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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

ASSESSMENT AND MONITORING OF POTATO PLANTER PERFORMANCE

·by

EDWARD JOHN HAUCK

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

ENGINEERING AGROLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING

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Abstract

The metering aspect of potato planter performance was investigated in a set of experiments designed to determine the nature of pick-type metering mechanism interaction with seed potato pieces. Inconsistent delivery of seed pieces was identified as the primary factor behind the non-uniform planting patterns that have been identified with suppressed yields and inferior crop quality. Seed piece size and shape were determined to be critical factors in planter performance and seed piece yield potential.

In order to characterize the nature of pick type planter metering performance, a laboratory experiment was conducted to study the effect of metering rate, and seed piece shape and size in relation to metering errors. Metering rates of 3, 6, and 9 plants/s were studied in combination with 45 g and 60 g seed pieces having 1, 2, or 3 cut surfaces. Higher metering rates were found to significantly decrease the occurrence of metering errors in the pick-type planter studied. Compatibility between seed material and the pick-type metering mechanism was also affected by seed shape and size. Blocky 3-cut pieces resulted in fewer metering errors when compared to the morerounded 2-cut and 1-cut pieces. Whole seed and 60 g seed pieces resulted in poor metering performance at metering rates below 6 plants/s. Consecutive metering error distributions are presented, for the performance factors studied, to facilitate the assessment of potato-yields as

affected by planting patterns.

As a further step to understanding and improving potato planter performance, the design and development of a planter monitoring system was undertaken. The M6809 microprocessor-controlled potato planter monitor, with 2k of ROM and 2k of RAM, successfully employed a dual-sensor, event-triggered system to detect the occurrence of metering errors. Performance feedback to the operator included; immediate visual indication of metering errors for each planter row; intermittent visual display of performance statistics for each row; visual indication of drive train and sensor malfunction and audio indication of defective metering elements. The monitoring system performed to expectations on a potato planter simulation unit. Sensor positioning was determined to be critical for reliable performance.

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Table of Contents

Chapter	age
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	5
2.1 Seed Potatoes	5
2.2 Rotato Growth Parameters	9
2.2.1 Population Density	. 10
2.2.1.1 Seed Rate	. 1 i
2.2.1.2 Main Stem Density	. 12
2.2.1.3 Seed Conditioning	. 17
2.2.1.4 Seed Size /	. 19
2.2.1.5 Seed Shape()	. 22
2,2.1.6 Planting Pattern	
2.2.2 Economic Assessment of Growth Parameters	. 27
2,3 Seed Handling	. 30
// 2.3.1 Grading	
2.3.2 Cutting	* .
2.4 Potato Planters	. 40
2.4.1 Types	
2.4.2 Safety	. 45
2.5 Planting Operations	. 46
2.6 Planter Performânce	. 48
2.6.1 Irregular Seed Spacing	. 50
.2.6.1.1 Measures of Uniformity	.51
2.6.1.2 Accuracy Standards	. 54
2.6.1.3 Planter Type	. 55
2.6.1.4 Planting Speed	. 55
2.6.1.5 Seed Size and Shape	.58

	2.6.2 Seeding Rate	60
	2.6.3 Metering Performance	62
	2.6.4 Placement Performance	64
	2.7 Planter Monitoring and Instrumentation	66
್ದ3.	ASSESSMENT OF PICK-TYPE PLANTER METERING ERRORS	
	3.1 Objective	68
	3.2 Equipment and Experimental Facilities	68
	3.3 Experimental Procedure	
	3.3.1 Seed Preparation	71
	/3.3.2 Planter Preparation and Instrumentation	72
	3.3.3 Collection of Metering Data	76
	3.3.4 Data Analysis	76
	3.4 Experimental Results and Discussion	77
	3.4.1 Seed Piece Attributes	
	3.4.2 Metering Results	78
	3.4.2.1 Relation of Seed Shape to Meter Errors	ing 78
	3.4.2.2 Relation of Seed Size to Meteri Errors	ng 84
	3.4,2.3 Relation of Metering Rate to Metering Errors	84
4.	POTATO PLANTER MONITOR	graduate the state of
	4.1 Introduction	92
	-4.1.1 Objective	92
	4.1.2 Design Criteria	April 1980
	4.2 Hardware	95
	4.2.1 Circuit Description	99
	4.2.1.1 Microprocessor Board	
	4.2.1.2 Input Devices	. 106

4.2.1.3 Output Devices	107
4.2.1.4 Power Supply	110
4.3 Software	110
4.3.1 Memory Structure	.110
4.3.2 Desemiption	112
4.3.2/1 Initialization	112
4.3.2.2 Main Program	118
4.3.2.3 IRQ Service Routines	118
4.3.2.4 Metering Update	120
4.3.2.5 Statistics Update	123
4.3.2.6 Mode Change	
4.3.2.7 Row Change	129
4.3.2.8 Display Refresh	, ' -'
4.3.2.9 Code Conversion	132
4.3.2.10 Malfunctioning Sensor Check	134
4.4 Potato Planter Simulator	
4.5 Performance Analysis	135
4.5.1 Microprocessor Board and Software	138
4.5.2 Input Device Evaluation	
4.5.3 Output Device Evaluation	140
4.6 Design Discussions	141
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	145
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY	148
REFERENCES	150
APPENDIX A. METERING DATA ANALYSIS PROGRAM	172
APPENDIX B. METERING DATA	175
APPENDIX C. MONITOR COMPONENTS	181

5.

6.

11.	APPENDIX D. MONITOR CIRCUIT DIAGRAMS	188
	APPENDIX E. MONITOR PROGRAM	
_ 13.	APPENDIX F. MONITOR MEMORY MAPS	220

List of Tables

Tab	le la
2.1	A review of potato performance according to planter type
3.1	Metering trial summary
3.2	Distribution of consecutive metering errors for cut seed expressed as the percent of total metering errors
3.3	Distribution of consecutive metering errors for whole seed expressed as the percent of total metering errors
3.4	Analysis of variance for cut seed metering trials
3.5	Analysis of variance for whole seed metering trials

List of Figures

Figur	e Page
2,1	Predicted yield/population density response curves for total and marketable yield in Russet Burbank (Lynch and Rowberry, 1977a)
2.2	Effect of main stem number per seed piece on yield of different sizes of Russet Burbank (Iritani and Thornton, 1984)
2.3	Economic assessment of the marketable yield response curve (Jarvis et al, 1976)29
3.1	McConnell pick-type planter
3.2	Pick-type metering mechanism69
3.3	Picker wheel action and sensor positioning
3.4	Cut seed attributes a) Seed piece shape b) Seed portion
3.5	Sensor system74,
3.6	Seed shape effect on metering performance83
3.7	Consecutive metering error distribution for seed shape85
3.8	Seed size effect on metering performance86
3.9	Consecutive metering error distribution for seed size
3.10	Metering rate effect on consecutive metering error distribution for cut seed89
3.11	Metering performance of whole versus cut seed90
3.12	Metering rate effect on consecutive metering error distribution for whole seed
4.1	The potato planter monitoring process93
4.2	Block diagram for potato planter monitor modules
4.3	Monitor display unit98
4.4	Potato planter monitor block diagram100

Figure	e Page
4,5	Potato planter monitor program flow chart113
4,6	IRQ service routine flow chart114
4.7	Initialization routine flow chart
4,8	IRQ polling routine flow chart119
4.9	Metering update flow chart121
4.10	Statistics update flow chart124
4,11	.Statistics calculation flow chart126
4.12	Mode change flow chart128
4.13	Row change flow chart
4.14	Display refresh flow chart131
4.15	Code conversion flow chart
4.16	Potato planter simulation unit
4.17	Potato planter simulator sensor positioning

1. INTRODUCTION

The Andes region of Peru and Bolivia between altitudes of 1,200 and 1,800 m is thought to be the potato's native home. History's first record of the potato, Solanum tuberosum, coincides with the Spanish conquistadors presence in Peru around 1524. The potato was first introduced to Spain somewhere between 1565 and 1580 and from there spread throughout the European continent reaching England by 1586. In the years spanning 1650 to 1840 the potato became a vital part of the Northern European diet, a fact brought to bear when the Irish potato famine struck during the 1840's. The first recorded evidence of the potato entering Canada was in 1623 at Port Royal, Nova Scotia where an English trading ship presented a barrel of potatoes to Acadian settlers (Thornton and Sieczka 1980). Since that time, potato production has flourished on Canadian soil.

On a world scale, potato_production is increasing rapidly in the tropics and sub-tropics and is declining gradually in temperate zones (van der Zaag and Horton 1983). Per capita potato production estimates indicate that Eastern Europe (including Russia) is the largest consuming region but, unlike other regions, much of their crop is used as fodder. World consumption patterns indicate that 45 percent of the potato crop is utilized for human consumption, 31 percent as feed stock, 14 percent as seed, and 2 percent for starch (van der Zaag and Horton 1983).

Five year averages of Agriculture Canada (1985) statistics between 1980 and 1984 indicate that the total area under potato production in Canada is approximately 112,169 ha with an average yield of 26.2 t/ha. The yearly production of 2.9 million tonnes of potatoes has an estimated farm value of 306.1 million dollars. Approximately 78.2 percent of Canada's potato production takes place east of Manitoba with Prince Edward Island accounting for 28.6 percent of the national total. Alberta produces only 7.3 percent of the national total but has the third highest yield per unit area (26.6 t/ha).

The potato produces more edible energy and protein per unit area than most other crops and has a high level of daily energy and protein production (van der Zaag 1976). This high energy output is coupled with a very large energy input requirement that is exceeded only by that of irrigated rice. Today's production methods involve complex and highly specialized activities that have evolved over many years. Improvements in production practices have occurred in two ways: through reduction of production costs per unit area while maintaining yield, or by increasing yield without increasing production costs per unit area. Early potato research centered around cultivar trials, plant nutrition, disease-free seed production and the effect of spatial relationships on yield. In the 1950's the demand for processed potato products, such as French fries and chips (crisps), began to emerge and producers were encouraged to

adopt market-specific production practices. Plant density concepts became more significant as grower desire for higher yields and consumer demand for product quality grew. Three factors of note in Glotzbach's (1973) assessment of European production trends between 1960 and 1970 during which time yields rose and area in production decreased were: changes in the production methods particularly in the control of weeds and potato blight by chemicals; the use of improved varieties and the use of high quality seed.

Aside from harvesting, stand establishment is the most expensive production operation for many crops. This is especially true where individual seeds must be isolated and placed at regular intervals (Harriott 1970). Since the late 1960's, potato planter performance studies have concentrated on improving irregular planting patterns and the rate of seed delivery as part of an overall desire to improve utilization of the agricultural resource base. As production methods intensified, the availability of agricultural labour and the ability to maintain a high work rate became increasingly important. To meet these demands, planter designs shifted from slow-speed, hand-fed planters to high-speed automatic units.

Plant stand surveys in the late 1960's (Andrew 1968) identified poor planter performance, as typified by inconsistent delivery of seed and irregular planting patterns, to be a major stumbling block for yield improvement. As the relationships between crop and planter

performance became clearer, researchers began to investigate how properties of seed pieces affected yield from both an agronomic and planting operations point of view. Andrew and Domier (1978) believed the quality and yield of potato could be improved if relationships between potato seed, seed pieces, and planting techniques were better understood. Jarvis (1978) advocated that "any attempt to improve yield or otherwise increase the efficiency of the production process must be made with the requirements and limitations of mechanized systems in mind."

In light of the current understanding of potato planting operations, three objectives were set for this project:

- To review planting parameters significant in establishing uniform and desired planting densities and to assess the planting density relationship to yield
- 2. To investigate the effect that metering rate, seed piece size and seed piece shape have on pick-type planter performance, and
- 3. To design a planter monitoring and data acquisition system capable of providing performance feedback to operators and for better evaluation of planting operations.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Seed Potatoes

Unlike many other vegetable crops, potato crops are usually established by vegetative propagation. Therefore, seed potatoes refer to the flesh of the previous generation. Due to the widely held preference for planting seed potatoes rather than potato seed, or true seed, the term seed will be considered synonymous to seed potato. One of the main reasons for not seeding true seed centers around the potato's diverse genetic constitution which represents a combination of 160 wild species and 20 cultivated species (Thornton and Sieczka 1980). No farmer can afford the uncertainty associated with such diversity on today's markets.

Next to the Netherlands, Canada is the largest seed potato exporter in the world with a distribution network extending to more than fifteen countries (Cameron 1984). Canada's cold winter climate offers some control over the spread of insects and diseases. Long-warm summer days and short-cool nights offer ideal conditions for high quality seed crops. The Canadian seed production system has six controlled and inspected tiers starting with pre-Elite I and III through to Elite I, II and III to Foundation, Certified, and ending with table grades (Agriculture Canada 1985). Of 65 licensed cultivars listed by Agriculture Canada (1985), Russet Burbank (formerly Netted Gem) is by far the most

Burbank accounted for 37 percent of Canadian-grown seed.

Developed in 1872 by Luther Burbank, Russet Burbank makes outstanding chips, is the standard for French-frying, bakes well, boils well, stores well, and is an all-time favorite.

It is not surprising therefore to find a large proportion of North American potato research to be centered around Russet Burbank.

Seed potatoes are often the single highest input cost for potato producers. In South America and tropical Africa, seed potatoes represent 20 to 40 percent of production costs, in Asia, 30 to 55 percent and central America, 50 percent. European and North American producers spend approximately 20 percent of input costs on seed, 8 to 16 percent on labour, and 66 percent for other agricultural inputs according to van der Zaag and Horton (1983). Allen's (1978) estimates of seed costs in England are slightly higher at 30 to 50 percent of total growing costs. Seed quality is therefore a prime consideration in the production cycle. Aside from being disease free, quality parameters for seed lots include their physiological age and size distribution (Svensson 1977; Lidgett 1983).

The long-standing debate on the relative merits of planting whole seed *versus* cut seed originates from fundamental differences in North American and European production systems. To many European potato growers, the thought of cutting whole seed seems outrageous. The major

criticism of cutting seed is the potential for spreading disease by means of contact with a contaminated cutting mechanism. Problems associated with seed cutting have been overlooked in light of the two major reasons for cutting seed.

Firstly, the majority of North American potatoes are grown on lighter soils (sandy loams, silt loams) that warm up rapidly in spring and have good drainage properties. Wetter, European soil conditions are more likely to cause cut seed to decay prematurely. The second reason has to do with the primitive state of the North American seed industry.

Canadian seed industry standards apply to all provinces whereas United States standards are set in each state.

Although Canada is noted for quality seed, no designated seed producing areas are defined and control over the supply of seed is nonexistent. This implies two things to the seed grower: 1) the crop might not meet seed standards and, 2) if it does, it might be surplus to seed requirements (Rowberry and Howells 1979).

In both cases the most appealing alternative is to dispose of the crop as table-stock and this requires a minimum size of approximately 110 g. Seed of this size is too large to plant and must be cut into two, four or six pieces using a mechanical seed cutter. Rowberry and Howells (1979) concluded that given these conditions it seemed highly unlikely that North American producers would shift

towards planting whole seed.

Molnar (1978) argued in favor of planting whole seed versus cut seed. His findings indicated whole seed had a greater total and marketable yield compared with cut seed of the same weight class. Total yield refers to the total. harvested yield whereas marketable yield is the portion of total yield that falls within the standards set for different grades of marketable potatoes. The increased production of smaller potatoes was seen as advantageous, especially for seed production, even though this would necessitate alterations in planting practices, such as installing smaller chains on potato harvesters and slowing down the harvesting operation. Andrew and Silva (1983) demonstrated that cut end pieces from whole Russet Burbank potatoes had a marketable yield superior to whole seed tubers. Rempel's (1978) report agrees with this trend. Although Molnar (1978) predicted a significant shift from cut seed to whole seed on the Canadian prairies, the change, if any, has been slow to emerge.

The attention given to the description of seed material in planter performance studies ranges from nonexistent to excellent. Studies with poor or inadequate descriptions of seed make comparisons difficult. Unfortunately this aspect of planter performance has fallen victim to lack of experimental standards.

Svensson (1973) argued that productivity of potato seed would be improved by encouraging homogeneity within seed

lots. Similarly, Thornton et al. (1983) suggested uniformity within seed lots would allow planters to perform more consistently.

2.2 Potato Growth Parameters

The complex nature of potato growth has been investigated from many angles with the objective of identifying significant growth parameters and their relationship to tuber yield. It is not the author's intention to detail all growth relationships as they are now understood. Rather, in pursuit of a more complete understanding of planter performance, an appreciation of the potato's agronomic relationships is necessary to realize the extent to which the planting process predisposes production potential.

A brief examination of potato morphology and anatomy is necessary to appreciate production relationships. The potato tuber is an underground stem that contains all the characteristics of a normal stem. Potato seed tubers possess a number of buds, or potential growing points, that are grouped together in eyes that tend to be concentrated at the apical end of the tuber (furthest from the seed). The buds at the apical end of a tuber exert apical dominance and normally sprout first at the end of dormancy. These buds are often referred to as the apical complex. Apical dominance is altered when a seed tuber is cut into pieces. The apical complex no longer exerts control over the whole tuber and

this encourages sprout development from all pieces. Cut seed therefore has more main stems per unit weight than whole seed. Thornton and Sieczka (1980) suggest main stems from cut seed pieces tend to have a more uniform rate of emergence.

The number of buds that develop into stems depends also on the size and condition of the parent tuber (Allen 1978). Individual stems rely on the parent tuber to sustain growth for some time after emergence. Once stems become established, competitive interference for growing space and agronomic resources takes over.

Silva and Andrew (1985) point out the difficulty in achieving uniform potato crops. Up to 14-fold differences in tuber yield per hill were observed by these authors. Control over planting density has proven critical for establishing high yielding potato crops.

2.2.1 Population Density

Planting density can be manipulated by altering row or in-row spacing, seed piece size or shape, or seed conditioning. Therefore, the unit of density appropriate for describing the potato's yield response needs to be established. The most useful measures of planting density from Allen's (1978) perspective were the number of main stems/ha and weight of seed/ha. Iritani et al. (1983) considered main stems per unit area to be of limited value as a measure of density unless seed rate was also stated.

2.2.1.1 Seed Rate

Seed rate (t/ha) is the weight of seed planted per unit area and is equivalent to the number of tubers planted multiplied by the average seed piece weight. This is the unit of density most familiar to growers and has been used as the density scale in many existing density experiments (Allen 1978). Boyd and Lessels (1954) demonstrated how higher seeding rate increased yield. Their results also revealed distinct yield response curves for different sized seed grown in plots with identical seed rates.

A traditional method of assessing potato crops is the plant stand survey which compares the actual number of plants to the intended number of plants within a sample area. The resulting ratio, expressed as a percentage, is termed the plant stand. A plant stand survey conducted by Andrew (1968) over two years on 26 Alberta farms revealed plant stands ranging from 37 to 93 percent with an average of 74 percent. Further analysis of Andrew's 1968 stand survey was presented by Andrew (1971) and revealed that 60 percent of the factors responsible for reduced plant stands were attributed to missing seed pieces. An additional 19 percent of factors associated with poor plant stands fell into the wrong spacing or misplaced piece category. James et al. (1975) used aerial photography to assess plant stands in New Brunswick and found an

average of 32 percent misses. Of the 1000 misses investigated, 88 percent were attributed to missing seed. Sieczka et al.'s (1986) three-year plant stand study again confirmed the failure to deliver seed as the major reason for missing hills and reported the average plant stand in New York State to be 83 percent. These studies appear to indicate that seed rates are substantially less than intended.

2.2.1.2 Main Stem Density

Holliday (1960) suggested that the main stem be considered the true unit of potato plant populations. A main stem was defined by Krijthe (1955) as a stem growing directly from the seed tuber. A positive relationship between the number of main stems per unit area of soil surface and yield was noted by Reestman and De Wit (1959). Another interesting observation from this study occurred at wide plant spacings where yield increased with the number of main stems per seed tuber and the total potato skin surface area. Results indicated a linear relationship existed between number of main stems per tuber and the tuber skin surface area. Both Bleasdale (1965) and Holliday (1960) claimed the stem number per seed piece was directly proportional to the number of eyes per seed piece and not related simply to skin surface area as suggested by Reestman and De Wit (1959). Wurr (1974) also reported a linear relationship between number of main stems per

seed tuber and the number of sprouts before planting.

Allen and Wurr (1973) discussed methods of recording main stem densities in growing crops and conclude that differences between above-ground stems (includes auxiliary stems) and main stem counts were very small and unlikely to affect the relationship between yield and main stem density. A study by Iritani et al. (1983) confirmed this relationship.

Bleasdale (1965) claimed that the number of main stems per unit area influenced potato size distribution. Main stem densities from different sized seed tubers showed a continuous relationship for both total and graded yield whereas seed rates from different sized seed produced distinct yield response curves.

wurr (1974) established a relationship between graded yield and main stem density. As main stem density increased, the total number of tubers was found to increase but the number of tubers per main stem, and the average tuber size, decreased due to greater inter-stem competition. The number of main stems produced by each seed tuber was found to be cultivar-dependent. Wurr, therefore, asserted that the larger the grade of potatoes over which yield is considered, the lower the main stem population required to give maximum yield in that grade. However, Lynch and Rowberry (1977a) reported that low main stem densities

resulted in a higher proportion of deformed tubers.

Lynch and Rowberry (1977a) studied two reciprocal polynomial models for predicting main stem density/yield relationships over a wide range of densities (1.8-20 plants/m²). The Bleasdale and Thompson (1966) model

$$y^{-\theta} = \alpha + \beta \varrho \qquad (2.1)$$

where y = yield/plant $Q = \text{stems/m}^2$ α , β = fitted parameters

appeared to give the most reasonable representation of the main stem density/yield relationship. Parameters α and β were associated with individual seed tuber sizes. Lynch and Rowberry (1977a) demonstrated that seed size did not influence the α and β parameters in cut and whole seed lots and, thus, they concluded that yield is a direct function of main stem density. Holliday (1960) identified the existence of an asymptotic relationship between the main stem density and total yield, and a parabolic relationship between marketable yield and main stem density. These findings were verified by Lynch and Rowberry (1977a) and are illustrated in Figure 2.1. The θ parameter in the Bleasdale and Thompson model was thought to characterize the

The title of Figure 2.1 is "Predicted yield/population density response curves for total and marketable yield in Russet Burbank (Lynch and Rowberry, 1977a)". This figure has been removed because of the unavailability of copyright permission. — (Page 15)

relationship between marketable and total yield since it represented a ratio of the weight of plant parts to the weight of the whole plant relative to changes in planting density. A value of one for θ represented the total yield response whereas a θ value of 0.5 was associated with the marketable response. The marketable yield response for growing conditions on the University of Guelph's experimental farm, as defined by Lynch and Rowberry (1977a), was 8.1 main stems/m² (Figure 2.1). Shotton (1976) also presented a marketable yield response curve that conformed to the Bleasdale and Thompson (1966) model.

wurr and Morris (1979) found small tubers gave greater main stem densities per weight of tubers planted but the resulting marketable yield was not distinguished from total yield. However, they pointed out that the number of main stems produced from identical seed varies in different growing areas and suggested that causes of variation of main stem number per seed tuber be given a high research priority. Lynch and Rowberry (1977b) suggested that high planting densities reduced the rate of tuber growth due to increased intra-hill competition for available mineral and carbon assimilates. A growth analysis study by Collins (1977) found that, in plants with identical spacing, the growth rate of tubers from plants with two and four main stems were higher than those of single

main stem plants. The resulting number of main stems and the average tuber weight proved to be higher for plants with four main stems.

Jarvis and Shotton (1971) realized that theoretical considerations of main stem density were of limited use unless the actual number of main stems produced in the field could be accurately predicted.

2.2.1.3 Seed Conditioning

Manipulation of seed tuber behavior can influence both the quantity and quality of yields. The term physiological age is often associated with seed conditioning and has been defined as "the physiological state of a tuber at any given time" (Iritani and Thornton 1984). Seed material is living plant tissue and, therefore, ages with time. The physiological age of seed potatoes influences emergence, main stem number, growth rate, maturity, tuber size and ultimately, crop yield (Knowles et al. 1985). Although the relationship between physiological age and main stem density is recognized, the lack of a precise definition and criteria for measurement make this concept difficult to quantify. The aging factor used by Fishman and Talpaz (1984) and Fishman et al. (1985) in their potato growth model was derived from commercial field data but showed considerable variation from crop to crop. A possible explanation for inconsistent derivation of the aging factor was attributed to its

sensitivity to cultivation practices.

Iritani and Thornton (1984) suggest that the rate of aging depends on the growing environment of seed, storage environment, and field conditions during germination. Iritani et al. (1983) found the number of main stems per seed piece increased with higher storage and germination temperatures and with later planting dates. Knowles et al. (1985) Reported that apical dominance, shoot vigor, percent plant stand, and total tuber yield all declined as seed tubers progressed in age past five months.

In Europe, pre-sprouted seed often is used in Europe to encourage early crop emergence. Experiments conducted by Shotton (1973) demonstrated a yield increase of 3.5 to 5 t/ha using pre-sprouted seed. Sprout damage is thus considered an important planter performance parameter in Europe.

Chemical applications to seed material can be used to augment or suppress the number of main stems per seed. Applications of napthalene acidic acid (NAA) at 100 mg/L to eight and twenty month old seed tubers was reported to increase yields by 8 and 11 t/ha respectively (Knowles et al. 1985). NAA applications to younger seed increased yield of larger tubers by reducing the number of shoots per tuber. Holmes et al. (1970) studied the effect of growth regulators on apical dominance and found that treating seed with

up to 70 percent due to an increased main stem number. Slomnycki and Rylski (1964) stated gibberelic acid affects whole and cut seed differently because gibberelic acid uptake through skin occurs at a much lower rate than through exposed flesh.

2.2.1.4 Seed Size

Many early potato experiments were concerned with the growth response of different seed tuber sizes. Recent seed-size research has focussed on the effect that seed mass per main stem has on graded yields. The degree of seed size variability in commercial planting operations and the limitations of seed cutters have led some extension programs to focus on the value of reducing size variability (Schotzko et al. 1984).

Wurr (1974) and Lynch and Rowberry (1977a)

describe the relationship whereby larger seed pieces
give a greater number of main stems per seed piece.

Iritani et al. (1972) studied the relationship of yield
to seed size, spacing, and main stem numbers using
Russet Burbank potatoes. Identical main stem densities
from different seed size spacing combinations were
found to give variable proportions of U.S. No. 1
potatoes (112 g and over) and undersized potatoes.

Larger seed spaced further apart averaged fewer main
stems/unit area but produced a high marketable yield,
superior plant stands and larger sized plants. A highly

positive correlation (0.98) was established between weight of seed piece/main stem and total yield. The yield of different tuber grades as influenced by main stem number per seed piece (Figure 2.2) was reaffirmed by subsequent research (Iritani et al. 1983). Entz and LaCroix (1984) also found that crops grown from larger seed pieces with wide plant spacing had a higher marketable yield.

The initial rate of plant growth depends on the size of the seed piece and the rate at which the seed piece substrate is utilized (Milthorpe and Moorby 1979). In a growth analysis experiment, Dawes et al. (1983) showed that, once planted, seed piece weight decreased linearly with time reaching a 2 g residual mass 30 to 40 days, later. Davies (1984) studied seed piece reserves as a limiting factor in potato sprout growth. His results indicated that, as the number of sprouts per seed tuber increased, the dry weight per sprout decreased due to increased intersprout competition. Wiersema and Cabello (1986) conducted research on comparative performance of different sized seed tubers. Increasing seed tuber weight decreased the time required for 90 percent emergence, increased the number of main stems per plant, increased the number of tubers per plant but decreased tubers per main stem, and increased total yields. Rowell et al. (1986) reported that use of 40-g to 60-g tubers resulted in

The title of Figure 2.2 is "Effect of main stem number per seed piece on yield of different sizes of Russet Burbank (Iritani and Thornton, 1984)." This figure has been removed because of the unavailability of copyright permission.

(Page 21)

yields 50 percent better than true potato seed possibly due to differences in early growth and emergence.

A seed piece survey by Andrew and Silva (1983) presented a range of average seed piece weights for different types of seed pieces found in seed lots on Alberta farms. For Russet Burbank, seed with one cut surface had a weight distribution between 34.1 and 66.0 g, seed with two cut surfaces were between 39.4 and 80.9 g, and seed having three cut surfaces fell between 41.8 and 90.3 g. A seed piece survey conducted by Schotzko et al. (1982) in Washington State found 15.5 percent of pieces weighed less than 28 g. The recommended seed piece size for Alberta conditions is 42 to 56 g (Andrew et al. (1976). The importance of defining seed piece size distribution rather than average seed size was stressed by Schotzko et al. (1984).

2.2.1.5 Seed Shape

The practice of cutting seed potatoes dissects the spherical-to elliptical-shaped whole tuber into a number of more blocky shaped seed pieces. As the size of the seed tuber increases, the number of seed pieces/tuber increases if an average seed piece size is maintained. However, the average skin surface area per piece decreases (Pitts and Hyde 1985):

Jarvis et al. (1976) concluded that spacing irregularity is best defined by the coefficient of

variation (CV), consequently the CV is the most often used planter performance statistic. As defined by Steel and Torrie (1980) in equation 2.2, the CV represents a quantity that provides a relative measure of variation independent of the unit of measurement.

$$CV = \frac{s}{X} 100$$
 ... (2.2)

where CV = coefficient of variation s = sample variation X = sample mean

Andrew and Silva (1983) investigated the influence of seed portion on main stem number. The term portion referred to place of origin on the parent tuber and, by implication, the number of cut surfaces or shape of seed piece. With Russet Burbank potatoes from three experimental sites, the average number of main stems on 1-cut (end) pieces was 3.3 compared with 2.4 main stems for 3-cut pieces. The coefficient of variation (CV) and plant stand were 52.5 percent and 66.7 percent respectively for 3-cut pieces compared to 33.0 percent and 95.0 percent for 1-cut pieces. These statistics are especially relevant considering that production costs for low yielding and high yielding hills were similar (Andrew et al. 1983). A cutting index developed by Silva and Andrew (1984) included a factor which

diminished seed lot quality as the number of cut surfaces increased. Andrew et al. (1983) indicated that a greater proportion of high-yielding pieces could be achieved if more attention was given to adjustment of cutting equipment. Cutting related aspects of seed shape are discussed in section 3.3.2.

2.2.1.6 Planting Pattern

Row and plant spacings are chosen in light of many growth-influenceing factors. The ideal planting pattern would encourage vigorous and uniform crop development by providing the spatial arrangement of plants most suited for optimal utilization of agricultural inputs. However, defining and achieving the ideal planting pattern is indeed a difficult task.

Traditionally, row spacing was chosen for convenience and compatibility with the planter's power source. Row widths of 700 mm were used with horse powered cultivation but modern cultivation methods require 760 to 910 mm row spacing (Jarvis and Shotton 1972). Jarvis (1972) compared 760 and 910 mm row spacing and found total yields to be approximately equal but marketable yield was slightly higher at 910 mm spacing due to less wastage from tuber greening. With 910 mm rows, harvesting work rates improved by 16.7 percent and slightly lower levels of tuber damage were recorded. North and Proctor (1973) noted also that wider row spacing saved time during planting and

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harvesting operations and required lower depth of tilth to form the final ridge.

Choice of plant spacing is usually considered in conjunction with other population density parameters. Recommended in-row plant spacing in Alberta is 230 to 460 mm with wider spacing being more suitable where fertility and/or moisture are limiting factors (Andrew et al. (1976). Wilson (1970) investigated plant spacings between 300 and 510 mm in Maine and found total yield decreased as spacing increased. Marketable yield remained relatively constant due to an increase in tuber size and a decrease in tuber number.

Two contributing factors to irregular seed placement are failure to deliver seed, and inaccurate placement of seed. The discussion in section 2.2.1.1 established the extent of missing seed pieces in commercial crops. Discussion under section 2.6.1 examines the causes of irregular seed placement. This section considers the impact of irregular seed placement on yield.

Blodgett (1941) studied the reduction in crop yield due to diseased or missing plants. He established that plants adjacent to gaps caused by missing seed, exerted a yield compensation effect. In a simulated gap study reported by Andrew et al. (1970) and Preston (1971), total and No. 1 yields from plants adjacent to as many as three consecutive gaps were progressively

greater \(\) No additional compensation was observed for 4 5, or 6 consecutive gaps. Thus, yield reduction due to missing plants was not found to be proportional to the percentage of plant stand loss. Yield compensation was a result of increased tuber size, not tuber number. This was evident as total and marketable yields per unit area were lower when the number of consecutive gaps was increased. However the yield of No. 1 potatoes increased slightly with 1 or 2 gaps and then decreased gradually up to 6 gaps. James et al. (1973) and James et al. (1975) assessed yield reduction attributed to missing plants by examining losses due to reduced plant stands. The 每973 study concluded that 90, 80, and 70 percent plant stands in New Brunswick crops resulted in 0, 5.6, and 11.1 percent reduction in yield respectively.

Jarvis et al. (1976) investigated differences in total and marketable yields attributed to spacing irregularity at CVs of 0, 20, 40 and 60 percent, at three different population densities. Total yield decreased and marketable yield fell by 1.7 t/ha when the CV was increased from 0 to 60 percent. As the CV increased so did the proportion of large tubers.

Although yield depressions were not large, they were thought to be economically significant. Pascal et al. (1977) and Entz and LaCroix (1984) disagreed, stating that a CV as high as 75 percent did not reduce yield.

Some sites in Robertson and Pascal's (1974) study suggested irregular planting patterns may even be beneficial to yield. Davies (1954) and Boyd and lessells (1954) demonstrated irregular spacing had a negative effect on yield only at very wide mean spacings while Sieczka et al. (1986) stated that non-uniform distribution of seed depresses yield only when the CV exceeds 100 percent.

Bleasdale and Thompson (1966) studied the impact of one, two and three plants in the same hill and concluded that seed clumping had little effect on yield.

Therefore, non-uniform planting patterns appear to have the most significant impact when planters produce a consistent pattern of consecutive planting errors. This reduces both effective planting rate and the compensation effect of plants adjacent to misses. Hirst et al. (1973) and James et al. (1975) pointed out the importance of defining a frequency distribution for consecutive misses since yield reduction is a function of the frequency in each consecutive miss class.

2.2.2 Economic Assessment of Growth Parameters

Schotzko et al.'s. (1982) review of the economics of seed size and spacing assessed the value of attainable yield, as defined by van der Zaag (1984), lost due to non-uniform planting patterns on Washignton State potato

farms at \$400/ha. Using Alberta Agriculture's (1982) economic assessment of fresh potato production, this represents an increase in the return to management of 59 percent.

Sharpe and Dent (1968) studied the economics of planting density. The planting density for optimum economic returns occurred at the point where the cost of establishing a main stem and the marginal value product equalled one another. Costs per main stem are related to the price of seed and the average number of main stems per seed piece which, in turn, depends on the weight distribution of whole seed tubers, seed conditioning, and cutting. Schotzko et al. (1984) discussed the economic impact of Russet Burbank seed size and spacing using a typical processor contract. Their economic assessment of yield proceeded in much the same manner as Sharpe and Dent's (1968) analysis.

Jarvis et al. (1976) pointed out that small variations in main stem densities which produce maximum yields have little effect on marketable yield due to the flat-topped nature of the marketable yield response curve (Figure 2.3, point A.) However, the ability to compensate for small variations in main stem density is more sensitive at a lower density which defines the point of maximum economic returns (Figure 2.3, point B). This case becomes even more critical if the established main stem density is less than intended (Figure 2.3, point C), as appears to be the case on many North American potato farms.

The title of Figure 2.3 is "Economic assessment of the marketable yield response curve (Jarvis et al, 1976". This figure has been removed because of the unavailability of copyright permission. (Page 29)

2.3 Seed Handling

The degree of variability in seed size and shape together with the dynamic nature of interactions between seed and both planter and growing environment, make seed piece uniformity a primary objective of the cutting process (Thornton et al. 1983). Mass production of seed pieces can be viewed as two separate operations: the grading of whole tubers according to size, and the cutting of each size in an appropriate manner.

2.3.1 Grading

Potatoes are often graded on potato cutters to facilitate the cutting of seed tubers according to size. Grading is also used to separate potatoes into the market grades established by processors and marketing organizations. The potato's vulnerability to damage and its diversity in size and shape impose a strict set of demands on the grading process.

Most on-farm graders and potato cutters have a series of parallel rollers with variable apertures capable of separating tubers sinto small, medium or large sizes. The major problem with roll sizers is that sizing is done by the smaller tuber dimension rather than the larger one (Pitts and Hyde 1985). As the proportion of large tubers increases, the load factor on the cutter's sizing rollers also increases. This reduces the efficiency of separation and increases the amount of tuber damage (Klenin *et al.* 1985).

The maximum feed rate for roller graders was given by Klenin et al. as 3.0 to 5.3 kg/s per metre of width. Grader capacity was defined as

$$q = 3.6 \text{ qo B}$$
 ... (2.3)

where q = capacity of the grader (t/h)
qo = maximum feed rate (kg/s m)
B = width of the grading surface (m)

Zhao et al. (1986) stressed the importance of sizer roller spacings for effective separation of seed tubers. A simulation model designed to study the effects of different cut widths and roller spacings illustrated the sensitive nature of sizer roller adjustments. For the chosen distribution of whole seed cut to standard widths, the proportion of desired seed (28 to 84 g) decreased by 5.4 percent and the oversized seed increased by a similar amount when sizer roller spacings were increased by 6 mm.

The shape of the potato is the most critical parameter when considering roller spacing (Zhao et al. 1986). Johnston (1970) correlated whole tuber diameter with weight and found the relationship to be cultivar-dependent. Webster's (1970) shape index (equation 2.4) was significant at the 1 percent level when used to discriminate between cultivars.

Tuber shape index =
$$\frac{11 \cdot 100}{\text{Tb}}$$
 ... (2.4)

where T1 = tuber length
Tb = tuber breadth

Brown's (1973) shape index (equation 2.5) is based on all three tuber axes and, therefore, gives a slightly more accurate index for cultivar shape.

Tuber shape index =
$$\frac{\text{Lmax Lmin}}{\text{Ce}^2}$$
 ... (2.5)

where Lmax = maximum length of circumference Lmin = minimum length of circumference Ce = equatorial circumference

McRae (1985) reviewed work by Kolchin and Semekhunov (1975) who concluded that tubers sorted by weight had a scatter of linear dimensions smaller than the scatter of weights when tubers were sorted by linear dimensions. Goryachkin (1974) also supported the idea of sorting tubers by weight rather than sorting by linear dimensions.

McRae (1985) presented an equation for potato volume as

where V = potato volume

-K = 0.524 for a true ellipsoid

a = length

c = thickness

Pitts and Hyde (1985) studied two ellipsoid-based models to predict volume, one considered all three axis and the other assumed the two larger axes to be equal. They concluded that the volume of a whole tuber can be calculated within five percent if the tuber length and width are known:

$$V = \frac{4 \pi a b2}{3}$$
 ... (2.7)

where V = tuber volume

a = 1/2 major axis

b = 1/2 minor axis

The Canadian seed tuber sizing schedule, in place as of 1983, had three size designations "A", "B", and Contract size. "A" sized tubers ranged from 113-340 g for round cultivars (e.g. Norchip) and 113-454 g for long cultivars (e.g. Russet Burbank). "B" sized tubers ranged from 42-113 g for both round and long cultivars. Contract size was defined as any size range agreed to by the buyer and seller. The proposed sizing regulations presented by Lidgett (1983) would see tuber sizing reported according to linear dimensions (based on the ability to pass through different sized square mesh) rather than weight. Equivalent sizes for

the new long cultivars would see "A" sizes as 50-80 mm and "B" sizes as 40-50 mm. "A" sizes for round cultivars convert to 60-90 mm and "B" sizes to 40-60 mm. Another interesting aspect of the proposed changes is a minimum seed size of 25 mm for long cultivars and 28 mm for round cultivars (Lidgett 1983). These dimensions represent weights around 14 g and present an unexplored market for small seed.

Pascal et al. (1977) and Thornton et al. (1983) found closely graded whole seed resulted in a more uniform planting pattern. Planting graded seed (45-55 mm) was recommended by Eddowes (1986) for accurate seed spacing and depth of placement.

Sands and Regal (1983) introduced the concept of the tuber weight grading function to describe the distribution of weights of individual tubers. The grading function is a cumulative probability distribution function based on the assumption that tuber weights, in a population of mature potatoes, are normally distributed. As such, the grading function can be described by the population's mean and standard deviation. Each grading function has a corresponding probability density function which can then be used to predict the fraction of yield between any two weights.

The benefits derived from the grading process should also consider the cost of tuber damage due to handling (McRae 1980).

2.3.2 Cutting

Seed cutters were classified by French (1958) as automatic or non-automatic. Automatic cutters are self feeding and were further classified as "B" splitters or multiple sizer cutters. Non-automatic machines require an operator to position tubers prior to cutting. Most potato growers use high speed multiple sizer seed cutters to accommodate the cutting of large seed tubers into 2, 3, 4, or 6 pieces, depending on the tuber size.

Nomenclature for seed piece shape tends to vary and often reflects the researcher's focus. Andrew and Silva (1983) described seed pieces as whole, apical end, basal end, center cut, 3-cut, and quarter, all which imply a shape or position of origin on the parent tuber. Pitts and Hyde (1985) were concerned with optimizing cutting pattern for different sized tubers and chose seed piece names based on how many pieces a specific cutting pattern produced; 1-cut, 2-cut, and 4-cut. All naming schemes relate a pattern of increasing cut surface area and decreasing skin surface area, or, a change in shape from spheroid to blocky. Each shape influences the main stem number per seed piece and compatibility with the planting process. These relationships are central to an integrated perspective of planting operations.

The distribution of seed piece shapes and sizes within seed lots on Alberta potato farms (Andrew et al. 1983) showed substantial variation. This appears consistent with

observations by Boyd and Lessells (1954) who noted considerable differences in weight of seed planted from farm to farm. Large ungraded whole seed contributes toward lack of seed piece uniformity (Johnston 1970; Hauck *et al.* 1982) as does the type of cutter and spacing of sizer rollers (Andrew *et al.* 1983).

According to French (1958) seed piece quality depends on the uniformity of seed piece size and the incidence of seed pieces without eyes. Leach et al. (1972) recommended that tubers over 280 g not be used for seed and, if they were, hand cutting was recommended. French (1958) reported that the cost of cutting seed depends on the percent of oversized tubers. Red Pontiac tubers cut into six pieces were found to be devoid of eyes 5 percent of the time whereas tubers cut into eight pieces had a 25 percent eyeless rate. Therefore, larger, longer, and less uniform seed decreases the homogeneity of seed piece size and shape (Pitts and Hyde 1985). Andrew et al. (1983) reported these conditions increased crop variability.

Optimal cutting patterns for different tuber sizes were derived by Pitts and Hyde (1985). As the number of seed pieces cut from one tuber increased from 2 to 7, the cut surface area to skin surface area ratio increased from 0.53 to 1.51. The volume of a seed piece as defined by Pitts and Hyde (1985) is given in equation 2.8.

SPVOL =
$$\frac{\pi b^2}{N} (X - \frac{X^3}{3a^2}) \begin{vmatrix} X_{\text{high}} \\ X_{\text{low}} \end{vmatrix}$$
 (2.8)

where SPVOL = seed piece volume

X high = right end of seed piece

X low = left end of seed piece

W = the number of cut surfaces
a = 1/2 major axis
b = 1/2 minor axis

The cut single area of a seed piece as defined by Pitts and Hyde (1985) is given in equation 2.9.

CSA =
$$\frac{\pi}{N}$$
 b (2 = $\frac{x_{high}^2 + x_{low}^2}{a^2}$) ... (2:9)

where CSA = cut surface area

Skin surface area as defined by Pitts and Hyde (1985) is given in equation 2.10.

SSA =
$$\frac{2\pi}{N} b \sqrt{\frac{a^2-b^2}{a^2}} \left(\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{\frac{a^4}{a^2-b^2}} - x^2 + \frac{a^4}{a^2-b^2} \right) \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a^2} \sqrt{a^2-b^2} \right) \left(\frac{x - x_{high}}{x_{low}} \right)$$
 (2.10)

where SSA = skin surface area

Because a seed potato entering the cutting mechanism cannot be positioned accurately, the production of undersized seed pieces, or slivers, is inevitable. Slivers

produce plants lacking vigor and therefore sliver removal devices should be used in conjunction with the cutting operation (Thornton et al. 1983).

Zhao et al. (1986) investigated two methods of reducing the variation in cut seed size: modification of seed cutters, and elimination of undersized seed pieces. They found that increasing the width between cutting blades increased the percent of desired Russet Burbank seed pieces to a maximum after which the proportion of desired seed dropped off rapidly. The criteria used to define desired seed pieces was based solely on weight (28-84 g) and ignored any shape effects. Adjustments to sizer roller spacings were shown to alter the size distribution of tubers approaching the cutting mechanisms. Although the optimum combinations of cut width and sizer roller spacings produced 90 percent designable seed for an assumed seed size distribution, the optimum combination was noted to change with cultivar and size distribution of seed stock. Andrew et al. (1983) supported the view that growers can increase the proportion of desirable seed by adjusting cutting equipment according to seed lot size and shape. Implementing optimum settings in practical situations is difficult due to a combination of human error, inflexible cutter design, and the lack of proper indicator mechanisms for sizer roller spacings (Hauck et al. 1982).

The second part of Zhao et al.'s (1986) study examined the possibility of pneumatic separation of undersized seed

pieces. Both percent loss of desired seed pieces (28-84 g) and percent separation of undersized seed pieces were measured as a function of air velocity in wind tunnel experiments. For the size distribution of seed pieces studied, the best results were achieved at an air velocity of 24.4 m/s where 80 percent of the undersized seed was separated with less than 4 percent of desirable seed lost. Factors which proved significant to seed terminal velocity were the height of end pieces, and mean diameter of half pieces. The terminal velocity of middle pieces (27.4 m/s) was well above the optimum separation velocity (24.4 m/s).

Seed cutting invariably is done at the atorage site either at the time of planting or prior to planting to allow sufficient time for seed pieces to suberize in storage. Suberization refers to the healing process that takes place on freshly cut seed piece surfaces. Cutting seed at the time of planting is acceptable if soil conditions are favorable for healing cut surfaces and has the added advantage of preventing cut seed from rotting in storage should a stretch of inclement weather interrupt planting operations Thornton and Sieczka 1980). Timm et al. (1973) concluded that healthy seed pieces with uniform respiration rates could be produced if seed potatoes were cut well in advance of planting to allow for suberization to take place. Their recommendation for cut seed storage was a shaded and ventilated environment with a temperature of 25°C to 30°C. Thornton's and Sieczka's (1980) recommendations are slightly different as they

suggest suberization is best achieved by holding cut seed for three to five days at temperatures between 12.8°C to 18.4°C with a relative humidity of 85 percent. Properly cut and stored seed pieces are reported to keep for two or three weeks without losing vigor (Rowberry and Howells 1979).

If a fungicide is required, the application is usually in powder form and is applied as pieces leave the cutter or in the field just prior to planting. One of the factors attributed to irregular planter performance is the tendency for seed pieces with greater cut surface area to stick to one another and to planter components (Likhyani et al. 1981). Research on the interaction between seed delivery systems and freshly cut versus suberized seed piece does not appear to have been studied.

2.4 Potato Planters

2.4.1 Types

Commercial potato crops in Europe and North America are planted by mechanical planters which open the soil, place the seed at the desired depth and spacing, and then cover and firm the seed bed. Planters usually have two, four, or six rows. Some one and two row planters use a three-point tractor hitch and utilize the tractor power takeoff to drive the metering mechanism. However, most planters rely on ground driven wheels to power the metering mechanism.

Planter operation, maintenance, and adjustment are more significant to planter performance than the type or make of planter (Andrew and Preston 1969). The basic components of the potato planter as outlined by Breece (1975) are: carrying and drive wheels; seed hopper; fertilizer hopper; fertilizer disk opener; fertilizer feed mechanism; platform; furrow opener shoe; covering disks markers; and planting and feeding mechanisms. A brief examination of planter components will provide an overview of the planter's function.

Towed planters have two drive wheels that provide power to the fertilizer and planting mechanism. Wheel hubs are usually bolted to the drive axle with shear bolts to avoid damage to the planter should the metering mechanism jam. Carrying wheels are often found on six and eight planters. The flow of seed from the hopper to picker chamber is controlled by adjustable gates. A platform on the back of many planters provides a space for an operator to monitor planter performance and to carry out duties dictated by planter design. Furrow openers consist of a set of opening disks and a wedge shaped opener shoe mounted on an undercarriage with hydraulic depth control. Planting action creates a furrow 75 to 100 mm wide in the seed bed. A set of covering disks for each row are located on the rear of the planter. These disks cover the seed and hill the row according to pitch and height adjustments relative to furrow openers.

Potato planters are most often classified according to their metering or feeding mechanism. Reference categories, based on operator labour requirements, refer to planters as manual, semi-automatic, or automatic (Jarvis 1978). Metering mechanisms are classified broadly as positive or non-positive mechanisms (Maunder 1983) depending on whether seed is individually selected and released or merely dispersed.

Early hand-fed planters required an operator for each row to select a potato from trays or bulk hoppers before dropping the seed down the planting tube. Planting rate was governed by ground speed and operator work rate.

Improvements to hand-fed units included conveyance devices with compartments that transferred seed to the soil surface at regular intervals. Spacing was a function of both operator efficiency and conveyance speed relative to ground speed.

Cup-type planters select seed from the seed reservoir with cups mounted on an endless chain or belt. As the belt or chain travels through the planting tube, seed is conveyed toward the soil surface on the back of the preceding cup. Early planters used steel cups while some recent models offer plastic cups and inserts to meet different sizing requirements. The cups on many early models were designed to pick up only one seed. In some models, a compensation mechanism was used to release seed when a miss was encountered. Later models had larger cups capable of picking

up more than one seed. Extra seed was displaced back to the seed reservoir with a removal device. Further developments included two to four rows of cups for each row planted. This allowed the belt to travel at slower speeds and resulted in superior metering performance. Spacing was determined by the speed of the belt or chain relative to ground speed.

Flat-belt planters direct the flow of seed from the hopper to a metering mechanism which feeds tubers onto a set of horizontal belts. The belts then discharge the tuber backwards onto the soil surface. Spacing proved to be a function of feed rate onto the belts and consistency of delivery.

Moulded-belt planters function in a similar manner to flat-belt planters. The belt consists of a series of moulded cups each capable of holding one tuber. Operators are required on the planter to ensure proper filling of cups.

Tuber unit planters combine both cutting and planting tasks. Belts travelling at different speeds align whole tubers before they are cut and then dispense the resulting pieces.

Pick-type planters usually have two vertically-mounted picker wheels for each row. The six to eight picker arms on a picker wheel each have a set of picks that pierce seed pieces as the arms rotate through the seed reservoir. When picker arms approach the planting tube, a cam activated stripper pushes the seed piece off the picks allowing the seed to fall down the planting tube and into the furrow.

Variation in pick length and arrangement offers some flexibility in accommodating different seed characteristics. Spacing is controlled by varying picker wheel speed relative to ground speed. A potential problem with this type of planter is the spread of disease from successive puncturing of seed pieces.

The new fully automatic Smallford Setronic potato planter developed by the Scottish Institute of Agricultural Engineering (Carruthers et al. 1984) combines many existing design concepts and adds microprocessor control to the seed delivery system. Plant spacing is push-button selected and achieved by microprocessor control of the hydraulic motor driving the planting belt in relation to ground speed. Three sets of belts are used for each row. A feed belt travels through the hopper in a direction perpendicular to the furrow filling the six moulded cups arranged across its width. The set of six seed tubers are then transferred intermittently onto a planting belt traveling toward the back of the planter. Each tuber falls into a separate flight on a planting belt and then is transferred to the point of release. Photo cells at the point of transfer between feed and planting belts detect empty cells which then are filled when make-up belts on the downstream side of the planting belt are activated. An infra-red detector above the make-up unit ensures that a tuber is available by indexing until a tuber is detected.

2.4.2 Safety

Safety concerns surrounding potato planters are focused on planter operators and their prescribed tasks. Semi-automatic planters require the operator for each row to pick and place the seed into the metering mechanism whereas automatic planters are more likely to have an operator standing on a rear mounted platform acting as a trouble-shooter and communication link to the tractor driver. In Murphy's (1980) unsafe behavior model, relationships between operator conditioning, rare event, and decision making are outlined. Operator conditioning relies on the principle of reinforcement. The belief that an accident will not occur encourages the operator to make the decision perceived to be of greatest utility. For the planter operator this could mean ensuring a constant seed feed by disrupting bridging action with a poke stick, or knocking doubles from metering elements, or perhaps by fishing stones from the seed reservoir bowl as the planter proceeds down the field. Prairie Agricultural Machinery Institute (PAMI) evaluation reports E1077 (1978a) and E1178A (1978b) both mention the importance of using a suitable poke stick to avoid injury to the operator.

Monitoring systems on field machinery enable operators to shift their attention away from simple tasks which can be tedious and time consuming. Design innovations "to improve the degree of personal safety during operation and application of products and materials" are part of the

agricultural engineer's responsibility (Davis 1980).

Electronic monitoring of problem areas would reduce the need for planter operators and, therefore, accidents are not as likely to occur.

2.5 Planting Operations

A majority of North American potato farms plant potato pieces cut from whole tubers using picker arm planters (Sieczka et al. 1986). The ability to perform at high-planting rates with a minimum-labour requirement accounts for the pick-type planter's popularity. Cup-type planters are gaining in popularity and are the planter of choice on most seed farms where disease control and regular planting patterns are critical. European producers prefer cup-type or belt-type planters to accommodate the planting of whole and, often, sprouted seed.

Date of planting varies between regions and years depending on soil moisture, soil temperature, and target market. Suggested minimum soil temperature at planting depth is 7°C (Andrew et al. 1976; Thornton and Sieczka 1980). Cold and wet conditions may contribute to seed piece decay and result in poor plant stands. Dates for planting in Alberta vary from early to late May depending on local conditions. High market prices for early crops provide incentives for producers to accept the risk of early planting and intensive management techniques.

Careful soil preparation is necessary to provide favorable growing conditions and facilitate ease of soil separation during harvest operations. Pre-planting cultivation is done just prior to planting. Cultivators with vertically rotating blades are often used because they have good depth control and provide the desired qualities of a fine textured seed bed with small aggregates (Poesse et al. 1973).

Insufficient planting depth results in tuber greening if tubers are exposed to sunlight. Suggested depth of planting is 80 to 130 mm below level ground (Andrew et al. 1976). If the height of the hill is considered, seed tubers should lay 150 to 200 mm below the top of the hill (Thornton and Sieczka 1980). Irregular depth control is often a problem with wide planters on hilly terrain.

From the farm management perspective, potato planting is noted for its slowness compared to other crops. The importance of planting rate is emphasized by the negative effect delayed planting has on yield. Increased planting rates enable machinery and labour to be reassigned to other seasonal demands. The higher potential output of modern planters requires that more attention be put to non-productive activities such as refilling the hopper (Jarvis 1978; Rowberry and Howells 1979). In Britain, traditional methods of filling the planter's seed hopper can account for up to 50 percent of planting time. Maunder (1983) studied seed handling systems in Great Britain. Seed

in bulk containers resulted in planter filling rates of 3-5 man-min/t whereas handling seed in trays took 10-20 man-min/t. North American filling practices usually make use of a self-unloading potato truck and a towed transfer conveyer mounted at right angles to the truck's direction of travel.

The labour force required to run a smooth planting operation is dependent on the capacity and labour demands of planting machinery together with the size and type of farm operation and management style. Shotton's (1976) evaluation of different types of potato planters mentions an association between planter type and labour usage. However, due to the diversity in management styles and labour costs, the type of planter did not determine labour requirements. If minimum labour requirements for the planter are considered clearly an advantage lies with larger, more automated planters.

2.6 Planter Performance

Concern over planter performance became firmly established when planter design shifted from hand-fed to automatic units. Sieozka et al. (1986) stated that "the primary reason for poor plant stands was the misplacement or failure to plant seed pieces." With increased work rates and faster planting speeds, new planter designs created questions about acceptable levels of irregular spacing and stimulated the investigation of performance factors. Maughan

(1973) saw performance data as a means to compare machines and as a reference point for decision making. According to Maughan, performance assessment should study the ability to segregate individual seeds from the seed reservoir and the suitability of soil-working parts. Maughan concludes "it is, however, unwise to study one of the aspects without due consideration of the other."

The approach to planter performance studies has evolved through the years. Studies by Pascal and Provan (1969), Jarvis and Palmer (1973) and Robertson and Pascall (1974), correlated planters and planter trials with yields. Although measures of planter performance were given, control over variations in planting, growing, and harvest phases of production were very difficult and results often were inconsistent or incomplete. Studies by Pascal and Langley (1971), Johnson and Vogt (1973), Carruthers (1975), Klassen (1977, 1980), Misener (1979, 1982), Likhyani et al. (1980), and Sieczka et al. (1986) used seed position in the furrow as a basis for performance comparisons. Knowing the pattern of seed distribution enabled yield response to be inferred from studies on growth response to spatial arrangement.

Halderson (1981) suggested a suitable approach for row-crop planter evaluation involving a separate analysis of metering and placement performance. Metering performance gives a measure of the metering mechanism's ability to engage a single seed at every opportunity whereas placement performance relates the effectiveness of seed transfer from

the planter to its intended resting point in the furrow. Hyde et al. (1979) and Hyde and Thornton (1980) collected metering performance data using stationary planters driven by a variable speed electric motor. The dynamics of seed placement were presented in a paper by Bufton et al. (1974). Andrew and Domier (1978) and Pitts and Hyde (1985) suggested that consideration should be given to an integrated view of the planting process where interactions between seed, planter, and planter operating conditions determine performance. Jarvis (1978) stated that "an awareness of the nature of the general problems associated with the potato crop is a necessary adjunct to the planning of any research and development project on the crop."

2.6.1 Irregular Seed Spacing

One of the traditional measures of planter performance is the uniformity of the planting pattern. Several different statistics and methods of assessing spacing uniformity appear in planter performance literature. These include the coefficient of variation (CV), partial frequency distributions based on intended spacing; a performance index based on performance limits, and graphical renditions of successive seed spacing. These measures are based on the distribution of spacings between successive seed pieces and thus are a combined measure of metering and placement performance.

2.6.1.1 Measures of Uniformity

Jarvis et al. (1976) noted that, with hand-fed and cup-type planters, gaps between plants had a normal distribution and, therefore, irregularity of spacing could be defined in terms of the standard error of mean spacing except when the degree of irregularity is high. and mean spacing is low. The standard deviation of a mean is often called the standard error (Steel and Torrie 1980). Jarvis et al. state further that assessments of crops planted at different mean spacings with the same planter suggested the standard error of the distribution of spacings varied with the mean spacing although this is not clearly established. However, other studies do not support the claim that the standard error of the spacing varies with mean spacing. For instance, Misener (1979) found that an increase in plant spacing decreased the frequency of doubles and skips for cup-type and pick-type planters. Likhyani et al. (1981) demonstrated that plant spacing did not significantly alter cup-type, and pick-type, planter performance.

If spacing errors do not necessarily vary with the mean spacing, then using the CV as a means of comparing performance trial results is invalid, unless, trials are conducted with identical plant spacings. This is so because the CV varies inversely with the sample's mean spacing. Therefore, larger spacing results in smaller

CVs, given a constant standard deviation of spacing. This point can be illustrated using data from Carruthers's (1975) planter trials. Both mean spacing and CV for planter trial runs are recorded. Knowing these statistics, the standard deviation of the spacing can be calculated using equation 2.2. For Pentland Dell graded to 32-37 mm, a spacing of 303 mm gave a CV of 37.5 percent and a standard deviation of 114 mm. However, an almost identical standard deviation of 112 mm at 390 mm spacing gave a CV of 29.2 percent. Although the standard error of seed placement is virtually identical for both trials, the CV indicates the 390 mm spacing is more uniform, and this is clearly not the case.

Performance studies by Misener (1979), Sieczka et al. (1986), Pascal and Robertson (1975), Pascal and Langley (1971), Carruthers (1975), and the Prairie Agricultural Machinery Institute (PAMI) (1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1979, 1980) also used CV as a measure of spacing uniformity.

Likhyani et al. (1980) and PAMI publications (1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1979, 1980) report irregular spacing as a frequency distribution using spacing categories. Four spacing categories are considered: doubles, singles, misses, and double misses. Likhyani et al. (1980) defined doubles as seed pieces less than half the intended spacing away from the preceding

piece, singles are between half and one half the intended spacing, misses occur at one and a half to twice the intended spacing, and double misses at greater than twice the intended spacing. Misener's (1979) definitions differ. A miss is defined as a gap equal to or greater than twice the intended spacing and a double as a gap less than 70 mm. Again, caution has to be exercised when using these statistics to compare planter trials with different plant spacing. In the definition of a single, the acceptable deviation from the mean will change by half the change in the intended spacing. Thus, larger intended spacings will have a greater number of single's and doubles and fewer misses and double misses. Likhyani et al. (1981) acknowledged this, stating that the difference between 59.9 percent singles for pick-type planters and 44.2 percent singles for cup-type planters can not be considered significant because different spacings were used. The definitions of the above-mentioned spacing categories are inconsistent in PAMI potato planter performance reports. This makes performance comparisons difficult.

A study conducted by Johnson and Vogt (1972) used a performance index to evaluate planters. This index penalized the planter for wrong spacing and delivery of more or less than the intended number of seed.

Unfortunately, the derivation of index values was not discussed.

Performance studies by Klassen (1977, 1980) give a graphical rendition of successive seed spacing. The pattern generated when the distance between seed pieces was plotted for consecutive seed pieces provided an effective method of illustrating placement pattern but is statistically inconclusive.

2.6.1.2 Accuracy Standards

Arbitrarily established standards for planting uniformity have been used to set acceptable limits to spacing variability. In Sweden, the recommended planting accuracy (Larsson 1986) allows for a maximum of 2 per cent gaps, 5 per cent doubles and a CV for plant spacing in the 20 to 40 per cent range. A CV of less than 40 percentois the acceptable level of seed placement uniformity in PAMI's (1978) evaluation reports. Johnson and Vogt (1973) suggested that 90 percent of seed should be within 76 mm of intended spacing and that 95 to 105 percent of the intended amount should be delivered. Of twelve planting. operations surveyed by Johnson and Vogt, not a single: operation met these standards. Experimental work by James et al. (1973) suggested that a seeding rate achieving a 90 percent or better plant stand is satisfactory.

2.6.1.3 Planter Type

Planters vary in their ability to maintain consistant plant spacing. Table 2.1 lists planter performance (CV), in the literature cited, according to planter type.

Pick-type planters tend to plant fewer doubles and at low spacings have less misses compared to cup-type planters (Misener 1979). Investigations by Shotton (1976) indicated that high delivery rates are possible with belt-type planters but often at the expense of greater variation in seed spacing. Jarvis and Palmer (1973) compared yields from cup-type and belt-type planters to hand-fed planters. Compared to hand-fed planters, Jarvis and Palmer (1973) found that cup-type planters reduced yields by 1.6 t/ha and, belt-type planters were associated with a 2.6 t/ha yield reduction.

2.6.1.4 Planting Speed

The effect of speed on row crop planting patterns varies with seed material and the type of metering mechanism (Hofman et al. 1986). An evaluation of 8 planters over 196 trial runs by Misener (1979) demonstrated that ground speeds from 4 to 8.8 km/h reduced accuracy of cup planters but pick-type planters did not exhibit the same sensitivity to speed. Averages from 64 trial runs conducted by Likhyani et al. (1981) supported these findings and although an increase in

Table 2.1 A review of potato planter performance according to planter type

Planter type	Seed type	CV:	‰) a∨erage	Source
Hand-fed	Whole	15-59	33.1	English Agricultural Development and Advisory Service (1975)
, ' 6. 0	Who le	20~30	·	Jarvis (1978)
Belt-type	Whole	55-86		Pascal and Langley (1975)
	Whole	20-30		Jarvis (1978)
Moulded-belt	•Whole	24-55	35,6	English Agricultural Development and Advisory Service (1975)
Flat-belt	Whole	29-90	46.9	English Agricultural Development and Advisory Service (1975)
Tuber-unit	Cut	48-71		Misener (1982)
Cup-type	Whole	15-41	33.1	English Agricultural Development and Advisory Service (1975)
	Whole	15-25		Jarvis (1978)
	Whole		`66.0	Prairie Agricultural Machinery Institute (PAMI), (1979)
	Cut	59-87		Misener (1979)
	Cut	•	64.0	PAMI (1979)
•	Cut		70.9	Likhyani et al. (1981)
Pick-type *	Whole	48-69	•	Sieczka et al. (1986)
	Cut		31.0_	PAMI (1978a)
	Cut	•	28.0	PAMI (1978b)
•	Cut	ist	38.0	PAMI (1978c)
•	Cut	55-69		Misener (1979)
	Cut		61.0	Likhyani et al. (1981)
<u> </u>	Cut	43-70	·	Sieczka et al. (1986)

speed from 5 km/h to 8 km/h was not significant, the number of singles increased by 2.2 percent for pick-type planters but decreased by 10.2 percent with cup-type planters. The pick-type planter's apparent performance improvement with higher speeds was attributed to the greater penetrating force exerted by the picks.

Laboratory studies by Hyde and Thornton (1980) reported that cup-type planters tend to deliver more than the intended number of pieces at low ground speeds. The pick-type planter examined by Hyde and Thornton showed no effect of speeds below 5 km/h but increasing the speed to 8 km/h resulted in a significant increase in seed spacing.

In planting trials conducted by Sieczka et al. (1986), three pick-type planters were observed at various ground speeds under 6.5 km/h. Although planter operation varied considerably, no distinct pattern emerged. One planter was tested for uniformity of spacing with whole seed. At 4.5 km/h, the CV was 48 percent but at 6.5 km/h the CV increased to 69 percent. This decrease in uniformity was attributed to seed bouncing off picker arms rather than being properly pierced and released.

A performance study on a belt-type planter using whole seed (Pascal and Langley 1971) indicated that increasing speeds from 7.2 to 10.4 km/h increased both

spacing CV and mean spacing. The belt-type planter developed by the Scottish Institute of Agricultural Engineering, as described by Carruthers (1975), was also reported to increase mean spacing at higher speeds.

2.6.1.5 Seed Size and Shape

Observations by Johnson and Vogt (1973) indicate that planter performance can be affected by the geometric characteristics of seed pieces, especially when using cup-type planters. The first description of cut seed piece shape related to planter performance appears in a study by Likhyani et al. (1981). Hand cut potato pieces, from Norland (round) and Russet Burbank (long) cultivars, weighing 40 g and 60 g had shapes described as end pieces or center cuts.

Most performance studies describe seed as whole or cut and if cut, whether cut by hand or by machine. Studies which fail to give an accurate account of seed characteristics included Klassen (1977; 1980), and the 1968 and 1969 trials reported by Sieczka et al. (1986). In trials conducted during 1970 and 1971, Sieczka et al. (1986) recognized the importance of controlling seed size and used hand-cut tuber pieces weighing 57 g. Johnson and Vogt (1973) used seed pieces weighing greater than 56 g and acknowledged that size and shape of seed pieces had an undetermined influence on their results. Hyde et al. (1979) gave a tuber mean weight of

36.4 g and noted seed was smaller than desired for cup-type planter trials. Mean weight and standard deviation of cut seed are given by Hyde and Thornton (1980) as 42 g and 18 g. Misener (1982) gave a description of seed pieces used for each planter tested. Mean weights ranged from 33.1 g to 50.1 g and standard deviation ranges from 12.0 to 17.6.

Carruthers (1975) categorized whole seed according to cultivar shape (flat round, oval, long oval) and grade (32-44 mm; 44-57 mm; and 32-57 mm). Pascal and Langley (1971) used tubers graded either to 34-42 mm or 42-51 mm and describe cultivar shape as round or long-oval.

The PAMI potato planter evaluation reports E1077 (1978a), E1178A (1978b), and E1178B (1978c) use seed with an average weight of 40.0 g. PAMI report number E0579 (1979) deals with cut and whole seed with an average weight of 60 g. In PAMI report E0480 (1980), average cut seed weight—was 70 g. All PAMI trials used Russet Burbank potatoes.

Misener (1982) noted the importance of matching seed piece and cup sizes on cup-type planters after observing a decrease in misses and doubles with larger seed. A pick-type planter's level of spacing uniformity appeared to be not as sensitive to seed size. Tuber unit planters produced more misses when planting large whole tubers. Likhyani et al.'s (1981) investigation on

the effect of seed piece size and shape found no significant difference in performance between 40 g and 60 g seed pieces. The shape of seed piece proved to be highly significent with end cut pieces averaging 59.8 percent singles as opposed to 43.8 percent for center cut pieces. Both Klenin et al. (1985) and Pitts and Hyde (1985) stated that irregular seed placement is greater for seed pieces with non-uniform size distributions.

Effect of whole seed size on spacing uniformity with belt-type planters was proven to be insignificant by Carruthers (1975). Pascal and Langley (1971) also reported that whole tuber shape had no apparent effect on mean spacing for belt-type planters. Misener (1982) suggested that accuracy of seed placement improves in cup and pick-type planters when planting whole seed. In Siecczka et al.'s (1986) planting trials, whole seed. tubers planted with a a pick-type planter gave the best seeding rate but also resulted in the least uniform seed distribution pattern. The seed shape and planting speed interaction is discussed futher in section 2.6.4 under placement performance.

2.6.2 Seeding Rate

The ability to deliver the desired amount of seed over a given area is more important than the uniformity of seed spacing (Sieczka *et al.* 1986). Seed rate (t/ha) can be used

to measure a planters ability to meet the desired seed spacing if the average seed size is known.

Factors such as wheel slip on drive wheels, large numbers of misses and doubles, broken or damaged metering elements, and bridging action in the hopper or feed mechanism all contribute to deviations from desired seed rate. Consequently, the actual average seed spacing often differs from the intended spacing. Theoretical seeding rate is defined by equation 2.11 given by Hunt (1986).

$$P = \frac{10,000 \text{ N R}}{2 \pi \text{ r} (1-\text{s}) \text{ w}} \qquad ... (2.11)$$

where P

P = the number of seed pieces/ha N = the number of metering elements per revolution of the metering mechanism

R = the ratio of revolutions of the metering mechanism for every revolution of the drive wheel

r = effective radius of drive wheel (m)

s = drive wheel slippage (decimal)

w = effictive row width (m)

The actual seeding rate can be calculated by multipling the theoretical seeding rate by the ratio of successful metering events to total metering events.

The results from planting surveys by Sieczka (1986) and Klassen (1980) indicated that actual seed spacing was 40 mm greater than intended. The five PAMI potato planter evaluation reports (1978a, 1978b, 1978c, 1979, 1980) report average spacing deviated from the 460 mm intended spacing by 30, -20, 5, -10, 15 mm. All but one evaluation indicated that average spacing increased with speed. Hyde et al. (1979) noted that mean seed spacing increased with speed. lower picker bowl levels and location of picks closer to the picker wheel. The plant stand surveys discussed in section 2.2.1.1 lend support to the fact that seed application rates are generally lower than intended.

2.6.3 Metering Performance.

If factors contributing to irregular planting patterns are partitioned according to planter function, then a separate analysis of metering and placement performance is in order. Expressing metering performance as a function of metering rate is quite acceptable, however, relating metering performance in terms of ground speed means little without stating levels of other significant planting parameters.

reported in the literature cited. Burema et al. (1975) used a moving sticky belt below a mounted precision planter to gather spacing data. Slow motion 16 mm movies were used by Sieczka et al. (1986) to observe the planting process. Hyde et al. (1979) used a photo cell and light source at the drop chute to detect a falling seed. A 16 lobed cam was attached to the picker wheel drive shaft such that each passing picker arm closed a cam-switch. Electrical pulses from both sensors were connected to a chart recorder allowing metering

statistics to be collected.

material is of primary importance to regular seed delivery. Pick arrangement was determined to be significant by Hyde et al. (1979). The three different pick arrangements studied produced deviations from the intended spacing of -9.0 mm, 6.7 mm, and 23.2 mm. Johnson and Vogt (1973) found a three-pick arrangement to deliver 97 percent of intended seed compared to 88 percent for a two pick arrangement. Klenin et al. (1985) found that optimal clearance between picker spoons and the side plate of the feed hopper depended on the mass of the seed tuber. Clearance between the outer edge of the metering elements and the bottom of the feed hopper influence the amount of seed piece damage. Recommended clearance values were 3-5 mm.

Hyde and Thornton (1980) examined sprocket and roller idlers and three different idler spring tensions on cup-type planters. Both idler types delivered less seed as spring tension was increased. This was especially evident with the sprocket idler, which agitated the cup chain more vigorously.

The level of seed in the seed reservoir showed a positive correlation with the amount of seed delivered per unit time (Hyde et al. 1979; Hyde and Thornton 1980). Klenin et al. (1985) suggest that a seed depth 100 to 150 mm in the seed reservoir is needed to meet the metering demand and avoid excessive seed damage caused by higher levels.

The value of applying the kinematics of planting units to planter design is stressed by Bufton et al. (1974) as he states "where a forward speed is required which achieves an acceptable rate of work, optimization of the seed release conditions is only likely to be achieved by specific drill design to overcome the problems posed by metering mechanisms being unable to satisfactorily meter seeds at higher peripheral speeds."

2.6.4 Placement Performance

Seed displacement after impact with the soil surface depends on the nature of the soil surface, weight and shape of the seed piece, impact velocity, and impact angle (Bufton et al. 1974). Although an analysis of placement performance for seed potato pieces does not appear in the literature cited, sugar beet seed was among the seeds investigated by Bufton et al.

The interaction between seed velocity and the angle of impact indicated greater seed displacement with lower impact angles (relative to the soil surface) and higher seed velocities. Angles of impact above 40° resulted in a progressive decrease in mean seed displacement to a minimum which occurred between 75-80° for all seeds studied (Bufton et al. 1974). Lower angles of impact increased seed displacement, especially for spherical seeds and heavier irregular shaped seeds. Seed roll was more prevalent on packed versus sheared soil surfaces.

The horizontal component of seed velocity is the main factor behind seed piece roll and is equal to the horizontal component of the metering mechanism's peripheral velocity and the velocity of the planter. Pascal et al. (1977) substantiate the problem of greater seed piece roll at high planting speeds. If the soil working parts of the planting mechanism were designed to trap the seed piece at the point of impact, seed roll would be negligeable.

The kinematics of picker planting units, as presented by Klenin et al. (1985), are used to relate design parameters to field operating conditions. The kinematic index is defined by Klenin et al. (1985) as the ratio of the linear velocity at the extreme point of the metering mechanism to the speed of the machine (equation 2.12).

$$\lambda = \frac{u}{v} = \frac{2 \pi R}{z s}$$
 ... (2.12)

where λ = kinematic index

u = linear velocity at extreme point

ommetering mechanism

v = ground speed of the planter

R = length of planter arm z = number of metering elements

plant spacing

For a given spacing and planter speed, the number of cups or picker arms on the metering mechanism can be selected using the kinematic index. Ideally the kinematic index assumes a value of -1. In this case the horizontal velocity of the

metering mechanism at the point of release is equal and opposite to the speed of the planter, thus, the horizontal component of seed velocity is zero. This condition minimizes the tendency of seed pieces to roll upon impact with the soil.

2.7 Planter Monitoring and Instrumentation

The production of agricultural commodities depends on the efficient use of resources. As critical resources become more expensive, producers need to assess alternatives and determine the implications of altering the production system (Smith et al. 1985; Holt and Schoorl 1985).

A historical review of instrumentation on agricultural equipment by Wilson (1983) noted that, until recently, this subject had gone virtually unnoticed and was not particularly well documented. The evolution of planter instrumentation and monitoring systems were given as examples of progress in this field. Mechanical switches activated by falling seed have now been replaced by infra-red light emitting diodes, photo transistors and magnetic and capacitive proximity sensors. Analogue circuits are now often supplemented with digital circuitry. Flashing lamps, needle gauges, and warning buzzers are no longer the exclusive means of indicating machine performance. Ongoing and user-requested performance levels now can be transmitted to the operator through an array of output devices which include alphanumeric displays.

Modern monitoring and control systems are based on microprocessor ability to analyse a series of events over a period of time: Wilkins (1979) discussed microprocessor control of precision planters.

Thornton et al. (1983) assert that an optimal set of planting parameters are difficult to identify considering the combinations of planter operating conditions and the variable nature of potato growth response. Performance feedback was identified as a means of encouraging satisfactory performance levels. PAMI evaluation report no. E0579 (1979) recommended that manufacturers provide the option of a planting monitor to accommodate the needs of a one-person potato planting operation. A microprocessor controlled modified belt-type potato planter developed by Carruthers et al. (1984) used an array of photo cells to detect and replace empty cells with potatoes from a secondary delivery system.

Other examples of electronic assistance in potato planting operations include seed flow and hopper level indicators (PAMI 1980), a microprocessor assisted system for grading potatoes (Carlow 1983), and an automatic load control system for conveyors (Hyde.et al. 1983).

3. ASSESSMENT OF PICK-TYPE PLANTER METERING ERRORS

3.1 Objective

The objective of this experiment was to determine how metering rate, and seed piece size and shape, affect metering performance of pick-type planters.

3.2 Equipment and Experimental Facilities

University of Alberta's Agricultural Engineering Research Station at Ellerslie.

A McConnell 555 single-row, ground driven pick-type planter (Figure 3.1), manufactured by McConnell Mfg. Co. Inc., Prattsburg, New York, formed the experimental unit. The pick-type metering mechanism had a picker wheel with sixteen picker arms. Each picker arm had two steel picks (Figure 3.2) that pierced seed pieces as the picker wheel rotated through the seed reservoir. Seed was released by the cam-activated stripper device on each arm.

The data collection system consisted of an IBM Personal Computer, a Datataker model DT100 data logger manufactured by Data Electronics (Aust.) Pty Ltd. and a sensor system capable of detecting successful and unsuccessful metering events. Picker wheel action and sensor positioning are illustrated in Figure 3.3.

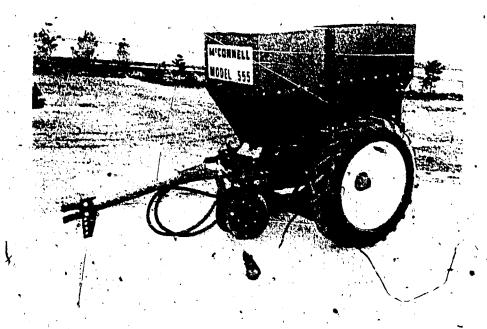


Figure 3.1 McConnell 555 bick-type planter

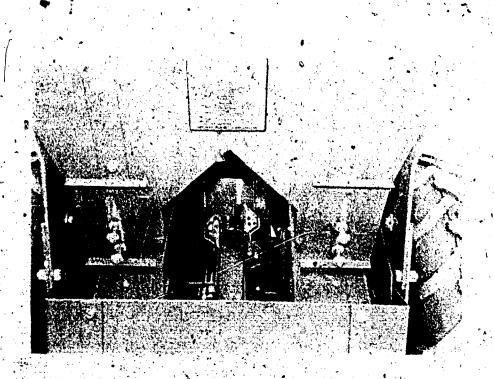


Figure 3.2 Pick-type metering mechanism

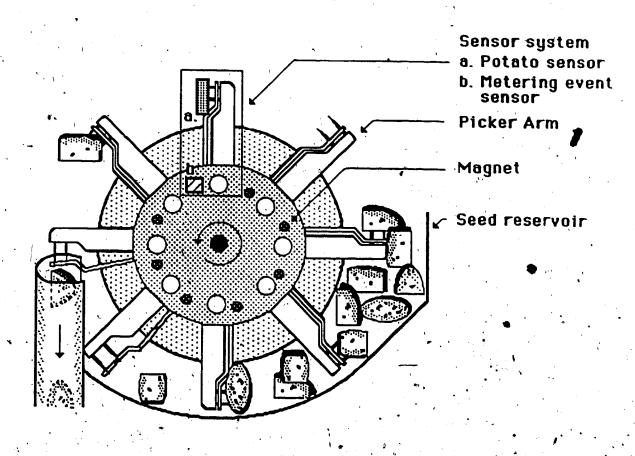


Figure 3.3 Picker-wheel action and sensor positioning

3.3 Experimental Procedure

A total of 105 laboratory metering trials were conducted using a McConnell pick-type planter, mounted on blocks and powered by a variable speed electric motor. Two experiments were conducted. The first experiment assessed metering performance of cut seed using a 3 x 3 x 2 factorial experimental design (randomized complete block, with five replications). Three metering rates were investigated in combination with three seed piece shapes and two seed piece sizes. Moderate to high metering rates were chosen with 3, 6, and 9 plants/s representing field speeds of 3.8, 7.6, and 11.4 km/h at 30 cm plant spacing. Seed shapes and sizes were chosen to be representative of seed found on Alberta potato farms. Shapes having one, two, or three cut surfaces were investigated in combination with seed sizes of 45 g and 60 g.

The experimental layout for whole seed metering trials was based on a single criterion of classification for groups of data with equal replication. Metering performance of 50-100 g whole seed at metering rates of 3, 6, and 9 plants/s was determined.

3.3.1 Seed Preparation

Whole Russet Burbank seed tubers with a mean weight of 178 g and a standard deviation of 68.7 g were hand cut into 6 seed lots weighing 45 kg (±5 kg). Each seed lot represented a seed shape and size combination. A seventh

seed lot weighing 45 kg (± 2.5 g) consisted of whole tubers between 50 g and 100 g. Seed piece shapes are described as 1-cut, 2-cut, or 3-cut to reflect the number of cut surfaces as illustrated in Figure 3.4 (a). Figure 3.4 (b) shows the portion of the parent tuber from where seed pieces of a particular shape originated. Seed piece shapes were cut to 45 g and 60 g (± 2.5 g) sizes bringing the number of seed lot treatments to 6. Each whole seed tuber and the resulting pieces were individually weighed with a scale having accuracy to 0.1 g. Seed dimensions defined as variables in equation 2.8 (Pitts and Hyde (1985)) were measured with an accuracy of ± 2.5 mm.

3.3.2 Planter Preparation and Instrumentation

The planter was mounted on blocks and the wheels were removed. A sprocket and chain drive assembly with a 5:1 reduction ratio was installed between the drive wheel hub and the output shaft of a 10:1 reduction gear box powered by a 0.75 kW variable speed electric motor (model 280-01154, Leeson) rated between 0 and 1750 rpm. A baffle board was placed below the point of seed release to deflect falling seed into a collection box used to recycle seed for metering trial replications.

Metering errors were detected using a dual-sensor, event-triggered system. Sensor system positioning and mode of operation are illustrated in Figures 3.3 and 3.5. A modulated infrared through-beam photoscanner (model MCS-651,

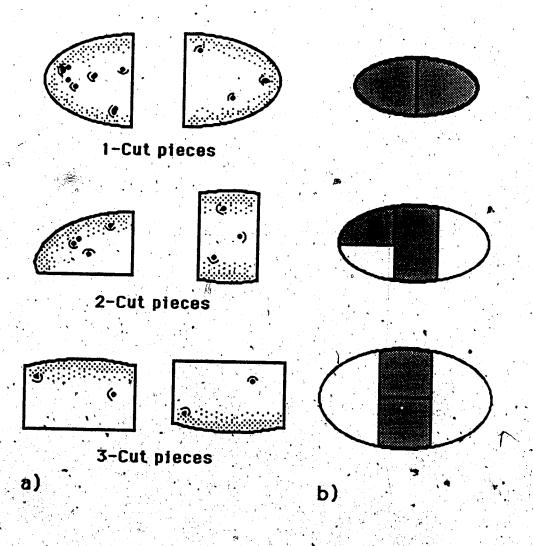


Figure 3.4 Cut seed attributes a) Seed piece shape b) Seed portion

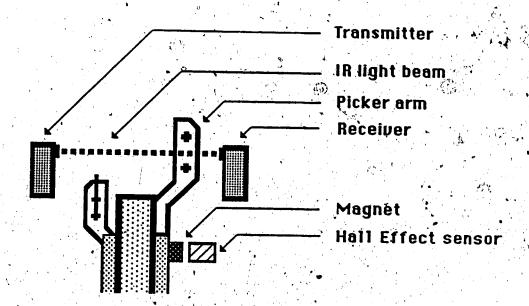


Figure 3.5 Sensor system

Warner Electric, Marengo, IL.) functioned as the potato sensor and was mounted so that the light beam intersected the plane of picker wheel rotation at right angles and passed halfway between the two picks on the picker arm. Permanent ceramic magnets 13 mm in diameter and 7 mm thick were bonded to the base of each picker arm, with the south pole facing outward, along a line extending from the mid point of the pick's length to the picker wheel hub. A Sprague 3019T Hall Effect switch (metering event sensor) was positioned so the leading edge of a passing magnet would create a pulse indicating the occurrence of a metering event at precisely the moment that picks on the picker arm passed through the potato sensor's light beam. A gap of 4 mm between the metering event sensor and the magnet gave very precise metering event signals. The sensitivity of the metering sensor was improved by bonding another magnet's north pole to a 5 mm thick plastic spacer which in turn was fixed to the back of the metering event sensor. This arrangement concentrated the magnetic field surrounding the Hall Effect switch and allowed the metering signals to be triggered from a greater distance.

Both the metering event sensor and the potato sensor were connected to the data logger which in turn was connected to the IBM PC. An on-off toggle switch (data log switch) completed the data acquisition circuit. Section 4.2,12 contains further sensor system discussion and Appendix E9 and E10 provide sensor circuit diagrams.

3.3.3 Collection of Metering Data

After a randomly chosen seed lot was placed in the seed hopper, data logging instructions were sent from the IBM PC to the data logger. Once the variable speed electric motor was set to the desired metering rate, a contact tachometer. (Tak-Elete, model 1707, Power Instruments Inc.) was used to confirm picker wheel speed. Logging of metering data commenced when the data log switch was engaged. As the magnets on passing metering elements signalled metering events, logic circuitry on the light sensor was polled to determine if a potato piece was engaged (beam broken - logic 1) or if a metering error had occurred (beam intact - logic 0). Logic voltages then were logged. Any bridging action that threatened to disrupt the flow of seed was broken up with a stick, to ensure a constant feed rate. After a minimum of 100 metering events the data log switch was disengaged. Metering data was transferred from the data logger to a data file on disk and then the hopper and seed reservoir were emptied. This procedure was repeated for five replications of seed lot treatments.

3.3.4 Data Analysis'

Seed piece data were analysed to determine the cut and skin surface areas as defined by equations 2.9 and 2.10 (Pitts and Hyde (1985)). The ratio of cut surface area to skin surface area gives a continuous measure of cut seed attributes as opposed to the number of cut surfaces which

provides a discrete but less effective characterization of seed material.

A metering data analysis program written in BASICA (Appendix A) was used in conjunction with an IBM PC to analyse data files. The first three data points in each file were disregarded to eliminate inconsistency which may have resulted when the data logger was engaged. Each line in the data file contained a "1" or a "0" which represented either a successful or unsuccessful metering event. The total number of metering events and the number of successful and unsuccessful metering events were determined. A distribution of consecutive metering errors was established by recording the number of consecutive misses preceding each successful metering event.

3.4 Experimental Results and Discussion

Sensor positioning effects were not verified beyond comparing the observed metering performance and the metering error indication (a light emitting diode (LED) on the data acqusition circuit). Errors were more prevalent at lower metering rates. The overestimation of metering errors could have been avoided had the potato sensor been positioned to intersect the plane of pick rotation at the tip of the picks upon a metering event signal, rather than half way down the length of the pick.

No indication of sensor system malfunction was evident j for over 20,000 recorded metering events.

3.4.1 Seed Piece Attributes .

Seed piece dimensions were analysed to determine the seed piece volume (equation 2.8), cut surface area (equation 2.9), and the skin surface area (equation 2.10) as defined by Pitts and Hyde (1985). Unfortunately dimensions recorded with ±2.5 mm accuracy did not predict seed piece weight accurately as determined by the product of predicted seed piece volume and the potato's specific gravity. Consequently cut and skin surface area calculations were of little value.

3.4.2 Metering Results

A summary of cut and whole seed metering trial results are presented in Table 3.1 (Summary of Appendix B1 and B2 respectively). Metering performance was measured in terms of metering errors or the percent of total metering events which were unsuccessful. Table 3.2 (summary of Appendix B3) and Table 3.3 (summary of Appendix B4) sets out the distribution of consecutive metering errors, expressed as a percentage of total metering errors, for cut and whole seed respectively.

3.4.2.1 Relation of Seed Shape to Metering Errors

The analysis of variance presented in the ANOVA in Table 3.4 indicated metering rates, and cut seed shape and size, were significant at p = 1 percent. Of the first-order interactions, metering rate x shape and metering rate x size interactions also proved to be significant at p = 1 percent but the seed shape x size

Table 3-1 Metering performance summary

Percent of metering events which were unsuccessful *						
Seed attri	outes		Meter	ring rate (plant	s/s)	
Size (ģ)	Shape		3.0	€ 6.0	9.`0	
45	1-cut 2-cut 3-cut	and the second	26.6 29.7 25.9	27.0 22.4 11.4	31.6 .13.4 10.1	
60	1-cut 2-cut 3-cut		63.0 38.7 28.3	31.5 24.3 16.1	16.5 21.2 15.9	
50-100	whole		55.4	30.8	14.0	

^{**} Average for 5 replications (minimum of 100 metering events for each replication)

Table 3.2 Distribution of consecutive metering errors for cut seed

Percent of	total	events which were unsuccessful *							
	1		on: 3 {	secutive m			ors.	9	ίο
Metering ra	te								
3 plants/s 6 plants/s - 9 plants/s	12.4	5.2 2	. 0	0.6 0.4	0.1	0.0	0:0	0.4 0.0 0.0	0.4 0.0 0.0
Seed shape									
1-cut 2-cut 3-cut	13.5	5.6 2	. 8	1.9 1.2 1.5 0.3 0.8 0.5	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.4 0.0 0.0
Seed size	•								
45 g 60 g	12.7 11.8	3.7 1 6.8 3	. 9 . 3	0.6 0.2 2.2 1.	2 0 1 0 8	0.2 0.9	0.0 0.1	0.0	0.0 0.3

* Average for 5 replications (minimum of 100 metering events for each replication)

Table 3.3 Distribution of consecutive metering errors for 🗢 whole seed.

Percent of	total metering	events which we	re.unsuccessful * 🔆
	Con	secutive metering	i errors
	1 2 3	4 5 6	7 8 9 10
Metering ra	re		
3 plants/s	11.1 12.5 9.0	9.0 4.3 5.0	0.8 1.1 1.1 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
6 plants/s	14.9; 7.1 5.4	2.7 0.6 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
9 plants/s	10.7 2.6 1.5	0.3 0.2 0.2	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0

* Average for 5 replications (minimum of 100 metering events for each replication) interaction proved to be insignificant. The lack of significance of the seed shape and size interaction, when compared to the high levels of significance shown from other sources of experimental error, suggested that seed shape and size affect metering performance in an independent manner. The only second-order interaction (metering rate x shape x size) was significant at the p = 5 percent level. Metering rate for whole seed was established to be significant at the p = 1 percent level as summarized in the ANOVA in Table 3.5.

Metering errors tended to decrease as the number of cut surfaces increased, or as seed pieces became more blocky. This trend is illustrated in Figure 3.6 and may be due to a greater probability of a flat surface presenting itself simultaneously to both picks at an angle normal to the penetrating force. Seed pieces with rounded surfaces (eg. 1-cut pieces) laying near the picker wheel tend to project the seed's center of gravity away from the pick's path, and thus decreases the probability of a successful metering event. The possibility of only one pick penetrating potato flesh also is enhanced. Consequently some seeds became disengaged before reaching the planting tube.

An in-depth analysis of seed shape effects on metering performance revealed a distribution of consecutive metering errors favoring the performance of

Table 3.4 Analysis of variance for cut seed metering trials.

Source of variation	df	S S	MS	F
Blocks r-	1 = 4	7,353	1,838	. 57.1 **
A = Shape a- B = Metering rate b-	· —,	3,268 4,865	1,634	50.5 ** 75.5 **
C = Size c-	1 = 1	905	905	28.1 ≱*€
AB (a-1)(b3.1 AC (a-1)(c-1		2,192 70	548	17.0 **
BC , (b-1)(c-1		1,094	35 547	17.0 **
ABC (a-1)(b-1)(c-1 Error (r-1)(abc-1		342 2,399	86 32	2.7`*
Total	89	22.488		

Table 3.5 Analysis of variance for whole seed metering trials

Source o	f.variat	ion		df	, SS	MS	F
Among me Within m	tering r	ates	, t-1	= 2	4,313	3 2,157	7 · 216 **
Within m	etering (rates	t(r-1)	= 12	117	/ 10)
Total				14	4,430)	

significant at p = 0.01 significant at p = 0.05

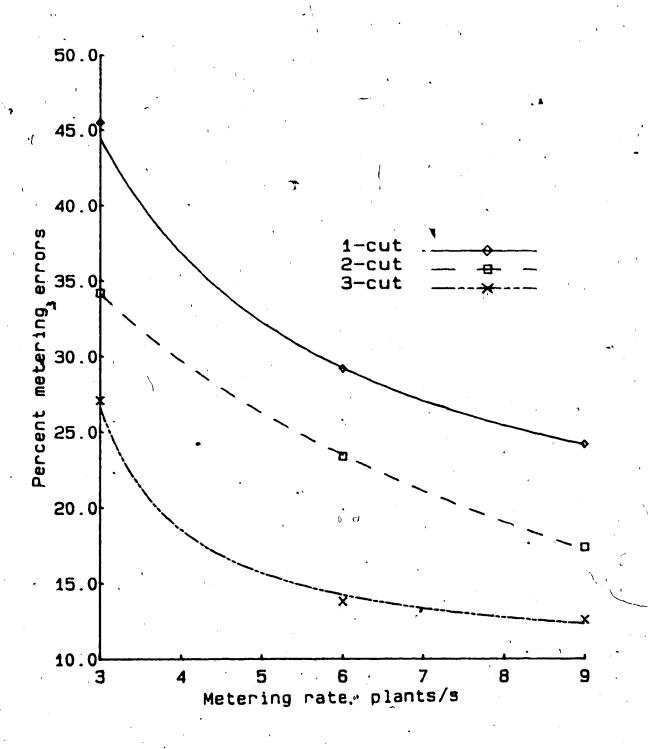


Figure 3.6 Seed shape effect on metering performance

3-cut pieces (Figure 3.7). The frequency of consecutive metering errors was consistently lower for 3-cut pieces when compared to 2-cut and 1-cut pieces.

3.4.2.2 Relation of Seed Size to Metering Errors

Results indicate the larger (60 g) seed performed poorly at 3 plants/s when compared to the 45 g seed. However, metering errors for each size were comparable above metering rates of 6 plants/s (Figure 3.8). The explanation for this trend is, simply, that larger and heavier seed tends to fall off the picks easier than smaller and lighter seed, especially when pick penetration is shallow. Poor performance of larger and heavier seed is partially due to an unbalanced distribution of seed weight on the picks which may lead to premature seed release.

Figure 3.9 presents the distribution of consecutive metering errors for both 45 g and 60 g seed. Aside from the one consecutive metering error category, 45 g pieces had fewer continuous misses.

3.4.2.3 Relation of Metering Rate to Metering Errors

Metering rate had the most distinct influence on metering performance. On average, cut seed metering errors were 35, 22, and 18 percent for planting rates of 3, 6, and 9 plants/s'respectively. Figures 3.6, 3.8, and 3.9 illustrate the correlation between higher metering rates and fewer metering errors. Faster picker

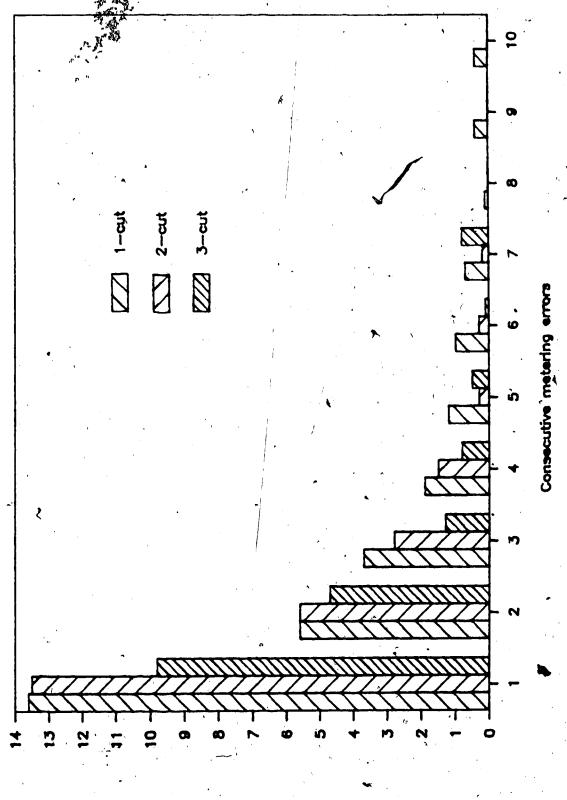


Figure 3.7 Consecutive metering error distribution for seed shape

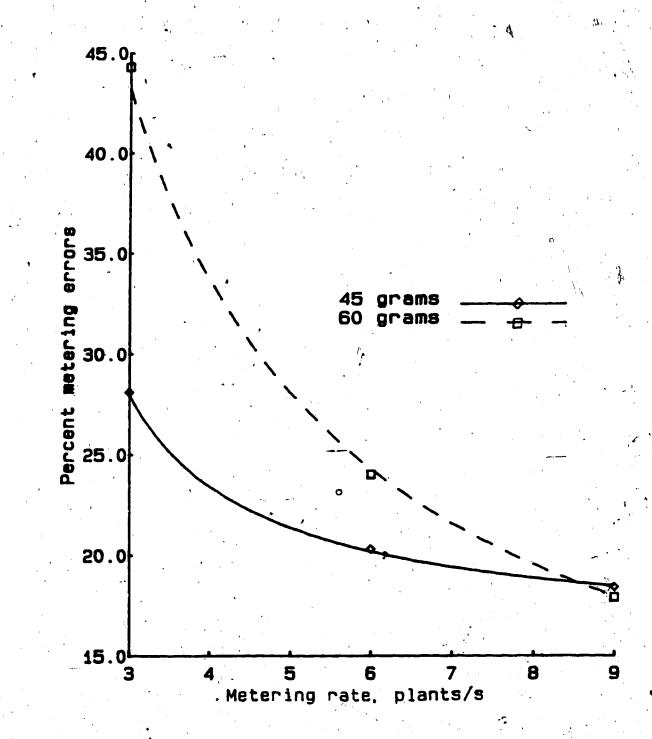


Figure 3.8 Seed size effect on metering performance

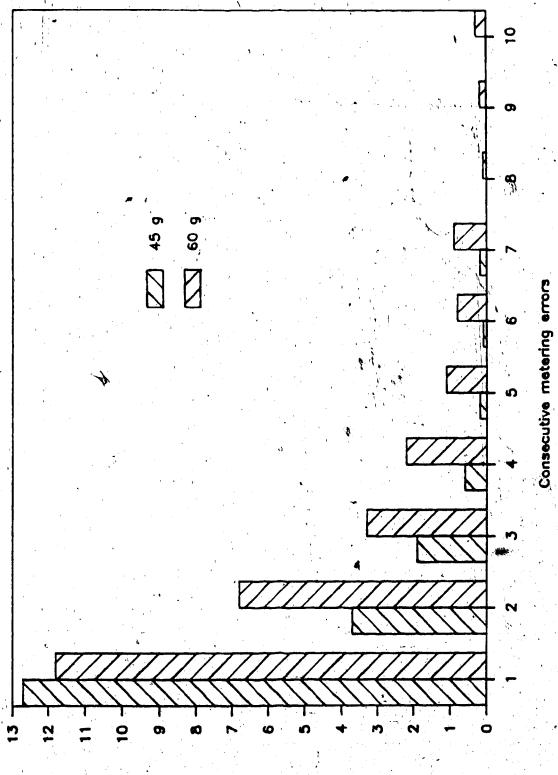
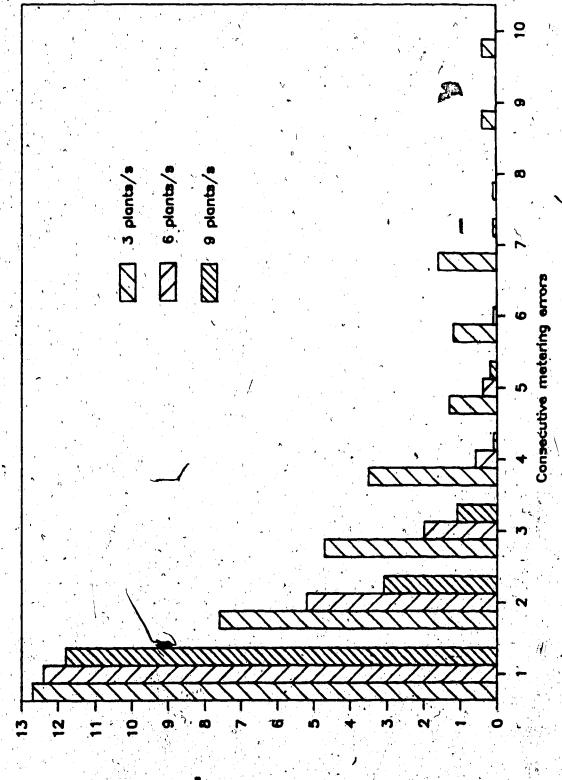


Figure 3.9 Consecutive metering error distribution for seed size

wheel velocity increased the penetration force exerted by the picks and resulted in a deeper and more secure engagement of the seed piece. The consecutive metering error distribution for all cut seed trials is summarized in Figure 3.10 and clearly shows a consistent improvement in metering performance as metering rate increased.

The analysis of variance for whole seed trials presented in Table 3.5 indicates that the metering rate is a significant factor for metering performance. Whole seed metering errors decreased as metering rate; increased. However, metering rate effects are more pronounced for whole seed versus cut seed (Figure 3.11). The exceptionally high value of 55.4 percent metering errors at 3 plants/s was caused by insufficient penetration of the relatively heavy potatoes (50 to 100 g) which led to many premature releases. A similar situation was observed on high speed film by Sieczka et al (1986). This appears to support the significance of the metering rate x size interaction for cut seed.

The consecutive miss distribution for whole seed in Figure 3.12 provides a more detailed assessment of whole seed performance.



Metering rate effect on consecutive metering error distrabution for cu



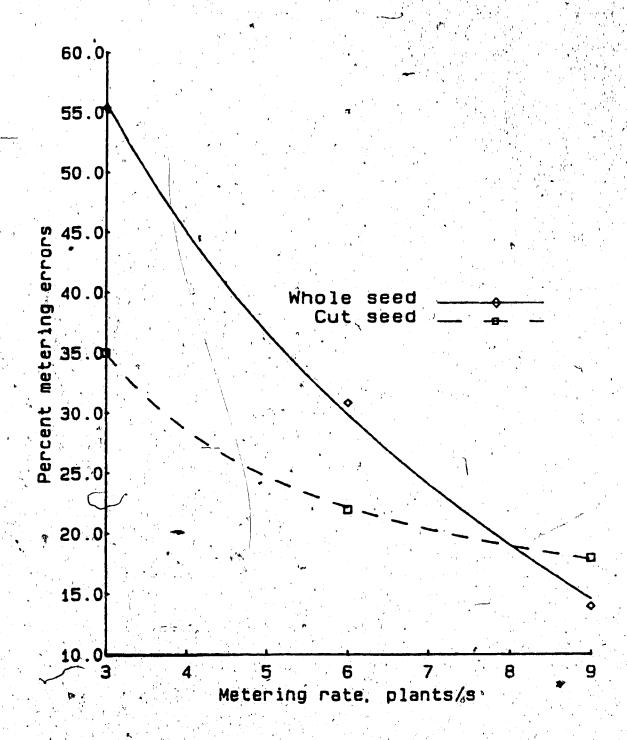


Figure 3.11 Metering performance of whole verses cut seed

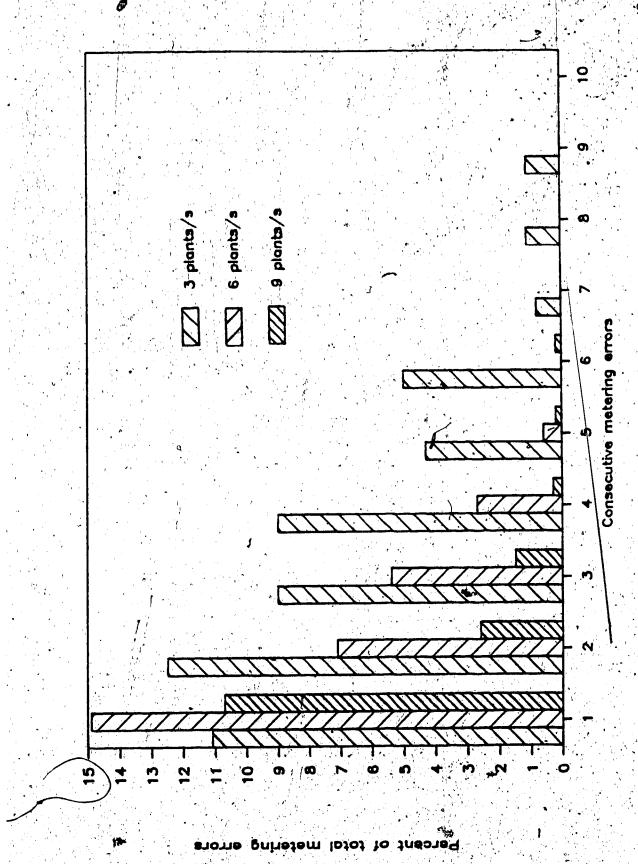


Figure 3.12 Metering rate effects on consecutive metering error distribution for whole seed

4 POTATO PLANTER MONITOR

4.1 Introduction

Although growers realize that potato seed attributes and planter operating conditions affect planter performance, a reliable means of accurately assessing performance in the field does not seem to exist. Today, operators are still seen riding on the planter to ensure adequate performance. Although this raises safety concerns, operator supervision provides a means of detecting mechanical problems as they occur and enables visual performance assessment. One-person planting operations have used elaborate mirror systems to monitor performance with some success. However, direct awareness of cup and pick-type planter performance could be possible through a monitoring system. The planter monitoring process, illustrated in Figure 4.1, encourages growers and planter operators to improve planter performance by avoiding undesirable interactions between seed potatoes, the planter and operating conditions.

4.1.1 Objective

The objective of this chapter is to discuss the design and development of a potato planter monitoring system capable of providing performance feedback to operators.

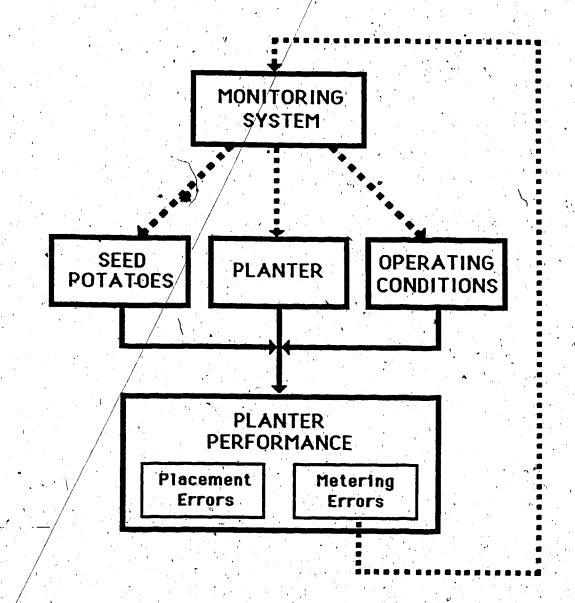


Figure 4.1 The potato planter monitoring process

4.1.2 Design Criteria

Improving potato planter performance has been a priority in the potato machinery industry for the last fifteen years. From the discussion on the effect of population density in section 2.2.1, the avoidance of consecutive metering errors caused, either by a disruption of seed flow, or an incompatibility within the planting operation, is more important than the accuracy of seed placement.

Gauthier (1985) assessed requirements of intelligent field management information systems in two main categories: functional and informational requirements. Functional requirements included: maintaining data consistency and validity, ability to handle a variety of information sources and transmission methods; the ability to adapt to the surrounding environment, and provision for displaying the information contained in memory. Information requirements were subdivided into attributive and historic categories: Field management information systems also need a means of altering system attributes in order to maintain system flexibility.

An accurate information base can be maintained only so long as correct information is received from the sensors. Indication of sensor malfunction alleviates the likelihood of erroneous information that may lead to performance degradation, equipment damage or safety hazards. Tylee (1986) presented a model-based approach to instrument

failure detection.

Considering the requirements and limitations of the potato planting process, the following monitor design criteria were put forth:

- Immediate visual indication of consecutive metering errors for each row.
- 2. Intermittent visual display of planter performance statistics for each row.
- 3. Visual indication of drive train and sensor malfunction.
- 4. Audio indication of defectivé metering elements.
- 5. Compatibility with cup and pick-type planters.
- 6. Efficient operation under field conditions.

The monitoring system developed from these criteria was tested under simulated conditions in the laboratory.

Unfortunately a field prototype was not tested. However section 4.6 outlines some design details worth considering should further monitor development take place.

4.2 Hardware

The potato planter monitor's circuit consists of three distinct parts: the microprocessor board, the sensor system, at the display unit. For field applications, each planter row has a sensor system mounted in the appropriate position with shielded power and input/output wires leading to a sensor junction module on the planter. Details of sensor system operation, as discussed in section 3.3.2, should be

understood in order to appreciate the following discussion.

figure 4.2 illustrates how monitoring system modules function in relation to one another. The monitor module in the tractor cab contains the microprocessor board, display unit and input devices used to select the monitor's mode of operation. Sensor signals, from each row, are relayed through the junction module to the monitor module. The tractor's twelve volt electrical system provides an independent power supply to the monitor module and the junction module.

Four sources or performance feedback are available from the display unit (Figure 4.3). Each vertical array of LEDs corresponds to one of the planter's metering mechanisms. The four yellow metering LEDs operate in a up-down fashion to indicate the number of consecutive misses that have occurred in the last four metering events. The top and bottom status LEDs are red and indicate potato sensor and metering event sensor malfunction respectively. The bottom status LED also serves as a drive train malfunction indicator. A green row-select LED was positioned between the malfunction indicators to indicate the row corresponding to the statistics on the alphanumeric display. One of five performance statistics can be displayed on the single line, sixteen character liquid crystal display unit (LCD). The buzzer, mounted on the back of the display unit, serves to indicate a defective metering element.

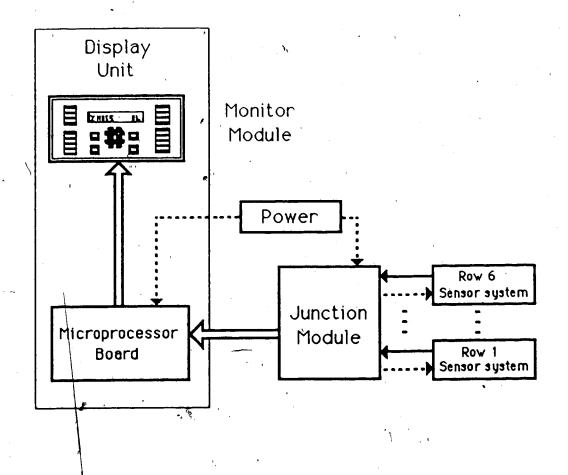


Figure 4.2 Block diagram for potato planter monitor modules

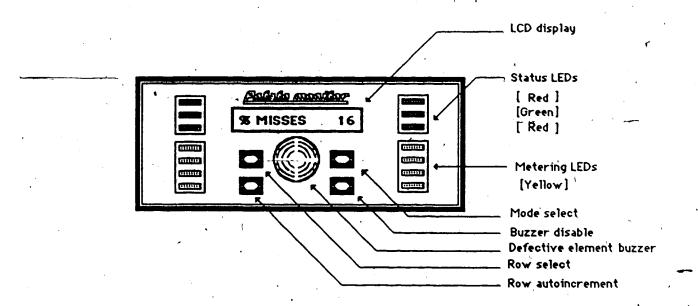


Figure 4.3 Monitor display unit

4.2.1 Circuit Description

A composite view of hardware function is illustrated in the block diagram presented in Figure 4.4. A complete list of the monitor's electronic components is found in Appendix C. Operating characteristics of the monitor's integrated circuits can be found in Motorola Semiconductor Products

Inc. reference manuals.

4.2.1.1 Microprocessor Board

At the heart of the monitoring system is a M6809 microprocessor with 2k of read only memory (ROM) and 2k of random access memory (RAM). The M6809 is an eight bit microprocessor with a 16-bit address bus and an eight-bit data bus. Monitor circuit development took place on a perforated circuit board that was mounted on an aluminum frame. All components were set in sockets to facilitate component interchange. The wire wrap technique was used to make the required connections between socket pins.

Incoming 5.0 V (Vcc) and ground (Gnd) wires were attached to the Vcc or Gnd bars running the length of the underside of the microprocessor board. A 150 uF capacitor was positioned between the incoming end of the Vcc and Gnd bars to reduce power supply fluctuations. Decoupling capacitors (10 uF) were positioned between the Vcc and Gnd bars at 25 mm intervals. This provided a steady 5 v potential across the processor board.

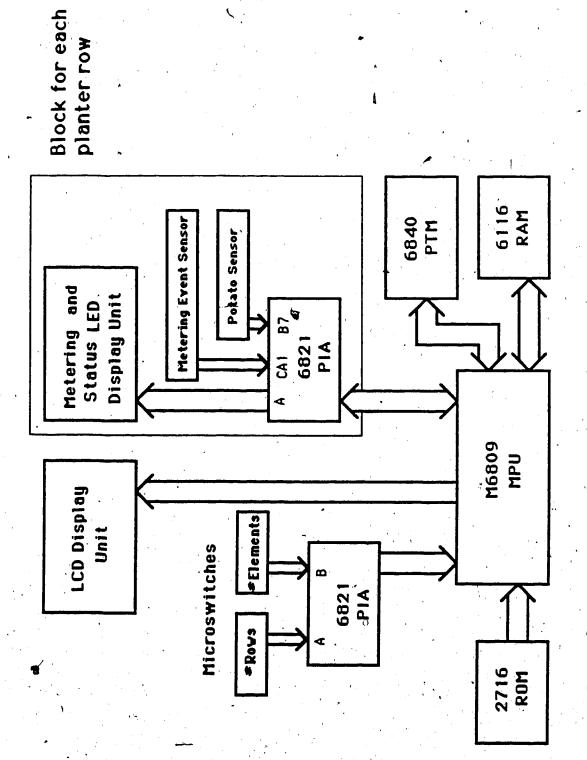


Figure 4.4 Potato planter monitor block diagram

A single 3.58 MHz crystal connected to ground via two 27 pF capacitors produced the external clock signal. The crystal was connected to the EXTAL and XTAL pins on the M6809 microprocessor in order to activate the the M6809's internal oscillator at four times the crystal frequency (14.31 MHz) Circuit details are given in Appendix D1.

Several pins of the M6809 were unused. Consequently their voltage potential was set to Vcc through 4.7 k Ω pull-up resistors to ensure proper microprocessor function. The nonactive control pins were the Fast Interrupt Request (FIRQ*), Halt (HALT*) Direct Memory Access/Break (DMA/BREQ*), and Memory Ready (MRDY). Refer to Appendix D1 for microprocessor circuit details.

A reset circuit (Appendix D1) was implemented to eliminate multiple pulses due to contact bounce. A normally open momentary push button switch was connected via two cascaded inverters (7414 Hex Schmitt-Trigger inverter), to the reset pin on the M6809. A pull up resistor of 10 k Ω was connected to the inverter input thus yielding a normally high voltage. When the reset button was depressed, the voltage potential on the reset pin was drawn to ground and the microprocessor's reset instructions were executed.

Buffers were installed on the data, address and control lines to prevent loading conditions. Data lines

were buffered with an octal bus transciever (74LS245), and address and control lines were buffered with octal buffers/line drivers/line receivers (74LS244). The buffered control lines on the M6809 were the E and Q clock signals, bus status (BS), bus available (BA), and read write (R/W*) lines. The E* pin on the data line buffer was grounded to permit continuous data line access. The DIR pin on the data line buffer was connected to the buffered R/W* line to control the direction of data transfer. The E1* and E2* pins on the address and control line buffers were grounded to ensure continuous access to these lines. Appendix D1 contains details for circuit buffers.

Buffered address lines A12 to A15 were decoded by a 74LS154 four to sixteen line decoder demultiplexer. The decoder operated on the E clock cycle through a NAND gate (7400 two-input positive NAND gate). Decoder output provided sixteen select lines (SEL 0 - SEL F) which effectively divided the 64k of addressable space into sixteen 4k blocks. Refer to Appendix D2 for the address decoding circuit diagram. All addresses in the following discussion are in hexidecimal notation.

The 2716 erasable programmable read only memory (EPROM) was connected to operate in the addressable range of F800 to FFFF. To address this memory block, further decoding was necessary and was accomplished by comparing the SEL F line and the address line A11 with

a NAND gate. The output from the NAND was connected to the output enable pin (G*) on the EPROM. Thus the EPROM was selected when the address on the address bus fell between F800 and FFFF. An additional EPROM address space (F000-F7FF) was provided for future program expansion. Address decoding for this EPROM was accomplished by comparing the SEL F* and All* lines with a NAND gate. The resulting signal was fed to the G* pin of the second EPROM. Hence, the two EPROMs were contained in a continuous address space. Refer to Appendix D3 for the EPROM circuit diagram.

CMOS RAM, provided 2k of memory. The 6116 chip has a low power requirement, fast access time, is TIL compatible, and is compact in design. The RAM's address range spanned memory locations D000-D7FF. Address lines A0-A6 were decoded to select one of the rows in the RAM's internal matrix while address lines A7-A10 were used to select the matrix columns. A by a high to low transition on SEL D line provided the 6116 RAM's chip select signal. Data transfer to or from RAM memory, via the buffered data bus, was controlled by the read/write line. Refer to Appendix D4 for the RAM circuit diagram.

Two 6850 asynchronous communications interface adapters (ACIAs) were connected to the monitoring system for the purpose of serial communication with a microcomputer. The host ACIA was located in the memory.

space of E008 to E009 while the terminal ACIA occupied addresses E00A to E00B. Address decoding was based on the SEL E signal and address lines A0 to A3. The data bus was connected to both of the ACIAs as was the R/W* line and the interrupt request (IRQ) line. Unused pins Vss, DCD* and CTS* were grounded. External access to the ACIAs was provided through a D-9 connector. Appendix D5 illustrates the ACIA circuits. Although serial communication is not supported by current system software, the necessary hardware is in place and could be useful for downloading the distribution of consecutive misses for each row to a microcomputer. This would facilitate a detailed assessement of planter performance in terms of established planting density relationships.

Peripheral interface adapters (PIAs) were used to provide a means for parallel communication between external devices and the microprocessor system. A sensor system and a corresponding vertical array of seven light emitting diodes (LEDs) were associated with each row PIA. The monitoring system accomodates planters with two to six rows and therefore row PIAs are labeled PIA1 to PIA6. An additional PIA was needed to read the microswitch values that are used, by the operator, to set the number of planter rows and the number of metering elements for each row. Row PIAs were assigned addresses 1000, 2000, ...,6000 and the

microswitch PIA occupied the address 7000. The corresponding select lines, SEL 1 to SEL 7, were connected to the respective PIA's CS2* pin. Address decoding was completed by connecting the address lines A0 and A1 to RS0 and RS1 respectively. The unused chip select pins, CS0 and CS1 were connected directly to Vcc. Data bus connection facilitated the transfer of information from the sensors and to the display LEDs. Refer to Appendix D6 for the row PIA circuit diagram, and Appendix D7 for the microswitch PIA circuit diagram.

The MC6840 Programmable Timer Module (PTM) provides the microprocessor system with three timers. Since the PTM has data input and output requirements, the eight data bus lines were connected to the PTM. The PTM occupied memory locations E000-E007. This PTM was selected by the SEL E line which was connected to the PTM's CSO* pin. Address lines AO, A1, A2, and the inverted A3 line were connected to lines RSO, RS1, RS2 and CS1 respectively, to complete addressing requirements. Control lines R/W*, E, RES* and IRQ* were connected to their corresponding PTM pins. Two of the three on-board timers (timers two and three) were cascaded to give a five-second timeout signal. Timer one assumed an internal clock function. The periodic five-second timeout initiated a metering statistic update and refreshed the LCD display. Appendix D8

contains details of the PTM circuit.

4.2.1.2 Input Devices

Two eight bit microswitches were used, one to indicate the number of planter rows, the other to set the number of metering elements per row. Port A of the microswitch PIA corresponded to the number of rows and port B was used to indicate the number of metering elements per row. Pins on the 'on' side of the microswitch were connected to Vcc. Pins on the 'off' side of the microswitch were connected through a 10 k Ω resistor, to ground before being tied to either A or B port pins on the microswitch PIA. Refer to Appendix D7 for circuit details.

The dual-sensor, event-triggered system discussed under section 3.3.2 was used to determine metering status. The output signal from the Hall effect switch (3019T, Sprague), or metering event sensor, was passed through two inverters to obtain a TTL-compatible logic signal (Appendix D10). This signal was in turn fed to the CA1 pin of the PIA corresponding to the interrupting sensor. High to low transitions on the CA1 pin signalled a metering event and interrupted the microprocessor to indicate the need for a metering update.

A photoscanner (MCS-651 series, Warner Electric, Marengo, IL.) was used as the potato sensor (Appendix D9) and determined the metering status. The

photoscanner used a modulated infrared light beam that was immune to external sources of light and had an operational range of 50 cm. Both the photoscanner transmitter and receiver had a 5 V power supply requirement. The output from pin 1 of the receiver amplifier was pulled up with a 4.7 k Ω resistor and fed through a NAND gate acting as an inverter. The resulting signal was passed to pin 7 of port A on the row PIA corresponding to the potato sensor. Thus, a broken beam produced 5.0 V (logic 1) and an intact beam resulted in 0.0 V (logic 0).

Five operator input devices were included in the operating system. Three momentary closed push button switches were used for the reset, mode change, and row change functions. The mode change and row change circuits are illustrated in Appendix D11 and D12 respectively. Two toggle switches were used, one for the row autoincrement function and the other for the buzzer disable function.

4.2.1.3 Output Devices

Three types of output device were used in the monitor module: an alphanumeric display unit, vertical arrays of seven LEDs to indicate metering and status information, and a buzzer. These devices are illustrated on the monitor display unit in Figure, 4.3.

A one line by sixteen character, top view, five by seven dot matrix alphanumeric liquid crystal display

(LCD) module (Printed Circuits International PCIM 200) was used to display messages and performance statistics. A performance statistic corresponding to one of five modes of operation was displayed constantly when the planter was in operation. For example, a typical display would be '% MISSES 16', where '%MISSES' is the descriptor and '16' represents the performance statistic. The LCD display module employed low power CMOS circuitry and was connected directly to the M6809 data bus. Sixty-four commonly-used ASCII characters formed the character set and could be passed directly from the data bus through the module's sixteen character buffer and onto the display line. The display was automatically refreshed, temperature compensated and had fully adjustable contrast. Control instructions allowed the display to be operated in various modes. The module required thirteen pin connections, eight of which were data lines. Other lines were Vcc, ground, and the CS* pin which was connected to the SEL 0 pin of the address decoder, placing the device at the address 0000. The Memory Write pin (MWR*) was connected to the R/W* line of the M6809. The remaining pin, memory read (MWR*), was connected to Vcc in order to deactivate the memory read function. Refer to Appendix D13 for the display circuit diagram.

The metering and status LEDs were connected to the B side of row PIAs through a high-voltage

open-collector output buffer/line driver (7407N). In order to illuminate a LED, the driver had to be supplied with a low voltage from PIA data port pins. Output lines 0 through 3 on the PIA were connected to the four yellow metering LEDs to indicate the number of current consecutive metering errors. Output lines 4 and 6 were connected to the red LEDs which were used to indicate a malfunctioning metering event sensor or potato sensor. The middle status LED was green and was termed the row select LED. Performance statistics on the LCD corresponded to the row with the illuminated row select LED. The current flowing through the LEDs was limited by 47Ω resistors. This provided adequate illumination while ensuring LED longevity. -LED anodes were connected to the Vcc and the cathodes were connected to the driver which provided the ground needed to turn the LEDs on. All LEDs were rectangular in shape and were visible in an outdoor environment.

The defective element indicator was a 5-volt buzzer (Radio Shack 273-068). The buzzer produced a sound loud enough for the operator of a tractor to hear. The buzzer was connected through output line on the B side of the row PIAs and was driven by an open collector line drive identical to the ones used for the LED circuits. Thus the buzzer was activated when the PIA output was low.

4.2.1.4 Power Supply

Although a 5.0 V switching regulator was considered for field operating conditions, laboratory testing was done with a Hewlett Packard 6236B power supply unit set to 5.0 V.

4.3 Software

Program software provided the 6809 microprocessor with instructions for the monitoring algorithm in an effective and well-defined manner.

The potato planter monitor program was written in Motorola 6809 Assembler Language. All programs associated with this project were assembled using the UNSP:M6809ASM assembler implemented on the MTS system at the University of Alberta. The resulting object code was downloaded to EPROMS using a Unipak System 19 Data I/O unit. Program and hardware debugging were done with the assistance of a Hewlett Packard model 1615A logic analyzer and the potato planter simulation unit. The assembled monitor program, as listed in Appendix E, occupies 1.8 k of ROM and is designed to function with two to six sets of sensors.

4.3.1 Memory Structure

Memory structure can be thought of as the ordered arrangement of program and memory addresses. The six identifiable divisions in the potato monitor's memory structure are: device addresses (Appendix F1), program

addresses in ROM (Appendix F2), system vectors in ROM (Appendix F3), ROM data addresses (Appendix F4), program variable addresses in RAM (Appendix F5) and RAM data blocks for each row (Appendix F6). Program-variable address assignments and descriptions are on lines 13 to 89 of the program listing in Appendix E. Alphabetic listing of variable names, together with the line numbers they were referenced on, are listed in the cross reference section of Appendix E (assembler page numbers 17-19).

Due to identical program and memory requirements for each row being monitored, a structured, top-down programming approach was employed and relative addressing was used extensively. Base addresses for row PIAs were arranged at address intervals of 1000. Similarly row data blocks in RAM were arranged in address intervals of 0100. This allowed one block of program code to process the input and output requirements for two to six rows and made the iterative performance statistic calculations more efficient.

System service routine addresses for the interrupt request function (IRQ), non maskable interrupt (NMI), and reset (RESET) were assigned to ROM addresses FFF0-FFFF. If the pins corresponding to these microprocessor functions recognize a transition in logic voltage, the processor is diverted to the appropriate internal instructions before program flow is directed to the function's address.

4.3.2 Description

The program listing in Appendix E is commented extensively and flow charts are utilized in the following discussion as an aid to understanding program logic. For general questions related to 6809 Assembly language programming, the reader is referred to Leventhal (1981).

Upon a reset condition, the monitoring system executes an initialization sequence and then simply waits for interrupt signals (Figure 4.5). When interrupts occur, one of four options are pursued: a metering update, a statistics and display update, a mode change to alter the type of statistic on display, or a row change to alter the row currently displayed on the LCD. A fifth mode for displaying the distribution of consecutive metering errors was only partially implemented and thus remains inoperable. The IRQ service routine is used to identify system needs and directs program flow. The general overview of the IRQ service routine presented in Figure 4.6 illustrates the interrupt-driven nature of the monitoring program.

4.3.2.1 Initialization

The flow chart for the initialization routine is set out in Figure 4.7. Initialization of the LCD display involved setting parameters within the display itself. This facilitated passage of ASCII characters from microprocessor registers to the display buffer through a single memory location. Ten display initialization flags (listed in hexidecimal notation)

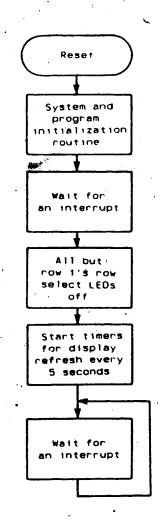


Figure 4.5 Potato planter monitor program flow chart



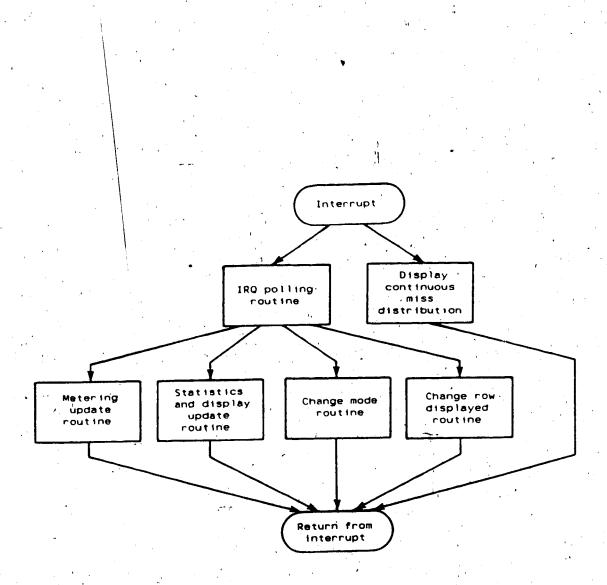


Figure 4.6 IRQ service routine flow chart

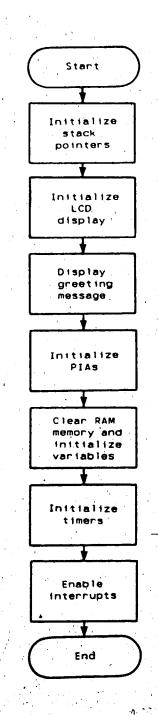


Figure 4.7 Initialization routine flow chart

were sent to the display in the following order.

- 1. 68 reset blank display
- 2. 6B set visible cursor
 - 3. 61 set blinking cursor
 - 4. 6D set cursor line
- 5. 62 reset blinking display
 - 6. 65 auto increment cursor
 - 7. 67 set up for increment
 - 8. 6E reset rapid load
 - 9. 00 blank characters
 - 10. 8A clear display

The subroutine short delay, SDELAY, was used to give the display ample time to set up. After the flags were sent to the display, the display was cleared by the subroutine CLRLCD.

To display a message, a series of ASCII characters were fed to the LCD display with a short delay after each character to allow for latch time. The greeting message, "\$POTATO MONITOR\$", was displayed on the LCD immediately after a reset condition.

A PIA reset was necessary to initialize the PIAs in their direction of data transfer and to set initial operation conditions. Row PIAs were initialized with port A as inputs and port B as outputs with the CA1 control line enabled. Therefore, a transition on line CA1 would cause an interrupt in the system when a metering event ocurred. Side B was initially set to ff

in order to shut all the metering LEDs off. The microswitch PIA was initialized with both sides as inputs, port A corresponding to the number of rows, and port B the number of metering elements per row.

A memory initialization routine cleared all RAM locations prior to planter operation. The RAM locations, starting with D000 and ending with D7FF were sequentially set to 00. Program variables then were initialized.

Microswitch settings were read and their values were stored accordingly. An initial memory offset for the number of consecutive misses per element was calculated by adding 10 to the number of elements per row.

The primary task of the PTM reset was to initialize the timers to produce an interrupt every five seconds for purposes of the statistics update and display refresh. Timer latches 2 and 3 were loaded with decimal values 44642 and 50 respectively. Timer 2 was set for 16-bit operation, continuous mode, output enabled, interrupt mask set and internal clock. Timer 3 was set for external clock, 16-bit operation, continuous mode with both the interrupt and output enabled. All timers were preset until a metering event occurred.

4.3.2.2 Main Program

The main program was engaged on the first metering event after start up. PTM timers were started and the display mask 11011111 (binary notation) was sent to port B on PIA1 to illuminate row one's row-select LED.

The primary purpose of the main program was to have instructions for the processor to execute if none of the interrupt service routines were engaged. As such the interrupt-driven main program contained a CWAI instruction which enabled interrupts and stacked all registers in anticipation of the next interrupt. Once an interrupt occurred and was serviced, program control returned to the main program.

4.3.2.3 IRQ Service Routines

The IRQ interrupt service routines performed a number of functions including: user-generated row and mode change requests, metering performance updates, statistics update, and sensor malfunction tests. Upon entering the IRQ service routine, interrupts are disabled by setting bits 6 and 4 of the condition code register. Figure 4.8 provides a flow chart of the IRQ polling routine. Each device connected to the IRQ line was polled in sequence to identify the source of the interrupt. Bit 7 (B7) of the interrupting PIA's status register was set. Upon identifying the source of the interrupt, the program flow was directed to the appropriate service routine. Row PIAs were checked

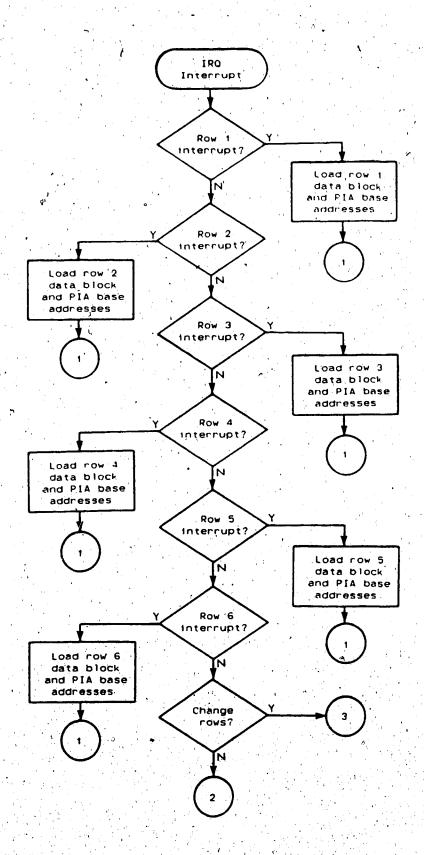


Figure 4.8 IRQ polling routine flow chart

first to determine if a metering event had occurred. If a metering event was not indicated, the microswitch PIA was polled to see if a row change had been requested. Barring successful identification of an interrupting device, the program defaulted to the statistics update and display refresh routines. A return from interrupt (RTI) instruction was placed at the end of every service routine to direct program flow back to the main program.

When a metering event was detected, the base address of the data block containing the row's metering statistics was loaded into the X register and the base address of the interrupting PIA is loaded into the Y register. This allows relative addressing to be used in the metering update routine.

4.3.2.4 Metering Update

Metering update logic is illustrated in Figure 4.9. When a metering event is indicated a check is made to determine whether a previous metering event has ocurred since the last statistics update. If not, a potato sensor malfunction test is performed. In this manner all potato sensors are checked for proper function once every five seconds. Further comment on defective sensor checks can be found in section 4.3.2.10.

Program variables affected by the metering update routine are defined on lines 78 to 89 of the program

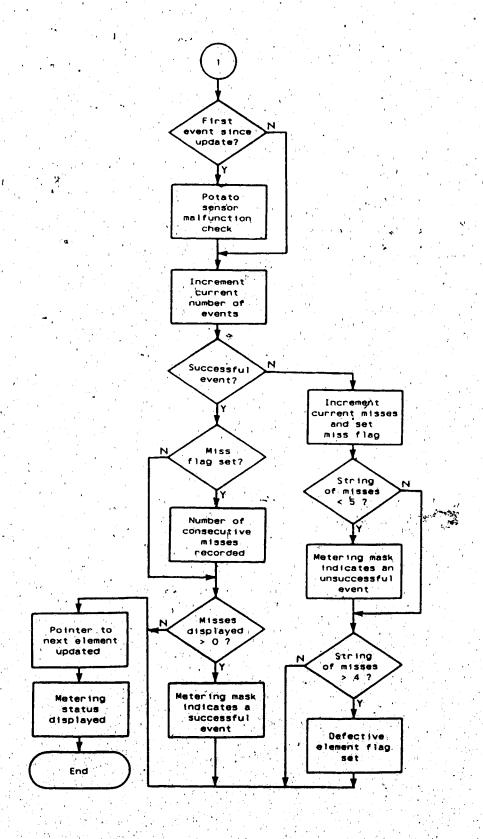


Figure 4.9 Metering update flow chart

listing (Appendix E). The memory offsets from data block base addresses also are listed. A metering update addresses only the data block associated with the interrupting PIA. The current events counter (CNEV) is incremented before a check for a successful metering event is performed (bit 7 of port A = 1). If a metering error has occurred the current metering error counter (CNMISS) is incremented and a check is done on the number of consecutive misses (MISLED). If less than four of the yellow metering LEDs are illuminated, the top unlit metering LED is turned on and the number of misses displayed (MISLED) is incremented. A lookup table was used to determine the LED mask which represents the number of consecutive metering errors.

If a particular metering element consistently failed, a buzzer was sounded. This necessitated keeping track of how each element in the metering chain performs. Variable NEXTEL contains the offset from the data block's base address to the memory location containing the count of consecutive misses associated with the interrupting metering element. Should the successive metering errors be greater than four, the buzzer is turned on, otherwise the the number of consecutive misses for that element is incremented.

If bit 7 on port A of the interrupting PIA is zero a successful metering event is indicated. The number of consecutive misses displayed on the yellow metering

LEDs are checked and if greater than zero, the top-most illuminated LED is turned off.

A successful metering event indicates that the interrupting metering element is functioning properly and, therefore, the consecutive miss count for that element is zeroed. The offset to the memory location of the next element to be monitored in the interrupting row is then decremented. If a complete cycle of the metering chain is indicated, the offset (NEXTEL) is reset to point to the memory location corresponding to the next expected metering element.

The monitoring system could only display metering performance statistics on the LCD display one row at a time. This required the row select mask (LEDROW) to be and-ed with register A to preserve the row select indicator (green status LED). At this point the status word in register A contains current metering and system status information for the interrupting row. Metering and status LEDs then were updated by sending the contents of register A to the interrupting PIA's B data port.

4.3.2.5 Statistics Update

Upon an interrupt from clock 3 of the PTM (every 5 s), the statistical update took place as illustrated in Figure 4.10. Data blocks for each row were updated in an iterative manner by the statistics calculation subroutine CALC (Figure 4.11). Five statistics are

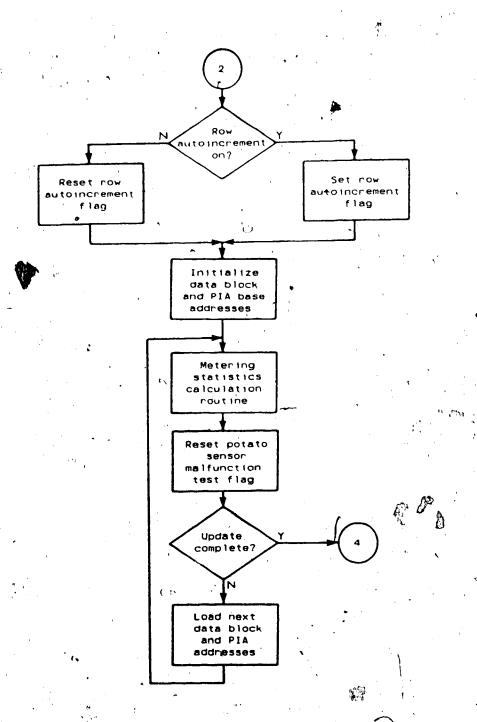


Figure 4.10 Statistics update flow chart

derived in the calculation routine: planting rate. current/percent misses, total number of events, total number of unsuccessful metering events, and total number of successful metering events. The statistics update routine performs the additional function of checking for a malfunctioning metering event sensor. After performance statistics have been updated and sensor checks performed, the LCD display is refreshed with updated values and PTM timer 3 is reloaded to count down the time to the next update.

Planting rate is expressed in plants/min and is calculated by multiplying the current number of events by 12, the number of updates in a minute. The 2 byte result is stored in PLRATE.

The current percentage of metering errors is calculated by dividing the product of the current number of events (CNEV) and 100 by the current number of misses (CNMISS).

The total number of events (TEVENT) was updated by adding the current number of events (CNEV) to the total number of events. The address of TEVENT was loaded into the X register and CNEV was loaded into the A register in preparation for the addition subroutine call. If the planter was operating and no metering events occurred in the last five seconds, variable CNEV would be zero and, thus, a malfunctioning metering sensor was assumed. Metering sensor malfunction was indicated by

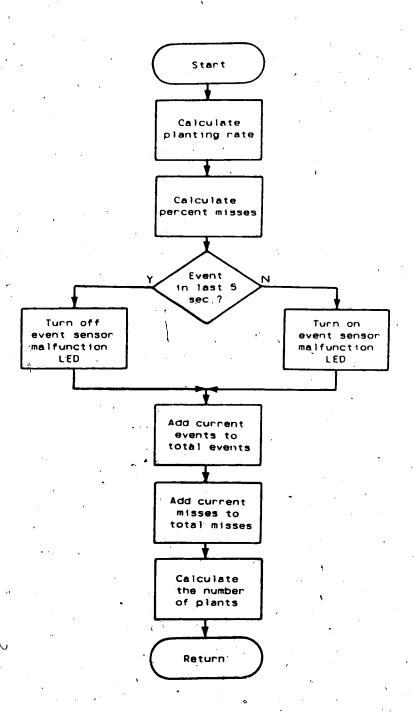


Figure 4.11 Statistics calculation flow chart

illuminating the bottom red status LED while successful malfunction tests ensure malfunction indicators were turned off. Section 4.3.2.10 contains further sensor malfunction discussion. After returning from the addition routine, the current number of misses is zeroed in preparation for the next calculation routine call.

The addition of current number of misses (CNMIS) to the total number of misses (TMIS) proceeds in a similar fashion with current number of misses being zeroed after returning from the addition routine.

A running total of the number of potatoes planted is calculated by subtracting the total number of misses from the total number of events.

4.3.2.6 Mode Change

The NMI service routine was entered only after the push button switch for a mode change caused the NMI* pin of the processor to go low. This indicated a user request to change the performance statistic on the monitor's LCD display. Routine logic is presented in the mode change flow chart in Figure 4.12. The mode counter was updated before the statistic for the next mode was displayed. Thus a wrap-around to the first mode occurred when successive mode change requests exceeded the number of modes. Mode number assignments and labels were: 0 - "% MISSES", 1 - "NO. EVENTS", 2 - "NO. cMISSES", 3 - "NO. PLANTS", 4 "POTATO/MIN". Once

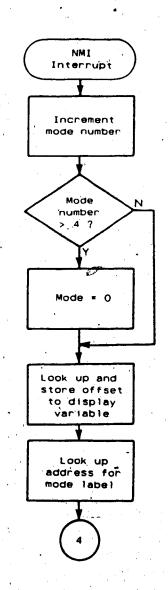


Figure 4.12 Mode change flow chart

the new mode was selected, the processor would execute the subroutine DISPLY to display the correct performance information on the LCD.

4.3.2.7 Row Change

The row change routine updates program variables and system status upon a user request to display the selected performance statistic from another row. A wrap-around strategy similar to the one discussed in section 4.3.2.6 was used. The flow chart in Figure 4.13 sets out routine tasks. The current row's row-select LED is turned off and the row-select LED of the new row is illuminated. PIA and data block base addresses are updated before returning from the subroutine call.

4.3.2.8 Display Refresh

The purpose of routine DISPLY was to display the correct descriptor, for example, "POTATO/MIN", and the corresponding performance statistic (Figure 4.14). This required the proper string of ASCII characters to be assembled in successive memory locations before being dumped to the LCD. ASCII codes for mode descriptors were arranged in the first ten memory locations after the variable DUMP. The subroutines HEXVAL and CONVAL were then called to obtain the correct ASCII codes representing the value of the performance statistic. The next six DUMP memory locations were filled with the resulting ASCII characters. After the LCD was cleared

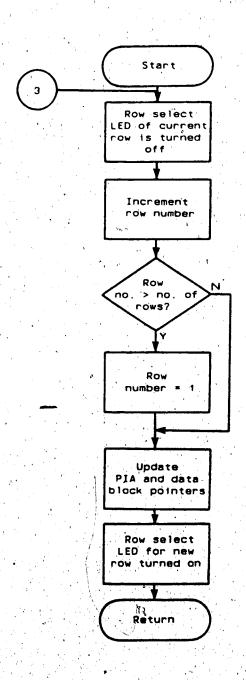


Figure 4.13 Row change flow chart

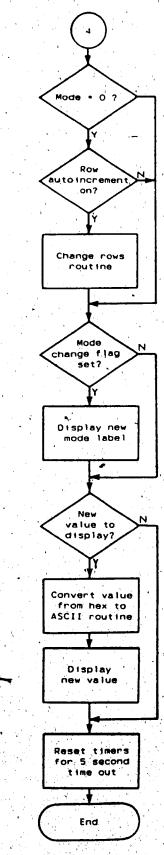


Figure 4.14 Display refresh flow chart

by the CLRLCD routine, the ASCII characters were sent to the display at 0.78 ms intervals.

The purpose of the CLRLCD subroutine was to send flags 8A and 00 to the LCD in order to clear the display and enable the transfer of ASCII characters for display. A short delay was used to ensure character codes were transfered properly.

The short delay subroutine (SDELAY) simply decremented a counter causing a 0.78 ms delay before returning to the calling program.

4.3.2.9 Code Conversion

HEXVAL was the subroutine that chose the correct. performance statistic indicated by the MODE counter. Program flow details are shown in Figure 4.15. The value chosen was stored in a two byte variable called VALHEX.

representation of the performance statistic to be displayed into an ASCII character string. The selected two byte hexadecimal performance statistic was translated to five decimal counters by means of successive comparisons of the value in VALHEX to , multiples of the base ten. The counter values then were converted to ASCII character codes and leading zeros were replaced with blanks by routine LDZERO. ASCII character codes then were appended to the last occupied memory location of variable DUMP. The decimal counters

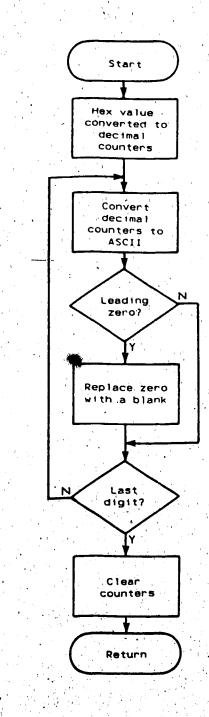


Figure 4.15 Code conversion flow chart

then were cleared for the next conversion.

4.3.2.10 Malfunctioning Sensor Check

Both the potato sensor (photoscanner) and the metering event sensor (Hall Effect switch) have malfunction checks associated with them. A metering event sensor malfunction is assumed if a metering event has not taken place since the last statistics update. Although this mode of operation will indicate a problem when the planter stops operating, the operator obviously will be able to discriminate between a halt and approblem signal.

Conder to detect a malfunctioning potato sensor, a check was made to see if the designnated photoscanner had an output signal of +5 V (beam intact). The designated photoscanner refers to a photoscanner from a non-interrupting row that theoretically is unobstructed. Base addresses for the PIAs and the data blocks corresponding to the designated photoscanners were assigned, in the inilization routine (section) 4.3.2.1), to each data block in variables beginning with LKDAT and LKPIA, respectively. Subroutine FAIL performs the sensor malfunction test by checking for a '0' (fail) in bit 7 (photoscanner output) of port A of the designated PIA. If a potato sensor malfunction is detected the top status LED (red) is turned on, otherwise the LED is turned off. Refer to section 4.3.2.4 for the potato sensor malfunction algorithm.

4.4 Potato Planter Simulator

The two-row potato planter simulation unit shown in Figure 4.16 was constructed for program debugging, system performance assessment, and demonstration purposes. Two horizontal axles were aligned vertically and their pillow block bearing mounts were fastened to an angle iron frame. On each axle were two sprockets, one for each row. An endless chain with six equally spaced metal cups was installed between the vertically aligned upper and lower sprockets. Sensors were mounted on an adjustable arm that extended past the path of the metering chain. Ceramic permanent magnets, 13 mm in diameter and 7 mm thick, were bonded to the lower edge of each cup with south poles facing outward. Sensors were positioned such that metering status could be determined in the manner discussed in section 3.3.3. Figure 4.17 presents the position of monitor sensors. Styrofoam cups were used in place of real potatoes and could be arranged to simulate a pattern of misses. The 0.18 kW, variable-speed electric motor provided power to the simulation unit.

4.5 Performance Analysis

A detailed performance assessment of the potato planter monitoring system was not undertaken, however, general observations were noted and areas for improvement are discussed.

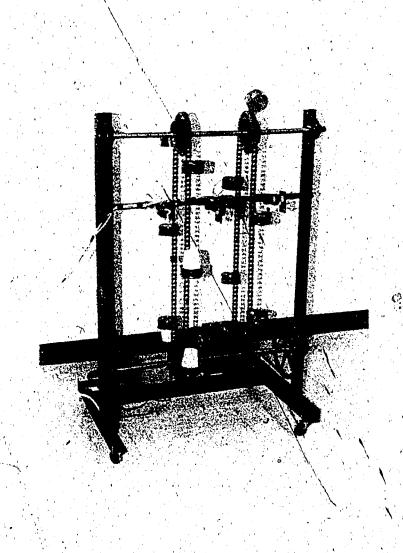


Figure 4.16 Potato planter simulation unit

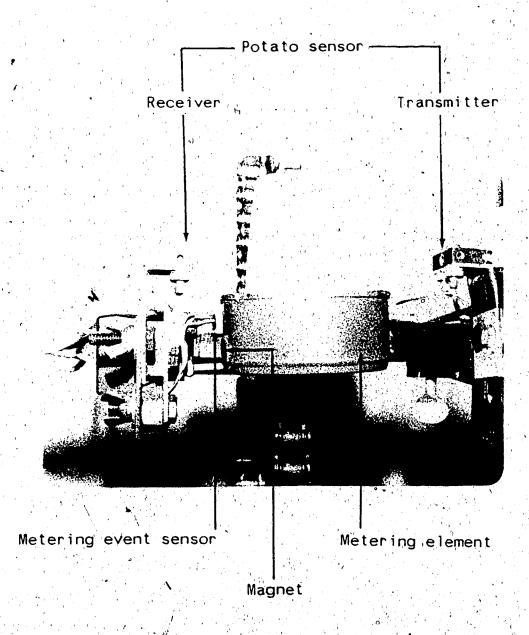


Figure 4.17 Sensor arrangement on the planter simulator

4.5.1 Microprocessor Board and Software

The basic microprocessor system and software performed to a satisfactory level. Simulated planting rates of 700 plants/min produced very predictable feedback. Metering rates past 800 plants/min began to reflect system loading conditions, and resulted in a small proportion of misses going undetected. The cause of system instability above 800 plants/min was attributed to both chain slap on the simulator unit and actual system loading conditions. However, causes of metering rate limitations were not determined directly. Accurate monitoring of planter performance under simulated conditions can be maintained up to equivalent ground speeds of 9 km/h for two rows, 6 km/h for four rows, and 3 km/h for six rows assuming a 30 cm plant pacing. Improvements to input/output algorithms are discussed in section 4.6 and, if implemented, would improve the monitoring system's operating efficiency.

out as expected. The metering rate calculations were carried out as expected. The metering rate calculation takes a, five second display cycle to stabilize after each row change request. Metering rate accuracy could be improved if the metering events from each row were summed every five seconds. The resulting metering rate would represent the planter's metering rate rather than the metering rate for a single row.

Input and output functions and associated hardware performed well over an estimated one hundred thousand test

and demonstration metering events. Mode-change and row-select functions operated smoothly and the autoincrement and buzzer switches functioned properly.

4.5.2 Input Device Evaluation

function. The metering event sensor on row 1 of the simulation unit was configured with a ceramic magnet backing as discussed in section 3.3.2 whereas the row 2 metering event sensor had a 13 mm diameter by 25 mm long aluminum nickel alloy magnet backing. Row 1 tolerated a sensor-to-magnet spacing of roughly 5 mm while row 2 had double the spacing tolerance.

The potato sensor performed exceptionally well and operated to its rated 50 cm range. Under actual field conditions, lens obstruction from dust or seed chips is possible. A "chalk brush" test covered the lens with a substantial layer of chalk dust yet the sensor unit still performed to design expectations.

Metering and potato sensor configuration in relation to one another is an important aspect to the overall design perspective. The sensor mounts on the potato planter simulator could be adjusted in the x, y and z planes. Magnet attachment to metering elements posed another challenge worthy of mention. Considering the repeated impacts of potato seed in the seed reservoir and possible bond fracture due to the harsh Canadian winters, bolting magnets to the

metering elements seems more advantageous than a bonding solution.

Microswitches met the need for a means to set planter configurations. Although a more sophisticated input device would look nicer, placement of microswitches inside the monitor unit is worthy of consideration since parameter settings are rarely altered.

4.5.3 Output Device Evaluation

The output devices discussed under sections 4.2.1.3 performed well and gave a clear, straightforward representation of the planter simulator operation. The metering and status LEDs could be located in the operator's peripheral vision and, by pure color discrimination, the performance of the planter would be known without looking directly at the monitor. The information on the LCD display would be secondary during field operations but would provide useful information at a glance. The mode-select function would enable the operator to choose among performance statistics according to the type of information desired. Having a row autoincrement option allowed the percentage of misses to be displayed for each row in an alternating fashion. This function was thought to be of value since it presents performance information for the total planting system without diverting the operator's attention. 🐘

Both metering event sensor and potato sensor malfunctions were detected without fail. Indicators for

metering sensor malfunction served a dual purpose since the signal producing magnets on metering elements were a component of the last moving part in the drive chain. Thus, all drive train malfunctions will be indicated through the metering event sensor malfunction LED.

The one drawback of the LCD display was that of the long (0.78 ms) set-up time needed for each character. A slight refinement to system software could prevent the unnecessary repetition of identical display segments. The current delay caused by character transfer contributed to system loading at high metering rates.

The current monitor unit was suited for a two-to six-row row planter. A dash mount would require a top-view LCD whereas a ceiling mount obviously would be suited to a bottom-view LCD screen.

The buzzer, unquestionably, would alert operators to the problem of a defective element in the metering chain. At times the buzzer was annoying but could be silenced with the buzzer disable toggle switch. The case of two potatoes becoming lodged in a cup or the occurrence of bent picks are aspects which the defective element test is designed to detect.

4.6 Design Discussions

Although the potato planter monitoring system met the first five design criteria listed in section 4.1.2, the sixth design criteria, efficient operation under field

conditions, was not directly met since the monitoring system was not field tested. Improvements to the existing monitoring system would enable the potato planter monitor to be used as a means for assessing potato planter performance on existing cup and pick-type planters. The following discussion outlines the author's suggestions for system improvements.

Perhaps the biggest drawback to the system is the limited capacity for field data acquisition. A row spacing of 90 cm and a plant spacing of 30 cm gives each potato plant a growing area of 0.27 m². Therefore, a quarter-section of potatoes requires nearly 2.4 million seed pieces. In order to tabulate the metering status for all metering events, program variables having totals greater than can be represented by two bytes (65,536) should be expanded to three bytes. Computational routines need to be adapted accordingly. A monitoring system based on a three byte system will accommodate up to 16.8 million metering events, or data for approximately 450 ha whereas the present two byte system will handle only 1.75 ha of metering data.

Improvement of the display refresh routine to avoid the costly 13 ms delay every 5 s would improve the system's operating efficiency. Although this delay does not appear to be overly significant, the system performance can be affected. This applies especially to the defective element tests, which rely on the consistent logging of metering status.

The suggestion is made that additional modes be implemented, such as ground speed and time rate of area covered. This would greatly enhance the monitor's capabilities.

A number of hardware improvements are needed if the monitoring system is to proceed to the production phase. The design and development of printed circuit boards would enhance system flexibility, ease hardware assembly requirements, and allow for component interchange. The following circuit modules are suggested: a board for the basic microprocessor system, add-on input/output boards for each row, a display board, and a sensor junction module board. A keypad for operator input would be more aesthetically pleasing than the push buttons currently used and would have the added benifit of providing the input hardware for additional user options.

A five-volt switching regulator is suggested for the monitor's power circuit.

Installation of a non-volatile RAM with a battery back-up power circuit would enable the metering performance data to be retained if the monitor was removed from the tractor. This is an important addition since growers may choose to download their performance data to a micro-computer for further analysis.

The most important factor for successful implementation of the monitoring system is the accuracy of sensor placement. Development of a sensor mounting system which

allows stable sensor positioning relative to one another in the x, y, and z planes is necessary if the dual-sensor, event-triggered system is to be effective. Sensor system, mounts must provide a flexible means of attachment to the planter's frame. Reliable data acquisition also depends on the stability of the metering mechanism. Pick-type planters do not present this problem, however, an idler may be required near the sensor system mounts on cup-type planters if chain or belt vibration is to be avoided.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The need for a means of assessing potato planter performance is based on the quantitative and qualitative improvements to potato yields that can be achieved with a uniform planting pattern. The seed - metering mechanism interaction is specific to the type of metering mechanism, seed piece attributes, and the operating conditions during planting. Control over seed piece attributes, such as size and shape, depends on the size distribution of whole seed tubers and the manner in which they are cut.

Seed attributes affect main stem density and the uniformity of planting patterns in an independent manner. The shape and size of seed pieces play a key role in determining the uniformity of planting pattern, the number of stems per seed piece and the number of stems per unit area. Therefore, seed attributes strongly influence the yield and size distribution of harvested tubers.

The critical nature of the planting process calls for potato planter performance experiments to produce meaningful results. Separating the metering and placement aspects of planter performance will help researchers and growers to understand better how planting parameters influence yields. Planter performance experiments should contain a full description of seed material used and, with studies on placement performance, the standard deviation of seed placement should be reported. The CV statistic is a useful measure of placement performance as long as the mean seed

spacing is close to the intended seed spacing. Comparisons made otherwise are misleading from a performance perspective.

If planter performance studies reported the distribution of consecutive metering errors, the effect of planting pattern on yield could be assessed by taking into account the variable yield compensation effect exerted by plants adjacent to a number of missing plants.

After careful consideration of the experimental procedure and the statistical analysis, the following conclusions were drawn.

- 1. Assessment of potato planter metering and placement performance can be carried out in an independent manner.
- 2. Compatibility between pick-type metering mechanisms and seed material improves as metering rate increases from 3 plants/s to 9 plants/s and as the number of cut surfaces on the seed pieces increases from one to three. Therefore a pick-type planter's metering performance responds favorably to high metering rates and blocky seed pieces.
- 3. Seed pieces weighing 45 g produce fewer metering errors than 60 g seed pieces at metering rates up to 6 plants/s in pick-type planters.
- 4. Seed piece shape and size affect the occurrence of metering errors in an independent manner, however, a strong interaction exists between seed shape and metering rate, and seed piece size and metering rate.

5. Cut 45 g and 60 g seed pieces have a more consistent metering performance compared to 50-100 g whole seed tubers when using a pick-type planter, especially at metering rates below 6 plants/s.

The following conclusions are put forth for the design and development of the potato planter monitoring system.

- 1. The dual-sensor event-triggered system provides an effective means of detecting metering errors for cup and pick-type potato planters.
- determination of metering errors. Secure sensor mounts and the ability to adjust sensors in all three planes are critical aspects of monitoring planter performance in a reliable manner.
- 3. The potato planter monitoring system is capable of providing valuable performance feed back to operators. Indicator mechanisms that relay the number of consecutive misses for each row, drive train malfunction, sensor malfunction and performance statistics such as metering rate and percent of metering errors, all contribute toward the efficiency of the planting operation by improving the quality of information available to the operator.
- 4. Data logging capabilities of the potato planter monitoring system can establish the pattern of consecutive metering errors and thereby provide growers with the performance information needed to accurately assess the actual population density effects on yield.

6. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Separate field experiments for potato planter metering and placement performance is encouraged. A four-row or six-row planter with a monitoring system would serve as an excellent experimental unit for field metering performance experiments. A suggested method of conducting potato placement experiments is through a series of high-speed 16 mm film clips. Digitial characterization of the placement sequence would assist in determining the effect of placement parameters.

Further experimentation on the effect of seed piece shape and size will help define how seed pieces and metering mechanisms interact in terms of metering performance.

Experimental procedures could be improved if a photoscanner was positioned below the point of seed release. This would allow the number of seed pieces to be counted as they fell and would enable researchers to determine the actual seed rate and the number of doubles.

Planter performance investigations and yield response studies using small whole tubers (40-70 g) would provide valuable information for assessing the costs, benifits and alterations to planting operations and potato machinery that are required for potato production with small whole seed tubers.

Expressing metering performance as a function of seed piece surface area ratios may prove to be advantageous. A skin surface area to total surface area ratio, or a skin

surface area to cut surface area ratio, can be used to define both seed shape and seed size effects on a metering performance continuum. Another facet of seed attributes that may be worthy of investigation is the relationship between surface area ratios and the total and marketable yields. Establishing seed piece yields and planter performance in terms of seed attributes would serve as a good starting point for a potato planting model. By implementing planting parameters of greatest utility to the grower; under-utilization of agricultural inputs can be avoided and yields will be enhanced accordingly.

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171

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8. APPENDIX A. METERING DATA ANALYSIS PROGRAM

```
    / Program name: HITMISS.BAS
    / Purpose: To analyse potato planter metering data

     Purpose:
     Programmed for IBM PC -
 50
                    BASICA
    'Language:
 60
     'Programmer:
                    Edward J. Hauck
 70
 80
 90
     * ** MAIN PROGRAM **
 100
 102
                                 Program initialization
      GOSUB 200
 104
                              * CUT SEED METERING DATA *
 105
                               Metering rates 1-3 (3, 6 and 9 plants/s)
 106
      FOR M=1 TO 3
                                 Seed shapes 1-3 (1-cut, 2-cut and 3-cut)
Seed size 1-2 (45 g and 60 g)
        .FOR H=1 TO 3
 108
            FOR Z=1 TO 2
 110
              FOR R=1 TO 5 ' Replications 1-5
 112
                  FILES = "M"+RIGHT$(STR$(M),1)+"H"+RIGHT$(STR$(H),1)+"Z"+
                         RIGHT$(STR$(Z),1)+".R"+RIGHT$(STR$(R),1)
                                 Data file analysis (% metering errors and
                  GDSUB 300 '
                                   and distribution of consecutive misses)
 115
              NEXT R
 117
 122
          NEXT Z
         NEXT H
 128
 134
      NEXT M
 136 1
                              * WHOLE SEED METERING DATA *
 137
                                 Metering rates 1-3 (3, 6 and 9 plants/s)
 138 FOR M=1' TO 3
         FOR R=1 TO 5
                                  Replications 1-5
 140
          FILES = "M"+RIGHT$(STR$(M),1)+"HO"+" R"+RIGHT$(STR$(R),1)
                                 Data file analysis (% metering errors and
            GOSUB 300
 142
                                    distribution of consecutive misses)
 143
         NEXT, R
 145
 150 , NEXT M
                                Output for percent metering errors
      GOSUB 800
 152
                                  Output for consecutive metering errors
      GOSUB 900
 154
      LOCATE 12,25:PRINT "FINISHED ";:PRINT CHR$(7)
 158
 160
 162
      ** Program initialization **
 200
 205
 210
      DIM OP$(110.5), CMISS(110.70)
. 215
      M = 1:H = 1:Z = 1:R = 1:NO = 1
 220
      FILES = "":L.FILES = ""
 225
      230
 235
 240
                 TPUBAS - "
 245
      TPU3B$ = "
 250
      TPU3C$ = "
 255 .
      PU3$ =
 260
 265
  270
  275
         ** Data file analysis (% metering errors and and distribution of
 300
        consecutive misses) **
  305
      LOCATE 12,30:PRINT "Crunching: ";FILE$;
LOCATE 14,20:PRINT "Last file: ";L.FILE$;" - ";"% MISSES: ";MISS
 ,335
  340
345 1% = 1:MISS .= 0:HIT = 0
```

```
OPEN "I",#1,"B:"+FILE$
    350
        INPUT#1, EVENTS: INPUT#1, EVENTS: INPUT#1, EVENTS
    355
         INPUT#1, EVENT$
    360
         IF EOF(1) THEN GOTO 410
   365
         IF VAL(EVENT$) = 1 THEN HIT = HIT + 1:GOSUB 1000 ELSE IF VAL(EVENT$) = 0_
   370
            THEN MISS - MISS + 1:CONFLG - 1:CON, MISS - CON. MISS+1 ELSE GOTO 360
         IF I% = 100 THEN GOTO 390
         1%=1%+1
   380
        GOTO 360
   385
         INPUT#1, EVENT$
   390
         IF EDF(1) THEN GDTO 415
IF EVENTS - "A" OR EVENTS - "O" THEN I%-I%+1
   395
   400
   405
         GOTO 390 .
         GOSUB 1000
   410
        CLOSE 1
   415
         OP$(NO.1) = FILES:OP$(NO.2) = STR$(HIT):OP$(NO.3) = STR$(MISS):_
   420
           OP$(NO.4) = STR$(I%):OP$(NO.5) = STR$(MISS*100/I%)
         NO = NO + 1
   425
   435
         L.FILES - FILES
   440
         RETURN
   445
   450
       / ta ** Output for percent metering errors
   800
   805
        OPEN "O", #1, "RESULTS"
   810
        PRINT TUP1$
   815
         FOR N=1 TO NO-1
   820
           LPRINT USING PU1$:0P$(N,1):VAL(0P$(N,2));VAL(0P$(N,3));VAL(0P$(N,4));_
   825
              VAL (OP$(N,5))
            PRINT USING PU1$; OP$(N, 1); VAL(OP$(N, 2)); VAL(OP$(N, 3)); VAL(OP$(N, 4));
   830
           (%, VAL (OP$(N,5)); VAL (OP$(N,5))
           PRINT#1, OP$(N, 1); " "; OP$(N, 2); " "; OP$(N, 3); " "; OP$(N, 4)
   835
   840
        NEXT N
        CLOSE 1
   845
         RETURN
   850
   855
   860
           ** Output for consecutive metering errors **
   900
        OPEN "O" .#1, "MISTRING"
905
   910
        PRINT TPUBAS: PRINT TPUBES: PRINT TPUBCS
   915
         PRINT#1.0P$(N,1)
   920
   925
           PRINTH1. USING PU35; CMISS(N. 1); CMISS(N. 2); CMISS(N. 3); CMISS(N. 4):_
   930
           CMISS(N,5); CMISS(N,6); CMISS(N,7); CMISS(N,8); CMISS(N,9); CMISS(N,10).
           PRINT#1, USING PU3$; CMISS(N. 11); CMISS(N. 12); CMISS(N. 13); CMISS(N. 14);
   935
           CMISS(N, 15) -CMISS(N, 16); CMISS(N, 17); CMISS(N, 18); CMISS(N, 19); CMISS(N, 20)
        NEXT N
   940
       CLOSE
   945
       RETURN
  950
  955
   960
             Check for string of consecutive misses **
  1000
  1005
   1010 IF CONFLG#1 THEN CMISS(NO, CON.MISS) = CMISS(NO, CON.MISS)+1
  1018 CONFLG=0:CON.MISS=0
    1020 RETURN
   1025 /----
```

9. APPENDIX B. METERING DATA

B1. Cut Seed Metering Data

The following data summary presents the cut seed metering trial results. Each data point represents one of five replications for each set of experimental variables.

Percent of m	netering even	nts which	were unsucce	essful *
1	attributes		ng rate (pla	N 1
Shape	Size (g)	3.0	6.0	9.0
	45 •	50.2 50.9 18.2 13.7 10.7	50.8 50.5 8.4 10.0 15.4	47.1 51.2 46.4 8.5 5.0
1-cut	60	64.2 70.2 61.6 60.2 58,6	28.8 36.0 26.8 34.3 31.7	13.8 13.4 26.0 13.3 15.9
	45	32.9 44.6 41.6 13.6 15.7	17.9 19.8 22.1 17.2 34.9	16.8 16.3 8.1 6.1 20.1
* 2-cut	60	42.6 29.7 35.0 44.5 41.9	26.2 27.4 21.1 23.5 23.3	19.7 13.0 25.3 19.3 28.9
	45	18.4 15.2 44.8 36.0 15.1	9.9 9.9 18.2 7.4	10.5 8.8 13.1 11.7 6.5
3-cut	,60	19.7 25.3 27.3 47.2 22.0	16.0 6.0 21.7 22.3 14.4	15.1 16.3 28.7 11.6 7.6

* Minimum of 100 metering events

B2. Whole Seed Metering Data

The data listed below summarizes whole seed metering results. Each data point represents one of the five experiment replications.

Perce	nt of	metering	errors wh	nich w	ere uns	uccess	ful *
		Meter	ing rate	(plant	s/s)		
	3.0		6.0		*	9.0	
	55.8 56.1 57.3		31.3 35.8 28.4			16.4 19.0 14.4	
	54.7 53.0		27.2 31.1			9.2 :11.0	

^{*} Minimum of 100 metering events

B3. The following data set represents the distribution of consecutive metering errors expressed as a percent of total metering errors for cut seed metering trials.

						===
	Per				ring enro	<u> </u>
Trial 1	. 2	Consecut 3 4	5	e terir	ng errors	10
M2H2Z2R1	8 12 6 6 5 1 1 6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	1.5 0.0 1.5 0.0 2.6 1.7 1.1 1.5 0.0 0.0 0.0	000050000000001000000000000000000000000		0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	

M1 = 3 plants/s H1 = 1-cut Z1 = 45 g R1..5 = replication M2 = 6 plants/s H2 = 2-cut Z2 = 60 g M3 = 9 plants/s H3 = 3-cut

B4. Whole seed-metering trial data listed below represents the distribution of consecutive metering errors expressed as a percent of total metering errors.

	Percent of total metering errors														
,	Consecutive metering errors														
Trial	1	2	3	4	5	6	<u> 7</u>	8	9	10					
M1HOR1	11.8	17.0	13.7	5.2	.3.3	3.9	0.0	0.0	o [*] . o	0.0					
M1H0R2	8.2	10.6	8.8	14.1	0.0	10.6	0.0	0.0	5.3	0.0					
M1HOR3	12.4	12.9	12.4	4.7	5.9	7.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M1HOR4	10.9	10.9	8.2	5.4	6.8	0.0	0.0	5.4	0:0	0.0					
M1H0R5	12.6	11.0	1.7	15.4	5.5	13.3	3.8	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M2HOR 1	16.4	6.9	8.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M2H0R2		-10.1	8.4	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M2H0R3	14.9	8.3	3.6	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M2H0R4	15.5	3.7	3.7	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M2H0R5	12.6	6.6	3.3	8.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M3HOR 1	14.3	1.5	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M3H0R2	13.2	2.4	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M3HOR3	8.1	6.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M3HOR4	9.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					
M3HOR5	8.8	2.8	1.6	1.4	0.9	11	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0					

M1 = 3 plants/s H0 = whole seed R1..5 = replication M2 = 6 plants/s

M3 = 9 plants/s

10. APPENDIX C. MONITOR COMPONENTS

Potato Planter Monitor Components

Name."	Description	Code Number	Purpose
Component	s for the micro	processor	board
M6809	8-BIT Micro- processor	, JJ 1	MPU - executes M6809 instruction set
741s245N	Octal bus transceivers	U2 1	Buffers for data lines
74LS244	Octal buffer line drivers /receivers	U3-U5 3	Buffers for address and control lines
74154N	4-line to 16-line de- multiplexer	U7 1	Facilitates division of addressable memory into 16 - 4K memory blocks
2716JL	2048 word x 8 bit erasable prom	υ8,U9 2	Provides one 2K reprogrammable ROM
6116P	2048 word x 8 bit high speed static CMOS RAM	U11	Random access memory for program variables, and system stacks (2K)
MC6850 ₹	ACIA	U13,U14 2	Facilitates serial communications
MC6821P	PIA	U19 1;	Facilitates physical- logical interface with peripheral devices
MC6840	PTM	U15 1	Provides 3 programable timers, used for 5 s statistical and display updates
7400N	Quad 2 input NAND gates	U10 1	NAND logic function decoding
74LS02	Quad 2 input NOR gates	U12	Allows for 2 of 4 decoding
7404N	Hex inverter	U29 1	Inverts logic signals
7408N	Quad 2 input AND gates	U30 1	Row change request circuit

Monitor Components (cont...)

Name	Description	Code	Purpose
,		Number	. B033
7414N	Hex Schmitt- trigger inverters	U6 1	
Crystal		n .	
MP0368	3.57 MHz crystal	C1 1	Provides input signal for M6809 clock signal (E and Q)
Capacito	! rs		
150 uF	Incoming end of Vcc and Gnd bars	1	Smooths power supply
27 pF	In crystal circuit	C1 '2	Sine wave O/P
10.0 uF	Between Vcc and GND bars	9	Decoupling
1.0 uF .	In reset	R1 1	Switch debouncing
2.4 nF	Row change	R4° •	Switch debouncing
Resistors	<u> </u>	·	•
1 kΩ	1/4 W	R2-R4 17	Pull-up resistors in microswitch and photoscanner circuit, row select debouncing
2.7 κΩ	1/4 W	R4 1	Row select switch debouncing
4.7 κΩ	1/4 W	R1,R5 6	Pullup resistors for IRQ, FIRQ, HALT, NMI, BMA/BREQ, MRDY, on MPU and row select circuit
10 kΩ	1/4 W	R1,R5 R4 17	Debouncing circuit, crystal circuit, and PTM to Gnd circuit

Monitor Components (cont...)

Name	Description	Code	Purpose
		Number	
Input dev	/ices	en e	
Micro- switches	8 bit micro switch	\$2,\$3 2	Allows input of number of rows and number of elements/row for the planter
Pulse switches	Normally open	S1,S4 S5 3	Reset and display mode change, row change
Toggle switches	on-off	S6,S7 2	Used to enable row autoincrement function and defective element indicator (buzzer)
Output de	evices	**	
PCIM200%	PCI alphanum- eric LCD dot matrix module	T9 1	Facilitates the display of performance information
Buzzer	Small Radio Shack buzzer	TiO 1	Indicates defective metering element
Connector	<u>`s</u>		
D9	9 pin male	D9 1	Serial communication port
40 pin	Right angle male, board mount	U22, U23 2	Microprocessor board to monitor connection
40 pin	Ribbon clamp , female	U22, U23 2	Microprocessor board to monitor connection
16 pin	Male IC ribbon connector	J4	Sensor connection to microprocessor board
) IC Sockets			
	40 pins	U1,U16 U19 3	MPU, PIA socket

Monitor Components (cont...)

Name	Description	Code Number	Purpose
	28 pins	U15 1	PTM socket
	24 pins	U7 U8 U9 5	Demultiplexer socket EPROM socket EPROM socket
ζ		U11/4 U13,U14 6	RAM socket ACIA (x 2) sockets
,	20 pins	U2-U5 4	Buffer sockets
	16 pins	R1-R5	ICs and resistor bank sockets
المر	14 pins	R1,U6 U10,U12 U17 5	ICs and resistor banks sockets
Misc.	Y		
Board	Perforated IC board	2.	For microprocessor system and display
Board stand	Al board holder with legs top and bottom		Allow for circuit assembly and provides
Wire wrap wire	Plastic coated	Fair bit	Connections between socket pins
Ribbon wire	40 pin	30 cm	Connects main board to display board
	16 pin	130 cm	Connects sensors to main board
Power cord	With banana	2	Vcc and Gnd connection

cont.

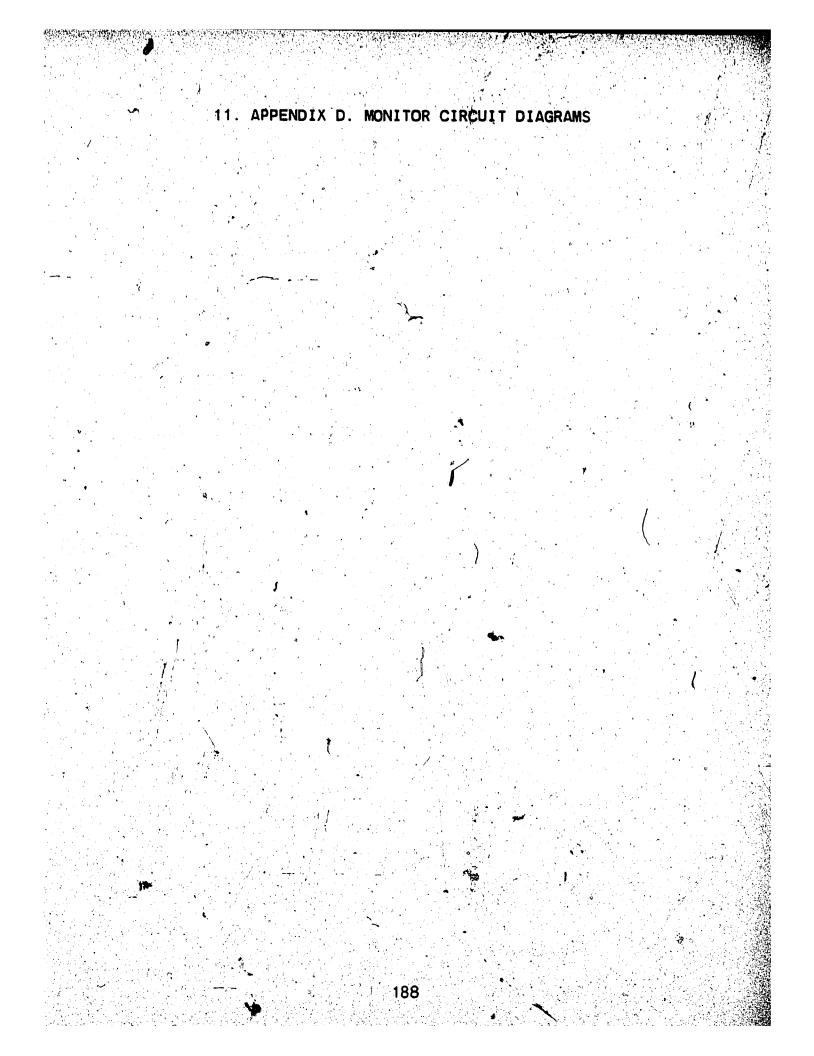
Monitor Components (cont...

1			
Name	Description	Code Number	Purpose
Componen	ts for each row	monitored	
MC6821P	PIA	U16 1	Facilitates physical- logical interface with peripheral devices
Inverters (7404N)	2 Input inverter gates	U29 6	Used to generate logic level D/P from 'Hall Effect' sensor
Drivers (7407N)	Hex buffer/ drivers with open collec- tor high voltage 0/P gates	U20,U21 8	Drives LEDs and buzzer
NAND gates (7400N)	2 Input NAND gates	U17 2	Used to generate logic level O/P from photoscanner
Input dev	ices /		
MCS-651 (Wanner Electric)	Modulated IR through beam photoscanner	N1 1	Potato sensor
UGS3019T	Sprague 'Hall Effect' switch	N2 1	Detects occurence of metering event
Output de	vices		
LEDs	Retangular yellow	L1 4	Indicate consecutive metering misses
in the second	red	L1 2	Indicate sensor malfunction
	green	L1: 3	Row display indicator
Resistors			
47Ω	1/4 W	R6 8	Current limiting resistors for LED

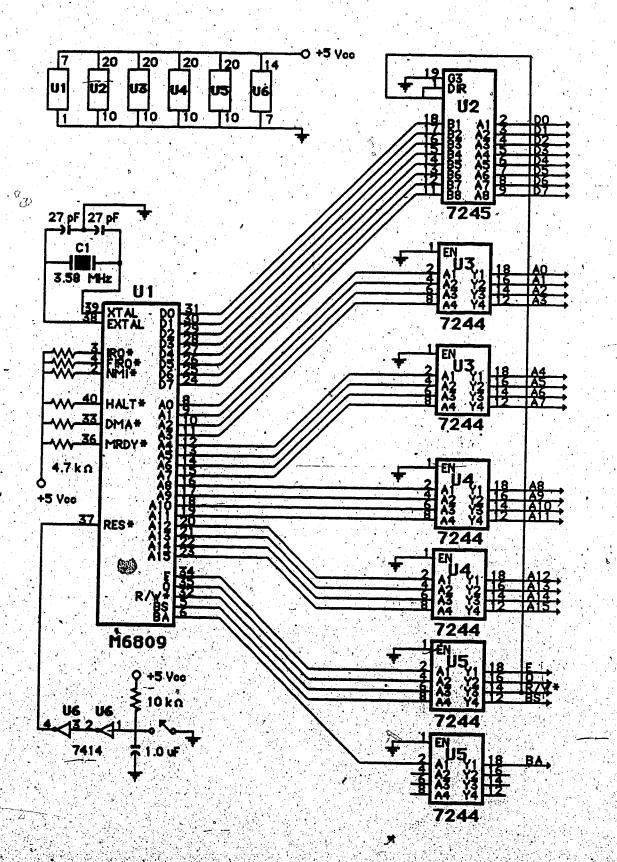
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Monitor Components (cont...)

Name	Description	Code Number	Purpose
4.7 kΩ	1/4 W	R5 ¹)	Pullup for IR photo- scanner circuit,
Misc.	•		
Wire wrap wire	Plastic coated	Fair bit	Connections between socket pins
IC Sockets	40 pins	U16	PIA socket

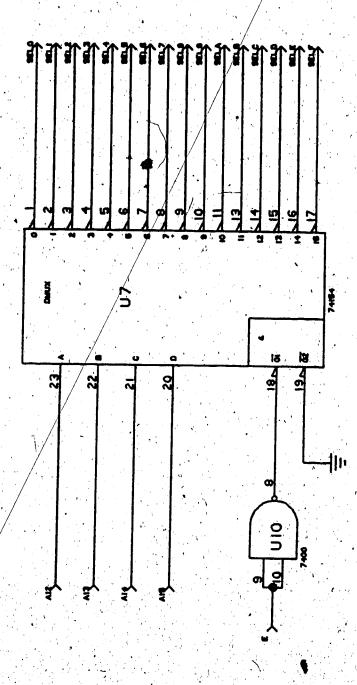


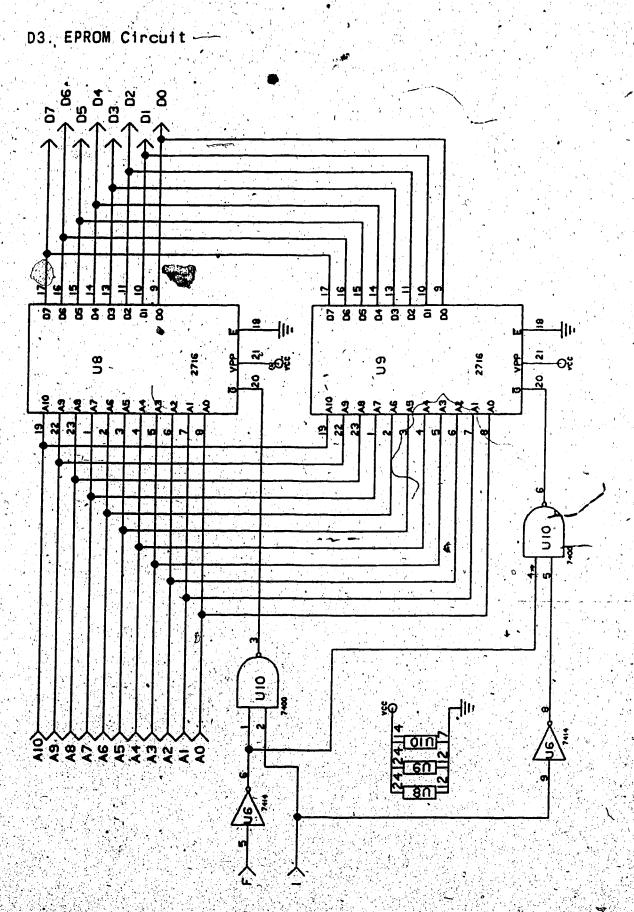
D1. Microprocessor, Clock, and Reset Circuit

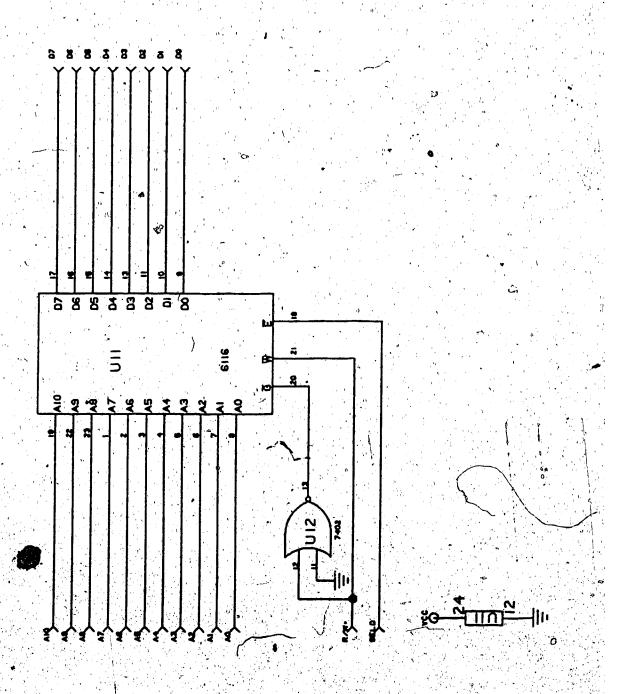




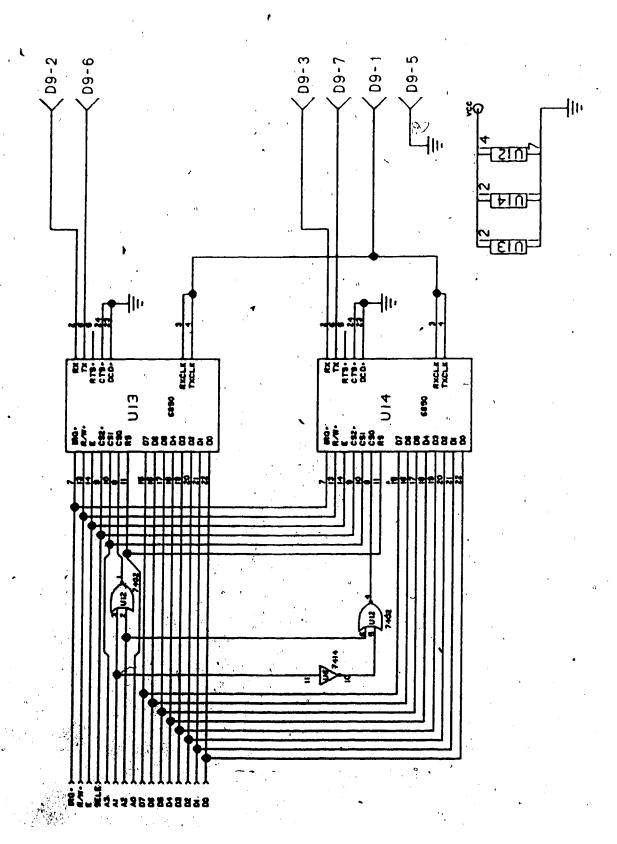
D2. Address Decoding Circuit

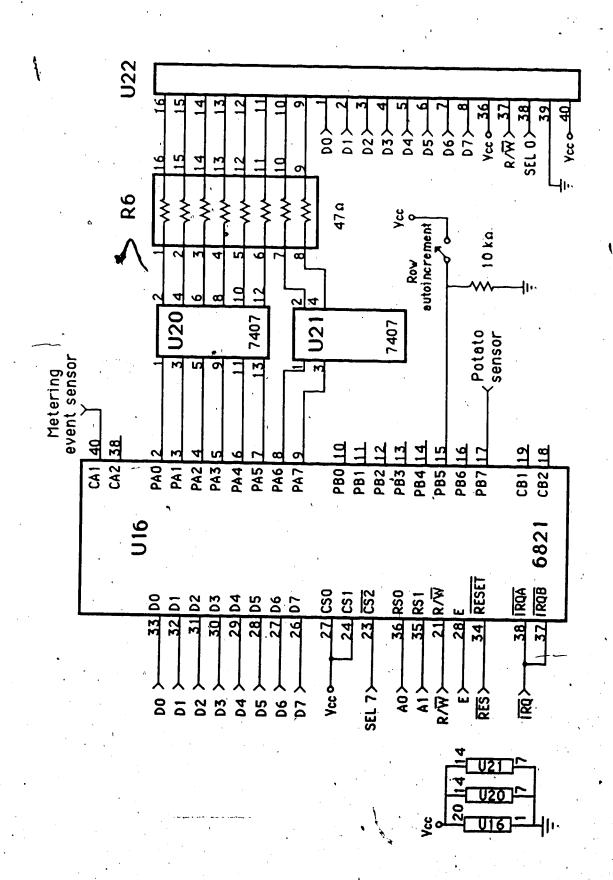


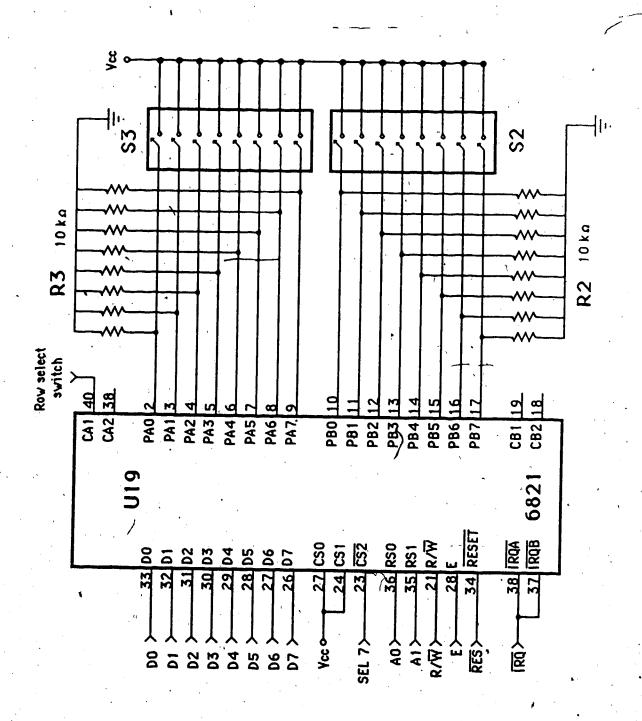




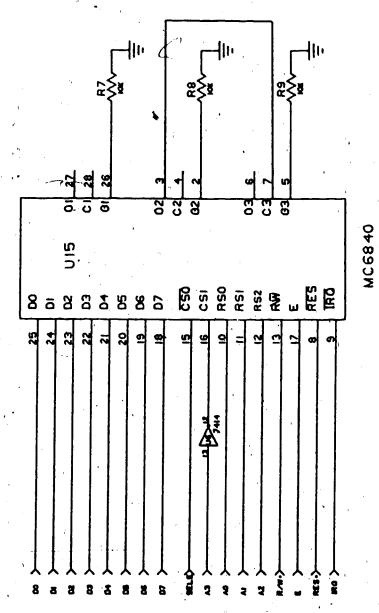
" D5. ACIA Circuit



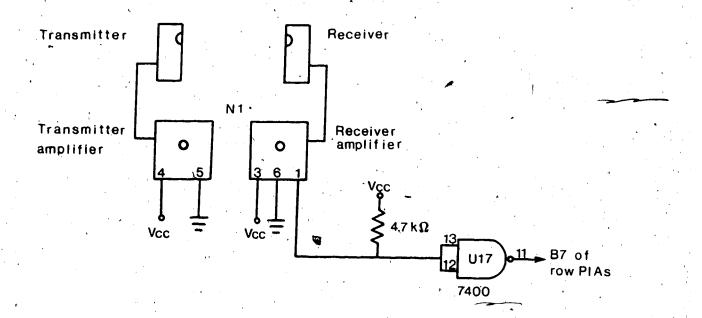




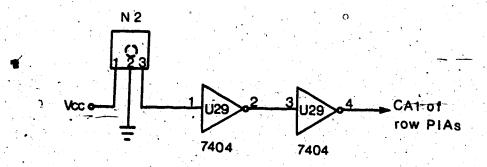
2 ~_U19}--||·



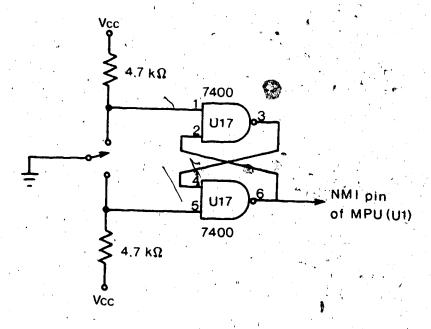
D9. Potato Sensor



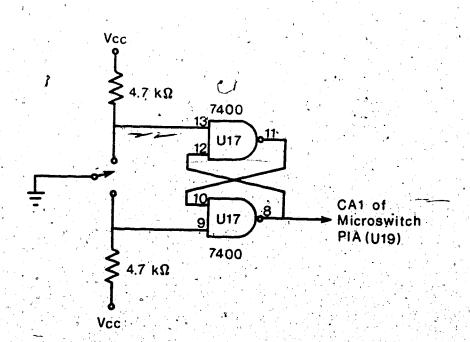
D10. Metering Event Sensor



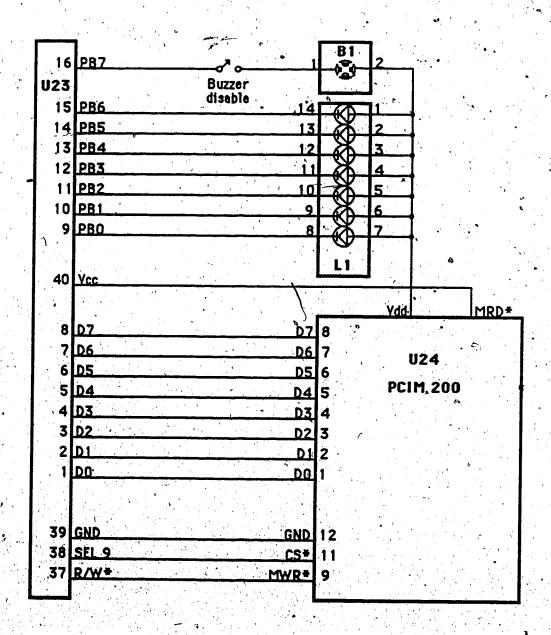
D11. Mode Change Circuit



D12. Row Change Circuit



D13. Display Circuit



12. APPENDIX E. MONITOR PROGRAM

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	• • · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ance feedback Masters thesis project	<<<<>><<<<>><<<<>><<<<>><<<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<<>><<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<<>><<<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<>><<><	metering & statistics update, change modes & display					c locks		it lons .			ي ۾	of row 3y being	Curr	esponding to row displayed Pointer to data block checked	
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P 034		99	MODEL G	٠.	3	Mode change flag
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0500	•	89	Ţ,		<u>8</u>	Data block 2 base
200	89	69	4		8	Data block 3 base
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020		7.		'	8	Data block 5 base
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900	83	82	_		3:	Next element in the metering chain to be monitored
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200		7			(3)	
	2	6				Total successful events
88	9 6	9 :	PERMIS EQU		(2)	Current percent misses
38	3.2					Current planting rate (rotato/min)
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FD59	EO1 8	103	LCDINT JSR	_		Delay to latch character to display
7002	<u>.</u>	2	, .	Ī.	·••	Base address of LCD initialization flags
Q	6	50	FLCDSP LDA			:Next flag loaded
8	90	106	ST		••	sond stored
	2 107	50	3	_		:Last flag?
26		5	BAE	Ξ.	••	:No, get next one
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110 message FLG		1 11	Source Statement Clear Sta	M6809 Version UL 202.				KAM to dispisy burr			. ,	₹ 6) }		ole CA1 (port A)			, more	icrement input)	•	8			ole CA1 (port A)		iDs (green)									lock be displayed		
110 message FLG		1 11	1.			1011101	characters to dump	naracter string from		. 1		sa data direction re	Input		e registers and enab		Initialized	Permonen	setting (Row autoin	ss data direction re	ss data direction re inout			a registers and enac	a registers (port 8)		SE OF Dext PIA	lize next PIA	RAM >>		t RAM address	- cy -	5		ess of row 1 data blinst data bl	sponds to first data	
Dimplay greeting Libs Areling L	2	1		•		988	Number of			A 91A			Port A for	101	; Access	: Access	3	:Start with	•	CRA - ACCOI		e uo d		•	: Access	-		:No. initia	mory locations in I	t D000-D7FF	Starting a	End of RAM	:No. contin	n varta	Row 1 18 f	PIA1 conne	
	5	1			ource Statement	Display greeting	3		<< PIA RESET >>	Reset microsyte			77		₹ .				ANDB	STA			Ξ,				2.0		< Initialize mer	Zero 2K memory a	EMINT LDX #\$DOOD	X		Initialize progr			4.1

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, G	17:33:32		row autoincrement flag is set (disabled) of data block currently displayed		from data block base of variable displayed	Co. the section of the section of the section of	III LEO CIBDIGA MESSA	Remaining LED display masks initialized to off						in each row of the metering device	of rows	:8it-6 masked out (mode 1 autoincrement input)	ber of metering elements in each row	to next available memory for	ř	base accrets of first cate block Offset pointer current element in metering chain	Base address of next data block	Last data block? If not initialize next data block			away from interrupting PIA. Pointers to data blocks and FIA charked of an event are initialized for each row.	Base address for data blocks base addesses used in	light sensor salfunction tests	Officet to address of data block checked on row 1		ewo'r Jo	of FOW/2		3	Initialize PIA pointers			litze X register for next data block pointer			Initialize next date block	Base address for PiA pointers used in poteto		
	t is		AUTORY : Mode + r	8	;Offset	PATALLIS DON SALE	,		DATA3+LEDDIS	DATA4+LEDDIS DATA5+1 FDDIS	DATA6+LEDDIS		microswitches	of elements		 E	NUKUES Read number		•	MEXIEL X : Offset pointer		OFFINT : Last dat		sor malfunction test o	a interrupting PIA. Pointers t are initialized for each row.	CKDAT : 84	: SAC	000		redenty:	_	ALKDATI : Pointer	1	SETPIA Yes, In		••	INCUAL INC. CONTINUE	• 1	x :Pointer	LKDAT : Initial	XXX - Sass - SASS - SASS	ε	≯,8 ,
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M6809 Version UL 202			:	. 1		ğ		MO LOM			6	address for malfunction test	complete		4		ing updat		complete	٠.		6	•
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Potato planter sonitor 1901ect 1 21MT 1196.4 500		, t	- 43	31	INTGOA	LKDAT3	LKP1A3	MALIST	DATA3+SENFIG	POATA3	~ =	•	ering event (P1441	INTS	DATAGEMFLG	KDATA	LKPIA4	MALTST -	DATA4+SENFLG	#DATA4		-	t Carve	_	INTE	DATAS+SENFLG	1NT G05	LKDAID	MAI TST	DATAS+SENFLG	#DATAS			event (P146+1	POLCTD	INTOOR	LKDAT6	LKPIA6	MAL TST	DATAG+ SENFLG	*DATA6			cs úpdate	PIAS+1	UPDATE	(4) 40)	,	AUTORW
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	Do lect	- 1	SIMI	I ine	Source Statement	tement	17:33:32	32 06-27-86
FA33 BD	FC60	•	386	386	850		Change rows displayed	
438		E	388	388.	C RTI	1 01 5/41 7	Kerresh display for hew row	
	•		389	389				
•			96	390) ;			
			9 6	100		s subrouting: MALISI -	Check for potato sensor mairunction >>	
			393	383.	× 0/1 •	- Date block base address		
			394	394.		- PIA base address	7.00S	
		,	382	385.			•	
FA3A A6	0	.	966	386.	MALTST LDA	LEDOIS, X	Row display mask	
FASC ED	ţ'n.	• "	9 0	. 600	2 9	- 2	Sensor Input on B/	,
-			9 0	. 000	1 6		The state of the s	
		• e	4		408		ino, alter displey mask to indicate mailorcitor (86)	
FA44 BK	4	~	Ç	401	LOW ORA	##D1000000	"Section Norks, display mask malfunction bit off	
		en	403	403	RE 2	LEDO1S, X		
FA48 38	· ·	•	403	403	RTS	•		,
			\$	0	•			•
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		9	-	7	METUPO INC	×.	Current events incresented	
FA4B A6	7 V	•	412	412		. ~.		
		e	413	413.	BM1	TIT .	;Successful metering event? Yes, continue at HIT	
			7	7	• •			
	;	•			seconsum.	5		
747 60	5 6 	- •	9 :	9.	MOSEED INC	CAMISS, X	4	
			7 7			MISCED. A	INCHEST OF BUSINESS DISPLEYED OF BELEFING LEUK	
		• "	9					
FA57 5C		, 4	420	420	S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S		included the manage of consecutive and the management of consecutive management increases	
	05	ĸ	421	421.	STB	MISLED. X	consecutive	
	,		422	422.				
			423	423	. Defectiv	Defective element test		
FASA AG		K)	424	424	ELTST LDA	NEXTEL, X	; Pointer to no. of consecutive misses for this element	
		en	425	125.	108		of consecutive misses for	
		~	426	426.	CHOR		; Four consecutive misses on this element?	
	8	C	427	427.	038	8U22.	; Yes, buzzer flag set	
		_	428	428.	รั	BUZFLG		
FA65 5C		~	429	429.	¥.		no, of consecutive	
		ຮາ	6	90	STB	×.×	:Number of consecutive misses stored	
FA68 20	8	n	431	431.	BRA	UPMISS		
FAGA 7C	. D039	7	433	432	BUZZ INC	BUZFLG	;Buzzer flag set (off)	
			433	433				
			4.0	434	to reper of	Consecutive	misses incremented and checked for overflow (64 max)	
			436	25.4	100 ES 1170		account and transfer to address account to	•
A 1 1 A	88 10		437	437	STA	COMMIS. X		
FA74 48	;	~	438	438	V PSF V		•	
A75.2	91	6	439	430	RA	2180	tager & because her control and account and all the control of the	
				2				

140 201		•					
	1	-1	STAT	1119	Source Statement	tement	17:33:32
	•		;	•			
•.	•		3		Current 1		
479 EG	0	*	7		111	/	
A78 27	8	· (7)	777	•			There of consecutive misses displayed
FA7D SA		~	448	•	250		יין אפש מסנס נרוער
A7E 67	0	•	446			× 05 15 18	
A 00 A 6	5	•	777				011)
20 000	5	י פ		•	TO WITH TO		element's conse
10 700				•	3	-	Clear consecutive miss count for current element
FASA AS				•	YOU		-
1	2 6	9 (?		710	_	P B 183 2
A58 /	0038	- ,	5	•	ਬੌ	BUZFLG	:Defective element indicators off
FASC 48	;		452	7.			ative number
A80 85	7.6	~ .	453	*	CLRMIS ADDA	A 8127	
ABF EG	9	P	484	454	83	×××	
1491 BC		~	455	455	INCB		:Respective consecutive of misses is incresented
A92 E7	99	5	456	456.	STB	×××	
FA84 :24	8	e	457	457.	BCC		:Carry from addition?
		~	458	458	DECA	•	**************************************
A97 6C	98		459	•	2	, ×.4	ilnorement MSB of consecutive miss counter
A99 6F	. 88 10		460	460	CLR		Consecutive number of miss count is cleared
			461	461.	•		;
			462	462	å	pointer to next	elegent checked for 4 consecutive misses
FA9C E6	3	ĸ	463	463.	METCON LDB	NEXTEL, X	to current element in thi
ASE SA		~	464	•		_	to next ele
U	Ξ	~	465	465.	CHPB	B. 7311	e metering chain made a
AA1 26	8	n	466	466.	BNE	OISLED	
Œ.	9000	e n	467	467.	F.08		
w	3	€0	468	•	DISLED STB	MEXTEL , X	• pointer
			469	•	•		
	;	i	4	•	. LEDs are	• refreshed	•
	2	6 0	47	471.	PSH	3	:PIA base address stacked
-	E FD88	•	472	472.	ro.	٠.	:Table for consecutive no. of missess to LED formst
	5	- A	473	473.	TOT	_	
FABO EG	¥0	•	474	474.	801	_	:New metering display mask
	8	SO	175	475.	ANDB		:Combine status LED mask with metering LED mask
A64 70	6038	_	416	476.	TST		1
	5	.	477	4	860		•
	25	~	478	•	•	B #200101111	:Yes, sensor malfunction LEDs and buzzer on
	9	.	418	•	ONGO PULU		:Retrieve PIAs base address
ABD E7	53	so.	48 0	•	STB	2.4	Oisplay mask sent to LEDs
ABF 38		ō	481	48).	RTI		
			482	•	•		
			483	•	•		
			484	•	• << ROUT	Routine:UPDATE - Sta	Statistics update for each data block (every 5 sec) >>
			485	•	•		•
		2 4	486	486.	ž	mode 1 row autoincrement togge!	Crement togge!
ACO F6.	2000	9	487	487.	UPDATE LDB	PIAS	Row sutplingrement todge) on B6 of migrosyltch P1A
AC3 C3	9	ri,	488	•	8118	B #%010000000	
ACS. 27	8		489	•	860	_	
AC7 7F	0013	-	490	•	ដ	٠	:No reset row autoincrement flag .
ACA 20	g	C	49+	4			
FACC CG.	0	~	492	492.	RINC LDB	10\$;Row autoingrement, set flag
ACE F7	0013	ກ	493	493.	STB	AUTORN	
22	3		40.4	494	•	,	
	3	n	4 5	495	UPSTRI		Shiphon of nous

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17:33:32						٠			•			test >>			*			٠							1	•				ч			,	,							20000						;		
												280									5						ğ		٠																			2	
		:Base address of row I data block	;Statistics calculations	Sensor malfunction check flag reset		TALL FORE Updated? If so, refresh display	GOODES OF DEXT FOW PIN	The second section for the second sec	Challed petreeth			Subroutine:CALC - Calculations for statistics update & event sensor, test >>		Data block number to be updated		se address		Planting rate (metering events/min)	100	Constant of party of the constant of the const	interrupts occur at 5 sec intervals, therefore	multiplying by 12 gives events/min	Store in planting rate memory location				;Stack PIA address corresponding to data block	Current number of events		COLVISOR DISCOS IN SIVISOR WORKSPACE		sessis to recently:	Multiplied by 100	Dividend placed in division workspace	:Divide		Divison by 0 % misses, quotient set to 0		Store Maisses.	PIA base address restored	transfer control to the section of t		(bedde redents (number added)		:No event sensor malfunction mask set to on			; Sensor functioning, maifunction mask reset to off	LED display mask updated LED display mask stored
T L	PIAI	/DATA!	CALC	SENFLG, Y	,	FINISH	\$ 1000.x	50100.	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2			tine:CALC - Co		Data block nu	PIA base address	Data block base address		ng rate (mete	,	۷.,		•	PLRATE Y	•	Current percent misses		*	-	PDI VVS+2	× .	*100 *100	<u> </u>	•	×	USB DIVISM	71.00			PERMIS, Y	×		COORTE TOTAL NAMED IN	,	E VGO	1110111	LEDDIS, Y	STORE	#1000 10000	LEDO1S.Y
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FD96 4F3D4D4F4E49 FD9C 544F523D					
FDAO 25204D495353	828	828	PRISAS FCC 'M MISSES		
FDAA 4E4F2E204556	829	829.	NEVAS FCC 'NO EVENTS'		
FD84 4E4F2E204D49	830	830	MISAS FCC 'NO MISSES'		
	831	831.	PLANTS FCC 'NO. PLANTS'		
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FD02 686861606265	836	9.60	FLAGS FCB \$68, \$68, \$61, \$60, \$62, \$65, \$67, \$6E, \$00, \$8A		` .
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13. APPENDIX F. MONITOR MEMORY MAPS 220

F1. Monitor System Memory Map

Address	Deviçe /
0000 1000-1003 2000-2003 3000-3003 4000-4003 5000-5003 6000-6003 7000-7003 8000-8007 0000-D7FF E008-E009 E004-E00B F000-F7FF F800-FFFF	PCIM 200 LCD 6821 PIA (Row 1) 6821 PIA (Row 2) 6821 PIA (Row 3) 6821 PIA (Row 4) 6821 PIA (Row 5) 6821 PIA (Row 6) 6821 PIA (Microswitches) 6840 PTM 6116 RAM 6850 ACIA 6850 ACIA 2716 EPROM 2716 EPROM

F2. Program Memory Map

Address	Routine	Description	
F800-F92E F92F-F94B F960-FA39 FA3A-FA48 FA49-FABF FAC0-FB46 FB47-FB4F FB50-FB65 FC00-FC23 FC24-FC6C FC6D-FCB0 FCB1-FD3C FCB1-FD3C FD3D-FD4D FD45-FD68 FD59-FD64	STKINT IRQ MALTST METUPD UPDATE CALC ADD DIVISN CMODE DISPLY DELTRW HEXCON LDZERO CLRLCD DELAY DIMP	Initialization Main program IRQ polling routine Potato sensor malfunction to Metering update Statistics update Statistics calculations Addition Division Change modes Display refresh Change rows Code conversion Strip leading zeros Clear LCD Delay	est
	F800-F92E F92F-F94B F960-FA39 FA3A-FA48 FA49-FABF FAC0-FAEF FAF0-FB46 FB47-FB4F FB50-FB65 FC30-FC23 FC24-FC6C FC6D-FCB0 FCB1-FD3C FCB1-FD3C FD3D-FD4D FD45-FD58 FD59-FD64	F800-F92E F92F-F94B F960-FA39 IRQ FA3A-FA48 MALTST FA49-FABF METUPD UPDATE FAFO-FB46 CALC FB47-FB4F ADD FB50-FB65 DIVISN FC30-FC23 CMODE FC24-FC6C DISPLY FC6D-FCB0 DELTRW FCB1-FD3C HEXCON FCB1-FD3C HEXCON FD3D-FD4D LDZERO FD45-FD58 CLRLCD FD59-FD64 DELAY	F800-F92E STKINT Initialization F92F-F94B - Main program F960-FA39 IRQ IRQ polling routine FA3A-FA48 MALTST Potato sensor malfunction to Metering update FA49-FABF METUPD Metering update FAC0-FAEF UPDATE Statistics update FAF0-FB46 CALC Statistics calculations FB47-FB4F ADD Addition FB50-FB65 DIVISN Division FC30-FC23 CMODE Change modes FC24-FC6C DISPLY Display refresh FC6D-FCB0 DELTRW Change rows FC61-FD3C HEXCON Code conversion FD3D-FD4D LDZERO Clear LCD

F3. System Vector Memory Map

	Accress	Description		aress.	
	F800-F94B	Reset	. , ,	44	
:	F960-FB65 FC00-FD6F	IRO service routine NIM service routine	· ·		

F4. ROM Data Memory Map

Address	Description
FD70-FD79 FD7A-FD7F	'Mode descriptor addresses Data block addresses for potato sensor
FD80-FD85	malfunction test PIA addresses for potato sensor malfunction test
FD86-FD8A	Offsets from data block base addresses for performance statistics
FD8B-FD8F	Consecutive miss metering masks
FD90-FDD1	Mode descriptors
FDD2-FDDC	Flags for LCD initialization
FFF0-FFFF	System vectors

F5. RAM Memory Map

Address	Description 🖒 .
D000-D039	Program variables (excluding variables in data blocks)
D100-D1FF	Row 1 data block
D200-D2FF	Row 2 data block
D300-D3FF	Row 3 data block
D400-D4FF	Row 4 data block
D500-D5FF	Row 5 data block
D600-D6FF	Row 6 data block
D700-D73F	User stack
D740-D7FF	System stack

F6. Data Block Memory Map

Address	Description
D#00-D#10	Data block variables (see lines 78-89 in
D#11-D#FF	the program listing in Appendix D) Metering element consecutive miss data

- Data block row number