

1 **Disparate evolution mechanisms and optical**
2 **absorption for transboundary soot particles passing**
3 **through inland and sea pathways**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Soot particles, as a type of warming aerosols, play a critical role in climate warming.
26 During transport, these particles undergo atmospheric condition-dependent aging
27 processes that influence their microphysical and optical properties. Here, we
28 investigated the variations in morphology, mixing structures, sizes, and optical
29 absorption of soot-containing particles and further revealed their evolution mechanisms
30 during two distinct transboundary transport through the inland and sea pathways.
31 Comparing transboundary soot-containing particles transported through the inland and
32 sea pathways, we found more soot cores in the latter individual particles, although their
33 dominant mixing structures exhibited a similar transition from partly-coated at 62-67%
34 by number to embedded structures at 71-72%. The core-shell size ratio (D_p/D_c) and soot
35 core fractal dimension of embedded soot-containing particles transported through the
36 sea pathway were both greater compared to the inland pathway. These differences were
37 attributed to distinct evolution mechanisms experienced by soot-containing particles
38 during transport: heterogeneous aging processes through the inland pathway and cloud
39 processes through the sea pathway. Optical simulation showed amplified light
40 absorption of soot-containing particles during their transboundary transport.
41 Furthermore, the radiative absorption amplification per unit D_p/D_c change reduced by
42 72% due to the entrainment of multiple soot cores within individual particles following
43 the transport pathway change from the inland to the sea. This study suggests varied
44 mixing configurations and radiative absorption of transboundary soot-containing
45 particles driven by different environmental conditions and highlights the necessity of
46 incorporating multicore black carbon mixing structures into climate models.

47 **1. Introduction**

48 In recent years, eastern China still faces severe haze pollution in winter despite a
49 series of control policies adopted by the local government (Peng et al., 2021; Zang et
50 al., 2022; Zhai et al., 2021). High concentrations of fine haze particles not only affect
51 human health (Geng et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2017b), but also influence the global
52 climate (Li et al., 2016a; Suzuki and Takemura, 2019). In addition to high emissions of
53 pollutants and stable meteorological conditions (Niu et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2019;
54 Zheng et al., 2015), transboundary transport of pollutants has been confirmed to be an
55 important factor causing the formation of regional haze pollution in eastern China in
56 winter (Li et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019a). For example, large
57 amounts of haze pollutants in the North China Plain (NCP) can be transported
58 thousands of kilometers to the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) under cold fronts to induce
59 long-lasting regional haze events (Huang et al., 2020).

60 In eastern China, the NCP and the YRD as two rapid economic developed regions
61 suffer the heaviest haze pollution (Zhong et al., 2019). Recent studies found frequent
62 transboundary transport of pollutants from the NCP to the YRD using various methods
63 including field observation and model simulation (Kang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019;
64 Xie et al., 2023; Yan et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2021). For instance, Kang et al. (2019)
65 utilized numerical models to show that the PM_{2.5} contribution from the NCP reached to
66 ~30% in the YRD under cold fronts. Field results showed that concentrations of organic
67 matter and secondary inorganic ions in PM_{2.5} in the YRD increased by approximately
68 1-2 times following the invasion of haze pollutants from the NCP (Zhang et al., 2021).
69 Xie et al. (2023) also suggested that carbonaceous aerosols and secondary inorganic
70 ions were effectively transported from the NCP to the YRD based on the simulation of
71 the average atmospheric age of haze particles. During the transboundary transport,
72 abundant secondary aerosols (e.g., sulfate and nitrate) can be formed through
73 heterogeneous chemical processes, influencing the particulate hygroscopicity (Li et al.,
74 2019; Li et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2021). Although these studies revealed changes in
75 the bulk chemical composition of fine particles and main formation processes of

76 secondary aerosols during the transport, there is a lack of evolution mechanisms of
77 transboundary particles and their potential health or climate effects.

78 We noticed that cold fronts had different pathways to convey air pollutants from
79 the NCP to the YRD depending on the location of high-pressure systems. The previous
80 studies showed that cold fronts from the high-pressure system locating in the west of
81 the NCP normally transported haze pollutants across city clusters in eastern China (Hou
82 et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2021). If the high-pressure system is located in the interior of the
83 NCP, heavy haze covering the Jing-Jin-Ji region (i.e., Beijing, Tianjin, and Hebei) could
84 move out from inland China to the East China Sea and return into the inland region
85 under prevailing winds, influencing air quality of the YRD (see section 3.1). These haze
86 movements from the NCP to the YRD were clearly observed from the satellites
87 (<https://worldview.earthdata.nasa.gov>). To our knowledge, the previous studies only
88 focused on the haze transportation from the NCP to the YRD through the inland
89 pathway based on field measurements and model simulation (Huang et al., 2020; Yan
90 et al., 2024). Obviously, there is a bench of data available from national ground
91 monitoring net station of air quality to support the measurements and modelling studies.
92 However, transboundary haze pollutants crossing the East China Sea remain
93 unexplored. We expect different chemical mechanisms and aging processes in gas-
94 aerosol interactions in two haze layers because of different meteorological factors (e.g.,
95 relative humidity) and pollutant emissions in transport pathways.

96 Soot particles dominated by black carbon, mainly emitted from incomplete
97 burning of fossil, biomass, and other non-biological fuels, are important light absorbing
98 aerosols in fine particles (Bond et al., 2013). They exert positive radiative forcing
99 effects on global warming in the atmosphere (Cappa et al., 2012; Jacobson, 2001). Soot
100 particles serve as an excellent tracer to reflect atmospheric aging because their
101 morphology (Fierce et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2019), mixing states
102 (Wang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2016), sizes (Adachi et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2020), and
103 mass (Liu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018) can be significantly altered during transport.
104 Previous global studies examining pollutant transport, such as trans-oceanic dust events

105 affecting East Asia (Xu et al., 2020) and North America outflow influencing the Azores
106 in the North Atlantic (China et al., 2015), have extensively utilized soot particles as a
107 primary investigative target to understand environmental impacts. The transport
108 corridor from the NCP to the YRD represents no exception, where soot particles persist
109 as a critical, abundant component of atmospheric aerosols (Huang et al., 2020; Zhang
110 et al., 2023). Compared to transport over inland China, soot particles transported to the
111 YRD from the NCP via the East China Sea may encounter more humid conditions.
112 These distinct atmospheric environments can lead to different alterations in soot
113 physicochemical properties (Li et al., 2024). Therefore, the evolution of soot particles
114 and their environmental and climate impacts should be examined in different synoptic
115 weather processes. When simulating soot climate effect in models, the complicated
116 microphysical properties of soot particles could be underestimated due to limited
117 studies, thereby introducing considerable uncertainties into the results (Chen et al.,
118 2025; IPCC, 2021).

119 To bridge this critical gap, we observed two types of transboundary transport
120 events of haze pollutants (passing through the inland and through the sea pathways)
121 from the NCP to the YRD and first compared physicochemical characteristics (e.g.,
122 morphology, mixing structures, and sizes) of transboundary soot particles in the two
123 events by various microscopic measurements. Based on microscopic observations, the
124 evolution mechanisms of two types of transboundary soot particles were unveiled.
125 Using a novel optical calculation model, we further estimated the change in soot optical
126 absorption between two types of transboundary transport. This study aims to emphasize
127 how divergent transport environments (inland vs. sea) impart distinct physicochemical
128 effects on soot particles. This promotes understanding of the weather-aerosol-pollution-
129 climate nexus, ultimately informing more accurate prediction of soot role in regional
130 climate forcing and atmospheric chemistry.

131

132 **2. Methods**

133 **2.1 Sample collection**

134 Three sites (Beijing, Handan, and Zhengzhou) in the NCP and two sites (Nanjing
135 and Hangzhou) in the YRD were selected to collect ambient PM_{2.5} and individual
136 aerosol particles in December 2017 and 2020 based on the transport behavior of
137 airborne pollutants under cold fronts in winter (Figure S1). Beijing, Handan, and
138 Zhengzhou are located in the northern, central, and southern parts of the NCP,
139 respectively. Beijing is a typical megacity and influenced by local emissions and
140 regional transport, while Handan and Zhengzhou are two typical industrial cities and
141 affected by local industrial, vehicular, and residential emissions. Nanjing and Hangzhou
142 are two megacities located in the northern and southern parts of the YRD. These two
143 megacities can be influenced when haze particles in the NCP invade the YRD.
144 Therefore, the above five cities in the NCP and YRD are representative for exploring
145 transboundary transport of aerosols (e.g., soot particles) in haze plumes. The detailed
146 information of the sampling sites has been described in previous studies (Zhang et al.,
147 2023; Zhang et al., 2021).

148 Ambient PM_{2.5} and blank samples (no pumping) were collected on preheated
149 quartz filters with 90 mm diameters (600°C for 4 hr, Whatman) twice a day from 8:30
150 (local time) to 20:00 and from 20:30 to 8:00 the next day using medium volume
151 samplers (TH-16A, Wuhan Tianhong, 100 L min⁻¹). Individual aerosol particles were
152 sampled on transmission electron microscopy (TEM) grids and silicon wafers four
153 times a day at around 2:00 (local time), 9:00, 14:00, and 20:00 utilizing individual
154 particle samplers (DKL-2, Genstar, 1 L min⁻¹) equipped with a 0.5 mm jet nozzle
155 impactor. To avoid particles overlapping on the substrate, the sampling duration of
156 individual particles needs to be adjusted from 30 s to 15 min according to current PM_{2.5}
157 concentrations from 17 µg m⁻³ to 320 µg m⁻³. Hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations and
158 meteorological parameters including relative humidity (RH) and winds were derived
159 from local monitoring stations (<https://www.aqistudy.cn/>).

160

161 **2.2 PM_{2.5} and individual particle analyses**

162 Water-soluble inorganic ions (i.e., NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, F⁻, Cl⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, and

163 Mg^{2+}), carbonaceous components (organic and elemental carbon), and trace metallic
164 elements in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples were analyzed using an ion chromatography system (Dionex
165 ICs-90, USA), an OC/EC analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, USA), and inductively coupled
166 plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent 7500ce). The detailed experimental
167 processes can be found in previous studies (Pan et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017a).
168 Considering the contribution of other elements (e.g., O, H, N, and S) to the mass of
169 organic matter (OM, i.e., organic compound), OM concentrations were obtained by
170 multiplying organic carbon (OC) concentrations by 1.91 reported by Xing et al. (2013).

171 Morphology, mixing states, and compositions of individual aerosol particles
172 collected on TEM grids were examined by TEM equipped with energy-dispersive X-
173 ray spectrometry (EDS) (JEM-2100, JEOL). The acquisition time of TEM images and
174 EDS spectra is usually controlled within 15 s because of the damage of electron beams
175 to non-refractory aerosols. To better observe soot mixing structures and measure soot
176 geometrical parameters, we enhanced the electron beam to sublime non-refractory
177 coatings of indiscernible soot cores after conventional TEM observations. Copper
178 element was excluded from particle EDS spectra because TEM grids are made of
179 copper (Li et al., 2025). Using an image analysis software (Radius, EMSIS GmbH), we
180 further obtained the equivalent circle diameter (ECD), length, and area of particles in
181 TEM images. These parameters for indiscernible soot particles were measured under
182 TEM observations with the enhanced electron beam. In this work, 3642 individual
183 particles were analyzed by TEM in total.

184 Three-dimensional morphology of individual particles collected on silicon wafers
185 was probed by atomic force microscopy (AFM, Dimension Icon) in tapping mode.
186 Employing a professional image analysis software (NanoScope Analysis), the bearing
187 area (A) and the bearing volume (V) of particles in AFM images were quantified. The
188 ECD and the equivalent sphere diameter (ESD) of these particles can be calculated
189 applying equations (1) and (2).

$$\text{ECD} = \sqrt{\frac{4A}{\pi}} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{ESD} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{6V}{\pi}} \quad (2)$$

190 Figure S2 shows that there is a good correlation between the ESD and the ECD
 191 with slopes at 0.62 for passing through the inland pathway transport and 0.39 for
 192 passing through the sea pathway transport. According to the relationship between the
 193 ESD and the ECD, ESDs of particles observed by TEM were computed. The ESDs of
 194 soot particles were perceived as equivalent to their ECDs because they are composed
 195 of solid carbonaceous spheres that are not affected by substrates in terms of morphology
 196 (Barone et al., 2012; Li et al., 2016b).

197 The size ratio of soot-containing particles to their soot cores (D_p/D_c) was evaluated
 198 using equation (3):

$$D_p/D_c = \frac{\text{ESD}_{\text{soot-containing}}}{\text{ESD}_{\text{soot}}} \quad (3)$$

199 where $\text{ESD}_{\text{soot-containing}}$ is the ESD of soot cores with their coatings and ESD_{soot} is the
 200 soot core ESD. The volume ratio of soot coatings to soot cores (V_{coating}/V_c) was further
 201 calculated according to the D_p/D_c .

202 Based on the scaling law in the following equation, we obtained the fractal
 203 dimension (D_f) of soot particles, which can be used to reflect the compactness of soot
 204 particles:

$$N = k_g \left(\frac{2R_g}{d_p} \right)^{D_f} \quad (4)$$

205 where N is the monomer number in soot particles, k_g is the fractal prefactor, R_g is the
 206 gyration radius of soot particles, and d_p is the average diameter of soot monomers.

207 The monomer number in soot particles and the gyration radius of soot particles
 208 can be calculated using the following equations:

$$N = k_a \left(\frac{A_a}{A_p} \right)^\alpha \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{L_{\text{max}}}{2R_g} = 1.50 \pm 0.05 \quad (6)$$

209 where A_a is the projected area of soot particles, A_p is the average projected area of soot
 210 monomers, k_a is a constant, α is an empirical projected area exponent, and L_{max} is the

211 maximum length of soot particles.

212 Because the fractal prefactor is highly affected by the overlap between soot
213 monomers (Lapuerta et al., 2015), an overlap parameter needs to be considered:

$$\delta = \frac{2a}{l} \quad (7)$$

214 where δ is the overlap parameter of soot monomers, a is the average radius of adjacent
215 soot monomers, and l is the spacing of adjacent soot monomers. k_a and α depend on δ
216 (Oh and Sorensen, 1997). Details can be found in Wang et al. (2017).

217

218 **2.3 Meteorological fields and geographic sources**

219 Wind fields coupled with surface PM_{2.5} concentrations covering eastern China
220 were obtained from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF,
221 <https://earth.nullschool.net/>). Meteorological fields including winds and relative
222 humidity (RH) in eastern China at 1000 hPa were simulated using 1° × 1° Final
223 Reanalysis Data (FNL) from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP,
224 <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/>).

225 The potential geographic sources of PM_{2.5} at observation sites (Nanjing and
226 Hangzhou) in the YRD were identified based on the concentration-weighted trajectory
227 (CWT) analysis. In this study, 72 hr of air mass backward trajectories simulated from
228 the wind data sets in the Nation Oceanic Atmospheric Administration (NOAA,
229 <ftp://arlftp.arlhq.noaa.gov/pub/archives/gdas1>) were used for the CWT analysis. The
230 resolution of CWT trajectories consists of thousands of grid cells is 0.3° × 0.3°. The
231 equation for the CWT analysis is as follows:

$$C_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^N \tau_{ijk}} \sum_{k=1}^N C_k \tau_{ijk} \quad (8)$$

232 where C_{ij} is the average PM_{2.5} concentration in a grid cell (i, j); C_k is the measured PM_{2.5}
233 concentration for the trajectory k arriving at the observation site; τ_{ijk} is the number of
234 trajectory endpoints in the grid cell (i, j) for the C_k sample; N is the number of samples
235 with trajectory endpoints in the grid cell (i, j).

236 In the CWT analysis, a weighing function as shown in equation (9) was applied to

237 further improve the CWT accuracy:

$$W = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } \log(n+1) \geq 0.85 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \\ 0.725 & \text{for } 0.6 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \leq \log(n+1) < 0.85 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \\ 0.475 & \text{for } 0.35 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \leq \log(n+1) < 0.6 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \\ 0.175 & \text{for } \log(n+1) < 0.35 \times \max_{\log(n+1)} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

238 where W is weighting factor; n is the number of all trajectory endpoints in a grid cell;
239 $\log(n+1)$ represents the density of trajectories.

240

241 **2.4 Optical calculation**

242 The Electron-Microscope-to-BC-Simulation (EMBS) tool developed by Wang et
243 al. (2021) was used to model morphology and mixing structures of soot particles. The
244 EMBS tool capable of building various soot-containing particle models can be applied
245 in DDSCAT 7.3 to calculate soot optical properties based on the discrete dipole
246 approximation (DDA). DDA is completely flexible to the geometry of object particles
247 under the condition that the inter dipole separation d follows $|m|kd < 0.5$ and $k = 2\pi/\lambda$,
248 where m is the refractive index of particles and λ is the incident light wavelength. To
249 minimize DDA uncertainty, the dipole size is much smaller than the soot monomer size.
250 Based on sizes and mixing structures of soot-containing particles as well as D_f and
251 numbers of soot cores obtained from microscopic analyses, we employed EMBS and
252 DDSCAT 7.3 to calculate the light absorption enhancement (E_{abs}) of soot-containing
253 particles relative to their soot cores at 550 nm λ . In this study, soot-containing particles
254 with one, two, and three or more soot cores were distinguished. The volumes of soot
255 cores and their coatings remained constant in the optical calculation. The refractive
256 indices of soot cores and coatings were considered as $1.85 + 0.71i$ (Bond and Bergstrom,
257 2006) and $1.53 + 0i$ (Worringen et al., 2008), respectively. Details about the EMBS and
258 DDSCAT 7.3 can be found in the previous study (Wang et al., 2021).

259

260 **3. Results and discussion**

261 **3.1 Determination of two types of transport models**

262 Figures S3a-b show variations in hourly winds and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at the

263 observation sites in the NCP and the YRD from December 28 to 31, 2017 and from
264 December 5 to 8, 2020. Based on the association between PM_{2.5} concentrations and
265 prevailing winds described in Text S1, we inferred that there was a typical
266 transboundary transport process of pollutants from the NCP to the YRD on December
267 30-31, 2017 and December 7-8, 2020, respectively. Similar changes in PM_{2.5}
268 concentrations accompanied by winds were also found in many transboundary transport
269 events of pollutants (Wu et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2023; Yan et al., 2024; Zhao et al.,
270 2021).

271 Figure 1 displays meteorological fields coupled with surface PM_{2.5} concentrations
272 in eastern China during two transboundary transport events of pollutants. In the first
273 transport event, the wind blew from the NCP through the inland pathway towards the
274 YRD under the high-pressure system located in the west of the NCP (Figures 1a, 1c,
275 and S3c). This meteorological field was similar to those of transboundary transport haze
276 events from the NCP to the YRD across inland areas (Hou et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2021;
277 Zhang et al., 2023). It is interesting that there was a significant change in the wind field
278 following the high-pressure system movement to the interior of the NCP during the
279 second transport event compared to the first event, manifested as the wind mainly
280 blowing from the NCP to the East China Sea and then to the YRD (Figures 1b, 1d, and
281 S3d). Such wind patterns were observed not only in the second event but also in other
282 periods, as shown in Figure S4. Although a previous study also discovered comparable
283 wind fields between the NCP and the YRD using a weather model, the changes in
284 chemical compositions and microphysical properties of haze particles have not been
285 defined during the transboundary transport (Wu et al., 2022). To determine whether the
286 transport pathway of pollutants was consistent with the wind field, the PM_{2.5} transport
287 pathway was simulated based on the 72 hr CWT analysis (Figure 2). Figure 2 shows
288 that PM_{2.5} in Nanjing and Hangzhou was mainly transported from the NCP through the
289 inland pathway during the first transport event but through the sea pathway during the
290 second transport event. Therefore, we concluded two transport models of haze
291 pollutants from the NCP to the YRD, namely passing through the inland and through

292 the sea pathways.

293 During two transboundary transport events, concentrations of chemical
294 compositions in PM_{2.5} in the NCP and the YRD significantly changed (Figure S5). The
295 concentration of secondary inorganic ions in the NCP decreased from 92-126 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
296 during the polluted period to 28-30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the clean period (Figure S5). OM and
297 EC concentrations in the NCP also decreased from 43-76 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 1.5-2.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
298 during the polluted period to 17-31 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 0.7-0.9 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the clean period
299 (Figure S5). Following the transportation of large amounts of pollutants from the NCP
300 to the YRD, the concentrations of secondary inorganic ions, OM, and EC in the YRD
301 increased from 28-37 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 13-19 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 1.0-1.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the clean period
302 to 63-65 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 32-36 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 1.6-2.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the polluted period,
303 respectively (Figure S5). These results suggest that many primary and secondary
304 aerosols including EC were transported from the NCP to the YRD under cold fronts,
305 both through the inland and the sea pathways. This is consistent with previous studies
306 on the transboundary transport of haze aerosols from the NCP to the YRD (Huang et
307 al., 2020; Li et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2023). In summary, we can confirm that these two
308 events represent typical cases of transboundary transport of haze pollutants from the
309 NCP to the YRD through the inland and the sea pathways.

310 Based on simulated meteorological fields, we noticed that polluted air masses
311 passing through the sea pathway underwent wetter environment during transboundary
312 transport compared to that passing through the inland pathway (Figures 1c-d). Table S1
313 also shows much higher average RH at 90% in the YRD following the transport of haze
314 pollutants from the NCP to the YRD through the sea pathway in contrast to the inland
315 pathway (RH = 83%). High RH can contribute to the transformation of microphysical
316 properties (e.g., mixing structures, sizes, and morphology) of soot particles in the
317 atmosphere, but the reaction mechanism may vary under different high RH levels (Fu
318 et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023). Consequently, we further investigated and compared
319 the microscopic characteristics of soot particles during their transboundary transport
320 through the inland and through the sea pathways.

321

322 **3.2 Classification and fraction change of soot particles: inland vs. sea**

323 Based on morphology, components, and mixing states of individual transported
324 particles examined by TEM-EDS, they were classified into soot-containing, S-
325 OM/metal/fly ash/mineral, S-rich, and OM/metal/fly ash/mineral particles (Figure S6).
326 The specific classification criteria were described in Text S2. Figure S6 shows that the
327 number fraction of soot-containing particles in the NCP decreased from 45% and 51%
328 during the polluted period to 13% and 18% during the clean period following
329 transboundary transport of haze plumes through the inland and the sea pathways. When
330 large amounts of haze pollutants were transported into the YRD from the NCP through
331 the inland and the sea pathways, the number fraction of soot-containing particles in the
332 YRD increased from 38% and 34% during the clean period to 53% and 65% during the
333 polluted period (Figure S6). The change in the number fraction of soot-containing
334 particles in the NCP and the YRD during transboundary transport is consistent with the
335 variation of EC concentrations. These results suggest that abundant soot-containing
336 particles in the NCP were transported to the YRD following transboundary transport of
337 haze plumes.

338 The morphology and mixing structures of soot particles can be changed during
339 transport due to atmospheric aging (Li et al., 2024). Figure 3 shows morphology of soot
340 particles and their mixing structures with other aerosol components observed by TEM.
341 Based on the mixing structure of soot particles, they were divided into three categories:
342 bare-like, partly-coated, and embedded soot particles (Figure 3). Bare-like soot
343 particles are characterized by being isolated and externally mixed with other aerosols
344 (Figure 3a). Partly-coated soot particles manifest as a portion of them being coated by
345 other aerosol components (Figure 3b). Embedded soot particles mean they are
346 completely enveloped by other aerosol materials (Figure 3c). Among these three types
347 of soot particles, bare-like soot particles were considered to be more freshly emitted,
348 while embedded soot particles were more aged (China et al., 2015). To observe some
349 indiscernible embedded soot particles more clearly, their non-refractory coatings (e.g.,

350 S-rich particles) were sublimed under an enhanced electron beam (Figure 3c). In some
351 individual soot-containing particles, thin halos around aerosol components were
352 observed (Figure 3c). These thin halos have been confirmed to be water rims left by the
353 dehydrating of aqueous particles because their EDS spectra are similar to the substrate
354 but different from the organic coating (Zhang et al., 2023). Therefore, soot aggregates
355 with water rims were identified as a type of embedded soot particles.

356 TEM observations showed that there were different numbers of soot cores in
357 individual soot-containing particles during transboundary transport (Figure 4a). Based
358 on the number of soot cores in individual soot-containing particles, we further divided
359 partly-coated soot-containing particles and embedded soot-containing particles into
360 them with 1 soot core, 2 soot cores, and ≥ 3 soot cores (Figure 4a). In this study, less
361 than 10% of soot-containing particles had both embedded and partly-coated soot cores.
362 To categorize these particles, we classified those with more than 95% of the total soot
363 volume embedded in host particles as embedded soot-containing particles, and the
364 remainder as partly-coated types. Because these particles were relatively few, they had
365 a limited impact on the statistical results. Figures 4b-c show the variation in the number
366 fraction of soot-containing particles with different mixing structures and soot core
367 numbers during transboundary transport through the inland and the sea pathways.
368 During the polluted period, partly-coated types were dominant in soot-containing
369 particles in the NCP, accounting for 62-67% (Figures 4b-c). Following the
370 transboundary transport of haze plumes through the inland pathway, the dominated
371 soot-containing particles changed from partly-coated at $67 \pm 4\%$ by number in the NCP
372 to embedded types at $71 \pm 7\%$ in the YRD (Figure 4b). Meanwhile, more than 75% of
373 them had one soot core (Figure 4b). However, we noticed that the soot core number in
374 the dominated soot-containing particles increased from 1 in the NCP to ≥ 3 in the YRD
375 in addition to the change in the dominated mixing structures from partly-coated at $62 \pm$
376 1% by number to embedded ones at $72 \pm 4\%$ when plentiful soot-containing particles
377 were transported through the sea pathway (Figure 4c). These results indicate that soot-
378 containing particles may be subject to different aging processes during their

379 transboundary transport through the inland and the sea pathways. Moreover, large
380 numbers of soot-containing particles with multiple soot aggregates were also observed
381 in an aged atmospheric environment (Wu et al., 2016). However, their aging
382 mechanisms were not effectively elucidated. The potential aging mechanisms for soot-
383 containing particles in two transboundary transport events are discussed in the
384 following section.

385

386 **3.3 Variation in microphysical characteristics of soot particles and potential aging** 387 **mechanisms: inland vs. sea**

388 Figure 5 shows number percentages of bare-like, partly-coated, and embedded
389 soot-containing particles with different numbers of soot cores in different size bins in
390 the NCP and the YRD during two transboundary transport events. Figure 6 displays
391 size distributions of partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particles during their
392 transboundary transport. Bare-like soot particles were mainly concentrated in the finer
393 size range of 0-200 nm during the transboundary transport (Figure 5). In the NCP,
394 partly-coated soot-containing particles with 1 soot core dominated soot-containing
395 particles and mainly distributed in the size range of 200-500 nm during the polluted
396 period (Figures 4b, c and 5a, c). Figure 6a, c shows consistent results that the size
397 distribution of partly-coated soot-containing particles in the NCP had a peak at 396 nm
398 for the transportation through the inland pathway and at 384 nm for the transportation
399 through the sea pathway. As embedded soot-containing particles became the dominant
400 type during the transboundary transport, their size distribution presented a peak at a
401 larger diameter of 505 nm (inland) and at a much larger diameter of 925 nm (sea)
402 compared to the former diameters at 464 nm and 446 nm (Figure 6). The peak diameter
403 at 505 nm for embedded soot-containing particles transported through the inland
404 pathway is close to ~550 nm of aged soot-containing particles during regional haze
405 reported by Wang et al. (2019). Although number fractions of these embedded soot-
406 containing particles with 1 core were high in both the 500-600 nm and 600-700 nm bins
407 (Figure 5b), the absolute number in the 500-600 nm range was approximately twice

408 higher than that in the 600-700 nm range. As a result, the preponderant soot-containing
409 particles in the YRD, i.e., embedded ones with 1 core (inland) and ≥ 3 cores (sea),
410 dominated in the coarser size range of 500-600 nm and in the much coarser size range
411 of > 1600 nm, respectively (Figure 5b, d). These findings suggest that aging processes
412 of soot-containing particles during the transboundary transport through the sea pathway
413 not only acquired more soot cores but also greatly enlarged their sizes in contrast to the
414 inland pathway. Consistently, high numbers of soot cores were found in coarse particles
415 of ≥ 800 nm during transboundary transport of biomass burning emissions (Chen et al.,
416 2023).

417 The D_p/D_c and V_{coating}/V_c ratios of transboundary soot-containing particles were
418 calculated to reflect the coating thickness of soot particles and to quantify the aging
419 degree of soot particles (Figure 7 and Table S2). During two transboundary transport
420 events, the mean D_p/D_c ratios of partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particles
421 presented similar levels at 2.37-2.41 and 2.85-2.92 in the NCP (Figure 7).
422 Correspondingly, the mean V_{coating}/V_c ratios remained at 12-13 and 22-24 (Table S2).
423 Following the transboundary transport of soot-containing particles through the inland
424 pathway, the mean D_p/D_c ratios of partly-coated and embedded soot-containing
425 particles increased from 2.37 ± 1.27 and 2.85 ± 1.89 in the NCP to 2.79 ± 1.37 and 3.41
426 ± 1.87 in the YRD ($P < 0.05$, Figure 7a). Their mean V_{coating}/V_c ratios also increased
427 from 12 and 22 in the NCP to 21 and 39 in the YRD (Table S2). This amount of increase
428 for the D_p/D_c ratio of soot-containing particles is comparable to that from ~ 1.8 to ~ 2.2
429 during haze evolution (Zhang et al., 2019b) and from 1.42 to 1.78 during dust storm
430 transport (Xu et al., 2020). Moreover, consistent with these studies, we observed a
431 transition in the dominant mixing structure of soot particles with secondary coatings
432 from partly-coated with single soot core to embedded with single soot core
433 configurations during the transboundary transport through the inland pathway (Figure
434 4b), indicating that coagulation played a negligible role in the aging process (China et
435 al., 2015). Soot particles have been demonstrated to provide a substrate for the
436 formation of secondary aerosols via heterogeneous or aqueous-phase reactions (Farley

437 et al., 2023; Han et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2025). Figure 8 displays mixing structures of
438 soot-containing particles when they invaded into the YRD through the inland and the
439 sea pathways. It is noted that water rims around soot-containing particles transported
440 through the inland pathway were not observed (Figure 8a, c-d). This implies that
441 aqueous-phase chemistry contributed minimally to secondary aerosol formation on soot
442 particles during the transboundary transport through the inland pathway. As a result,
443 heterogeneous aging processes might mainly drive the enhancement of secondary
444 aerosols on soot-containing particles transported through the inland pathway and
445 enlarged their D_p/D_c ratios.

446 When soot-containing particles were transported from the NCP to the YRD
447 through the sea pathway, the partly-coated D_p/D_c ratio slightly increased from $2.41 \pm$
448 1.37 to 2.66 ± 1.58 , but the embedded D_p/D_c ratio significantly increased from $2.92 \pm$
449 2.01 to 4.38 ± 2.92 ($P < 0.001$, Figure 7b). Consistently, the mean V_{coating}/V_c ratios
450 increased from 13 for the partly-coated structure and 24 for the embedded structure to
451 18 and 83 (Table S2). Similar results were also found in cloud processes with the D_p/D_c
452 increase from 2.3 to 4.4 for embedded soot-containing particles reported by Fu et al.
453 (2022). Moreover, Xu et al. (2020) showed a relatively high D_p/D_c increase proportion
454 of soot-containing particles during the transportation of dust storms from China across
455 the East China Sea to Japan. Based on observed and simulated RH in eastern China
456 (Table S1 and Figures 1c-d), soot-containing particles could experience wetter
457 environments with $> 90\%$ RH during transboundary transport through the sea pathway
458 compared with the inland pathway. We indeed observed obvious water rims around
459 soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway compared to the inland
460 pathway (Figure 8). The presence of water rims indicates that those soot-containing
461 particles were in the aqueous phase prior to being analyzed by TEM under vacuum
462 (Zhang et al., 2023). Laboratory studies have also observed water rims after aqueous-
463 phase particles are dehydrated (Sun et al., 2018). In other words, if particles undergo
464 aqueous-phase processing during transport, and then effloresce under low RH
465 conditions, the water rim will be present as a marker. Additionally, Liu et al. (2018)

466 revealed pronounced aqueous-phase signatures surrounding cloud droplet residuals, as
467 indicated by water rims. AFM measurements further confirmed that the particles
468 transported through the sea pathway exhibited a droplet morphology (Figure S2b). It is
469 noted that the peak diameter and core number of embedded soot-containing particles
470 largely shifted from 446 nm and 1 to 925 nm and ≥ 3 during transboundary transport
471 through the sea pathway (Figures 4c and 6c-d). The evolution implies that simple
472 coagulation or condensation was not the primary aging processes of soot-containing
473 particles in high RH environments, because these mechanisms are insufficient to
474 explain the observed micron-sized particles with multiple cores (Liu et al., 2018).
475 Instead, cloud processing likely played a more important role. Figure S7 shows the
476 satellite image combined with the backward trajectory of haze masses during December
477 7-8, 2020. We found the presence of clouds over the East China Sea during the transport
478 of haze masses through the sea pathway (Figure S7). Moreover, the observed
479 phenomenon of two or more soot cores within individual particles transported through
480 the sea pathway aligns with the findings that a single cloud droplet can entrain
481 numerous refractory aerosol particles (e.g., soot) (Ding et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2018).
482 We further noticed that soot-containing particles did not pass areas with high emissions
483 during transboundary transport through the sea pathway compared to those transported
484 through the inland pathway (Figures 1a-b). These findings suggest that the aging
485 process of soot-containing particles was primarily driven by the meteorological change
486 (i.e., cloud), with minimal contribution from additional industrial and urban emissions
487 along the sea pathway. Therefore, soot-containing particles predominantly underwent
488 cloud process aging during the transboundary transport through the sea pathway,
489 resulting in a significant thickening of coatings on soot cores.

490 The D_f of soot particles serves as a critical metric for assessing their compactness
491 and degree of atmospheric aging processes, providing a quantitative basis for black
492 carbon characterization (Li et al., 2024; Pang et al., 2022). Figure 9 presents the
493 evolution of D_f for partly-coated and embedded soot particles during atmospheric
494 transport through the inland and sea pathways. The D_f of partly-coated and embedded

495 soot particles increased from 1.81 ± 0.03 and 1.90 ± 0.03 in the NCP to 1.84 ± 0.06 and
496 1.93 ± 0.04 in the YRD following the transboundary transport through the inland
497 pathway (Figures 9a-b), suggesting that secondary coatings formed via heterogeneous
498 aging processes enhanced soot compactness during the transport. This varied result of
499 soot D_f during the transboundary transport through the inland pathway is similar to that
500 during the dynamic progression of regional heavy haze pollution in winter (Zhang et
501 al., 2023). However, when soot particles were transported to the YRD from the NCP
502 through the sea pathway, their D_f increased from 1.81 ± 0.05 for partly-coated soot and
503 1.89 ± 0.06 for embedded soot to 1.85 ± 0.06 and 2.07 ± 0.03 (Figures 9c-d). This
504 suggests that the structural collapse of embedded soot particles was more pronounced
505 compared to partly-coated soot particles during the transport through the sea pathway.
506 Moreover, in contrast to the inland pathway, the D_f of embedded soot particles
507 transported through the sea pathway showed a 9.5% greater amplitude (Figure 9). This
508 comparative result is consistent with the observed differences in the D_p/D_c of soot-
509 containing particles during two distinct atmospheric transport events (Figure 7),
510 indicating that cloud process aging can greatly promote the structural collapse of soot
511 aggregates. This mechanism can be ascribed to surface tension induced by the
512 hygroscopic growth of secondary coatings on soot under elevated RH, which collapse
513 the soot fractal morphology through water-mediated structural restructuring (Schnitzler
514 et al., 2017). Therefore, cloud process aging of soot-containing particles during the
515 transboundary transport through the sea pathway acted synergistically to (1) facilitate
516 the entrainment of multiple soot cores, (2) substantially enhance their D_p/D_c ratios by
517 ~50%, and (3) induce more pronounced collapse of soot fractal structures with D_f from
518 1.89 ± 0.06 to 2.07 ± 0.03 .

519

520 **3.4 Optical absorption of soot particles: inland vs. sea**

521 Based on mixing structures of soot particles during the transboundary transport,
522 the light absorption enhancement (E_{abs}) of soot-containing particles with 1-3 cores and
523 different mixing structures (partly-coated and embedded configurations) was calculated

524 by the DDA combined with the EMBS. Considering that embedded soot cores were
525 often distributed at the periphery rather than the center within individual particles
526 (Figure 8), we conducted optical simulations of embedded soot-containing particles
527 based on this realistic mixing structure. In the optical calculation, the diameters of
528 single soot cores and coatings were presumed to 194 nm and 925 nm according to their
529 size distribution (Figures S8 and 6d), and the total volume of soot cores in individual
530 constructed particles was constant when their numbers were changed. Moreover, the
531 coatings of soot cores were assumed to be non-absorbing materials in the optical
532 calculation.

533 Figure 10a shows the change in the E_{abs} of soot-containing particles following their
534 aging from bare-like to partly-coated, and then to embedded states. Compared to soot
535 cores, partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particles present higher E_{abs} (Figure
536 10a), due to the lensing effect (Fierce et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2025). The E_{abs} of soot-
537 containing particles with one soot core increased from 1.80 for the partly-coated
538 structure to 2.83 for the embedded structure (Figure 10a). When soot-containing
539 particles had two soot cores, the E_{abs} increased from 1.74 to 2.44, representing a 0.4-
540 fold increase, with soot aging from partly-coated to embedded configurations (Figure
541 10a). Following the soot core number increase to three, the E_{abs} of soot-containing
542 particles increased by 117% (from 1.04 to 2.26) when their mixing structures changed
543 from partly-coated to embedded status (Figure 10a). These results suggest that
544 individual particles containing higher numbers of soot cores demonstrate larger optical
545 absorption amplification during atmospheric aging processes although their E_{abs} values
546 were lower. Previous studies also found lower absorption efficiency in cloud drops with
547 higher numbers of soot cores (Jacobson, 2006) and smaller E_{abs} in simulated ambient
548 particles with larger number density of soot cores (Fierce et al., 2016). In addition,
549 comparable radiative absorption changes for soot-containing particles with different
550 numbers of soot cores were observed during the transformation of soot core positions
551 (Zhang et al., 2022).

552 Based on the percentage, D_p/D_c , and E_{abs} of soot-containing particles with different

553 mixing structures and core numbers, we can compare the change in radiative absorption
554 capacity per unit the change in coating thicknesses of soot-containing particles during
555 the transboundary transport through the inland and the sea pathways. Figure 10b shows
556 $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ of transboundary soot-containing particles transported through the
557 inland and sea pathways. When soot-containing particles were transported from the
558 NCP to the YRD through the inland pathway, their $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ reached 0.6 (Figure
559 10b). However, the $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ of soot-containing particles was only 0.17 following
560 their transboundary transport through the sea pathway (Figure 10b). Previous studies
561 have revealed that the E_{abs} of soot-containing particles first increases and then tends to
562 stabilize with their coating thickness (e.g., D_p/D_c) increases (Beeler et al., 2024; Fu et
563 al., 2022). We found that the mean D_p/D_c of embedded soot-containing particles
564 exhibited a large value at 4.38 when haze masses were transported through the sea
565 pathway (Figure 7b). In addition, cloud processes induced multiple soot cores within
566 single particles during the transboundary transport through the sea pathway in contrast
567 to the inland pathway, reducing their optical absorption (Figure 10a). Beeler et al. (2024)
568 also found consistent results that much lower E_{abs} variation for soot-containing particles
569 with the thickening of coatings in pyrocumulonimbus clouds compared with urban air.
570 Therefore, the larger D_p/D_c change and the smaller E_{abs} change of soot-containing
571 particles transported through the sea pathway should result in the lower $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$
572 compared to those transported through the inland pathway. These findings further
573 suggest that the radiative absorption amplification per unit D_p/D_c change of
574 transboundary soot-containing particles reduced by 72% with the change in their
575 transport pathways from inland to sea. A sensitivity test was conducted for the
576 $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ reduction caused by the transport pathway change through varying the
577 embedded soot core position in host particles, as shown in Figure S9. It was found that
578 the $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ reduction is 68% when soot cores are randomly distributed in host
579 particles (Figure S9). This is close to the 72% reduction calculated when soot cores are
580 distributed at the periphery of host particles (Figure S9). Because over 80% of the
581 embedded soot cores were observed to be distributed at the periphery of transboundary

582 particles, and the remainder was primarily randomly distributed, the 72%
583 $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ reduction can be considered reliable. If embedded types in soot-
584 containing particles were presumed as the traditional core-shell model, the
585 $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ of transboundary soot-containing particles was extremely low at 0.01-
586 0.03 (Table S3). This result shows a large difference from the optical absorption
587 simulated with real mixing structures of soot-containing particles. Therefore, the
588 traditional core-shell assumption significantly underestimates the optical absorption of
589 transboundary soot-containing particles, which is consistent with findings in a wildfire
590 smoke episode (Chen et al., 2025). It should be noted that the $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ derived
591 from optical simulation is a conceptual metric, which depends on the chosen definition
592 of D_p and D_c (e.g., ESD). While model–model comparisons are likely robust, model–
593 measurement comparisons would likely require careful matching of definitions. In
594 summary, the atmospheric humidity condition during the transport of soot particles not
595 only affects their aging processes but also influences their radiative absorption (Figure
596 11). In view of that soot particles can be exposed to high-humidity or supersaturated
597 atmospheric environments during transboundary transport, climate models should
598 incorporate multicore soot-containing particles to refine current simulations of climate
599 effects.

600

601 **4. Conclusions and implications**

602 Cold fronts triggered by the East Asian winter monsoon have frequently
603 transported substantial air pollutant loads from the NCP to downwind areas over 1000
604 kilometers away in recent years, significantly impacting the YRD region (Huang et al.,
605 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). To explore the variation in microphysical properties, mixing
606 structures, and light absorption of soot particles in these haze pollutants and their aging
607 mechanisms during the transboundary transport, we conducted synchronized field
608 campaigns in December 2017 and December 2020 across the NCP and the YRD. Two
609 types of transboundary transport models (i.e., passing through the inland and the sea)
610 were identified based on transport pathways of haze plumes. According to the mixing

611 structure of soot particles examined by TEM observations, they were divided into bare-
612 like, partly-coated, and embedded types. Meanwhile, the number of soot cores within
613 individual soot-containing particles was quantified.

614 Following the transboundary transport of haze pollutants through the inland
615 pathway, soot-containing particles underwent heterogeneous aging processes. This
616 aging process changed the dominated mixing structure of soot-containing particles from
617 partly-coated types at $67 \pm 4\%$ to embedded types at $71 \pm 7\%$, but the soot core number
618 per particle mainly remained at one. The median size and mean D_p/D_c of partly-coated
619 and embedded soot-containing particles increased from 396-464 nm and 2.37-2.85 to
620 435-505 nm and 2.79-3.41 during the transboundary transport through the inland
621 pathway because of secondary aerosol formation on soot particles via heterogeneous
622 reactions. In addition, the soot core D_f increased from 1.81-1.90 to 1.84-1.93 under the
623 compacting effect of secondary coatings on soot aggregates. When soot-containing
624 particles were transported through the sea pathway, cloud process aging became their
625 major evolution mechanisms. The cloud process aging not only transformed the
626 dominated soot-containing particles from partly-coated types at $62 \pm 1\%$ to embedded
627 types at $72 \pm 4\%$ but also increased their soot core numbers from 1 to ≥ 3 . Compared
628 to the inland pathway, the median size and mean D_p/D_c of partly-coated soot-containing
629 particles and their soot core D_f showed similar variations during the transboundary
630 transport through the sea pathway. However, these parameters for embedded soot-
631 containing particles transported through the sea pathway represented larger increases
632 from 446 nm, 2.92 ± 2.01 , and 1.89 ± 0.06 in the NCP to 925 nm, 4.38 ± 2.92 , and 2.07
633 ± 0.03 in the YRD.

634 Based on the optical simulation (assuming that coatings on soot are non-
635 absorbing), transboundary soot-containing particles transported through the inland
636 pathway exhibited a $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ of 0.6. Nevertheless, with the change in the
637 transport pathway of soot-containing particles from the inland to the sea, the
638 $\Delta E_{\text{abs}}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$ reduced by 72% due to the entrainment of multiple soot cores by cloud
639 processes. Our study demonstrates that soot particles undergo distinct evolutionary

640 processes and exhibit altered microphysical and optical properties across different
641 transport pathways. This necessitates incorporating meteorological conditions along
642 transport pathways, particularly the elevated RH in sea pathways, into future
643 assessments of black carbon optical properties. Given the scarce observational data on
644 transboundary black carbon in the marine atmosphere compared to well-characterized
645 those in the inland atmosphere, directly applying inland-based parameterization
646 schemes to simulate optical properties of black carbon transported through sea
647 pathways would introduce significant biases. Therefore, to accurately obtain optical
648 properties of atmospheric transported black carbon, we suggest that future studies
649 should prioritize multiscale characterization of black carbon mixing structures and
650 morphology in different transportation environments, particularly the cloud-processed
651 mixing structure of multiple black carbon cores. Advanced single particle modeling,
652 such as EMBS, that can reconstruct particles with real microphysical properties from
653 TEM images could be coupled into macroscopic radiative forcing estimation (Wang et
654 al., 2025). Ultimately, quantifying the climate impacts of black carbon necessitates a
655 comprehensive understanding of how mixing structure and morphology evolution
656 driven by atmospheric aging processes regulates absorption enhancement to refine
657 predictive models for climate mitigation strategies.

658 **Data availability**

659 All data presented in this paper are available upon request from the corresponding
660 author (liweijun@zju.edu.cn).

661

662 **Author contributions**

663 JZ and WL conceived the study and wrote the manuscript. The field campaigns
664 were organized and supervised by JZ and WL, and assisted by YW, LX, YZ, and HN.
665 JZ, YW, LX, and YZ contributed the sample analyses. ZZ made the optical simulation.
666 All authors reviewed and commented on the paper.

667

668 **Competing interests**

669 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

670

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Figure Captions

920

921 **Figure 1.** Meteorological fields in eastern China during the observation period. (a-b)
922 Wind fields combined with surface PM_{2.5} concentrations at 20:00 (local time) on
923 December 30, 2017 and at 2:00 on December 8, 2020 derived from European Centre
924 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF, <https://earth.nullschool.net/>). The
925 blue arrow dashed lines indicate prevailing wind direction. (c-d) Meteorological fields
926 covering observation sites in the North China Plain (NCP) and Yangtze River Delta
927 (YRD) at 1000 hpa.

928 **Figure 2.** Concentration-weighted trajectory (CWT) plots of PM_{2.5} before arriving at
929 observation sites (Nanjing and Hangzhou) in the YRD. (a-b) Transboundary transport
930 through the inland pathway during December 30-31, 2017. (c-d) Transboundary
931 transport through the sea pathway during December 7-8, 2020.

932 **Figure 3.** Typical transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of soot particles in
933 different mixing structures. (a) Bare-like soot particle. (b) Partly-coated soot particles.
934 (c) Embedded soot particles. Some indiscernible embedded soot particles in panel (c)
935 can be clearly observed after their coatings are sublimed under an enhanced electron
936 beam.

937 **Figure 4.** Typical TEM images and number fractions of soot-containing particles with
938 different mixing structures and soot core numbers in two types of transboundary
939 transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a) Partly-coated and embedded soot-
940 containing particles with different numbers of soot cores. (b) Variation in the number
941 fraction of soot-containing particles during the transboundary transport through the
942 inland pathway. (c) Variation in the number fraction of soot-containing particles during
943 the transboundary transport through the sea pathway.

944 **Figure 5.** Number fractions of soot-containing particles with different mixing structures
945 and numbers of soot cores in different size bins in two types of transboundary transport
946 models from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) Soot-containing particles transported through
947 the inland pathway. (c-d) Soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.

948 **Figure 6.** Number size distribution of soot-containing particles in two types of

949 transboundary transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) Size distribution of
950 soot-containing particles transported through the inland pathway. (c-d) Size distribution
951 of soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.

952 **Figure 7.** The size ratio of soot-containing particles to their soot cores (D_p/D_c) in two
953 types of transboundary transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a) D_p/D_c ratios of
954 soot-containing particles transported through the inland pathway. (b) D_p/D_c ratios of
955 soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway. A schematic model of
956 the D_p/D_c ratio of soot-containing particles with the core-shell structure is exemplified.

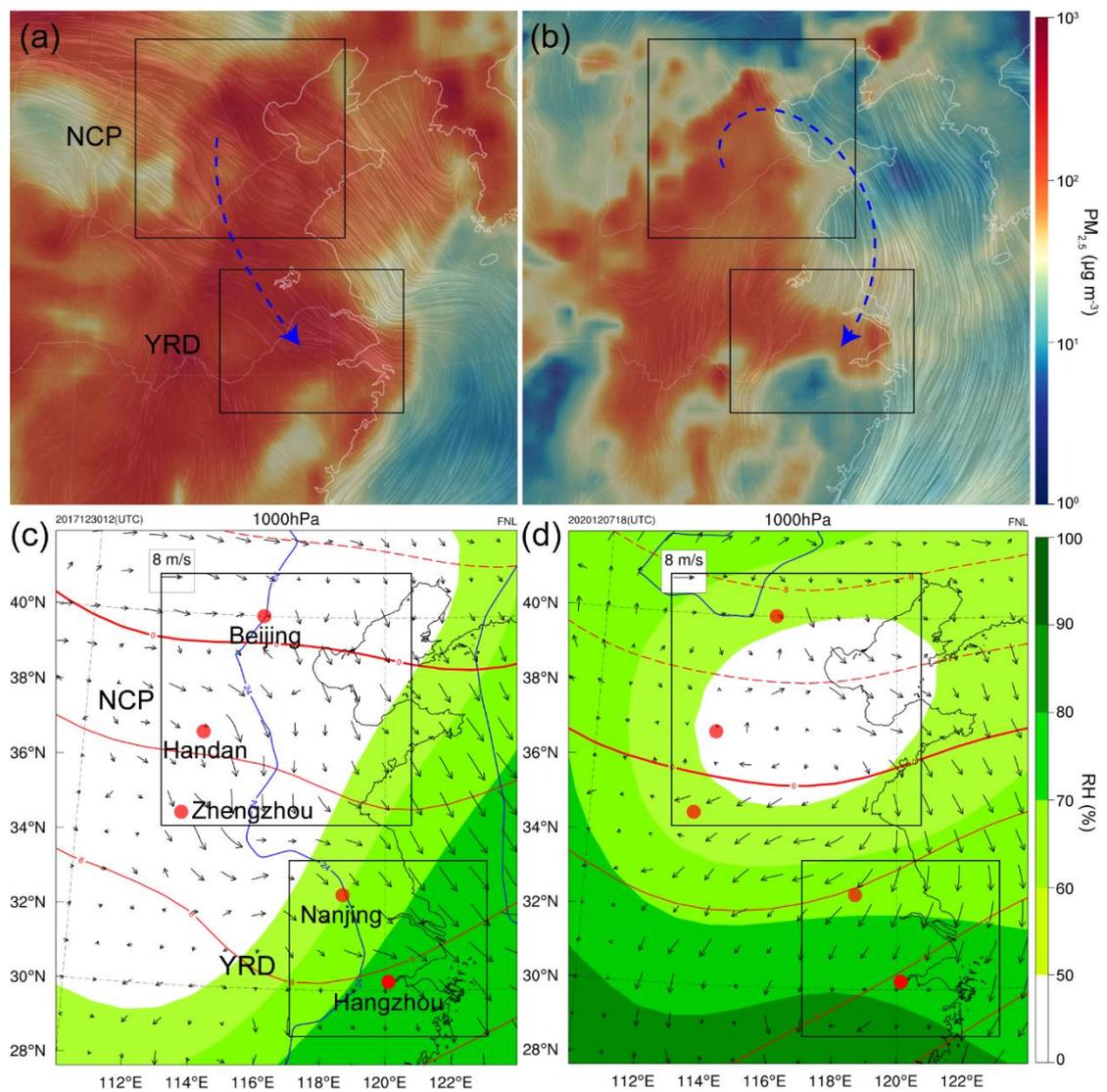
957 **Figure 8.** Low magnification TEM images of soot-containing particles in the YRD
958 during two transboundary transport. (a) Soot-containing particles transported through
959 the inland pathway. (b) Soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.
960 (c-d) Magnified TEM images for soot-containing particles in panel (a). (e-f) Magnified
961 TEM images for soot-containing particles in panel (b).

962 **Figure 9.** Variation in the fractal dimension (D_f) of partly-coated and embedded soot
963 particles during their transboundary transport from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) D_f of
964 soot particles transported through the inland pathway. (c-d) D_f of soot particles
965 transported through the sea pathway. A schematic model of the soot D_f is exemplified.

966 **Figure 10.** Variation in the optical absorption of soot-containing particles. (a) The light
967 absorption enhancement (E_{abs}) of partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particle
968 models relative to their soot cores. (b) The change in E_{abs} per unit the change in D_p/D_c
969 ($\Delta E_{abs}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$) of soot-containing particles during two transboundary transport
970 events through the inland and the sea pathways. Partly-coated and embedded soot-
971 containing particle models constructed by the Electron-Microscope-to-BC-Simulation
972 (EMBS) tool were exemplified in panel (a).

973 **Figure 11.** A schematic diagram for the change in the mixing structure and optical
974 absorption of soot-containing particles during the transboundary transport from the
975 NCP to the YRD through the inland and the sea pathways. (a) Soot-containing particles
976 undergo heterogeneous aging processes during the transboundary transport through the
977 inland pathway, which mainly change their mixing structures from partly-coated with

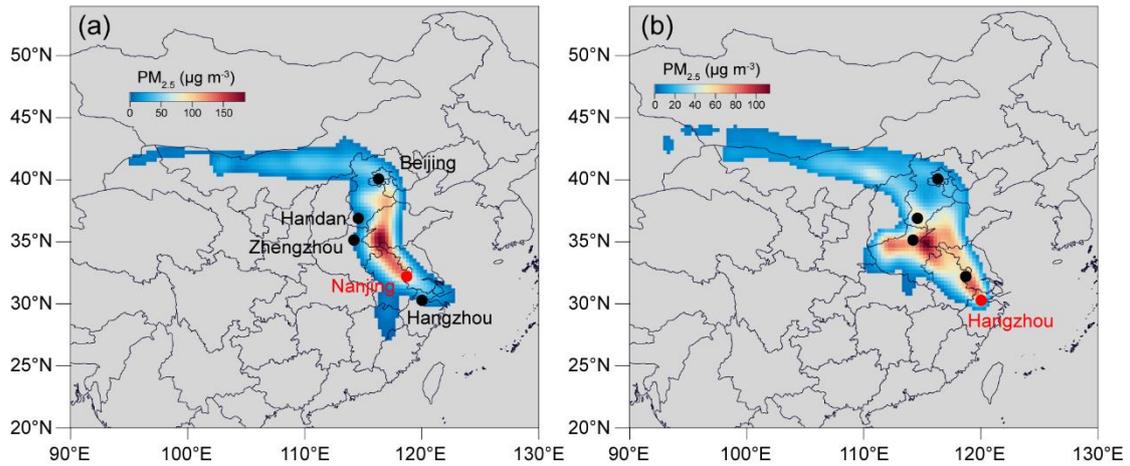
978 single soot core to embedded with single soot core structures and increase the E_{abs}
979 change per unit D_p/D_c change at 0.6. (b) Following the transboundary transport of soot-
980 containing particles through the sea pathway, cloud process aging becomes the
981 dominated evolution mechanism of soot-containing particles. This process not only
982 transforms the mixing structure of soot-containing particles from partly-coated with
983 single soot core to embedded with multiple soot core structures but also slightly
984 enhances the E_{abs} change per unit D_p/D_c change at 0.17.



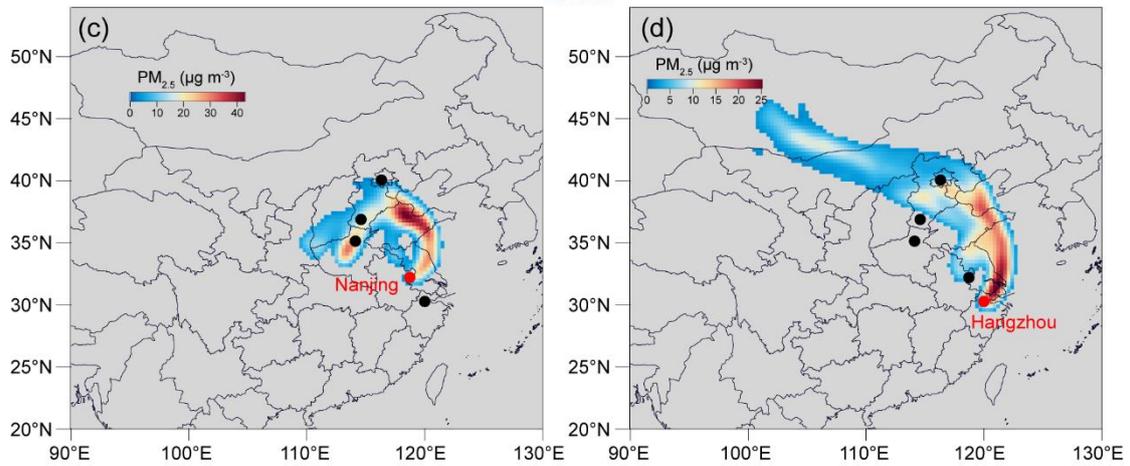
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986 **Figure 1.** Meteorological fields in eastern China during the observation period. (a-b)
 987 Wind fields combined with surface PM_{2.5} concentrations at 20:00 (local time) on
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 989 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF, <https://earth.nullschool.net/>). The
 990 blue arrow dashed lines indicate prevailing wind direction. (c-d) Meteorological fields
 991 covering observation sites in the North China Plain (NCP) and Yangtze River Delta
 992 (YRD) at 1000 hPa.

Inland

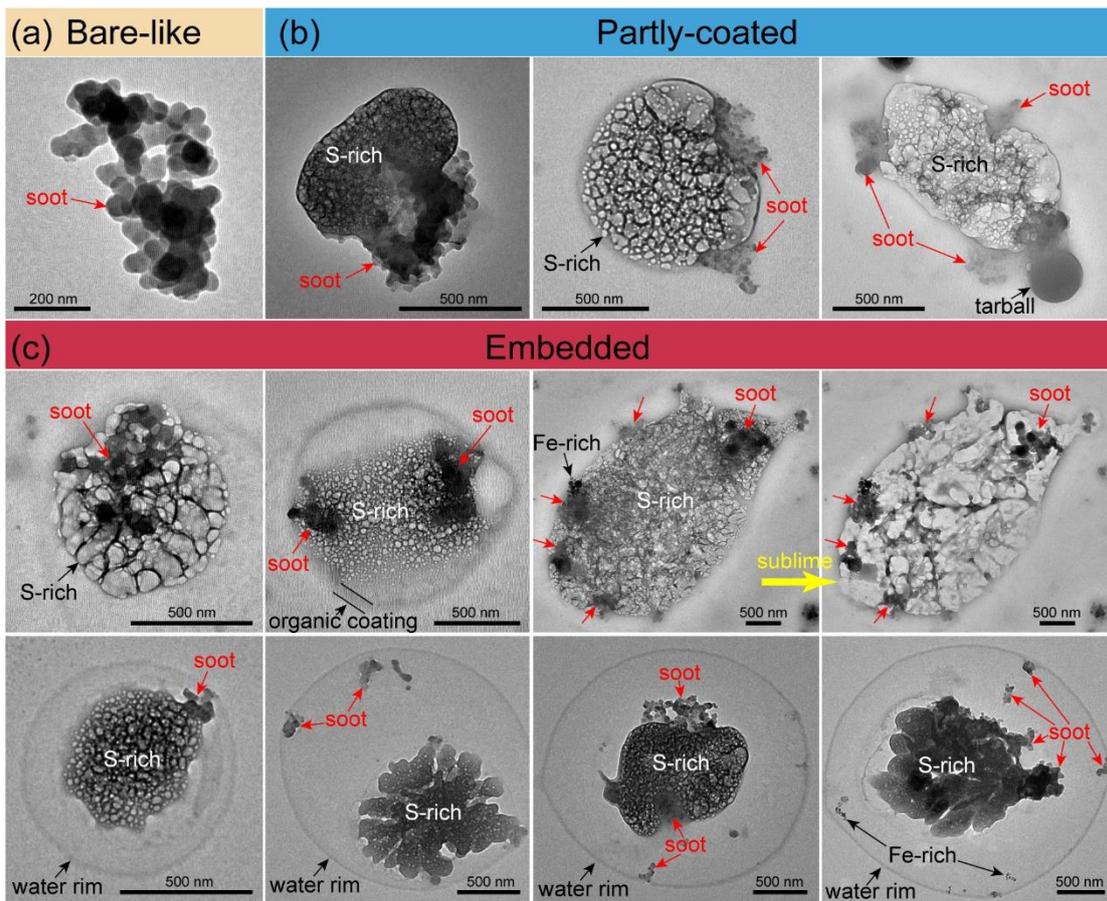


Sea



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994 **Figure 2.** Concentration-weighted trajectory (CWT) plots of PM_{2.5} before arriving at
995 observation sites (Nanjing and Hangzhou) in the YRD. (a-b) Transboundary transport
996 through the inland pathway during December 30-31, 2017. (c-d) Transboundary
997 transport through the sea pathway during December 7-8, 2020.



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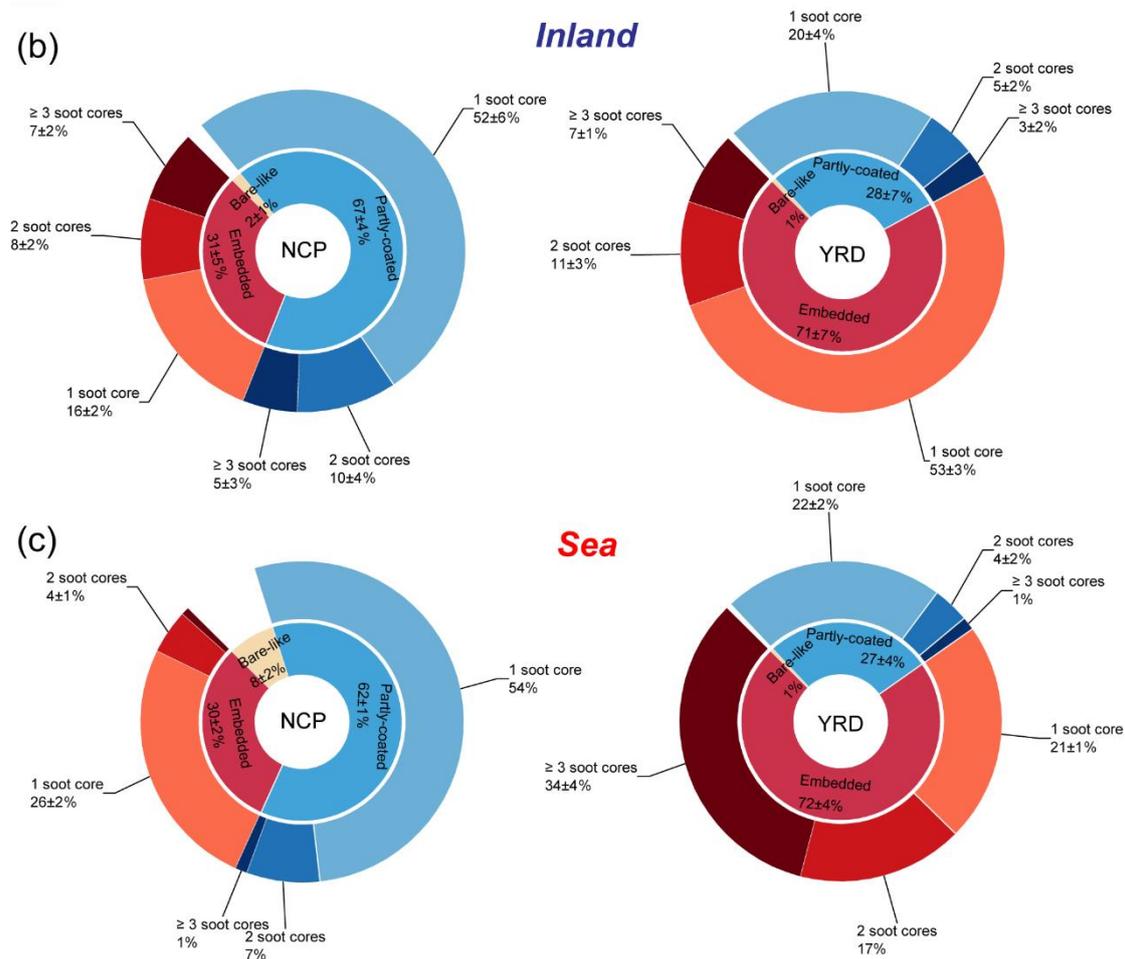
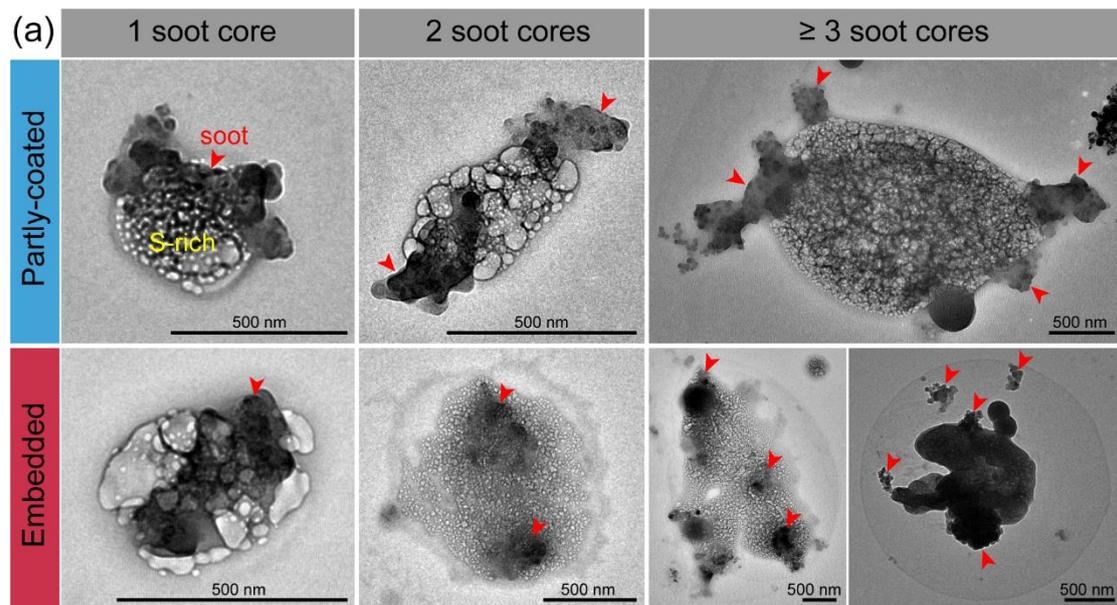
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Figure 3. Typical transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of soot particles in different mixing structures. (a) Bare-like soot particle. (b) Partly-coated soot particles. (c) Embedded soot particles. Some indiscernible embedded soot particles in panel (c) can be clearly observed after their coatings are sublimed under an enhanced electron beam.



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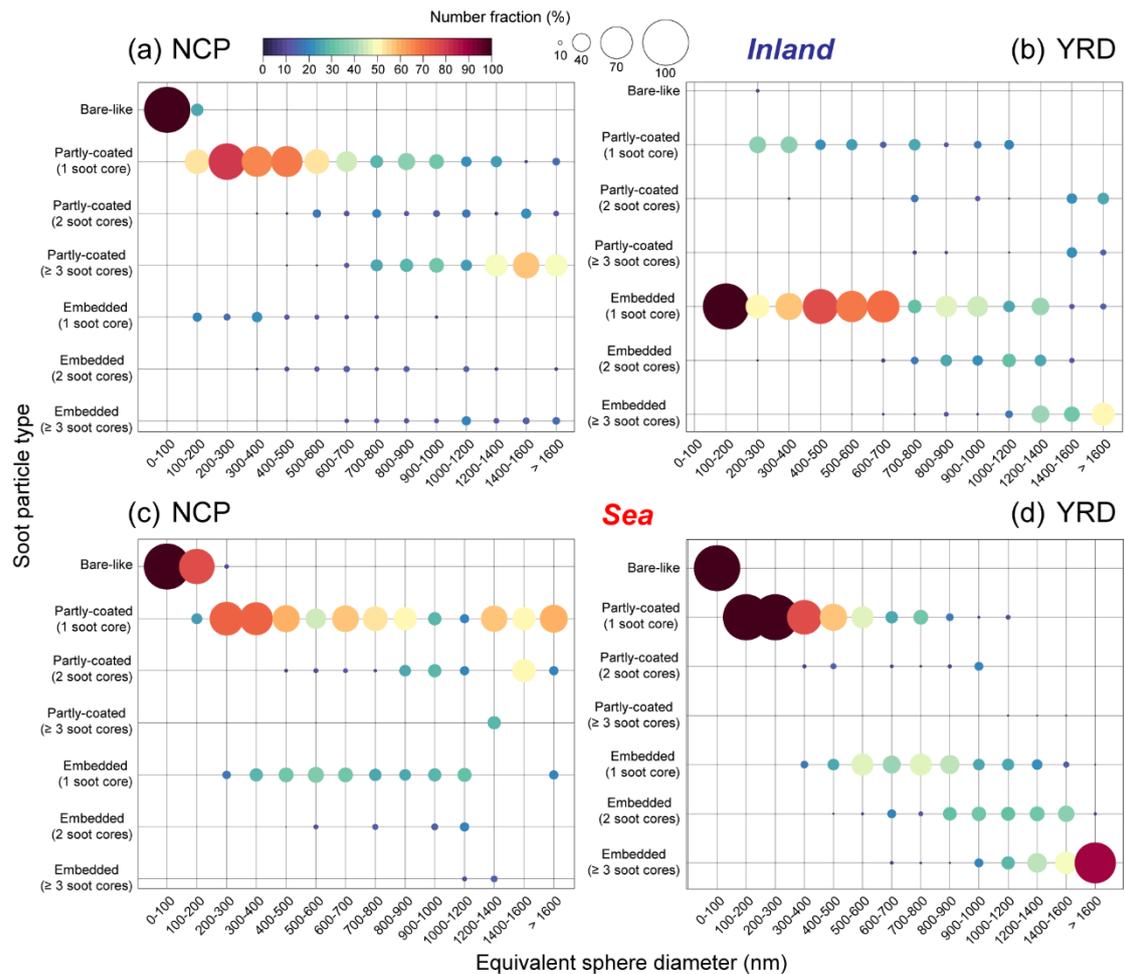
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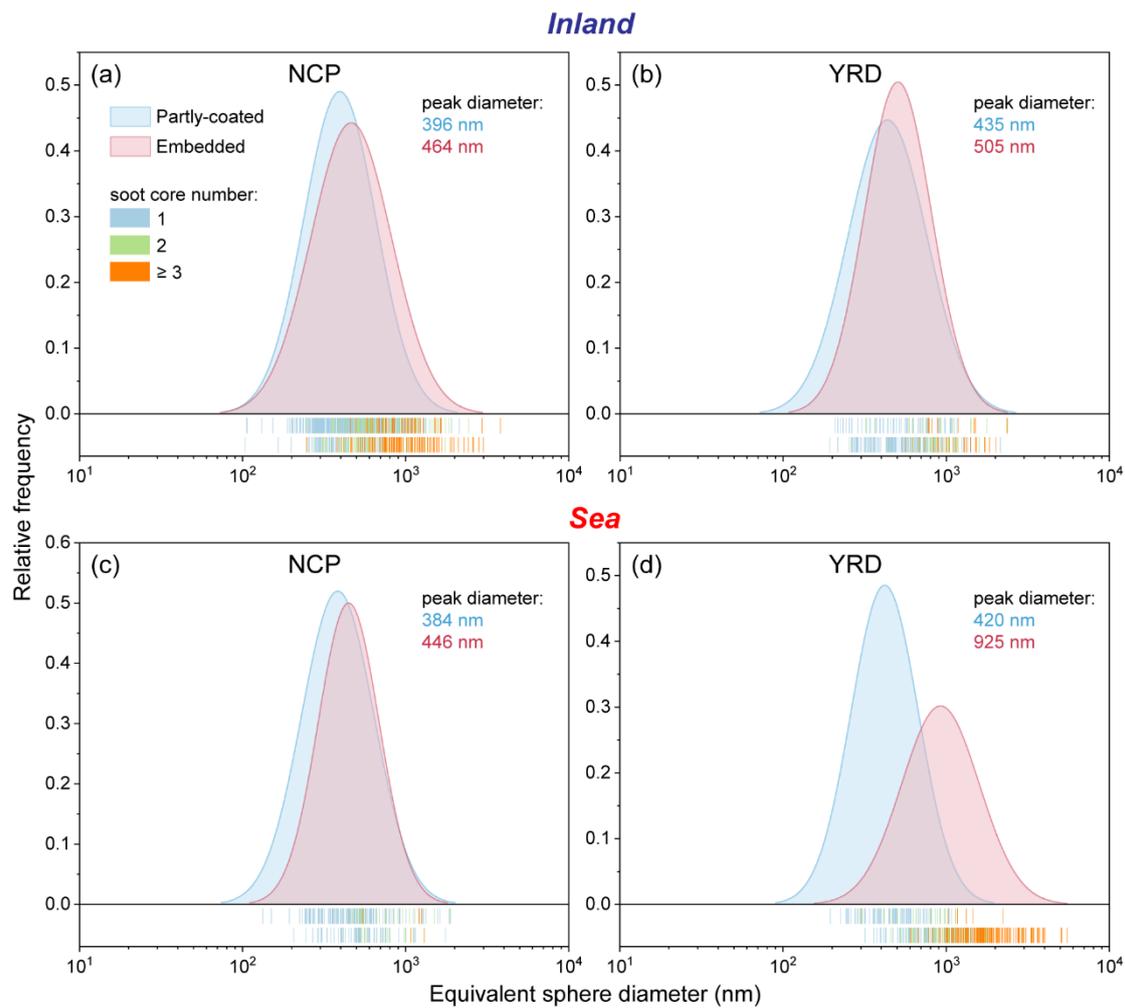
Figure 4. Typical TEM images and number fractions of soot-containing particles with different mixing structures and soot core numbers in two types of transboundary transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a) Partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particles with different numbers of soot cores. (b) Variation in the number

1009 fraction of soot-containing particles during the transboundary transport through the
1010 inland pathway. (c) Variation in the number fraction of soot-containing particles during
1011 the transboundary transport through the sea pathway.



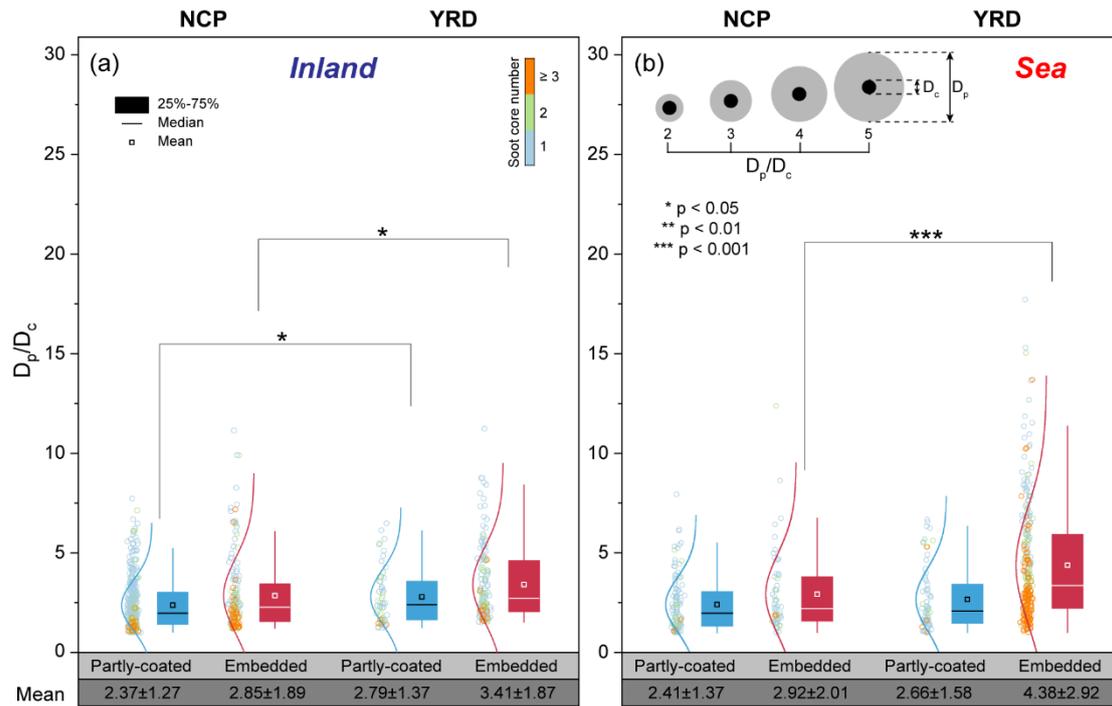
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1013 **Figure 5.** Number fractions of soot-containing particles with different mixing structures
 1014 and numbers of soot cores in different size bins in two types of transboundary transport
 1015 models from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) Soot-containing particles transported through
 1016 the inland pathway. (c-d) Soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.



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1018 **Figure 6.** Number size distribution of soot-containing particles in two types of
 1019 transboundary transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) Size distribution of
 1020 soot-containing particles transported through the inland pathway. (c-d) Size distribution
 1021 of soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.



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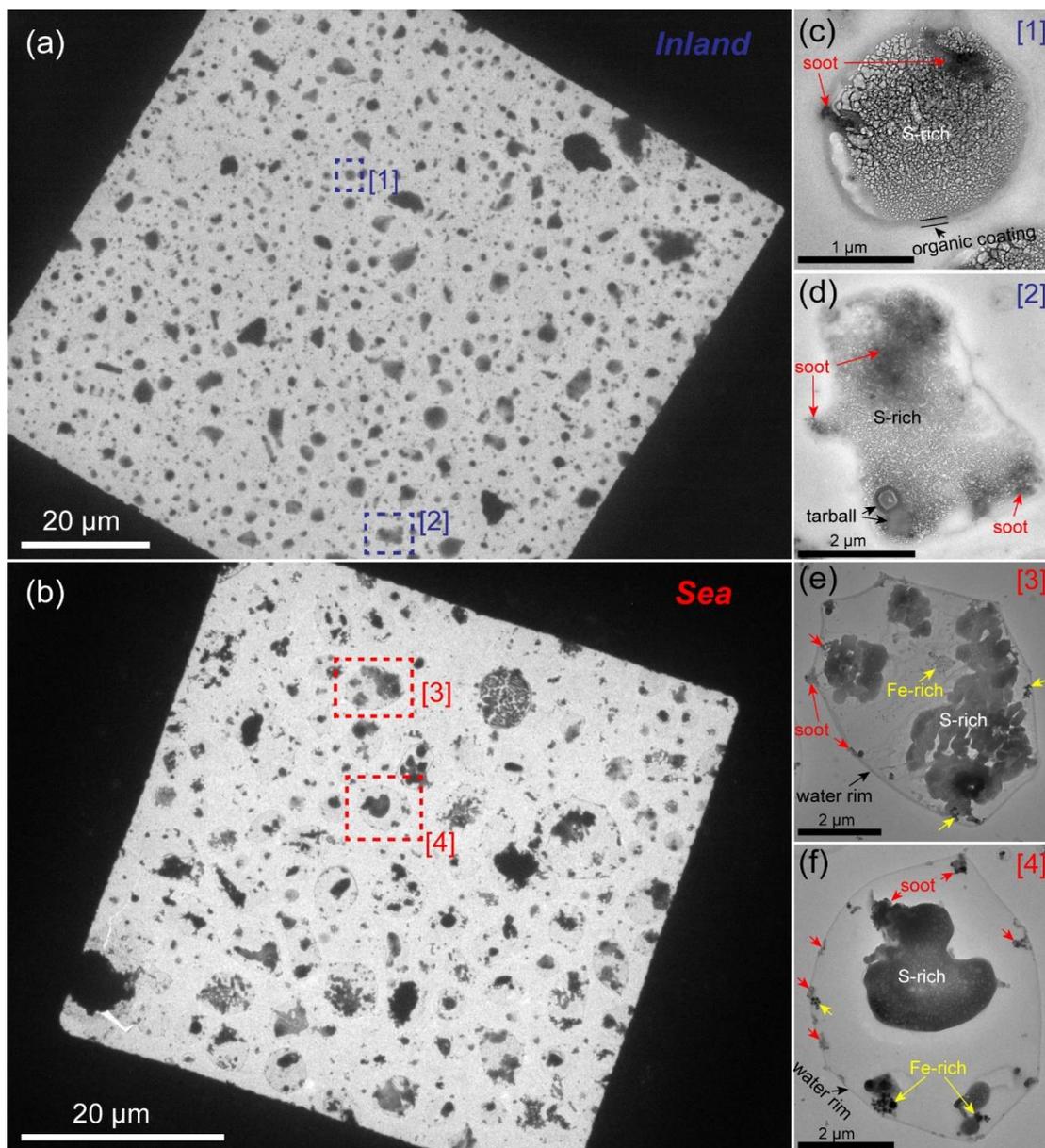
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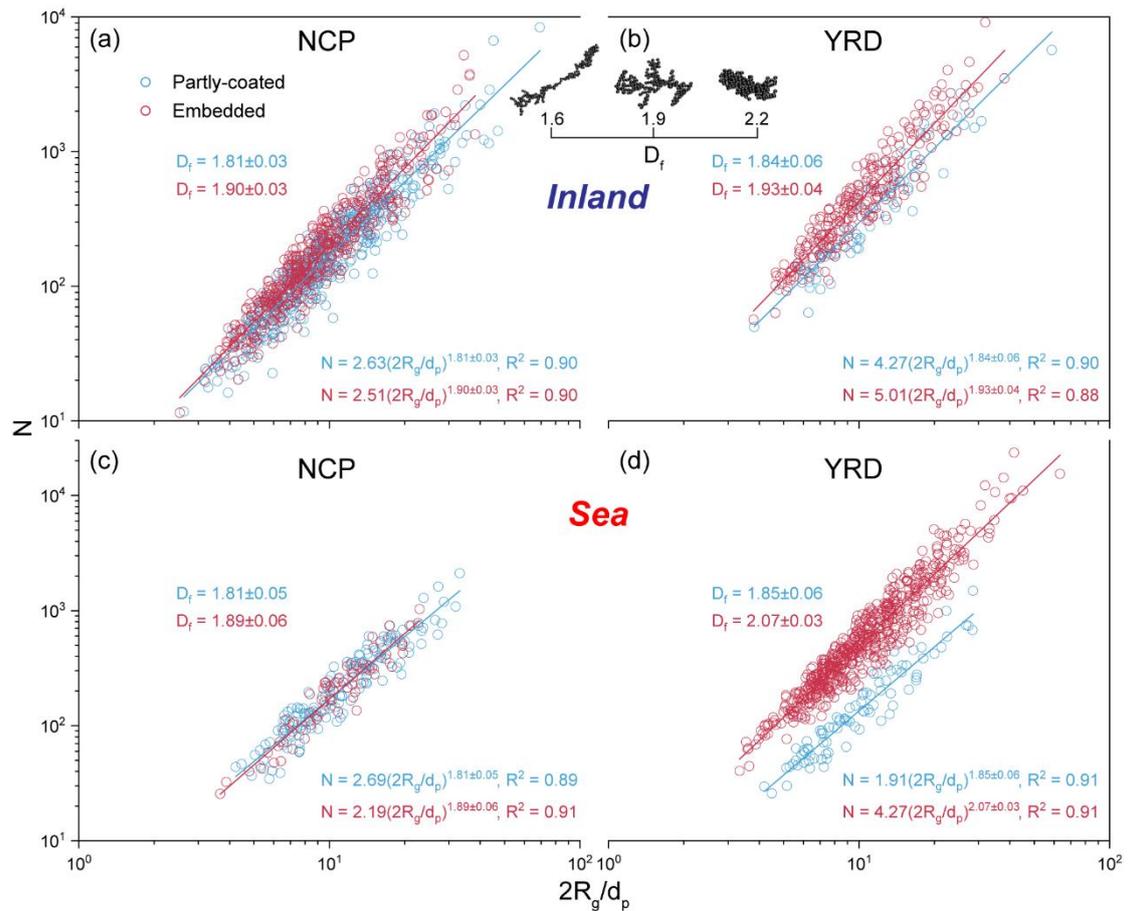
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Figure 7. The size ratio of soot-containing particles to their soot cores (D_p/D_c) in two types of transboundary transport models from the NCP to the YRD. (a) D_p/D_c ratios of soot-containing particles transported through the inland pathway. (b) D_p/D_c ratios of soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway. A schematic model of the D_p/D_c ratio of soot-containing particles with the core-shell structure is exemplified.



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1029 **Figure 8.** Low magnification TEM images of soot-containing particles in the YRD
 1030 during two transboundary transport. (a) Soot-containing particles transported through
 1031 the inland pathway. (b) Soot-containing particles transported through the sea pathway.
 1032 (c-d) Magnified TEM images for soot-containing particles in panel (a). (e-f) Magnified
 1033 TEM images for soot-containing particles in panel (b).



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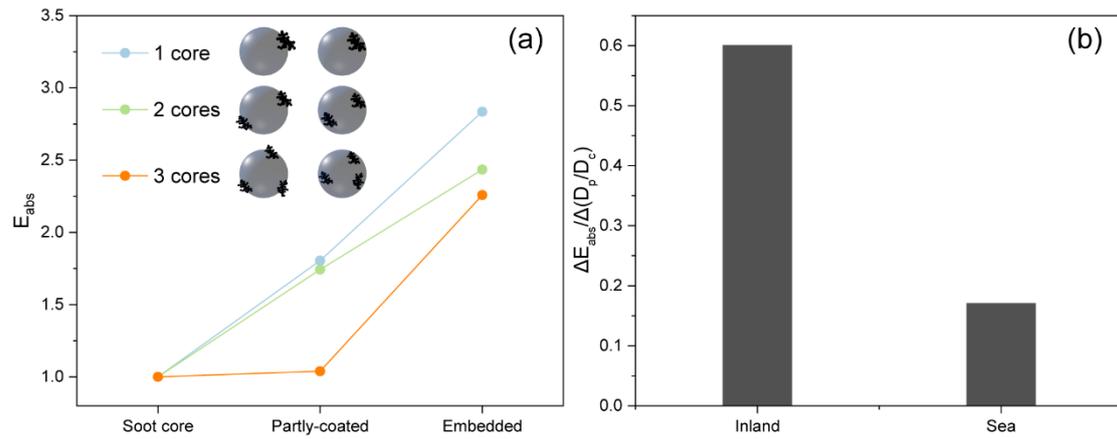
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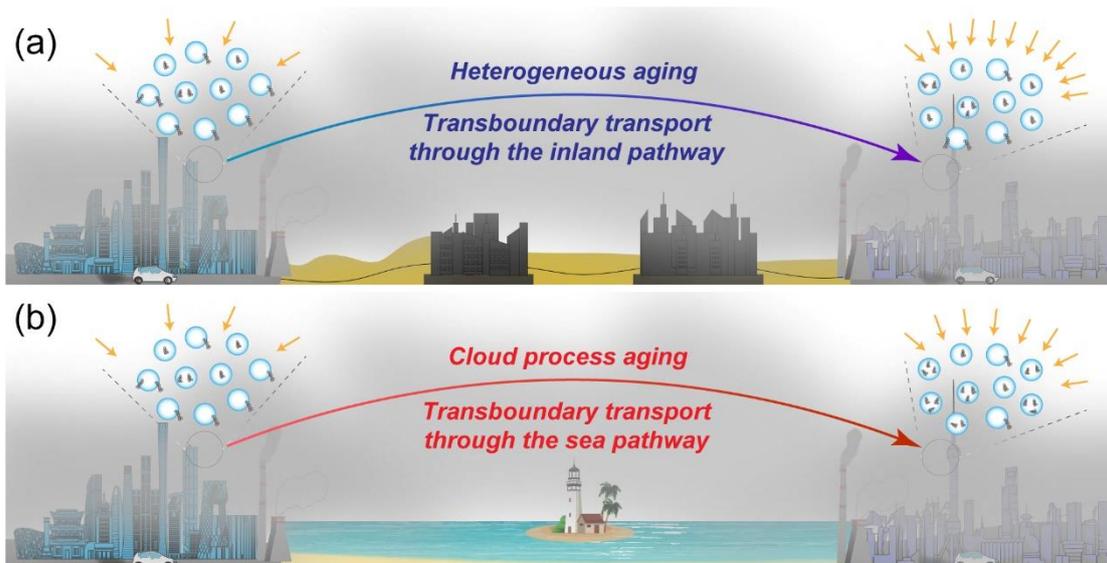
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Figure 9. Variation in the fractal dimension (D_f) of partly-coated and embedded soot particles during their transboundary transport from the NCP to the YRD. (a-b) D_f of soot particles transported through the inland pathway. (c-d) D_f of soot particles transported through the sea pathway. A schematic model of the soot D_f is exemplified.



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1040 **Figure 10.** Variation in the optical absorption of soot-containing particles. (a) The light
 1041 absorption enhancement (E_{abs}) of partly-coated and embedded soot-containing particle
 1042 models relative to their soot cores. (b) The change in E_{abs} per unit the change in D_p/D_c
 1043 ($\Delta E_{abs}/\Delta(D_p/D_c)$) of soot-containing particles during two transboundary transport
 1044 events through the inland and the sea pathways. Partly-coated and embedded soot-
 1045 containing particle models constructed by the Electron-Microscope-to-BC-Simulation
 1046 (EMBS) tool were exemplified in panel (a).



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1048 **Figure 11.** A schematic diagram for the change in the mixing structure and optical
 1049 absorption of soot-containing particles during the transboundary transport from the
 1050 NCP to the YRD through the inland and the sea pathways. (a) Soot-containing particles
 1051 undergo heterogeneous aging processes during the transboundary transport through the
 1052 inland pathway, which mainly change their mixing structures from partly-coated with
 1053 single soot core to embedded with single soot core structures and increase the E_{abs}
 1054 change per unit D_p/D_c change at 0.6. (b) Following the transboundary transport of soot-
 1055 containing particles through the sea pathway, cloud process aging becomes the
 1056 dominated evolution mechanism of soot-containing particles. This process not only
 1057 transforms the mixing structure of soot-containing particles from partly-coated with
 1058 single soot core to embedded with multiple soot core structures but also slightly
 1059 enhances the E_{abs} change per unit D_p/D_c change at 0.17.