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LARGE AREA CROP INVENTORY EXPERIMENT (LACIE)

AN INDEX FOR ESTIMATING **WHEAT YIELD IN AUSTRALIA**

National Aeronautics and Space Administration

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CENTER FOR CLIMATIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL ASSESSMENT

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Technical Note 76-3

An Index for Estimating Wheat

Yield in Australia

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CCEA TECHNICAL NOTE 76-3

An Index for Estimating theat Yield In Australia

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- INTRODUCTION

- Indices utilizing meteorological data have provided better estimates of crop yields than direct use of monthly temperature and precipitation data (Nix and Fitzpatrick, 1969; Sakamoto and Jensen, 1975; Baler and Robertson, 1968). These indices also provide a single variable that combines the effects of several meteorological variables. Perrin and Heady (1975) used a moisture index they. referred to as "M," which was defined as the difference between the actual evapotranspiration and the "climatically appropriate" evapotranspiration. Evapotranspiration was estimated by the procedure of Palmer (1965). Perrin and Heady found that the index M explained more of the yield variation for wheat than either the absolute level of moisture deficiency (ET-PET) or the estimated soil moisture. Sakamoto and Jensen (1975), in their work with Palmer's moisture anomaly index "Z," found that this index, together with temperature departure, explained more of the yield variation than using the ratio of ET/PET or accumulated soil moisture.

The purpose of this study is to determine the feasibility of using monthly meteorological information into useful indices to estimate wheat yields in Australia. The meteorological data, including temperature and precipitation, are used in an index, called "Z," a moisture anomaly for a given area.

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The use of monthly data is appealing because it is readily available over the world. Furthermore, monthly temperature and precipitation are easier to estimate when missing for an area. On the other hand, aggregated **monthly data suffer from the obvious inability of being sensitive to short period fluctuations or episodes that occur over a day or so. These events, in turn, can be detrimental, to yield and could lead to spurious estimates. In spite of this disadvantage, bowever, much information can be extracted from the use of these longer period data.**

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Monthly temperature and precipitation are used in an algorithm that derives the Z-index. This is defined as:

$$
Z = dk \tag{1}
$$

Where:

$$
d = P - P \tag{2}
$$

and P is the observed precipitation while P is the "climatically appropriate" precipitation. P is further estimated by:

$$
\hat{P} = \hat{E}T + \hat{R} + \hat{R0} - \hat{L}.
$$
 (3)

Evapotranspiration \hat{r} , recharge \hat{R} , runoff \hat{R} O, and loss \hat{L} are obtained by multiplying its potential value (PET, PR, PRO, PL) by the coefficient which is the ratio of average \overline{ET} , \overline{T} , \overline{RO} or \overline{L} by its average potential values; that is, $\alpha = \overline{ET/PET}$, $\beta = \overline{R/PR}$, $\gamma = \overline{RO/PRO}$, $\sigma = \overline{L/PL}$. Climatically appropriate evapotranspiration, recharge, runoff, and loss are then determined as: $\hat{ET} = \alpha \cdot PET$, $\hat{R} = \beta \cdot PR$, $\hat{RO} = \gamma \cdot PRO$, and $\hat{L} = \sigma \cdot PL$, respectively.

Soil moisture depletion is based on evapotranspiration (ET) estimates and is determined by the following:

$$
(ET)_{n} = (S)_{n-1} \{(PET)_{n} - (P)_{n}\} + (P)_{n}
$$
 (4)

where:

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 (ET) _n = "actual" evapotranspiration,

 $(S)_{n-1}$ = available moisture at end of n-1 months,

 $AWC = maximum water holding capacity,$

 $(P)_n$ = precipitation for month n,

(PET) $_{n}$ = potential evapotranspiration for month n.

Determination of recharge, runoff and loss is through a hydrologic accounting procedure developed by Palmer (1965). Briefly, this procedure utilizes a

two-layer soil profile and assumes that the surface layer holds one inch of water and the lower layer holds the remaining amount. Moisture is lost at a potential rate from the surface layer until all moisture is lost in that layer; i.e.,

$$
L_{S} = (PET - P) \text{ or } S_{S}^{\dagger}
$$
 (5)

where:

 L_s = soil moisture loss from surface layer,

 S^{\dagger} = stored available moisture in surface layer.

• After all the surface moisture is lost, moisture is extracted from the lower layer as a percent of available soil moisture (see Figure 1). Precipitation adds to the top layer until field capacity is reached before the lower layer is recharged. Runoff is assumed to occur only after both layers have reached field capacity, although this assumption may not be entirely satisfactory.

The amount of moisture lost from the underlying layer is determined by the following relationship:

 $(S_{\mathbf{u}}/AWC)$ (PET - P - L₃) (6)

where:

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 L_n = soil moisture loss from underlying (lower) layer,

 S_{u} = available soil moisture in the lower layer at the beginning of the month.

 $AWC = water$ holding capacity (combined layers),

PET $=$ potential evapotranspiration based on Thornthwaite's (1948) procedure,

 $P =$ precipitation for the month,

 L_{e} = soil moisture loss from upper (surface) layer.

In the accounting procedure, if the soil moisture content in both layers is zero, evapotranspiration, ET, is assumed to be equal to

precipitation; i.e., Er = P. The potential values, including potential evapotranspiration PET, potential recharge PR, potential runoff PRO, and potential loss PL are used in the water balance procedure and are defined as follows:

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$$
PA = AWC - S'
$$
 (7)

where:

PR is the amount of moisture required to bring the soil to field capacity and AWC is the available water capacity. S' is the amount of available moisture in the two layers at the beginning of the period.

$$
PL = PL_s + PL_u \tag{8}
$$

where:

PL is the potential loss; i.e., the amount of moisture that could be lost from the surface (s) and underlying profile (u) provided precipitation 1000 CHE SUIT COMPOSED CONTROL IN THE SUIT CONTROL IS ZETO. It is further defined as $PL_s = PE$ or S' whichever is smaller and PL_{11} is the potential loss from the underlying layer and is defined as:

 $PL_{\alpha} = (PE - PL_{\alpha}) S_{\alpha}^{\dagger}/AWC$.

In general, potential runoff PRO is equal to precipitation minus the amount that could be added to the soil or P-(AWC-S'). However, precipitation is not introduced for the development of potential runoff. For lack of a better way to handle this problem, potential runoff is defined as a function of soil moisture, the reason being that if soil moisture is high, potential runoff is likely to be large and vice versa. This reasoning seemed to have worked fairly well, according to Palmer (1965).

> $PRO = AWC - PR = S'$. (9)

Potential evapotranspiration is determined by the procedures developed by Thornthwaite (1948). To estimate potential evapotranspiration by Thornthwaite's procedure requires temperature and the heat index. The duration of daylight is used to adjust potential evaporranspiration as a portion of 12 hours. The basic equation **is:**

PET = $(10T/I)^a$ (10)

where;

 $I =$ heat index, which is the sum of the 12 monthly index i where

 $i = (T/5)^{1.514}$,

 $T =$ monthly temperature (°C),.

a = an empirical exponent,

 6.75×10^{-7} I³ - 7.71 x 10^{-5} I² + 1.79 x 10^{-2} I + 0.49.

The heat index I can alternately be estimated from the mean annual temperature t by the following relationship:

$$
\ln I = 0.06798(t) + 3.199 \tag{11}
$$

where t is in ^OC. The above relationship has been estimated from the data of Palmer and Havens (1958).

The variable k is the average demand and supply coefficient **which varies with the local climate. It is** a measure of the local significance of the moisture departures. **It is** initially estimated by an empirical relationship for month i by:

$$
k'_{1} = 1.5 \log \left\{ \left(\frac{\overline{PE}_{1} + \overline{R}_{1} + \overline{RO}_{1}}{\overline{P}_{1} + \overline{L}_{1}} + 2.80 \right) / \overline{D}_{1}} \right\} + 0.50
$$
 (12)

where:

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($\tilde{\Sigma}$ $|d_{11}|$)/j for month i where j = number of year, i = 1 d=l January, 12 = December.

The final **k** is estimated by:

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 $k_{\mathbf{i}} = \frac{17.67 \text{ (k)}}{12 \text{ (k)}}$ (13) (D, k)

> k ⁱ**is** therefore a weighting factor and has been derived from a range of • climate including North Dakota in the north to Texas and Tennessee in the south and from Kansas in the west to Pennsylvania in the east. When used with d, the Z-index provides a comparable measure of moisture anomaly, the departure'of the moisture climate from the average of the month.

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DATA REQUIREMENTS

The basic meteorological inputs required to calculate the Z-index include monthly temperature and precipitation. These variables are used in the hydrologic accounting procedure as developed by Palmer (1965). The **soil** moisture budget also requires an estimate of the available water • holding capacity for the profile. In the case of wheat, a profile of approximately four feet **is** assumed. This profile **is,** in turn, divided into two layers with one inch of water assumed **in** the top layer. For example, **if six** inches **is** determined as the available water holding capacity, the upper layer contains one inch while the lower layer has five inches.

To start the accounting process, the initial soil moisture content should be known. In practice, however, this **is** usually not known. Therefore, an estimate must be inserted to start the model so that once field capacity **is** reached (during the rainy season), the soil moisture status can be considered as reflecting the "current" situation. One could also start on a month subsequent to a rainy period. Since soil moisture, and also soil types vary greatly, the assigned soil moisture capacity must be • considered a very general spacial value. • Water holding capacity used in the program for Australia are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Information for Use with the Z-Index Program

* ULFC = Upper level moisture at field capacity.

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LLFC = Lower level moisture at field capacity.

ULS \Rightarrow Upper level moisture at starting date (January 1940).

LLS = Lower level moisture at starting date (January 1940).

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Daylength, as a fraction of 12 hours, is used in the potential evapotranspiration estimation. In this study, the daylength was input directly into the program (see Table 2). However, where several locations over the globe are of Interest, a simple algorithm using only latitude and Julian date can be used to estimate the fraction of daylength from 12 hours.

DATA SOURCE

• Monthly temperature and precipitation values were derived by arithmetically averaging records from selected stations within the meteorological • district of the wheat growing area (personal communication, 1974). The meteorological districts were aggregated to areas that were similar to the area for which production and acreage data were on hand. Data from stations were provided by the Australian Bureau of Meteorology. Selected precipitation and temperature stations are shown by their approximate location in Figures 2 through 6. The number of stations included for each district as well as each state are shown in Table 3. The list of temperature stations are shown in Appendix A. More stations were included -for precipitation because of its variable character. The period 1940-1972 was used to develop the model. The exception **is in** Queensland where a **• "division"** model was developed from data for the period 1960-1972.

Wheat yield data were obtained from the Australian Bureau of Statistics for each state (private communication, 1975). Sufficient breakdown of the data permitted aggregation for a yield model based on "division" data similar to the crop reporting district in the United States. Twenty-two models are provided - a state model for each state and divisional models for the divisions in four of the five states. Western Australia has only a state model.

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Table 2. Duration of Sunshine in Fraction of 12 Hours in Australia

Table 2, Continued

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Figure 3. Wheat divisions in Queensland, Australia showing distribution of temperature and **precipitation stations.**

Wheat divisions in Victoria, Australia showing
distribution of temperature and precipitation
stations. Figure 5.

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Figure 6. Wheat divisions in Western Australia
showing distribution of temperature and
precipitation stations.

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Table 3. Number of Precipitation and Temperature Stations Used
to Estimate Division Averages

YIELD MODEL

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Description of Model

Monthly Z-index as well as temperature departure from the 1940-1972 base period were used as variables in a multiple regression model. In **addition, precipitation amounts (departure** from normal) was included at harvesting (November, December) at locations where this variable was • meaningful. For example, in Queensland, summer harvest is threatened by heavy downpour at harvest. Precipitation much above normal could decrease yield.

The Z-values were combined in some areas so that the effect of moisture was aggregated over a period greater than one month. This also Permitted the treatment of this effect as a single variable. For example, Z-values for August, September, and October may be combined by a weighted average procedure. Weights are assigned to the months from June through November as a percent of water required at heading (October). The weights have been estimated from Figure 7 (after Richardson in Callaghan and Millington, 1957). Weights are as follows: June ∞ .02; July ∞ .08; August = .20; September = .50; October = 1.00; November = .83. The weighted averaging procedure was followed because this procedure revealed a better relationship with yield plots than with linear averaging. Further, the effect on yield with soil moisture deficiency **is** greatest at heading (Bauer, 1972).

The basic form of the equation is:

 $+\sum_{j=1}^{m} \gamma_j D_j + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \delta_j D_j^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{k}$

$$
\hat{Y} = \alpha + \beta_1 T + \beta_2 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i} + \beta_3 \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Z_i W_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} W_i}
$$
(14)

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where:

 $Y =$ estimated yield,

 $a = constant$.

 $T =$ trend 1940=1, 1941=2, ..., 1950=11, 1951=11, ...,

 Z_t = Z-index for i number of months, i=1, 2, ..., n,

 W_1 = weights for month i to n (June through November only),

 D_i = temperature departure from normal for month j, j=1 to \overline{m} months, P_1 = precipitation departure from normal for month j=1 to k months, β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , γ_1 , δ_1 , η_1 = coefficients of variables,

c unexplained error.

Each state or district included a variation of equation (14). Some models included only the' linear term **if the signs** of **the coefficient** of **the quadratic term seemed unrealistic.** The variables and signs of the coefficient were selected after **consideration of the approximate** growth stage or activity (e.g., harvesting) involved, the plot of yield relationship **with the variables and the reasonableness** of **the coefficient with known.** agronomic response to weather.

Both the value of the 2-index and the temperature departure, D, could be either negative or **positive. If climatic conditions** are close to **"climatically appropriate" for** a **given area,** 2 **and** D **will be close to** zero. Large positive Z-values suggest wet conditions while large negative 2-index indicate dry conditions. The list of the models are shown in Table 4, while the models are presented in Appendix 3.

Truncation

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Since it is desirable, to estimate yield as early as possible prior to harvest, truncated models, usually beginning in May, have been developed. **The index Z and D are** assumed to be zero for the months subsequent to the

Table 4. List of Wheat Models for Australia with

LACIE¹ Identification Code

'LACE - Large Area Crop Inventory Experiment

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month of truncation. The models for all truncation are shown in the $\bf Appendix.$

Technology

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Inspection of the yield data series for all state and division data suggest that the trend of yield with time has stabilized since about 1950 (see e.g., Figure 8). "Technology,' may include such factors as **fertilizer application,** crop management practices, use of bigger and better farm machinery, herbicide and insecticide application, etc. are assumed to be included in the trend term. Lacking the quantitative inputs of the effects of these factors into crop production, it is convenient to assign a linear trend as a surrogate for technology. The value of 1 **is** assigned to 1940 up to the value of 11 for 1950. After 1950, the linear trend assumes a value of U. Although **fertilizer** usage has increased with time, the response to added fertilizer seems to have stabilized. As a rule wheat farmers in Australia 'apply superphosphate, except in Queensland and northern New South Wales where soils are not considered deficient in phosphates. Nitrogen **is** also applied in some.areas. The rate of application ranges from about eight pounds per acre in Queensland and New South Wales to about 120 pounds per acre in South Australia (Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1969).

DESCRIPTION OF THE WHEAT ZONES IN AUSTRALIA

Wheat is grown in the region south of latitude 25 degrees in the states of New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, Victoria and Western Australia (Figure 9). Average annual precipitation ranges from-5 to 13 inches (Peterson, 1965). In these areas, two distinct patterns of precipitation distribution are evident (Figure 10). In Western Australia, Victoria

Figure 8

Figure 10. Monthly distribution of rainfall. The rainfall in each month of the year and for each district is shown by a black column; the months follow from left (January) to right (December) in each district diagram. The amount of rain for each month is shown by the height of the respective column, as from the scale on the right, in inches and cm. (From Bureau of Meteorology, 1962.)

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and southern New South Wales, the climate is characterized as a Mediterranean type with maximum precipitation during winter (June, July, August). Dry weather during harvest time (summer) makes the climate ideal for winter-planted wheat. In northern New South Wales and Queensland, however, summer maximum precipitation dominates. These areas are consequently prone to hazards from thunderstorms and damp weather during harvest. Wheat growing is a much higher risk and weather damage from excessive rain has been high (Lovett, 1973). The pattern of rainfall distribution greatly affects the management of growing wheat such as in Queensland and northern *New* South Wales. In these areas, the land is fallowed for the summer and in some cases, for a longer period to conserve the limited moisture for the winter grown wheat. This practice, however, has also extended to other wheat growing areas of Australia with reasonably good success. The greatest... variability of yield is found in *New* South Wales and Queensland. The lowest variability Is found in Western Australia (see Table 5).

Wheat is subject to damage from low temperatures, particularly during the months of June, July, and August. Damage from frosts is more severe during a dry period. With favorable moisture, the wheat crop is able to withstand a succession of heavy frost with less damage (Foley, 1945).

Dry conditions that provide low preseason moisture can delay planting **activities. This** is a problem in northern. New South Wales and Queensland where reserve soil moisture is very critical. In the southern states, e.g., Victoria, however, wet conditions during planting as well as during later growth stages can hamper yield with disease problems.

Wheat is Australia's main grain crop and accounts for 75 percent of the total grain area. Many farms are large and over half of them occupy

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Table 5. Mean and Standard Deviation of Observed

Wheat Yield in Australia (1940-1972)

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400 to 2500 hectares (1,000 to 6,000 acres). The main wheat, $Trtticum$ aestivun (common bread wheat) is grown. Most of the varieties are whitegrained and have spring growth habits. However, they are sown in the fall or early winter (April to June) rather than the spring. Harvest is late spring or early summer (November to January).

Most of the wheat grown in Australia **is** soft, but areas in northern New South Wales and Queensland produce hard wheat. New South Wales **is** the • major wheat producing state, followed by Western Australia, Victoria, South Australia and Queensland (Friend, et al., 1972).

Wheat is grown on six major soil types including the podzol, redbrown, solonized brown (Malice soils), black, grey-brown and the lateritic sand-plain soils of Western Australia. More than half of Australia's wheat **is** grown on red-brown **soils.** The solonized brown soils are found **in** lower rainfall areas including Victoria and South Australia while the black fertile soils are found in Queensland and northern New South Wales and are characterized by **its high** water-holding capacity. The grey-brown soils **are found principally** in **Victoria (Peterson, 1965).**

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APPENDIX

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Table A . (continued)

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Table A . (continued)

Division,	Name	Australian Meteo District No.	Latitude (S).		Longitude (E)	
State			$\overline{\text{Deg.}}$	Min.	Deg.	Min.
Mallee,	Beulah, P. O.	77004	35	54	142	24
Victoria	Birchip P. O.	77007	36	00	142	54
	Kerang	88023	35	42	143	54
	Lameroo, S. A.	25509	35	21	140	31
	Merbein	76026	34	10	142	04
	Mildura Aero.	76031	34	14	142	05
\bullet	Quyen	76047	35	06	142	18
	Rainbow	77035	35	54	142	00
	Swan Hill	77042	35	21	143	36
	Walpeup Res.	76064	35	06	142	00
Northern,	Avoca	81000	37	05	143	29
Victoria	Benalla [®]	82002	36	30	146	00
	Bendigo	81003	36	46	144	17
	Boort	80002	36	06	143	42
	Charlton	80006	36	18	143	24
	Dookie	81013	36	18	145	42
	Echuca	80015	36	06	144	48
	Euroa	82016	36	42	145	36
	. Kerang	80023	35	42	143	54
		÷				
	Rochester	80049	36	21	144	42
	Shepparton	81044	36	24	145	24
	Wangaratta	82053	36	21	146	18
	Yarrawonga	81057	36	00	146	00
Wimmera,	Beulah P. O.	77004	35	54	142;	24
Victoria	Donald	78011	36	24	143	00
	Jeparit	78015	36	06	142.	00
	Horsham	79023	36	42	142	12
	Nhill	78031	36	18	141	39
	Serviceton	78034	36	21	141	00
	St. Arnaud Forestry	79040	36	36	143	18

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NEW SOUTH WALES - AUSTRALIA

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Standard Deviation of Yields = 4.01657

DFN = Departure from Normal
SDFN = Squared Departure from Normal
Yields Measured in Quintals per Hectare

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Yields Based on 1940-1976
Meteorological Normais Based on 1940-1976

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QUEENSLAND - AUSTRALIA

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Standard Deviation = 4.01248

DFN = Departure from Normal
SDFN = Squared Departure from Normal
Yields Measured in Quintals per Hectare

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Yields Based on 1940-1950
Meteorological Normals Based on 1940-1950

SOUTH AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIA

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SDFN = Squared Departure from Normal
Yields Mcasured in Quintals per Hectare

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Meteorological Normals Based

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VICTORIA - AUSTRALIA

Standard Deviation = 3.93745

DFN = Departure from Normal
SDFN = Squared Departure from Normal
Yields Measured in Quintals per Hectare

Yields Based on 1940-1950
Meteorological Normals Based on 1940-1950

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WESTERN AUSTRALIA - AUSTRALIA

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DFN = Departure from Normal
SDFN = Squared Departure from Normal
Yields Measured in Quintals per Hectare

Yields Based on 1940-1955
Meteorological Normals Based on 1940-1955

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