Evaluation of PTFs Developed From Large Databases for Iranian Soils To Predict SMRC

R. MOAZEN ZADEH^{1*}, B. GHAHRAMAN^{1**}

¹Department of Water Engineering, College of Agriculture, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, I.R. Iran

ABSTRACT- The majority of hydraulic processes under a natural condition in a field are carried out under unsaturated flow conditions. The soil moisture retention curve (SMRC) is the most important hydraulic characteristic of an unsaturated soil whose knowledge is of prime importance in soil-water studies such as soil conservation, soil erosion, land evaluation, soil reclamation, and water resources management. SMRC can be determined by two different direct and indirect methods. While there are noticeable developments on direct methods, they are still time- and labor-consuming. As a result, researchers are focusing more on indirect methods. The present research has evaluated some common PTFs for predicting the SMRC for a number of soils in Iran. Fifty soils, the majority of which were loam and clay loam, were taken from Karaj, Amol, and Babol in the north of Iran. Soil water contents corresponding to matric potentials of 0, -5, -33, -100, -500, and -1500 kPa were determined by a pressure plate apparatus. Four common PTFs of Rawls and Brakensiek (RB), Vereeken et al. (VMFD), Wosten (W), and Wosten et al. (WLNL) were used in this study. To evaluate these PTFs, the GMER (Geometric mean error ratio), GSDER (Geometric standard deviation of error ratio), and RMSE (Root mean square error) indices were considered. The results showed that these PTFs functioned better for loam-textured soils. VMFD and WLNL PTFs performed better, while VMFD was better than the others for clay loam soils. In general, better fit was found as the matric potential increased.

Keywords: Soil Moisture Retention Curve, PTF, Unsaturated flow, Iran

INTRODUCTION

Soil moisture retention curve (SMRC) is related to soil moisture and the corresponding matric potential. SMRC is of prime importance in nearly all irrigation and drainage engineering practices. It is also required for crop water availability computations, and soil water and solute modeling in unsaturated soils. There are numerous factors, including soil pore size distribution, pore shape, pore continuity, among others, which may control the shape of SMRC. Therefore, it is not possible to define it by a definite equation. There are empirical equations, however, which describe SMRC. The most common of which are Brooks and Corey (2), Gardner (5), Campbel (3), and van Genuchten (19). Measuring soil water content corresponding to a definite soil matric potential is time- and labor-consuming. Due to above and other difficulties, there is an increasing tendency for researchers to develope indirect methods for determinating SMRC.

Pedo-transfer function (PTF) is one of the indirect methods. It is likely that the first attempts were carried out by Briggs and McLane [(reported by McBratney et al., (10)]. They successfully defined the permanent wilting point (PWP) as a function

^{*} Former Graduate Student and Associate Professor, respectively

^{**} Corresponding Author

of soil particle size. Numerous researches were conducted by Briggs and Shantz and others, during 1950-1980 to correlate field capacity (FC) and PWP to some parameters including pore size distribution, bulk density, and organic matter (10). Such researches signify the concept of class PTF.

Different independent variables can be used in the structure of a PTF. Scheinost et al. (15) and Minasny et al. (12) used mean particle diameter and geometric standard deviation as input variables. Organic carbon and organic matter were considered as effective independent variables, in studies conducted by Rawls et al. (14) and Wosten et al. (23) during the last two decades (24). Rajkai and Varallyay (13) confirmed that CaCO₃ may increase the usefulness of PTF, especially at -1400 kPa potential.

There are two main categories for PTFs, i.e. classes and continuous PTF (21). The former is used for different texture classes, while the latter does not consider soil texture (18). Continuous PTF needs more time and labor, while class PTFs are less expensive to develope and are more easy to use (22). There are still other methods for categorizing PTFs, based on dependent and independent variables, as reported by McBratney et al. (10). Point PTFs are used to compute soil moisture corresponding to a specific matric potential. Two soil matric potentials corresponding to the common soil moisture leves, FC and PWP, are important in irrigation scheduling. The clear disadvantage is that a large number of regression equations are required to quantify the complete soil moisture retention curve (1).

Iranian soils lack suitable local PTFs. In this research, some common European PTFs were evaluated for 50 soils in Iran.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fifty SMRCs from previous studies were used (9). Surface (0-30 cm) disturbed and undisturbed samples were taken from different regions in the north of Iran Amol, Babol and Karaj (8). Samples were taken on grid points with equal distances during the spring of 1991. Disturbed samples were first air dried and then passed through 2mm mesh sieves. Soil textures were determined using the standard routine method, after elimination of gypsum and organic matter (17). Dry bulk density was determined in triplicates after the samples were dried in an oven with a temperature of 105°C until they reached a constant weight. A pressure plate apparatus was used to determine soil moisture (weight basis) corresponding to matric potentials of -5, -33, -100, -500 and -1500 kPa in triplicates for undisturbed soil samples. These soil moistures were converted to volume basis by incorporating soil bulk densities. A constant value of 2.65 (g.cm⁻³) was adopted for the soils' particle density. A statistical view of the physical properties of the soils is presented in Table 1. Although relatively broad soil textures (from sandy loam to clay) are included in this data bank, the majority are loam and clay loam. The soil organic mater contents varied from a low (0.34%) to high (3.36%) values. Capillary rise equation is generally valid in non-swelling soils. Khoshnood Yazdi (8) confirmed that nonexpansive clay minerals were dominant in the sample.

						Soil moisture at defined matric potential (kPa					
	Sand	Silt	Clay	O M	ρb	0	-5	-33	-100	-500	-1500
Factor			%		g.cm ⁻³			%			
Maximum	65.8	52	56	3.36	1.63	78.5	55.30	39.70	35.10	37.60	26.90
Minimum	14.8	37.2	14	0.34	1.37	36.6	33	20	16.30	11.50	9.30
Average	38.32	34.23	27.45	1.5	1.47	47.4	41.8	30.8	25.1	19.2	16.3
SD^+	8.65	5.46	7.63	0.7	0.051	6.66	4.2	4.1	3.7	3.1	3.4
CV^{++}	22.57	15.95	27.8	46.6	3.5	11.6	10	13.3	14.74	16.15	20.86

Table 1. Some physical properties of soils used in this study

⁺ Standard deviation ⁺⁺ Coefficient of variation

PTF structures

Four common European PTFs were used. All of these PTFs are based on the 4parameter van Genuchten (19) SMRC model, defined below:

$$\theta_{w} = \theta_{r} + (\theta_{s} - \theta_{r}) \left[1 + |\alpha h|^{n} \right]^{-m}$$
(1)

where θ_w is soil moisture corresponding to soil matric head (h, cm), θ_r and θ_s are residual and saturated water contents, and α (cm⁻¹), n, and m are constant parameters which control the shape of the SMRC.

<u>a</u>. Rawls and Brakensiek (1989) (RB) evaluated α , n, and m of equation (1) as follows:

$$\alpha = h_b^{-1}, n = \lambda + 1, m = \lambda/n$$
⁽²⁾

where h_b (air entry suction head, cm), and λ (pore size distribution index) can be computed based on equations (3-4) and θ_r (Equation 1) is found by equation (5), as follows:

$$\begin{split} h_{b} &= \exp\left(5.3396738 + 0.1845038clay - 2.48394546\theta_{s} - 0.00213853clay^{2} \\ &\quad -0.04356349sand\,\theta_{s} - 0.61745089clay\,\theta_{s} + 0.00143598sand^{2}\theta_{s}^{2} \\ &\quad -0.00855375clay^{2}\,\theta_{s}^{2} - 1.282 \times 10^{-5}\,sand^{2}\,clay + 0.00895359clay^{2}\theta_{s} \\ &\quad -7.2472 \times 10^{-4}\,sand^{2}\theta_{s} + 5.4 \times 10^{-6}\,clay^{2}\,sand + 0.5002806\theta_{s}^{2}\,clay) \end{split}$$
(3)
$$\lambda &= \exp\left(0.7842831 + 0.0177544\,sand - 1.062498\,\theta_{s} - 5.304 \times 10^{-5}\,sand^{2} \\ &\quad -0.00273493\,clay^{2} + 1.11134946\,\theta_{s}^{2} - 0.03088295\,sand\,\theta_{s} \\ &\quad + 2.6587 \times 10^{-4}\,sand^{2}\,\theta_{s}^{2} - 0.00610522\,clay^{2}\,\theta_{s}^{2} - 2.35 \times 10^{-6}\,sand^{2}\,clay \end{split}$$
(4)
$$+ 0.00798746\,clay^{2}\,\theta_{s} - 0.00674491\theta_{s}^{2}\,clay) \end{aligned}$$

 $+3.0703 \times 10^{-4} clay^2 \theta_s - 2.3584 \times 10^{-3} \theta_s^2 clay$ where clay and sand are percentages of clay and sand contents of the soil

respectively.

<u>b</u>. Based on Vereeken et al. (20) (VMFD), θ_r , θ_s , α , and n can be calculated as follows:

$$\theta_r = 0.015 + 0.005 \, clay + 0.014 \, om \tag{6}$$

$$\theta_s = 0.81 - 0.283 D + 0.001 clay \tag{7}$$

$$Ln(\alpha) = -2.486 + 0.025 \, sand - 0.351 \, om - 2.617 \, D - 0.023 \, clay \tag{8}$$

$$Ln(n) = 0.053 - 0.009 \, sand - 0.013 \, clay + 0.00015 \, (sand)^2 \tag{9}$$

where D is apparent soil bulk density (gr cm^{-3}), om is the percentage of organic matter, and sand and clay were defined before.

c. By Wosten (21) (W),
$$\alpha$$
, and n can be computed as follows:
 $\alpha = \exp(\alpha^*), n = \exp(n^*) + 1$
(10)

where
$$\alpha^*$$
 and n^* are:
 $\alpha^* = 11 - 2.298 D^2 - 124 I D^{-1} + 0.838 \text{om} + 0.343 \text{om}^{-1} + 2.03 Ln(\text{om}) - 1.263 \text{Dom}$ (11)

$$n^{*} = -0.34 + 1.224D^{-1} - 0.7952Ln (clay) - 0.3201Ln (om) + 0.0651D om$$
(12)

<u>d</u>. Wosten et al. (23) (WLNL) computed α^* and n^* differently from Wosten (21) as:

$$\alpha^{*} = -14.96 + 0.03135 \text{clay} + 0.0351 \text{silt} + 0.6466 \text{m} + 15.29 \text{ D} - 0.192 \text{ topsoil} -4.671 \text{D}^{2} - 0.00078 \text{ kclay}^{2} - 0.006876\text{m}^{2} + 0.04496\text{m}^{-1} + 0.0663 \text{Ln} (\text{silt}) (13) + 0.1482 \text{Ln} (\text{om}) - 0.04546 \text{D} \text{ silt} - 0.4852 \text{D} \text{ om} + 0.00673 \text{topsoilclay} (13) n^{*} = -25.23 - 0.02195 \text{clay} + 0.0074 \text{silt} - 0.194 \text{ om} + 45.5 \text{ D} - 7.24 \text{ D}^{2} + 0.0003658 \text{clay}^{2} + 0.0028856 \text{m}^{2} - 12.81 \text{D}^{-1} - 0.1524 \text{silt}^{-1} - 0.019586 \text{m}^{-1} - 0.2876 \text{Ln} (\text{silt}) - 0.0709 \text{Ln} (\text{om}) - 44.6 \text{Ln} (\text{D}) - 0.02264 \text{D} \text{clay} + 0.0896 \text{D} \text{ om} + 0.00718 \text{topsoilclay}$$
(14)

where topsoil is a parameter whose value depends on soil sampling depth (topsoil=1 for top surface-up to 30 cm-, and topsoil=0 for deeper sampling depth) and silt is the percentage of silt fraction in the soil.

PTF Evaluation

Geometric mean error ratio (GMER, equation 15), geometric standard deviation error ratio (GSDER, equation 16) (16) and root mean square error (RMSE, equation 17) were used to evaluate the performances of the selected PTFs:

$$GMER = \exp\left(n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} Ln\left(\varepsilon_{i}\right)\right)$$
(15)

$$GSDER = \exp\left[\left(\left(n-1\right)^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[Ln\left(\varepsilon_{i}\right) - Ln\left(GMER\right)^{2}\right)^{1/2}\right]$$
(16)

RMSE =
$$\left[n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$
 (17)

where n is the total data points, and ε for each data pair corresponding to a definite matric potential is defined as θ_p/θ_m (θ_p and θ_m are predicted and measured soil moisture contents, respectively). The governing criteria are (a) as GMER approaches 1, the performance of a PTF increases, (b) a low value for GSDER is assumed for a good PTF, and (c) a good PTF is considered if its corresponding RMSE has a low value.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Predicting SMRC

Loam and clay loam textures covered 43 of the soil samples. Therefore these two soil textures were studied more carefully. The average was calculated for all parameters of each soil texture class. Then van Genuchten parameters were computed by RETC, for each PTF model. Figure 1 shows the computed SMRC for loam and clay loam textures. It seems that loam textured soil is better fitted by PTFs. The RB model while underestimating the soil moisture at a given matric potential, is relatively insensitive to matric potential at $\psi_p > -50$ kPa. It appears that Rawls PTF changes water content values as the potential changes. Thus this model may not compute a fair prediction for soil moisture contents between FC and PWP. While the RB model underestimates soil moisture, the other three PTFs over-predict the soil moisture.



Figure 1. SMRCs constructed by different PTFs for loam (left) and clay loam (right) soil textures

Figure 2 presents a comparison between predicted versus measured soil moistures at two matric potentials of -33 and -1500 kPa. The RB model is highly underestimating, especially at -33 kPa matric potential. On the other hand, W and WLNL models over-predict soil moisture, especially for clay loam soils. The best fit for both matric potentials of -33 and -1500 kPa under loam soils seems to be estimated from the WLNL model. The RB model is highly underestimating, especially at -33 kPa. Alternatively, W and WLNL over-predict soil moistures, especially for clay loam soils. It seems that the best fit is for WLNL for clay loam soil textures for both matric potentials of -33 and -1500 kPa. Excluding different soil

textures, one may reach a conclusion for adopting the VMFD model that has an overall good fit. Previous literature (11) supports the fact that the VMFD model also has the best performance for the silt loam soil texture.



Figure 2. Comparison of measured and predicted soil volumetric water content (cm³ cm⁻³) at -33 kPa (hollow marks) and -1500 kPa (filled marks) for loam (left column) and clay loam (right column) by (a) RB, (b) VMFD, (c) W, and (d) WLNL PTF

Statistical Measures

Table 2 presents GMER values for all PTF models and for two different soil textures. Based on the table, both VMFD and WLNL perform reasonably for both soil texture classes. However, loam soils have a GMER value which is as close to 1 as possible. This result is verified by Figure 1. GSDER values are also reported in Table 2. The lowest GSDER is attributed to the WLNL model for loam soil texture. However, the results for VMFD and WLNL are considered to be good and are in harmony with Table 2. Figure 3 presents RMSE values corresponding to different PTFs and different matric potentials.

Texture	Rawls and Brakensiek	Vereecken et al	Wosten	Wosten et al							
GMER											
Loam	0.679	0.9568	1.215	1.082							
Clay Loam	0.6469	1.058	1.3759	1.2562							
GSDER											
Loam	1.4043	1.1708	1.1473	1.0816							
Clay Loam	1.2927	1.2576	1.2115	1.1356							

Table 2. The GMER and GSDER values for all PTF models and for two different soil textures

For clay loam textured soils, RB and W models present a marked decrease in RMSE as matric potential decreases (suction head increases), while the decrease in RMSE for WLNL is relatively mild. The behavior for the other PTF (VMFD model) is not well-defined. As the potential matric decreases, performances of all models converge each others, while RMSE is minimum for all of them, except for VMFD. Lam soils performed slightly differently than clay soils (Figure 2). RMSE for the W model is nearly insensitive to matric potential, while the others are sensitive, although with different rates. The maximum performance for VMFD, however, was due to matric potential of -33 kPa, which is supported by Cornelis et al. (4). Excluding the RB model, the other PTFs perform nearly equally under -33 and -1500 kPa. There was a significant correlation between measured and predicted soil moisture values at -33 and -1500 kPa, as reported by Khodaverdi Lou and Homaee (7). Givi et al. (6) also reported good soil moisture prediction for some soils in the central part of Iran (Chaharmahal and Bakhtiary province) under the VMFD model.



Figure 3. The values of RMSE corresponding to different PTFs and different matric potentials for loam (left) and clay loam (right)

The VMFD model is developed for Belgian soils with a clay content around 13%. This may explain why loam textured soils have performed better than clay soil textures (Table1) under this PTF (RMSEs for loam soils are smaller than those of clay loam soils).

CONCLUSIONS

Soil moisture retention curve is of prime importance in soil-water-plat relationships. Forty three Iranian soils (loam, and clay loam) were used for evaluating four common European pedotransfer functions. The VMFD (20) and the WLNL (23) performed better than the others under loam textured soils, while for clay soils, the VMFD model is more acceptable. FC and PWP were successfully predicted by VMFD and WLNL for loam soils, and VMFD and RB models were good for clay loam soils. Overall, RB under-predicted and the other three models over-predicted soil moisture contents. Soil moisture prediction increased markedly as the matric potential decreased. As a final conclusion, the VMFD model had the best pedotransfer function for the soils under study.

REFERENCES

- 1. Ahuja, L. R., J. W. Nasy and R.D. Williams. 1984. Scaling to characterize soil water properties and infiltration modeling. J. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. 48: 970-973.
- 2. Brooks, R. H., and A. T. Corey. 1964. Hydraulic properties of porous media. Hydrology Paper No. 3, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO.
- 3. Campbell, G. S. 1974. A simple method for determinating unsaturated hydraulic conductivity from moisture retention data. Soil Sci. 177: 311-314.
- Cornelis, W. M., J. Ronsyn, M. van Meirvenne and R. Hartmann. 2001. Evaluation of pedotransfer functions for predicting the soil moisture retention curve. J. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. 65: 638-648.
- 5. Gardner, W. R. 1970. The permeability problem. Soil Sci. 117: 243-249.
- Givi, J., S. O. Prasher and R. M. Patel. 2004. Evaluation of pedotransfer functions in predicting the soil water contents at field capacity and wilting point. Agricultural Water Management 70: 83-96.
- 7. Khodaverdi lou, H., and M. Homaee. 2002. Derivation of pedotransfer functions for parametric estimation of retention curve. J. Agric. Eng. Res. Iran 3: 35-46.
- Khoshnood Yazdi, A. 1991. Prediction of soil moisture retention curve from physical properties for some Iranian soils. MSc. Thesis, College of Agriculture, Tehran University, Iran. 140 p.
- 9. Khoshnood Yazdi, A., and B. Ghahraman. 2004. Investigation of relationships between soil texture and scaling parameter to predict soil water content. J. Agric. Eng. Res. Iran 5(20): 17-34.
- 10. McBratney, A. B., B. Minasny, S. R. Cattle and R. W. Vervoot. 2002. From pedotransfer to soil inference systems. Geoderma 109: 41-73.

- 11. Mermoud, A., and D. Xu. 2006. Comparative analysis of three methods to generate soil hydraulic functions. Soil Till. Res. 87(1): 89-100.
- 12. Minasny, B., A. B. McBratney and K. L. Bristow. 1999. Comparison of different approaches to the development of pedotransfer functions for water-retention curves. Geoderma 93: 225-253.
- 13.Rajkai, K., and G. Varallyay. 1992. Estimating soil water retention from simpler properties by regression techniques. <u>In:</u> van Genuchten, M. Th., F. J. Leij and L. J. Lund (eds.), Methods for estimating the hydraulic properties of unsaturated soils. Riverside, California, pp. 417-426.
- Rawls, W. J. and D. L. Brakensiek. 1989. Estimation of soil retention and hydraulic properties. <u>In:</u> Morel-Seytoux, H. J. (ed.), Unsaturated flow in hydrologic modeling-theory and practice. Kluwer Academic Publishing, Dordrecht, pp. 275-300.
- 15. Scheinost, A. C., W. Sinowsi and K. Auerswald. 1997. Regionalization of soil water retention curves in highly variable soilscape, I. Developing a new pedotransfer function. Geoderma 78: 129-143.
- 16. Tietje, O., and V. Hennings. 1996. Accuracy of the saturated hydraulic conductivity prediction by pedo-transfer functions compared to the variability within FAO textural classes. Geoderma 69: 71-84.
- 17. U. S. D. A. 1982. Procedures for collecting soil samples and methods of analysis for soil survey. Soil Survey Investigations Report No. 1.
- 18. Van Alphen, B. J., H. W. G. Booltink and J. Bouma. 2001. Combining pedotransfer functions with physical measurements to improve the estimation of soil hydraulic properties. Geoderma 103: 133-147.
- 19. Van Genuchten, M. Th. 1980. A closed-form equation for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of soils. J. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. 44: 892-898.
- Vereecken, H., J. Maes, L. Feyen and P. Darius. 1989. Estimating the soil moisture retention characteristics from texture, bulk density and carbon content. Soil Sci. 148: 389-403.
- Wosten, J. H. M. 1997. Pedotransfer functions to evaluate soil quality. <u>In:</u> Gregorich, E. G. and M. R. Carter (eds.), Soil Quality for Crop Production and Ecosystem Health. Developments in Soil Sciences, Vol. 25, Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp. 221-245.
- Wosten, J. H. M., P. A. Finke and M. J. W. Janes. 1995. Comparison of class and continuous pedotransfer functions to generate soil hydraulic characteristics. Geoderma 66: 227-237.
- 23. Wosten, J. H. M., A. Lilly, A. Nemes and C. Le Bas. 1999. Development and use of a database of hydraulic properties of European soils. Geoderma 90: 169–185.
- 24. Wosten, J. H. M., Y. A. Pachepsky and W. A. Rawls. 2001. Pedotransfer functions: bridging the gap between available basic soil data and missing soil hydraulic characteristics. J. Hydrol. 251: 123-150.

ارزیابی چند تابع انتقال متداول اروپایی برای تخمین منحنی رطوبتی خاک در چند خاک ایران

روزبه موذنزاده `` و بیژن قهرمان ``*

۱ بخش مهندسی آب ، دانشکده کشاورزی، دانشگاه فردوسی مشهد، مشهد، جمهوری اسلامی ایران

چکیده- عمدهی فرآیندهای هیدرولیکی در شرایط طبیعی در یک مزرعه در شرایط غیراشباع انجام می شود. منحنی مشخصهی رطوبتی، SMRC، مهم ترین ویژگی هیدرولیکی یک خاک غیراشباع است که دانستن آن در مطالعات آب و خاک از قبیل حفاظت خاک، فرسایش خاک، ارزیابی اراضی و مدیریت منابع آب از اهمیت بالایی برخوردار است. SMRC را می توان به دو روش مستقیم و غیر مستقیم به دست آورد. گرچه توسعه های فراوانی در روش های مستقیم به وجود آمده است، این روش ها کماکان زمان بر و هزینه بر به شمار می آیند. در نتیجه، روش های غیر مستقیم همواره در کانون توجهات قرار دارد. این مقاله چند تابع انتقال (PTF) متداول اروپایی را برای تخمین SMRC در چند خاک ایران ارزیابی کرده است. از ^{۰۰} خاک از مناطق کرچ، آمل و بابل واقع در شمال ایران که بافت عمدهی آن ها لوم و لوم رسی بود، است از ^{۰۰} خاک از مناطق کرچ، آمل و بابل واقع در شمال ایران که متداول اروپایی راولز و براکنزیک (RB)، وریکن و همکاران (VMFD)، وستن (W) و وستن و همکاران متداول اروپایی راولز و براکنزیک (RB)، وریکن و همکاران (VMFD)، وستن (W) و وستن و همکاران شد. نتایج نشان داد که کارای این ارزیابی این PTF ها از معاره یا تا در ایل و ستن (W) و وستن و همکاران شد. نتایج نشان داد که کارای این PTF ها برای خاکه ها از معیارهای SDER، میکرد مدل های و WIPC و استن و همکاران شد. نتایج نشان داد که کارای این PTF ها برای خاکهای ایران (WIPC)، وستن (W) و وستن و همکاران ستفاده اروپایی راولز و براکنزیک (RB) و ریکن و همکاران (WIPC)، وستن (W) و وستن و همکاران ستفاده اروپایی راولز و براکنزیک ای PTG ها زمیاره این عماره می می ماکنو و می کار و این و ستن و همکاران ستایس ماریک افزایش می یافت، عملکرد نیز بهتر میشد.

واژه های کلیدی : منحنی مشخصهی رطوبتی، PTF، ارزیابی، ایران

^{*} به ترتیب دانشجوی پیشین کارشناسی ارشد و دانشیار

^{**} مكاتبه كننده