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Molecular View Modeling of Atmospheric Organic Particulate Matter: Incorporating Molecular Structure and Co-Condensation of Water

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45 **ABSTRACT**

46 Most urban and regional models used to predict levels of organic particulate matter (OPM) are 47 based on fundamental equations for gas/particle partitioning, but make the highly simplifying, 48 anonymized-view (AV) assumptions that OPM levels are not affected by either: a) the molecular 49 characteristics of the condensing organic compounds (other than simple volatility); or b) co-50 condensation of water as driven by non-zero relative humidity (RH) values. The simplifying 51 assumptions have allowed parameterized chamber results for formation of secondary organic 52 aerosol (SOA) (e.g., "two-product" (2p) coefficients) to be incorporated in chemical transport 53 models. However, a return towards a less simplistic (and more computationally demanding) 54 molecular view (MV) is needed that acknowledges that atmospheric OPM is a mixture of organic 55 compounds with differing polarities, water, and in some cases dissolved salts. The higher 56 computational cost of MV modeling results from a need for iterative calculations of the 57 composition-dependent gas/particle partition coefficient values. MV modeling of OPM that 58 considered water uptake (but not dissolved salts) was carried out for the southeast United States 59 for the period August 29 through September 7, 2006. Three model variants were used at three 60 universities: CMAQ-RH-2p (at PSU), UCD/CIT-RH-2p (at UCD), and CMAQ-RH-MCM (at 61 TAMU). With the first two, MV structural characteristics (carbon number and numbers of 62 functional groups) were assigned to each of the 2p products used in CMAQv.4.7.1 such that 63 resulting predicted $K_{p,i}$ values matched those in CMAQv.4.7.1. When water uptake was allowed, 64 most runs assumed that uptake occurred only into the SOA portion, and imposed immiscibility of 65 SOA with primary organic aerosol (POA). (POA is often viewed as rather non-polar, while SOA 66 is commonly viewed as moderately-to-rather polar. Some runs with UCD/CIT-RH-2p were used 67 to investigate the effects of POA/SOA miscibility.) CMAQ-RH-MCM used MCM to generate 68 oxidation products, and assumed miscibility of SOA and POA. In a \sim 500 km wide band from

81 **INTRODUCTION**

82 Most current 3D chemical transport models use primitive approaches for predicting levels of 83 organic particulate matter (OPM) in the atmosphere: they incorporate only the barest aspects of 84 the chemistry of the complex mixes of organic compounds that may occur, ignore the role of co-85 condensing water, and usually do not attempt to consider the time-dependent oxidation reactions 86 that continually transform organic compounds in the atmosphere. This is problematic: 1) aerosol 87 particles are known to have direct and indirect effects on climate (Ramanathan et al., 2001; 88 Kanakidou et al., 2005); 2) ambient levels of fine PM are associated with increases in human 89 morbidity and mortality (Pope and Dockery, 2006); and 3) atmospheric PM is often 20 to 60% 90 organic material (Kanakidou et al., 2005). In those contexts, the composition of the OPM can 91 strongly affect light absorption (Andreae and Gelencsér, 2006; Updyke et al. 2012; and Song et 92 al., 2013), cloud condensation (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007), and particle deposition rates 93 (composition affects hygroscopicity (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007) and hygroscopicity affects 94 deposition rates (Vong et al., 2010)).

95 While views vary regarding the advantages and deficiencies of different modeling 96 approaches, there is scientific consensus at least that in the general case: 1) a portion of ambient 97 OPM has some volatility, and so is in active evaporation/condensation (*i.e.*, gas/particle) 98 exchange with the gas phase; and 2) a second portion is essentially non-volatile at the ambient 99 temperature *T*. Both the exchanging and non-volatile fractions can be subdivided as 100 anthropogenic or biogenic, and further as primary (directly emitted) or secondary. For a neutral 101 species, an inherently low volatility is always ascribable to the combined effects of molecular 102 weight (MW), polarity, and temperature *T.* Temperature plays its role through vapor pressure, 103 which sets the volatility for every particular pure liquid compound *i*. Atmospheric OPM, 104 however, is never a single pure compound, so the effective volatility of each constituent

105 compound is lowered by dilution, and changed by non-ideal solution effects (Pankow, 1994a). 106 Regarding acidic and basic species i.e. organic carboxylic acids can be deprotonated to form 107 carboxalate ions, and organic amines can be protonated to form aminium ions, charge alone is 108 enough to prevent volatilization at ambient *T* values (*cf*. protonation of ammonia to form 109 ammonium ion) (Pankow, 2003).

110 Chemical transport models in current use for atmospheric OPM modeling such as CMAQ 111 and PMCAMx (Carlton et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2007) suffer from two deficiencies that 112 affect OPM predictions. *First*, they both utilize a severely *anonymized view* (AV) in which a 113 limited number (20 or less) of "hypothetical lumped compounds" is invoked. The "compounds" 114 vary only by inherent volatility, with no other characteristics such as polarity. Examples of the 115 AV approach include the two-product (2p) view of Odum et al. (1996, 1997) as used in CMAQ 116 (Carlton et al., 2010), and the 1-D volatility basis set (VBS) of Donahue et al. (2006). In fact, 117 contrary to the AV assumption, both low polarity and polar constituents are always present in 118 atmospheric OPM, and those differences will affect the levels and properties of the OPM. Low 119 polarity constituents include plant wax materials, cooking oils, and petroleum hydrocarbons 120 (Schauer et al., 1999; Schauer et al., 2002; Conte and Weber, 2002); polar constituents include 121 secondary compounds with functional groups such as hydroxyl and carboxyl (e.g., Yu et al., 122 1999; Zhang et al., 2007). Each OPM phase will therefore be a mix with a mixture-average 123 polarity that is between non-polar and highly polar. For each exchanging compound *i*, the 124 gas/particle partitioning is affected by the polarity match or mismatch in the liquid between the 125 compound and the OPM mixture. A high mismatch (relative to condensation into a liquid in 126 which $\zeta_i = 1$) causes $\zeta_i > 1$ which reduces the condensation tendency (*viz.* increases the 127 volatility) (Pankow, 1994a; Pankow, 2003). When the condensed material includes both non-128 polar and rather polar compounds in similar abundance, phase separation in the OPM becomes

129 certain (Erdakos and Pankow, 2004; Zuend et al., 2010; Donahue et al., 2011), as when within 130 the miscibility gap of a partially miscible binary system. While anonymized models ignore these 131 complexities, a *molecular view* (MV) can assign functionalities to each OPM compound to allow 132 consideration of non-ideality effects, and phase separation.

133 *Second*, AV modeling precludes consideration of water uptake: there is no character of 134 the OPM that can be used to estimate hygroscopicity. However, theory (e.g., Pankow, 1994a; 135 Pankow, 2010; Pankow and Chang, 2008; Chang and Pankow, 2010), and applications with the 136 3D sesqui-MADRID model (Pun, 2008), predict that important effects on OPM levels are 137 possible. Indeed, although water is far more volatile than "condensable" organic compounds, it 138 is also always vastly more abundant in the atmosphere than the sum of all condensable organic 139 compounds $({\sim}10^7 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3$ water at 20 °C, 50% relative humidity (RH), and 1 atm total pressure). 140 In addition to the importance of the effects of water on OPM levels and that of hygroscopicity 141 itself (e.g., Massoli et al., 2010, Duplissy et al. 2011), there are expected significant effects of 142 absorbed water on viscosity (Iwata and Shimada, 2013) and thus gas/particle equilibration times 143 (Shiraiwa et al., 2011; Bones et al., 2012), and reaction rates within organic liquids (Vollhardt 144 and Schore, 2007). Fortunately, once an adequately flexible MV model is built for considering 145 compounds with varying polarity and molecular weight, inclusion of water as a fully-interacting 146 partitioning compound is simple. With the 2-D VBS of Donahue et al. (2011), while some 147 measure of MV effects amongst the partitioning organic compounds can be considered, only O:C 148 ratio and carbon number are available as measures of molecular variability, and water is not 149 included in the basis set so it cannot be predicted to be present in, or have an effect on the levels 150 of, the modeled OPM. We are interested in modeling carried out considering specific 151 functionalities (alcohol groups, aldehyde groups, carboxylic acid groups, etc.) assigned to 152 partitioning organic molecules, and allowing water uptake.

153 Herein we provide an overview of the OPM model development required for a simple 154 consideration of MV effects for non-ionic organic compounds, with water uptake into a single 155 OPM phase; the effects of ionization and multiple OPM phases (i.e., phase separation) are 156 beyond the scope of this work. Simulations are described for the southeast United States for the 157 period August 29 through September 7, 2006 using three chemical transport models modified to 158 include MV features for OPM calculations. The implications of water uptake for OPM phase 159 characteristics are considered.

160 **EQUILIBRIUM GAS/PARTICLE PARTITIONING - EQUATIONS AND SOLUTIONS**

161 **General.** The gas/particle partitioning constant for compound *i* is defined

162
$$
K_{p,i} (m^3 \mu g^{-1}) = \frac{c_{p,i}}{c_{g,i}} (\equiv 1/C_i^*)
$$
 (1)

163 where $c_{p,i}$ ($\mu g \mu g^{-1}$) is the concentration within the particle phase, and $c_{g,i}$ ($\mu g \text{ m}^{-3}$) ($\equiv A_i$) is the 164 concentration in the gas phase. In the 1-D "volatility basis set" (VBS) approach of Donahue et 165 al. (2006), $K_{p,i}$ is manifested in terms of the saturation concentration C_i^* (μ g m⁻³). If the total 166 mass concentration of the absorbing phase is M (μ g m⁻³), and F_i (μ g m⁻³) is the particle-

167 associated concentration of *i* for the aerosol system, then (Pankow, 1994a)

168
$$
K_{p,i} (m^3 \mu g^{-1}) = \frac{F_i / M}{A_i}
$$
 (2)

$$
F_i = K_{p,i} M A_i \tag{3}
$$

170 As usual, let T_i (μ g m⁻³) = $A_i + F_i$ be the total (*i.e.*, gas+particle) concentration of *i*, and the

171 fraction of *i* in the particle phase is

172
$$
f_{p,i} = \frac{F_i}{F_i + A_i} = \frac{K_{p,i}M}{1 + K_{p,i}M}
$$
 (4)

173
$$
M = \sum_{i} F_{i} = \sum_{i} f_{p,i} T_{i} = \sum_{i} \frac{K_{p,i} M}{1 + K_{p,i} M} T_{i}
$$
 (5)

174
$$
1 - \sum_{i} \frac{K_{p,i} T_i}{1 + K_{p,i} M} = 0
$$
 (6)

When water is considered, *M* includes a contribution from water because F_w is one of the F_i , and 176 *M* here equals $M_{\text{o+w}}$ as used elsewhere (Pankow, 2010). In the case of some essentially non-177 volatile component *i*, the value of $K_{p,i}$ is very large so that $f_{p,i} = 1.0$.

178 For $M > 0$, the function represented by the left hand side of Eq.(6) is a smooth sigmoidal curve. As *M* increases from 0, the curve varies from $(1 - \sum_{i} K_{p,i} T_i)$ to 1. If $\sum_{i} K_{p,i} T_i > 1$, then 180 the function will be negative at very small *M*, and there will be an easily found zero crossing 181 (i.e., a solution), which gives the condition at which the multi-component system is saturated in 182 the gas phase with material left over for $M > 0$. With $K_{p,i}$ as the inverse of the saturation 183 concentration C_i^* , for a single component system $K_{p,1}T_1$ gives the ratio between the total and 184 saturation concentrations, so that $M > 0$ only when $K_{p,1}T_1 > 1$.

185 **Mathematical Solution in the Anonymized View (AV).** In AV models of OPM, at a

186 particular value of *T*, the $K_{p,i}$ values are fixed and not dependent on OPM composition. As 187 noted, associated options include: a) the 2p model of Odum et al. (1996, 1997) for condensation 188 of "secondary" organic aerosol (SOA) compounds; and b) the 1-D-VBS approach of Donahue et 189 al. (2006) for general OPM modeling. Given input sets of T_i and the associated $K_{p,i}$, a root 190 solver with Eq.(6) can find the root value of *M* such that the left hand side equals zero. The root 191 value of *M* can then be used to calculate each *Fi* by Eq.(3). CMAQv.4.7.1 uses this approach 192 with 2p values of *K*p,*i* (chamber-derived) for assumed oxidation products of several SOA parent hydrocarbons. Note that: a) low values of the T_i and/or $K_{p,i}$ can cause there to be no real positive 194 root value for *M* in Eq.(6), in which case $M = 0$; but b) if $T_i > 0$ for any species considered to be 195 non-volatile, $M > 0$ regardless of the values of the other T_i and $K_{p,i}$.

196 **Mathematical Solution in the Molecular View (MV).** The MV approach is needed because 197 *K*_{p,*i*} values depend on OPM composition. For absorptive partitioning into liquid OPM (Pankow, 198 1994a):

199
$$
K_{p,i} = \frac{RT}{10^6 \text{MW} \zeta_i \ p_{L,i}^{\circ}} \tag{7}
$$

200 where: $R = \text{gas constant } (8.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3 \text{ atm mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})$; $\overline{\text{MW}}$ (g mol⁻¹) = mole-average mole-201 cular weight of the absorbing OPM phase; ζ_i (dimensionless) = mole-fraction scale activity coefficient; and $p_{\text{L},i}^{\text{o}}(\text{atm}) = \text{vapor pressure at temperature } T \text{ (K) of pure liquid } i$. (The factor 10⁶) 202 203 is a conversion factor that gives the number of µg per gram.) For reference, if the OPM were 204 pure liquid *i*, then MW = MW_{*i*} $\zeta_i = 1$, $c_{p,i} = 1$, and C_i^* gives the gas-phase saturation 205 concentration in equilibrium with the pure liquid.

206 The compositional dependence of $K_{p,i}$ is caused by variability in: a) ζ_i , which accounts 207 for the comfort match/mismatch between *i* in *its own liquid self* vs. in *the OPM*, as due to 208 differences in characteristics such as polarity and size; and b) MW, which accounts for the colligative consequences of MW_i \neq MW. Because of the low MW of water (18 g mol⁻¹), water 210 absorption by OPM can cause marked reductions in \overline{MW} , which can cause every $K_{p,i}$ to 211 increase. For example, absorption by dry OPM with $\overline{MW} = 200 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ of 2% by weight water 212 lowers \overline{MW} to 167 g mol⁻¹, tending to cause all $K_{p,i}$ values to increase by 20%. When OPM 213 levels are low and most of the potentially condensable organic material is in the gas phase, the 214 predicted OPM level at equilibrium is very sensitive to even relatively minor changes in the $K_{p,i}$ and *Tⁱ* 215 values (Pankow, 2010, 2013).

216 In an MV modeling approach, the partitioning compounds have differentiating structural 217 features, and the equilibrium composition can only be obtained by the coupled iterative solution

218 of Eq.(7) for all *i* together with Eq.(6) (Pankow, 1994b). A *K*p,*i* algorithm first takes guess values 219 of F_i (*i.e.*, the OPM guess composition) to compute the corresponding guess values of all the ζ_i 220 and MW, and thus the $K_{p,i}$ values for that composition based on Eq.(7). As discussed above, if 221 $\Sigma_i K_{p,i} T_i > 1$, an OPM root solver with Eq.(6) can use the $K_{p,i}$ values and the guess $M = \Sigma_i F_i$ to easily obtain a new *M*, which can be used with Eq.(4) to obtain the new F_i . Iterative alternation 223 between the $K_{p,i}$ algorithm and the OPM root solver continues until convergence is obtained (as 224 evaluated by examination of either: 1) the $K_{p,i}$; or 2) the F_i). When phase separation is not being 225 considered, we have not experienced difficulties obtaining convergence because of local minima. 226 Oscillation during the alternation between the two solutions may occur at low OPM levels, but is 227 increasingly dampened when "non-volatile" components contribute significantly, and/or 228 predicted OPM levels are large relative to the condensable mass: the mathematical sensitivity is 229 dampened as each particular $T_i > 0$ is consigned to the OPM phase (common in current 230 modeling), and when *M* is large relative to the condensable mass (Pankow, 2013).

231 **METHODS: THREE MOLECULAR VIEW-ENABLED MODELS**

232 **Models.** Table 1 summarizes details of the three chemical transport models used here for 233 MV consideration of OPM levels; all consider water uptake into OPM. For each: 1) an iterative 234 solution was begun at each point in the *x*, *y*, *z*, *t* domain using the $K_{p,i}$ algorithm with the local RH 235 and *T*, guess values of the F_i , and the UNIFAC model (Fredenslund et al., 1977), to calculate 236 corresponding guess of ζ *i* and MW and the resulting $K_{p,i}$; 2) the $K_{p,i}$ are passed to an OPM root 237 solver; 3) iteration proceeds until convergence is reached. CMAQ-RH-2p was derived from 238 CMAQv.4.7.1 (an AV model) by addition of two features: a) $K_{p,i}$ algorithm; and b) an input ar-239 ray (for each 2p product) for values of the numbers of particular functional groups and the MW. 240 The values for the MV characteristics array for each product (summarized in Table 2) were ob-

256 **Runs.** Averaged model output for the southeast United States was obtained for the 10 257 day period August 29 through September 7, 2006, with 1 to 5 *preceding* days of model "spin-258 up". For each model, the base (B) case run assumed no water uptake by the OPM; for each 259 model water (W) mode run was also carried out, with water uptake allowed into the SOA as 260 determined at each point (*x,y,z,t*) according to the local conditions. All runs with CMAQ-RH-2p 261 imposed immiscibility of SOA with primary organic aerosol (POA) (POA is often viewed as 262 rather non-polar, while SOA is commonly viewed as moderately-to-rather polar); CMAQv.4.7.1 263 assumes POA/SOA miscibility. When water uptake was allowed in CMAQ-RH-2p, it was

264 assumed that uptake occurred only into the SOA portion. UCD/CIT-RH-2p was executed

- 265 similarly, except that some runs allowed POA/SOA miscibility with water uptake into the
- 266 mixture. CMAQ-RH-MCM assumes POA/SOA miscibility with water uptake into the mixture.
-

267 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

268 Model results are presented in Figures 1 and 2. In Figure 1, the first and second (a and 269 b) panel columns indicate that both CMAQ-RH-2p and UCD/CIT-RH-2p predict that water 270 uptake can significantly increase average SOA levels in areas of the southeast United States 271 during the model period, from a range of \sim 1 to 2 μ g m⁻³ to a range of \sim 1 to 4 μ g m⁻³. While the 272 results of Pun (2008) for July 2, 2002 for this region using sesqui-MADRID indicate 273 significantly higher SOA levels, the corresponding percentage increases due to water uptake are 274 similar.The most affected region in Figure 1 is a ~500 km wide band from Louisiana through to 275 about Virginia. The mostly modest differences between the results from CMAQ-RH-2p and 276 UCD/CIT-RH-2p are consistent with the differences between the two models: 1) gas-phase 277 mechanisms used (SAPRC07, Carter (2010) *vs*. SPARC11, Carter (2013)); 2) meteorology 278 algorithm used (MM5 with nudging as described by Ngan et al. (2012) vs. WRFv.3.4 (WRF, 279 2014) with the NAM reanalysis data set); and 3) imposed limit (for model stability) on input RH 280 values assumed for water uptake (99% *vs*. 95%). Given the fact that RH values approaching 281 100% require amounts of condensed water that are large relative to any expected ambient OPM 282 levels, model instability at RH \approx 100% is to be expected in any model that considers co-283 condensation of water. ζ values for organic compounds with the MCM-SOA model have been 284 found to be mostly in the range $0.33 < \zeta < 3$; the same was found to be true for the CMAQ-RH-285 2p runs carried out here, except that for the SQT species values as large as 40 were often 286 calculated. For the CMAQ-RH-2p runs, $\zeta_{\text{water}} \approx 1$, due to the hydrophilicity of polar functional 287 groups on the SOA species.

308 region than those from CMAQ-RH-MCM, with the latter providing a lower limit estimation of 309 the SOA water effect. Consistent with our results are the indirectly measured particle water

310 levels reported by Guo et al. (2015) for the southeast United States. At four sites (three urban

311 and one rural) in Alabama and Georgia in 2012 (May through November), Guo et al. (2015)

312 report that OPM-associated water was "significant", averaging 29 to 39% of all particle water.

313 Also, the OPM-associated water values were found to be correlated with the organic mass

314 fraction, and with RH.

315 Significant levels of water in OPM carry considerable importance for understanding the 316 levels and properties atmospheric OPM. First, the viscosity of many organic liquids decreases 317 strongly with increasing water content (*e.g*., Acierno and Van Puyvelde, 2005), and decreasing 318 OPM viscosity facilitates gas/particle equilibration. Second, water content will affect the OPM 319 phase polarity, and liquid phase polarity affects reaction rates (much current discussion of OPM 320 formation processes involves condensed phase reactions). Third, the activity of water within an 321 OPM phase will obviously directly affect the rates of reactions that involve water, *e.g*.: a) 322 hemiacetal to acetal conversion (Jang and Kamens, 2001); b) organic ester and amide formation 323 Barsanti and Pankow, 2006); and c) sulfate ester formation (Surratt et al.,2007, 2008). Fourth, 324 particle water at levels as high as 10 μ g m⁻³ in the southeast US and formed by condensation on 325 atmospheric sulfate has been proposed by Carlton and Turpin (2013) as an important compart-326 ment for the uptake from the gas phase of water soluble organic compounds (e, g, g) glyoxal (C_2) , 327 methyl glyoxal (C_3) , and higher carbon number compounds). However, uptake of such mole-328 cules into water-rich OPM would compete non-negligibly with uptake into sulfate-associated 329 particle water, especially when electrolyte concentrations are high (Zuend and Seinfeld, 2012). 330 Overall, despite the model improvements discussed in this work, the predictive modeling 331 carried out here unquestionably still suffers greatly from many simplistic assumptions, *e.g.*, the 332 limited volatility range of the assumed 2p products, and the absence of a progression of second, 333 third, and higher generation products. Nevertheless, the results demonstrate that an MV

334 approach with water uptake is required when modeling OPM in the atmosphere.

336 **■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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- 527

528 Figure Captions

529

a Runs were carried out on the "CsAR" computer cluster at PSU;

b

Community Multi-Scale Air Quality Model, version 4.7.1, see Carlton et al. (2010);

c All semi-volatile products converted to non-volatile products with rate constant $k_{\text{orig}} = 9.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{s}^{-1}$, RIPT

^fRuns were carried out on the "eos" computer cluster at the Texas A&M University, and the on the "lonestar" computing cluster in the Texas Advanced Computing Center at University of Texas as Austin.

d Runs were carried out on the "Wolf" computer cluster at University of California at Davis;

e Kleeman and Cass (2001); Ying et al. (2008);

g Li et al. (2015).

Table 2.b. Non-Volatile CMAQ Products from Condensed 2p Secondary Organic Aerosol (SOA) Products with Assigned Molecular View (MV) Characteristics as Used in CMAQ-RH-2p and UCD/CIT-RH-2p.

^aAt all realistic values of SOA mass concentration, these large K_p values give f_p ≈ 1 (compound is essentially non-volatile, see Eq.(4)). These assignments are consistent with the practice in CMAQ4.7.1 of simply assigning all non-volatile SOA compounds to the particle phase, and not calculating f_p .

^bPrecedence for assigning MW was given to roughly matching the values given in CMAQ4.7.1, even though ostensibly some of the presumed non-volatile products are accretion products of some type. Little change in the simulation output would have resulted from assigning higher MW values while preserving carbon mass in the semi-volatile → non-volatile conversion step.

 ϵ Based roughly on a structure discussed by Sato et al. (2012).

^dBased roughly on a structure discussed by Baltaretu et al. (2009).

^eRoughly a dimer of a structure discussed by Smith et al. (1999).

f Similar to a structure discussed by Surratt et al. (2006).

 8 Roughly a dimer of a structure discussed by Calvert et al. (2002).

hBased on Scheme 7 of Warscheid and Hoffmann (2001).

figure 1 with all individual elements, better quality overall

figure 1 as single image

figure 2 with all individual elements, better quality overall

HIGHLIGHTS

- Current 3-D transport models use anonymized view modeling of organic particulate matter (OPM).
- Anonymized view modeling assigns only a volatility (vapor pressure) to each OPM constituent.
- Anonymized view modeling cannot consider effects of water uptake on OPM levels.
- Molecular view modeling assigns structural features to each OPM constituent.
- Molecular view modeling can consider effects of water uptake on OPM levels and OPM properties.