

Seasonal Variability of Rainfall Interception and Canopy Storage Capacity Measured under Individual Oak (*Quercus brantii*) Trees in Western Iran

O. Fathizadeh¹, P. Attarod^{1*}, T. G. Pypker², A. A. Darvishsefat¹, and G. Zahedi Amiri¹

ABSTRACT

While the hydrological balance of forest ecosystems has often been studied, quantitative studies on the seasonal variability of rainfall Interception (*I*) and Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*) by individual trees are less frequently reported. Hence, the effects of the seasonal variation in *I* and *S* by individual Persian oak trees (*Quercus brantii* var. *Persica*) in the Zagros forests of Iran were studied over a 1-year period. Annually, *I* accounted for 84.9 mm (20%) of Gross Rainfall (*GR*) that significantly differed between the in leaf (47.4 mm or 30% of *GR*) vs. leafless (37.7 mm or 14% of *GR*) periods. Negative logarithmic correlations existed between *I:GR* and *GR* both for in leaf ($r^2= 0.808$) and leafless ($r^2= 0.709$) periods. An indirect method, outlined by Pereira *et al.* (2009), estimated *S* to be 1.56 mm in the in Leaf Period (*LP*) and decreased considerably to 0.56 mm in the Leafless Period (*LLP*). The results indicate that while *I* decreased during the *LLP*, it still exerts considerable influence on the hydrology of forests. Hence, measurement of *I* in both the *LP* and *LLP* is essential when assessing the water balance on the catchment scale.

Keywords: In leaf period, Leafless period, Pereira method, Rainfall interception.

INTRODUCTION

In hydrological research, it is critical to understand the mechanisms that control canopy rainfall Interception (*I*) when characterizing the moisture distribution, soil erosion, and concentration as well as distribution of pollutants (Clements 1971; Monokaram 1979; Sanders 1986). In this paper it is assumed that, precipitation entering the top of a forest canopy (Gross Rainfall (*GR*)) is partitioned into Throughfall (*TF*), Stemflow (*SF*) and *I*. Net Rainfall (*NR*) reaches the forest floor via *TF* and *SF* (Manfroi *et al.*, 2004; André *et al.*, 2008). *TF* is the portion of rainfall that reaches the forest floor directly, or through canopy drip following

temporary storage in the forest canopy (Wullaert *et al.*, 2009). *SF* is the rainfall that flows to the ground via trunks or stems. The amount of rainfall that remains on the vegetation and evaporated after or during a rainfall is considered as *I*. *I* is estimated as the difference between *GR* and *TF* plus *SF* (Teklehaimanot and Jarvis, 1991; Bouten *et al.*, 1996; Crockford and Richardson, 2000; Staelens *et al.*, 2008). The size of *I* depends on the annual rainfall, such meteorological factors as wind speed, vapor pressure deficits, etc., as well as canopy structure (Rutter *et al.*, 1971; Crockford and Richardson, 1990).

I has been thoroughly studied in closed and in sparse forests, (Rutter, 1975; Ward and Robinson, 2000; David *et al.*, 2005).

¹ Department of Forestry and Forest Economics, Faculty of Natural Resources, University of Tehran, Islamic Republic of Iran

* Corresponding author, e-mail: attarod@ut.ac.ir

² School of Forest Resources and Environmental Science, Michigan Technological University, U. S. A.



However, not much is known regarding *I* from open woodlands, savannah type ecosystems, isolated trees and forest edges (David *et al.*, 2006). An isolated tree canopy may alter the spatial distribution of soil moisture beneath the canopy *via* changes in *TF*, *SF*, and *I* (Joffre and Rambal, 1988; Vetaas, 1992). Haworth and McPherson (1995) demonstrated that *TF* flowing through individual *Quercus emoryi* trees was influenced by tree structure as well by the quantity of rainfall size for rainfall event less than 30 mm. David *et al.* (2006), reported an *I* of 28% of *GR* for an isolated evergreen oak tree (*Quercus ilex*) growing in a Mediterranean climate.

Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*) is an important and useful hydro-meteorological variable (Hancock and Crowther 1979). In this paper *S* is defined as the water remaining on the canopy just after rainfall ceases and when water loss by evaporation is negligible (Gash *et al.*, 1995). Characteristics of the intercepting surface, rainfall and climatic factors influence the size of *S* (Calder *et al.*, 1996; Hörmann *et al.*, 1996; Liu, 1998). The tree phenology alters the surface area of the forest canopy, thereby affecting *S* and *I* (Pypker *et al.*, 2005). For example, rainfall partitioning in deciduous forests is more affected by the time of year, relative to evergreen forests (Augusto *et al.*, 2002), because periods of growth and dormancy will affect both *S* and *I* in deciduous forests (Pypker *et al.*, 2011). During the leaf on period, *TF* and *SF* are generally lower than when the tree is leafless, i.e. dormant period (Levia and Frost, 2003).

Zagros forests cover a vast area of the Zagros mountain ranges stretching from Piranshahr (Western Azerbaijan Province) in northwestern Iran, to the vicinity of Firooz-Abad (Fars Province), occupying an average length and width of 1,300 and 200 km, respectively. The semi-arid Zagros forests cover 5 million hectares, contain 40% of Iran's forests and are mostly dominated by sparse stands of

Persian oak (*Quercus brantii* var. *Persica*), i.e. 3.5 million hectares out of 5 million (Sagheb-Talebi *et al.*, 2004). Average annual temperature in the Zagros forests ranges between 9 and 25°C depending on the latitude and altitude. Seventy percent of the annual 400-800 mm of precipitation falls in winter. *I* and *S* likely constitute major components of the surface water balance in the watersheds. The main goal of this research was to determine the *I* and *S* of individual *Q.brantii* trees.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Site Description

The study was conducted in the Zagros forests in the western Iranian state of Ilam (46°24'E, 33°37'N, and an elevation of 1,383 m asl) (Figure 1). The study site consists of five sparse and scattered (a tree approximately 30-40 m away from next one) *Q. brantii* trees, originated from seedlings, with average height and diameter of 9.1 m and 66 cm, respectively, and with an understory that is currently exploited for agroforestry activities. Typical tree density in the area is approximately 50 trees per hectare, including coppiced ones.

Ilam Meteorological Station (46°26'E, 33°38'N, 1363 m asl) is located 500 m from the study site. Records from this synoptic station indicate that long-term (1986-2009) average annual rainfall is 587.2 mm (SD: ±152.5 mm) and that January is the most rainy month (111.5 mm; SD: ±53.5 mm) while August the driest (0.13 mm; SD: ±0.28 mm). The dry period begins in May ending in October. The wet period extends from November to April, and historically accounts for 92% of the total annual precipitation. The meteorological records also indicate annual open water evaporation to be 1,974 mm (SD: ±149.5 mm) and mean annual air temperature 16.9°C (SD: ±0.77°C), ranging from 4.5 °C (SD: ±1.97°C) in January to 29.3°C (SD: ±1.12°C) in July.

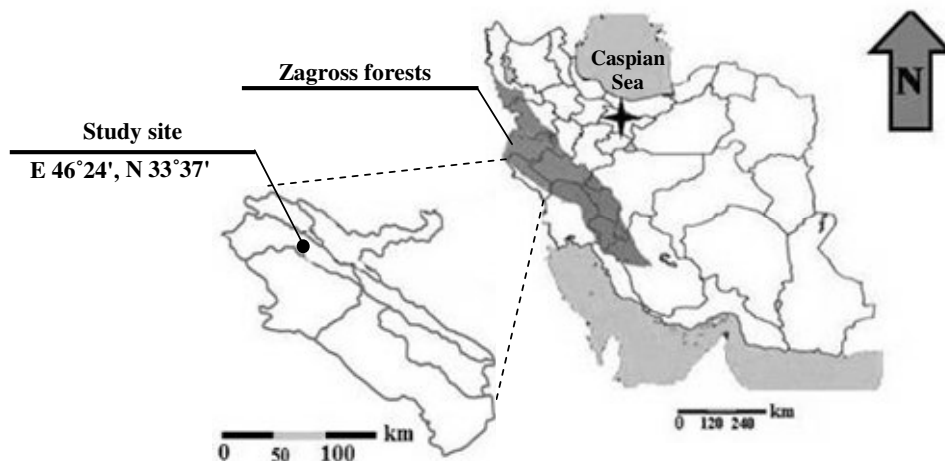


Figure 1. Study site location in the Zagros forests (dark circle) in the western Iranian state of Ilam.

Field Measurements

Five isolated and mature *Q.brantii* trees with similar morphologies (tree height, Diameter at Breast Height (DBH), and Crown Projected Area (CPA)) were randomly selected among the trees of similar size located in a 2.5-ha tract (Table 1). The canopies of these trees did not overlap with those of the adjacent trees.

GR was collected through 6 cylindrical plastic rain gauges, 9 cm in diameter, placed in a neighboring open area that was 20 m from the oak trees (with no interaction of the crowns), measured manually using a graduated cylinder with an accuracy of 1 mL. Rainfall in each collector was

quantified either 2 hours after rainfall ceased or at sunrise if the event occurred at night (Carlyle-Moses *et al.*, 2004). The average of the six rainfall collectors was used to estimate *GR*. Individual rainfall events were defined as those separated by a period of at least 4 hours of no rainfall. More than 4 hours, in this climate, is long enough to allow the canopy to dry out completely (Ahmadi *et al.*, 2011; Carlyle-Moses *et al.*, 2004).

TF was collected using the same type of manual gauges used for measuring *GR* during the study period. The experimental network consisted of 16 rain gauges for each tree, in total 80 gauges for the five study trees, randomly placed in a radial layout centered on the tree trunk, at eight geographical orientations (Figure 2).

Table 1. Height (m), Diameter at Breast Height (DBH, cm) and Crown Projected Area (CPA, m²) of the five trees selected in the study site.

Tree	Height (m)	DBH (cm)	CPA (m ²)*
A	10	58	52.8
B	5.5	66	58.1
C	11	67	78.5
D	10.7	75	45.3
E	8.4	63	66.4
Mean	9.1	66	60.2

*CPA was calculated by assuming the tree canopy was a circle and the radius calculated by averaging the distance to the edge of the crown in the cardinal directions.

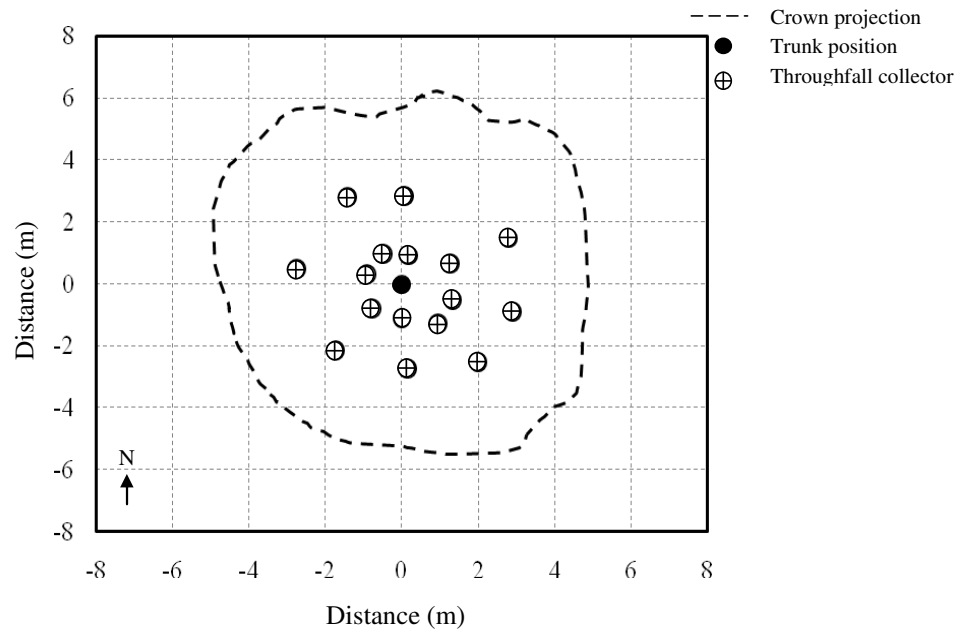


Figure 2. Location of the Throughfall (*TF*) rain gauges for tree C.

I was calculated as the difference between *GR* and *TF*. No attempt was made to measure *SF*. *SF* was assumed to be very small because such rough-barked species like *Q. brantii* typically have low *SF* values (Helvey and Patric, 1965; Geiger, 1965). A Duncan test was employed to compare the *I* for each individual tree.

Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*)

S is commonly estimated by the so-called Leyton method by fitting a regression line to data from rainfall events that saturate the canopy when evaporation rates are low (Leyton et al., 1967). However, this method is somewhat subjective in the selection of the storms used to derive *S*. The correct selection of storms may be particularly critical under isolated trees (David et al., 2006) where *TF* is highly varied in space (Lloyd et al., 1988). Here, a method was employed to estimate *S* outlined by Pereira et al. (2009), that was built upon a previous work by Lloyd et al. (1988) and corresponding to the “mean method” referred to by Klaassen et al. (1998). The method proposed by Pereira et al. (2009)

also accounts for evaporation during the canopy wetting phase (Pereira et al., 2009). This procedure uses information from a larger number of rainfall events and is less sensitive to *TF* spatial variability (Pereira et al., 2009). Based on this method, a linear relationship between *TF* and *GR* for rainfall events that are large enough to saturate the canopy was created ($TF = aGR + b$). Hence, *S* was calculated as:

$$S = -\frac{b}{\left(\frac{\bar{E}}{\bar{R}} - 1\right) \bar{R}} \frac{1}{\ln\left(1 - \left(\frac{\bar{E}}{\bar{R}}\right)\right)} \quad (1)$$

where, \bar{E}/\bar{R} is the ratio between evaporation rate and rainfall intensity and is estimated as one minus the slope of the aforementioned regression line (Leyton et al., 1967; Klaassen et al., 1998; Pypker et al., 2005). The crown cover fraction was assumed to be 1 at the individual crown level, because the gaps in the crown are few and of small dimension (Pereira et al., 2009). To ensure the complete saturation of the canopy, only rainfall events with $GR \geq 3.1$ mm in the in leaf period of the tree (*LP*) and $GR \geq 1.6$ mm in the leafless period (*LLP*) were considered.

Data Analysis

Throughout the study, the rainfall events were initially divided into four canopy development stages: Leaf Burst Period (*LBP*) (March 23-April 20); Full-Leaf Period (*FLP*) (April 21-October 15); Leaf Senescence Period (*LSP*) (October 16-December 20); and Leafless Period (*LLP*) (December 21-March 22). The distinction was regularly made (at least weekly) by inspecting the phenology of the trees in study.

The last week of *LSP* and the first week of *LBP* were included into the *LLP* because very few leaves were present then. Few rainfall events occurred within all the above-mentioned periods excluding the *LLP*. Therefore, investigations were based on two periods of: *LP* (*LBP*, *LSP*, and *FLP*) and *LLP*.

RESULTS

Long-term Average and Observed Meteorology

From March 2010 to March 2011, cumulative *GR* totaled 474.2 mm, which is

19% lower than the long-term average of 587.2 mm. Annual distribution of precipitation during the study period mirrored the long-term average, with 86% of the rainfall occurring from November to April. The wettest and the driest months in the long-term records were January (111.5 mm) and August (0.1 mm), respectively (Figure 3). During the study period, the most rainy month was January (140.2 mm) and the driest months June, July and September (0 mm). Compared to the 23-year mean monthly precipitation record (1986-2009), the study period showed significant deviations from the climate average, especially in the autumn months. In October and November 2010, there was 1.9 mm of rainfall, nearly 98% lower than the long-term period of 112.4 mm.

Mean annual air temperature was 17.4°C during the study period, slightly more than the long-term average temperature of 16.8°C. The difference in air temperature occurred because of warmer than average temperatures from September to December. As with the long-term record, July was the warmest month (29.9°C), and January the coldest month (4.6°C).

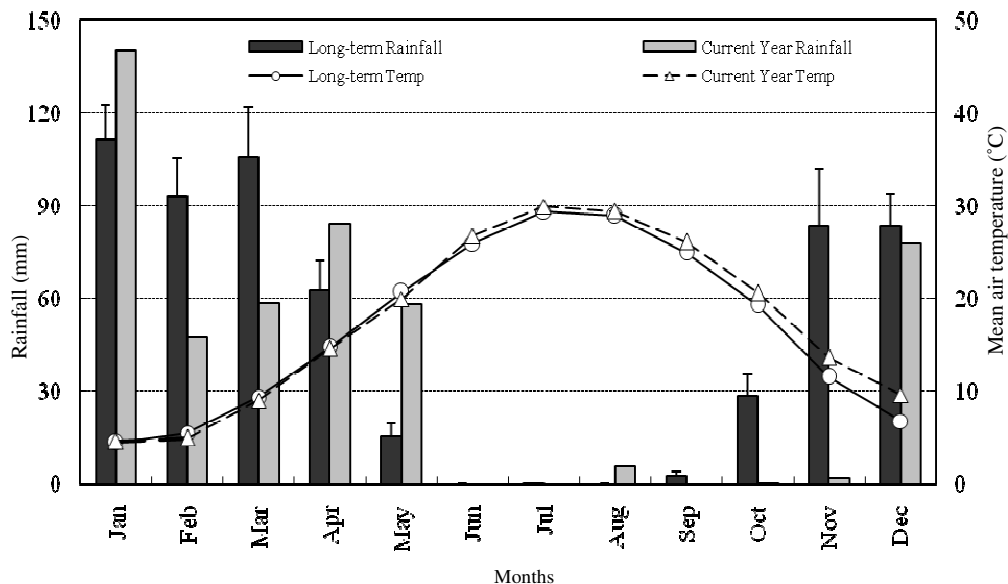


Figure 3. Monthly mean rainfall and air temperature for the study period (2010-2011) and the past 23 years (1986-2009), as recorded by a nearby synoptic meteorological station (approximately 500 m away). Error bars show the standard error (SE) of monthly rainfall for the long-term period.



Rainfall Partitioning

During the study period, 30 rainfall events were recorded, with 9 events during the *LP* (total = 157.3 mm) and 21 events during the *LLP* (total= 268.3 mm). Rainfall ranged from 3.2 to 57.3 mm during the *LP* and from 0.66 to 47.3 mm during the *LLP*. Furthermore, *GR* averaged (\pm standard error) 17.5 mm (\pm 5.9) during the *LP* and 12.8 mm (\pm 3) during the *LLP*.

Rainfall events were grouped into three classes ($GR \leq 6$ mm, $6 \text{ mm} \leq GR \leq 17$ mm and $GR \geq 17$ mm), both for *LP* and *LLP*, to allow for a better understanding of the relationship between *GR* and *TF* (Table 2). The mean *TF:GR* values in classes of the *LP* and *LLP* were 55.7%, 67.3%, 69.4% vs. 65.4%, 82.2% and 90.0%, respectively (Table 2).

Average cumulative *TF* (\pm SE) was recorded 109.9 mm (\pm 3.6), or 70% of cumulative *GR*, vs. 230.8 mm (\pm 3.7), or

86% of cumulative *GR*, during the *LP* vs. *LLP*, respectively. For individual rainfall events, *TF* averaged (\pm SE) 12.2 mm (\pm 4.6) or 64.1% of *GR* in the *LP* and 11 mm (\pm 2.7) viz. 75.6% of *GR* in the *LLP*. *TF* ranged from 50 to 78% and from 46 to 96% for *GR* events ranging from 3.2 to 57.3 mm vs. 0.8 to 24.9 mm in the *LP* and *LLP*, respectively.

Over the study period, *I* was 84.9 mm or 20% of cumulative *GR*. When distributed between the *LP* and *LLP*, *I* was 47.4 mm (SE: \pm 3.6 mm) and 37.5 mm (SE: \pm 1.8 mm), or 30% vs. 14% of total *GR*, respectively. The mean annual event based *I:GR* value was 27.8% (SE: 2.5%), with *I* being equal to 35.8% (SE: \pm 2.8%) during *LP* vs. 24.6% (SE: \pm 2.5%) during *LLP* (Table 3). *I:GR* ranged from 22% (SE: \pm 2.2%) of *GR* (57.3 mm) for larger rainfall events to 50% (SE: \pm 3.5%) of *GR* (3.2 mm) for smaller rainfall events during the *LP*. During the *LLP*, *I:GR* ranged from 4% (SE: \pm 0.6%) of *GR* (24.9 mm) to 54% (SE: \pm 6%) of *GR* (0.8 mm) for

Table 2. Cumulative Gross Rainfall (*GR*) depth, the percent of average relative Throughfall (*TF:GR*), Standard Deviation (*SD*), divided into 3 *GR* classes for rainfall events during in Leaf Period (*LP*) and Leafless Period (*LLP*).

<i>GR</i> class (mm)	In Leaf Period (<i>LP</i>)				Leafless Period (<i>LLP</i>)			
	Frequency	<i>GR</i> (mm)	<i>TF:GR</i> ^{**} (%)	<i>SD</i> (%)	Frequency	<i>GR</i> (mm)	<i>TF:GR</i> ^b (%)	<i>SD</i> (%)
< 6	3	13.1	55.7	6	11	26.4	65.4	10.4
6 - 17	3	36.1	67.3	1.4	4	52.1	82.2	8.8
> 17	3	108.1	69.4	7.5	6	189.8	90.0	7.2
Cumulative	9	157.3			21	268.3		
Average (\pm SD)		17.5*	64.1 (\pm 7.4)			12.8 ^a	79.2 (\pm 12.6)	

^a Event based average , ^b Event based for each class.

Table 3. Summary of the Duncan tests comparing the relative Interception loss (*I:GR*) for individual oak trees during the in Leaf Period (*LP*) and Leafless Period (*LLP*). There is no significant difference ($P > 0.05$) observed between trees denoted by same letter. n denotes the number of rainfall events and SE refers to the standard error.

Tree	(<i>I:GR</i>) _{<i>LP</i>} (%) (n= 9)	SE _{<i>LP</i>} (%)	Sign _{<i>LP</i>} $\alpha = 0.05$	(<i>I:GR</i>) _{<i>LLP</i>} (%) (n=21)	SE _{<i>LLP</i>} (%)	Sign _{<i>LLP</i>} $\alpha = 0.05$
A	33	2.8	b	18	2.8	b
B	30	2.5	b	23	3.1	b
C	45	3.3	a	33	4.1	a
D	32	2.7	b	22	2.9	b
E	39	2.6	ab	27	3.5	ab
			0.006			0.031
Mean (\pm SE)	35.8 (\pm 2.8)			24.6 (\pm 2.5)		

larger vs. smaller events, respectively. Moreover, for *LP* and *LLP* both, the relative *I* decreased as *GR* increased (Figure 4). Significant negative logarithmic relationships were found out between *I:GR* and *GR* both for *LP* ($I:GR = -0.0759 \ln(GR) + 0.545$, $r^2 = 0.808$) and *LLP* ($I:GR = -0.0912 \ln(GR) + 0.411$, $r^2 = 0.709$). Duncan tests indicated that there were no significant differences between the measured parameters at the different individual oak trees, except for tree C in the *LP* ($(I:GR) \pm SE$: (45%) $\pm 3.3\%$) vs. *LLP* ($(I:GR) \pm SE$: (33%) $\pm 4.1\%$) (Table 3).

Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*)

The linear regressions established between *TF* and *GR* for all rainfall events sufficient to saturate the canopy ($GR \geq 3.1$ mm in the *LP* and $GR \geq 1.6$ mm in the *LLP*)

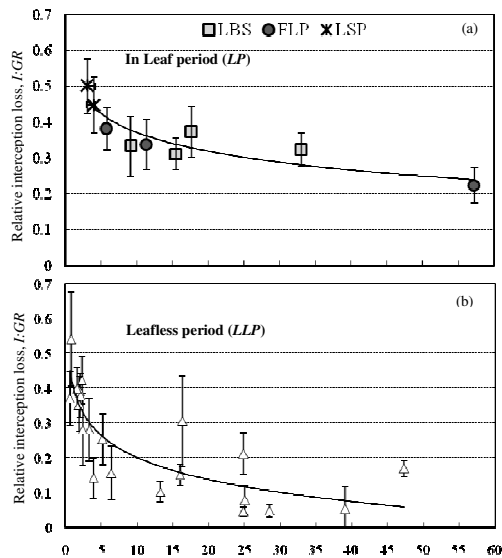


Figure 4. Regression analyses between relative interception loss ($I:GR$) and Gross Rainfall (GR) for individual oak trees in: (a) In Leaf Period (*LP*) and (b) Leafless Period (*LLP*). Data of *LP* were divided into Leaf Burst Period (*LBP*); Full-Leaf Period (*FLP*), and Leaf Senescence Period (*LSP*). The regression equation for (a) and (b) are $I:GR = -0.0759 \ln(GR) + 0.545$ and $I:GR = -0.0912 \ln(GR) + 0.411$, respectively. Error bars represent the standard deviations (SD).

are presented in Figure 5 for five individual oak trees. The intercept of the regression lines were employed in Equation (1) to obtain an estimate of *S*. Using the Pereira method, *S* averaged ($\pm SD$) 1.56 mm (± 0.44 mm) during the *LP* and decreased to 0.56 mm (± 0.22 mm) during the *LLP* (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

Interception (*I*)

Annual and seasonal average values of $TF:GR$ and $I:GR$ measured in the present study are in agreement with the values reported by other researchers (Table 5). A review of the literature on rainfall partitioning for the various tree-based vs. stand-based studies indicates that the values for $TF:GR$ and $I:GR$ measured throughout the present study are comparable with those from other similar oak forests. For example, David *et al.* (2006), in a tree-based study on an evergreen oak (*Q. ilex*) tree in Portugal, estimated annual $TF:GR$ and $I:GR$ of 78% and 21.7% per unit of the crown-projected areas, respectively. Furthermore, Mateos and Schnable (2001), reported the portions of *TF* and *I* to be 73 and 26.8% of annual *GR*, respectively, in individual evergreen oak (*Q. rotundifolia*) trees in Spain. Xiao *et al.* (2000), reported mean annual $TF:GR$ and $I:GR$ of 58% and 27%, respectively, with an *SF* of 15% of *GR*, under an 8-year-old evergreen cork oak (*Q. suber*) tree in California. In Maryland, $I:GR$ was equal to 5.8% in a mixed deciduous forest during the *LLP* (Klingaman *et al.*, 2007). All the tree-based research on oak trees reported in Table 5 occurred when foliage was still on the trees.

In the present study, relative $I:GR$ is significantly higher in *LP* relative to *LLP*. These results are consistent with findings for other tree-based and stand-based research in deciduous forests (Dolman, 1987; Augusto *et al.*, 2002; Levia and Frost, 2003; Herbst *et al.*, 2008; Staelens *et al.*, 2008). For example, $I:GR$ was 31% in the *LP* and 10% in the *LLP*, for an individual beech tree located in

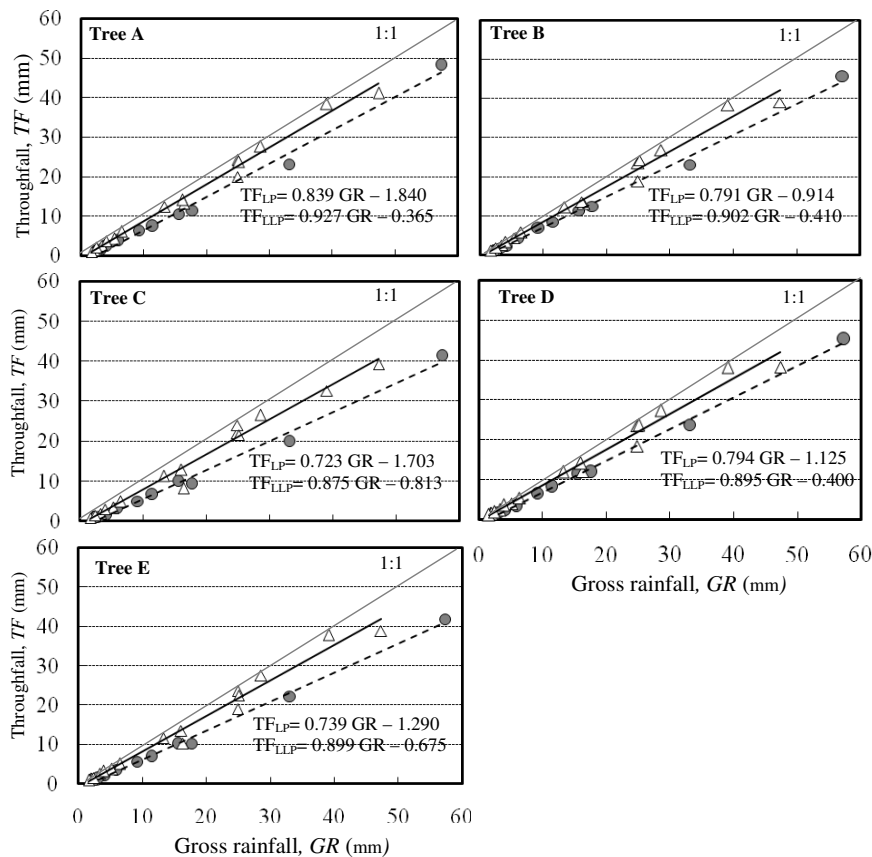


Figure 5. The relationship between Gross Rainfall (GR) and Throughfall (TF) for all rainfall events with $GR \geq 3.1$ mm in the Leaf Period (LP) and $GR \geq 1.6$ mm in the Leafless Period (LLP) for individual oak trees. Canopy Storage Capacity (S) was derived from the intercept of the regression lines between these two variables. Triangles (Δ) and filled circles (\bullet) denote rainfall events in the LLP and LP , respectively.

Belgium (Staelens *et al.*, 2008). Dolman (1987), in a study on an oak forest in the Netherlands, reported an $I:GR$ of 30% and 20% in the LP and LLP , respectively. In a deciduous mixed oak-birch forest in the U.K, Herbst *et al.* (2008) reported an $I:GR$ of 29 and 20% in the LP and LLP , respectively. Lastly, Neal *et al.* (1993), in a lowland beech plantation in southern England, also found that the lowest I occurred during winter, but the effect of foliation on TF could not be determined because water inputs from dew, frost, and fog condensation during the winter months complicated the results.

Therefore, it is difficult to draw general conclusions about I for particular forest types because of I typically depending on climatic

factors (quantity, intensity, and duration of rainfall, air temperature, relative humidity, wind speeds and directions, rain angle, temporal distribution of rainfall events) (Jackson, 1975; Crockford and Richardson, 2000; Marin *et al.*, 2000; Xiao *et al.*, 2000; Huber and Iroumé, 2001; Iroumé and Huber, 2002; Link *et al.*, 2004), forest type, location and structure (crown size, leaf shape, branch angle, composition, stand age, basal area, stand density, flow path obstructions, bark type, canopy gaps, canopy storage capacity, Leaf Area Index (LAI), hydrophobicity (water repellency of leaf and wood) (Forgeard *et al.*, 1980; Crockford and Richardson, 2000; Xiao *et al.*, 2000; Iroumé and Huber 2002; Carlyle-Moses *et al.* 2004;

Table 4. Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*) as calculated by method of Pereira (2009) during the in Leaf Period (*LP*) and Leafless Period (*LLP*) for five selected oak trees. *n* denotes the number of events and *SD* the standard deviation.

	n	Tree					Mean	SD
		A	B	C	D	E		
<i>S_{LP}</i> (mm)	9	2.01	1.03	2.01	1.27	1.50	1.57	0.44
<i>S_{LLP}</i> (mm)	19	0.38	0.43	0.87	0.42	0.71	0.56	0.22

Table 5. Review of Canopy Storage Capacity (*S*) and measured values of rainfall being partition into Throughfall (*TF*) and Interception loss (*I*) from various research studies for different broad leaved forest types. *All the values for tree-based studies are expressed per unit crown projected area while stand based studies presented on a total area basis.

Tree species	Study type*	Study period	<i>TF:GR</i> (%)	<i>I:GR</i> (%)	<i>S</i> (mm)	location	Reference
Oak (<i>Quercus brantii</i>)	Tree-based	In leaf	70	30	1.4- 1.8	Iran	This study
		Leafless	86	14	0.5-0.6		
Oak (<i>Q. ilex</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	-	23-30	1.16	Portugal	Pereira <i>et al.</i> (2009)
Evergreen oak (<i>Q. suber</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	58	27	2	California	Xiao <i>et al.</i> (2000)
Evergreen oak (<i>Q. ilex</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	78	21.7	0.26	Portugal	David <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Evergreen oak (<i>Q. emoryi</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	27-100	-	-	Arizona	Haworth and McPherson (1995)
Evergreen oak (<i>Q. rotundifolia</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	73	26.8	-	Spain	Mateos and Schnabel (2001)
Beech (<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>)	Tree-based	Leafed	59.8	31	1.1	Belgium	Staelens <i>et al.</i> (2008)
		Leafless	79.4	10	0.4		
Olive	Tree-based	Annual	-	21.7	2.7	Spain	Gomez <i>et al.</i> (2001)
<i>Eucalyptus melanophloia</i>	Tree-based	Annual	88.4	11	2	Australia	Prebble and Stirk (1980)
Pear (<i>Pyrus calleryana</i>)	Tree-based	Annual	77	15	1	California	Xiao <i>et al.</i> (2000)
Mixed (Oak, hornbeam, ash, maple)	Stand-based	Annual	67-72	25-29	0.9	Slovenia	Sraj <i>et al.</i> (2008)
European beech (<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>)	Stand-based	Leafed	82-83	16	-	Southern England	Neal <i>et al.</i> (1993)
		Leafless	68-80	14	-		
Mixed (Oak, maple, hornbeam)	Stand-based	Annual	76.4	19.3	1	Canada	Carlyle- Moses and Price (1999)
Mixed (Oak, birch)	Stand-based	Leafed	69.8	29	1.2	U.K	Herbst <i>et al.</i> (2008)
		Leafless	76.6	20	0.6		
Mixed (Beech, Poplar, Black oak, maple)	Stand-based	Leafless	-	5.8	1.48	Maryland	Klingaman <i>et al.</i> (2007)
Konara oak (<i>Q. serrata</i>)	Stand-based	Annual	72	18.6	0.62	Japan	Cantú Silva and Okumura (1996)
Oak	Stand-based	Leafed	57-77	30	0.8	Netherland	Dolman (1987)
		Leafless	80-87	20	0.3		
Mixed (Oak, beech)	Stand-based	Leafed	-	-	2.3	France	Halldin <i>et al.</i> (1984)
		Leafless	-	-	1.5		
Mixed (multi-species)	Stand-based	Leafed	76.3	17.6	1.26	Japan	Deguchi <i>et al.</i> (2006)
		Leafless	80	14.3	0.97		



Fleischbein et al. 2005; Deguchi et al. 2006; Staelens et al., 2008; Muzylo et al., 2009) and other factors during the study period. Hence, differences in rainfall partitioning reported by other researchers are presumably due to differences in the aforementioned factors.

As with past research (e.g. Staelens et al., 2008), the logarithmic fit obtained between GR and $I:GR$ (Figure 4) differed significantly between the LP vs. LLP . The difference between the two periods of the year (seasonal effect) is clearly illustrated when TF is expressed as a percentage of GR . During the LP , the TF fraction of GR increased from an average of 55.7% for ≤ 6 mm rain events, to over to 69.4% for events ≥ 17 mm (Table 2). The increase in $TF:GR$ was found for LLP as well. $TF:GR$ in the LLP was greater than in the LP for all the rainfall classes (Table 2). The present study confirms that the largest percentage of I for individual storms occurs during small rain events (Llorens, 1997; Price and Carlyle-Moses, 2003). This occurs because most of the rainfall is stored in the canopy during the small rainfall events. On the contrary, during large rainfall events, the canopy saturates and a considerable portion of the rainfall will drip through the canopy as TF (Gash, 1979; Sraj et al., 2008; Staelens et al., 2008). The remaining rainfall is either stored in the canopy or lost as evaporation during the rainfall event (Gash, 1979).

During the LP , 67% of the rainfall events were greater than 6 mm (large events), whilst for the LLP , the percentage of small events (52% for ≤ 6 mm rain events) and large events (48% for ≥ 6 mm rain events) were equal. Hence, the higher frequency of large events in the LP likely reduced $I:GR$ varied widely when GR values were low and this was more evident for LLP than for LP (Figure 4). This suggests that in addition to tree phenology and size of GR , other climatic factors played a very important role in determining the size of I . For example past research demonstrates that evaporation rates during the storm can be similar between LP and LLP (Staelens et al., 2011). This may occur because changes in canopy structure

result in a lower aerodynamic resistance to latent heat exchange during the LLP (e.g. Krämer and Hölscher, 2009). Hence, a portion of the differences between LP and LLP periods may result from the leaves, increasing S and a portion resulting from differences in micrometeorological variables.

Canopy Storage Capacity (S)

The Pereira method, provided estimates of S , ranging from 1.56 mm in the LP to 0.56 mm in the LLP (Table 4). Consequently, the lower S allowed for more TF in the LLP than in the LP for individual oak trees (Figure 5). A summary of 18 studies of I in broad-leaved forests that report estimates of S is presented in Table 5. The results from the current study are in agreement with those from other research in other broad-leaved forests. For example, Deguchi et al. (2006) reported that S for broad-leaved deciduous forests was generally less than 1.8 mm. Xiao et al. (2000) estimated S to be 2 mm using an indirect, regression based, method for an isolated evergreen oak (*Q.suber*) tree in California. Staelens et al. (2008) determined S to be 1.1 and 0.4 mm in the LP vs. LLP , respectively, for an individual deciduous beech tree.

In our study, S was greater in the LP than in the LLP . The magnitude of the seasonal change in S is difficult to quantify because S varies with changes in rainfall intensity, wind speed, the nature of the intercepting surface (type of species, leaf shape, dimension and orientation) and such other factors as water viscosity (Leonard, 1967; Jackson, 1975; Calder et al., 1996; Hörmann et al., 1996; Liu, 1998; Llorens and Gallart, 2000; Fleischbein et al., 2005).

CONCLUSIONS

The present study is indicative of the fact that TF and I are of major importance, accounting for 80% and 20% of annual gross precipitation, respectively. In deciduous forests, tree phenology alters the surface area

of the forest canopy, thus influencing S and I . On an event basis, TF is mainly controlled by the amount of rainfall. S for individual oak trees was estimated to range from 1.56 mm in the LP to 0.56 mm for the LLP . This study is the first to document rainfall partitioning in the individual *Q.brantii* trees in the Zagros forests of western Iran. The effect of other climatic conditions, as well as vegetative factors in canopy hydrology, should be considered in the future research.

In this region, I must be considered when constructing a watershed scale water balance because I was considerable and *Q.brantii* covers a vast area of broad-leaved forests of the Zagros forests in Iran. Furthermore, I should be more prominently considered in the future hydrological studies in the Zagros forests in western Iran.

REFERENCES

- Ahmadi, M. T., Attarod, P., Marvi-Mohadjer, M. R., Rahmani, R. and Fathi, J. 2009. Partitioning Rainfall into Throughfall, Stemflow and Interception Loss in an Oriental Beech (*Fagus orientalis* Lipsky) Forest during the Growing Season. *Turk. J. Agric. For.*, **33**: 557-568.
- Ahmadi, M. T., Attarod, P. and Bayramzadeh, V. 2011. Rainfall Redistribution by an Oriental Beech (*Fagus orientalis* Lipsky) Forest Canopy in the Caspian Forests, Northern Iran. *J. Agric. Sci. Tech.*, **13**: 1105-1120.
- André, F., Mathieu, J. and Ponette, Q. 2008. Effects of Biological and Meteorological Factors on Stemflow Chemistry within a Temperate Mixed Oak-beech Stand. *Sci. Total Environ.*, **393**: 72-83.
- Augusto, L., Ranger, J., Binkley, D. and Rothe, A. 2002. Impact of Several Common Tree Species of European Temperate Forests on Soil Fertility. *Ann. For. Sci.*, **59**: 233-253.
- Bouten, W., Schaap, M. G., Aerts, J. and Vermetten, A. W. M. 1996. Monitoring and Modelling Canopy Water Storage Amounts in Support of Atmospheric Deposition Studies. *J. Hydrol.*, **181**: 305-321.
- Calder, I. R., Hall, R. L., Rosier, P. T. W., Bastable, H. G. and Prasanna, K. T. 1996. Dependence of Rainfall Interception on Drop Size: 2. Experimental Determination of the Wetting Functions and Two-layer Stochastic Model Parameters for Five Tropical Tree Species. *J. Hydrol.*, **185**: 379-388.
- Cantú Silva, I. and Okumura, T. 1996. Rainfall Partitioning in a Mixed White Oak Forest with Dwarf Bamboo Undergrowth. *J. Environ. Hydrol.*, **4**: 1-16.
- Carlyle-Moses, D. E., Laureano, J. S. F. and Price, A. G. 2004. Throughfall and Throughfall Spatial Variability in Madrean Oak Forest Communities of Northeastern Mexico. *J. Hydrol.*, **297**: 124-135.
- Carlyle-Moses, D. E. and Price, A. G. 1999. An Evaluation of the Gash Interception Model in a Northern Hardwood Stand. *J. Hydrol.*, **214**: 103-110.
- Clements, J. R. 1971. Evaluating Summer Rainfall through a Multi-storied Large Tooth Aspen Community. *Can. J. For. Res.*, **1**: 165-184.
- Crockford, R. H. and Richardson, D. P. 1990. Partitioning of Rainfall in a Eucalypt Forest and Pine Plantation in Southeastern Australia: I. Throughfall Measurement in a Eucalypt Forest: Effect of Method and Species Composition. *Hydrol. Process.*, **4**: 131-144.
- Crockford, R. H. and Richardson, D. P. 2000. Partitioning of Rainfall into Throughfall, Stemflow, and Interception: Effect of Forest Type, Ground Cover and Climate. *Hydrol. Process.*, **14**: 2903-2920.
- David, T. S., Gash, J. H. C., Valente, F., Pereira, J. S., Ferreira, M. I. and David, J. S. 2006. Rainfall Interception by an Isolated Evergreen Oak Tree in a Mediterranean Savannah. *Hydrol. Process.*, **20**: 2713-2726.
- David, J. S., Valente, F. and Gash, J. H. C. 2005. Evaporation of Intercepted Rainfall. In: "*Encyclopedia of Hydrological Sciences*", (Ed.): Anderson, M. G.. John Wiley, Chichester, **43**: 627-634.
- Deguchi, A., Hattori, S. and Park, H. 2006. The Influence of Seasonal Changes in Canopy Structure on Interception Loss: Application of the Revised Gash Model. *J. Hydrol.*, **319**: 80-102.
- Delphis, F. and Levia, J. 2004. Differential Winter Stemflow Generation under Contrasting Storm Conditions in a Southern New England Broad-leaved Deciduous Forest. *Hydrol. Processes.*, **18**: 1105-1112.
- Dolman, A. J. 1987. Summer and Winter Rainfall Interception in an Oak Forest: Predictions with an Analytical and a



- Numerical Simulation Model. *J. Hydrol.*, **90**: 1-9.
18. Fleischbein, K., Wilcke, W., Goller, R., Boy, J., Valarezo, C., Zech, W. and Knoblich, K. 2005. Rainfall Interception in a Lower Montane Forest in Ecuador: Effects of Canopy Properties. *Hydrol. Process.*, **19(7)**: 1355-1371.
 19. Forgeard, F., Gloaguen, J. C. and Touffet, J. 1980. Interception des Précipitations et Apports au sol D'éléments Minéraux par les Eaux de Pluie et les Pluiolessivats dans une Hêtraie Atlantique et dans Quelques Peuplements Résineux de Bretagne. *Ann. Sci. For.*, **37**: 53-71.
 20. Gash, J. 1979. An Analytical Model of Rainfall Interception by Forest. *Q. J. Roy. Meteorol. Soc.*, **105**: 43-55.
 21. Gash, J., Lloyd, C. and Lachau, G. 1995. Estimating Sparse Forest Rainfall Interception with an Analytical Model. *J. Hydrol.*, **170**: 79-86.
 22. Geiger, R. 1965. *The Climate near the Ground*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, No: 584, Massachusetts, PP. 611.
 23. Halldin, S., Saugier, B. and Pontaillier, J. Y. 1984. Evapotranspiration of a Deciduous Forest: Simulation Using Routine Meteorological Data. *J. Hydrol.*, **75**: 323-341.
 24. Hancock, N. H. and Crowther, J. M. 1979. A Technique for the Direct Measurement of Water Storage on a Forest Canopy. *J. Hydrol.*, **41**: 105-122.
 25. Haworth, K. and McPherson, G. R. 1995. Effects of *Quercus emoryi* Trees on Precipitation Distribution and Microclimate in a Semi-arid Savanna. *J. Arid. Environ.*, **31**: 153-170.
 26. Helvey, J. D. and Patric, J. H. 1965. Design Criteria for Interception Studies. In: "*Design of Hydrological Networks; Proceedings of a Symposium*", June 1965, Quebec City Canada. *Int. Assoc. Sci. Hydrol.*, **67**: 131-137.
 27. Herbst, M., Rosier, P. T. W., McNeil, D. D., Harding, R. J. and Gowing, D. J. 2008. Seasonal Variability of Interception Evaporation from the Canopy of a Mixed Deciduous Forest. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **148**: 1655-1667.
 28. Hörmann, G., Branding, A., Clemen, T., Herbst, M., Hinrichs, A. and Thamm, F. 1996. Calculation and Simulation of wind Controlled Canopy Interception of a Beech Forest in Northern Germany. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **79**: 131 - 148.
 29. Huber, A. and Iroume, A. 2001. Variability of Annual Rainfall Partitioning for Different Sites and Forest Cover in Chile. *J. Hydrol.*, **248**: 78-92.
 30. Iroume, A. and Huber, A. 2002. Comparison of Interception Losses in a Broadleaved Native Forest and a *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Douglas Fir) Plantation in the Andes Mountains of Southern Chile. *Hydrol. Process.*, **16**: 2347-2361.
 31. Jackson, I. J. 1975. Relationships between Rainfall Parameters and Interception by Tropical Rainforest. *J. Hydrol.*, **24**: 215-238.
 32. Joffre, R. and Rambal, S. 1988. Soil Water Improvement by Trees in the Rangelands of Southern Spain. *Acta. Oecol. Plant.*, **9**: 405-422.
 33. Klaassen, W., Bosveld, F. and DeWater, E. 1998. Water Storage and Evaporation as Constituents of Rainfall Interception. *J. Hydrol.*, **212-213**: 36-50.
 34. Klingaman, N. P., Levia, D. F. and Frost, E. E. 2007. A Comparison of Three Canopy Interception Models for a Leafless Mixed Deciduous Forest Stand in the Eastern United States. *Am. Meteorol. Soc.* DOI: 10.1175/JHM564.1 Vol.? PP?
 35. Krämer, I. and Hölscher, D. 2009. Rainfall Partitioning along a Tree Diversity Gradient in a Deciduous Old-growth Forest in Central Germany. *Ecohydrol.*, **2(1)**: 102-114.
 36. Leonard, R. E. 1967. Mathematical theory of Interception. In: "*International Symposium on Forest Hydrology*", (Eds.): Sopper, W. E. and Lull, H. W., Pergamon, Oxford, PP.131-136.
 37. Levia, D. F. and Frost, E. E. 2003. A Review and Evaluation of Stemflow Literature in the Hydrologic and Biogeochemical Cycles of Forested and Agricultural Ecosystems. *J. Hydrol.*, **274**: 1-29.
 38. Leyton, L., Reynolds, E. R. C. and Thompson, F. B. 1967. Rainfall Interception in Forest and Moorland. In: "*International Symposium on Forest Hydrology*", (Eds.): Sopper, W. E. and Lull, H. W., Pergamon, Oxford, PP. 163-178.
 39. Link, T. E., Unsworth, M. and Marks, D. 2004. The Dynamics of Rainfall Interception by a Seasonal Temperate Rainforest. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **124**:171-191.
 40. Liu, S.G. 1998. Estimation of Rainfall Storage Capacity in the Canopies of Cypress Wetlands and Slash Pine Uplands in North-Central Florida. *J. Hydrol.*, **207**: 32-41.
 41. Llorens, P. 1997. Rainfall Interception by a *Pinus sylvestris* Forest Patch Overgrown in a

- Mediterranean Mountainous Abandoned Area. II. Assessment of the Applicability of Gash's Analytical Model. *J. Hydrol.*, **199(3-4)**: 346-359.
42. Llorens, P. and Gallart, F. 2000. A Simplified Method for Forest Water Storage Capacity Measurement. *J. Hydrol.*, **240**: 131-144.
 43. Lloyd, C. R., Gash, J. H. C., Shuttleworth, W. J. and de O. Marques, F. A. 1988. The Measurement and Modeling of Rainfall Interception by Amazonian Rain Forest. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **43 (3-4)**: 277-294.
 44. Manfroi, O., Koichiro, K., Nobuaki, T., Masakazu, S., Nakagawa, M., Nakashizuka, T. and Chong, L. 2004. The Stemflow of Trees in a Bornean Lowland Tropical Forest. *Hydrol. Process.*, **18**: 2455-2474.
 45. Marin, C. T., Bouten, W. and Sevink, J. 2000. Gross Rainfall and Its Partitioning into Throughfall, Stemflow and Evaporation of Intercepted Water in Four Forest Ecosystems in Western Amazonia. *J. Hydrol.*, **237**: 40-57.
 46. Mateos, B. and Schnabel, S. 2001. Rainfall Interception by Holm Oaks in Mediterranean Open Woodland. *Cuad. Investig. Geogr.*, **27**: 27-38.
 47. Monokaram, N. 1979. Stemflow, Throughfall and Rainfall Interception in a Lowland Tropical Rain Forest in Malaysia. *Malay. For.*, **42**: 174-201.
 48. Muzylo, A., Llorens, P., Valente, F., Keizer, J. J., Domingo, F. and Gash, J. H. C. 2009. Review of Rainfall Interception Modelling. *J. Hydrol.*, **370**: 191-206.
 49. Neal, C., Robson, A. J., Bhardwaj, C. L., Conway, T., Jefery, H. A., Meal, M., Ryland, G. P., Smith, C. J. and Walls, J. 1993. Relationships between Precipitation, Stemflow and Throughfall for a Lowland Beech Plantation, Black Wood, Hampshire, Southern England: Interception at a Forest Edge and the Effects of Storm Damage. *J. Hydrol.*, **146**: 221-233.
 50. Pereira, F. L., Gash, J. H. C., David, J. S., David, T. S., Monteiro, P. R. and Valente, F. 2009. Modelling Interception Loss from Evergreen Oak Mediterranean Savannas: Application of a Tree-based Modelling Approach. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **149 (3-4)**: 680-688.
 51. Prebble, R. E. and Stirk, G. B. 1980. Throughfall and Stemflow on Silverleaf Ironbark (*Eucalyptus rnelanophloia*) Trees. *Aust. J. Ecol.*, **5**: 419-427.
 52. Price, A. G. and Carlyle-Moses, D. E. 2003. Measurement and Modelling of Growing-season Canopy Water Fluxes in a Mature Mixed Deciduous Forest Stand, Northern Ontario, Canada. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **119**: 69-85.
 53. Pypker, T. G., Bond, B. J., Link, T. E., Marks, D. and Unsworth, M. H. 2005. The Importance of Canopy Structure in Controlling the Interception Loss of Rainfall: Examples from a Young and an Old-growth Douglas-fir Forest. *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **130**: 113-129.
 54. Pypker, T. G., Levia, D. F., Staelens, J. and Van Stan, J. T. 2011. Canopy Structure in Relation to Hydrological and Biogeochemical Fluxes. XVII. In: "*Forest Hydrology and Biogeochemistry: Synthesis of Past Research and Future Directions*", (Eds.): Levia, D. F., Carlyle-Moses, D. E. and Tanaka, T.. Ecological Studies Series, No. 216, Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, PP. 371-388.
 55. Rutter, A. J. 1975. The Hydrological Cycle in Vegetation. In: "*Vegetation and the Atmosphere*", (Ed.): Monteith, J. L.. Academic Press, London, **1**: 111-154.
 56. Rutter, A. J., Kershaw, K. A., Robins, P. C. and Monton, A. J. 1971. A Predictive Model of Rainfall Interception Forests, 1. Derivation of the Model from Observations in a Plantation of Corsican Pine. *Agric. Meteorol.*, **9**: 367-384.
 57. Sagheb-Talebi, K. H., Sajedi, T. and Yazdian, F. 2004. *Forests of Iran*. Iran Research Institute of Forests and Rangelands (RIFR) Press, No: 1380-339, Tehran, PP. 27.
 58. Sanders, R. A. 1986. Urban Vegetation Impacts on the Hydrology of Dayton, Ohio. *Urban. Ecol.*, **9**: 361-376.
 59. Staelens, J., De Schrijver, A., Verheyen, K. and Verhoest, N. E. C. 2008. Rainfall Partitioning into Throughfall, Stemflow, and Interception within a Single Beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) Canopy: Influence of Foliation, Rain Event Characteristics, and Meteorology. *Hydrol. Process.*, **22**: 33-45.
 60. Staelens, J., Herbst, M., Hölscher, D. and De Schrijver, A. 2011. Seasonality of hydrological and biogeochemical fluxes. 26. In: "*Forest Hydrology and Biogeochemistry*", (Eds.): Levia, D. F., Carlyle-Moses, D. E. and Tanaka, T. Synthesis of Past Research and Future Directions. Ecological Studies Series, No. 216, Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany, PP. 521-539.
 61. Sraj, M., Brilly, M. and Mikos, M. 2008. Rainfall Interception by Two Deciduous



- Mediterranean Forests of Contrasting Stature in Slovenia, *Agric. For. Meteorol.*, **148**: 121-134.
62. Teklehaimanot, Z. and Jarvis, P. G. 1991. Direct Measurement of Evaporation of Intercepted Water from Forest Canopies. *J. Appl. Ecol.*, **28**: 603-618.
63. Vetaas, O. R. 1992. Micro-site Effects of Trees and Shrubs in Dry Savannas. *J. Veg. Sci.*, **3**: 337-344.
64. Ward, R. C. and Robinson, M. 2000. *Principles of Hydrology*. 4th Edition, McGraw-Hill, London, PP.450.
65. Wullaert, H., Pohlert, T., Boy, J., Valarezo, C. and Wilckem, W. 2009. Spatial Throughfall Heterogeneity in a Montane Rain Forest in Ecuador: Extent, Temporal Stability and Drivers. *J. Hydrol.*, **377**: 71-79.
66. Xiao, Q. F., McPherson, E. G., Ustin, S. L., Grismer, M. E. and Simpson, J. R. 2000. Winter Rainfall Interception by Two Mature Open-grown Trees in Davis, California. *Hydrol. Process.*, **14**: 763-784.

تغییرات فصلی باران‌رایی و ظرفیت نگهداری تاج پوشش تک درختان بلوط (*Quercus brantii*) غرب ایران

۱. فتحی‌زاده، پ. عطارد، ت. گ. پیپکر، ع. ا. درویش‌صفت و ق. زاهدی امیری

چکیده

اگرچه تراز هیدرولوژیکی اکوسیستم‌های جنگل اغلب مورد مطالعه قرار گرفته است، مطالعات کمی تغییرات فصلی باران‌رایی و ظرفیت ذخیره‌ی تاج پوشش تک درختان، بسیار کمتر گزارش شده است. بنابراین هدف از مطالعه حاضر، بررسی اثر تغییرات فصلی بر باران‌رایی و ظرفیت ذخیره‌ی تاج پوشش تک درختان بلوط ایرانی (*Quercus brantii* var. *Persica*) در جنگل‌های زاگرس ایران در طی یک دوره یکساله بود. به صورت سالانه، باران رایی ۸۴/۹ میلی‌متر (۲۰ درصد) از بارندگی محاسبه شد که به صورت معنی‌داری بین دوره‌ی برگدار (۴۷/۴ میلی‌متر یا ۳۰ درصد از بارندگی) و دوره‌ی بی‌برگی (۳۷/۷ میلی‌متر یا ۱۴ درصد از بارندگی) سال، متفاوت بود. برای هر دو دوره‌ی برگدار ($r^2 = 0.808$) و بی‌برگی ($r^2 = 0.709$) بین نسبت باران رایی به بارندگی و بارندگی، همبستگی منفی و لگاریتمی مشاهده شد. ظرفیت ذخیره‌ی تاج پوشش با استفاده از روشی جدید توسط Pereira و همکاران (۲۰۰۹) در فصل برگدار ۱/۵۶ میلی‌متر تخمین زده شد که این مقدار در فصل بی‌برگی ۰/۵۶ میلی‌متر محاسبه گردید و به صورت قابل توجهی نسبت به فصل برگدار کاهش نشان داد. نتایج نشان می‌دهد که اگرچه باران رایی در طی دوره‌ی بی‌برگی کاهش یافته است، باز هم اثر قابل توجهی را بر روی هیدرولوژی جنگل‌ها می‌تواند داشته باشد. بنابراین اندازه‌گیری باران رایی در هر دو دوره‌ی برگدار و بی‌برگی در هنگام ارزیابی تراز آب حوضه‌ی آبخیز ضروری است.