) and Figure 1(b). The lidar system  
 130 operates at 1.5 μm eye-safe wavelength and uses 300 μJ pulse energy and 10 kHz repetition rate to  
 131 achieve a maximum detection range of up to 15 km. During the long-term experiment, the lidar  
 132 performed continuous velocity azimuth display (VAD) scanning mode for high spatial-temporal  
 133 resolution wind profile measurement. The azimuth angle ranges from 0° to 300° with an interval of 5°  
 134 and the elevation angle is 60°. The key parameters of the Doppler lidar system are summarized in Table  
 135 A1 in Appendix. Detailed information about the validation and application of the lidar system can be  
 136 found in our previous works (Jia et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2020, 2021). The data availability is presented  
 137 in Figure 1(c) with monthly statistics of total valid days. Note that the lower data availability during the  
 138 summer seasons is primarily due to frequent rainfall and high temperatures, which caused instability in  
 139 the lidar systems. However, these issues have been significantly improved in the recently updated  
 140 systems (Xia et al., 2024).

## 141 2.2 Datasets and methods

142 The CDWL system operated for three consecutive years from June, 2019 to June, 2022, except for  
 143 some maintenance interruptions (Wang et al., 2024). The number of days available for different seasons  
 144 and weather types is presented in Table 1, respectively.

145 **Table 1.** The days of different weather types during the period of Doppler lidar operation

Weather Types*	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	Total days
Rainy	62	44	37	75	218
Clear	69	21	47	76	213
Cloudy	68	82	50	64	264



	Partly Cloudy	39	38	44	39	160
146	<b>Rainy:</b> rain persists for more than 2 hours <b>Clear:</b> clouds are present for less than 2 hours.					
147	<b>Cloudy:</b> cloud coverage exceeds 8 hours. <b>Partly Cloudy:</b> cloud coverage lasts between 2 to 8 hours.					

148        The time resolution and range gate resolution of the original radial measurements are 1 s and 30 m,  
149 respectively. Horizontal wind speed (HWS), horizontal wind direction (HWD), and vertical wind speed  
150 (VWS) are retrieved from the measured radial speeds at different azimuth angles using a filtered sin-  
151 wave fitting method, based on the assumption of horizontally homogenous wind field (Smalikho, 2003;  
152 Banakh et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2020). Considering the duration of one VAD scan, the time resolution of  
153 wind profile becomes about 2 minutes. Here, the wind direction of 0° represents the horizontal wind  
154 coming from the north, and the angle increases clockwise. The negative (positive) vertical wind speed  
155 was defined as upward (downward) motion in this study.

156        Turbulence activity can be expressed by vertical velocity variance, spectrum width, turbulent kinetic  
157 energy, and TKEDR (O'Connor et al., 2010). In this study, we estimate TKEDR using the turbulence  
158 statistical model based on the relation between the structure-function of the measured radial velocity and  
159 theoretical value (Banakh et al., 2017). The MLH is a significant parameter for presenting the vertical  
160 turbulent exchange within the PBL. On the basis of the characteristics of decreasing convective  
161 turbulence intensity along with height, the threshold method can effectively determine a typical  
162 turbulence height. Here, the MLH is defined as the height up to which  $TKEDR > 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$  is reached  
163 (Banakh et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). In addition, the aerosol-based PBLH, shown in Section 3.6, is  
164 also calculated for comparison. It is determined from the aerosol backscatter coefficient using a Harr  
165 wavelet method (Caicedo et al., 2017; Kotthaus et al., 2023).

166        LLJ is a fast air stream with a wind speed maximum in the lowest kilometers of the troposphere  
167 (Stull, 1988). Referring the previous studies (Qiu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2018; Tuononen et al., 2017)  
168 and considering the local characteristics, we identify the LLJs at Hefei using the following criteria: (1)  
169 the maximum wind speed  $U_{max} > 8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and, (2) the wind speed difference  $\Delta U = U_{max} - U_{min} >$   
170  $2.6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , where  $U_{min}$  is the minimum wind speed above the height of  $U_{max}$ . The LLJ height is then  
171 defined as the height of  $U_{max}$ . In addition, when a two-layer LLJ exists, the lower one will be selected.  
172 Each wind profile was applied to identify the LLJ event. In the statistics procedure of Section 3.3, a time  
173 window of 1 h is used to filter out the outliers, and those with fewer than 60% within the window were  
174 abandoned.

175        Vertical wind shear (VWSH) is defined as the change in wind speed and/or direction with height. It  
176 can be calculated from the vertical wind profiles using the following equation (Manninen et al., 2018)

177

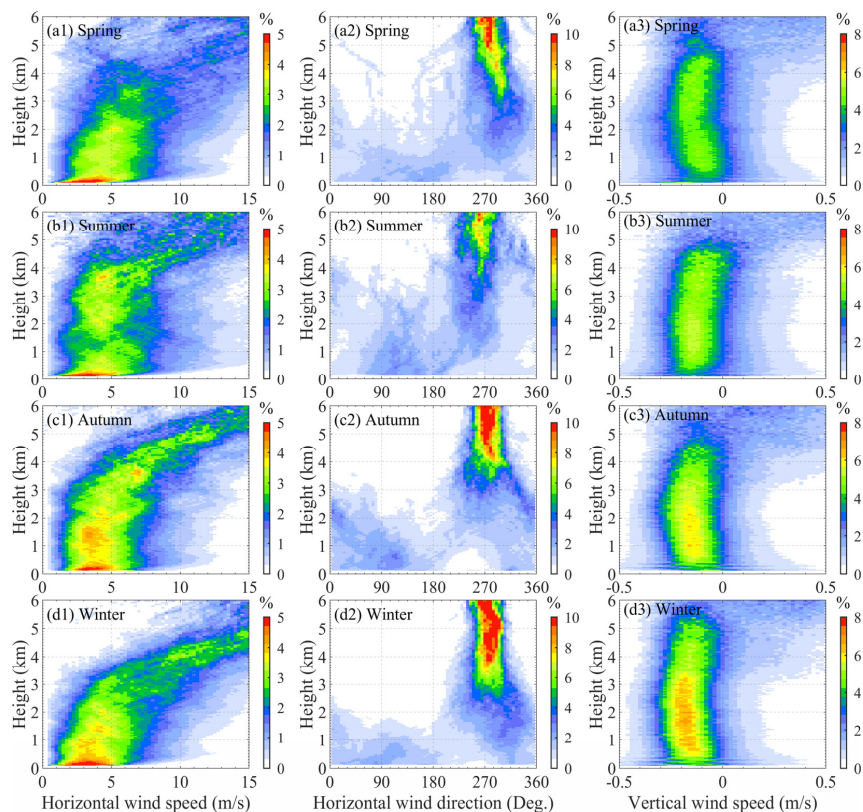
$$VWSH = \frac{(\Delta u^2 + \Delta v^2)^{0.5}}{\Delta z}$$

178 where the difference in vectors of the wind components  $u$  and  $v$  is divided by the height difference  $\Delta z$   
179 between the two altitude levels used to compute the wind shear.



### 180 3. Results

#### 181 3.1 The 3-year seasonal profiles of the wind frequency



182

183 **Figure 2.** The seasonal frequency distributions of horizontal wind speed (left panel), horizontal wind direction  
184 (middle panel), and vertical wind speed (right panel) at different heights below 6 km during (a) Spring: Mar-May;  
185 (b) Summer: Jun-Aug; (c) Autumn: Sep-Nov; and (d) Winter: Dec-Feb, at Hefei. Note that the sum of all frequency  
186 values along the x-axis equals 100% at any specific height. It should be noted that negative value of vertical wind  
187 speed is defined as the upward movement of air.

188 Vertical wind profiles are influenced by surface friction, terrain, local pressure systems, and global  
189 atmospheric circulation patterns. We retrieve the vertical profiles of HWS, HWD, and VWS and calculate  
190 the frequency (%) of their occurrence at different heights above ground level (AGL), as shown in Figure  
191 2. The frequency distribution is calculated by the ratio of the counts of wind speeds falling into each bin  
192 on the x-axis to the total valid numbers at each height. Therefore, the sum of all frequency values along  
193 the x-axis is 100% at any specific height. To represent rich details, the bin size or resolution (i.e., the  
194 width of each column) is set to  $0.25 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  $5^\circ$ , and  $0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  for HWS, HWD, and VWS, respectively.

195 In the left panel of Figure 2, the frequency distribution of HWS (hereafter referred to as HWS%)  
196 exhibits a rightward skew in all seasons, a characteristic often modeled using a Weibull or Lognormal  
197 distribution due to the non-negative nature of wind speed (Justus et al., 1978; Pobočiková et al., 2017).





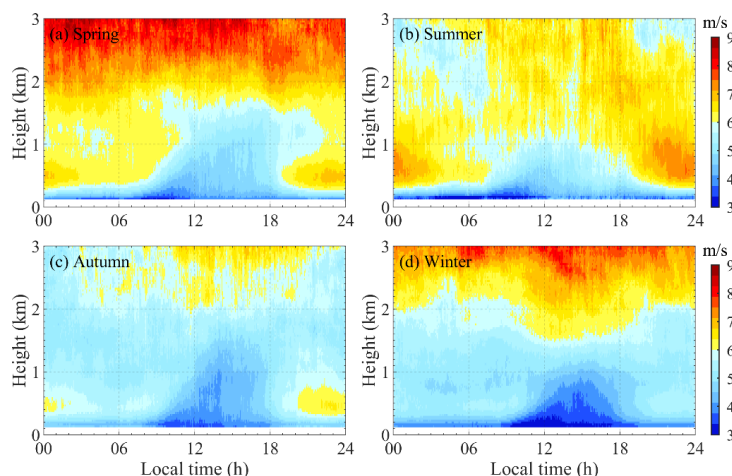
198 Close to the ground, the majority of HWS values are clustered at the lower end, mainly as a result of  
199 surface friction. Below ~300 m AGL, HWS increase rapidly as surface friction decreases. From 300 m  
200 to 3 km AGL, HWS increases steadily while becoming more dispersed, with the overall distribution  
201 (HWS%) spanning between 2 and 7 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Above 3 km, HWS accelerates more rapidly, particularly in  
202 autumn and winter, where HWS% remains relatively concentrated. In contrast, HWS% in spring and  
203 summer is more dispersed with a lower frequency of high HWS occurrences (> 10 m s<sup>-1</sup>). Many studies  
204 have demonstrated a significant decrease trend of near surface wind speed in eastern China including  
205 Anhui province, induced by large-scale circulation and local land use and land cover change (Li et al.,  
206 2018; Liu et al., 2023; Li et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2015) observed that the value of annual mean surface  
207 wind speed in Hefei city during 1981–2012 was between 2.0 m s<sup>-1</sup> and 2.6 m s<sup>-1</sup> and the highest frequency  
208 of maximum surface wind speed occurred in spring. A recent study by Li et al. 2022a analyzed the  
209 maximum daily wind speed of 10 minutes from 51 meteorological stations in Anhui province from 2006  
210 to 2020, which showed that the average maximum wind speed in the city of Hefei was between 9.1~17.6  
211 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Therefore, our results of seasonal HWS values near the ground correspond to previous studies.

212 The frequency distribution of HWD (hereafter referred to as HWD%) exhibits distinct vertical  
213 characteristics, as shown in the middle panel of Figure 2. At higher altitudes (> 3 km), the distribution of  
214 HWD is much more concentrated, with predominant westerly winds (270°±15°) in all seasons. Because  
215 Hefei city is located between 31°4' N and 32°38' N, which is affected by westerly circulation. The finding  
216 of prevailing westerlies throughout the year in Hefei is consistent with (Sun et al., 2021). In contrast, the  
217 influence of westerlies on HWD% below the PBL is insignificant due to the impact of the underlying  
218 surface roughness, terrain distribution, and air flow turbulence. Below 3 km AGL, we can discover  
219 notable southwest winds in summer compared to the other seasons. In the summer monsoon season,  
220 eastern China (including Hefei city) is mainly dominated by southwest winds, as has been reported by  
221 many studies (Liu et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2007). Wind directions in the PBL tend to be  
222 more variable and chaotic compared to those at higher altitudes. And westerly winds above 1.5 km  
223 consistently strengthen with increasing altitude in all seasons.

224 The right panel of Figure 2 illustrates seasonal profiles of VWS frequency (hereafter referred to as  
225 VWS%). The frequency distribution of VWS% is right-skewed and its center lay in negative values  
226 between -0.2 m s<sup>-1</sup> and -0.1 m s<sup>-1</sup>. The results show that most VWS values are negative below 5 km in all  
227 seasons, representing upward motion in the atmosphere. It demonstrates the asymmetric nature of vertical  
228 velocities in the atmosphere, where upward movements are stronger than downward movements  
229 (Tamarin-Brodsky and Hadas, 2019). Furthermore, Figure 2 (d3) shows that winter has the highest  
230 frequency of negative VWS, with most VWS% ranging from 4% to 7% below 3 km AGL. A climatology  
231 study of cold frequency suggests that cold fronts are most frequently occurred in cold seasons over Hefei  
232 city (Xue et al., 2022). In winter, cold fronts associated with the winter monsoon can enhance upward  
233 motion of the air as the heavier (more dense) cool air pushes under the lighter (less dense) warm air  
234 (Kang et al., 2019; Parsons, 1992). The upward motion intensifies and is vigorous along the frontal  
235 boundaries, leading to cloud formation and precipitation. The higher positive values in the asymmetric  
236 distribution of VWS, particularly above 3 km, are attributed to the contribution of falling precipitation  
237 particles (Wei et al., 2019). Under these conditions, the detected vertical speed reflects the movement of  
238 larger hydrometeors rather than the air motion itself.



### 239 3.2 Diurnal HWS profiles in different seasons



240

241 **Figure 3.** Diurnal profiles of seasonal averaged horizontal wind speeds at different heights below 3 km during (a)  
242 Spring: Mar-May; (b) Summer: Jun-Aug; (c) Autumn: Sep-Nov; and (d) Winter: Dec-Feb, at Hefei.

243 The diurnal variation of the vertical wind profile within the PBL is intricately linked to the dynamics  
244 and thermodynamics driven by the daily cycle of solar heating and longwave cooling. Figure 3 illustrates  
245 how HWS profile varies with local time (LT) on a seasonal scale. The minimum values of HWS are  
246 found in the lowest layer, primarily due to the impact of rough surface.

247 During the day, solar heating induces turbulence and convection, which increase surface friction  
248 and slow down the up-level horizontal wind. This results in the formation of a gentle wind zone (GWZ),  
249 characterized by wind speeds below  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , a feature that can be observed in all seasons. And the diurnal  
250 variation of the GWZ strongly correlates with the development of the mixing layer. At night, radiative  
251 cooling generates a temperature inversion, inhibiting vertical mixing and fostering laminar flow with  
252 increased shear intensity. Consequently, nocturnal winds are generally stronger than daytime winds at  
253 the same height below 1.5 km AGL throughout all seasons. Above this height, the HWS profile is usually  
254 more uniform and stronger due to the reduced frictional drag in the free atmosphere. It is interesting to  
255 find that the vertical height of high wind zone ( $> 8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) during the day is much lower than at night,  
256 particularly in winter. In Figure 3d, an appreciable enhancement of HWS at 1.5 km is discovered during  
257 the day particularly between 11:00 a.m. and 16:00 p.m., when the PBL tends to grow and become deeper  
258 due to radiative heating of the surface. In general, the HWS increases with height. However, as seen in  
259 Figures 3(a) to 3(c), a distinct local maximum in HWS, occurring between approximately 0.4 km and 0.8  
260 km, is observed after 8:00 p.m. and before 7:00 a.m. the next day. This is especially pronounced in  
261 summer, where the highest values and the highest vertical extent of the wind are recorded. These winds  
262 are typically associated with the nocturnal LLJs, a narrow band of strong winds that forms in the lower  
263 PBL. Although the seasonal average HWS reflects the overall wind conditions, the pronounced notch  
264 structure in the profile underscores the frequent occurrence of LLJs, which will be explored in more  
265 detail in the next section.

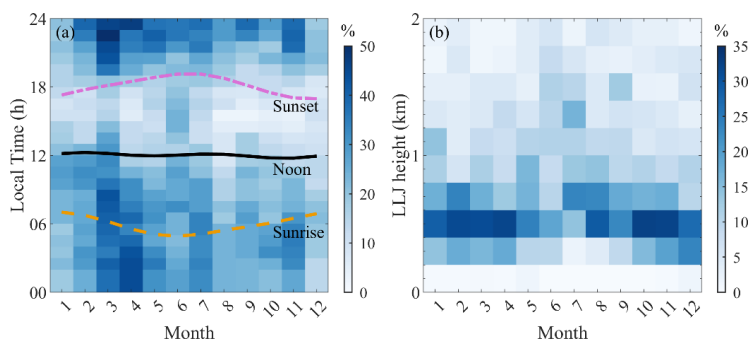
### 266 3.3 Monthly characteristics of LLJ at different times and heights

267 LLJ is characterized by a concentrated band of strong winds located in the lower part of the





268 atmosphere. The diurnal variation of its formation and occurrence is influenced by the interaction  
269 between surface heating/cooling cycles, atmospheric stability, and synoptic-scale weather patterns.  
270 Figure 4(a) illustrates the statistical frequency (%) of the occurrences of LLJs at different hours for each  
271 month. Frequency values are calculated as the ratio of the total number of LLJ occurrences to the total  
272 number of available days in the specific month over a 3-year period. Additionally, the monthly variation  
273 of the sunrise, noon, and sunset time was also plotted. Figure 4(b) presents the frequency distribution (%)  
274 of LLJs occurrences over the height for each month, with the sum of each column equaling 100%. The  
275 wind rose charts of the LLJ events for the four seasons are presented in Figure 5(a)~(d), respectively.  
276 The seasonal and intraseasonal variability of predominant wind directions and wind speeds of LLJs are  
277 influenced by general circulation, the East Asian monsoon, and synoptic systems. The spatial  
278 distributions of the 500-hPa geopotential height and geopotential height anomalies are presented in  
279 Figure A1.



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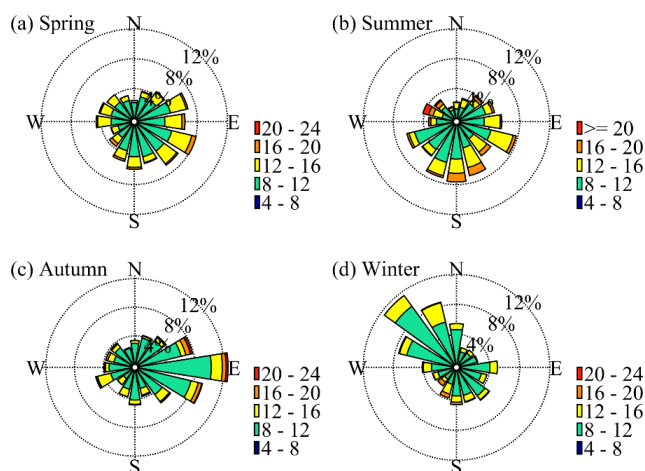
281 **Figure 4.** (a) The frequency (%) of LLJs occurrences at different times for each month. The purple dot-dashed line,  
282 the black solid line, and the orange long-dashed line refer to the mean sunset, noon, and sunrise times for each month,  
283 respectively. (b) The frequency distribution of LLJ occurrence over the height for each month, with the sum of each  
284 column equal to 100%.

285 Generally, LLJs occurrences are most frequent in spring, followed by summer, autumn, and winter  
286 in Hefei. The average seasonal LLJs frequencies were 31.7%, 24.7%, 22.3%, and 21.3% in spring,  
287 summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. In Figure 4(a), the sunrise and sunset times exhibit monthly  
288 variation due to the Earth's revolution around the Sun. We refer to the period between sunset and sunrise  
289 as daytime, and the period between sunset and the next sunrise as nighttime. LLJs are more frequently  
290 observed during the night and early morning throughout all months. In the classical theoretical  
291 description of inertial oscillations, LLJs develop because of the decoupling of nocturnal winds from the  
292 surface friction, facilitated by the formation of a near-surface temperature inversion (Blackadar, 1957).  
293 At night, the surface cools more rapidly than the air above, giving a rise to the formation of temperature  
294 inversions. It causes the air above the temperature inversion to decouple from the surface's frictional  
295 effects (Mirza et al., 2024). The weaker friction enables an acceleration of wind aloft with the  
296 development of a pronounced super-geostrophic wind speed maximum. Such undisturbed inertial  
297 oscillations are a widely known formation mechanism of nocturnal LLJ (NLLJ) (Sisterson and Frenzen,  
298 1978). LLJs are often most pronounced during the early morning hours, typically before the onset of  
299 daytime heating. During this time, the temperature inversion is typically strongest because nocturnal  
300 cooling has been ongoing for several hours. After sunrise, the onset of daytime heating gradually disrupts  
301 the stable boundary layer, reducing the occurrences of LLJ formation. Consequently, LLJs are less



302 frequent between noon and sunset.

303 In Figure 4(b), more than 70% of LLJs commonly occur at heights ranging from 0.3 km to 0.8 km  
304 AGL in all seasons except summer. The vertical distribution of LLJs occurrences frequency in this study  
305 also corresponds to previous studies. For example, Yan et al. (2021) found that 400 m AGL was the most  
306 frequent height for the jet-nose appearing in the Huaihe River Basin. Wei et al. (2013) revealed that 76%  
307 of the observed LLJs were found to occur at an average altitude below 600 m in the Yangtze River Delta  
308 region. Following the classification of (Rife et al., 2010), the dominant type of LLJs in Hefei can be  
309 identified as BLJs that occur mainly in the PBL below 1 km AGL. The highest occurrence frequency of  
310 LLJs appeared between 0.5 km and 0.6 km AGL in all months other than July, with peak heights between  
311 0.7 and 0.8 km AGL. The frequency of LLJs occurrences varies with months and heights in Hefei. LLJs  
312 occurrences are most frequent during spring months, with decreasing frequency from March to May. Our  
313 results are consistent with Yan et al. (2021), who found that LLJs were the most frequent in spring in  
314 Huaihe River Basin based on long-term radiosonde observations from 2011 to 2017. The driving  
315 mechanisms to LLJs include inertial oscillations under stable stratification, fronts and baroclinic weather  
316 patterns in flat terrain, orographic and thermal effects in complex terrain. Considering the topography  
317 and weather patterns, Hefei is prone to cyclones throughout the year, so the Asian monsoon system and  
318 synoptic processes may be the most important influential factors in LLJs activities. In contrast, previous  
319 studies on the LLJ climatology over other typical regions or cities showed different seasonal variations  
320 of LLJs occurrences. For example, LLJs occur more often in spring and winter in Beijing while those  
321 appear more frequently from October to December and from February to April in Guangzhou using long-  
322 term wind profiler observations (Miao et al., 2018).



323

324 **Figure 5.** Wind rose charts for total LLJ events accounted for each season at Hefei. (a) Spring: Mar-May; (b) Summer:  
325 Jun-Aug; (c) Autumn: Sep-Nov; and (d) Winter: Dec-Feb.

326 Figure 5(a) shows that the dominant wind directions of LLJs during spring are from the east (E) to  
327 the southeast (SE). Furthermore, the maximum HWS of LLJs reaches up to  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  with more than half  
328 of HWS exceeding  $12 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The varying dominant wind directions are associated with the transition  
329 from the influence of the East Asian winter monsoon (EAWM) to its summer phase over Hefei. LLJs  
330 occurrences peak in March due to its unique atmospheric conditions. During this time, the influence of  
331 the winter monsoon is waning, but the full onset of the summer monsoon has not yet occurred. This

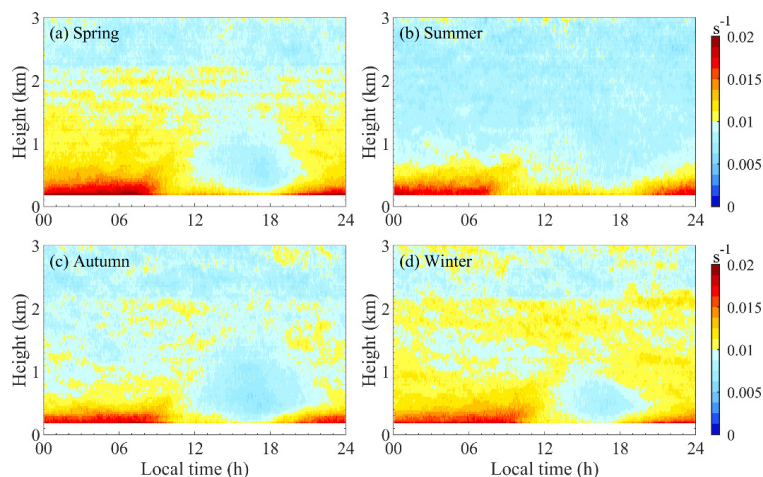


332 environment of a mix of cold and warm air masses is particularly favorable for LLJs formation.  
333 Compared to March, LLJs occurrences are less frequent in April and May as the East Asian Summer  
334 Monsoon (EASM) begins to take hold. As spring progresses, the strong baroclinic conditions that favors  
335 LLJs formation begin to weaken. Because the temperature gradient between the cold north and the  
336 warming south decreases driven by the growing influence of the western Pacific Subtropical High  
337 (WPSH).

338 The overall occurrence frequency of LLJs during summer is lower than that in spring, but their  
339 intensity is the strongest. In Figure 5(b), the predominant wind directions of LLJs are from the south (S)  
340 and the east-southeast (ESE) with peak HWS reaching  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . During summer, the fully established  
341 EASM is favorable for LLJs formation. Furthermore, the WPSH system extends northwestward from the  
342 western Pacific Ocean towards eastern China, stabilizing the atmospheric conditions that favors LLJs  
343 formation. The stronger the WPSH, the more intense the pressure gradient, which can lead to stronger  
344 southeast-west winds at low levels. The LLJs occurrence generally peak in July, followed by June and  
345 August. In July, the EASM is typically at the peak and the WPSH is usually at its most expansive and  
346 positioned to exert the strongest influence over eastern China, including Hefei.

347 LLJs occurrences are less frequent during autumn and winter compared to spring and summer.  
348 Figure 5(c) shows the predominant easterly wind direction ( $>12\%$ ) of LLJs throughout all autumn months,  
349 with the maximum HWS reaching up to  $24 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . As autumn approaches, the EASM transitions to the  
350 EAWN and the WPSH further shifts eastward and southward (Figure A1). This shift exerts a weaker but  
351 persistent influence that channels the air from the east. The least frequency of LLJs occurrences in winter  
352 could be associated with general calm wind conditions in the lower troposphere (Figure 3d) and large-  
353 scale synoptic systems, like cold fronts and high-pressure systems. These systems may not be conducive  
354 to the formation of LLJs which typically require a specific set of atmospheric conditions, such as stable  
355 conditions and wind shear. During winter, the predominant wind direction of LLJs during winter was  
356 from the northwest (NE) in Figure 5(d), which is due to the dominance of the EAWN. The prevailing NE  
357 wind of LLJs in winter was not as strong as in the other seasons, with maximum HWS reaching  $16 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .  
358 Therefore, LLJs in Hefei are dominated by southwesterly winds in summer and northeasterly winds in  
359 winter.

### 360 3.4 Diurnal cycle of VWSH profiles for each season



361



362

**Figure 6.** The same as in Fig. 3 but for VWSH.

363 VWSH depends directly on vertical wind profiles and exhibits both diurnal and seasonal variations  
364 within the boundary layer, as shown in Figure 6(a)–(d). Due to surface friction, the wind speeds decrease  
365 within the urban canopy, eventually reaching zero at ground level. These rapid changes in wind speed  
366 create a large wind speed gradient, resulting in an increased shear intensity in the surface layer.  
367 Throughout all seasons in Hefei, high VWSH values exceeding  $0.015 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  per meter (hereafter denoted  
368 by  $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) are typically observed below 0.4 km.

369 Below 0.5 km, VWSH decreases from sunrise to the afternoon due to surface heating and increased  
370 atmospheric mixing, which consequently led to a more uniform wind profile (Figure 3). In contrast, it  
371 increases from sunset to early morning as surface cooling induces a temperature inversion, which creates  
372 a stable boundary layer where winds aloft decouple from the surface. At night, a sharper wind speed  
373 gradient with height is created under fully developed stable boundary layer, leading to maximum VWSH  
374 in this layer. In the low to mid-level atmosphere (0.5–1 km), VWSH also varies diurnally, with relatively  
375 lower values compared to VWSH below 0.5 km. Daytime VWSH in this layer is generally due to the  
376 well-mixed boundary layer. But it can vary depending on local weather conditions and synoptic  
377 influences. At night, high VWSH values above  $0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$  is usually associated with the presence of a LLJ  
378 and/or a strong temperature inversion, with the maximum VWSH typically occurring just below the core  
379 of the LLJ. In the upper level ( $> 1 \text{ km}$ ), VWSH is less influenced by the diurnal cycle and remained  
380 relatively stable throughout the day. However, high VWSH can still occur in this layer when it is coupled  
381 with LLJs or influenced by large-scale synoptic systems.

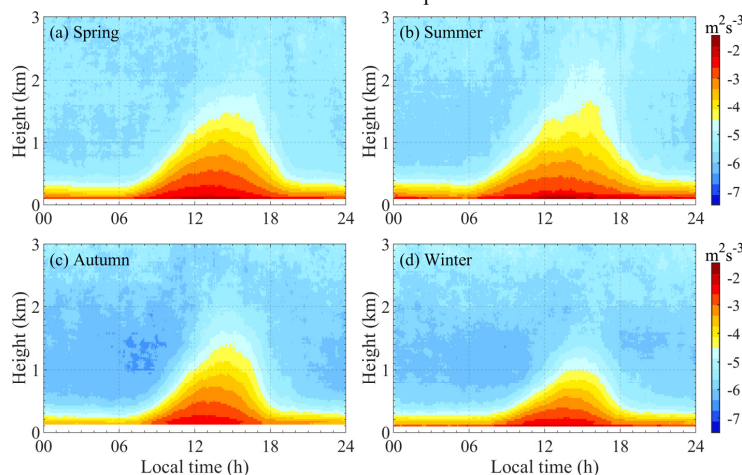
382 The seasonal variation of VWSH is closely linked to the region's climatic patterns, particularly the  
383 influence of the East Asian monsoons, which drive significant changes in temperature, wind patterns,  
384 and atmospheric stability throughout the year. In general, high VWSH values ( $> 0.015 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) near the  
385 surface are related to LLJs occurrences across all seasons. On the contrary, VWSH values above 1 km in  
386 spring and winter are significantly larger compared to summer and autumn, which spatial pattern also  
387 corresponds to vertical distributions of seasonal HWS profiles. During the two seasons, Hefei often  
388 receives invasion of cold air/surge events, leading to strong winds. In winter, Hefei experiences strong  
389 VWSH primarily due to the impact of the EAWM and large-scale synoptic systems, such as cold fronts  
390 and jet-streams. Weaker solar heating in winter results in less pronounced diurnal variation of VWSH.  
391 These synoptic systems also lead to significant VWSH ( $> 0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) above 1 km, which is characterized  
392 by strong winds aloft. In spring, Hefei experiences strong VWSH due to the transitional atmospheric  
393 conditions of the season. The diurnal variation shows a decrease in VWSH after 8:00 a.m. in the morning  
394 compared to winter (Figure 6a). The variability in wind directions and speeds contributed to fluctuating  
395 VWSH above 1 km influenced by shifting synoptic-scale systems and developing convective activity in  
396 late spring.

397 In contrast, relatively lower VWSH values between  $0.005 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$  above 1 km are observed  
398 in summer. The weather is dominated by the summer monsoon flow and localized convective systems.  
399 These conditions result in a generally weaker VWSH with less pronounced diurnal variation compared  
400 to other seasons. Due to significant vertical convective mixing, the wind profile becomes more uniform,  
401 resulting in weaker VWSH above 1 km (Figure 6b). As the influence of the winter monsoon begins to  
402 dominate, the strong winds aloft and weak surface winds contribute to an increasing VWSH in autumn  
403 compared to summer (Figure 6c). Similar to winter, VWSH in autumn is more pronounced at night and  
404 early morning due to the formation of temperature inversions. During the day, the reduction in VWSH  
405 driven by vertical mixing is less noticeable than in summer, as the overall atmospheric stability increases.



### 406 3.5 Seasonal characteristics of the diurnal TKEDR profiles

407 As one of the characteristic features of the atmospheric turbulence, the TKEDR plays a crucial role  
408 in boundary layer parameterization schemes. It determines the rate at which turbulent kinetic energy is  
409 converted into thermal energy, directly influencing the vertical fluxes of momentum, heat, and mass.  
410 Long-term measurements of TKEDR will enhance our understanding of boundary layer dynamic  
411 processes and lead to more accurate simulations in atmospheric models.



412

413

**Figure 7.** The same as Fig. 3 but for TKEDR.

414 Figure 7 illustrates the typical diurnal and seasonal cycles of the TKEDR profile. The TKEDR is  
415 highest near the surface, with typical values ranging from approximately  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-3}$ , depending on  
416 the time of day and season. It decreases with height due to the diminishing influence of surface friction  
417 and thermal stratification. The convective boundary layer (or mixing layer) is clearly visible by noting  
418 where TKEDR is high. Diurnal variation starts from sunrise, as the increased temperature gradient  
419 between the surface and the above air enhances thermal buoyancy, which in turn promotes vertical  
420 convective mixing and turbulence. This causes TKEDR near the surface to grow and extend toward  
421 higher altitudes. In spring and summer, stronger and longer solar radiation leads to a more developed  
422 convective boundary layer, both in terms of duration and height, compared to autumn and winter. The  
423 convective boundary layer reaches its peak in the early afternoon, then begins to decay after 16:00 p.m.,  
424 eventually returning to a shallow well-mixed layer near the ground, approximately 350 m in spring and  
425 summer, and around 250 m in autumn and winter. During the night, a stable atmospheric layer was  
426 formed near the surface and turbulence was primarily driven by mechanical factors (e.g., wind shear)  
427 rather than thermal convection. The complex urban surface roughness enhances wind friction, resulting  
428 in intensified turbulence, particularly during spring and summer when nocturnal LLJs occur more  
429 frequently. This increased turbulence contributes to the elevated TKEDR observed at night during these  
430 seasons.

431

As TKEDR decreases with altitude, its contour lines (though not explicitly plotted but evident from  
432 the color gradations in Figure 7) display a right-skewed shape, with a delayed peak time. This delay can  
433 be attributed to two factors: first, convective mixing activity takes time to propagate upward from the  
434 surface. Second, the ground cools more rapidly than the air in the late afternoon. Consequently,  
435 turbulence at higher altitudes lags low-level activity, reflecting the thermal-driven development of



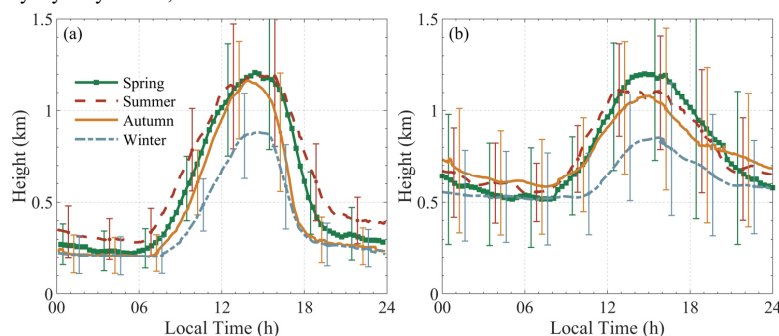
436 turbulence and energy within the atmospheric boundary layer.

437 Here, we define the top of the convective boundary layer as the height where TKEDR reaches  $10^{-4}$   
438  $\text{m}^2\text{s}^{-3}$ . It should be noted that this height can be different from the MLH given in the next section (Sect.  
439 3.6), where the seasonal average MLH is calculated from the daily MLHs. We can see that the top of the  
440 convective boundary layer during daytime in summer exhibits dramatic fluctuations, as shown in Figure  
441 7(b), which could be attributed to the deep convective activities in the afternoon. Unstable atmospheric  
442 stratification enhances vertical convection, leading to the formation of local convective clouds and  
443 thunderstorms. These clouds reduce the amount of solar radiation reaching the surface, causing localized  
444 cooling. Additionally, this process exacerbates the unevenness in the horizontal distribution of  
445 temperature in the affected areas.

446 Overall, these seasonal and diurnal variations in TKEDR highlight the complex interactions  
447 between surface properties, atmospheric stability, and weather systems in shaping the turbulence  
448 characteristics within the boundary layer.

### 449 3.6 Seasonal variation of diurnal MLH for clear and cloudy days

450 The diurnal variations of MLH and BLH across different seasons in Hefei are depicted in Figure  
451 8(a) and (b), respectively. The MLH is based on turbulence activities, while the BLH is based on the  
452 vertical distribution of material (here aerosol). Therefore, both reflect the diurnal cycle of atmospheric  
453 boundary layer dynamics, but there are some differences.



454

455 **Figure 8.** Time series plots of the seasonal average (a) MLH and (b) BLH at Hefei. The error bars represent one  
456 standard deviation  $\pm\sigma$ , and their positions (corresponding to time) vary slightly in different seasons to facilitate  
457 comparison.

458 After sunrise, surface heating induced by solar radiation promotes the development of vertical  
459 convective mixing, and drives the surface aerosols upward. When the temperature gradient between the  
460 surface and air reaches its maximum, the MLH rises fastest, which appears at about 9:00-10:00 a.m. This  
461 time varies with seasons, just as the sunrise time, with the earliest in summer, followed by spring, autumn,  
462 and winter. The value of MLH at a certain time also shows the same seasonal relationship, except for the  
463 afternoon in summer. Although solar radiation is highest at noon, the short-wave incident radiation  
464 received by the surface in the afternoon is still greater than the long-wave outgoing radiation. Therefore,  
465 the MLH continues to grow, reaching its maximum between 2:00 p.m. and 3:00 p.m. with about 1.2 km  
466 in spring and summer, slightly lower in autumn, and 0.8 km in winter.

467 The similar afternoon peak of MLH between summer and spring could be attributed to several  
468 factors. In the northern hemisphere, the summer solstice which occurs around June 21st or 22nd, is

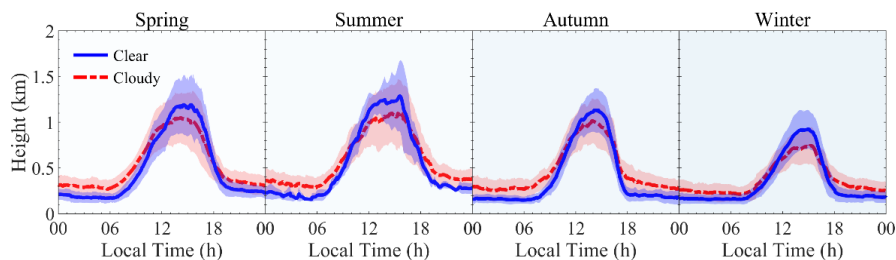




469 relatively close to the spring period. This timing means that the transition from spring to summer is not  
470 always abrupt. Furthermore, high surface temperatures and increased evapotranspiration during summer  
471 lead to frequent convective clouds and precipitation. These factors reduce solar radiation received by the  
472 ground and weaken convective mixing, which can suppress the MLH. As a result, the seasonally averaged  
473 MLH reflects these cloudy conditions, leading to a peak height that may not be as high as one might  
474 expect on clear days.

475 In the late afternoon, as surface temperatures decrease due to radiative cooling, vertical convection  
476 weakens and turbulence kinetic energy dissipates more rapidly, leading to a faster decline in MLH  
477 compared to its increase in the morning. Meanwhile, the decrease in BLH is more gradual due to the  
478 slower rate of dry deposition of aerosols. It is noteworthy that the BLH curves exhibit larger fluctuations  
479 and significantly higher standard deviations compared to the MLH curves. This is primarily due to the  
480 considerable retrieval uncertainty in BLH measurements, which are influenced by aerosol distribution.  
481 Transboundary aerosols, clouds, and multilayer aerosols (e.g., residual layer) frequently affect these  
482 measurements, a well-recognized issue with aerosol-based BLH retrieval methods (Dang et al., 2019;  
483 Mei et al., 2022; Kotthaus et al., 2023).

484 During the night, the temperature inversion layer inhibits vertical thermal convection and mixing.  
485 Instead, mechanical mixing driven by wind shear becomes predominant, especially in the presence of  
486 low-level jets. Consequently, the MLH is typically highest in summer at about 0.3 km, followed by spring,  
487 and lowest in autumn and winter, about 0.2 km. In contrast, The BLH remains higher than the MLH, at  
488 approximately 0.5–0.7 km. The higher nocturnal BLH in autumn may be related to the transboundary  
489 transport of aerosols and meteorological factors. Both the MLH and the BLH continue to decrease and  
490 reach their minimum at sunrise in the next diurnal cycle.



491

492 **Figure 9.** Time series plots of the seasonal average MLH (line) and one-sigma standard deviation (shaded area) for  
493 clear days and cloudy days during each season at Hefei, respectively.

494 To further investigate the influence of clouds on the development of MLH, we compared the  
495 seasonally averaged diurnal MLH under different weather conditions, as shown in Figure 9. The diurnal  
496 MLH showed significant differences between clear and cloudy days, and exhibited similar characteristics  
497 in each season. Overall, the diurnal variation of the MLH was less pronounced on cloudy days with a  
498 flatter curve, due to the modulation of clouds on the surface radiation budget. During daytime, the  
499 presence of clouds typically reduces surface heating by solar radiation, which inhibits the development  
500 of vertical convective mixing and results in a shallower mixed layer compared to clear weather conditions.  
501 The difference of MLH reaches its maximum of about 200 m in the afternoon. While during the night,  
502 clouds act as a "greenhouse" by absorbing longwave radiation from the ground and slowing down the  
503 radiative cooling, which results in a higher MLH compared to clear days. The mean difference in MLH  
504 between cloudy and clear days is about 100 m.



505 Note that, the diurnal MLH in summer showed relatively large variations, particularly on clear days.  
506 This variability can be attributed to strong and variable convective activity, as well as to the limited  
507 number of data samples. Plum rains and frequent convective clouds in summer lead to a much lower  
508 proportion of sunny days than in other seasons.

#### 509 4. Summary and Conclusions

510 In this study, three years of Doppler wind lidar measurements (spanning from June 2019 to June  
511 2022) were utilized to characterize the PBL dynamics over Hefei City in western YRD, China. Compared  
512 to aerosol lidars, the CDWL is capable of providing additional Doppler information including vertical  
513 wind profiles, wind shear intensity, and turbulence mixing, with high spatiotemporal resolution.  
514 Moreover, we identified LLJs events based on the nose characteristic of wind speed and retrieved both  
515 the turbulence-based MLH and the aerosol-based BLH. Both seasonal and diurnal variations of these key  
516 parameters were comprehensively analyzed to shed new insights into the structure and dynamics of the  
517 PBL. The results are summarized as follows:

518 (1) Seasonal characteristics of wind profile: The frequency distribution of HWS exhibited a  
519 rightward skew in all seasons, with lower values near the ground, and with a steady increase from 2 to 7  
520  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  between 300 m and 3 km AGL, and a more rapid acceleration above 3 km. HWS% profiles in spring  
521 and summer were more dispersed, with a lower frequency of high HWS occurrences ( $\text{HWS} > 10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ )  
522 above 3 km. Seasonal HWD% profiles showed a predominance of westerly winds ( $270^\circ \pm 15^\circ$ ) above 3  
523 km, while HWD within the PBL was more variable and chaotic. Seasonal VWS% profiles also exhibited  
524 a right-skewed pattern with central values ranging between  $-0.2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  and  $-0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , indicating upward  
525 motion. Winter, influenced by cold fronts associated with the winter monsoon, had the highest frequency  
526 of negative VWS values, ranging from 4% to 7% below 3 km AGL.

527 (2) Diurnal characteristics of wind profile: A typical GWZ ( $\text{HWS} < 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) formed in the PBL  
528 during the day in all seasons, with its diurnal variation strongly correlated with the development of the  
529 mixing layer. The vertical height of high wind zone ( $> 8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) during the day was much lower than at  
530 night, particularly in winter, reaching 1.5 km between 11:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m. In all seasons except  
531 winter, a distinct local maximum in HWS between 0.4 km and 0.8 km was observed after 8:00 p.m. and  
532 before 7:00 a.m. the next day. The phenomenon was most pronounced in summer due to the influence of  
533 nocturnal LLJs.

534 (3) Monthly characteristics of LLJs: The dominant type was identified as BLJs in Hefei, with  
535 occurrences being most frequent in spring (31.7%), followed by summer (24.7%), autumn (22.3%), and  
536 winter (21.3%) in. LLJs were more frequently during the night and early morning throughout the year,  
537 with 70% typically occurring at heights ranging from 0.3 km to 0.8 km AGL in all seasons except summer.  
538 The highest occurrence frequency of LLJs appeared between 0.5 km and 0.6 km AGL in all months other  
539 than July, with peak heights between 0.7 and 0.8 km AGL. Predominant wind directions of LLJs were  
540 from the E and SE in spring, from S and ESE in summer, from E in autumn, and from NE in winter. LLJs  
541 in summer were most intensified with largest frequency of high HWS ( $> 16 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and extended to  
542 altitudes of up to 1.5 km.

543 (4) Seasonal and diurnal characteristics of VWSH, TKEDR, and BLH: High VWSH values  
544 exceeding  $0.015 \text{ s}^{-1}$  were typically observed below 0.4 km, which was usually associated with the LLJs  
545 and/or strong temperature inversions at night. VWSH values above 1 km were significantly larger in  
546 spring and winter compared to summer and autumn, correlating with vertical distributions of seasonal  
547 HWS profiles. Strong wind speed gradients below and above the LLJs induced large vertical wind shear



548 intensity (up to  $0.02 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and TKEDR (up to  $10^{-3} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-3}$ ) in the near-surface layer at night. TKEDR was  
549 generally highest near the surface, ranging from  $10^{-3}$  to  $10^{-2} \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-3}$  in all seasons. The BLH exhibited larger  
550 fluctuations and greater standard deviations compared to the MLH. The peak MLH occurred between  
551 2:00 p.m. and 3:00 p.m., reaching  $\sim 1.2 \text{ km}$  in spring and summer, slightly lower in autumn, and around  
552  $0.8 \text{ km}$  in winter. After sunset, it eventually returned to a shallow well-mixed layer near the ground ( $\sim 350$   
553  $\text{m}$  in spring and summer, and  $\sim 250 \text{ m}$  in autumn and winter). Compared to clear days, cloud cover reduces  
554 the MLH by about  $200 \text{ m}$  at the afternoon peak time, while increasing it by approximately  $100 \text{ m}$  at night.

555 In conclusion, these analyses highlight the characteristics of PBL dynamics and their complex  
556 interactions with surface heating/cooling, atmospheric stability, and synoptic-scale weather patterns. The  
557 long-term statistical results will not only advance scientific understanding, but will also serve as essential  
558 references for formulating local standards and regional delineation, including vertical zoning, related to  
559 low-altitude economic activities, such as wind energy and drone logistics.

560

561

562 **Data Availability.** The Doppler wind lidar data used in this study can be provided for non-commercial  
563 research purposes upon request to the first author (Tianwen Wei: [twwei@nuist.edu.cn](mailto:twwei@nuist.edu.cn)). The ERA5 data  
564 sets are publicly available from the ECMWF website at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu>.

565

566 **Author contributions.** Tianwen Wei: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis,  
567 Visualization, Writing – review & editing. Mengya Wang: Conceptualization, Writing – original draft,  
568 Methodology, Investigation. Kenan Wu: Resources, Data curation. Jinlong Yuan: Resources, Data  
569 curation. Haiyun Xia: Conceptualization, Supervision, Resources, Validation. Simone Lolli: Writing –  
570 review & editing, Validation.

571

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578

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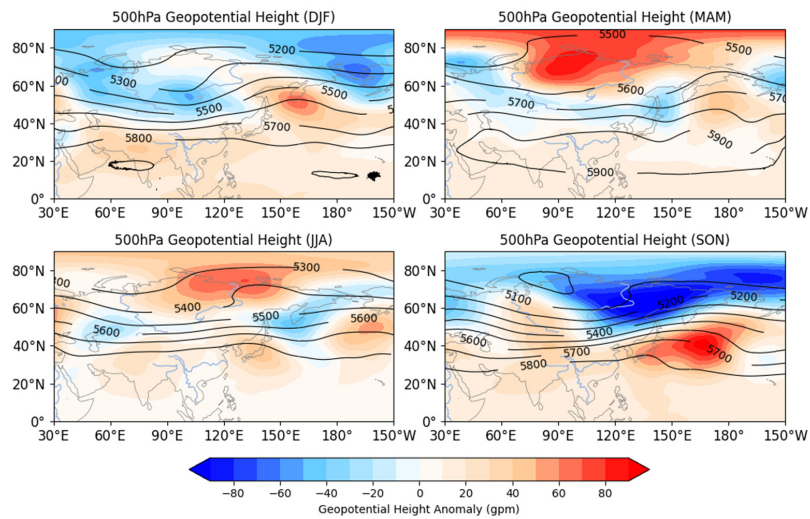
## 841 Appendix A

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**Table A1.** Key Operating Parameters of the Doppler Lidar System

Parameter	Parameter	Value
Laser	Wavelength (nm)	1548
	Pulse energy ( $\mu\text{J}$ )	300
	Pulse duration (ns)	600
	Repetition rate (kHz)	10
	AOM frequency shift (MHz)	80
Telescope	Diameter (mm)	100
Data	Sampling frequency (MHz)	250
	Range gate length (m)	30/60/150
	Time resolution (s)	1
Scanning	Scanning mode	VAD
	Elevation angle ( $^\circ$ )	60
	Azimuth angle ( $^\circ$ )	0-300

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845 **Figure A1.** Seasonal distributions of 500-hPa geopotential height (contour, units: gpm) and geopotential height  
846 anomalies (shaded, units: gpm).