COLORIMETRIC ANALYSIS IN GRADING BLACK WALNUT VENEER

Byron E. Boardman
Process Engineer
Tibbals Flooring Company
Oneida, TN 37841

John F. Senft
Associate Professor of Wood Science
Department of Forestry and Natural Resources
Purdue University
West Lafayette, IN 47907-1200

George P. McCabe
Professor of Statistics and Head of Statistical Consulting
Department of Statistics
Purdue University
West Lafayette, IN 47907

and

Christine M. Ladisch
Associate Professor of Textile Science
Department of Consumer Sciences and Retailing
Purdue University
West Lafayette, IN 47907

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ABSTRACT

Colorimetry techniques and automated data collection instrumentation were used to evaluate grade of black walnut veneer on the basis of sheet color and to identify and classify defects by size. Although color measurement readily quantifies veneer color, relatively large differences in color within sheets and between sheets within a veneer grade make the usefulness of overall color values in grading black walnut veneer doubtful under current grading practices. Differentiation between sapwood and heartwood is easily determined and may have commercial application in veneer clipping operations. Colorimetry techniques can detect defects with reasonable consistency, but accurate size classification needs more study.

Keywords: Colorimetry, black walnut veneer, defect detection, veneer grading.

INTRODUCTION

Hardwood veneer grading is based primarily upon the appearance of the veneer. This is especially true for black walnut (Juglans nigra, L.) veneer. The grade of walnut veneer and, consequently, its value are based upon many appearance factors. The major factors include color, uniformity of color, grain patterns, presence of defects (type, size, number, and location), amount of sapwood, and veneer sheet size. Visual veneer grading is limited by the fact that a grader can inspect only for features that he has been trained to recognize. Also, accuracy and consistency of grading vary with the grader's perception of these features, ex-
perience, and other factors such as lighting and fatigue. Thus, walnut veneer grading is subjective and may vary widely from one grader to the next as well as between veneer companies. The process seems to work well enough on an industry-wide basis; however, it is non-standardized, time-consuming, cumbersome, and produces variable results.

In any attempt to improve the current walnut veneer grading process, some means of removing the subjectivity from the current grading process must be sought. Ideally, such a process would be automated and would provide a numerical basis for comparing veneer flitch grades and the grades of various sheets of veneer within a flitch. An improved process would allow grades between companies to be compared and, perhaps more importantly, the subjectivity of attempting to select a set of similar grades of flitches for a customer from a warehouse of flitches or of attempting to color match the veneer from a previous order could be reduced.

Although automatic defect detection and grading systems have been developed for the lumber industry (Conners et al. 1983; Juvonen 1985; Thunell 1985), investigation of these systems showed that none are particularly suitable for use in the veneer industry because they do not analyze color, the most important walnut grading criterion. Color differences between defects and clear wood, between earlywood and latewood, and between sapwood and heartwood in walnut suggest that color analysis equipment may be suitable in the grading process. Color analysis equipment is presently available and in use in the paint and textile industries. Similar techniques to remove human subjectivity by quantifying color measurement may be able to satisfactorily analyze the grading criteria to determine walnut veneer grades.

COLOR ANALYSIS

A HunterLab D25A colorimeter and an interfacing computer for data recording and analysis were used to measure color variables of samples of various grades of veneer. To determine the feasibility of quantitative color analysis to effectively evaluate and distinguish between the various walnut veneer grading criteria, this system utilized what is known as the $L, a, b$ color system. The $L, a, b$ system is an opponent-type color system based on human perception of color as light-dark, red-green, and yellow-blue signals (Billmeyer and Saltzman 1981; HunterLab Process Monitoring and Control Division 1985; Kowlek 1982; Moslemi 1969). Opponent-type color systems presume that a color cannot contain two opponent colors simultaneously. For example, a color cannot appear red and green at the same time.

The lightness-darkness of a color is designated by an $L$ value, where $L$ ranges from 0, for black, to 100, for white. The $a$ value represents redness (positive $a$ values), or greenness (negative $a$ values). Yellowness-blueness is shown by the $b$ value, positive for yellowness and negative for blueness. The $L, a, b$ color system has been used to analyze wood color and color differences (Moslemi 1967, 1969). It has been shown that the $L$ scale is particularly useful for increasing the precision of measurements of dark colors (Billmeyer 1969), which makes the system appear to be suitable for black walnut analysis. The $L, a, b$ system was used in this study to obtain quantitative color measurements.

MATERIAL PREPARATION AND PROCEDURE

Hardwood veneer is graded visually by a grader who generally selects three sheets at one-fourth intervals throughout the flitch. The sheets are chosen to represent the average veneer characteristics of the entire flitch. Thus, a flitch grade is assigned based upon observation of three somewhat randomly selected sheets. An automated grading process could ostensibly grade every sheet and produce a realistic profile of the flitch. However, for this study only the three-sheet samples were used. Sample sets of black walnut veneer provided by an Indiana veneer company permitted color information to be collected on the same material that the grader used to determine flitch grade. Each veneer sheet was graded at the
time of manufacture and after drying. The material provided a good representation of the black walnut veneer grades recognized by this particular manufacturer and provided a close link between industry practice and research objectives.

Four flitch grades were sampled; each flitch grade had several subgrades. Except for the lowest grade (for which only one veneer sheet was studied), each flitch grade was represented by four sheets, two from a flitch at the high end of the grade and two from the low end of the grade; thus, thirteen veneer sheets from a total of seven flitches were chosen for study to represent the gamut of color shades and defects present in black walnut veneer of commercial quality. Since moisture content can affect the color of veneer (Brauner and Loos 1968), all of the specimens were equalized to a moisture content of approximately 7%. In addition, to prevent possible color change due to ultraviolet light, all specimens were kept covered when not being color processed.

For ease of handling, each sheet was cut into 6-inch-long specimens along the grain. The specimens of each veneer sheet were adhered to a stiff, plain white cardboard backing that could be firmly held onto an x-y coordinate table to provide precise point location over the colorimeter for data reproducibility. The colorimeter had a standard light source, C.I.E. illuminant C, and a C.I.E. two degree standard observer for consistent color measurement (HunterLab Process Monitoring and Control Division 1987).

Two colorimeter viewing port sizes were used in the study, ¼-inch square and ½-inch square; the latter was used for the majority of the data collection, and the former was used as a comparative check on accuracy and for defect assessment. The colorimeter was systematically moved in ¼- or ½-inch increments (matching port size) over each 6-inch veneer specimen to obtain L, a, and b values for an entire sheet. In this manner, color measurements could be used to reproduce the entire sample. All data were automatically recorded on computer disk files for subsequent analysis. The number of data point locations for each specimen ranged from 110 to 396, depending upon sheet width and nearness to the end of the veneer sheet (less than 6-inch specimen). A total of over 70,000 individual colorimeter (L, a, and b) readings were recorded and analyzed from 262 6-inch veneer specimens.

Repeatability of measurement was tested by collecting data on all locations within a sample and then repeating the measurements on the initial data location to see if time lapse or equipment shift had an effect on the readings. Overall, repeatability was very good; paired t-tests indicated that percent change was not significant for any color value. The L values exhibited the best repeatability over time, showing a maximum change of 2.5% from first reading to repeated end-of-test reading.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statistical analyses (primarily standard, computerized ANOVA statistical routines) and discriminate analysis techniques (Netter et al. 1982, 1985) were conducted to answer the following specific questions about colorimetric grading of black walnut veneer:

1) Are various veneer sheets within a veneer grade similar in color, and are there significant differences in mean color between the several veneer grades?
2) Can colorimetry techniques consistently distinguish sapwood areas from heartwood areas?
3) Can colorimetry techniques correctly identify defects in veneer, and, if so, how accurate is the identification with regard to defect type (knot, hole, or split) and size?

Comparison of within and between veneer grade color

The importance of heartwood color in walnut veneer suggests that colorimetry measurements should provide a means of veneer grade separation. Veneer sheets within a grade should have a similar color, and all areas within a sheet should likewise have a similar color. Mean color should be alike among sheets with-
in a grade and different between grades. An analysis of variance was performed to examine three sources of color variability for each of the three color readings ($L$, $a$, and $b$). The three sources of variation are (1) grade, (2) sheets within grade, and (3) individual specimens taken from each sheet. For this analysis subgrades were used in place of the actual flitch grades, giving seven different subgrade values (one for the lowest flitch grade and both a high end and a low end subgrade for each of the other three flitch grades).

The analysis presented in Table 1 shows statistically significant sheet to sheet variation and specimen to specimen variation for all three color values. A consequence of the large sheet to sheet variation (within grade) is that the flitch grades are not distinguishable on the basis of these color values. Stated another way, the samples making up a veneer sheet do not have the same average color, and hence color differences between grades are not significant, i.e., not discernible.

The magnitude of the variation would indicate that colorimetry is not a satisfactory tool for use in grade discrimination. Also implied is the indication that perceived color differences between grades are not real, or that color is often overshadowed in grading by other factors. The color differences between the high end of one grade and the low end of the next higher veneer grade, as was measured in this study, are rather subtle. These results are similar to those shown by Moslemi (1967) and Phelps et al. (1983). Thus quantitative color measurements are of limited usefulness in grading black walnut veneer.

**Delineation of sapwood and heartwood**

Logically, heartwood color is more important than sapwood color in black walnut veneer; sapwood material is usually removed in secondary manufacture. The color difference between sapwood and heartwood (Anon. 1956; Brauner and Loos 1968; Kowlek 1982; Phelps et al. 1983), suggests that color information can delineate between the two. To test this hypothesis, sapwood and heartwood regions were visually delineated on each sheet. Color values measured on the samples with 1/2-inch viewing port were grouped into sapwood and heartwood for each sample based upon the initial visual evaluation. For each type, means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the $L$, $a$, and $b$ color values. The mean color values were tested by a standard $t$-test, (Netter et al. 1982, 1985).

The results are shown in Table 2; all of the color values are significantly different between sapwood and heartwood at the 0.01 level of probability. Phelps et al. (1983) obtained similar success in delineating black walnut sapwood and heartwood. Naturally, sapwood is lighter in color than heartwood; its redness-greenness value is higher, implying that heartwood is more red than sapwood. Likewise, a higher yellowness-blueness value for sapwood attests to its being more yellow than heartwood. The color values coincided with the visual assessment quite well. The value of this result lies not with the fact that sapwood-heartwood delineation can be made by colorimetric tactics, since this is a rather easily performed visual process. The value lies rather in applying colorimetry to the grading of an entire flitch, or incorporating it into a manufacturing process whereby sapwood and heartwood can efficiently be identified and separated in an automated clipping process. In this way much more efficient evaluation and utilization of veneer could be made.

**Ability of color information to detect and identify defects**

Defect detection and identification are probably the most important criteria for grading black walnut veneer other than color. The location, type, and size of defects present in the veneer are major factors in determining veneer grades. In general, defects exhibit different colors than clear wood. Knots, checks, and splits tend to be darker than clear wood, whereas decay tends to be lighter and holes allow background material to be seen through the veneer (Conners et al. 1983; Juvonen 1985; Thunell 1985). These characteristics of defects suggest
that color information can be used to determine the presence of defects. $L$ values should be a preferred color measurement since the color values for knots and splits were expected to be lower, i.e., darker brown, than clear wood. The white background material was expected to cause $L$ values for holes to be higher than those for clear wood and for $a$ and $b$ values to be approximately zero. The hypothesis that color values can be used to detect defects in walnut veneer was tested by comparing color values for clear wood areas to those for immediately adjacent areas containing various defects.

The ability to detect defects and identify their nature and size turned out to be a difficult task. Two port sizes were used, $\frac{1}{2}$-inch square and $\frac{1}{4}$-inch square, for comparison. Logarithmic transformations of sums of squares and discriminate analyses were required to obtain meaningful results.

There was a large degree of color variation within the various veneer sheets, so much so that any between sheet variation was masked. As a result, even though areas containing defects, or the defects themselves, appear different in color than surrounding clear wood, the defected areas may not be significantly different in color from the color value determined from an analysis of an entire sheet. Thus, it was hypothesized that defect detection could be accomplished only by comparison of two closely adjacent areas, one with a defect and the other clear. Further, it was decided to use two different-sized areas for comparison. One size area contained data points that included the viewing-port-sized test point (containing either a defect or an area of clear wood) and one row and one column on each side of the test point, providing a $3 \times 3$ matrix of 9 data points for analysis. The second size area utilized data points that were within two rows and two columns of the test point, providing a $5 \times 5$ matrix of 25 data points for analysis. The two matrix sizes were studied since some defects are not clearly delineated by distinct color changes and a larger background area could enhance defect detection. Hypothetically, a defect centered within a matrix of evaluated points should appear markedly different in color from surrounding wood when compared to the color of a centered, nondefected point relative to its surrounding matrix of color evaluated points, regardless of localized color shades within a veneer sheet.

To measure the variability of color around a defect, the median color value for the 9 or 25 test points was calculated. Then the sum of squares of the deviations of individual points from the median was computed. To stabilize the variability of these sums of squares, analysis was performed on the logarithms of these quantities.

Thus, sums of squares for $L$, $a$, and $b$ values were calculated for the two sets of test points for each defect sample studied; one test point set contained a defect, while the other con-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. ANOVA—of, between and within grade color.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degrees of freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specimens</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Sheet is nested within Grade; Specimens are nested within Sheet within Grade.

** Significant at the 0.01 level; * Significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 2. Comparison of sapwood and heartwood color.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Color value</th>
<th>Sapwood</th>
<th>Heartwood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L$</td>
<td>65.442</td>
<td>5.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a$</td>
<td>3.141</td>
<td>4.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>13.383</td>
<td>2.533</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the 0.01 level.
TABLE 3. Classification of defects and clear wood with all transformed color values (using one row and one column around the test point, \( \frac{1}{2} \)-inch port).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actual classification</th>
<th>Defect</th>
<th>Clear wood</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defect</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>78.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear wood</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the results of the discriminate analyses for the three color values calculated using one row and one column data around the test point. The table presents the number of “defect” areas properly identified (for example, 51 defects; i.e., 78%) and the number of “defect” areas improperly identified as clear wood (for example, 14 defects; i.e., 22%). The results are satisfactory for individual color variables, but the combination of all three color variables (Table 3) exhibits the best results, correctly identifying 78% of the defects and 85% of the clear wood areas. Transformed yellowness-blueness values are able to distinguish defects as well as using all three variables but are slightly less useful in consistently identifying clear areas. Transformed lightness-darkness and redness-greenness values give similar results. Both correctly identified defects 69% of the time and clear areas somewhat over 70% of the time. These results show that transformed color values can be used to detect defects in black walnut veneer and that the combination of all three transformed values produces the best results, correctly classifying more defects and clear wood areas than any of the individual color values. A lacking, but interesting and valuable, piece of information would be a similar analysis of defect detection using the present visual grading system. One would like to think that the visual graders are keen-eyed; however, studies of dimension lumber mill graders (Huber et al. 1985) indicate that accurate defect detection and assessment over time are not as good as desired and are very similar to the results found in this study.

Discriminate analyses were also performed on transformed color values calculated using two rows and two columns around the test point. Overall, results for classification using these data were not as good as results calculated with only one row and column.

Defect detection by defect type and defect size

Although colorimetric techniques can be developed to detect defects and consistently discriminate between clear wood and defects, it
is also necessary to be able to distinguish between different types and sizes of defects. To determine the ability of the color information collected to identify defect type and size, discriminate analyses were performed using three defect types (knots, splits, and holes) and five defect sizes ($\frac{1}{2}''$, $\frac{1}{4}''$, $\frac{1}{8}''$, and $<\frac{1}{8}''$-inch), for the $\frac{1}{2}$-inch port size only.

Results of discriminate analyses performed on defect types are shown in Table 4. As with discrimination between defects and clear wood, the combination of all three transformed color values exhibits the best ability to classify defects as to type. Classification of knots and splits appears to be quite good, 98 and 80%, respectively (Table 4). However, holes were not classified with as much reliability, with only 43% being correctly identified. These results may be somewhat misleading because of the relatively large differences in the number of each type of defect examined. The large number of knots included in the analysis tended to improve knot identification. This trend is also evident in the analyses using individual color values. Most of the defects are classified as knots, regardless of what the defect actually was; for example, the $L$ and $b$ analyses placed very few or no defects in the split and hole categories. Further investigation utilizing more splits and holes must be performed to determine the accuracy of the transformed color values in identifying defect types.

The poor classification of holes may be caused by two factors. First, small holes do not allow background material to make up a very large portion of the viewing area; i.e., the effect of the white background on the color values is less for small holes than for larger ones. Hence, for small holes, the transformed color values do not vary significantly from those of knots and splits. Also, several holes were surrounded by dark-colored wood. The dark material tended to nullify the effect of the white background of the hole, causing the hole to be classified as similar in appearance to the knots and splits.

Although defect type classification was successful for the $\frac{1}{2}$-inch port size, the combination of defect type-defect size classification was not successful. Discriminate analyses placed most of the defects into the $\frac{1}{4}$- and $\frac{1}{8}$-inch categories contrary to the actual distribution of defect sizes, (Table 5). However, the large number of defects in these two size classes may have influenced the analysis. Further examination of classification of defects by size must include more examples of each of the size categories.

Use of one row and one column data points around a test point for sums of squares calculations provided the best defect detection results; use of two rows and columns did not improve the results. Use of all three color values distinguishes between defects and clear wood better than use of any of the color values alone. The conclusion is that size of defect cannot be determined with accuracy with this color measurement technique without improvement in either equipment or method.

In order to compare the accuracy of identification of defect type and defect size for the two port sizes, additional color information was collected on seven veneer samples with a $\frac{1}{4}$-inch viewing port. The same procedure was used except, of course, that the $\frac{1}{4}$-inch port produced data for greatly reduced areas. It was found that defects could not be separated from clear wood with sufficient consistency to allow defect detection based upon $L$, $a$, or $b$ color values. This result is no different from that found for the $\frac{1}{2}$-inch port. Logarithmic transformations performed on the sums of squares of the color values reduced the variability of the values, but still produced no usable trends. Paired $t$-tests of the mean differences of the
logarithms of the sums of squares for one row and one column around the defect indicated that only the lightness-darkness ($L$) data can be used to detect defects with any accuracy (significant at the 0.05 level of probability). Using two row and two column data showed a significant difference between defected areas and clear wood areas for the yellowness-blue-whiteness ($b$) data only. It was concluded that for defect detection the 2-inch port size is definitely preferred. Again, the relatively small number of defects studied in the sample could have influenced the results.

**SUMMARY**

In conclusion, a colorimeter measures color consistently over the period of time required to collect color data on black walnut veneer sheets, and the repeatability of the color measurements eliminates equipment and methodology variation as a factor affecting data collection and analysis. It appears that in so far as veneer sheet color and degree of color uniformity are concerned, between grade differences are not discernible; walnut veneer sheets of the same grade exhibit considerable variation in color. It is apparent that colorimetry can offer grading/segregation improvements if suitable, specialized equipment becomes available; however, the need for final human judgment in classifying and assessing monetary value of veneer will be required. Colorimetry techniques can readily evaluate and quantify sapwood-heartwood proportions. This could, conceivably, be linked to a clipper to advantage. Colorimetry techniques can also detect the presence of defects with reasonable consistency. Defect size classification, however, needs more investigation. Colorimetry techniques require relatively expensive equipment at this time and operate rather slowly. It is anticipated that cost and speed problems can be overcome in time by equipment manufacturer research. The potential advantages of these techniques include automation, increased accuracy in grading (repeatability), numerical evaluation and comparison of flitch and/or sheet grades, and the ability to measure every sheet in a flitch to obtain a true flitch quality profile for high-valued species.

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