PROPERTIES OF VENEER AND VENEER-BASED PRODUCTS FROM GENETICALLY IMPROVED WHITE SPRUCE PLANTATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the suitability of genetically improved fast-growing and short-rotation plantations for veneer-based products. The materials came from a 36-year-old white spruce (Picea glauca) half-sib progeny/provenance trial located in two regions (sites) of Quebec. A total of 270 sample trees were collected for the study, 130 trees from St-Ignace in the Gaspé Region and 140 trees from Valcartier near Quebec City. Veneer from the Valcartier site had a mean wood density of 0.353 g/cm³ and a mean modulus of elasticity (MOE) of 9.48 GPa (1.375 million psi). Veneer from the St-Ignace site had a mean wood density of 0.345 g/cm³ and a mean MOE of 8.05 GPa (1.167 million psi). The differences in veneer wood density and MOE between the two sites were statistically significant. Compared to other Canadian species commonly used for veneer products, the genetically improved fast-growing and short-rotation white spruce yielded considerably lower veneer stiffness.

The plantation-grown white spruce veneer from both sites was knotty. Ninety-eight percent of the veneer was classified as visual grade C. The visually graded veneer would be suitable for sheathing grade plywood. With proper stress grading, 14% of the white spruce veneer was suitable for 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade laminated veneer lumber (LVL), and another 24% of the veneer was suitable for a lower 10.34 GPa (1.5 million psi) grade of LVL, or as core plies for LVL manufacture. The remaining 62% of the stress-graded veneer was suitable for sheathing grade plywood.

Keywords: White spruce, plantations, genetic improvement, veneer properties, end uses.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, tree breeding programs across Canada have been focused on tree growth. With the worldwide move towards intensive silviculture and shorter rotation, wood and wood product quality coming out of this changing resource has become a concern for the wood products industry. In recent years, efforts have been made to address this concern in major tree breeding programs in Canada. So far, the focus has been placed almost exclusively on a few basic wood characteristics, especially wood density (Zhang and Morgenstern 1995).
It is well known to wood scientists that different end uses have different wood quality requirements. As an index of cell-wall materials, wood density is a very important wood quality attribute as it is closely related to pulp yield. For lumber, higher wood density is usually associated with higher strength; but lumber stiffness is, to a lesser extent, related to wood density (Tsehaye et al. 1995; Zhang 1997). For other end uses, higher density wood does not necessarily mean a higher quality end product. Even for lumber, Forintek’s study on balsam fir revealed that while wood density decreased by only 5% in the intensively thinned stands, lumber strength and stiffness were reduced by as much as 20% (Zhang et al. 1998). On the other hand, a negative correlation between growth and wood density in most softwood species prevents tree breeders from even incorporating this easy-to-measure wood quality parameter into tree breeding programs. Therefore, it is necessary to examine end-product quality directly instead of intermediate wood traits like wood density.

White spruce (Picea glauca [Moench] Voss) is one of the most important commercial species in Canada (Farrar 1995). This species is used for lumber, pulp and paper, and veneer-based and other solid wood products. White spruce, because of its commercial value, is one of the most important reforestation species in Canada. Each year, more than 150,000 ha of white and black spruce plantations are established in Canada (Canadian Council of Forest Ministers 1996). White spruce breeding programs have been established across eastern Canada since the 1960s. These breeding programs have been focused on tree growth, whereas end-use wood quality attributes have not been considered in the selection. A few studies have examined the genetic variation of wood density and fiber length in this species (Caron 1980; Taylor et al. 1982; Beaulieu and Corriveau 1985; Corriveau et al. 1987; Corriveau et al. 1991; Yanchuk and Kiss 1993) and reported that these basic wood quality attributes are under moderate to strong genetic control. However, no genetic study has examined the quality attributes of major end products. In collaboration with the Canadian Forest Service, a major project has been initiated to examine the quality attributes of major end products (e.g. lumber, veneer, pulp) and to investigate the impact of tree genetic variation, growth, and basic wood characteristics on these end products. Also, little is known about the end-use potential of the genetically improved white spruce plantations while superior growth performance has been achieved (Beaulieu and Corriveau 1985; Corriveau et al. 1987; Zhou and Smith 1991). Knowledge of the genetic variations of end-product quality traits and their correlations with growth and basic wood characteristics will help incorporate product quality attributes into growth-based white spruce breeding programs.

The present study, as part of a larger project, focuses on veneer and veneer-based products. Based on the oldest white spruce progeny trial, this study has examined major quality attributes of veneer and veneer-based products to evaluate the suitability of the genetically improved white spruce for veneer and veneer-based end uses. Other studies report on wood and pulp properties (Duchesne and Zhang 2003), lumber properties (Zhang et al. 2003), and wood decay resistance (Yu et al. 2003).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

In the spring of 1969, 4-year-old seedlings grown at the Petawawa Research Forest, Ontario, Canada (Lat. 45° 59’ N; Long. 77° 24’ W; Elev. 168 m) were used to establish a provenance/progeny test replicated at two sites in Québec. These sites were located at the Valcartier Forest Experiment Station (Lat. 46° 50’ N; Long. 71° 30’ W; Elev. 150 m) and at the Lake St. Ignace Arboretum (Lat. 49° 00’ N; Long. 66° 20’ W; Elev. 500 m). Both sites were abandoned farmlands. The surface deposit at Valcartier is a well-drained sand along the Jacques-Cartier River, while at St. Ignace, it is a shaly till with presence of boulders. The seedlings came from 40 open-pollinated families representing 8 natural populations from the Ottawa River Valley, in Ontario. The experimental lay-
out was a randomized complete block design with four blocks. Each row plot contained thirteen trees at 1.8-x 1.8-m spacing. Cultural treatment of both trials consisted of stem–pruning to a height of 2 m in 1986.

In the fall of 2001, the provenance-progeny test plot was thinned, and one tree per plot was retained to carry out a research project on the genetics of wood products in white spruce. A total of 270 trees from 36 families were harvested, i.e. 140 trees at Valcartier, and 130 at St. Ignace. Each sample tree was further crosscut into two 2.5-m-long logs and transported to Forintek Canada Corp. facilities (Sainte-Foy, Quebec). A 20-cm-disc was collected from the bottom of the second log of each tree to perform decay resistance tests and to estimate wood density and average ring width. Sections 35.5 cm (14 in.) long were cut from each tree at a height of (2.4 m) 8 ft and shipped to the Western Laboratory of Forintek Canada Corp. in Vancouver, BC. for veneer manufacture. Because of wood requirements for the lumber manufacturing part of the overall study, the veneer blocks were taken from a section of the stem immediately above the pruned portion of the trees. Diameters for the veneer blocks ranged from approximately 15.2 to 25.4 cm (6 to 10 in.).

A pie-shaped sample was cut from each fresh disc and weighed immediately. Each sample was then oven-dried at 103°C (217°F) until a constant oven-dry weight was attained. Basic wood density of each sample was calculated as the oven-dry weight divided by the green volume. The green volume of each sample was determined by the water immersion method following the ASTM D 2395 standard (method B). Average ring width or annual diameter growth was calculated for each tree as the disc diameter divided by the number of total rings in the disc at 2.4-m height.

**Veneer manufacture**

At the Vancouver laboratory, bark was removed from each log section by hand. Immediately prior to peeling, logs were conditioned in 45–50°C (113–122°F) water for a minimum of 4 h. Veneer was peeled on the Forintek mini-lathe. Green veneer thickness was 3.30 mm (0.130 in.). Veneer was peeled using optimum lathe settings determined in earlier peeling studies of white spruce carried out on the mini-lathe using a smooth roller bar (Dai and Wang 2001).

**Veneer property evaluation**

Four pieces of veneer were sampled from each veneer ribbon to represent the quality of veneer going from the outside of each log to the core. The four samples from each veneer ribbon were: 1) one piece from the outside of the log designated “sap,” 2) pieces from the section of veneer ribbon between the sap and core designated “heart,” and 3) one piece from the inside of the log next to the core designated “core.” Veneer samples measured 355 mm (14 in.) long by approximately 355 mm wide. A total of 503 pieces were sampled from the St-Ignace logs and 579 from the Valcartier logs. The total number of veneer samples was slightly lower than 4 per log section because a few veneer ribbons were not long enough to recover four samples. Veneer sheets were dried in a forced air oven at 80°C (176°F) until a moisture content of 3 to 5% was reached. Dry veneer sheets were stored in plastic bags to maintain moisture content and to equilibrate them to uniform moisture content before the various measurements were taken.

Each dry veneer sheet was weighed, and thickness was measured in nine places, length in three places, and width in three places in order to determine veneer density. Veneer sheets were weighed to the nearest 0.01 g, and thickness,
length, and width were measured to the nearest 0.1 mm. Veneer roughness was measured visually using a comparative scale developed by Forintek where 0 equals perfectly smooth veneer and 9 equals the very roughest veneer. The number of knots in each veneer sample was counted and tallied. Knot size was not measured because with the age and size of the trees nearly all knots were sound and 25-mm diameter or smaller measured in the dimension across the grain.

Veneer sheets were visually graded “A,” “B,” or “C” based on the size and number of knots, roughness, splits, pitch pockets, and other defects as outlined in CSA Standard 0151 (Canadian Standards Association 1978).

Stress wave propagation times were measured for each piece using a Metrigard stress wave timer in order to determine the dynamic modulus of elasticity (MOE). A total of 10 individual stress wave times were measured for each veneer piece at 25-mm (1 in.) intervals across the width of the piece. MOE for each veneer piece was calculated from the mean value of the 10 individual stress wave times. The dynamic MOE of the veneer was calculated by:

$$\text{MOE} = \frac{C_T C_M v^2 d}{g}$$

(1)

where $v$ is the stress wave velocity, which equals the measured span divided by the stress (ultrasonic) wave propagation time, $d$ the veneer mass density, and $g$ the gravity acceleration. $C_T$ and $C_M$ are calibration coefficients for temperature and moisture content, respectively (Metrigard 1998). From formula 1, both stress wave velocity and density have significant positive effects on veneer MOE (Dai and Wang 2000).

**Stress grading**

Veneer was stress graded into three grades based on the dynamic MOE measured for each piece, using Forintek VGrader® (Veneer Grading Optimizer) software (Wang 2001). Grades were assigned as follows. Grade G1 veneer was set to have an average MOE of 11.59 GPa (1.68 million psi), which pressed at normal compression levels would produce 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade laminated veneer lumber (LVL). Grade G2 veneer was set to have an average MOE of 10.07 GPa (1.46 million psi), which pressed at normal compression levels would produce 10.34 GPa (1.5 million psi) grade LVL. Grade G3 was set to include all remaining veneer that did not meet the requirements of grades G1 or G2.

**RESULTS**

Veneer properties for the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites are summarized in Table 1.

**Veneer density**

Wood density values for veneer from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites are shown in Table 2. Overall mean veneer density from the two sites was 0.349 gm/cm³. Mean density of veneer from the Valcartier site (0.353 g/cm³) was higher than for that from the St-Ignace site (0.345 g/cm³). The difference in wood density between veneers from the two sites was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Veneer density decreased from sap to core in samples from both sites (Fig. 1). Figure 2 shows that densities of veneers from both sites varied greatly, ranging from 0.275 to 0.455 kg/cm³.

**Veneer modulus of elasticity**

MOE values for veneer from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites are shown in Table 2. Overall mean MOE for samples from the two sites was 8.83 GPa (or 1.28 million psi). Mean veneer MOE from the Valcartier site (9.48 GPa or 1.375 million psi) was higher than for that from the St-Ignace site (8.05 GPa or 1.167 million psi). The difference in veneer MOE between the two sites was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Following the pattern observed for veneer density, MOE decreased from sap to core in veneers from both sites (Fig. 3). Like wood density, veneer MOE of samples from both sites also varied greatly, ranging from 0.63 to 2.26 million psi (Fig. 4). In addition, Fig. 4 shows that veneer samples from the Valcartier site had a signifi-
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Stand</th>
<th>Stress grade</th>
<th>Volume (%)</th>
<th>Number of sheets</th>
<th>Sap, heart and core</th>
<th>Sheet breakdown (ratio*)</th>
<th>Roughness grade</th>
<th>Density (g/cm³)</th>
<th>UPT (µs)</th>
<th>MOE (10⁶ psi)</th>
<th>Number of knots</th>
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<td>Sap 49 (37.4%)</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.390 0.025</td>
<td>45.4 0.90</td>
<td>1.77 0.143</td>
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<td>Heart 73 (55.7%)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.365 0.028</td>
<td>45.4 0.69</td>
<td>1.66 0.140</td>
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<td>Core 9 (6.9%)</td>
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<td>Heart 100 (55.2%)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.353 0.029</td>
<td>47.7 0.70</td>
<td>1.45 0.126</td>
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<td>Core 31 (17.1%)</td>
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<td>Sap 42 (15.7%)</td>
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<td>Heart 130 (48.7%)</td>
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<td>0.341 0.027</td>
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<td>Core 95 (35.6%)</td>
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<td>0.322 0.027</td>
<td>53.4 3.53</td>
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<td>Sap 2 (11.1%)</td>
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<td>0.365 0.027</td>
<td>45.4 1.00</td>
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<td>Heart 10 (55.6%)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.358 0.032</td>
<td>45.8 0.45</td>
<td>1.60 0.135</td>
<td>2.8</td>
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<td>Core 6 (33.3%)</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0.353 0.043</td>
<td>45.2 1.45</td>
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<td>Sap 10 (12.0%)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.388 0.031</td>
<td>47.6 0.75</td>
<td>1.60 0.139</td>
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<td>Heart 39 (47.0%)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.353 0.029</td>
<td>47.7 0.70</td>
<td>1.45 0.126</td>
<td>3.8</td>
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<td>Core 34 (41.0%)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.330 0.031</td>
<td>48.0 0.76</td>
<td>1.34 0.147</td>
<td>3.9</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sap 111 (27.6%)</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>0.352 0.028</td>
<td>52.8 4.04</td>
<td>1.20 0.195</td>
<td>4.6</td>
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<td>Heart 207 (51.5%)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.343 0.027</td>
<td>54.7 4.55</td>
<td>1.09 0.195</td>
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<td>Core 84 (20.9%)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.336 0.027</td>
<td>56.5 5.43</td>
<td>1.01 0.201</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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* Expressed as number of sheets and percentage of sheets of that stress grade coming from sap, heart and core sections of the veneer ribbon.
cantly higher MOE than did those from the St-Ignace site, although the difference in wood density is not highly evident (Fig. 2). Knot size and placement would also have an influence on veneer (MOE). Knot size, numbers, and distribution patterns were similar for the two sites (Fig. 8), so much of the MOE difference between the sites was likely a result of the difference in wood density.

MOE is a function of both wood density and UPT (ultrasonic propagation time) as shown previously in Eq. (1). MOE is a key veneer performance property in plywood and LVL constructions, whereas UPT can be considered of intermediate importance in determining MOE. As expected, UPT was shorter for the Valcartier veneer, which had higher MOE and density, than for the St-Ignace veneer (Table 2). The differences in UPT between samples from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites were statistically significant (p < 0.001).

Veneer thickness

Veneer thickness results for samples from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites are shown in
Fig. 5, while Fig. 6 shows the combined veneer thickness distribution determined from both sites. There were no significant differences in veneer thickness among the 3 sampling positions (from sap to core in the veneer ribbons) or between the two sites.

**Veneer roughness**

Veneer roughness data for samples from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites are shown in Fig. 7. Veneer from both sites had average roughness values in the 2.6 to 2.7 range on the visual scale where 0 equals perfectly smooth veneer, and 9 equals the very roughest veneer. There was little difference in veneer roughness between the outer sapwood and the inner core of the logs. Veneer roughness values for white spruce veneer from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites were similar to values measured for other Canadian softwood species used for sheathing plywood.

**Veneer stress grading**

Stress grade data summarized in Table 3 show that 14% of the veneer sheets were classified as grade G1, 24% as grade G2, and 62% as grade G3. Grade G1 veneer was set to produce 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade LVL when pressed at normal product compression levels. Grade G2 veneer was set to produce 10.34 GPa (1.5 million psi) grade LVL when pressed at normal product compression levels. Grade G3 was set to include all remaining veneer that did not meet the requirements of grades G1 or G2. Grade G1 had the highest veneer density at 0.369 g/cm³, followed by grade G2 at 0.353 g/cm³ and grade G3 at 0.340 g/cm³.

**Veneer visual grading**

Visual grading data summarized in Table 4 show that 1.1% of the veneer was classified as visual grade A, 0.6% as visual grade B, and the remaining 98% as visual grade C. Visual grade

| Table 2. Family mean (± standard error), range and coefficient of variation (CV) for veneer properties and selected basic wood characteristics of the white spruce plantations at Valcartier and St-Ignace. |
|-----------------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Characters                                   | Mean            | Range         | CV (%)          | Mean            | Range         | CV (%)          |
| Veneer density (kg/m³)                       | 345.11 ± 29.7   | 290–423       | 8.61            | 353.65 ± 36.0   | 284–424       | 10.2            |
| Veneer MOE (10⁶ psi)                         | 1.17 ± 0.25     | 0.59–1.83     | 121.55          | 1.38 ± 0.28     | 0.86–1.87     | 20.15           |
| Veneer roughness                             | 2.61 ± 0.01     | 2.3–3.25      | 6.30            | 2.66 ± 0.04     | 1.8–4.85      | 15.61           |
| Veneer knot frequency (knots/sheet)          | 4.80 ± 0.23     | 0–12          | 54.99           | 4.44 ± 0.23     | 0–12          | 61.55           |
| Basic wood density (kg/m³)                   | 325.21 ± 2.69   | 269–404       | 9.17            | 329.89 ± 2.28   | 267–412       | 8.21            |
| Ring width (mm)                              | 5.41 ± 0.07     | 3.10–7.50     | 15.12           | 4.37 ± 0.05     | 2.90–5.80     | 14.73           |

Data on the number of knots per sample sheet for the Valcartier and St-Ignace veneers are shown in Fig. 8. Sample veneer sheets that measured approximately 355 × 355 mm (14 × 14 in.) typically contained between 4 and 6 knots. Diameters of most knots were 25 mm (1 in.) or smaller measured across the grain, and most knots were tight. As might be expected, the number of knots increased from the outer sap to the core. If the trees had been older so more natural pruning had taken place, or if the trees had been pruned to the height where the veneer samples were taken, larger differences in the number of knots between the sap and core would have been expected.
A had a mean MOE of 8.62 GPa (1.25 million psi), visual grade B a mean MOE of 8.00 GPa (1.16 million psi), and visual grade C a mean MOE of 8.83 GPa (1.28 million psi). Visual grading was not able to separate the veneer in terms of its structural capabilities.

**DISCUSSION**

White spruce veneer peeled from the 36-year-old Valcartier and St-Ignace sites would generally be considered as knotty and low density.

**FIG. 4.**—Veneer MOE distributions for Valcartier and St-Ignace samples.

**FIG. 5.**—Thickness of veneer from 3 log positions (from sap to core).

**FIG. 6.**—Veneer thickness distribution for combined Valcartier and St-Ignace sites.
When visually graded, 98% of the veneer was classified as grade C, suitable for sheathing grade plywood, either as core or face. When stress graded, 14% could be considered as suitable for 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade LVL. Another 24% was suitable for either core material in 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade LVL or for a lower 10.34 GPa (1.5 million psi) grade LVL. The remaining 62% appeared to be best suited for sheathing grade plywood, either as core or face. Silvicultural regimes with natural or artificial pruning would help to improve the visual grade of the Quebec spruce. Pruning would also be expected to have a positive effect on stress grade, but MOE values of the veneer would likely remain low because the basic wood density would remain low.

Compared to other Canadian species commonly used for veneer products, the genetically improved, fast-growing, and short-rotation white spruce veneer had lower wood density. The density difference between the genetically improved spruce and naturally grown spruce from British Columbia was marginal (Fig. 10). The 36-year-old plantation-grown white spruce veneer had a considerably lower MOE than BC spruce (Fig. 11). The B.C.-grown spruce in the Forintek Canada Corp. database represents a mixture of natural and mature stands of white spruce and Engelmann spruce (Picea engelmannii Parry),
typically harvested at ages in excess of 200 years. Therefore, it would appear that low wood density, numerous knots, and a high juvenile wood content contribute to the low MOE in the genetically improved short-rotation white spruce. Density and MOE values for the genetically improved spruce were lower than those for Canadian grown Douglas fir and aspen.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Veneer peeled from the unpruned Valcartier and St-Ignace white spruce was knotty, and 98% of the veneer was classified as visual grade C. This visually graded veneer would be suitable for sheathing grade plywood.
2. Stress grading showed that 14% of the white spruce veneer was suitable for 12.41 GPa (1.8 million psi) grade of LVL; another 24% of the veneer was suitable for a lower 10.34 GPa (1.5 million psi) grade of LVL or core plies for LVL manufacture; and the remaining 62% was suitable for sheathing grade plywood.
3. Veneer from the Valcartier site was significantly denser and had higher MOE than veneer from the St-Ignace site.
4. White spruce veneer from the Valcartier and St-Ignace sites had lower density and MOE compared with other Canadian species commonly used for veneer products.

A manufacturer considering processing plantation-grown white spruce for veneer products would be advised to carry out an evaluation of veneer properties to estimate the volumes of veneer that: a) are suitable for sheathing plywood, and b) can be extracted for higher value LVL applications by stress grading the veneer. Forest managers should consider the potential benefits of artificial pruning or different planting spacing to achieve natural pruning, as well as a longer rotation age to allow the veneer to achieve higher visual and stress grades.

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